ATTACHMENT 1

TO

NSD920243

COOPER NUCLEAR STATION NRC DOCKET NO. 50-298, DPR-46

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N131-1189

Nebraska Public Power District DESIGN CALCULATIONS COVER SHEET

NPP1-SB0-009 System/Structure EE Component NA Classification: Essential Inon-Essential Image: Classification		Supersedes Calc. No. <u>87-17-89</u> Task Identification No. <u>NA</u> Design Change No. <u>NA</u> Discipline <u>Electrical</u> *ASME Stress reports shall be approved by Registered P.E.		
Non-Essential NPPD Generated Calculation Prepared By Date Checked By Date Design Verification By Date Approved By Date		Non NPPD Generated Calculation Prepared By ENERCON (Company) NPPD Reviewed By J. Hooking NPPD Approval Auc Enclu	Date <u>1-7-92</u> Date <u>2-21-92</u> Date <u>2-24-92</u>	
Calc. Description Utilizes existing CNS Site and	weather from	the National Sev	ihe ere	

storm Forecast Center (NSSFC) to determine the SW and ESW Groups for CNS and provide justification that the NUMARC 87-00 values are not applicable to CNS.

Design Basis or References:	Attachments:
1. USAR _ VOI J, II. 3.0	A. NPP1-580-009 W/Att.
2. TECH. SPECS NA	В

Rev. No.	Revision Description	Prepared By/Date	Checked or Reviewed By/Date (Circle One)	Design Verification/Date	Approved By/Date

NEDC 92-^23, Rev. 0	Sheet 1 of 3
NON-NPPD GENERATED CALCULATION:	
PREPARED BY: ENERCON	DATE: 1-7-92
REVIEWED BY: J. Hackney	DATE: 2-21-92

NEDC 92-023 "REVIEW OF ENERCON CALCULATION NPP1-SB0-009, REV. 0"

A. PURPOSE

This NEDC utilizes existing weather data taken at the CNS site and from the National Severe Storm Forecast Center (NSSFC) to determine the SW and ESW groups for CNS and provide justification that the NUMARC values 87-00 values are not applicable to CNS.

B. <u>REQUIREMENTS</u>

- Court, Arnold, "Some New Statistical Techniques in Geophysics", Statistical Laboratory, University of California at Berkeley, circa 1951. This is listed as Attachment 1 to this NEDC.
- 2) Simiu, Emil, and Robert H. Scanlan, Excerpts from <u>Wind</u> <u>Effects on Structures</u>, Second Edition, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1986. This is listed as Attachment 2 to this NEDC.
- 3) Cooper Nuclear Station Site Specific Wind Speed Data. This is listed as Attachment 3 to this NEDC.
- 4) Variation of Wind Speed with Elevation (Attachment 4 to this NEDC).
- 5) Summary of Probability Plot Correlation Coefficient (PPCC) Method, listed as Attachment 5 to this NEDC.
- 6) NSSFC Program 'TORPLOT' Output for CNS, listed as Attachment 6 to this NEDC.

C. ASSUMPTIONS

- The data provided by the NSSFC is assumed to be correct and the computer calculations provided are performed correctly.
- 2) The wind speed data provided to ENERCON by NPPD is correct.

NEDC 92-023, Rev. 0	Sheet 2 of 3		
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PREPARED BY: ENERCON	DATE: <u>1-7-92</u>		
REVIEWED BY: J. tockney	DATE: 2-21-92		

3) Court's technique and Simiu's technique beth employ Type I distributions for description of the CMA wind speed database, which provides the optimum fit at most weather stations and is considered reasonable to assume an appropriate method.

D. METHODOLOGY

- 1) This calculation employs extreme value statistical methods to estimate the maximum wind speeds at CNS based on the existing site-specific database. The calculation first follows the extreme value statistical methods developed by Arnold Court and Simiu.
- 2) Data at the 10-meter elevation will be used for most of the calculations and are considered the reference basis. Missing data at the 10-meter elevation was completed by using data at other elevations and correcting (transpositioning) to the 10-meter elevation. The 10meter data was conservatively used to determine the probability of occurrence of winds at the 30 meter elevation without transpositioning the data to the 30meter elevation.
- Simiu's technique for predicting extreme values of wind was used as a second check for the Court Method with similar results.
- 4) In order to verify that the Type I distribution is appropriate for characterization of the CNS wind speed database, the probability plot correlation coefficient (PPCC) method has made used to determine the best fitting distribution. This evaluation indicates that the Type I distribution is correct.

E. CONCLUSIONS

- Court's method resulted in a probability of 6.7803E-8 /yr, which places CNS in ESW Group 1.
- Court's method resulted in a h₃ of 1.012E-3/yr, which places CNS in SW Group 2.

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NON-NPPD GENERATED CALCULATION:	
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REVIEWED BY: J. Hackey	DATE: 2-21-92

- 3) Using the 'TORPLOT' data provided by the NSSFC, the probability of tornado occurrence is $2.357*10^{\circ}$ event per year, giving a $h_2 = 2.357*10^{\circ}$ yr for use in the CNS severe weather evaluation.
- 4) The Simiu's method resulted in a probability of 3.264E-8 /yr, which places CNS in the ESW Group 1.
- 5) The Simiu's method resulted in a h₃ of 7.0954E-04 yr', which places CNS is SW Group 2.
- 6) The PPCC method resulted in a probability of 1.200E-5 /yr, which place CNS in ESW Group 1.
- 7) The PPCC method resulted in a h₃ of 4.528E-04, which places CNS in SW Group 2.
- 8) The error analysis, discussed in Section 7, indicates a very high confidence that the extreme values calculated are conservative.
- 9) Using Table 3-5a of NUMARC 87-00, the combination of weather groups ESW1 and SW2 indicates that CNS is a 'P1" plant.
- 10) The methodology used in this NEDC is correctly used and the results have been correctly calculated. It is concluded from the values generated in this NEDC, the CNS minimum allowable EDG target availability is 0.950.

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CALCULATION NPP1-SB0-009

COOPER NUCLEAR STATION (CNS) SITE-SPECIFIC WEATHER DATA EVALUATION FOR STATION BLACKOUT (SBO)

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REVIEWER'S STATEMENT

This calculation was reviewed in detail and was found to be complete and accurate. The conclusions were found to reasonable and justified. Major portions of the review consisted of the following:

1. References were reviewed for proper citation. Referenced equations were reviewed and found to be correct regarding their appropriate use and accuracy of transposition into this document.

2. The methodology and assumptions were reviewed and found to be both reasonable, appropriately implemented, and conservative. All numeric calculations were verified. Specifically, the following items are noted:

All CNS weather data base monthly extreme wind speed values listed in Table 1 were cross-checked against the original CNS documentation and no errors were found. Editing of the data base followed appropriate methodology and the calculations were correct. The mean and standard deviation of the set of monthly extreme wind speed values were independently calculated and found to be correct.

- References in this calculation to Court's technique for extreme wind values (documentation in Attachment 1) were reviewed. The criteria for the use of Court's technique for extreme wind values were met, and the numerical calculations were found to be correct. The conclusions regarding the CNS station blackout weather groups were deemed to be accurate.

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REVIEWER'S STATEMENT

- The use of NSSFC tornado data was considered to be consistent with NRC
- methodology in NUREG-1032, and appropriately used in this calculation.
- References in this calculation to Simiu's technique for extreme wind values (documentation in Attachment 2) were reviewed. The criteria for the use of Simiu's technique for predicting extreme wind values were met, and the resulting numerical calculations and conclusions regarding the
- CNS station blackout weather groups were found to be correct.
- The PPCC methodology documented in Attachment 5 was reviewed and considered appropriately applied in this calculation, demonstrating that the CNS data is fitted by a type I distribution.
- The evaluation determining the level of confidence in the CNS ESW and SW weather group categories is appropriate.
- The reviewer agrees with the conclusion that the CNS minimum allowable EDG target reliability is 0.950.

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OBJECTIVE

The purpose of this calculation is to evaluate the Cooper Nuclear Station (CNS) site-specific weather database and estimate the extreme wind values for various return periods. The results will be used to evaluate the CNS weather groupings for determination of the requisite emergency diesel generator (EDG) reliability, according to the criteria of NUMARC 87-00, RG 1.155 and the Station Blackout (SBO) Rule, 10CFR50.63.

This calculation supersedes calculation NPP1-SB0-005, since more rigorous techniques will be used to estimate the extreme wind values.

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CALCULATION OVERVIEW - This calculation involves the following principal steps:

- 1. A brief introduction is provided.
- 2. Highlights of the analytical methodology are presented.
- 3. The CNS wind speed database is presented. Preparatory to application of extreme value statistical methods, the mean and standard deviation of the data are calculated.
- 4. Court's method is applied to the CNS data. Extreme winds are calculated for various return periods. The CNS station blackout weather groups are determined. Tornado data in the vicinity of CNS are presented.
- Similar to item 4, Simiu's technique is applied to the CNS data to determine the extreme winds and the SBO weather groups.
- 6. Both Simiu's technique and Court's method employ a Type I distribution to fit the CNS data. The Probability Plot Correlation Coefficient (PPCC) method is used to establish that a Type I distribution indeed provides the best fit.
- 7. The level of confidence in the weather group determination is addressed.
- The CNS emergency diesel generator target reliability is established, based on NUMARC 87-00 methods and the CNS weather group determination.
- 9. A brief summary is provided. References, tables and the necessary attachments complete the document.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Using the methods outlined in Chapter 3 of NUMARC 87-00 (Reference 1), weather data, power grid design, availability of emergency alternating current (EAC) power supplies, and diesel generator test data all factor into the required SBO coping duration and the target EDG reliability. Both of these have been determined for CNS. As documented in Reference 2, the required coping duration is 4 hours, and the target EDG reliability is 0.95.

Weather data factor into the above determinations. As noted in Reference 2, the CNS severe weather (SW) group and the extremely severe weather (ESW) group were previously determined to be 'SW2' and 'ESW1', respectively. This resulted in an offsite power (OSP) design characteristic group of P1.

The CNS Station Blackout Safety Evaluation Report (Reference 3) was issued in August of 1991. In the SER, the 'SW' and 'ESW' classifications were challenged, the result being that the OSP grouping and the target EDG reliability for CNS were also questioned by the NRC. The staff recommended that:

"The licensee should use data provided in the NUMARC 87-00, i.e., severe weather (SW) group "3" and extremely severe weather (ESW) group "3", or provide further justification to demonstrate that the NUMARC values are not applicable to Cooper Nuclear Station. In lieu of the above, the licensee should provide additional plant specific weather data to include the extreme weather conditions in support of its ESW and SW group classifications."

In Reference 4, the Nebraska Public Power District (NPPD, or the 'District') committed in its initial response to the SER to:

"revise the existing Cooper Nuclear Station (CNS) plant specific weather calculation to further support our SW and ESW group classifications."

Since CNS has a meteorological tower and over 16 years of data, it is appropriate to use the site-specific weather data rather than the NUMARC 87-00 values.

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Using CNS data and methods of extreme value statistics, the weather data groupings, the OSP design characteristic and the target EDG reliability will be developed in this calculation to meet the above commitment.

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2.0 METHODOLOGY

This calculation employs extreme value statistical methods to estimate the maximum wind speeds at CNS based on the existing sitespecific database. Two primary methods are followed, both of which use a Type I exponential distribution to describe the CNS wind speed data. These methods enable calculation of the frequency of occurrence of high winds. The frequency is then used to determine the CNS station blackout ESW and SW groups mentioned in Section 1.

Given a dataset consisting of 'N' extreme values, each one of which has itself been derived from a large number of observations, extreme value statistics provides a way to predict maximum or minimum values occurring outside of the recorded time interval for the data of interest. For example, suppose we have a dataset consisting of the maximum wind speeds at a given location over a 15-year period, and that we wish to estimate the peak wind speeds that would occur over a 100-year time period. References 5 and 6 outline methodology for making extrapolations to 100 years and beyond.

This calculation first follows the extreme value statistical methods developed by Arnold Court (Reference 5). Court's treatment is included herein as Attachment 1. Methods developed by Simiu (Reference 6) are also used, both to supplement Court's treatment and also as a cross-check. Excerpts from Simiu's work are provided in Attachment 2. The method which yields the more conservative extreme wind speeds is used for subsequent analysis, which includes a discussion of the confidence level in the extreme wind speeds, the return periods, and the CNS weather group determinations.

To ensure that a Type I distribution is indeed appropriate for CNS, the Probability Plot Correlation Coefficient (PPCC) method is used to identify the optimum distribution with which to fit the data. The PPCC method is explained in Attachment 5. Results obtained with the PPCC method are compared to those obtained from Simiu's and Court's procedures.

At CNS, a 16-year dataset of monthly extreme wind values has been compiled. From this dataset, the maximum wind speed for longer time periods will be calculated for purposes of the NUMARC 87-00 'SW' and 'ESW' group determinations. The CNS dataset is presented in the next section.

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3.0 CNS WIND SPEED DATABASE

The CNS wind speed database used in this calculation spans a 16year time period from 1975-1990. These data are provided in Attachment 3.

For each month, the daily average wind speed and the maximum hourly average are recorded for various elevations above the ground. The maximum hourly average wind speed is the parameter of interest here. This represents the maximum recorded hourly average wind speed for the entire month. For a 30-day month, this value is the maximum of 30x24 or 720 recordings. Hence, each monthly maximum is an extreme wind speed value which is based on a large number of observations.

Data at the 10-meter elevation will be used for most of the calculations herein and are considered the reference basis. Transposition of the data to other elevations will be performed as required, although the data at the 10-meter and 35-feet elevations will be used interchangeably without correction. As used herein, this is conservative.

Using the data in Attachment 3, the yearly maximum hourly average wind speeds for CNS are summarized in Table 1. The maximum for the 16-year time period is 40.1 mph.

3.1 Correction of Wind Speed Data to Other Elevations

It is possible to use wind speed data recorded at one elevation to determine the wind speed at another elevation. The procedure for doing so is explained in Attachment 4, which has been extracted from Reference 7. Repeating Eqn. 2.4.1 of Att. 4,

(1) U(z)	(2)	_	$\ln (z/z_0)$
	(2)		$\frac{1}{\ln (10/z_0)}$ 0(10), where
	z	=	height above ground (meters),
	Z ₀	=	roughness length (meters), and
	U	=	wind speed; $U(z)$ and $U(10)$ to be expressed in the same units

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Note that '10' meters could be replaced by another elevation since it is merely a reference point.

3.2 Editing of Database

The CNS weather database used herein spans 1975 to 1990. Hence, there are 16 \times 12, or 192 monthly extreme values of wind speed in this database.

From the tables in Attachment 3, it can be seen that data were not recorded at the 10-meter elevation for September 1979, nor for February, March and April of 1984. However, the dataset can be completed using the recordings at other elevations along with Equation (1).

Using Att. 3 for September of 1979, at 318 ft. (96.93 meters), Umax = 32.7 mph. From Equation (1),

$$U(10) = \frac{\ln (10/z_0)}{\ln (z/z_0)} * U(z)$$

Let z = 96.93 meters. Choose $z_0 = 0.05$ for the roughness length in open terrain, with confidence that the answer will be correct within 1 or 2%. (See Attachment 4). Then, the 10.67 meter (35 ft.) wind speed is

 $U(10) \cong U(10.67) = \frac{\ln(10.67/0.05)}{\ln(96.93/0.05)} * 32.7 \text{ mph} = 23.2 \text{ mph}$

Using a similar procedure for 1984, with z = 100 meters from Att. 3, yields the other data points:

	U(100)	<u>U(10)</u>
February 1984	46.0 mph	32.1 mph
March 1984	38.0	26.5 mph
April 1984	40.0	27.9 mph

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From Attachment 3, and including the four edited values, the CNS wind speed database is listed in Table 2 from 1975 to 1990.

3.3 Mean and Standard Deviation

(a)

The mean of the set of extreme wind values is 24.17 mph, calculated by summing the monthly values and dividing by 192. The mean is denoted by \overline{x} .

The standard deviation of the dataset is 5.314 mph, calculated according to

(2) S.D. =
$$\begin{cases} \frac{N}{\Sigma} (x_i - \overline{x})^2 \\ \frac{i=1}{N} \end{cases}$$
, where

 \times_{γ} is the i^{th} sample and N is the number of samples, 192 in this case. $^{(a)}$

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4.0 APPLICATION of COURT'S TECHNIQUE for EXTREME VALUES

In Sections 2.1 through 2.6 cf Attachment 1, Arnold Court reviews the theory of extreme values. Court notes that both the sample size, N, and the number of observations, n, should be large for the methods to be applicable. For the CNS weather database, N = 192, and n = 672 to 744, depending on the month being recorded. Hence, according to the criteria given on pages 61 and 62 of Attachment 1, enough wind speed data exist to enable meaningful application of the theory of extreme values.

In Section 2.10 of Attachment 1, an application of the extreme value theory dealing with wind speeds is provided. Following the procedure on 'Worksheet 2', page 73 of Attachment 1, and using Court's nomenclature, the expected values of extreme wind will be calculated for CNS.

As noted above, N = 192. From Table 2,

 \overline{x} = 24.171354 mph (the mean of the extremes) and s, = 5.314246 (the standard deviation).

Linearly interpolating in Table III (p.65) for N = 192 yields

 $\overline{y}_{\mu} = 0.5668$ (the reduced mean), and

 $T_{y} = 1.23428$ (the standard deviation of the theoretical variate).

Continuing according to Worksheet 2,

$$1/a = \frac{S_x}{T_n} = 4.30554$$
 and $\overline{y}_N \cdot 1/a = 2.44038$

The theoretical mode of the sample, u, is

 $\hat{x} = u = \bar{x} - (\bar{y}_{p} \cdot 1/a) = 21.73 \text{ mph}$

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The line of expected extremes can be developed from the theoretical mode. However, inspection of the sorted wind speed data extremes in Table 2 indicates that it is more conservative to use the actual mode of the dataset. By inspection of Table 2,

 $\hat{x} = 28 \text{ mph} = u.$

The line of expected extremes of wind speed 'x' is

 $(3b) x = u + (1/a \cdot y)$

28 + 4.30554 y (mph).

Here, y is the reduced variate, or the double natural logarithm of probability distribution function ϕ of the wind speed variable 'x', i.e.

(4) $y = -\ln[-\ln \phi(x)]$.

With Court's technique, for maximum values,

(5) $\phi(x) = \exp[-\exp(-a(x-x))]$, which amounts to using a Type I exponential distribution to describe the CNS wind speed.

From equation 2.10 of Att. 1, the return period, $\bar{T}_x,$ is

- (6a) $\overline{T}_x = 1/[1 \phi(x)]$, or
- (6b) $\phi(x) = 1 1/\overline{T}$,

Substituting (6b) into (4) yields

(7) $y = -\ln[-\ln(1 - 1/\overline{T}_{*})]$

Hence, given the return period, y is known, and the maximum wind speed follows directly from equation (3b).

Note also that the return period is related to the probability of occurrence 'p' by

 $(8) \quad \overline{T}_x = 1/p(x)$

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and that the probability of nonoccurrence is

(9) $q(x) = 1 - p(x) = \phi(x)$.

Based on the preceding discussion, the maximum wind speed for CNS can be tabulated for various return periods based on the site specific wind speed data.

Return Period \bar{T}_x	Probability of Nonoccurrence q(x)	Reduced Variate Y	Maximum Wind Speed X		
34 years*	0.971	3.51147	43.1 mph		
40 years	0.975	3.67625	43.8 mph		
50 years	0.98	3.90194	44.8 mph		
100 years	0.99	4.60015	47.8 mph		

The problem can also be worked in reverse. That is, given a maximum wind speed, the return period and hence the expected frequency of occurrence can be determined. This will be done in the next section of this calculation, in conjunction with the NUMARC 87-00 methods for determination of the ESW and SW group.

4.1 Extremely Severe Weather (ESW) Group

The ESW categories are listed in Table 3-1 of NUMARC 87-00. To determine the ESW Group, it is necessary to calculate the annual frequency of storms with sustained winds greater than or equal to 125 mph.

An elevation of 30 meters above the ground is representative of transmission line height. Using the logarithmic relationship, a wind speed of 125 mph at 30 meters is equivalent to 103.5 mph at 10 meters, i.e.

 $U(10) = \frac{\ln (10/0.05)}{\ln (30/0.05)} \times U(30) = 0.82826 \times 125 \text{ mph}$ = 103.5 mph

It will be conservative to use the 10-meter wind for the evaluation which follows.

* CNS plant design life.

		SHEET	17	
JOB NO.	NP-119	DAT'E	1/7/92	
PROJECT	CNS STA	TION BI	ACKOUT	the second se
SUBJECT	SITE-SP	ECIFIC	WEATHER	EVALUATION //
CLIENT	NPPD	ORI	GINATOR_	E. HOLCOMB
REVIEWE	R 1/2		APPROVEI)
CALCULAT	FION NO.	NPP1-S	BO-009	and president of the second number of the second section of the section

From equation 2.24 of Attachment 1, for large return periods,

(10) $\overline{T}_x = \exp \left[\overline{y}_N + (x - \overline{x}) (\sigma_N/S_x)\right]$

Let x = 103.5 mph as developed above. Using the parameters developed on sheet 13 in eqn. (10) above yields

 $\bar{T}_x = 1.7698E8$ months = 1.4749E7 years

from which

and

 $p = 1/\bar{T}_x = 6.7803E - 8 yr^{-1}$.

From Table 3-1 of NUMARC 87-00, noting that p << e < 3.3E-4, Court's method indicates that <u>CNS is in ESW Group 1.</u>

4.2 Severe Weather (SW) Group

Section 3.2.1, Part 1C of NUMARC 87-00 outlines the method to determine the estimated frequency 'f' of loss-of-offsite power due to severe weather, i.e.

(11) $f = (1.3 * 10^4) * h_1 + b * h_2 + (1.2 * 10^2) * h_3 + c * h_4$

where, for Cooper Nuclear Station,

$h_1 = 30$ inches	(Annual snowfall for CNS, from Table 3-3 of NUMARC 87-00
b = 12.5	(CNS has multiple rights-of-way)
h ₂ = 0.0002357	(Tornadoes of 'F2' severity, or greater, see Attachment 6 herein and Section 4.3 Delow)
c = 0.	(CNS has no vulnerability to salt spray)

In the CNS site-specific weather data evaluation, we seek to determine h_3 . As defined in NUMARC 87-00, h_3 is the annual expectation of storms for the site with wind velocities between 75 and 124 mph.

		SHEET	18		
JOB NO.	NP-119	DATE	1/7/92		
PROJEC'T	CNS STAT	TON BI	ACKOUT		
SUBJECT	SITE-SPI	CIFIC	WEATHER	EVALUATION	601
CLIENT	NPPD	ORI	GINATOR_	E. HOLCOMB	Est
REVIEWER	2 (15		APPROVED)	
CALCULAT	TION NO	NPP1-S	BO-009		

To evaluate h₃, select 75 mph as the cutoff. This is conservative, since storms with higher wind speeds are less frequent. It is further conservative to consider the 75 mph wind speed as occurring at 30 meters.

Using the logarithmic law as before and transposing to 10 meters,

U(10) = 0.82826 * U(30) = 0.82826 * 75 mph = 62.12 mph

Let x = 62.12 mph. Substitution as before in equation (10) yields

 $\bar{T}_{,}$ = 1.1857E4 months = 9.8811E2 years,

from which

 $p = 1.012 E-3 yr^{-1} = h_3$

Substitution into quation (11) gives

f = (1.3E-4) * 30 + 12.5 * 0.0002357 + 0.012 * 1.012E-3

= 6.858E-3 = 0.00686

From Table 3-4 of NUMARC 87-00, Court's method indicates that <u>CNS</u> is in SW Group 2.

4.3 CNS Tornado Data

To procure CNS site specific tornado data, the National Severe Storm Forecast Center (NSSFC) was contacted. The NSSFC has provided a computer output listing from Program TORPLOT, which summarizes all reported tornado activity in the site vicinity from 1950 through 1988. The subject computer output is presented in Attachment 6. The 'TORPLOT' evaluation area is a 2-degree square centered at CNS, i.e. at Brownville, Nebraska. The output lists data and time of storm occurrence, storm damage class, storm path length and width of touchdown, and other interesting information. 'TORPLOT' wind speed data are instantaneous, ground level winds. The instantaneous wind speed is assumed to apply over the entire evaluation quadrant. To assist in the interpretation of the 'TORPLOT' output, a tornado damage class scale is provided in Table 5. An excerpt from the 'TORPLOT' output is shown in Table 6.

			SHEET		/			
JOB NO	NP-1	19 1	DATE	1/7	/92			
PROJECT_	CNS	STAT	ION BI	ACK	OUT			
SUBJECT	SITE	-SPE	CIFIC	WEA	THER	EVA	LUAT	ION
CLIENT	NPPD		ORI	GIN	ATOR_	E .	HOLC	OMBER
REVIEWER	6	147		APP	ROVEL)(
CALCULAT	'ION'	NO	NPP1-S	BO-	009			

Appendix A of Reference 9 describes the methods used by the USNRC to develop loss-of-offsite power relationships. The methodology reported by the NRC is consistent with the 'TORPLOT' program, in which probabilities are assumed to apply uniformly across the 2-degree square, based on the available data. From the 'TORPLOT' output, the frequency of tornadoes of severity F2 or greater striking in the vicinity of the site is obtained. This frequency is assumed to apply anywhere within the site, i.e. the tornado is assumed to affect the switchyard or transformers if it strikes at all.

The NUMARC 87-00 evaluation criterion for SW conditions is the probability of tornado occurrence with wind speeds greater than or equal to 113 mph in the site vicinity.^(a) Referring to Table 6, and using the conservative evaluation criterion of 113 mph, the 'TORPLOT' database, which contains 68 events, indicates that the probability of tornado occurrence is $2.357*10^4$ events per year, for a mean severe storm return interval of 4243 years. Hence, $h_2 = 2.357*10^4$ yr⁻¹ for use in the CNS severe weather evaluation.

Note that power plant transmission systems are designed for wind speeds of 125 mph, based on the National Electric Safety Code.

(a)

		SHEET	20		
JOB NO.	NP-119	DATE 1/	7/92		
PROJECT	CNS STAT	ION BLAC	KOUT		
SUBJECT	SITE-SPE	CIFIC WE	ATHER	EVALUATION .	Ent
CLIENT	NPPD	ORIGI	NATOR_	E. HOLCOMB	H
REVIEWER	2 10-	AF	PROVED		
CALCULAT	TION NO.]	VPP1-SBC	0-009		

5.0 SIMIU'S TECHNIQUE for ESTIMATING MAXIMUM WIND SPEED

In Reference 6, Simiu discusses a technique for predicting extreme values of wind. Excerpts from Reference 6 are provided in Attachment 2. Repeating equation A1.74 of Ref. 6, and using Simiu's notation,

(12) $\hat{G}_x(p) = \ddot{X} + s(y-0.5772) \sqrt{6} / \pi$,

where X and s are the mean value and standard deviation, respectively, of the sample of the extreme wind values, y is the reduced variate, and $\hat{G}_{x}(p)$ is the estimated extreme value of wind for a given probability of nonoccurrence 'p'. The mean and standard deviation of the wind speed database have been calculated according to equations A1.72 and A1.73 of Attachment 2 and are listed in Table 2.

Choose a 100-year return period for comparison to the results in Section 4. Using the set of monthly extremes, $\bar{N} = 12 \times 100 = 1200$, and $y = -\ln \left[-\ln(1-1/\bar{N})\right] = 7.08966$. Using equation (12) and the monthly mean and standard deviation from Table 2 gives

 \hat{G}_X (p) = 24.17 + 5.314 (7.08966 - 0.5772) $\sqrt{6}/\pi$ = 51.15 mph

This compares reasonably well with the 100-year extreme of 47.8 mph calculated in Section 4, with Simiu's technique yielding a more conservative value by 7% compared to Court's method.

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JOB	NO.	NP-1	19 0	ATE	1/7	192			
PRO.	JECT_	CNS	STATI	ON BL	ACK	OUT			
SUB.	JECT_	SITE	-SPEC	IFIC	WEA	THER	EVALUA	TION	41
CLI	ENT	NPPD)	ORI	GIN	ATOR_	E. HOL	COMB	24
REV	IEWER		17		APP	ROVED)	Charl and a state of the state	
CAL	CULAT	ION	NO. N	IPP1-S	BO-	009			

5.1 ESW Group

From page 87 of Attachment 2, for N large, note that

(13) $y = -\ln[-\ln(1-1/\bar{N})] \cong \ln \bar{N}$

Substitution of (13) into (12) and solving for $\bar{\rm N}$ yields

(14)
$$\overline{N} = \exp \left\{ \frac{(\widehat{G}_{x}(p) - \overline{X}) \cdot \pi}{\sqrt{6} \cdot s} + 0.5772 \right\}$$

Now, using $\hat{G}_X(p)$ = 103.5 mph and the values of \overline{X} and s from Table 2, substitution into eqn. (14) yields

 \bar{N} = 3.676 E8 months, or

N = 3.063 E7 years.

For comparison to Table 3-1 of NUMARC 87-00,

 $e = 1/\bar{N} = 3.264E-8 \text{ yr}^{-1},$

with the result that CNS is in ESW Group 1.

		SHEET	22	
JOB NO.	NP-119	DATE	1/7/92	
PROJECT	CNS STAT	TION BL	ACKOUT	
SUBJECT	SITE-SPI	ECIFIC	WEATHER	EVALUATION
CLIENT_	NPPD	ORI	GINATOR	E. HOLCOMB
REVIEWER	R APP		APPROVEI)
CALCULAT	FION NO.	NPP1-S	BO-009	

5.2 SW Group

Proceeding as in Section 5.1, with \hat{G}_X (p) = $\varepsilon 2.12$ mph, equation (14) yields

 $\bar{N} = \exp\left\{\frac{(62.12 - 24.17135) \pi}{\sqrt{6 * 5.314246}} + 0.5772\right\}$

= 16912 months = 1409.4 years

Hence, $h_3 = 1/\bar{N} = 7.0954E-04 \text{ yr}^{-1}$

Substituting h_3 into equation (11), as before,

f = (1.3E-4) * 30 + 12.5 * 0.0002357 + (1.2E-2) * 7.0954E-04 = 6.855E-3 = 0.0069

Hence, from Table 3-4 of NUMARC 87-00, CNS is in SW Group 2.

	SHEET 23
JOB NO. NP-119 D.	ATE_1/7/92
PROJECT CNS STATI	ON BLACKOUT
SUBJECT SITE-SPEC	IFIC WEATHER EVALUATION
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6.0 PPCC METHOD

2

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Court's technique and Simiu's method have both employed Type I distributions for desciption of the CNS wind speed database. These distributions exhibit the same form but have slightly different constants in the functiona. expressions. The constants depend on values used to characterics the data, such as the mode, mean, standard deviation, or location and scale parameters.

Based on ` discussion in Section 3.5 of Reference 7, a Type I distribut provides the optimum fit at most weather stations. It is, there a, considered reasonable to assume that the CNS data would be well fitted by a Type I distribution.

However, to ensure that a Type I distribution is indeed appropriate for characterization of the CNS wind speed database, the probability plot correlation coefficient (PPCC) method has been used to determine the best fitting distribution. The PPCC method is described in Section A1.6 of Reference 6 and also in Reference 7. Basically, the method examines a Type I distribution and a number of Type II distributions, as defined respectively by method, a correlation coefficient is determined for each distribution, according to equation 3.1.3.

The procedure summarized in Attachment 5 was performed for a Type I distribution (GAMMA = INFINITY and equation 3.1.1) and for fortytwo Type II distributions (different, finite values of GAMMA from 1 to 1000 in equation 3.1.2 of Att. 5) using computer programs developed by the National Bureau of Standards, which are documented in Reference 8. The extreme value analysis computer program output for the CNS data is listed in Tables 3 and 4. Using Table 3, it is indeed provide the best fit for the CNS wind speed database. The maximum value of the PPCC occurs for the Type I distribution and is $r_d = 0.96444$.

Using equation 3.1.1 of Att. 5 and the values in Table 3 for gamma = infinity, the best fitting distribution is

(15) $F_1(v) = \exp \left[-\exp\left\{\frac{-(v - 21.837)}{4.079}\right\}\right]$

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PROJECT	CNS STATION	BLACKOUT	Contraction of the second second second second
SUBJECT_	SITE-SPECIF	IC WEATHER	EVALUATION
CLIENT_	NPPD	ORIGINATOR	E. HOLCOMB
REVIEWEF	UM	APPROVEI	
CALCULAT	ION NO. NPP	1-SB0-009	and a second

where 'v' is the wind speed. This distribution is similar to those used previously in this calculation. It yields a 100-yr extreme wind estimate of $v_{100} = 50.58$ mph for CNS, which is very close to the value yielded by Simiu's method in Section 5.

The extreme wind values predicted by the PPCC method are listed in Table 4 for various return periods. Since the computations were made using the CNS monthly extremes, the return periods in Table 4 are also in months.

Two extreme wind values are of interest. As before, 103.5 mph and 62.12 mph are used to determine the ESW and SW categories, respectively. Intepolating in Table 4 for v = 62.12 mph gives a return period of about 26,499 months, or 2208.27 years.

Taking the reciprocal of this number yields $h_3 = 4.528E-04$ for determination of the SW Group. Using equation (11) as before, with this value of h_1 yields

f = 6.852E - 3 = 0.00685,

again with the result from NUMARC 87-00 Table 3-4 that CNS is in <u>SW</u> Group 2.

Regarding the ESW category, an extreme wind value of 103.5 is not listed in Table 4. However, using the much more conservative maximum tabulated value of 78.20 mph yields a return period of 1,000,000 months, or 83333.3 years, i.e.

N >> 83333.3 years

 $f \ll 1.200 E-5 yr^4 \ll 3.3E-4 yr^4$.

Hence, from NUMARC 87-00 Table 3-1, the PPCC method also indicates that CNS is in ESW Group 1.

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JOB NO	NP-1	19 1	ATE	1/7/92		
PROJECT_	CNS	STATI	CON BL	ACKOUT		
SUBJECT_	SITE	-SPEC	IFIC	WEATHER	EVALUATION	de la
CLIENT	NPPD		ORI	GINATOR	E. HOLCOMB	54
REVIEWER		4		APPROVED)	
CALCULAT	ION	NO. N	IPP1-S	B0-009		

7.0 ERROR ANALYSIS

In this section, the level of confidence is evaluated regarding the determination of the ESW and SW categories for CNS. For a given category, the maximum wind speed is estimated for the minimum return period allowed by the category. The standard deviation of the sampling error of the wind speed estimator is calculated. The upper bound wind speed in the error band in then evaluated by comparison to the allowable ESW and SW wind speeds.

7.1 ESW Group

For ESW Group 1, Table 3-1 of NUMARC 87-00 gives

< 3.3E-4 yr⁻¹,

or 1/e > 3030.30 years

Hence, take N = 3031 years = 36372 months.

From equation A1.74 of Attachment 2, using the method of moments,

$$\hat{G}_{X}(p) = \bar{X} + s(y-0.5772) \sqrt{6/11}$$
, where
y = -ln (-ln p), and
p = 1 - 1/ \bar{N} .

For $\bar{N} = 36,372$, and using the mean and standard deviation of the set of monthly extreme values from Table 2, the maximum expected wind speed in 3031 years is

 $G_{\rm X}({\rm p}) = 65.29 \, {\rm mph}$

The standard deviation in the estimate of the maximum wind speed is given by

SD
$$[\hat{G}_{X}(p)] = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\pi} \left[\frac{\pi^{2}}{6} + 1.1396(y-0.5772) \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{6}} + 1.1(y-0.5772)^{2} \right] \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}$$

		SHEET ~6	
JOB NO	NP-119	DATE 1/7/9:	2
PROJECT_	CNS STAT	ION BLACKOU	r
SUBJECT	SITE-SPE	CIFIC WEATH	ER EVALUATION
CLIENT	NPPD	ORIGINATO	DR E. HOLCOMBER
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CALCULAT	NO.	NPP1-SBO-COS)

from equations A1.70 and A1.76 of Attachment 2. With N = 36,372, s = 5.314246, and n = 192 (the sample size), the standard deviation is

 $SD [\hat{G}_{x}(p)] = 3.34 mph$

To a 99.7% confidence level, the 3031-year maximum wind will fall within the band defined by

 $\hat{V}_{R,m} = \hat{G}_{x}(p) \pm 3 * SD [\hat{G}_{x}(p)], \text{ or}$ $\hat{V}_{R,m} \le 65.29 + 3 * 3.34 \text{ mph}$ $\le 75.30 \text{ mph}.$

Since the ESW category 1 minimum allowable return period was used in the above calculation, as opposed to the return periods actually computed using the CNS data, it is apparent that there is considerable margin in the ESW category '1' determination. Further, conservatively correcting to 10 meters, the allowable ESW wind speed is 103.5 mph. Since 75.30 mph is substantially less than the allowable ESW wind speed, there is further conservatism and very high confidence in the conclusion that CNS is in ESW Group 1.

7.2 SW Group

It has been determined in this calculaton that CNS is in SW Group 2. From Table 3-4 of NUMARC 87-00, category SW2 requires that

f < 0.0100

Using the previously established values for snowfall and tornado occurrence, solving equation (11) for the maximum allowable frequency of high winds in category SW 2 yields

0.012

i.e. want $h_{\rm 3}$ < 0.2628 yr^4. This gives $1/h_{\rm 3}$ > 3.805 years = 45.66 months. Conservatively using N = 50 months in Table 4 gives

 $V_{\bar{N},m} = 37.76$ mph.

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The maximum allowable wind speed in the SW evaluation is 75 mph. Conservatively assuming this occurs at 30 meters and correcting to 10 meters gives 62.12 mph for the maximum wind allowed by SW Group 2. Since 37.76 mph is substantially less than 62.12 mph, further quantitative analysis is not required. Clearly, there is a significant margin in the SW2 categorization for CNS and very high confidence in this conclusion.

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SUBJECT_	SITH	-SPEC	TFI	C	WE	AT	HER	EVALUATION
CLIENT	NPPL)	(RI	GI	NA	TOR	E. HOLCOMBER
REVIEWER	1	12			AP	PF	OVE	D
CALCULAT	ION	NO. N	IPP:	-5	BO	-0	09	

8.0 EDG TARGET RELIABILITY

Using Table 3-5a of NUMARC 87-00, the combination of weather groups ESW1 and SW2 indicates that Cooper Nuclear Station is a 'P1' plant.

From Reference 2, CNS is in EAC Group 'C'. For a required SBO coping duration of 4 hours, Table 3-8 of NUMARC 87-00 indicates that the minimum allowable EDG target reliability is 0.950.

9.0 SUMMARY

A site-specific weather data evaluation has been performed for CNS as part of its response to the Station Blackout Rule. The evaluation shows that a Type I exponential distribution provides and excellent fit to the CNS plant specific database for monthly extreme wind values. Three methods, all employing Type I distributions and methods of extreme value statistics, indicate that CNS is in station blackout weather groups ESW1 and SW2, to a high degree of confidence. The resulting conclusion is that CNS is a 'P1' plant with a target EDG reliability of 0.95.

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JOB NO	NP-1	19 DA	TE	1/7/9	2		
PROJECT	CNS	STATIO	N BL	ACKOU	Т		
SUBJECT	SITE	-SPECI	FIC !	WEATH	ER EV	ALUATION	(a.)
CLIENT_	NPPD		ORI	GINAT	OR E.	HOLCOMB	4
REVIEWE	2	27		APPRO	VED	ar provide and the second second second	
CALCULAT	FION	NO. NP	P1-SI	BO-00	9		

10.0 REFERENCES

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- Letter from Paul W. O'Connor, USNRC, to Guy R. Horn, NPPD, "Cooper Nuclear Station-Safety Evaluation of the Response to the Station Blackout Rule (TAC No. 68534)", Docket No. 50-298, dated August 22, 1991.
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- 9. Baranowsky, P. W., "Evaluation of Station Blackout Accidents at Nuclear Power Plants", NUREG-1032, June 1988.

	SHEET 30	
JOB NO. NP-119	DATE 1/7/92	
PROJECT CNS ST	ATION BLACKOUT	
SUBJECT SITE-S	PECIFIC WEATHER	EVALUATION CA
CLIENT NPPD	ORIGINATOR	E. HOLCOMB 2 #
REVIEWER 12	APPROVED	and the second se
CALCULATION NO	. NPP1-SB0-009	

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF MAXIMUM WIND SPEED DATA(*) for COOPER NUCLEAR STATION

YEAR	WIND SPEED @ 10-METER ELEVATION ^(b)
1975	30.0 mph
1976	37.0
1977	34.5
1978	40.1
1979	29.1
1980	28.0
1981	31.0
1982	36.0
1983	33.0
1984	32.1
1985	29.1
1986	29.1
1987	25.3
1988	30.3
1989	33.6
1990	27.9

Notes: (a)

1 e Attachment 3 for complete wind speed database. Wind speeds above are maximum hourly average values for each year.

(b)

10-meter and 35-ft. data in Attachment 3 are both assumed to apply at 10 meters.

Table 2

	1. 34 34 4	ANALES STATES	48 D. H. 1941		174 3477153
				*SCENDING	
		CNS 12M		GRDER	
	1×TH	-DURLY AVE		SORTED	
	*ONTH	WAX WIND	(11-XBAR)	DATA	11-(BAR. #12
-JAN 1975 -		18	-12.17:15	6.3	117.83445
		7 di - 1924	.10	18.0	175 75711
			LIT HRIDE	1810	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
		67	**************************************		1/21/7414
	111111	- 5	1017 100	12.48	110184407
	1.1.1.1.1		+8.17135	15	84.11374
		1	-9.17135	15	64.11374
		23	-9,87135	15.1	82.28947
		27	-8.77105	15.4	76.93665
		20	-0.87178	18.4	77 44611
	18		-2 17175	14	22 77184
	Page 127	**	-244742W		20170100
	91 - H M	100	-011/102	10	00+77100
Chineses .	17	*7	-6,17135	16	AA.77183
JAN 1976	12	28	-8,17175	10	55.77183
	1.1.1.14	17	+7,87138	15.2	60,84249
	15		-7.37138 -	16.8	54.33696
	1.1		-7,17135	17	81,42832
	17	12		17	£1 100TO
	10	74	-1 07178	17.8	10 40010
		18	- BATTANG 	17.46	90.2077/0
			10141100	1/4/	41、数7型42
		+#	-6,47135	17.7	41.87842
		20	-5.27135	17.9	39.32988
	24	23	-6.27135	17.9	39.32988
	23	28	+6.17135	18	38.08561
	24	28	-6.17135	10	18,28561
JAN 1977	24	26	-6.17135	10	10.005/1
		15	1011100	1.0	-0.000004
			-011/100	10	.0.00201
			~0.0/100	10.1	00,00104
	**	14	H0197100	18.1	35.65707
		1 25	-5.87135	18.3	24,47288
		3 25	-5.87175	18.1	34,47280
		1 24	-5.57135	15.8	31.03999
	10.00	1 18.4	-5.57135	18.8	11.03990
	10.5	5 19	-5.57(35	19.7	1 01000
		51.4	-8 17175		11.74955
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UNN 17:0		27.0	*0.17135	1	26.74290
		8 13.2	-4,97135	19.1	2 24,71436
		9 05.5	-4.77135	19.	4 22.76582
	4	0 25.8	-4,77105	19.	4 22.76582
	4	1 01.2	-4.77135	19.	4 22.76582
		2 48.1	+4.67178	19	5 01 00155
		3 21 2	-4.47175	10	5 71 07185
		4	-1 -14148	174	5 10 00701
		8		17.	1.14.94081
		a 1749	-+, 97135	14,	14,99361
		0 18.	~4,27135	19.	9 18.24447
	4	17.47	-4.27135	19,	9 18,24447
	4	8 21	1 +4,17135		8 17,48828
JAN 1979		9 21.5	-4,17135		0 17,40020
		8	-4.17175		0 17,40070
		1 70	-4.07170	58	1 12 57500
				1.6.5	A

31 NPM- 584-009 EAN

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Table 2 (cont'd)

NPPT-580-009 EA JU 32

	52 112	12.8	*		12.25749
	55	15.4	-5.17125	21	10.05749
	54	12.4	×1-17176		10.05749
	6.6	18.0			10 08710
		2 5			5 19460
	1.2	248	2101210	#473 81 B	3 35555
	. <u>11</u> H	6716	- 6x1/200	4114	0101070
	28		*4+773.00	43.49	100846
	59	19,9	*1.67175	21.5	7,13613
	50	24.7	-2.57135	21.6	5.61186
AN 1980	61	24	-2,47135	21.7	6.10759
	- 62	25	-2.17135	22	4,71478
	63	28	-1.17135	22	4.71478
	64	27	-2.17135	22	4,71478
	65	18	-2.17125		4,71478
	1.6	18	-7.87135	55.1	4.00081
	. 7	1.9	1 77178		4 19790
	0/		11///20	101 C	1 10110
	00	10	-110/100	44.4	6117296 6 31018
	04	20	*1x37128	4470	2.40710
	8	2.0	+1+37135	÷ 4 + 8	
		24	+1,27105	22.9	1.61634
	72	28	-1,17135	23	1.37207
AN 1981	72	22	-1.17135		1.37207
	74	30	-1.17135	23	1.37207
	75	38	-1.17135	23	1.37207
	16		~1.17135	23	1.37207
	77	23	-1.17135	23	1.37207
	78	58	-1.87135	23.1	1.14780
	79	21	-0.97135	23.2	8.94353
	98	17	-0.87175	23.5	2.75926
	81	20	-8.77175	27.4	0.59499
	82	24	-3.47175	27.6	0.45872
	27	58	-0.17175	19 19 19 19 19	G 00010
	24	* * * *	5 0919E	6.9 A F	S ITTE
	04	10	-D:07300	100 A	0.10/70
HM 1754	50		-0.27135		0.07000
	50	24	-8111122	.4	0.02936
	87	34	-8.17135		2.82930
	88		-0.17135	24	0.02935
	89	28	-0.17135		2.82936
	éØ	27	-0.17105	24	8.82936
	91	22	-0.17135	24	8,02936
	92	19	-0.17135	24	3.02936
	93	19	-8.17105	24	8.82936
	94	16	0.02865	24.2	8.00082
	95	33	0.32665	24.5	0.10801
	96	24	0.42865	24.6	0.18374
AN 1983	97	38	8,52865	24.7	8.27947
	98	24	8.52865	24.7	8.27947
	9.9	24	8.52845	74.7	0.27947
	128		2.42045	24 2	3 705/3
	121	20	0.72548	24.0	0 87820
	105		0.00015	6717	3 10115
	1.02	16.1 (5.1)	0.01000	10	0.000000
	160	**	0,01000	40	0.00000
	124	10	0.02000	40	0.00000
	185	4.4	0.82863	25	0.68665
	186	_ 21	0.02860	25	0.68665
	107	21	0.82865	- 25	2.55555

Table 2 (cont'd) NPP1- 5B\$-009

	.08	18	0.42865	25.1	3.86218
JAN 1984	129	19	1.12865	25.2	1.27384
	118	32.1	1,12865	25.3	1.27384
	111	26.5	1.33845	25.5	74570
	1.1.1	17 0	1 21218	16.8	1 71575
	147	6.9	1 10628	56 8	1110000
			1122802	4929 KR 19	11/0230
	118	4/48	1,31853	1317	21000/0
	110	10	1.02855	25.B	2,45249
	110	16,8	1162865	25.8	2.65249
	-447	23.7	1,92865	26	3.34395
	- 118	23.5	1.82865	26	3.34395
	119	25.7	1.82865	26	0.34395
	128	22.4	1.82865	26	3.34395
JAN 1985	121	28.2	2.82865	26.2	4.11540
	122	21	2.32865	26.5	5,42259
	123	29.1	2.42865	26.6	5,89932
	124	28	2.42845	26.6	E 00017
	158	24.4	1 45025	54 L	¢ 85015
	104	4949	- 3551E	+0+0	0+07002 8 65545
	1.40		1192000 1 10000	10×0	0.07502
	167	11+1-	1.01802	20.00	0.76775
	128	14.7	2.82865	2.7	8.00124
	129	22.1	2,82865	27	8.20124
	138	26.6	2.82865	27	3.00124
	131	25.5	.82965	27	8.00124
	132	25.5	2.82865	27	8.00124
JAN 1986	123	29.1	2.32865	27	8.00124
	134	25.3	2.82865	27	8.00124
	135	26.8	2.82865	27	A. 88124
	136	29.1	1,22865	27.2	9,17278
	137	27.3	1,12845	27.7	0.70045
	178	17.7	1 10045	04 0	0.70044
	170	20 1	7 77514	47.4V	7./0044
	140	19.3	3 3551E	67.49	11-07700
	141	27.17		47.0	11.07755
	141	17.17	0.72860	27.47	13.90280
	142	1843	0.72665	27.9	13,90280
	140	20.1	0.82865	28	14.65853
	144	18.7	1.82865	28	14.65853
JAN 1887	145	24	3.62865	28	14.65853
	146	28.3	3.82865	28	14.65853
	147	22.9	3.82865	28	14.65853
	148	- 24	3.82865	28	14.65853
	149	23.3	3.82865	28	14.65853
	158	19.4	3.82865	28	14.45857
	151	18.6	3,37865	28	14 45057
	152	18.4	7 87845	20	14 15057
	:87	10 5	1 01025	- 20	14 15050
	100	1714 55 E	1 00016		14.000000
	166	17.5	1 05014	-0	14,600000
	198	17.17	2.02000	28	14,00803
100.1000	136	22.0	0.82865	28	14.65853
1 HW 1488	157	28.8	4.02865	28.2	16.22999
	158	28.3	4,12865	28.3	17.04572
	128	28.3	4,12865	28.3	17.04572
	168	27.3	4.22865	28.4	17.88145
	161	24.2	4.62865	28.8	21.42436
	162	18.6	4.82965	29	23,31582
	167	19.4	4.82865	19	23,31582

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	104	. 3.4	4.82865	12	17.01582
	165	24.7	4.42865	19.1	14.29155
	166	15.8	4,92865	. 25.1	14.29188
	167	26	4.92865	28.1	24.29155
	168	26.6	4.92865	29.1	24.29155
JAN 1989	169	23.8	5.82865	30	33.97311
	:78	24.5	5.82865	12	33,97311
	171	77.6	5.82865	38	23.97311
	172	24.8	5.82865	50	15,97511
	173	28.3	5,82865	30	33,97311
	174	19.2	5,82865	12	13,97311
	175	15.6	6.12865	18.3	37.56838
	176	15.1	6.82865	11	46,63848
	177	23.8	7.82865	51.2	47,40186
	178	21.1	7,82845	12	61.28770
	179	26.2	7.82865	**	61.28778
	198	24.9	7,92865	32.1	62,86342
JAN 1998	181	27.2	R. 82845		77,04490
	182	4	8,82845		77,04400
	183	21.6	9.02845	17.2	S1.51445
	184	24.7	9,42845	13.4	00,00014
	185	22.8	9,82845	*4	DA. 10220
	186	27.9	9,82845	74	94.48228
	187	18.1	9,82865	74	96.68228
	188	16.2	18.32865	74.5	184.48892
	189	19.5	18.82845	26	117 58087
	178	70	11.82845		139.91484
	191	24.6	12.82845		144.57415
050 1998	192	77.5	15,92845	40.1	257,72174
			化 化 人 人 化 化 人 化	- M. A. A.	和 所 所 是 丁 田 年 丁 昭

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XBAR 24.17135416 SDEV 5.314246811

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EXTREME VALUE ANALYSIS

NPPT- 58\$-009 874 14

THE SAMPLE SIZE N = 192 THE SAMPLE MEAN = 24.1713638 THE SAMPLE STANDARD DEVIATION = 5.3281384 THE SAMPLE MINIMUM = 5.8000002 THE SAMPLE MAXIMUM = 40.0999985

EXTREME VALUE	PROBABILITY PLOT	LOCATION	SCALE	TAIL LENGTH
TYPE 2 TAIL LENGTH	CORRELATION	ESTIMATE	ESTIMATE	MEASURE
PARAMETER (GAMMA)	COEFFICIENT			
1.00	0.45931	23.5311928	0.1077400	10.18011
2.00	0.73942	20.3295918	2.2544682	3,39672
3.00	0.83864	16,1745930	5,9701371	2.47043
4.00	0.88058	11.9588499	10.0186853	2.14609
5.00	0.90250	7.7709918	14.1325731	1.98712
6.00	0.91567	3.6100259	18.2566051	1.89429
7.00	0.92437	-0.5315249	22.3780956	1.83394
8.00	0.93051	-4.6594353	26.4944649	1.79175
9.00	0.93505	-8.7775307	30.6056957	1.76069
10.00	0.93855	-12.8884935	34.7124748	1.73691
11.00	0.94131	-16.9941120	38.8155136	1.71814
12.00	0.94355	-21.0955887	42.9154510	1.70297
13.00	0.94540	-25.1938152	47.0127869	1.69045
14.00	0.94695	-29.2894363	51.1079865	1.67996
15.00	0.94827	-33.3830185	55.2014046	1.67103
16.00	0.94940	-37.4748650	59.2932854	1.66335
17.00	0.95039	-41.5653076	63.3838997	1.65667
18.00	0.95126	-45.6545525	67.4733887	1.65082
19.00	0.95203	-49.7427826	71.5619278	1.64564
20.00	0.95271	-53.8302345	75.6496887	1.64102
21.00	0.95333	-57.9168510	79.7367096	1.63689
22.00	0.95388	-62.0028419	83.8230667	1.63316
23.00	0.95438	-66.0882111	87.9088593	1.62979
24.00	0.95483	-70.1732254	91.9942093	1.62672
25.00	0.95525	-74.2578201	96.0791473	1.62391
30.00	0.95689	-94.6753159	116.4984510	1.61287
35.00	0.95803	-115.0871120	136.9117740	1.60516
40.00	0.95887	-135.4954830	157.3213200	1.59947
45.00	0.95952	-155.9011690	177.7281490	1.59510
50.00	96003	-176.3053890	198.1331790	1.59164
60.00	J.96079	-217.1099550	238.9392700	1.58651
70.00	0.96133	-257.9118960	279.7422490	1.58289
80.00	0.96173	-298.7120360	320.5431520	1.58019
90.00	0.96204	-339.5108340	361.3425600	1.57811
100.00	0.96228	-380.3088380	402.1412960	1.57645
150.00	0.96301	-584.2916260	606.1256100	1.57152
200.00	0.96337	-788.2689820	810.1040650	1.56908
250.00	0.96359	-992.2446290	1014.0803200	1.56763
350.00	0.96384	-1400.1929900	1422.0296600	1.56666
500.00	0.96402	-2012.1134000	2033.9495800	1.56546
750.00	0.96416	-3031.9772900	3053.8134800	1.56377
1000.00	0.96423	-4051.8378900	4073.6762700	1.56330
INFINITY	0.96444 MAX	21.8378620	4.0794487	1.56187

36 NPP1-5B0-009 874 10

RETURN PERIOD	PREDICTED EXTREME WIND
(IN MONTHS)	BASED ON
	EXTREME VALUE TYPE I
	DISTRIBUTION
2.0	23.33
3.0	25.52
4.0	26.92
5.0	27.96
6.0	28.78
- 1997 (1997) 1997 - 1997 (1997)	
7.0	29.47
8.0	30.05
9.0	30.56
10.0	31.02
20.0	33.95
10.0	35.64
40.0	36.83
50.0	37.76
60.0	26.61
20.0	10.01
80.0	10.60
00.0	40.17
100.0	40.17
192.0	43.27
200.0	43.44
300.0	45.10
400.0	46.27
500.0	47.10
600.0	47.93
700.0	47.55
100.0	46.50
800.0	49.10
0.009	49.59
1000.0	50.02
2000.0	52.84
3000.0	54.50
4000.0	55.67
5000.0	56.58
6000.0	57.33
7000.0	57.96
8000.0	58.50
9000 0	58.08
10000.0	59.41
50000.0	65.98
100000.0	68.80
500000.0	75 37
200000.0	10.01
1000000.0	78.20 mph

	SHEE	r 37	<u></u>	An owner the local data in the local data in the	
JOB NO.	NP-119	DATE	1/7/92	NAME AND ADDRESS OF TAXABLE PARTY.	
PROJECT	CNS STAT	TION BI	LACKOUT		
SUBJECT	SITE-SPI	CIFIC	WEATHER	EVALUATION	201
CLIENT	NPPD	OR	IGINATOR.	E. HOLCOMB	294
REVIEWER	RIM		APPROVE	0	
CALCULAT	TION NO	NPP1-S	SB0-009		

Table 5

Tornado Damage Scale

Scale	F(wind speed - mph) Less than 40	Damage (little or no damage)	Pl (miles) Less than .3	Pw (width) Less than 6
0	40-72	Light	0.3-10	6-17 yds
1	73-112	Moderate	1.0-3.1	18-55 yds
2	113-157	Considerable	3.2-9.9	56-175 yds
3	158-206	Severe	10-31	176-556 yds
4	207-260	Devastating	32-99	0.3-0.9 mi
5	261-318	Incredible	100-315	1.0-3.1 mi

10 AD Mik #11911 125.

29.50

-238

40.55 an segment 123. global area attain for F 0 6 1 0 0 5 1 0 0

5.112 -***** The average F-scale 1: 1.20 which corresponds to 81, mph. The average F-scale 1: 1.20 which corresponds to 81, mph. The average FL-scale 1: 1.77885: The average PL type seth lampth 1: 1.290; True average langth 1: The average FL-scale 1: 1.77865: The average PL type seth seth 1: .034; True average state 1: The average FL-scale 1: 1.77865: The average PL type seth seth 1: .034; True average state 1: The average brack using average FL 5 PL canuted by 10, ast, 5 (glaps)-3.1 ts .016 The average brack using average FL 5 PL canuted by 10, ast, 5 (glaps)-3.1 ts .016 The average brack using average width 1: .003 The average brack the average width 1: .003 True average lamgth 1: .013 True average lamgth 1: .013 True average at the average width 1: .003 True average at the average width 1: .035 True average at the true average width 1: .035 True average at the true average width 1: .035 True average at the true average width 1: .035 True average at the true average width 1: .045 True average at the true average width 1: .055 True average at the true average width 1: .055 True average at the true average width 1: .055 True average at the true average width 1: .055 True average at the true average width 1: .055 True average at the true average width 1: .055 True average at the true a -----****** besed 94946 3770.94 3870.94 3857.95 6206.38 5367.75 5367.75 5055.38 5-3 22-.0 5.76 1.014 12. 13.02 1.00 1 2 * * * * * * * * .26522-03 Neen Seturn Interval 1 .26522-03 Neen Seturn Interval 2 .25522-03 Neen Seturn Interval 2 .23562-03 Neen Seturn Interval 2 .25852-03 Neen Seturn Interval 2 .25852-04 Neen Seturn Interval 2 .25852-06 Neen Seturn Interval 5 1.28 1-1 0.8." 12-1 00. •5 12. 26.00 20.15 11-6 51.13 .0.6 .94 76.00 16.20 2.20 5.76 00.42 2-2 2.23 . 34 101 . 103 7.04 242.00 .89 231.00 - 0. 10.1 .08 111.00 -22 2.80 \$0. 00-005 · vfilldeda . 4.7 . 6.1 1.14 10. 246.00 20. .04 100.245 ù ****** 102 112 112 112 à 20.7
 7.0.1
 #1.1.45
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 7.0.1
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 2 Everage peth length ----e. * 2 ang 2 h Average true ares width Buerage based on Average based on Buer 828 PU Average PL Sverege PL

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output for CNS NSSFC Program 'TORPLOT'

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5 Table

580-009

NPPT-

5	SHEET /-/ of 22	
JOB NO. NP-119 DA	ATE 1/7/92	N/
PROJECT CNS STATIC	DN BLACKOUT	Verter
SUBJECT SITE-SPECI	FIC WEATHER EVALUATION	UNE
CLIENT NPPD	ORIGINATOR E. HOLCOMB	\mathcal{V}
REVIEWER An Pres	12 APPROVED	
CALCULATION NONF	P1-SB0-009	

Attachment 1

Court's Extreme Value Technique

Some New Statistical Techniques in Geophysics

ARNOLD COURT

Statistical Laboratory, University of California, Berkeley, California

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1.1. General

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I. INTRODUCTION

Statistical theories and methods are being applied increasingly in all fields of science, especially in geophysics. Until the 1930s, the physical sciences generally used only the rudimentary methods of statistics, preferring, for example, the Gaussian probable error to the analytically stronger and more versatile standard error (or deviation). Statistical

SOME NEW STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES IN GEOPHY 'CS

ARNOLD COURT

theorems and methods developed in the preceding half-century were employed much more in the biological and social sciences than in the physical.

In the last few decades, however, the physical sciences have adopted a more modern statistical outlook. Geophysics in particular has made rapid strides in adopting statistical practices, and many techniques have been developed for the special requirements of its various component sciences. Some of these techniques are described in detail in this article, in order to acquain a large circle of geophysicists with their potentialities.

A preliminary discussion of some fundamental aspects of statistics which often are overlooked in geophysical applications, and an explanation of a rediscovered simple method of estimating two normal components from a bimodal distribution are given in this section. The article is largely devoted, in Section 2, to a discussion of the likelihood of occurrence (return period) of extreme values, and the most recent method for estimating them, the theory of extreme values. The final section mentions briefly an even newer development, the statistics of circular variables, still in the descriptive stage.

Applications, interpretation, and limitations of the techniques, rather than underlying theory and proof, are stressed. The only statistical knowledge presumed of the reader is that of a first course in statistics: least squares computations, characteristics of the normal distribution, and simple correlation.

Symbols and notation used in this article are listed at the end of this article. Most of the symbols are those used in the various original papers, but some of the notation is novel, since statistics has developed so rapidly that its notation and symbolism have not yet been fully standardized. In recent years, the overbar (\bar{x}) has been accepted to designate the mean; in this article, in addition, the tilde (\bar{x}) denotes the median and the circumflex (\hat{x}) the mode. Grave and acute accents $(\hat{x} \text{ and } \hat{x})$ indicate the largest and smallest values, respectively.

The classical statistical methods of geophysics have been presented recently in great detail by Conrad and Pollak [1]. Some more modern statistical concepts, however, are not included there, and may be overlooked by geophysicists. In the following paragraphs certain aspects are discussed which may make more accurate the application of statistics to geophysics.

1.2. Methods

Statistical methods are of two general categories: *descriptive* and *analytical*. Both depend in large part on the theory of probability which, in the words of Laplace, is merely common sense reduced to figures.

Descriptive methods are those which compress many figures into a few to represent them adequately for the purpose at hand; these methods are largely those formerly known as the calculus of observations. They involve few assumptions about the nature of the original figures, and consider the figures as such, and not as samples. Descriptive methods permit computation of means, modes, medians, and of variances and higher moments, as well as of correlations between two or more variables.

Analytical methods use the descriptive techniques to determine how well the observations agree with the theoretical model which they are assumed to follow. From the character of the model, in turn, and the descriptive results, the analytical procedures can indicate the accuracy of generalizations from the data, and of comparisons with other observations.

Emphasis, in most elementary courses in statistics, on the analytical aspects has obscured, for many geophysicists, both the limitations and the utility of the purely descriptive methods of the calculus of observations. Whereas description takes the data as they are, analysis considers them only as a *sample* of a population or universe. This parent population, in turn, is *assumed* to have certain characteristics, whose numerical values are estimated from the description of the sample.

Establishing that the sample does in fact have the attributes of the parent population is therefore essential to any analysis, yet in many cases this correspondence is not established at all. For example, the standard deviation can be computed for any set of figures as a valid measure of the amount of dispersion, but only if the figures are shown to follow a "norma!" distribution can it be assumed that two-thirds of them fall within one standard deviation from the mean.

Descriptive methods alone may suffice for many geophysical applications—more so than in the biological and social sciences—where a mass of data is to be reduced to a few characteristic figures (means, n des, variances), without any inferences about the parent population or any detailed comparisons with other sets of observations. But statistical analysis of geophysical data must start with a clear expression of the population of which the data are considered to be a sample, and establishment that the sample is indeed drawn from such a population.

For many sets of geophysical data, "It is clear that one cannot define on a population out of which the given sample was drawn at rando 1." [2] To Most geophysical data concern measurements of a variable which is continuous in both time and space, and may be relatively uniform over certain ranges of one or both. A single reading of air temperature, or magnetic intensity, or sea-swell length, may be considered as a sample of conditions at the spot of observation during a short interval of time,

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such as a few minutes; cr it may be a sample of conditions over a small area, a few inches to a few miles in radius.

That is, an instantaneous reading is "chosen at random" from all possible similar readings which could have been made at any of an infinite number of other times during the interval, or at an infinite number of places in the vicinity. But when the element is averaged in time it is no longer a sample with respect to time: the parent population of a series of mean daily values (temperature, magnetic activity, or sea-swell length) is composed of all possible values for the vicinity, each averaged in time.

Furthermore, while the individual reading or mean daily value may be a random sample from an infinite population, a series of such readings is not a random sample, but a *stratified* sample: one from each of several distinguishable divisions (e.g., days) or strata of the population. Consequently, many analytical procedures, particularly tests of significance, are not strictly applicable to such data.

1.3. Functions

The extensive computations required for statistical description or analysis are laborious if done by hand, but can be done rapidly on modern computing machines. Recent improvements in such machines, in fact, have permitted great simplifications in the routine computations, in that involved calculations can be done more rapidly than simpler calculations which require additional manipulation. Unfortunately, these advances are rarely reflected in elementary textbooks, which describe methods applicable to manual computation, perhaps aided by an adding machine.

For example, combination of observations into classes is desirable when a large mass of data is to be summarized manually, but imposes some loss in accuracy as the price for convenience. With modern machines, individual observations can be squared and the results added in less time than is required to select class limits, assemble data into classes, and perform the computations. Consequently, the classic rules as to the number and size of classes no longer are very important.

Quantitative data or measurements, however, already are grouped by classes, defined by the unit of measurement even though the variable measured is itself continuous. Any further grouping usually is inadvisable.

Likewise, although the standard deviation is defined basically as the square root of the mean of the squares of all *deviations* from the mean (root mean square), in practice it is obtained most readily by the "variable squared" method: the square root of the difference between the mean of the squares of all the original observations and the square of the mean of the observations. Individual departures from the mean need not be computed at all.

Statistical analysis involves the comparison of observed data with a theoretical model, expressed mathematically in either of two ways, one the integral of the other.

A frequency distribution represents a set of data, observed or theoretical, of finite size; when all frequencies are reduced to percentages of the total sample size, the result is a probability distribution. In either form, this function, denoted by f(x), represents the density of the distribution of frequency or probability, and when plotted on cartesian paper it yields a characteristic curve—"bell-shaped" for the normal curve

The area under such a curve represents cumulative frequencies or probabilities; consequently, the cumulative probability function is the integral of the probability density distribution or function: $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) dt$. The graphing of such an integral, if computed from one end of the distribution to the other, yields an *ogive*, or cumulative frequency or probability graph; in hydrology, a time-frequency ogive has been called a "duration curve." On cartesian paper the cumulative probability ogive of a normal distribution is S-shaped or "sigmoid"; special "probability paper" (Section 1.4) transforms this curve into a straight line.

Each form of frequency function, the density distribution and its integral, has separate uses. In general, the density distribution is used to graph the theoretical function for comparison with a graph of observed values, while its integral, the cumulative probability function, is used for numerical comparison of the agreement between theory and observations, and for discussion and conclusions after correspondence is established. While a density distribution curve can be approximated from area values, and theoretical ordinates can be compared numerically with observed frequencies, such procedures are not as correct as the proper use of the two functions.

1.4. Graphics

For any cumulative probability function, whose ogive plotted on cartesian paper is a sinuous curve, a special graph paper can be designed on which the ogive becomes a straight line. Such papers were first designed by engineers, and they are used chiefly in that field. "Though mathematicians look with disfavor on the use of graphical methods in the evaluation of statistical parameters, engineers find them very convenient and time saving, especially if the accuracy required is not too great." [3]

Graph paper for the normal probability paper was designed and introduced in 1914 by Hazen [4] without comment, and explained in 1916 by his coworker Whipple [5], who also presented a logarithmic normal paper previously suggested by Hazen; revision of this paper has recently been

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proposed by Kottler [6]. As soon as the statistical theory of extreme values (Sections 2.5 *et seq.*) was introduced into the United S ates, Powell [7] designed a probability paper for its function (Section 2.8). Other probability papers include the "Probit" and "Logit" graphs of Berkson and Gumbel's new "Range" paper [8].

The chief virtue of any probability paper is that a set of data which plots along a straight line on it can be assumed to be drawn from a population whose distribution is that on which the paper is based. A further advantage is that such a straight line, whether drawn by inspection or fitted mathematically, can be used to obtain estimates of other values, such as the expected frequency of a given value or the value with a given probability of occurrence.

However, probability paper cannot be used alone to determine how well data follow the assumed distribution, e.g., to test for "normality," because a straight line cannot be fitted to plotted points by inspection: the paper is not linear, and slight departures from a straight line are magnified at both ends. "A Log-Probability Chart should be used only to represent an exact ogive by a straight line but not to judge how the data fit it. It is impossible to achieve any reliable judgment by mere inspection of such a graph." [6]

To plot a set of values on any probability paper they must be arranged in order of magnitude and their cumulative rank established. The smallest value is No. 1, the next-smallest No. 2, etc.; if the smallest occurs twice, it has Nos. 1 and 2, and the next-smallest is No. 3, etc. Alternatively, the largest value may be No. 1.

However, there has been little agreement on how to plot these cumulative ranks on probability paper. If the ranks are divided by the number of observations, N, then the last one is unity, which is at infinity on a graph paper. Compromises have been suggested, by which either $\frac{1}{2}$ or I is subtracted from the rank before division by N, or division by 2N; these either omit an observation or distort the original data [9].

Certain theoretical considerations indicate advantages in dividing each cumulative rank by N + 1 for plotting; in addition to providing more realistic frequency values, this method permits all observations to be plotted on graph paper. This procedure is used in analysis by the theory of extreme values (Section 2.8).

1.5. Components

Typical of the subordination of descriptive methods to analytical procedures is the neglect of a very simple and useful technique for estimating two normal components in any frequency distribution. Many measurements, in geophysics as well as other sciences, involve variables which are not uniform but include subvariables of different basic characteristics.

For example, Landsberg [10] has shown that observed thermal gradients in the earth's crust fall into two groups, possibly for sedimentary and metamorphic rocks, respectively. Similarly, in middle latitudes the tropopause may be either high and cold (tropical) or low and not so cold (polar), so that a frequency distribution of daily tropops use height determinations has two definite modes.

A general method for finding two normal components in any distribution, assuming nothing about them except their existence, was presented by Pearson [11] in the first of his famous "Contributions to the Mathematical Theory of Evolution" before the Royal Society on November 16, 1893. It requires solution of a complete minth degree equation involving the first five moments of the given distribution.

Pearson applied this method not only to markedly skewed distributions, in which the presence of two components is indicated strongly, but to some which are quite symmetrical (although not normal) to find components with identical means but differing standard deviations. His general method applies even when one of the components is negative, i.e., the given distribution is the difference between normal ones.

To Edgeworth's [12] suggestion for simplifying assumptions, Pearson [13] retorted that the "process is not so laborious that it need be discarded for rough methods of approximation based upon dropping the fundamental nonic and guessing suitable solutions." However, Charlier [14] considered the general solution "a very laborious operation," and developed simple solutions for two special cases: (1) where means are assumed for the two components and (2) where the variances of the two components are assumed to be equal.

Charlier's development, published in English in a journal of the University of Lund (Sweden), attracted little attention, and no mention of it appears in his later textbook nor does it seem to have been used by 5, anyone else. Of the two methods, the first, involving assumption of the means of the two components, is far simpler than the second, which requires computation of the fourth moment of the given distribution and solution of a cubic equation.

However, Charlier devoted little spine to the first method and a expanded on the second, terming it the "abridged method for dissecting frequency curves." Since the cubic equation involved is actually one step in the general solution, "hence it is no loss of time to begin with this 1 approximate method." He felt that assuming equal variances for two components "is of a more general character" than assuming values for their means: "Especially in biology it is a fairly probable supposition

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that two types found together in nature possess nearly equal standard deviations. We may then use this method to separate the two components."

He admitted that "this abridged method is applicable only when there are a priori reasons for the assumption that the two components have nearly equal standard deviations. There are many problems where no such reasons exist," such as those involving several sets of errors to a reading, each set being of a different type and magnitude.

In geophysics, equal variances may be present in some cases, but in general the first method, of assumed means, is the most applicable. Both methods, and one further simplification, are presented in the next

Both methods, and one further simplification, are presented in paragraph, without the theoretical basis or development and in more condensed and modern notation [15].

1.6. Separation

In obviously bimodal distributions, and many unimodal ones with pronounced "humps" or "shelves," means M_1 and M_2 for two supposed components may be apparent. Their departures from the mean M of the given distribution,

(1.1)
$$M - M_1 = m_1$$
 and $M_2 - M = m_1$

give the variances of the two components:

(1.2)
$$\begin{cases} \sigma_1^3 = \sigma^2 - 2m_1m_2/3 - (m_1^3/3 + \nu_4/3m_2) \\ \sigma_2^3 = \sigma^2 - 2m_1m_3/3 - (m_3^3/3 - \nu_3/3m_1) \end{cases}$$

where σ^{1} and ν_{1} are the variance and third moment of the given distribution. The total areas or frequencies of each component depend only on the assumed means:

(1.3)
$$N_1 = Nm_2/(m_1 + m_2)$$
 and $N_2 = Nm_1/(m_1 + m_2)$

Finally, from a table of the normal frequency distribution ordinates (Section 1.5), $\phi(t)$, the ordinates of each component at any distance (in t units) from the mean may be found, since

(1.4) $y_1 = (N_1/\sigma_1)\phi(l)$ and $y_2 = (N_2/\sigma_2)\phi(l)$

The larger component always corresponds to the smaller departure from the mean, which in turn is m_1 if s_3 is positive, m_2 if negative. Should impossible means be assumed for the two components, σ_1^2 or σ_2^2 will be negative, indicating no real solution.

However, the method of assumed means does not give a unique solu-

tion: usually trial of several pairs of means is required to find one set yielding two components which, added together, closely approximate the given distribution. The best pair of means generally has maximum ordinates agreeing well with the observed values, due regard being given to the contribution each component makes to the other's peak.

Such agreement can be made as close as desired by assuming values of the maximum ordinates \hat{y}_1 and \hat{y}_2 in addition to the means M_1 and M_2 . Then

(1.5) $\sigma_1 = N_1 / \sqrt{2\pi} \dot{y}_1$ and $\sigma_2 = N_2 / \sqrt{2\pi} \dot{y}_2$

In effect, this short cut to Charlier's procedure replaces the standard deviation and skewness of the original distribution by a subjective evaluation which may > mo > effective for some distributions, but is not of as general applicability in finding two normal components.

Assuming the two presumed components to have equal variances, instead of assuming values for their means, led Charlier to a cubic equation involving the difference between the variances of the given distribution and the assumed components:

(1.6)
$$z^3 \pm \frac{1}{2}(\nu_4 - 3\sigma^4)z \pm \frac{1}{2}\nu_1^2 = 0$$

where $z = \sigma_1^2 - \sigma^2$ and ν_i is the fourth moment of the distribution. The vertice discriminant of this cubic,

(1.7)
$$C^2 = (\sigma^{12}/216) (13.5\alpha_2^4 + E^3)$$

where $\alpha_1 = \nu_1/\sigma^4$ is the skewness and $E = (\nu_4/\sigma^4) - 3$ the excess, almost always is positive, indicating only one real root:

(1.8)
$$z = 0.4082\sigma^2 \left(\sqrt[3]{-3.6742\alpha_2^2 + \gamma} - \sqrt[3]{+3.6742\alpha_2^2 + \gamma}\right)$$

where $\gamma = \sqrt{13.5\alpha_2^* + E^*}$.

Except for almost symmetrical and very flat-topped distributions, γ is positive, so that z will be negative, and $\sigma_1^2 < \sigma^2$. But if $-z > \sigma^2$, then σ_1^2 is negative, and there is no actual solution, indicating that the assumption of equal variances is unwarranted. If the assumption is (a) justified, and σ_1 is real, the means are:

(1.9)
$$\begin{cases} M_1 = M - m_1 = M - (\nu_2/6) - \sqrt{(\frac{1}{4}\nu_2)^2 - z} \\ M_2 = M + m_2 = M - (\nu_2/6) + \sqrt{(\frac{1}{4}\nu_2)^2 - z} \end{cases}$$

The areas N_1 and N_2 of the two components are found from equation 1.3 as before.

2. EXTREMES

2.1. Intervals

Extremes of any distribution of observations are of interest because they afford a rough indication of the range of the variable: extremes which

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have occurred may be expected to occur again. In geophysics, extremes are of greater importance than in many other sciences, because many questions of engineering design hinge on the most extreme value to be expected. Dams must be constructed to withstand the maximum flood anticipated in the lifetime of the structure, skyscrapers must be designed with the most severe earthquake in mind, chimneys should be able to endure the strongest wind, communications circuits should operate during the most severe magnetic and electrical disturbances, and piers must be located and constructed to withstand the heaviest anticipated surf.

In all such problems, specified calculated risks may be taken if the likelihood of occurrence of these extremes can be estimated within known limits of accuracy. The basis for such estimates of risk, and methods for their calculation, are explained first in this section. Then follows a discussion of the most recent method of estimating the most extreme value to be expected in a given period, the statistical theory of extreme values.

By definition:

An event which happens H times in N trials has a relative freguency of occurrence of H/N, and an apparent return period of T = N/H.

The apparent return period, or reciprocal of the relative frequency, is therefore the *average* interval between recurrences of the event in the particular series of trials. Despite the rigor of this definition, it has not been fully appreciated, and there even have been some attempts to prove it.

Distinctions have been drawn, in hydrology, between two kinds of return periods: the "exceedance interval" and "recurrence interval," respectively the average periods between exceedances and recurrences of an event. These distinctions may be justified in dealing with discrete variables, such as number of points on a throw of two dice, but they grow meaningless for continuous variables as the unit of measurement becomes smaller. The distinction is part of the earlier empirical approach to the problems, which has been superseded by the recent advances outlined in this article.

Events for which relative frequencies and return periods are estimated are defined in one of two ways: by time or by magnitude. Events defined by time are the largest (or smallest) individual values during a given interval, such as a month, year, or solar cycle. Events defined by magnitude are those values which exceed some predetermined base, such as a temperature of 100°F or an earthquake intensit, of 6.0; the time unit is usually much smaller than that used for the first type.

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In particular, most hydrologic analyses use the relative frequency and apparent return periods of *annual* floods (maximum stream discharge), ignoring the second-highest floods of each year although some of them may be greater than the largest floods of other years. To rectify this apparent fault, other analyses use all floods exceeding the base value ("partial-duration series"), so that "the recurrence interval is the average interval between floods of a given size regardless of their relationship to the year or any other period of time." [16] It is less than the recurrence interval computed on the annual basis, although "for arge floods the two approach numerical equality."

2.2 Frequency

If the occurrence or recurrence of an event depends on so many independent factors that it may be considered to follow the laws of chance, its relative frequency usually is assumed to be the same as the *probability of occurrence* in any one trial. This equivalence, which appears intuitively sound to the engineer, is questioned by the mathematician, and has encountered much statistical discussion.

It is the subject of an early theorem, acclaimed as one of the foundations of probability theory, proven by James Bernoulli in his Ars coniectandi (published posthumously in 1713):

As the number of trials increases, the probability approaches unity that the relative frequency of occurrence will differ by less than any desired amount from the true probability of occurrence.

This theorem does not say that the relative frequency itself approaches the true probability as a limit, although Rietz [17] proposed such a statement as the basic definition of probability, from which Bernoulli's theorem would be an immediate consequence. In recent years these fundamental assumptions of probability theory have been the subject of renewed discussion [18].

In most geophysical problems, the true probability is unknown and must be inferred from the relative frequency. "Bernoulli, himself, in establishing his theory, had in mind the approximate evaluation of unknown probabilities from repeated experiments," Uspensky [19] pointed out, quoting Bernoulli as saying: "If somebody for many preceding years had observed the weather and noticed how many times it was fair or rainy, ...'. by these very observations he would be able to discover the ratio of cases which in the future might favor the occurrence or failure of the same event under similar circumstances."

While the relative frequency based on very many occurrences provides a reasonable estimate of the true probability of occurrence, the

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relative frequency in a few occurrences is not at all reliable. Probability estimates usually are made in terms of two limits which are expected, with some given degree of co.,fidence, to include the true value; for a given relative frequency, the grea is the degree of confidence, the wider the interval in which the true probability is estimated to be. The limits of the estimate converge sharply as the number of trials on which it is based increases; this is shown by Table I, for 95% confidence, based on a diagram by Clopper and Pearson [20], which has been reproduced widely [21]; a similar table is presented by Snedecor [22] without explanation.

TABLE I. Limits of estimate of true probability with 95% confidence from relative frequency based on samples of varying size.

						Nur	nber	of	Tria	a - 1	Sm	nple	Size					
Rei, freq.	1	0			20			30			50			104)		00	0
00	.00 1	to	31	.00	to	.17	.00	to	.12	.00	to	.07	.00	to	.04	.00	to	.01
.10	.00 1	0	.43	.01	to	.32	.03	to	27	.05	to	.22	.07	to	.17	.08	to	.12
20	.02 t	to	.57	.05	to	.44	.07	to	.39	.10	to	.34	12	to	.39	.17	to	.22
30	.06 t	0	.66	.12	to	.55	.15	to	.50	.18	to	. 45	.21	to	.40	.27	to	.33
40	.11 0	0	75	.18	to	.64	.22	to	.60	.26	to	.55	.39	to	.50	.37	to	.43
.50	.17 t	0	82	.27	to	.73	.31	to	.69	.35	to	.65	.40	to	.60	47	to	.53

Table I shows, for example, that a relative frequency of 0.20 based on 10 trials (2 occurrences in 10 years) may arise from true probabilities anywhere between 0.02 and 0.57. For the same relative frequency observed in 50 1 'als the corresponding limits are 0.10 to 0.34. Based on 1000 trials the limits are only 0.17 to 0.22. Estimates of the true probabilities based on the rather small samples used in geophysics have very wide confidence intervals—so wide as to vitiate many computations based on them.

Probably the most valuable contribution of the theory of <u>extreme</u> values, discussed in detail later in this section, is that it provides an estimate of the true probability of occurrence of extreme values based, not on one extreme alone, but on all the values. An estimated relative frequency or return period obtained by this method, is outlined in Section 2.9, is the closest obtainable approximation to the true probability or return period.

2.3. Probability

Return periods, observed or estimated, are used extensively in various branches of geophysics, especially in hydrology for flood analysis. Nevertheless, the significance of the return period is not well known,

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although it can be developed as a corollary of the oldest problem in the theory of probability. In this problem, 300 years ago, Pascal found that while the probability of a double six on any one throw of two dice is $\frac{1}{28}$ and its return period is therefore 36 throws, there is better than a 50–50 chance of obtaining at least one double six in only 25 throws.

In general, the probability that an event x_r , whose probability of occurrence in a single trial is p = 1 - q and whose return period is therefore $\tilde{T} = 1/p$, will not occur in any of N trials is (notation as in List of Symbols, page 82):

(2.1)
$$P(\dot{x}_s < x_r) = q^s = (1 - p)^s = (1 - 1/T)^s$$

Consequently, the probability of at least one occurrence in N trials is.

(2.2)
$$P(\mathbf{x}_{s} \ge \mathbf{x}_{t}) = 1 - q^{s} = 1 - (1 - 1/T)^{s}$$

In Pascal's dice problem, $p = \frac{1}{24}$, and for $P(\hat{x}_N \ge x_T) = P(\hat{x}_N < x_T) = \frac{1}{4}$, $N = \log \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)/\log \left(\frac{3}{44}\right) = 24.6$.

Similarly, the probability of occurrence for the first time on the Nth trial is the compound probability of non-occurrence in N - 1 trials and of occurrence in one trial:

(2.3) $P[(\hat{x}_{N-1} < x_T)(x_N \ge x_T)] = pq^{N-1} = \chi_1^{N-1} - \chi_1^N = (\bar{T} - 1)^{N-1}/\bar{T}^N$ This probability is greatest on the first trial, and decreases with each successive trial because the probability of occurrence on the preceding trials increases. In Pascal's dice problem, the probability of a double six for the first time on the Nth trial (equation 2.3) decreases, while that for a double six in at least one of N trials (equation 2.2) increases, as follows:

A fourth relationship, extensively used in some probability problems, but rarely of direct interess in geophysics, gives the probability of exactly a H occurrences in N trials:

(2.4)
$$P[(\hat{x}_N \ge x_T) = H] = [N!/H!(N - H)!]p^n q^{N-H} = [N!/H!(N - H)!](\hat{T} - 1)^{N-H}/\hat{T}^N$$

The factorial terms are the binomial coefficient, usually written $\binom{N}{M}$ but formerly written as ${}_{N}C_{H}$ or C_{H}^{M} ; they represent the number of combinations of N objects taken H at a time. For no occurrences, H = 0 and the coefficient becomes unity, so equation 2.4 reduces to equation 2.1; for exactly one occurrence, H = 1 and the coefficient becomes simply N, so equation 2.4 is N times equation 2.3: the probability of exactly one

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occurrence in N trials is N times as great as the probability of occurrence for the first time on the Vth trial.

The significance of these equations, especially equations 2.1 and 2.3, becomes clearer if the number of trials N is expressed as a fraction of the true return period \hat{T} by the substitution $N = \hat{T}/r$, where τ is any positive number. This substitution permits the evaluation of the equations as \hat{T} increases without limit, since by the definition of e, the base of natural logarithms, the limit of $(1 - a/\hat{T})^{\hat{\tau}}$ as \hat{T} increases is e^{-s} . Thus the probability that an event x_{τ} , whose return period is \hat{T} , will not occur within $N = \hat{T}/\tau$ trials, is (from equation 2.1),

(2.5)
$$P(\hat{x}_{s} < x_{t}) = [(\hat{T} - 1)/\hat{T}]^{\hat{\tau}_{t}} \xrightarrow{\hat{x} \to x} e^{-i\gamma}$$

Likewise, the probability that x_r will occur for the first time on the $N = \tilde{T}/k$ trial is (from equation 2.3),

+ ()

(2.6)
$$P[(\dot{x}_{N-1} < x_r)(x_N \ge x_r)] = (\tilde{T} - 1)^{(\tilde{T}/r) - 1}/\tilde{T}^{\tilde{T}/r}$$

2.4. Risks

These equations illuminate the nature of the intervals between recurrences of x_r in a very long series of trials, of which the average interval \tilde{T} is by definition the return period. The median \tilde{T} is the period with a 50% probability of at least one occurrence (Pascal's original problem), $P(\hat{x}_N \geq x_r) = 1 - e^{-\nu_r} = \frac{1}{2}$. As \tilde{T} increases, 1/r approaches log 2 = 0.69315, so that the median is a little more than $\frac{1}{2}$ of the average, i.e., $\tilde{T} = 0.7\tilde{T}$. The mode, \tilde{T} , or most frequent interval between recurrences, is always 0: there is more chance that an extreme value will recur on the next trial following an occurrence (interval 0) than that it will recur for the first time on any specific trial thereafter, but this probability for any specific trial approaches 0 as \tilde{T} increases without limit.

When r = 1, that is $N = \tilde{T}$, the probability by equations 2.4 and 2.5 for various occurrences of an event x_r during a very long period equalling its average return period \tilde{T} approach:

0	occurrences	-	0.	36788
1	occurrence	-	0.	36788
2	or more occurrences	-	0	26424
			1	00000

Consequently, the probability that the event x_r will occur at least once in an infinitely long series is 0.63212, not much less than the value 0.638 given above for occurrences of a double six in 36 throws of two dice. Actually, the limiting values can be used for practical purposes whenever T exceeds 10 or 15, as shown in Table II. Practical application of these findings can be made readily in terms of calculated risks. The probability (equations 2.1 and 2.5) that an event x_r , whose return period is \hat{T} , will not occur in any of $N = \hat{T}/r$ trials is also the probability that in each of these trials the variable xwill be less than the value x_r . This in turn may be considered as the confidence that a structure, designed to withstand a maximum event

TABLE II. Factor r by which desired lifetime N must be multiplied to obtain design return period $T_{\mathcal{A}}$ for various calculated risks U (equation 2.8).

acarb.			and the local division in which the		and the second data and the	and the second second			
Calculated risk, U	.632	.500	.400	333	.300	. 250	.200	. 100	050
Desired life, $N \begin{pmatrix} 2\\ 10\\ \infty \end{pmatrix}$	1 27 1 05 1 00	1.71 1.49 1.44	2.22 2.01 1.96	2 73 2 52 2 47	3 06 2 85 2 80	3.73 3.52 3.45	4 74 4 52 4 49	9 75 9 52 9 49	19 76 19 57 19 50

whose return period is \tilde{T} , will not fail in a shorter period \tilde{T}/r . Thus the confidence is 50% that a bridge designed to withstand a 100-year flood, but which will fail in the slightly larger 101-year flood, will not be washed out in less than about 70 years; the confidence that it will not be washed out in 100 years is only 37 percent—the risk of such failure is consequently 63 percent.

Conversely, for any desired lifetime $N = \hat{T}/r$, and a calculated risk of failure U within a lesser interval, the design return period T_d can be determined by substituting for N in equation 2.2 and solving for r:

(2.7)
$$U = P(\dot{x}_r \ge x_r) = 1 - (1 - 1/T_d)^{\tau_{d/r}} \xrightarrow[\tau_s \to \infty]{} 1 - e^{-Ur}$$

(2.8) $r = \log(1 - 1/T_d)^{\tau_d/\log}(1 - U) \xrightarrow[\tau_s \to \infty]{} -1/\log(1 - U)$

Values of r are given in Table II for various calculated risks U and for lifetimes N of 2 and 10 (trials, e.g. years) as calculated from the exact first portion of equation 2.8, as well as the limiting values from the second part. These limiting values are approached so rapidly that they may be used with sufficient accuracy for any desired lifetimes greater than 10 or 15. This table indicates, for example, that a tower which is to last 50 years, with a risk of only 10% of failure due to strong winds before that time, should be designed for the strongest wind expected in $T_d = 50 \times 9.49 = 475$ years

Tables II and I show dif. Int aspects of the same fundamental fact: that the intervals between recurrences of an event are variable. This fact, though known intuitively and demonstrable as a corollary of a problem solved more than 300 years ago, has not been used extensively in numerical estimates. One of the few investigations of the problem, by Thomas [23], used a different version of equation 2.4 (for the proba-

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bility of exactly H occurrences in N trials), considered as a general expression of which others such as equations 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 are special cases. By this more indirect method, conclusions analagous to those presented here were reached, and the resulting tables are reproduced in a recent textbook [24].

2.5. Theory

Use of Table II implies accurate estimation of the magnitude of x_{d} , the "design extreme" whose return period T_d is obtained from the table for the desired lifetime N and calculated risk U. Such estimation, however, is subject to the limitations of Table I as long as it is based on only the observed relative frequency of the extreme in question. Improvement in the estimate can be achieved only by increasing the size of the sample from which the relative frequency is determined, or by weighting or correcting the estimate in some way.

The most obvious weighting procedure is to consider all the observed extremes instead of only the extremes equalling or exceeding the required value. In effect, this process increases the sample size synthetically, and thus narrows the confidence limits of the estimate. The various empirical weighting procedures proposed in the last few decades have been replaced in recent years by a newer method, with theoretical foundations: the statistical theory of extreme values.

From foundations laid during the previous 15 years, the statistical distribution of the extreme values in a sample was developed during the 1930s by Dr. Emil J. Gumbel [25]. (The fundamentals of the theory are summarized by Kendall [26].) After applying the theory to such widely diverse things as the ages of the oldest inhabitants of each region and the intervals between radioactive emissions, Gumbel adapted it to flood analysis and introduced it in this form [27] shortly after coming to the United States in 1940.

The theory attracted widespread interest, and was adapted by others [7, 28] for hydrological computations, and applied to breaking strength [29] problems, the determination of gust loads on aircraft [30], and to climatic evaluations [31]; additional refinements were made by Gumbel [32].

The theory applies to the largest (or smallest) values in each of \underline{N} independent sets of n independent observations each, drawn from the same population. This parent population must be distributed according to some exponential law (as is the normal distribution), so that it is unlimited but tends to zero as the variable increases or decreases, the distribution also must possess all moments.

While based on these premises, in practice the theory may be applied

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to many cases in which some of the conditions are met only approximately, particular, it may be used for extremes of distributions which are liminate it at either end, as long as the limits are well beyond the region of observation. Temperature has a definite lower limit (absolute zero) and possibly an upper limit, but since these are far removed from the values observed on earth, extremes of air temperature (or water, or rocks) may be analyzed by the theory. Similarly, rainfall amounts and flood stages can be analyzed if the smallest values in each set are still well above zero: the highest flood stage of each year in a perennial river can be analyzed, but not the highest stage in a dry wash which may have no water at all for several years in a row.

The fundamental theorem of the theory of extreme values is:

In a set of N independent extremes $x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_N$, each being the extreme of one of N sets of n observations each of an unlimited, exponentially-distributed variable, as both N and n grow large the cumulative probability that any one of these N extremes will be less (greater, for smallest values) than any chosen quantity, x, approaches the double exponential expression

(2.9)
$$q(x) = \Phi(x) = \exp\left[-e^{\frac{1}{2}a(x-x)}\right]$$

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00

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12 . 5 12 .

In the exponent, the - sign applies for largest extremes, the + sign for smallest extremes; "exp" is another way of writing "e to the power": $\exp(x) = e^x$. This expression gives the probability of nonoccurrence q(x) of the event x in a single trial, and thus affords a way of determining the probability of occurrence $p = 1 - q = 1 - \Phi(x)$ used in Sections 2.3 and 2.4. Consequently, the return period of extremes equal to or exceeding x is

(2.10)
$$T_x = 1/[1 - \Phi(x)]$$

Introduction of the expression for $\Phi(x)$, equation 2.9, into equation 2.10 yields a most unwickly expression, so that in practice the probability of non-occurrence, $\Phi(x)$, is obtained first, and then the return period is found.

3.6 Description

The manner in which this probability of non-occurrence, $\Phi(x)$, varies with x is shown by differentiation:

$$\Phi'(x) = a \cdot e^{\frac{1}{2} \pi (x-\bar{x})} \Phi(x)$$

Further differentiation shows that the density of probability (Section 1.5) is a maximum at $x = \hat{x}$, i.e., that \hat{x} is theoretically the most frequent value (mode) of the set of extremes being considered Graph-

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ing reveals the density function (equation 2.11) to be a generally belishaped curve, roughly similar to the normal curve but skewed markedly (to the right for largest values, to the left for smallest values), so that the mean is different from the mode (it is greater for largest values, less for smallest values).

The skewness of the density of probability curve shows that there is a greater likelihood of very great extremes than of very small ones, i.e., than of extremes which are closest to the mean of the parent values. Although derivation of the theory of extreme values is far beyond the scope of this article, some intuitive basis for it can be mentioned.

In any fair-sized sample drawn from a normal distribution, or from one of the same general unimodal, unlimited type, it is almost certain that there will be at least one value as much as one standard deviation greater than the mean. On the other hand, since the distribution from which the extremes are drawn has no limits, a few such samples will contain values greater than the mean by more than three standard deviations. Consequently, when the extremes of each of many such samples are considered as a group, they are found to range from around one standard deviation above the mean of the original distribution up to a few very large values, but to be concentrated close to the lower end of this range.

The skewness of the density distribution of the extreme value function is shown in Fig. 1, which also illustrates the relation between a set of extremes and the observations from which it is drawn. The large histogram. to which a normal curve has been fitted, shows the frequency of occurrence of the highest temperature of each summer day (June-July-August) at Washington, D. C., during 74 years—a total of 6,808 daily observations [33].

In the lower right a solid histogram shows the frequency of occurrence of the highest temperature in each of the 74 summers, with an extreme value probability density curve fitted to it. Since the daily values are by 5°F class intervals, the scale for the annual values has been multiplied by 5 to make the two curves comparable.

One moral of Fig. 1 is that even a small set of extreme values must represent a relatively large number of actual observations, since each value in the set of N extremes is itself the extreme of a large number, n, of readings: here N = 74, n = 92, since this example involves the extremes of each of 74 sets of observations each containing 92 observations. The theory of extreme values assumes both N and n to be large, and in general it should not be applied if either is less than 20, and preferably 30 or even 50.



Fig. 1. Frequencies of highest temperatures of each summer day and year. Washington, D. C., 74 years (1872-1945), June-July-August.

The highest daily temperatures in Fig. 1 are not fitted too well by a normal curve—they are skewed somewhat to the right, but not as much as would be required if they were independent values and thus subject to the theory of extreme values. Incidentally, the analysis of the extremes applies only to summer: in five of the 74 years, the highest temperature of the year came outside the three summer months, once in May and four times in September.

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2.7. Parameters

In the density distribution (equation 2.11) of extreme values, the inflection points, where curvature changes from convex upward around the mode to concave in the tails, are at $x = \hat{x} = \pm 0.9624/a$; in the normal curve, the inflection points are at $\pm \sigma$. Thus 1/a is somewhat analagous to σ , in that it indicates the degree of dispersion of the various extremes about their mode; consequently, "a" itself is a measure of concentration about the mode.

This measure of concentration, a, and theoretical mode, \hat{x} , of any set of extremes depend in theory on the density distribution f(x) of the entire set of values and on its integral, the cumulative probability function F(x):

(2.12)
$$a = n f(x)$$
 and $F(t) = 1 - 1/n$

Since these theoretical definitions require knowledge of the density distribution of the population from which the set of extreme values has been drawn, and in general the only knowledge of this population is derivable from the sample, these definitions cannot be used in practice. Instead, these two values are estimated by the theory of least squares from the data of the sample (as explained in Section 2.8), using two theoretical quantities:

(2.13)
$$a = \sigma_N / s_n$$
 and $\hat{x} = \hat{x} \mp s_x (\hat{y}_x / \sigma_N)$

Here \tilde{x} is the mean and s_x the standard deviation of the set of extremes, while the mean \mathfrak{g}_N and standard deviation σ_N of a theoretical variate depend only on the sample size N, and thus can be tabulated for ready use. Table III gives their values for every integer of N from 15 to 100, and for selected greater sample sizes; linear interpolation is adequate when $N \ge 100$ since as N increases both quantities approach limiting values asymptotically. Table III was computed by Dr. Gumbel [31].

Because the double exponential form of the basic equation (2.9) imposes difficulties in computation and analysis, it is reduced to linear form by taking the double ("iterated natural") logarithm of both sides; a new variate, $y = -\log [-\log \Phi(x)]$, is called the *reduced variate*:

(2.14)
$$y = \pm a (x - t)$$

Solved for x, this equation becomes

With the definitions of Eq. 2.13 introduced, this expression becomes

 $x = \pm \pm y/a$

(2.16)
$$x = \bar{x} \pm (s_s/\sigma_s)(y - p_s)$$

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as III Reduced means and standard deviations of reduced extremes.

1.60	15.05 X X X X X					-		1000	
mple eize N	Reduced mean ý×	Std. dev. #8	Sample. sizt N	Reduced mean gw	Std. dev. øg	Sample size N	Reduced mean gr	dev.	
	a sais	1 0200	50	5485	1.1607	85	5578	1.1973	
15	.5128	1 0216	51	5489	1.1623	86	5580	1 1980	
16	5157	1.0310	52	5493	1.1638	87	5581	1 1967	
17	2181	1 0403	53	5497	1.1658	88	. 5583	1 1984	
18	5202	1.0565	54	5501	1.1667	89	.5585	1 2001	
19	.5220	1.0000	85	5504	1.1681	96	5586	1.2007	
20	5236	1.0628	50	5508	1.1696	91	5587	1 2013	
21	.5252	1.06546	218	55.43	1 1768	92	5589	1 2020	
22	. 5268	1 0754	0.0	5515	1 1721	93	5591	1.2026	
23	4283	1.0811	50	5518	1 1734	91	. 5592	1 2002	
24	5296	1.0804	00	44733	1 1747	95	. 5593	1 2038	
25	5309	1.0915	60	1212	\$ 1750	96	.5595	1 2044	
26	5320	1.0961	61	0021	1 1770	97	5596	1.2040	
27	4332	1.1004	62	0041	1 1782	98	5598	1.2055	
28	5343	1.1047	63	5530	1 1703	00	.5599	1 2060	
29	5353	1.1086	64	0000	1.1100	1	5600	1 207 29	Ne
30	.5362	1.1124	65	. 5535	1.1803	1 100			210
31	5371	1.1159	66	5538	1.1814	1	5646	1 22534	T
32	5380	1.1193	67	.5540	1.1824	1 199			1
22	5388	1.1226	68	5543	1.1834	-	6079	1 23598	
24	5396	1.1255	69	.5545	1.1844	200	2012	1 01000	3
3.4	# 40/h	1 1985	70	.5548	1.1854	250	5688	1,24284	-
35	0404	1 1213	71	5550	1.1863	1			
36	2419	1 1929	72	5552	1 1873	300	.5699	1 24780	
37	5418	1.1000	73	5555	1.1881			States and	3
38	5424	1.1.00	74	5557	1.1890	400	.5714	1 25450	3
38	.5430	1.1300		6550	1 183	8			1
40	.5436	1.1413	5 10	5581	1 190	6 500	5724	1 25880	1
41	.5442	1 143	0 10	5563	1 191	5			14
42	5448	1.145	8 11	EERE	1 192	3			100
43	.5453	1.148	0 78	2200	1 103	0 750	.5738	1.26506	a
44	5458	1.149	9 79	.0007	1.100				1
45	.5463	1.151	9 80	. 5569	1.193	5 1000	5745	i 26851	0
46	.5458	1.153	8 81	5570	1.194	3			10
47	.5473	1.155	7 82	.5572	1.190	in Inf	5772	1.28255	
48	.5477	1.157	4 85	.5574	1 100	7			
49	5481	1.159	0 81	.0076	1.180				

where, as before, the upper sign is used for extremes of maximums, the lower for those of minimums. This equation gives the *expected extreme* for any set of N extremes, that is, the extreme value for which the true return period \hat{T} corresponds to the probability given by y.

In this form, the results of application of the theory of extreme values to a set of extremes can be compared with results given by earlier, more

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empirical formulas. A "general formula for hydrologic frequency analysis," applicable to all analyses of the probabilities or return periods of extreme values, has recently been proposed by Chow [34]. With notation altered to conform to the remainder of this article, it is:

$$(2.17) x = \bar{x} + Ks_x$$

where x is the departure of an individual observation (flood) from the mean \hat{x} of the series, s, is the standard deviation of x (i.e., of the series), and K is a "frequency factor . . . which depends upon the law of occurrence" of the particular event.

The only difference between various methods, each of which assumes a different law of occurrence, is in their definition of K, computation of which in some cases is quite laborious and requires extensive tables. By dividing equation 2.17 by \tilde{x} , Chow obtained an expression for the "y-mean ratio" (in his notation y is used where x is used here) in terms of K and the coefficient of variation:

(2.18)
$$x/\hat{x} = 1 + K(s_x/\hat{x})$$

This form he considered more useful than the first (2.17) in comparing various formulas.

From equation 2.16, the "frequency factor" for the theory of extreme values is:

 $(2.19) K = \pm (y - \bar{y}_N)/\sigma_N$

Since y is the double logarithm ("iterated natural logarithm") of the probability, and \bar{y}_N and σ_N depend only on the sample size, K can be tabulated readily, as in Table IV. With the values in this table, the

TABLE IV.	Values of K	= ± (yT	$-\tilde{g}_N)/\sigma_N$ for	various prol	habilities $\Phi(x)$ and	various
			sample sizes	N		

	and the second sec	and the second second second	the statement of the local statement	and the second se	international sector in the sector in the sector is the se		the second second second second second
			$\Phi(x) = 1$	-1/T			
N	0.999	0.990	0.980	0 960	0.950	0.900	0.800
15	6.265	4.005	3.321	2 631	2.310	1.703	0.967
20	6.006	3.836	3.179	2.517	2 302	1.625	0.919
25	5.812	3.728	3.088	2.444	2 235	1.575	0.288
30	5.727	3.653	3.026	2.393	2.188	1.541	0.866
40	5.575	3.554	2.943	2.326	2.126	1.495	0.838
50	5.478	3.491	2.889	2.283	2.086	1.466	0.820
70	5.359	3.413	2.824	2.230	2.038	1.430	0.797
00	5.261	3.349	2.770	2.187	1.998	1.401	0.779
00	5.130	3.263	2.698	2.129	1.944	1.362	0.755
	N 15 20 25 30 40 50 70 00 00	N 0.999 15 6.265 20 6.006 25 5.812 30 5.727 40 5.575 50 5.478 70 5.359 90 5.130	N 0.999 0.990 15 6.265 4.005 20 6.006 3.836 25 5.812 3.728 30 5.727 3.653 40 5.575 3.554 50 5.478 3.491 70 5.359 3.413 00 5.261 3.349 90 5.130 3.263	$\Phi(x) = 1$ $N = 0.999 = 0.990 = 0.980$ $15 = 6.265 = 4.005 = 3.321$ $20 = 6.006 = 3.836 = 3.179$ $25 = 5.812 = 3.728 = 3.088$ $30 = 5.727 = 3.653 = 3.026$ $40 = 5.575 = 3.554 = 2.943$ $50 = 5.478 = 3.491 = 2.889$ $70 = 5.359 = 3.413 = 2.824$ $00 = 5.261 = 3.349 = 2.770$ $90 = 5.130 = 3.263 = 2.698$	$\Phi(x) = 1 - 1/T$ $N = 0.999 = 0.990 = 0.980 = 0.960$ $15 = 6.265 = 4.005 = 3.321 = 2.631$ $20 = 6.006 = 3.836 = 3.179 = 2.517$ $25 = 5.812 = 3.728 = 3.088 = 2.444$ $30 = 5.727 = 3.653 = 3.026 = 2.393$ $40 = 5.575 = 3.554 = 2.943 = 2.326$ $50 = 5.478 = 3.491 = 2.889 = 2.283$ $70 = 5.359 = 3.413 = 2.824 = 2.230$ $70 = 5.359 = 3.413 = 2.824 = 2.230$ $70 = 5.261 = 3.349 = 2.770 = 2.187$ $90 = 5.130 = 3.263 = 2.698 = 2.129$	$\Phi(x) = 1 - 1/T$ N 0.999 0.990 0.980 0.960 0.950 15 6.265 4.005 3.321 2.631 2.310 20 6.006 3.836 3.179 2.517 2.302 25 5.812 3.728 3.088 2.444 2.235 30 5.727 3.653 3.026 2.393 2.188 40 5.575 3.554 2.943 2.326 2.126 50 5.478 3.491 2.889 2.283 2.086 70 5.359 3.413 2.824 2.230 2.038 00 5.261 3.349 2.770 2.187 1.998 90 5.130 3.263 2.698 2.129 1.944	$\Phi(x) = 1 - 1/T$ $N = 0.999 = 0.990 = 0.980 = 0.960 = 0.950 = 0.900$ $15 = 6.265 = 4.005 = 3.321 = 2.631 = 2.310 = 1.703$ $20 = 6.006 = 3.836 = 3.179 = 2.517 = 2.302 = 1.625$ $25 = 5.812 = 3.728 = 3.088 = 2.444 = 2.235 = 1.575$ $30 = 5.727 = 3.653 = 3.026 = 2.393 = 2.188 = 1.541$ $40 = 5.575 = 3.554 = 2.943 = 2.326 = 2.126 = 1.495$ $50 = 5.478 = 3.491 = 2.889 = 2.283 = 2.086 = 1.466$ $70 = 5.359 = 3.413 = 2.824 = 2.230 = 2.038 = 1.430$ $90 = 5.130 = 3.263 = 2.698 = 2.129 = 1.944 = 1.362$

expected extreme x whose probability of not being equalled or exceeded (equation 2.9) is $\Phi(x) = \exp(-e^{-x})$, and therefore whose return period is (equation 2.10) $T_x = 1/[1 - \Phi(x)]$, can be computed if the mean \hat{x} and standard deviation σ_x of N extremes are available. For example, the extreme expected to occur (on the average over a long period) once in 100 years $[\Phi(x) = 0.990]$ is 3.65 s. greater than the mean of N = 30extremes.

Conversely, the expected return period \hat{T}_{\star} corresponding to any given extreme value x can be obtained from equations 2.10, 2.13, and 2.14, but the resulting expression is cumbersome, and the determination is easier by the methods outlined in Section 2.10.

2.8. Computations

Certain computations based on the theory of extreme varies can be made directly from a set of extremes (obtaining the mean and standard deviation s_2) by the use of Tables III or IV, and equations 2.16 or 2.17. For complete analysis of a set of extremes, however, and in particular to determine how well the set follows the theory, it is more convenient to graph the data, using a special extreme probability paper.

On this paper, one of the coordinates is linear, for the observed of extremes (denoted by x), while the other is double logarithmic, for $\Phi(x)$ which is (equation 2.9) a double exponential expression. In the original version of this paper [7, 27], the double-logarithmic coordinate was the abscissa; in a revised version [31] the coordinate: are reversed so that the observed values, denoted by x, are plotted along the abscissa as is customary, and the double-logarithmic scale is the ordinate. To facilitate plotting and analysis, there are two other ordinate scale of at the left a linear scale for the reduced variate y, and at the right a consilogarithmic scale for the return period T.

Extreme probability paper is identical in function and use to other 1 probability papers (Section 1.4), and observations are plotted on it by 5 rank and magnitude. Forch extreme is plotted at an abscissa corresponding to its value and at an ordinate, on the double-logarithmic scale, corresponding to its cumulative rank divided by N + 1. All such points are then connected by short straight lines, producing a zig-zag line which should, if the entire set follows the theory of extreme values, approximate a straight line.

This straight line is simply equation 2.14 or 2.15, which was fitted to the observations by a method of least squares: the estimates of a and \sharp (equation 2.13) actually minimize the sum of the diagonal distances from the line to each plotted poir a presenting one of the observed extremes. Ordinary least squares provider minimizes the sums of either the

horizontal or vertical departures, but this method provides a best fit, independent of whether x or y is considered as the independent variable.

This "line of expected extremes" is expressed customarily by equation 2.15, since in practice specific values of x are determined for various probabilities as represented by y, such as 0 and 5. This procedure, however, implies no dependence of x on y: they are mutually dependent.

To indicate how well the line fits the observations, a confidence band can be drawn on both sides of it. Generally, the limits of this band are chosen so that there is a probability of 0.68268 (corresponding to $\pm \sigma$ of the normal distribution) that the extreme corresponding to any frequency $\Phi(x)$ will fall within the band. For frequencies from 0.15 to 0.85, the width of this band is obtained by dividing a certain theoretical value, here called h, by $a \sqrt{N}$, so that the limits of the band (sometimes called control curves) are, by equation 2.16.

 $(2.20) x = \tilde{x} \pm Ks_x \pm h/a \sqrt{N}$

where the first double sign is + for largest values, - for smallest values, and the second gives, respectively, the upper and lower limits of the band. Values of h for various frequencies are:

Freq. Φ(x): 150 .200 .300 .400 .500 .600 .700 .800 .850 h: 1.255 1.243 1.268 1.337 1.443 1.598 1.835 2.241 2.585

For frequencies greater than 0.85, the width of the 0.68269 confidence band is calculated for the largest and next-to-largest extremes:

(2.21) $\Delta_{x,N} = \pm 1.1407/a$ $\Delta_{x,N-1} = \pm 0.7592/a[(N-1)/N]$

On either side of the line of expected extremes, intervals as obtained by dividing the tabular values above by $a \sqrt{N}$ are plotted at the corresponding frequencies; the values computed from equation 2.21 are laid off similarly at the frequencies of the largest and next-to-largest observed values, but symmetrically about the line and not about the points representing those observed extremes. Two lines are drawn connecting the points so plotted, forming a characteristic horn-shaped figure; technically, the two lines should be drawn smoothly, with a french curve, but in practice short straight lines are adequate. For frequencies greater than that of the largest observed extreme, the confidence band is extended parallel to the line of extremes at the same width as for the largest value.

Figure 2 shows, for the same data represented by the solid histogram of Fig. 1, the zig-zag plot of the 74 observed extremes, their "line of expected extremes," and the confidence band centered on this line. The scales and grid of Fig. 2 are skeletonized from extreme probability graph paper. Since the ordinate of this paper is doubly logarithmic, most of the observations are concentrated in the lower part of the diagram: the median (frequency .500 or return period 2) is less than a third of the way up the figure. Because the largest and next-to-largest values in this



particular example are equal in value (a not uncommon occurrence in some sets of extremes), the confidence band broadens markedly for the last value. In Figure 2 the confidence band has not been extended past the largest observed value, as may be done.

2.9. Evaluations

If about two-thirds of the observed extremes as plotted on the extreme probability paper fall within the confidence band, the extremes may be considered to be represented adequately by the theory of extreme values. Usually the inrgest few values will show the greatest departures from the line, but unless one of them is well outside the confidence band it is not subject to serious question.

The probability p_{Δ} that the greatest extreme x_{N} of the sample will depart, by an amount equal to or less than Δ (its actual departure), from

its expected value x_{τ} as given by the line of expected extremes (or by equations 2.16 or 2.17) is

(2.22)
$$p_{\Delta} = \exp(-e^{-s\Delta}) - \exp(-e^{s\Delta})$$

Values of aA, the "relative departure," for various probabilities are:

Probability, pa: 0.0100 0.1000 0.3000 0.5000 0.6827 0.7500 0.9000 Rel. departure, a A: 0.0136 0.1342 0.4200 0.7429 1 1407 1 2940 2 2511

When the actual departure A of the largest extreme from its expected value is multiplied by "a" (equation 2.13), this table permits estimation of the probability that the largest extreme of the given set could have such a departure.

Another method of determining the reliability of the largest extreme, if it deviates markedly from the expected value, is to omit it from an entire new computation of \$, s, and the line of expected extremes, and then determine its relative departure from the new line for evaluation by the above table.

When the most extreme value of a set of extremes is very different from its expected value, which is based on it and all the others in the set, it may be so as the result of chance: there is always a probability of 0.01 that the 100-year value will occur on the next trial (i.e. year). But such a departure warrants investigation of the original data for possible errors in observation, recording, or transcription.

When the two or three most extreme values depart markedly from the expected values, or when many of the observations plot outside the confidence band, the observations simply may not follow the theory of extreme values, for any of several reasons:

a. The set of extremes in question may not be independent.

b. The individual extremes may not be comparable, i.e., may not be extremes of samples from the same population. For example, annual win 1 extremes at a weather station where the anemometer height or exposure has changed markedly through the years do not follow the theory; nor do maximum sanual river stages (heights) if the channel width increases irregularly with the height.

c. The original population, from which independent samples are presurged to have been drawn with each sample yielding a separate extreme. may not be unimodal and unlimited. Maximum relative humidity values would not follow the theory (except in very arid areas) because the upper limit (100%) is within the range of the observations.

Lack of correspondence between observation and theory does not discredit the theory: it merely shows that the theory of extreme values cannot be used to analyze the observations. Thus, unless it has been

established that the variable in question does fall within the scope of the theory, a complete analysis, using a confidence band on extreme probability paper, is desirable before any conclusions are drawn

2.10 Applications

Most practical applications of the theory of extreme values, in geophysics as elsewhere, are concerned primarily with return periods. The information desired usually is either the return period of some specified extreme value, or else the converse, the greatest extreme to be expected within some specified period. Either of these questions can be answered satisfactorily, together with the confidence limits of the answers.

As demonstrated in Sections 2.3 and 2.4, the return period \bar{T} is the average of all the intervals between recurrences of an event in a long series, but half of the intervals will be less than about .7 of this average, and the most probable interval is zero. The probability that an event will not occur until the end of its return period is only 0.37, which is also the probability that it will occur exactly one time before the end of the period. Confidence limits of the return period also can be expressed in another

way. Instead of a single value, the return period can be indicated by the interval within which there is a given probability P_{τ} that the extreme z_{τ} (whose return period is T) will occur. The limits of this interval are bTand T/b, where $e^{-1/b} - e^{-b} = P_{\tau}$. This gives, for various values of P_{τ} . 05150

p	100	.300	. 500	. 68269	. 750	. 500	01 485
b:	1.146	1.522	2.105	3.129	3.909	9.503	0465
1/6:	873	.657	.475	.319	. 200	. 100	

Thus the probability is .68 that the extreme value x_1 will occur for the first time in at least .32T, and in no more than 3.13T.

The first of the two queet.ons concerning extremes, that of the return period T_x for a specified extreme value x, is difficult to answer directly. Combination of equations 2.10, 2.13, and 2.14 gives

(2.23)
$$\bar{T}_x = 1/[1 - \exp\left[-\exp\left[\frac{\partial x}{\partial x} \pm (x - \bar{x})(\sigma_N/s_x)\right]\right]$$

Fortunately, as x increases, this converges toward

(2.24)
$$\hat{T}_s \xrightarrow{T_s \to *} \exp\left[\hat{y}_s \pm (x - \hat{x})(\sigma_s/s_s)\right] = e^*$$

In both these equations, the + appues to largest values, the - to smallest. Thus, with the mean \mathbf{I} and standard deviation s, of the set of extremes, and the values of \mathcal{G}_N and σ_N in Table III, \mathcal{T}_* can be calculated. Usually it is simpler, however, to obtain it graphically: it is read on the return period scale, at the right of the extreme probability paper, opposite the point of intersection of the line of expected extremes with the desired

value of x, as given on the abscissa scale at the bottom of the sheet. (Equations 2.23 and 2.24 indicate the nature of the relationship between the return period scale on the right side of the extreme probability paper, the frequency scale in the body of the paper, and the reduced variate scale along the left side; all three scales are indicated in Fig. 2.)

The second question concerning extremes, that of the probable extreme with a given return period T_{s_0} is much simpler: it is answered by equation 2.16 and Table III, or equation 2.17 and Table IV, using \bar{x} and s_s in either case. Or the probable extreme can be read directly on the extreme probability paper: it is the abscissa at which the line of expected extremes intersects the appropriate return period line.

Once the expected extremes, x_1 and x_2 , for any two return periods, T_1 and T_2 , are determined, the expected extremes x_2 for any other return period T_* can be determined:

$$(2.25) x_{t} = x_{1} + [x_{1} - x_{1}][(y_{t} - y_{1})/(y_{1} - y_{1})]$$

In this equation, the last fraction involving only the reduced variates (y) depends only on the lengths of the two periods T_1 and T_2 , and is called Z_7 . For two convenient periods of 10 and 100 trials (years), values of

TABLE V. Factor (Z_T) by which difference between 100-year and 10-year extremes must be multiplied to give excess over 10-year value of extreme to be expected in T years.

		and the second second second second	and the second se	and the second se	and the second se
T	Z_{T}	T	Z_T	Т	Z_7
15	.13018	60	.78118	140	1.14399
20	.30634	70	.84717	150	1.17306
25	40352	80	.90451	200	1.29607
30	. 48257	90	.95497	300	1.46941
35	54924	100	1.00000	490	1.59159
40	60682	110	1.04080	500	1.68666
45	65759	120	1.07812	750	1.85937
50	.70287	130	1.11230	1000	1.98186

 Z_r for various other return periods T_s are given in Table V, which can be used to determine the expected extreme for those periods:

 $(2.26) x_r = x_{10} + Z_r(x_{100} - x_{10})$

Most of the computations discussed in this and preceding Sections are arranged in logical order on a "Worksheet 2," reproduced as Fig. 3. "Worksheet 1," printed on the reverse of the original of this form, provides space for arranging the extremes in order, computing their mean and standard deviation, and their cumulative frequencies and plotting SOME NEW STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES IN GEOPHYSICS

PROBABILITIES OF EXTREMES - Worksheet 2

EXAMPLE

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Q6

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F10. 3. Example of computation form for evaluating extremes by the methods discussed in Sections 2.7 to 2.10. Only those portions of the worksheet necessary to answer a particular question need be used. (Taken from [31].)

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positions. These two worksheets, and the form of the extreme probabil'y paper used with them, were developed from Gumbel's original work by the Climatology Unit, Environmental Protection Section, Research and Development Branch, Office of The Quartermaster General; they are discussed in a report of this Unit [31], from which Fig. 3 is taken. This example involves winds, rather than the temperatures of Figs. 1 and 2, to present a different application of the theory and method.

2.11. Conclusion

This Section has shown that a combination of classic probability theory and the very recent theory of extreme values permits accurate analysis and evaluation of the extremes of many geophysical elements. The highest temperature, strongest wind, severest earthquake, greatest magnetic disturbance, or worst flood which has occurred or been exceeded only 5 times in 50 years has a relative frequency of 5 in 50 or 0.10, but the best estimate, with 95% confidence, is that its true probability is somewhere between 0.05 and 0.22. Thus its return period is not necessarily 10 years, but is somewhere between 4.5 and 20 years. When all the 50 observations are considered, instead of only the 5 which have equalled or exceeded the value in question, then the theory of extreme values provides a reasonably accurate method of estimating the return period or the expected extreme for any given return period.

Even after the return period is established, however, the chances are two out of three that the value in question will occur within a shorter interval, and are also two out of three that it will occur in at least 0.32 and no more than 3.13 times the return period. For engineering and similar applications, the design return period T_d can be determined (Section 2.4) for any desired lifetime N and calculated risk U of failure in less than T_d :

(2.27)
$$T_d = -N/\log(1-U) = rN$$

Table II provides a simple way of determining T_d for most risks U actually used.

Once this design return period is established, the expected extreme corresponding to it (x_{τ}) can be obtained by the theory of extreme values. This is done most simply by equation 2.17 $(x_{\tau} = \pounds + Ks_{\star})$ and Table IV, for K; this requires only the mean \pounds and standard deviation s_{\star} of N extremes, provided that extremes of the type in question are known to follow the theory reasonably well.

Fundamentally, the theory of extreme values involves the development on strictly theoretical grounds of a function (equation 2.9) for the probability that a given extreme value will not be equalled or exceeded

SOME NEW STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES IN GEOPHYSICS

by any one of a very large set of extreme values, obtained as specified. Observed extremes are then fitted to this function by an ingenious least squares procedure, involving in addition several approximations based on the assumption that the sample of observed extremes is so large that limiting (asymptotic) values can be used.

This procedure is essentially similar to that used for the "normal" distribution, and many other statistical and mathematical "laws," in which observed data are fitted to a theoretical function. As is ofter the case in many other fields, the theoretical function has been found to apply to samples which depart markedly from the original premises (small in number, not wholly independent, not unlimited, etc.). In some cases, however, other samples which apparently should follow the theory equally well do not do so, for some reason which may not be apparent.

Hitherto, many distributions of extreme values, falling within the scope of the theory of extreme values, have been analyzed by other methods. Chief of these has been the logarithmic normal distribution; that is, the logarithms of the individual extremes have been considered to be normally distributed (Section 1.4). Some of the earlier hydrologic analyses used a logarithmic transformation, and more recently the breaking strengths and analogous properties (e.g., water penetrability) have been evaluated by using logarithms.

As yet, no simple method has been proposed to determine whether an actual set of observed data are fitted better by one theoretical function than another. Familiarity with the logarithmic normal procedure, and the complexity of the extreme value theory in its earlier stages, has caused many investigators to prefer the former. It is hoped that the exposition of the theory of extreme values in this section will enable geophysicists and others to determine for themselves whether the newer theory cannot be used to greater advantage in analyzing any problem involving extremes.

3. CIRCULAR DISTRIBUT ... NS

3.1. Requirement

Circular variables are those which vary continuously through all angles of a circle, in contrast to the more familiar linear variables, which may have no limits or be limited on one or both ends. More so than any other science to which statistics is applied, geophysics has many problems involving circular variables: many elements (e.g., winds, tidal forces, magnetic fields) vary around the compass, and almost all geophysical elements vary continuously with time through a day, a lunar month, a solar (27-day) cycle, or a year. Hitherto, such data have been analyzed

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either as though they were linear, or as trigonometric functions, especially through the use of Fourier series, in which several sine or cosine terms of different amplitudes and periods are added to approximate the original data.

As long as a circular variable does not extend completely around the circle, it can be linearized for statistical analysis without great error. Ocean swells reaching a beach have a total variation in direction of about half a circle, and all days of snowfall in temperate latitudes occur in about half a year. In such cases, statistical analysis based on the normal distribution, or any other linear distribution, is adequate: it may be considered that the variable has no limits on either side. However, when all directions, hours, or months are represented in the distribution of the variable, the linear approach cannot be justified: there is no more logic in considering the day to start and end with midnight than at noon or 7 A.M., and changes in the limits can affect any analysis seriously.

Approximation of a circular variable by a Fourier series avoids the difficulty of artificial limits, but introduces another artificiality: the periods of the various terms usually have no physical basis. What, for example, is the significance of a half-yearly term in a series approximating the annual course of air temperature or geomagnetic intensity? At best, comparison of two circular variables by Fourier series can indicate the phase retardation, i.e., the amount by which the peak of the curve lags behind some point, such as the solstices for temperature. Furthermore, Fourier analysis cannot be applied readily to spatial variables, i.e., those involving directions such as wind.

3.2. Description

During the last year, a *c* rcular normal probability function has been described by Gumbel [35, 36]; when developed it will permit circular variables to be analyzed in the same way that linear variables now are discussed with the aid of the linear "normal curve." The circular normal distribution has the same theoretical basis as the linear normal one: it assumes a large number of random "errors," or departures from the mean, with the frequency of the departures varying inversely with their msgnitude.

A crude experiment illustrating the theory of the circular normal distribution is provided by a tiltable roulette wheel. When horizontal, the frequencies of the numbers on which the ball alights is uniform around the wheel. The more it is tilted, the more the frequencies concentrate toward the numbers at the bottom, regardless of their value. When the wheel is inclined by 30° or 40° , the distribution is confined to the two or three numbers at the bottom. In the equation of the circular normal distribution, the degree of concentration of the variable at one time or direction is indicated by a parameter, denoted by k. This parameter is 0 for a uniform circular distribution, and has no upper limit, although values of k exceeding 3 indicate so great a concentration within a narrow sector that the distribution may be considered as linear. Thus k, a measure of concentration around the mean, is in many ways analogous to the reciprocal of the standard deviation σ of the linear normal distribution, since σ is a measure of dispersion around the mean; k in analogous to "a" in the theory of extreme values (Section 2.7).

The density of probability of the circular normal distribution is:

$$(3.1) \qquad \Phi(\alpha, k) = \frac{1}{I_0(k)} e^{k \cos \alpha}$$

where α is the angle measured from the mean, and the denominator involves an incomplete Bessel function of the first kind of zero order for a pure imaginary argument, and has real values.

This function is completely specified by the two parameters, α , the angular departure from the mean, and k, the measure of concentration about the mean. In turn, k may be estimated by the method of maximum likelihood from the observations themselves: it is uniquely determined by the length of the vector mean α of the data (Table VI). The vector mean is simply the vector sum of the data divided by the total number of units, not observations.

TABLE VI. Values of the parameter k of the circular normal distribution corresponding to lengths of the vector mean, ā.

								and the second second second	and the second division of the second	and the second second second second
ā	.00	.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	-06	.07	.08	09
	000	020	040	.060	.080	.100	.120	.140	.160	.181
1	201	221	242	262	283	.303	.324	.345	.366	.387
3	2 .408	.430	.451	.473	.495	.516	.539	.561	.584	60%
1	3 629	652	676	.700	.724	.748	.772	.797	823	.848
-	4 874	000	927	.954	.982	1.010	1 039	1.068	1.098	1.128
-	5 1.159	1.191	1.223	1.257	1.291	1.326	1.362	1.398	1.436	1.475
	6 1 515	1 557	1.600	1.645	1.691	1.739	1.790	1.842	1.898	1.954
	7 9 014	2 077	2 144	2,214	2.289	3.369	3.455	2.847	3.846	2.754
1	8 2.871	3.000	8.143	3.301	8.479	\$.680	3.911	4.177	1.1.1.1	
						AND A TOTAL OR ADDRESS OF ADDRESS	and the second second second second	and the second se	NAMES OF TAXABLE PARTY.	

For observations which have magnitude as well as direction (such as wind speed by directions or flood stages by dates), the division is by the total number of units (miles per hour, or feet) rather than by the total

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number of observations; there is no distinction for data which are merely frequencies of occurrence (such as number of hours of wind from each direction or number of people dying per month).

3.3. Procedure

In fitting a circular normal curve to observed data, the first step is to compute the *resultant direction* (time or date is considered as a direction) and *length*, which together form the *vector mean*. Basically, two methods for such computation are available: graphical and trigonometric. Each has several variants.

In the graphical method, vectors representing all the observations of each class are added, on plain or ruled paper or on a circular plotting board. Magnitude of the resultant vector, from the start of the first to the end of the last, is measured with a scale, and its direction determined by a protractor. Alternatively, the vectors may be plotted on a polar diagram and their components parallel to two perpendicular axes measured by a scale. From the algebraic sums of each component, the resultant is found as in the first method.

In the trigonometric method, components of each vector are obtained by multiplying it by the appropriate sine and cosine values; after addition, the two components are then used to determine the direction of the resultant by a tangent formula, and its magnitude either from a sine or cosine relation or from the root mean square.

From the vector mean, the proper value of k is found from Table VI, and the equation of the function may be written directly. Or, the observed and theoretical frequencies for each class interval (sector) may be compared, numerically or graphically.

For a numerical comparison of theoretical and observed frequencies, the observations must be regrouped into sectors so that one will be centered on the resultant direction. For example, if the resultant of a series of monthly observations turns out to be 86° (1 Jan. being 0° and 360°), the data originally grouped as $0-30^{\circ}$, $30-60^{\circ}$, $60-90^{\circ}$, etc., must be grouped into the following sectors: $11-41^{\circ}$, $41-71^{\circ}$, $71-101^{\circ}$, etc. The number of observations falling within these new classes can then be compared with the theoretical expectancies, as obtained from the appropriate area table, and multiplied by the number of observations.

In the present stage of development of the circular normal theory, such numerical comparison is not very practical or fruitful. Unless the original data were reported to much greater accuracy than the classes used (such as directions to the nearest degree or time to the nearest minute or day of the year), no basis is as yet available for regrouping them into the new classes based on the resultant. Only in case the resultant hap-

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pens to fall close to the center of one of the original classes (sectors) can most observational series be compared numerically with the expected frequencies. Furthermore, as yet to criterion has been developed for the goodness of fit of observations to theory (such as is provided by the chi-square test in linear normal theory, or the confidence band in the theory of extreme values).

3.4. Graphing

Comparison of observations and theory can be made most readily and satisfactorily by graphing both the data and the theoretical density of probability. From a carefully drawn graph of the probability density, the expected frequency for each of the original classes (sectors) can be estimated for comparison with the observed frequencies. This eliminates the need to regroup the data for comparison with the probability values given in the area tables.

Such estimates will be most accurate, and any graphical representation or comparison of circular variables more meaningful, if equivalent polar paper is used instead of the customary polar coordinate graph paper. On equivalent polar paper, concentric circles are drawn at distances from the center corresponding to the square root of the indicated numbers, instead of the numbers themselves as on the customary paper. Thus, on equivalent polar paper, for each sector the area is directly proportional to the frequency which it represents.

The same results may be obtained on conventional p-lar coordinate paper by using the square roots of the observed and theoretical frequencies. Since equivalent polar paper is not generally available, Table VII gives the square roots, rather than the actual values, of the radius vectors for unit-area circular normal distributions with various k values. This table is condensed from a more extensive one [36], which itself required a complex computational procedure. Table VII gives values for 10° intervals, but satisfactory curves can be plotted by using ordinates at intervals of 20° or 30°.

To obtain a curve for comparison with one plotted from the square roots of n observations grouped into wequal sectors (including any with no observations), the tabular values must be multiplied by $\sqrt{n/w}$; when observations are expressed as percentages, no multiplication of the tabular values is required. In either case, however, square roots of the observed values must be used, until equivalent polar paper becomes available.

Although the principle of equivalent polar paper is obvious, it does not seem to have been applied to any great extent in geophysics, or in graphic presentation generally. Yet a sector is a truer representation of observations which may have fallen anywhere within it than the conven-

COURT ARNOLD centered in the sector with length directly proportional to the number of observations or their sum or mean. tional radius bar or vector,

similar use of square roots in polar graphing was proposed by but was little used; he did the tribution was suggested by Leighly as the internationally-understood square-root paper developed for use in graphing the circular normal dis-The term "equivalent" for Leighly [37] almost a quarter-century ago, not suggest sugare-root graph paper. term implying areal equivalence 1

3.5. Limitations

pletely new branch of statistics, and as yet has not been developed to the As previously indicated, circular normal probability theory is a com-So far, the basic function has been established and tables computed for the probability function itself (areas of sectors) and the density of probability (radius vectors), Table VII. point of general utility.

Perhaps the most significant aspect of the development at present is variable uniquely characterizes the degree of concentration of the variable the finding that the vector mean of a unimodal distribution of a circular translated into the parameter k of the distribution function, affords an trations of winds at various places, or at different hours or months in the This vector mean, Thus, values of k can be computed for various distributions for comparative purposes; the relative concenabout the angular mean or resultant direction. index of the degree of concentration. same place, can be compared.

Such comparison can be only qualitative, however, since no relation prising: although the linear normal distribution was developed more than function, with its cosine exponent and incomplete Bessel function, is far comparable to the "t-test" has yet been developed. This is hardly sur-While the circular normal more complicated than the linear normal one, its development can proceed rapidly because of analogies with the linear case. a century ago, the t-test is barely 40 years old.

Another serious limitation on the use of the circular normal theory at Depending on the period of time covered, wind distributions may show present is that it applies properly only to unimodal distributions. Many flood crests on some rivers come either in early spring of separating such distributions into two normal components (as can be done for the linear case, as explained in Sections 1.5 and 1.6) bimodal distributions must be regrouped into broader classes (sectors) to form a circular distributions in geophysics, however, are bimodal or trimodal Until a method unimodal distribution for comparison with the circular normal curve. (snow melt) or early summer (heavy rains), and so on. several peaks,

Whether indices of skewness and kurtosis can be developed for the

parenbe by sectors, tabular values must be multiplied by Value. When equivalent polar paper (square root) is used, tabular values should be served intribution of a observations of vided among watches and plotted according to the square roots of their observed irequencies trom center (pole) at indicated angles a from mean (resultant) to a curve of unit total area. To obtain curve for comparison with Radius vectors (ordinates) of the circular normal probability function. Tabular values are square roots of distances

0 1 390 1 390 1 069 0 838 0 621 0 421 0 334 0 233 0 169 0 155 0 069 0 049 0 063 0 064 0 020 0 048 191 28 2 1 840.2 851.219.5 123 0.868 0.653 0.482 0.353 0.258 0.191 1 829 7 916 0.144 0.111 0.089 0.074 0.065 0.060 0.058 2.048 1.897 1.673 1.412 1.145 0.898 0.687 0.516 0.384 0.286 0.215 0.164 0.129 0.104 0.088 0.078 0.072 0.070 3 43 1.421 1.167 0.928 0.721 0.551 0.417 0.316 0.241 0.187 0.149 0.122 0.104 0.093 0.086 0.084 7.2.2.2.066 2.016 1.876 1.667 101.0 201.0 111.0 221.0 241.0 .11.0 412.0 172.0 646.0 234.0 785.0 858.0 781.1 824.1 659.1 228.1 286.1 620.2 0.2 206 0.988 0.792 0.625 0.490 0.385 0.304 0.244 0.199 0.168 0.146 0.132 0.124 0.121 1 929 1 2.61.947 1.908 1.800 1,016 0.528 0.550 0.520 0.340 0.277 0.230 0.196 0.172 0.165 0.145 1 439 271.0 371.0 281.0 E02.0 822.0 532.0 41E 0 08E.0 234.0 578.0 207.0 E08.0 E+0.1 8E2.1 5E4.1 615.1 657.1 788.1 198.114.2 432 1.251 1.069 0.898 0.747 0.617 0.509 0.423 0.356 0.304 0.266 0.238 0.219 0.209 0.205 #12.0 742.0 832.0 872.0 872.0 842.0 704.0 074.0 728.0 209.0 887.0 258.0 280.1 025.1 878.1 2.01.800 1.773 1.695 1 842.1 238.1 027.1 447.18.1 413 1.264 1.112 0.965 0.829 0.709 0.606 0.521 0.452 0.398 0.356 0.325 0.304 0.292 0.388 1.128 0.994 0.869 0.756 0.658 0.575 0.507 0.452 0.410 0.378 0.356 0.344 0.340 1.662 1.603 1.511 1.395 1.139 1.019 0.906 0.802 0.711 0.632 0.565 0.512 0.469 0.438 0.416 0.403 0.398 1.372 1.258 919 11 124.1 679'T 669 1 284.0 946 0.584 0.408 0.585 0.586 0.586 0.690 0.547 0.587 0.587 0.469 0.504 0.504 0.469 0.469 0.469 0.469 0.469 1 605.1 345.1 575.1 185.18.0 120 0 120 0 803 0 805 0 808 0 228 0 208 0 208 0 208 0 20 0 20 0 20 0 20 0 20 1 121 1 201 262 19 0 1.241 1.204 1.160 1.112 1.269 1 580 1.060 1.008 0.957 0.908 0.864 0.824 0.789 0.760 0.738 0.722 0.709 1.166 1.143 1.115 1.084 1.050 1.015 0.980 0.947 0.916 0.887 0.862 0.841 261 1 1 0 1.183 1.194 1.098 1.093 1.055 1.074 1.061 1.046 1.030 1.012 0.995 0.978 0.962 0.946 0.933 0.912 0.906 0.905 0.900 0.21.100 ₹30° ₹30° ₹40° ₹20° ₹20° ₹20° ₹30° ₹90° ₹90° ₹90° ₹100° ₹110° ₹130° ₹140° ₹150° ₹160° ₹170° ResM 4 NEW SOME o mangie irom mean or resultant

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circular case remains to be seen, as well as many other applications analogous to those of the linear normal curve Obviously, there are opportunities for many people to develop this new branch of statistics, of such potential value to geophysics.

At present the circular normal theory affords only (1) a measure of the concentration of a circular variable about its resultant and (2) a normal function to which the observations can be compared qualitatively. Yet its development is of benefit to geophysics simply by pointing out that "average" times or dates should be computed vectorially, as are "average" directions, and that circular variables cannot be analyzed adequately by the linear methods of classical statistics.

LIST OF SYMBOLS AND NOTATION

(Section in which first usage is made shown in parentheses)

- a parameter of distribution of extreme values (2.5)
- b factor defining interval of occurrence of extreme value (2.10)
- E excess of distribution = $r_1/\sigma^4 3$ (1.6)
- e base of natural logarithms = 2.7182818281 (2.4)
- F(x) cumulative probability function (1.3)
- f(x) probability density function = F'(x) (1.3)
- H number of occurrences of an event (2.1)
- h factor defining confidence band of extreme values (2.8)
- $I_{s}(k)$ Bessel function of first kind of zero order for pure imaginary argument (3.2)
- K frequency factor in frequency analyses (2.7)
- k parameter of circular normal distribution (3.2)
- M mean of a bimodal distribution; M_1 , M_2 means of components (1.6)
- m_1, m_2 departures of component means from common mean (1.6)
 - N size of sample: number of observations in bimodal distribution (1.6); number of trials (2.1); number of observed extremes (2.5); desired lifetime (2.4)
 - n number of values in each sample from which extreme is taken (2.5)
 - probability of occurrence (2.3) 22
 - q probability of non-occurrence = 1 p (2.3)
 - ratio of return period to number of trials = T/N (2.3); of design return pariod to desired lifetime = T_d/N (2.4)
 - s. standard deviation of x(2.7)
 - T return period of an event = 1/p (2.1); T₄ = design return period (2.4)
 - t normalized deviate of a variable = $(\bar{z} x)/\sigma$ (1.6)
 - w number of sectors of circular distribution (3.4)
 - z a variable; an extreme value (2.5)
 - y ordinate (1.6); reduced variate of extreme value function (2.7); $y_N =$ theoretical mean (2.7)
 - Zr factor : obtain extreme expected in T years (2.10)
 - difference between variances of bimodal distribution and of components = $\sigma_1^{5} = \sigma^2 (1.6)$
 - α angle of circular distribution measured from mean $\tilde{\alpha}$ (3.2)
 - $\alpha_1 = r_1/\sigma^1 = \text{skewness}(1.5)$
 - △ departure of extreme value from expected (2.8)

Fi, Fi third and fourth moments (1.6)

- * 3.1415926535 (1.6)
- function: of ((1.6)
- of extreme value r (2.5), of circular distribution (3.2)
- standard deviation (1.6); $\sigma_N =$ theoretical standard deviation (2.7)

Notation

- z a variable (2.3)
- zw Nth value of z (2.3)
- t mean of all values of x; $t_N =$ mean of N values of x (2.7)
- median of all values of x (2.3)
- mode of all values of z (2.4)
- largest of all values of x; $\dot{x}_N = \text{largest among } N$ values (2.3)
- smallest of all values of x; $\pm_N =$ smallest of N values (2.3)
- first derivative of x (1.3) 1
- x! factorial $x = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot \ldots \cdot x (2.3)$
- # approximately equal (2.4)
- approaches as a limit (2.3)
- log natural logarithm (2.4)

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SOME NEW STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES IN GEOPHYSICS

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Attachment 2

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Excerpts from

Wind Effects on Structures

by

Emil Simiu

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WIND EFFECTS ON STRUCTURES

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AN INTRODUCTION TO WIND ENGINEERING

SECOND EDITION

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Emil Simiu Center for Building Technology National Bureau of Standards Gaithersburg, Maryland

Robert H. Scanlan Department of Civil Engineering The Johns Hopkins University Baltimore. Maryland (Emeritus Professor. Princeton University)

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ESTIMATION OF EXTREME WIND SPEEDS

in which sheltering effects by small-scale obstacles are present, the data may be adjusted by using a procedure presented in [3-4].

A situation commonly encountered in practice is one in which, while the anemometer may not have been moved, the roughness of the terrain surrounding the anemometer has changed significantly over the years as a result of extensive land development. In such situations, the adjustment of the data to a common roughness may pose insurmountable problems, unless detailed information on the phases of the land development is available.

Anemometer elevation and location changes are listed for most U.S. weather stations in Local Climatological Data Summaries [3-3].

3.2 ESTIMATION OF EXTREME WIND SPEEDS IN WELL-BEHAVED CLIMATES

Infrequent winds (e.g., hurricanes) that are meteorologically distinct from and considerably stronger than the usual annual extremes are referred to herein as extraordinary winds. Climates in which extraordinary winds may not be expected to occur are referred to as well behaved. In such climates it is reasonable to assume that each of the data in a series of the largest annual wind speeds contributes to the description of the probabilistic behavior of the extreme winds. A statistical analysis of such a series can therefore be expected to yield useful predictions of long-term wind extremes.

Thus, in a well-behaved climate, at any given station a random variable may be defined, which consists of the largest yearly wind speed. If the station is one for which wind records over a number of consecutive years are available, then the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of this random variable may be estimated to characterize the probabilistic behavior of the largest annual wind speeds. The basic design wind speed is then defined as the speed corresponding to a specified value p of the CDF or, equivalently, to a specified mean recurrence interval \bar{N} .* A wind corresponding to an \bar{N} -year mean recurrence interval is commonly referred to as the \bar{N} -year wind.

This section is devoted to the question of estimating (a) the CDF of the largest annual speeds and (b) errors inherent in the wind speed predictions. Such errors include, in addition to those associated with the quality of the data (see Sect. 3.1), *modeling* errors and *sampling* errors. Modeling errors are due to an inadequate choice of the probabilistic model itself. Sampling errors are a consequence of the limited size of the samples from which the distribution parameters are estimated and become, in theory, vanishingly small as the sample size increases indefinitely.

3.2.1 Probabilistic Modeling of Largest Yearly Wind Speeds

Several probability distributions have been proposed to model extreme wind behavior. These include: the Type I distribution of the largest values (Eq. Al.39),

• Recall that $\tilde{N} = 1/(1-p)$ (see Appendix A1, Eq. A1.45).

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Using the approximation $-\ln[-\ln(1-1/\bar{N})] \simeq \ln \bar{N}$, it follows from Eq. A1.74 (which is based on the method of moments) that the estimated value $\hat{v}_{\bar{N}}$ of the \bar{N} -year wind $v_{\bar{N}}$ is

$$\hat{v}_{\bar{N}} \simeq \bar{X} + 0.78(\ln \bar{N} - 0.577)s$$
 (3.2.1)

where \bar{X} and s are, respectively, the sample mean and the sample standard deviation of the largest yearly wind speeds for the period of record.

As previously noted, inherent in the estimates of $v_{\bar{N}}$ are sampling errors. It follows from Eqs. A1.76 and A1.70 (which are based on the method of moments) that the standard deviation of the sampling errors in the estimation of $v_{\bar{N}}$ can be written as

$$SD(\hat{v}_{\bar{N}}) \simeq 0.78 [1.64 + 1.46(\ln \bar{N} - 0.577) + 1.1(\ln \bar{N} - 0.577)^2]^{1/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$
 (3.2.2)

where n is the sample size.

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At Great Falls, Montana, the largest yearly fastest-mile wind speeds at 10 m above ground during the period 1944-1977 (sample size n = 34) were [3-9]:

57, 65, 62, 58, 64, 65, 59, 65, 59, 60, 64, 65, 73, 60, 67, 50, 74 60, 66, 55, 51, 60, 55, 60, 51, 51, 62, 51, 54, 52, 59, 50, 52, 49

(mph). The sample mean and the sample standard deviation for these data are $\bar{X} = 59$ mph and s = 6.41 mph. From Eqs. 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 it follows that for $\bar{N} = 50$ years and $\bar{N} = 1,000$ years,

$\hat{v}_{50} \simeq 76$.ph	$SD(\hat{v}_{50}) \simeq 3.7 \text{ mph}$
$\hat{v}_{1000} \simeq 91 \text{ mph}$	$SD(\hat{v}_{1000}) \simeq 6.4 \text{ mph}$

If it is assumed that the largest yearly wind speeds are described by a Rayleigh distribution, \dagger the \bar{N} -year wind, denoted by $v_{\bar{N}}^R$, can be obtained from Eq. A1.65

*In Appendix A1 this value is denoted by $G_{\chi}(p)$, where $p = 1 - 1/\tilde{N}$ and \tilde{N} is the mean recurrence interval. In this chapter the notation $G_{\chi}(1 - 1/\tilde{N}) = v_{\tilde{N}}$ is used.

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-80 90 100 70 500 MALES 400 SCALE 1 20 000 000 ... 100 Basic wind speed 70 mph Special wind region 90 Notes: 1. Values are fastest-mile speads at 33 ft (10m) above ground for exposure category C and are associated with an annual probability of 0.02. 2. Linear interpolation between wind speed contours is acceptable. 110 5. Caution in the use of wind speed contours in mountainous regions of Atasks is advisad

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FIGURE 3.2.1. Map of basic design wind speeds. Reproduced with permission from American National Standard A58.1 Building Code Requirements for Minimum Design Loads in Buildings and Other Structures, copyright 1982 by the American National Standards Institute. Copies of this standard may be purchased from the American National Standards Institute at 1430 Broadway, New York, NY 10018.

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WIND EFFECTS ON STRUCTURES

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A situation commonly encountered in practice is one in which, while the anemometer may not have been moved, the roughness of the terrain surrounding the anemometer has changed significantly over the years as a result of extensive land development. In such situations, the adjustment of the data to a common roughness may pose insurmountable problems, unless detailed information on the phases of the land development is available.

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This section is devoted to the question of estimating (a) the CDF of the largest annual speeds and (b) errors inherent in the wind speed predictions. Such errors include, in addition to those associated with the quality of the data (see Sect. 3.1), modeling errors and sampling errors. Modeling errors are due to an inadequate choice of the probabilistic model itself. Sampling errors are a consequence of the limited size of the samples from which the distribution parameters are estimated and become, in theory, vanishingly small as the sample size increases indefinitely.

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*Recall that $\overline{N} = 1/(1-p)$ (see Appendix A1, Eq. A1.45).

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the Type II distribution of the largest values (Eq. Al.42), and the Weibull distribution (Eq. A1.65). Extreme wind speeds inferred from any given sample of wind speed data depend on the type of distribution on which the inferences are based. For large mean recurrence intervals ($\bar{N} > 50$ years, say) estimates based on the assumption that a Type II distribution is valid are higher than corresponding estimates obtained by using a Type I distribution, while estimates based on a Weibull distribution with tail length parameter $\gamma \ge 2$ are lower.*

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According to [3-5], extreme winds in well-behaved climates may be assumed to be best modeled by a Type II distribution with $\mu = 0$ and $\gamma = 9$. However, subsequent research has shown that this assumption is not borne out by analyses of extreme wind speed data [3-6, 3-7, 3-8]. In [3-6], 37 year-series of 5 minute largest yearly speeds measured at stations with well-behaved climates were subjected to the probability plot correlation coefficient test (see Sect. A1.6) to determine the tail length parameter of the best fitting distribution of the largest values. Of these series, 72% were best fit by Type I distributions or by Type II distributions with $\gamma = 13$ (which differ insignificantly from the Type I distribution); 11% by Type II distributions with $7 \le \gamma < 13$; and 17% by Type II distribution with $2 \le \gamma < 7$. Virtually the same percentages were obtained in [3-7] from the analysis of sets of 37 data generated by the Monte Carlo simulation from a population with a Type I distribution. On the other hand, the analysis of sets generated by Monte Carlo simulation from a Type II distribution with tail length parameter $\gamma = 9$ led to percentages differing significantly from those corresponding to the actual wind speed data. On the basis of these results it can be confidently stated that in well-behaved climates extreme wind speeds are modeled more realistically by the Type I than by the Type II distribution with $\gamma = 9$. This conclusion was reinforced by studies reported in [3-8], in which techniques similar to those of [3-7] were used in conjunction with wind speed data at one hundred United States weather stations obtained from [3-9].

As indicated earlier, the Type I distribution results in lower estimates of the extreme wind speeds than the Type II distribution with $\gamma = 9$. An interesting result obtained in [3-8] is that at most stations in the United States even the Type I distribution appears to be an unduly severe model of the wind speeds corresponding to large mean recurrence intervals; at these stations a better fit to the data is obtained by Weibull distributions with $\gamma \ge 2$. Thus, structural reliability calculations based on the assumption that the Type I distribution holds are in most cases likely to be conservative [3-10].

3.2.2 Estimation of and Confidence Intervals for the N-year Wind: Numerical Example

It is shown in Sect. A1.6 that, given a set of data with a Type I extreme value underlying distribution, several techniques can be used to estimate the param-

^{*}The differences between speeds estimated on the basis of Type II distributions and the Type I distribution increase as y decreases. Differences between speeds based on the Type I distribution and Weibull distributions increase as y increases.

ESTIMATION OF EXTREME WIND SPEEDS 87

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eters of the distribution and, hence, the value of the variate corresponding to a given mean recurrence interval.* However, inherent in these estimates are sampling errors. A measure of the magnitude of the latter can be obtained by calculating *confidence intervals* for the quantity being estimated, that is, intervals of which it can be stated—with a specified confidence that the statement is correct—that they contain the true, unknown value of that quantity. Techniques that can be used to estimate the \bar{N} -year wind, and confidence intervals for the \bar{N} -year wind, are discussed in some detail in Sect. A1.6. One of these techniques is presented and illustrated below.

Using the approximation $-\ln[-\ln(1-1/\bar{N})] \simeq \ln \bar{N}$, it follows from Eq. A1.74 (which is based on the method of moments) that the estimated value $\hat{v}_{\bar{N}}$ of the \bar{N} -year wind $v_{\bar{N}}$ is

$$\hat{v}_{\bar{N}} \simeq \bar{X} + 0.78 (\ln \bar{N} - 0.577) s$$
 (3.2.1)

where \bar{X} and s are, respectively, the sample mean and the sample standard deviation of the largest yearly wind speeds for the period of record.

As previously noted, inherent in the estimates of $v_{\vec{N}}$ are sampling errors. It follows from Eqs. A1.76 and A1.70 (which are based on the method of moments) that the standard deviation of the sampling errors in the estimation of $v_{\vec{N}}$ can be written as

 $SD(\hat{v}_{\bar{N}}) \simeq 0.78 [1.64 + 1.46(\ln \bar{N} - 0.577) + 1.1(\ln \bar{N} - 0.577)^2]^{1/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ (3.2.2)

where n is the sample size.

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At Great Falls, Montana, the largest yearly fastest-mile wind speeds at 10 m above ground during the period 1944–1977 (sample size n = 34) were [3-9]:

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(mph). The sample mean and the sample standard deviation for these data are $\bar{X} = 59$ mph and s = 6.41 mph. From Eqs. 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 it follows that for $\bar{N} = 50$ years and $\bar{N} = 1,000$ years,

$v_{50} \simeq 76$	mph	$SD(\hat{v}_{50}) \simeq 3.7$	mph
$\hat{v}_{1000} \simeq 91$	mph	$SD(\hat{v}_{1000})\simeq 6.4$	mph

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*In Appendix A1 this value is denoted by $G_X(p)$, where $p = 1 - 1/\bar{N}$ and \bar{N} is the mean recurrence interval. In this chapter the notation $G_X(1-1/\bar{N}) = v_{\bar{N}}$ is used.

†It is recalled that the Weibull distribution with tail length parameter y = 2 is commonly referred to as the Rayleigh distribution. Note that of all Weibull distributions with $y \ge 2$, the Rayleigh distribution is the closest to the Type I distribution (i.e., it has the longest tail).

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(with $\gamma = 2$) as follows:

$$v_N^8 \simeq \bar{X} + \frac{s}{0.463} \left[(\ln \bar{N})^{1/2} - 0.886 \right]$$
 (3.2.3)

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where \bar{X} and s are defined as in Eq. 3.2.1. In the case of Great Falls, $\bar{X} = 59$ mph and s = 6.41 mph, so that $v_{50}^R = 74$ mph and $v_{1000}^R = 83$ mph, versus $v_{50} = 76$ mph and $v_{1000} = 91$ mph, as estimated in the preceding example by assuming the validity of the Type I distribution. As indicated previously, in engineering calculations it is prudent to assume the validity of the Type I distribution (Eq. 3.2.1), rather than using Eq. 3.2.3. This conservative approach was adopted in developing the map of basic design wind speeds (i.e., fastest-mile wind speeds at 10 m above ground in open terrain, with a 50-year mean recurrence interval) included in the American National Standard A58.1 [2-49] (Fig. 3.2.1).

As shown in Sect. A1.6, the probabilities that $v_{\bar{N}}$ is contained in the intervals $\hat{v}_{\bar{N}} \pm SD(\hat{v}_N)$, $\hat{v}_{\bar{N}} \pm 2SD(\hat{v}_N)$, and $\hat{v}_{\bar{N}} \pm 3SD(\hat{v}_{\bar{N}})$ are approximately 68%, 95%, and 99%, respectively. These intervals are referred to as the 68%, 95%, and 99% confidence intervals for $v_{\bar{N}}$, and are shown for the 34-year Great Falls sample in line (1) of Table 3.2.1.

It is also shown in Sect. A1.6 that the width of the confidence intervals can be reduced if a more efficient estimator is used; however, the intervals cannot be narrower than those obtained by using the Cramer-Rao (C.R.) lower bound (Eq. A1.77). For the Great Falls sample, the confidence intervals based on the latter are shown in line (2) of Table 3.2.1. It is seen that the differences between the results of lines (1) and (2) of Table 3.2.1 are small. This is consistent with the conclusion of Sect. A1.6 that the efficiency of the method of moments (Eq. 3.2.1) is generally adequate for structural design purposes.

It is noted that, in Table 3.2.1, the errors in the estimation of the 50-year wind are of the order of 10% at the 95% confidence level. Since the wind pressures are proportional to the wind speeds (see Chapter 4), the corresponding errors in the estimation of the pressures are of the order of 20%.

TABLE 3.2.1. Confide	where the reason is a structure constrained with the structure of the stru						
Confidence level	68%	6	955	%	99%		
Mean recurrence interval, \tilde{N} (years)	50	1000	50	1000	50	1000	
(1) Estimated by method of moments	76±3.7	91 ± 6.4	76±7.4	91±12.8	76±11.1	91±19.2	
(2) Estimated using C.R. lower bound	76±3.1	91±5.0	76±6.2	91 ± 10.0	76±9.3	91±15.0	

 \overline{N} and \overline{N} and \overline{N} are the second dense of the \overline{N} -year Wind at Great Falls

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FIGURE 3.2.1. Map of basic design wind speeds. Reproduced with permission from American National Standard A58.1 Building Code Requirements for Minimum Design Loads in Buildings and Other Structures, copyright 1982 by the American National Standards Institute. Copies of this standard may be purchased from the American National Standards Institute at 1430 Broadway, New York, NY 10018.

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An alternative approach to accounting for sampling errors, which applies the theorem of total probability, is suggested in [3-51].

3.2.3 Methods for Estimating the Extreme Speeds at Locations with Insufficient Largest Yearly Wind Speed Data

There are about one hundred U.S. weather stations for which reliable and relatively long wind speed records are available (i.e., records over periods of, say, 20 years or more). Some of these stations cover areas of tens of thousands of square miles, over which—for meteorological reasons or owing to topographic effects—the extreme wind climate is not necessarily uniform. There arises therefore in practice the problem of estimating extreme wind speeds at various locations where long-term records of the largest yearly wind speed data do not exist.

Estimates of Extreme Wind Speeds in a Marine Environment. Reference 3-11 lists three methods that are in principle available to carry out such estimates for marine environments where the extreme speeds are associated with extratropical storms. The first method makes use of climatological information on various parameters of the storm and of physical models relating those parameters to the surface wind speeds. It is shown in Sect. 3.3 that such a method can be applied to estimate extreme wind speeds in hurricane-prone regions. However, as noted in [3-11], owing to the complexity of the surface wind patterns in extratropical storms, the usefulness of this method appears to be uncertain in regions where such storms are dominant.

A second method listed in [3-11] is the use of objective analysis schemes. These consist of: (a) an initial guess at the surface wind on a regular grid, (b) an automated procedure for screening wind reports from ships to eliminate erroneous readings, and (c) a procedure for correcting the initial guess on the basis of the usable set of ship reports, which involves relations among the surface wind speeds, sea-level pressures, and air and sea temperatures. Details on objective analysis schemes and of errors currently inherent in such schemes (which may range from 10% to 30%) are given in [3-11].

The third method listed in [3-11] is referred to as direct kinematic analysis. The method, which involves subjective judgment by experienced analysts, consists of synthesizing discrete meteorological observations to obtain a continuous field represented in terms of streamlines and isotachs. Objective or kinematic analyses applied to a sufficient number of strong storms make it possible to provide estimates of extreme winds that may occur at any one location. As indicated in [3-11], one of the major difficulties in conducting such analyses is that much of the vast store of existing data is currently not accessible in readily usable form.

Estimation of Extreme Wind Speeds from Short-Term Records. A practical procedure for estimating extreme wind speeds at locations where long-term data are not available is described in [3-12]. The method, whose applicability

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was tested for a large number of U.S. weather stations. makes it possible to infer the probabilistic behavior of extreme winds from data consisting of the largest monthly wind speeds recorded over a period of three years or longer. Estimates based on the monthly speeds, denoted by $\hat{v}_{\bar{N},m}$, are obtained by rewriting Eq. A1.74 as follows:

$$\hat{b}_{\bar{N},m} \simeq \bar{X}_m + 0.78 [\ln(12\bar{N}) - 0.577] s_m \tag{3.2.4}$$

where \bar{X}_m and s_m are, respectively, the sample mean and the sample standard deviation of the largest monthly wind speed data, and \bar{N} = mean recurrence interval in years.

The standard deviation of the sampling error in the estimation of $\hat{v}_{N,m}$ is obtained from Eqs. A1.76 and A1.70 as

$$SD(\hat{v}_{\bar{N},m}) = 0.78\{1.64 + 1.46[\ln(12\bar{N}) - 0.577] + 1.1[\ln(12\bar{N}) - 0.577]^2\}^{1/2} - \frac{s_m}{\sqrt{n_m}}$$
(3.2.5)

where $n_m = \text{sample size}$.

Example

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At Great Falls, the sample mean and the sample standard deviation of the largest monthly fastest-mile wind speeds at 10 m above ground for the period September 1968 through August 1971* (sample size $n_m = 36$) are $\bar{X}_m = 42$ mph, $s_m = 6.96$ mph. From Eqs. 3.2.4 and 3.2.5, the estimates for $\bar{N} = 50$ years and $\bar{N} = 1000$ years are:

 $\hat{v}_{50,m} \simeq 74 \text{ mph}$ $SD(\hat{v}_{50,m}) \simeq 6.23 \text{ mph}$ $\hat{v}_{1000,m} = 90 \text{ mph}$ $SD(\hat{v}_{1000,m}) = 8.85 \text{ mph}$

It is seen that the estimated speeds based on the set of 36 largest monthly data are only slightly lower than those obtained from the set of 34 largest yearly speeds ($\hat{v}_{50} = 76$ mph and $\hat{v}_{1000} = 91$ mph; see Sect. 3.2.2); however, the sampling errors are larger.

Similar calculations carried out for 67 sets of records taken at 36 stations are reported in [3-12], where it was found that the differences $\hat{v}_{50,m} - \hat{v}_{50}$, where \hat{v}_{50} is the 50 year wind speed estimated from long-term largest yearly data, were less than $SD(\hat{v}_{50,m})$ in 66% of the cases and less than twice the value of $SD(\hat{v}_{50,m})$ in 95% of the cases. This remarkable result, confirmed by additional calculations reported in [3-13], indicates that the estimates based on largest monthly wind speeds recorded over three years or more provide a useful description of the extreme wind speeds in regions with a well-behaved wind climate.

Inferences concerning the probabilistic model of the extreme wind climate

*For the actual data, see the Local Climatological Data summaries for the years 1968-1971.

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have also been attempted from data consisting of largest daily wind speeds [3-12], or of wind speeds measured at 1-hour intervals [3-14]. One problem that arises in this respect is that data recorded on two successive days are generally strongly correlated. Nevertheless, as shown in [3-14], in practice such correlation has a negligible effect on the statistical estimates, and the assumption of statistical independence among the data can therefore be used. However, a second and more serious problem is that the daily (or hourly) data reflect a large number of events (e.g., morning breezes) that are altogether unrelated meteorologically to the storms associated with the extreme winds. These events can be viewed as noise that obscures the information relevant to the description of the extreme wind climate. Indeed, it was verified in [3-12] that estimates of extreme winds based on daily data differ significantly from estimates obtained for long-term records of largest yearly speeds. This conclusion is *a fortiori* true for inferences based on hourly data.

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3.3 ESTIMATION OF EXTREME WIND SPEEDS IN HURRICANE-PRONE REGIONS

We now consider the prediction of extreme winds in climates characterized by the occurrence of hurricanes. It was suggested in Sect. 3.2 that in a wellbehaved wind climate each of the data in a series of the largest yearly speeds contributes to the description of the probabilistic behavior of the extreme winds. However, in a hurricane-prone region most of the speeds in a series of the largest yearly winds are considerably lower than the extreme speeds associated with hurricanes; they may therefore be irrelevant from a structural safety point of view. This situation is illustrated by the plot of Fig. 3.3.1, which shows the 5-min largest speeds recorded at Corpus Christi, Texas between 1912 and 1948 [3-6]. It may then be argued that in hurricane-prone regions the series of the largest yearly speeds cannot provide useful statistical information on winds of interest to the structural designer, much in the same way as the population of a first-grade classroom—which might include a teacher—is of little use in a statistical study of the height of adults. That this is the case is suggested below.

The abscissa in Fig. 3.3.1 represents the reduced variate

$$y = -\ln\left[-\ln\left(1 - \frac{1}{\bar{N}}\right)\right]$$

where \overline{N} is the mean recurrence interval. In virtue of Eqs. A1.43 and A1.45, a Type I extreme value cumulative distribution function would be represented in Fig. 3.3.1 by a straight line, the intercept and slope of which would be equal to the distribution parameters μ and σ , respectively. To the extent that the population of largest yearly speeds would be described by a Type I distribution, the actual data would then fit, approximately, a straight line. In Fig. 3.3.1 this is roughly the case as far as the winds of less than hurricane force are concerned. However, if—as in Fig. 3.3.1—the hurricane-force winds are included in the



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It is noted that if X and Y are independent, then Corr(X, Y) = 0. This follows immediately from Eqs. A1.26, A1.18, and A1.24. However, the relation Corr(X, Y) = 0 does not necessarily imply the independence of X and Y [A1-4].

A1.5 PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS COMMONLY USED IN WIND ENGINEERING

The Geometric Distribution

Consider an experiment of the type known as *Bernoulli trials* in which (a) the only possible outcomes are the occurrence and the nonoccurrence of an event A, (b) the probability \neq of event A in any one trial is constant, and (c) the outcomes of the trials are independent of each other.

Let the random variable N be equal to the number of the trial in which the event A occurs for the first time. The probability p(n) that event A will first occur on the nth trial is equal to the probability that event A will not occur on each of the first n-1 trials and will occur on the nth trial. Since the probability of nonoccurrence of event A in one trial is $1 - \frac{1}{2}$ (Eq. A1.2) and since the n trials are independent, it follows from the multiplication rule (Eq. A1.8)

$$p(n) = (1 - \mu)^{n-1} \mu \qquad (n = 1, 2, 3, ...)$$
(A1.30)

This probability distribution is known as the geometric distribution with parameter #.

The probability P(n) that event A will occur at least once in n trials can be found in the following manner. The probability that event A will not occur in n trials is $(1 - n)^n$. The probability that it will occur at least once is therefore

$$P(n) = 1 - (1 - \mu)^n \tag{A1.31}$$

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The expected value of N is, by virtue of Eq. A1.22, in which Eq. A1.30 is used.

$$\bar{N} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(1-\mu)^{n-1}\mu$$
 (A1.32)

The sum of this series can be shown to be

$$\bar{N} = 1/\mu$$
 (A1.33)

The quantity \overline{N} is referred to as the return period, or the mean recurrence interval, of event A.

Examples

1. For a die, the probability that a "four" occurs is $\# = \frac{1}{6}$. If the total number of trials is large, it may be expected that, in the long run, a "four" will appear on the average once in $\tilde{N} = 1/\frac{1}{6} = 6$ trials.

2. A structure is designed so that the stresses in its members will attain the allowable stress under the action of extreme winds with a "0-year mean re-

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currence interval. The probability of occurrence in any one year of winds for which $\overline{N} = 50$ is $\mu = 1/\overline{N} = 0.02$ (Eq. A1.33). The probability that the allowable stress will be attained at least once in *n* years is given by Eq. A1.31. For n = 25 years. $P(25) = 1 - (1 - 0.02)^{25} \simeq 0.396$; for n = 50 years. $P(50) \simeq 0.63$.

The Poisson Distribution

Consider a class of events, each of which may occur independently of the others and with equal likelihood at any time of an interval $0 \le t \le T$. A random variable is defined, which consists of the number N of events that will occur during an arbitrary time interval $\tau = t_2 - t_1$ ($t_1 \ge 0$, $t_1 < t_2 \le T$). Let $p(n, \tau)$ denote the probability that n events will occur during the interval τ . If it is assumed that $p(n, \tau)$ is not influenced by the occurrence of any number of events at times outside this interval, it can be proved [A1-4] that

$$p(n, \tau) = \frac{(\lambda \tau)^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda \tau} \qquad (n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots)$$
(A1.34)

In Eqs. A1.24 and A1.25 are used, it is found that the expected value and the variance of n are both equal to $\lambda \tau$. Since $\lambda \tau$ is the expected number of events occurring during time τ , the parameter λ is called the *average rate of arrival* of the process and represents the corrected number of events per unit of time.

The applicability of Poisson's distribution may be illustrated in connection with the question of the incidence of telephone can's in a telephone exchange [A1-5]. Consider an interval of, say, a quarter of an hour, during which the average rate of arrival of calls is constant. During any subinterval, the incidence of a number n of calls is as likely as during any other equal subinterval. In addition, it may be assumed that individual calls are independent of each other. Therefore, Eq. A1.34 applies to any time interval lying within the quarter of an hour.

Normal and Lognormal Distributions

Consider a random variable X which consists of a sum of small, independent contributions X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n . It can be proved [A1-1] that, under very general conditions, if n is large the probability density function of X is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x}} \exp\left(\frac{-(x-\mu_x)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}\right)$$
(A1.35)

where $\mu_x = E(X)$ and $\sigma_x^2 = Var(X)$ are the mean value and the variance of X, respectively. This statement is known as the *central limit theorem*. The distribution represented by Eq. A1.35 is called *normal* or *Gaussian*. It can be shown that the probability distribution of a linear function of a normally distributed variable is normal. Also, the sum of two or more independent normally distributed variables is normally distributed.

Normal distributions are used in a wide variety of physical and engineering applications, for example, the description of errors in measurements. At the

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same time, it should be carefully noted that many phenomena may not be normally distributed, for example, the extreme wind speeds occurring at any given geographical location.

If the distribution of the variable $Z = \log X$ is normal, the distribution of the variable X is said to be *lognormal*.

Type I and Type II Distributions of the Largest Values. Mean Recurrence Intervals

Let the variable X be the maximum of n independent random variables Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n [A1-6]. Since the inequality $X \le x$ implies $Y_i \le x$ for all $i \ (i = 1, 2, \ldots, n)$, it follows that

 $F(X \le x) = \operatorname{Prob}(Y_1 \le x, Y_2 \le x, \dots, Y_n \le x)$ (A1.36a)

$$=F_{Y_{x}}(x)F_{Y_{x}}(x)\dots F_{Y_{x}}(x)$$
 (A1.36b)

where, to obtain Eq. A1.36b from Eq. A1.36a, the generalized form of Eq. A1.8 was used. The probabilities $F_{Y_i}(y)$ are referred to as the underlying (or the *initial*) distributions of the variables Y_i . The latter are said to constitute the *parent population* from which the largest values X have been extracted. In the particular case in which all the variables Y_i have the same probability distribution $F_Y(y)$, Eq. A1.36 becomes

$$F_{x}(x) = [F_{y}(x)]^{n}$$
 (A1.37)

In the case in which they are unlimited to the right, the initial variables Y are said to have distributions of the *exponential type* if their cumulative distribution functions converge (with increasing y) toward unity at least as fast as an exponential function; the initial variables Y are said to be of the *Cauchy type* if

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} [1 - F(y)]y^{k} = A \qquad (A > 0; k > 0) \tag{A1.38}$$

As the number *n* becomes very large, the distributions $F_X(x)$ of the largest values approach limits known as the *Type I* and the *Type II* distributions according as the initial distributions are of the exponential and of the Cauchy type, respectively [A1-4, A1-7].

The cumulative distribution function for the type I distribution of the largest values (also referred to as the Type I Extreme Value distribution, or the Gumbel distribution) is

$$F_{I}(x) = \exp\{-\exp[-(x-\mu)/\sigma]\} \begin{cases} -\infty < x < \infty \\ -\infty < \mu < \infty \\ 0 < \sigma < \infty \end{cases}$$
(A1.39)

In Eq. A1.39, μ and σ are referred to as the location and the scale parameter, respectively.* It can be shown, using Eqs. A1.24 and A1.25, that the mean

*As shown in Eqs. A1.40 and A1.41, these parameters are not the expectation and the standard deviatio: of X.

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value and the standard deviation of X are

$$E(X) = \mu + 0.5772\sigma \tag{A1.40}$$

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$$SD(X) = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{6}}\sigma \tag{A1.41}$$

The cumulative distribution function for the Type 11 distribution of the largest values (also referred to as the Type 11 Extreme Value distribution, or the generalized Fréchet distribution) is

$$F_{\rm fl}(x) = \exp\{-\left[(x-\mu)/\sigma\right]^{-\gamma}\} \begin{cases} \mu < x < \infty \\ -\infty < \mu < \infty \\ 0 < \sigma < \infty \\ \gamma > 0 \end{cases}$$
(A1.42)

where μ , σ , and γ are the location, the scale, and the shape (or tail length) parameter, respectively [A1-8]. In the particular case $\mu = 0$, Eq. A1.42 is referred to as the Fréchet (as opposed to generalized Fréchet) distribution.

Equations A1.39 and A1.42 may be inverted to yield the so-called *percent* point function, that is, the value x of the random variable that corresponds to any given value of the cumulative distribution function. In the case of the Type I distribution

$$x(F_{1}) = \mu - \sigma \ln(-\ln F_{1})$$
 (A1.43)

whereas for the Type II distribution

$$x(F_{11}) = \mu + \sigma(-\ln F_{11})^{1/\gamma}$$
(A1.44)

It is convenient to denote the cumulative distribution function value F_1 or F_{11} by p and $x(F_1)$ or $x(F_{11})$ by $G_x(p)$. Then, for the Type I distribution

$$G_{\mathbf{X}}(p) = \mu - \sigma \ln(-\ln p) \tag{A1.43a}$$

and for the Type II distribution

$$G_{X}(p) = \mu + \sigma(-\ln p)^{-1/\gamma}$$
(A1.44*a*)

From the definition of p and Eq. A1.2 it follows that Prob(X > x) = 1 - p. Let the random variable X represent the extreme annual wind speed at some given location. Each year may then be viewed as a trial in which the event that the wind speed X will exceed some value x has the probability of occurrence 1 - p. By virtue of Eq. A1.33, the mean recurrence interval of this event is

$$\bar{N} = \frac{1}{1-p} \tag{A1.45a}$$

Thus, the wind speed x corresponding to a mean recurrence interval \overline{N} is equal to the value of the percent point function of X corresponding to

$$p = 1 - \frac{1}{\bar{N}} \tag{A1.45b}$$

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Relations Between Type I and Type II Extreme Value I	Distributions been variat
Let the Type II distribution be written as	tion a
$F_{\rm II}(y) = \exp\{-[(y - \mu_{\rm II})/\sigma_{\rm II}]^{-\gamma}$	(A1.46) Type
(In the present context it is convenient to denote the letter of the Type II distribution by μ_{II} and σ_{II} , respective	ely). If the transformation Let Z
$y - \mu_{11} = \exp x$	(A1.47) has a
is applied to Eq. A1.46, the expression obtained is a parameters	Type I distribution with
$\mu = \ln \sigma_{11}$	(A1.48) where
$\sigma = \frac{1}{\gamma}$	(A1.49)
It is now shown [A1-12] that as y approaches infir approaches a Type I distribution. Consider the distribution of the standardized vari	nity, a Type II distribution The c
$Z = \frac{X - \log(X)}{\operatorname{scale}(X)}$	(A1.50) The r
where $loc(X)$ and scale (X) are measures of location the distribution of X. Examples of measures of loca X are its expected value $E(X)$ and its median $G_X(0.5)$ scale of a random variable X are its standard deviat	and scale, respectively, of ation of a random variable). Examples of measures of ion SD(X), its interquartile is, by
difference $\delta_{50} = G_X(0.75) - G_X(0.25)$, and its 95% - $G_X(0.025)$. The percent point function $G_Z(p)$ is given by	difference $\delta_{95} = G_{\chi}(0.975)$ From
$G_{Z}(p) = \frac{G_{X}(p) - \log(X)}{\operatorname{scale}(X)} \qquad (0 < $	(p < 1) (A1.51) or, if (
With no loss of generality, a reduced variate with g in the demonstration. Substituting Eq. A1.44 <i>a</i> with A1.51 and choosing, for simplicity, $loc(X) = G_X(0.5)$	$\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$ may be used th $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$ into Eq. 5) and scale $(X) = \delta_{55}$, Co
$G_Z(p) = \frac{\left[-\ln(p)\right]^{-1/\gamma} - \left[-\ln(0.5)\right]^{-1}}{\left[-\ln(0.975)\right]^{-1/\gamma} - \left[-\ln(0.025)\right]}$	$\frac{1}{p^{-1/\gamma}}$ (0 < p < 1) (A1.52) tion, 1

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As $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$, this expression becomes indeterminate. However, application of L'Hospital's rule yields, after simplification,

$$G_{Z}(p) = \frac{-\ln[-\ln(p)] - \{-\ln_{L}^{-} - \ln(0.5)]\}}{-\ln[-\ln(0.975)] - \{-\ln[-\ln(0.025)]\}} \quad (0 (A1.53)$$

As can be seen from Eqs. A1.43a, the terms in the numerator and denominator of Eq. A1.53 are, respectively, the percent point function, the median, and the 95% difference of the reduced variate for the Type I distribution. It has thus

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been demonstrated that, as y approaches infinity, a standardized Type II variate approaches a standardized Type I variate and, hence, a Type II distribution asymptotically approache: a Type I distribution.

Type I Distributions: Mode of the Largest Value from a Sample of Size n as an Approximation of the Percent Point Function $G_X[1/(1-n)]$

Let Z be the largest of a set of n values of a random variable X, each of which has a Type I Extreme Value distribution (Eq. A1.39). The cumulative distribution function of this largest value is

$$F_n(z) = [F_1(z)]^n = \exp[-n \exp(-w)]$$
(A1.54)

where

$$v = \frac{z - \mu}{\sigma} - \infty < z < \infty$$

$$(A1.55)$$

$$0 < \sigma < \infty$$

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The corresponding p. obability density function is

$$f_n(z) = \frac{1}{\sigma} n \exp[-ne^{-w} - w]$$
 (A1.56)

The root of the equation

$$\frac{df_{n}(z)}{dz} = \frac{1}{\sigma^{2}} n \exp[-ne^{-w} - w][ne^{-w} - 1] = 0$$
 (A1.57)

is, by definition, the mode^{*} of the largest of the set of n values considered. From Eq. A1.57 it follows immediately

$$e^{-w} = \frac{1}{n} \tag{A1.58}$$

or, if Eq. A1.55 is used,

$$mode(Z) = \mu - \sigma \ln \frac{1}{n}$$
(A1.59)

Consider now the initial random variable X. Since X has a Type I distribution, its percent point function is

$$G_{\mathbf{X}}(p) = \mu - \sigma \ln(-\ln p) \tag{A1.43a}$$

or, making use of Eq. A1.45 in which \bar{N} is the mean recurrence interval

$$G_{\mathcal{X}}\left(1-\frac{1}{\bar{N}}\right) = \mu - \sigma \ln\left[-\ln\left(1-\frac{1}{\bar{N}}\right)\right]$$
(A1.60)

*It is recalled that the mode of a variable X is the value of that variable most likely to occur in any given trial (Sect. A1.4).

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In the particular case in which $\bar{N} = n$

$$G_{\mathcal{X}}\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right) = \mu - \sigma \ln\left[-\ln\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)\right]$$
(A1.61)

In Eq. A. 61, $G_X(1-1/n)$ is the value of X corresponding to the mean recurrence interval n.

It can be verified that for n sufficiently large, say, n > 10,

$$\ln\left[-\ln\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)\right] \simeq \ln\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \tag{A1.62}$$

(For example, for n = 20, the right and left members of Eq. A1.63 are equal to -2.970 and -2.996, respectively. For n = 40, they are equal to -3.676 and -3.689, respectively.) It follows therefore that

$$G_{\chi}\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right) \simeq \mu - \sigma \ln \frac{1}{n} = \operatorname{mode}(Z)$$
 (A1.63)

Equation A1.63 shows that if X is a random variable with a Type I distribution, the mode of the largest value in a sample of n values of X is very nearly equal to the value of the random variable corresponding to the mean recurrence interval n [A1-9].

An interesting experimental verification of this statement is provided by the data of [A1-11], which cover a period of 37 years. For example, for the first five sets of [A1-11], the values of the largest of the maximum yearly wind speeds recorded in 37 years. $v_{\rm max}$, and the values of the estimated 37-year wind, v_{37} , are (in mph)

	Cairo (III.)	Alpena (Mich.)	Tatoosh Isl. (Wash.)	Williston (N.D.)	Richmoud (Virginia)
Umax	51	50	84	50	48
U37	52	51	81	52	50

The probability that the largest of a set of *n* values of the random variable X with a Type I distribution is contained in a given interval can be easily calculated using Eq. A1.54. For example, from a 37-year record of the largest annual wind speeds at Richmond, Virginia the values of μ and σ were estimated to be 36.8 mph and 3.78 mph, respectively [A1-11]. Using these values, the probability that the largest wind speed $Z = V_{max}$ in a set of n = 37 largest annual speeds is contained, say, in the interval $V_{37}(1 \pm 0.24) = 50 \pm 12$ can be estimated as follows:

$$P(38 \le Z \le 62) = \int_{38}^{62} f_{37}(z) \, dz = F_{37}(62) - F_{37}(38) = 0.95 \quad (A1.63a)$$

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PROBABILITY THEORY AND STATISTICAL DATA

joint Extreme Value Distributions

The joint Type I Extreme Value probability distribution of two correlated ariables X, Y has the expression

$$F_{XY}(x, y) = \exp\left\{-\left[\exp\left(-m\frac{x-\mu_x}{\sigma_x}\right) + \exp\left(-m\frac{y-\mu_y}{\sigma_y}\right)\right]^{1/m}\right\}$$
(A1.64*a*)

here

$$m = (1 - \rho_{XY})^{-1/2} \tag{A1.64b}$$

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and the correlation coefficient $\rho_{XY} \ge 0$ [A1-23]. It can be verified that for probabilities of interest in structural reliability calculations (e.g., $F_{XY}(x, y) > 0.99$) and for values $\rho_{XY} \le 0.7$, say,

$$F_{XY}(x, y) \cong F_X(x)F_Y(y) \tag{A1.64c}$$

where $F_X(x)$ and $F_Y(y)$ are the Type I Extreme Value distributions of X and Y, espectively, that is, it may be assumed that X and Y are statistically independent.

The Weibull Distribution

The Weibull cumulative distribution function is

$$F(x) = 1 - \exp\left[-\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^{\gamma}\right]$$
(A1.65)

The expected value and the standard deviation of the variate $(x - \mu)/\sigma$ are, espectively, $\Gamma(1/\gamma + 1)$ and $\{\Gamma(2/\gamma + 1) - [\Gamma(1/\gamma + 1)]^2\}^{1/2}$, where Γ is the gamma unction, and are listed here for various values of γ [A1-8].

	1.2	1.6	2.0	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.6	4.0	6.0
Expected Value	0.9407	0.8966	0.8862	0.8856	0.8882	0.8930	0.8957	0.9011	0.9064	0.9264
Standard Deviation	0.7872	0.5737	0.4632	0.4249	0.3670	0.3245	0.3072	0.2780	0.2543	0.1850

For $\gamma \cong 3.6$, the shape of the Weibull distribution is similar to that of the normal distribution. The Weibull distribution with parameter $\gamma = 2$ is commonly referred to as the Rayleigh distribution.

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Goodness of Fit

Data obtained—or that may be obtained—from actual observations may be viewed as observed values of random variables. The behavior of the data is then assumed to be described by models governing the behavior of random variables, that is, by such mathematical models as are used in probability theory.

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In practical applications two important problems must be dealt with. First, from the nature of the phenomenon being investigated (or on the basis of observations), an inference must be made on the probability distribution that will adequately describe the behavior of the data. Second, the data must be used for drawing inferences on the parameters of the distribution or on some of its characteristics, for example, the mean or the standard deviation.

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In practice, given a set of observed data, or a *data sample*, it is hypothesized that its behavior can be modeled by means of some probability distribution believed to be appropriate. This hypothesis must then be tested. Tests incorporate quantitative measures of the degree of agreement, or *goodness of fit*, between the data and the hypothetical distribution or, conversely, of the degree to which the data deviate from that distribution. If the measure of this deviation is appropriately small, then the hypothesis will be accepted, and vice-versa. Associated with the testing of a hypothesis is a *level of significance*, that represents the probability of rejecting the hypothesis when it is in fact true. Tests commonly used in applications, including the well-known χ^2 test, are discussed, for example, in [A1-1] and [A1-4]. Brief mention is made of the probability plot correlation coefficient test [A1-10] that has been used in the study of the behavior of extreme winds [A1-11, A1-12]. The probability plot correlation coefficient is defined as

$$r_{D} = \frac{\sum (X_{i} - \bar{X})[M_{i}(D) - M(D)]}{\left[\sum (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2} \sum (M_{i}(D) - \overline{M(D)})^{2}\right]^{1/2}}$$
(A1.66)

in which $\overline{X} = \sum X_i/n$, $\overline{M(D)} = \sum M_i(D)/n$, *n* is the sample size, and *D* is the probability distribution being tested. The quantities X_i are obtained by a rearrangement of the data set: X_1 is the smallest, X_2 the second smallest, ..., X_i the *i*-th smallest of the observations in the set. The quantities $M_i(D)$ are obtained as follows. Given a random variable X with probability distribution D and given a sample size *n*, it is possible from probabilistic considerations to derive mathematically the distributions of the smallest, second smallest, and, in general, the *i*-th smallest values of X in that sample. The quantities $M_i(D)$ are the medians of each of these distributions.

If the data were generated by the distribution D, then, aside from a location and scale factor, X_i will be approximately equal to the theoretical values $M_i(D)$ for all i so that the plot of X_i versus $M_i(D)$ (referred to as probability plot) will be approximately linear. This linearity will, in turn, result in a near-unity value of r_D . Thus, the better fit of the distribution D to the data the closer r_D will be to unity.

To test whether the behavior of a given set of extreme data is better described by a Type I distribution or by a Type II distribution with some unknown value of the tail length parameter γ , the probability plot correlation coefficient r_D is computed for a large number of extreme value distributions, defined by various values of γ suitably spaced from $\gamma = 1$ to $\gamma = \infty$ (it is recalled that $\gamma = \infty$ corresponds to a Type I distribution). The variable in these distributions is written in standardized form so that for any given set of data the coefficients r_D depend

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solely upon γ , that is, are independent of the location and scale parameters μ and σ on which, therefore, no prior assumptions need to be made [A1-11]. The distribution that best fits the data is that which corresponds to the largest of the calculat d values of r_D .

Estimation of D stribution Parameters

From the data of a sample it is, in principle, possible to make inferences on the parameters of the distribution that describes the behavior of the population from which the data are extracted (or on characteristics of the distribution, e.g., the mean). An *estimator* may be defined as a function $\hat{\alpha}(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$ of the sample values such that $\hat{\alpha}$ is a reasonable approximation to the unknown value α of the distribution parameter (or characteristic). The particular numerical value assumed by an estimator in a given case is referred to as an *estimate*. As a function of random variables, $\hat{\alpha}(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$ is itself a random variable. This is muscrated by the following example.

Consider the observed sequence of 14 outcomes of an experiment consisting of the tossing of a coin:

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The random numbers associated with this experiment are the numbers zero and one, which are assigned to the outcome heads and to the outcome tails, respectively. The data sample corresponding to the observed outcomes is then:

$$(0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0)$$
 (A1.67b)

This sample is assumed to be extracted from an infinite population that, in the case of an ideally fair coin, will have a mean value, denoted in this case by α , equal to $\frac{1}{2}$. A reasonable estimator for the mean α is the sample mean $\hat{\alpha}^*$

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \tag{A1.68}$$

where *n* is the sample size (number of observations) and X_i are the observed data. In the case of the sample consisting of all 14 observations in A1.67*b*, $\hat{\alpha} = \hat{\ast}$. If the samples consisting of the first seven and of the last seven observations in A1.67*b* are used, $\hat{\alpha} = \hat{\ast}$ and $\hat{\alpha} = \hat{\ast}$, respectively.

As a random variable, an estimator $\hat{\alpha}$ will have a certain probability distribution with a nonzero dispersion about the true value α . Thus, given a sample of statistical data, it is not possible to calculate the true value α of the parameter sought. Rather, confidence intervals can be estimated of which it can be stated, with a specified confidence level q (level of significance 1-q), that they will contain the unknown value α .

In order that the confidence interval corresponding to a given confidence level q be as narrow as possible, it is desirable that the estimator used be *efficient*.

*The symbol ^ is used to denote estimated value.

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Of two different possible estimators $\hat{\alpha}_1$ and $\hat{\alpha}_2$ of the same parameter α , the estimator $\hat{\alpha}_1$ is said to be more efficient if $E[(\hat{\alpha}_1 - \alpha)^2] < E[(\hat{\alpha}_2 - \alpha)^2]$.

Details on procedures for estimating distribution parameters can be found. for example, in [A1-1] and [A1-4] (see also [A1-17] and [A1-22]). The question of parameter estimation for the Type I Extreme Value distribution—which is widely used in the study of extreme wind speeds—will be examined subs quently in this appendix. Before proceeding to this topic it is useful to discuss first the simulation of the behavior of a Type I Extreme Value distribution by means of numerical techniques commonly referred to as Monte Carlo methods.

Monte Carlo Methods. Simulation of a Type I Extreme Value Process

As defined in [A1-13], Monte Carlo methods comprise that branch of experimental mathematics that is concerned with experiments on random numbers. The simulation of the phenomenon of interest is achieved by subjecting available sequences of random numbers to appropriate transformations. The new sequences thus obtained may be viewed as data, the sample statistics of which are representative of the statistical properties of the phenomenon concerned. Examples of engineering applications of Monte Cario methods can be found in [A1-4] and [A1-14].

The simulation of the behavior of a random variable with a given distribution is a simple application of Monte Carlo techniques that is now discussed. It is assumed that the distribution is Extreme Value Type I with given parameters μ and σ (Eq. A1.39).

Consider a sequence of *n* uniformly distributed random numbers $0 < Y_i < 1$ (*i* = 1, 2, ..., *n*) such as are listed in [A1-14] or as may be generated by procedures discussed in [A1-2], [A1-13], or [A1-14]. These numbers are viewed as probabilities of occurrence of the data $X(Y_i)$ obtained by the following transformation (Eq. A1.43):

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 $X(Y_i) = \mu - \sigma \ln(-\ln Y_i) \tag{A1.69}$

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From the sample of size n, $X(Y_i)$ (i = 1, 2, ..., n), it is possible to obtain estimates of μ and σ (i.e., the distribution parameters) and of $G_X(p)$ (the percent point function corresponding to any given value of p, see Eq. A1.43a). Since, as was previously indicated, the estimates are random variables, the estimates will differ, in general, from the known parameters and percent point function of the underlying distribution. The procedure just described can be repeated a large number M of times. Then M sets of values $\hat{\mu}$, $\hat{\sigma}$, and $\hat{G}_X(p)$ and corresponding histograms can be obtained. From those sets it is possible to calculate summary statistics (such as the mean, the variance, the standard deviation) for $\hat{\mu}$, $\hat{\sigma}$, and $\hat{G}_X(p)$.

A Monte Carlo study of the behavior of a random variable with a Type I distribution conducted for the purpose of predicting extreme wind speeds was first reported in [A1-15]. A similar study, subsequently conducted by the writers, is now summarized. The parameter values of Eq. A1.69 used in this study were $\mu = 36.8$ and $\sigma = 3.78$ (these values in mph represent estimates of

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Type I distributions found in [A1-11] to best fit the annual extreme wind speeds recorded in Richmond. Virginia between 1912 and 1948). Two sets of 100 samples each were generated, the size of the samples being n = 25 for the first set and n = 50 for the second. The main results of the study are listed in Table A1.1. For example: $G_X(0.98) = 51.57$ (calculated from the underlying distribution with parameters $\mu = 36.8$, $\tau = 3.78$); the mean of the 100 estimates $\hat{G}_X(0.98)$ based on the samples of size n = 25 is Mean[$\hat{G}_X(0.98)$] = 52.58; the standard deviation of these estimates is $s[\hat{G}_X(0.98)] = 3.46$; the largest of the estimated $\hat{G}_X(0.98)$] + $2.5s[\hat{G}_X(0.98)] = (1 + 16.6/100) \times \{\text{Mean}[\hat{G}_X(0.98)]\} = \text{Mean}[\hat{G}_X(0.98)] + 2.5s[\hat{G}_X(0.98)]$. A histogram of the estimates $\hat{G}_X(0.999)$ for the 100 samples of size n = 50 is shown in Fig. A1.5.

The results of Table A1.1 were obtained by fitting a Type I Extreme Value distribution to the data samples generated from sequences of random numbers by Eq. A1.69. However, it is conceivable that, because of the random character of the sampling, the behavior of some of the samples would be better described by Type II Extreme Value distributions rather than by a Type I distribution. To verify whether this is indeed the case, the probability plot correlation coefficient test was applied to each of the samples. The results obtained, which are independent of the parameters μ and σ of the underlying distribution, are shown in Table A1.2.

As shown in Sect.3.2, percentages such as those of Table A1.2 can be compared to similar percentages obtained from the analysis of measured extreme wind speed data in an attempt to draw inferences on the applicability of the Type I distribution to the modeling of extreme wind behavior in certain types of climate. For details on such inferences, see [A1-21].

		μ	σ	$G_{X}(0.98)$	$G_{\mathfrak{X}}(0.99)$	$G_{X}(0.999)$
Original (Underlying) Distribu	ition	36.80	3.78	51.67	54.24	62.97
Mean"	n == 25	36.90	4.01	52.58	55.38	64.64
	n = 50	36.80	3.89	51.92	54.63	63.60
Standard Deviation ^a	n = 25	0.86	0.81	3.46	4.00	5.80
	n = 50	0.65	0.50	2.14	2.49	3.61
Maximum Deviation Below	n=25	5.90	52.00	19.60	21.30	25.70
Mean ^e (Percent of Mean)	n = 50	3.80	32.00	10.20	11.00	13.60
Maximum Deviation Above	n == 25	6.60	64.00	16.60	19.00	25.50
Mean" (Percent of Mean)	n == 50	4.00	32.00	10.70	12.00	14.70
Maximum Deviation Below	n== 25	2.50	2.60	3.00	3.00	2.80
Mean" (Standard Deviations)	n = 50	2.20	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.40
Maximum Deviation Above	n = 25	2.80	3.20	2.50	2.60	2.80
Mean ^e (Standard Deviations)	n = 50	2.30	2.50	2.60	2.60	2.60

TABLE A1.1. Monte Carlo Simulation of a Type I Extreme Value Process

*Estimated from 100 samples of size n.

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ABLE A1.2. Percentage of Samples	
rom a Population with a Type I	ľ
Distribution that are Best Fit by Type I	1
and Type II Distributions	

		Samp	le Size
Extreme V Distributio	alue on	n == 25	n == 50
Type I or $(\gamma \ge 13)$	Type II	57	77
	7≤γ<13	13	12
Type il	$2 \leq \gamma < 7$	30	11

Estimators for the Type I Extreme Value Distribution

A classical method of approaching the problem of estimation is the method of moments. In this method it is assumed that the distribution parameters can be obtained by replacing the expectation and the mean square value of the random variable X by the corresponding statistics of the sample. In the case of the Type I distribution, using Eqs. A1.40 and A1.41.

$$\hat{\sigma} = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\pi} s \tag{A1.70}$$

 $\hat{\mu} = \bar{X} - 0.5772\hat{\sigma} \tag{A1.71}$

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where \bar{X} and s are the sample mean and the sample standard deviation, respectively, that is,

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i \tag{A1.72}$$

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$$s = \left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i}(X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2}\right]^{1/2}$$
(A1.73)

From the estimators (A1.70) and (A1.71) the following estimator of $G_X(p)$ can be constructed:

$$\hat{G}_{X}(p) = \bar{X} + s(y - 0.5772) \sqrt{6/\pi}$$
 (A1.74)

where

$$y = -\ln(-\ln p) \tag{A1.75}$$

Under the assumption that the random variables \bar{X} and s defined by Eqs. A1.72 and A1.73 are, asymptotically, normally distributed, it can be shown [A1-7, pp. 10, 174, and 228] that for large samples of size n

$$SD[\hat{G}_{X}(p)] = \left[\frac{\pi^{2}}{6} + 1.1396(y - 0.5772)\frac{\pi}{\sqrt{6}} + 1.1(y - 0.5772)^{2}\right]^{1/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}$$
(A1.76)

A more efficient estimator of $G_x(p)$ has been developed by Lieblein on the basis of the method of order statistics [A1-7, A1-16, A1-17]. A method frequently used in applications is based on *least squares fitting* of a straight line to the data on probability paper. This method is used in the computer program of [A1-11]. A simplified approximate version of this method is presented in [A1-7, pp. 34, 227, and 228]. For a discussion of other estimation methods used for the Type I distribution. for example, the maximum likelihood method, the reader is referred to [A1-7] and [A1-18].

It can be shown that the standard deviation of any estimator of a parameter is larger than, or at least equal to, a theoretically specified standard deviation known as the *Cramér-Rao lower bound*. In the case of the percent point function of a Type I distribution, the Cramér-Rao lower bound is

$$SD_{CR}[\hat{G}_{X}(p)] = (0.60793y^{2} + 0.51404y + 1.10866)^{1/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}$$
(A1.77)

where y is given by Eq. A1.75 [A1-19]. For n=25 and n=50, the ratio $(1/\sigma)SD_{CR}[\hat{G}_X(p)]$ is now compared with the ratios $(1/\sigma)SD[\hat{G}_X(p)]$, where $SD[\hat{G}_X(p)]$ denotes the standard deviation of the percent point function estimated by the method of moments, by Lieblein's method of order statistics, and by the method of least squares fitting.

In Table A1.3 the quantities of line (1) were calculated by Eq. A1.76. The quantities of line (2) were obtained from [A1-16, p. 131] (through multiplication of corresponding quantities given for n = 10 by $\sqrt{10/25}$ and $\sqrt{10/50}$ or of quantities given for n = 20 by $\sqrt{20/25}$ and $\sqrt{20/50}$). The quantities of line (3) were

IAD	LE ALS. Autor ()		n=25				n = 50			
		Estimation Method \bar{N}	20	50	100	1000	20	50	100	1000
_		Estimation	0.45	1.02	1.13	1.45	0.46	0.72	0.80	1.03
(1)	1.1.1	Moments	0.65	1.02	0.90	1.32	0.43		0.64	0.93
(2) (3)	$\int_{\sigma}^{\infty} SD[\hat{G}_{X}(p)]$	Dirder Statistics (Liebeni) Least Squares p)](Cramér-Rao Lower Bound)	0.57	0.92 0.70	1.06 0.81	1.55 1.16	0.40	0.57 0.49	0.66 0.57	0.96

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TABLE A1.3. Ratios $(1/\sigma)SD[\hat{G}_{X}(p)]$ and $(1/\sigma)SD_{CR}[\hat{G}_{X}(p)]$

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obtained from Table A1.1* (as shown in [A1-11], these quantities are independent of the parameters μ and σ used in the calculations). Finally, the quantities of line (4) were calculated by Eq. A1.77.

Assume that $\hat{G}_{X}(p)$ is normally distributed. The approximate statement can then be made that the interval $\hat{G}_{X}(p) \pm SD[\hat{G}_{X}(p)]$ will contain the true unknown parameter $G_{X}(p)$ in about 68% of the cases. This interval (referred to as the 68% confidence interval) is said to correspond to the 68% confidence level. For the interval $\hat{G}_{X}(p) \pm 2SD[\hat{G}_{X}(p)]$ the percentage rises to 95%, while for the interval $\hat{G}_{X}(p) \pm 3SD[\hat{G}_{X}(p)]$ it rises to over 99% (99.7%). As noted above, these percentages should be viewed as only approximate; however, the approximation is satisfactory for reasonable sample sizes such as are used in the analysis of wind speed data.

Estimation Methods and Reliability of Extreme Wind Speed Predictions

It is of interest to examine the effect of the estimation methods upon the reliability of predictions of extreme wind speeds corresponding to mean recurrence intervals used in structural engineering calculations.[†] Consider, for example, the case n = 25. The 68% confidence interval for the 100-year wind, $x_{100} = G_X(0.99)$, is $\hat{G}_X(0.99) \pm SD[\hat{G}_X(p)]$. If the most reliable method of estimation of Table A1.3—the order statistics method—is used, then the interval is $\hat{G}_X(0.99) \pm 0.90\sigma \simeq \hat{G}_X(0.99) \pm 0.7s$ (Eq. A1.70). If, on the other hand, the least reliable method of Table A1.3—the method of moments—is used, then the estimated interval is $\hat{G}_X(0.99) \pm 0.88s$.

Numerous analyses of wind records show that the ratios s/\bar{X} are of the order of 0.07 to 0.15 [A1-11, A1-15]. Then the 68% confidence intervals obtained by the method of order statistics and by the method of moments are (using the ratio $s/\bar{X} = 0.12$) $\hat{G}_{X}(0.99)[1+0.061]$ and $\hat{G}_{X}(0.99)[1+0.077]$, respectively. The difference between the respective reliabilities of the estimates of the values of X corresponding to p = 0.99 (or, in virtue of Eq. A1.45, to a mean recurrence interval $\bar{N} = 100$ years) is seen to be quite small, that is, of the order of 2%. Results of similar calculations carried out for p = 0.95, p = 0.99, p = 0.999; n = 25, n = 50; and $s/\bar{X} = 0.12$, are shown in Table A1.4. The difference: between the reliabilities of the various procedures can be verified to be negligible also for $s/\bar{X} = 0.07$ and $s/\bar{X} = 0.15$.

It is seen from Table A1.4 that any of the methods listed will provide an acceptable estimate of the order of magnitude of the 68% confidence limits. The width of the 95% confidence limits is approximately twice the width of the 68% limits: for example, for $\overline{N} = 20$ and n = 25, the nondimensionalized 95% confidence limit estimated by the method of moments is 1 ± 0.098 . The dif-

^{*}The standard deviation of $\hat{G}_X(p)$ in line (3) is an estimate based on a finite sample. In accordance with the convention adopted herein, the notation s rather than SD should therefore be used for the quantities of line (3). This was not done in Table A1.3 for the sake of clarity.

⁺Of two different possible estimators $\hat{\alpha}_1$ and $\hat{\alpha}_2$ of the same quantity α_2 the estimator $\hat{\alpha}_1$ is said to be more reliable than $\hat{\alpha}_2$ if (assuming the estimators to be unbiased) $SD(\hat{\alpha}_2) = SD(\hat{\alpha}_2)$ [A1-16].

	1	n = 25				n = 50				
p Ñ	0.95 20	0.98 50	0.99 100	0.999 1000	0.95 20	0.98 50	0.99 100	0.999 1000		
Method of Moments Method of Order	1±0.049 1±0.047	1±0.073	1±0.077 1±0.061	$1 \pm 0.085 \\ 1 \pm 0.078$	$1+0.035 \\ 1\pm 0.033$	1 ± 0.052	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \pm 0.055 \\ 1 \pm 0.044 \end{array}$	1 ± 0.060 1 ± 0.056		
Statistics (Lieblein) Least Squares Method Cramer-Rao Lower Bound	1±0.043	$1 \pm 0.066 \\ 1 \pm 0.055$	$1 \pm 0.072 \\ 1 \pm 0.068$	$1 \pm 0.091 \\ 1 \pm 0.068$	1±0.031	1 ± 0.047 1 ± 0.036	1 ± 0.051 1 ± 0.030	1 ± 0.065 1 ± 0.049		

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TABLE A1.4. 68% Confidence Intervals^a Based on Various Estimation Methods and on the Cramer Rao Lower Bounds

"Nondimensionalized with respect to $\hat{G}_{\chi}[1-1/\bar{N})]$

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ferences between estimates based on various procedures are seen to remain acceptably small for the 95% confidence limits as well.

It has previously been shown (Eq. A1.64) that if X is a random variable with a Type I distribution, it is possible to view the largest value in a sample of nvalues of X as an estimator of the value of X corresponding to a mean recurrence interval n. While this estimator has the obvious advantage of extreme simplicity, its reliability is relatively poor. This can be shown by the following example. If Eq. A1.76 is used to estimate the 95% confidence interval for the 37-year wind speed at Richmond, Virginia ($\hat{\mu} = 36.8 \text{ mph}, \hat{\sigma} = 3.78 \text{ mph};$ see [A1-11]), the interval obtained is (50 ± 5) mph. Using the largest value in a set of 37 values as an estimator of the 37-year wind, the estimated 95% confidence limit interval obtained is (50 ± 12) mph (see Eq. A1.63*a*), that is, an interval more than twice as wide as the interval estimated by the method of moments.

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Wind Speed Data

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	35 ft	Wind Speed	ed (mph)	dand Speed
Month	Mean	Hourly Maximum	Mean	Hourly Maximum
Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June July Aug. Sep. Oct. Nov. Dec. Annual	7 7 3 12 10 7 7 9 8 9 11 9 8	18 16 29 28 27 18 23 20 27 30 27 30	15 14 16 18 16 13 11 15 11 13 14 13 14	37 32 45 39 35 45 29 34 29 34 29 34 5 38 36 45

Table 3.3-19. Monthly wind speed statistics, Cooper Nuclear Station, January-December 1975.

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	a naga ta a ba tanggi kili kan mitanggi kiti manan Alat M	Wind Speed (mp	n)	de als de mala de la de la de la del de l
	35 ft 1	Wind Speed	318 ft V	Vind Speed
Month	Mean	Hourly Maximum	Mean	Hourly Maximum
January	11	28	15	34
February	11	29	16	45
March	11	35	15	44
April	11	37	16	4.4
May	9	20	13	34
June	10	34	14	42
July	8	19	11	26
August	8	22	. 12	28
September	8	20	11	28
October	8	23	10	28
November	10	28	12	36
December	10	28	13	35
Annual	10	-28-37 \$74	11	-35-45

Table 3.3-19 Monthly wind speed statistics, Cooper Nuclear Station, January-December 1976.

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	Wind Speed (mph)										
	35 ft W	lind Speed	318 ft V	and Speed							
Month	Mean	Hourly Maximum	Mean	Hourly Maximum							
January February March April May June July August September October November December	9.5 10.4 12.4 10.1 9.9 8.9 9.3 8.2 7.2 8.4 11.2 11.4	26.0 28.0 32.0 34.0 25.0 25.0 24.0 28.4 19.0 21.4 34.5 26.6	12.9 14.2 16.8 14.5 14.2 13.5 14.8 11.9 13.5 15.1 15.3 15.9	40.0 42.0 37.0 47.0 36.0 36.0 41.7 29.6 38.4 39.1 45.1 34.9							
Annual	9.7	34.5	14.4	47.0							

Table 3.3-19. Monthly wind speed statistics, Cooper Nuclear Station, January - December 1977.

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						Meteorol	ogical	Data				
		35 ft	Temper	ature		35 £t			31	8 ft		
Month	Mean (F)	Hean Min. (F)	Mean Max. (F)	Abs. Min. (F)	Abs. Max. (F)	Direction Prevailing	Mean Speed (mph)	Max. Speed (mph)	Direction Prevailing	Mean Speed (mph)	Max. Speed (mph)	Precip. Total(in
January	14.1	6.3	21.8	-9.8	44.4	NNW	4.2	27.5	NNW	13.3	37.9	0.08
February	17.2	9.8	23.6	-15.8	42.5	NW	8.7	33.2	N	11.5	37.7	0.47
March	35.2	26.5	43.5	-11.3	80.4	N	8.3	25.5	NNW	12.7	33.5	0.11
April	53.0	45.1	60.9	30.5	78.8	ESE	11.6	25.8	S	16.6	36.3	3.04
Мау	61.1	53.4	69.1	38.1	86.1	E	8.6	31-2	SE	13.3	39.6	3.60
June .	73.1	63.7	82.4	50.4	98.5	SSE	9.ú	40.1	S	13.6	52.4	2.86
July	76.6	67.9	85.2	60.8	95.0	S	6.7	21.7	S	13.0	30.5	5.11
August	75.4	65.4	86.1	51.8	95.4	SSE	6.6	21.2	SSE	11.1	36.6	1.12
September	71.0	61.3	81.4	47.1	95.4	S	6.4	19.9	S	12.3	28.4	6.44
Octobér	54.1	42.9	67.0	32.7	86.1	N,S	6.8	18.2	NNW,S	12.0	29.1	0.62
November	40.9	33.8	49.2	14.0	77.5	N,S	6.2	17.7	N,SSW	9.8	23.7	1.36
December	27.2	20.2	35.3	4.9	47.8	NW	7.9	28.0	N	12.5	30.6	0.23

Summary of meteorological data measured at Cooper Nuclear Station, January - December 1978.

Table 3-1.

HAZLETON ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES

						Meteorol	ogical	Data				_	
		35 fi	t temper	rature		3	5 ft		318 ft				
Honth	Mean (F)	Mean Min (F)	Mean Max (F)	ABS Min (F)	ABS Max (F)	Direction Pre- vailing	Mean Speed (mph)	Max Speed (mph)	Direction Pre- vailing	Mean Speed (mph)	Max Speed (mph)	Total. (ir)	
January	12.6	5.0	19.5	-8.9	40.0	NUM	6.3	21.5	ttew	13.1	35.0	0.70	
February	17.0	8.0	25.0	-16.0	42.4	N	6.0	25.0	нии	12.6	34.0	0.02	
Harch	38.8	31.0	47.5	16.2	73.3	IIIW	7.4	29.1	titiiv	18.1	41.5	3.22	
April	50.5	41.0	59.8	23.5	75.9	ESE	4.0	10.8	ESE,SE	14.3	32.3	1.61	
May	62.4	52.0	72.6	38.5	85.9	S	3.8	15.4	S	15.6	43.2	1.40	
June	72.1	62.0	82.1	45.2	94.0	S	3.2	13.4	S	12.5	38.6	2.06	
July	74.5	67.0	85.0	55.0	94.4	SE	2.7	10.8	SSE	11.0	29.7	4.40	
August *	74.0	65.0	83.4	38.2	94.1	ENE	2.6	5.8	5	15.1	28.0	3.20	
September	67.8	56.0	79.9	40.1	88.3	a	a	23,2	S	13.4	32.7	1.20	
October	55.9	44.0	67.8	30.6	85.4	NIW	5:9	27.0	NNW	14.1	32.8	3.99	
llovember	39.0	31.0	47.9	20.2	68.8	S, WNW	8.0	19.9	NM	13.5	26.9	1.55	
December	33.1	24.0	42.9	-0.1	61.6	NIIW	8.1	24.7	NEW	14.4	34.0	0.19	
Annual	50.0	40.7	59.6	-16.0	94.4	NIW	5.7	29.1	NNW,S	14.0	43.2	23.54	

Table 3-1. Summary of meteorological data measured at the Cooper Nuclear Station, January-December 1979.

a = No Data Available

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* colcolated from 318 ft. data using legarethmic relation

HAZLETON ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES

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		318-1	t Wind	35-ft kind								
Honth	Mean Speed (mph)	Hax Speed (mph)	Prevailing Direction	Hean Speed (mph)	Hex Speed (mph)	Prevailing Direction	Mean (C)	Hean Hax (C)	Hean Hin (C)	Abs Man (C)	Abs Hte (C)	Precipitation lotel (in.)
January	13.1	38		7.2	24		-3.0	1.4	-7.3	13.5	23.8	0.65
February	11.7	38	NHG-H	6.5	25	HICH - H	-4.5	-0.2	-9.0	10.5	-77 3	0.17
March	15.2	31		8.2	28		2.0	6.7	-7.7	19.0	0.01	8.07
April	13.6	34	1	7.6	23		11.4	16.7	5.8	10 4	1.6	1.90
May	12.0	31	ESE-SSE"	5.7	18	NNU-NA,D	17.2	22.8	11 4	10 4	3.3	1.00
June	13.2	33		5.7	15		23.5	29.5	17.5	39 7	12.1	0.95
July	12.7	30		4.6	17		26.9	33.0	21.2	39.8	14 2	0.60
August	13.1	29	58-5"	5.1	15	SSE-S [®]	24.8	30.6	19.7	36.3	14.1	2 20
September	13.2	41		5.5	26		19.6	25.8	13.2	34 1	1.2	0.44
October	13.3	36		6.2	26		9.2	15.5	3.6	24 8	5.0	2 30
November	12.7	30	MHM - N	8.6	24	NHW-H, SSE-S [®]	6.2	12.0	0.7	26 6	10.3	0.20
December	12.4	30		9.0	25		-1.4	3.0	-5.6	16.5	-21.0	1.68
Annual	13.0	41	NNN-N,SSE-S	6.7	28	NUTW-N, SSE-S	11.3	16.4	5.7	39.8	-23.8	14.22

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Table 3-1. Summary of meteorological data measured at the Cooper Nuclear Station, Brownville, Nebraska, January-December 1980.

Prevailing direction is given for each quarter of the year; January-Harch, April-June, July-September, October-December. Only 61% of the wind data at 25-ft level was recovered during this quarter.

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BROWNVILLE	. NEBRASI	CA. JANUARY	1981-DECE	MDER 1901		CONTRACTOR OF A DESCRIPTION OF A DESCRIP
	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN
318-Ft Wind						
Hean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed(a) Prevailing Direction (a)	11 28 NMW 6	17 39 N 10	14 33 55W 28,29 10W-N	16 38 SSW 3	14 31 22	13 37 55W 13 55E-55W
35-Ft Wind						
Mean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed (a) Prevailing Direction (a)	8 22 10100 6	11 30 N 10	9 30 WSW 31 NW+N	11 31 SSW 3	9 23 SSW.SSE.S 3,16,21	9 30 55w 13 55E~55w
35-Ft Ambient Temperature						
Mean (C) Departure from (b) Normal (C) Maximum (C) Date of Maximum Minimum (C) Date of Minimum	-1.9 18.4 24 -15.8 17	-0.5 0.2 19.0 25 -25.9 11	6.3 2.2 23.1 30 -7.5 8	15.1 3.0 30.6 26 1.6 6	15.6 -2.0 27.9 -1.4 11	22.6 0.0 33.4 8 11.9 1
Precipitation						
Total (in.)	0.22	0.00	0.94	1.68	2.37	1.75
Normal (in.) (b) Rain Days	-0.66 1	-1.05	-1.30	-1.33	-2.30	-4.31 12
Single Day (in.) Date Maximum in a	0.22 31		0.63	0.46	0.93	0.59
Single Hour (in.) Date	0.11 31		0.21	0.46	0.17	0.23

TABLE 4-1 SUMMARY OF METEOROLOGICAL DATA MEASURED AT THE COOPER NUCLEAR STATION.

(a) Prevailing direction is derived from the quarterly joint frequency tables and is reported for the quarterly period only. The quarterly periods used are: Jan-Mar, Apr-Jun, Jul-Sep, and Oct-Dec.
 (b) The climatological normals were derived from NDAA climatological data for Auburn, Nebraska.
 (c) Rain days are defined as a day in which 0.01 in. of rain or rain equivalent of frozen precipitation has fallen.

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		TAE	LE 4-1 (CO	NT.)			and other the local division in the
	JULY	AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	Annual
318-Ft Wind							
Mean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Diraction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed Prevailing Direction (a)	10 28 55E 24	9 24 NNW 7	13 28 NNW 26 SSE~SSW	15 37 NH 17	14 36 N 19	12 37 NH 3 SSE-SSW	13 39 10 Feb 25E-\$5W
35-Ft Wind							
Mean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed	7 21 NSW	6 17 NNW, SSW,	7 20 NH "NNW	9 26 พพม	9 25 WNW, NNW	8 28 194	9 31 55W
Data of Maximum Speed(a) Prevailing Direction	17	5ы 7,14	26 SSE-SSW	17	18,19	د 5×32	3 Apr SE-S
35-Ft Ambient Temperature							
Mean (C) Departure from (b) Normal (C) Maximum (C) Date of Maximum Minimum (C) Date of Minimum	23.7 -1.4 35.2 14 14.2 28	21.6 -2.7 31.7 30 12.1 11	18.5 -0.8 31.9 29 2.0 18	10.9 -2.9 25.3 5 -4.5 23	5.9. 0.6 18.4 17 -7.5 21	-3.4 -2.3 13.7 7 -28.6 19	10.6 -1.0 35.2 14 Jul -28.6 19 Dec
Precipitation							
Total (in.) Departure from(b) Normal (in. (c)	4.77	4.87 0.39	3.15	1.84	0.44	0.43	23.60
Maximum in a Single Day (in.) Date	88 26	1.67	1.17	1.13	1,44	0.27	1.67 5 Aug
Single Hour (in.)	6.45	0.73	0.75	0.41	0.35	0.05	0.75 7 Sep

1981

STATION,	BROUN	VILLE, NEI	BRASKA, u	IANUARY	1982-DECEN	IBER 1982.
	JAR	FEB	HAR	APR	MAY	JUR
118-Ft Wind						
Mean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed Prevailing Direction ⁸	14 39 w?/W 22	11 27 N 22	13 38 5W 30 NV-M	15 45 104 2	12 35 9	9 35 14 552=55W
35-Ft Wind						
Mean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed Prevailing Direction ⁸	9 28 11111 22	10 32 55W,NNE,N-5 12,23,24	11 34 50 30	12 36 104 2	9 28 55¥ 9,10	7 27 5160 1.4 55E-550
35-Ft Ambient Temperature						
Mean (C) Departure from	-9.8	-1.7	3.3	9.9	17.5	19.8
Normel (C*) ^b	-6.0	-3.0	-0.8	-2.2	-0.1	-2.8
Mastenues (C) Date of Mastenues Minimues (C) Date of Minimues	5.9 27 -28.1 10	21 -2 22 -22.0 6	18.7 12.30 -14.5 6	26.8 2 -6.9 6	28.4 6.4 7	33.0 29 8.1 1
Precipitation						
Total (in) Departure from	0.69	0.27	1.05	0.96	6.96	Z.41
Normal (in.) ^b	-0.19	-0.78	-1.19	-2.05	2.29	-1.65
Rain Days ^C	7	6	10	5	18	6
Maximum in a Single Day (in.)	0.41	0.11	0.25	0.**	2.64	1.28
Date	22	17	19	28	20	8
Masimum in a Single Hour (in.)	0.19	0.03	0.14	0.11	0.88	0.54

TABLE 4-1 SUMMARY OF METEOROLOGICAL DATA MEASURED AT THE COOPER NUCLEAR

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^a Prevailing direction is derived from the ouarterly and annual joint frequency tables and is reported for the quarterly and annual periods only. The quarterly periods used are: Jan-Mar, Apr-Jun, Jul-Sep, and Oct-Dec.

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^b The climatological normals were derived from HORA climatological data for Auburn, Hebrasta.

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^C Rein days are defined as a day in which 0.01 in. of rain or rain equivalent of frozen precipitation has fallen.

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Date

NIPH- SR&-209 824 JM 3-11

		TABL	E 4=1 (CO	R(T_+)		The Report of Construction of the American	
	JULY	AUG	<u>589</u>	<u>0CT</u>	MOV	230	Annual
218-Ft wind							
Mean Speed (mph) Masimum Speed (mph) Direction of Masimum Speed Date of Masimum Speed Prevailing Direction ⁸	10 28 ENE 20	9 24 1/511 4	11 29 28 SSE-55W	13 33 100 19	13 40 11NW 12	11 28 NW 18 SSE-SSW	12 45 NW 2 Apr 555-55W
35-Ft Wind							
Hean Speed (mph) Masimum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed	7 22 55W	19 19 WSW	8 19 5	36 ¥	7 33 NHW	7 24 SM	8 36 NW
Date of Maximum Speed Prevailing Direction ⁸	5	4	28 58 - 5	11	12	13 SSE-SSW	2 Apr SSE-SSV
35-Ft Ambient Temperature							
Mean (C) Departure from	25.4	22.3	18.1	12.3	3.3	0.0	9.9
Normal (C*) ^b	0.3	-2.0	-1.2	-1.5	-2.0	1.1	-1.7
Haximum (C) Date of Maximum Minimum (C) Date of Minimum	36.3 3 14.8 31	35.5 3 12.2 11	29.7 1 2.8 21	29.5 5.3.3 71	18-8 9 -11-1 24	16.3 -13.6 29	36.3 3 Jul -28.1 10 Jan
Precipitation							
Total (in.) Departure from	1.71	7.47	0.93	88.0	0.79	3.32	27.44
Normal (in.) ^b	-2.40	2.99	-3.14	-1.64	-0.37	2.27	-7.86
Rain Days ^C	8	15	4	6		8	97
Maximum in a Single Day (in.)	1.5	2.42	0.50	0.38	0.47	1.31	2.64
Date	6	12	6	28	11	27	20 May
Maximum in a Single Hour (in.)	0.45	1.19	0.25	0.16	0.13	0.51	1.19
Date	6	12	6	8	11		12 Aug

/982 TABLE 4-1 (CONT.)

	Jan	Feb	Plar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual
318-Ft Wind										13.0		14.0	13.6
Mean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed	13.2 39.0 NNW 11	12.5 29.0 NNW 2	15.5 33.0 SSE,SE 4	15.8 44.0 NHW 2	13.9 36.0 SE 1	11.8 33.0 5 12	13.1 30.0 SSW,SW 3	10.4 25.0 5 20	14.8 3€.0 NN₩ 20	30 	41.0 NNW 9	33.0 NW 24	44.0 NNW 2Apr
35-Ft Wind										7.5	0.1	10.1	8.7
Mean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed	9.0 30.0 NHW 11	7.5 24.0 NNJ 2	9.7 24.0 мны 27	10.5 33.0 M 2	10.0 28.0 SW 6	7.9 27.0 5 12	22.0 5W 3	5.9 16.0 -#- 15	23.0 NNW 20	21.0 -@- 27	27.0 -m- 9	29.0 -#- 24	33.0 N 2Apr
35-Ft Ambient Temperature								01.3	£0.8	54 1	40.7	12.1	55.7
Nean (OF) Maximus (OF) Date of Maximum Minimum (OF) Date of Minimum	- 18- - 18- N/A - 29- N/A	-m- -m- N/A -m- H/A	-0)- -m- H/A -m- N/A	45.7 78.5 26 28.5 18	58.9 86.0 27 39.0 8	71.2 89.5 30 44.5 1	100.5 22 62.0 25	104.0 17 61.5 12	94.5 9 33.5 23	88.0 2 34.5 13	2 13.5 29	35.0 R -17.5 22	104.0 17Aug -57 5 22Dec
Precipitation		0.60	1.03	1.06	1.34	2.87	0.19	0.64	3.10	0.75	3.54	0.14	15.52
Total (in.) Rain Days(a)	0.18	2	6	8	9	8	z	4	6	4	5	4	63
Haximum in a	0.07	0.67	0.40	0.31	0.29	0.76	0.17	0.48	1.82	0.57	1.20	0.10	1.82
Date	26	1	26	12	13,18	17	13	23	19	21	9	20	19Sep
Naximum in a Sinale Hour (in.)	0.02	0.13	0.17	0.21	0.12	0.37	0.10	0.29	1.0*	0.13	0.55	0.05	1.09
Bate	29	1	15	12	18	17	13	23	19	21	3	20	195ep

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Table 3-1. Summary of Meteorological Data Measured at the Cooper Nuclear Station, Anuary 1983 through December 1983

^aRain days are defined as a day in which 0.01 in. of rain or rain equivalent of frozen precipitation has fallen. Note: -a- indicates missing data; N/A indicates Not Available.

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Annual Oct Nov Dec Aug Sep Jul Jun Kay Apr Feb Har Jan 100-m Wind 14.3 13.8 12.6 14.9 13.0 11.4 10.9 13.0 13.0 18.3 15.9 14.6 51.0 13.6 30.4 34.5 Mean Speed (mph) 30.4 32.0 25.7 26.0 37.0 43.0 40.0 38.0 46.0 ۹ŀ 51.0 NEW NNU 5 5 H Maximum Speed (aph) S NH NH. NNH NH MNW RNM 24 29Jan 10 **Birection** of Maximum Speed 31 7 18 8 25 3 29 1 5 29 Date of Maximum Speed 60-m Wind(a) 11.3 12.8 10.6 13.1 11.3 9.9 9.0 12.3 11.5 -15--25-29.3 40.0 -89 31.8 Mean Speed (mph) -@-30.6 29.5 22.8 40.0 22.9 37.0 -18--15-S -8--16-NNM N M Maximum Speed (mph) S.SSW S SSE S HNW -m--18--18-24 7 Jun -18-10 19 Direction of Maximum Speed 9 31 7 7 25 N/A N/A N/A H/A Date of Maximum Speed 10-m Wind 9.0 7.6 7.0 9.0 5.8 1.6 8.4 6.8 8.5 -西 6.5 -12 21.5 72.4 -借-23.5 25.7 Mean Speed (mph) -10-27.9 23.7 16.0 16.8 27.5 27.0 -#-32,1 -18-26.5 18.0 H NNW S S SSE S Maximum Speed (mph) N 5 -8--18-7.Jun 10 Direction of Maximum Speed 18 31 7 14 25 7 H/A H/A N/A 3 · Date of Maximum Speed 10-7 Ambient Temperature -0.1 11.9 6.0 12.7 24.8 25.1 18.1 23.2 15.9 2.0 0.2 9.1 -4.6 20.7 38.2 20.8 35.6 26.4 38.2 Hean (OC) 31.6 36.7 28.5 12.2 25.4 18.3 10.3 14 28 28Aug 3 Maximum (OC) 26 8 28 6 18 26 25 22 -23.3 29 -15.9 -1 -4.7 -3.0 Date of Maximum 16.7 12.8 10.0 0.8 3.5 -11.4 -16.7 -23.3 28 5 20.Jan 20 Ninimum (°C) 29 23 8 3 29 6 5 8 20 Date of Minimum 10-m Dew Point lemperature [a] -6.5 1.1 6.5 -2.1 9.5 15.9 16.0 15.6 8.1 -8--18-13.7 23.1 -18-16.4 11.5 19.9 Hean (OC) 21.9 23.1 20.0 23.1 -18--18--18-28 14 Jun -18-27 9 Maximum (OC) 23 14 10 6 24 H/A N/A N/A 6Aug 親子族 Date of Maximum -24.5 -24.5 -4.2 -14.1 -5.8 4.2 9.4 -4.5 6.7 -33--19-6fler 15 6 -18-23 Minimuma (OC) 29 2 7 30 N/A 9 H/A H/A H/A Date of Minimum

Table 3-1. Summary of Meteorological Data Measured at the Cooper Nuclear Station, January 1984 through December 1984

* colculated based on 100-m. data using logarithmic relation

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	Jan	Feb	Har	Apr	Hay	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	0ct	Nov	Dec	Annua
100-m Wind													13.6
Hean Speed (mph) Haximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Haximum Speed	15.1 36.0 NNW 25	12.6 27.5 NNW 23	13.8 36.0 W	14.4 40.5 S 19	13.8 36.5 WSW 11	13.9 37.1 SSE 23	11.0 25.1 WNW 11	11.6 34.7 N 5	14.8 29.5 NW 23	12.8 35.8 S 7	12.5 34.2 NNW 6	33.8 NW 17	40.5 5 19Apr
60-m Wind			12.0	13.6	11.9	12.0	9,1	9.6	12.7	10.9	11.4	13.5	11.9
Mean Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed	13.8 34.4 NNW 25	11.3 25.9 NNW 23	36.9 5 26	36.7 S,SSE 19	32.4 WSW 11	31.3 558 23	22.1 NNW(2) 4	31.3 N 5	28.9 S 19	33.6 S 7	32.7 NNW 6	NW 17	36.9 S 26Mar
10-m Wind								6.6	8.4	6.9	1.5	9.5	8.2
Nean Speed (mph) Naximum Speed (mph) Direction of Maximum Speet Date of Maximum Speed	10.4 28.2 NNW 25	8.0 21.0 NNW 16	9.1 29.1 S 26	10.0 28.0 SSW(2) 18	8.5 26.6 WSW 11	21.0 SE 23	17.7 NNW 4	19.7 N 5	22.1 NW 23	26.6 NW(2) 4	25.5 NNW 6	25.5 NW 17	29.1 S 25Mar
10-m Ambient Temperature									17.7	12.7	0.7	-6.0	10.3
Hean (Degree C) Hazimum (Degree C) Date of Maximum Hinimum (Degree C) Date of Hinimum	-6.5 9.9 6 -25.4 19	-3.6 13.4 28 -23.0 6	7.9 22.7 26 -3.1 4	13.5 30.0 18 -3.5 1	19.0 30.2 25 7.9 18	21.0 35.2 8 8.5 13	24.8 35.5 9 14.5 3	21.4 34.1 31 11.4 26	33.1 2 2.8 30	24.5 16 -0.5 1	20.4 18 -13.6 30	7.5 30 -21.6 18	35.5 9July -25.4 19Jan
10-m Dew Point Temperature									12.8	5.9	-4.1	-10.6	3.8
Mean (Degree C) Naximum (Degree C) Date of Maximum Minimum (Degree C)	-11.8 -1.0 18 -29.8 31	-9.1 9.2 21 -27.4 1	-1.1 12.0 3 -11.9 4	5.3 16.6 29 -10.1 8	10.3 21.5 30 -2.0 2	12.3 23.6 24 -2.2 17	16.9 22.9 12 7.5 4	17.2 25.5 9 10.3 10	23.7 1 -2.0 30	17.3 18 -5.9 28	15.3 18 -16.7 27	1.7 30 -25.6 14	25.5 9Aug -20.8 31Jan

Table 3-1. Summary of Meteorological Data Measured at the Cooper Nuclear Station for January 1, 1985 through December 31, 1985

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	Jan	Feb	Har	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	0ct	Nov	Dec	Annes
100-m Wind													
Here Cound (mph)	15.5	12.3	15.8	16.7	12.7	11.6	12.1	11.1	12.2	12.2	13.5	11.1	13.1
Hastown Speed (mph)	37.1	35.6	34.2	38.0	34.9	28.2	27.3	27.3	32.9	26.8	36.7	28.9	38.0
Direction of Maximum Speed	NH	WRW	NNW	HNH	S	NNE	S	S,SSE	SW	11	26	20	1/ Anr
Date of Maximum Speed	4	25	5	14	4	29	3	12	28	31	13	19	Laubt
60-m Wind													
a	13.6	11.0	14.4	14.8	10.9	10.0	10.4	9.1	10.5	10.3	11.9	9.5	11.4
Hean Speed (mph)	35.3	31.8	35.8	34.9	34.2	23.0	26.8	24.6	27.7	24.4	33.1	22.8	35.8
Maximum Speed (mpn)	NW	NNW	S	¥	S	PINE	S	SSE	WSW	N	N	NNW	S
Date of Maximum Speed	4	20	24	14	4	29	5	12	28	31	25	29	24Mar
10-m Wind													
	9.5	77	10.3	10.5	7.6	6.9	7.0	5.9	7.1	6.8	8.1	6.6	7.8
lean Speed (mpa)	29 1	25.3	26.8	29.1	27.3	17.2	20.1	17.9	19.7	18.3	25.1	18.3	29.1
Haximum Speed (mpn)	NH	NEW	NNW, S	H	S	SSW	S	SSE	<u>S</u>	NNW	H	INNU	
Date of Maximum Speed	4	20	5,24	14	. 4	26	5	18	28	11	7	29	14Apr
10-m Amblent Temperature													
	0.5	-2.7	9.1	13.0	18.1	24.5	.25.8	21.1	20.1	12.8	2.3	-0.2	12.0
Hean (Degree C)	16.3	16.7	31.4	29.5	29.1	34.6	35.0	31.4	30.8	25.1	17.7	9.3	35.0
Haximum (Degree C)	10,3	26	29	24	31	28	24	25	26	7	21	14	24 July
Date of Maximum	-12.9	-22.0	-10.8	-2.0	7.2	13.4	14.8	7.9	7.1	1.0	-16.4	-12.1	-22.0
Hinimue (Degree C)	27	12	7	14	19	12	21	28	8	14	11	10	.2Feb
Date of Minimum													
10-m Dew Point Temperature													
there (hereas C)	-7.3	-6.2	0.4	4.8	8.9	15.2	18.5	14.8	14.0	7.3	-3.7	-3.9	5.2
Can (Degree C)	2.7	8.5	13.1	17.2	17.5	23.1	23.4	21.6	21.0	18.0	11.1	4.1	23.4
Date of Maximum	31	2	31	29	9	29	30	17	24	2	7	1	JUJULY
Ht. from (Decres C)	-26.2	-23.8	-17.8	-9.0	-2.9	7.5	11.7	2.0	2.4	-5.3	-20.0	-17.8	-26.2
Date of Mainum	26	12	7	14	1	2	20	28	7	13	13	10	26380
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Table 3-1. Summary of Heteorological Data Measured at the Cooper Nuclear Station for January 1, 1986 through December 31, 1986

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		e Cooper Nuclear Station		I Aug Sep Dct Nov Dec Annual		8 10. 9 12 0 13.3 14.5 14.5 13.0 0 29.7 29.5 30.2 27.6 31.4 39.7	26 4 NE NHW S S S S 26 6 9 1 21 30 27Hay		9 9.2 9.8 11.2 12.3 12.6 11.1	5 27.5 26.2 27.6 30.0 30.3 35.2 B SSE NE NNW SW S	18 18 9 1 12 30 27May		6 6.2 6.2 74 85 89 7.7 m	CE ECU NE NO E R R NU	17 18 9 5 21 30 28Feb		0 22.4 19.3 10.0 5.0 1.0 12.7	B 37.9 31.4 29.5 19.0 11.8 37.9 4		14 31 30 11 30 31 23Jan 9		9 13.7 10.9 1.8 0.3 -3.0 7.6	9 23.8 18.7 15.3 12.1 9.6 23.91.
		Heasured at th creater 31, 1987		of and he		3.1 10.1 12 9.7 35.0 33	27 IZ		1.3 8.8 10	5.2 31.0 24 S N 3.	27 12 ,		3.1 6.2 7	1 17. 3 10. 11 N	27 12		.4 24.0 26.	10 34.8 35.	11 9 13	22 4		15.3 17.	CC N CC 4
		orological Data 1987 thrown Da		Mar Apr H		14.1 13.9 1 33.1 31.8 3	E 5		1.9 1	28.2 29.9 3 ESE 8	17 19 .		8.9 8.8	NU KNU KNU	1		7.0 13.6 20	13.3 32.2 31	8.7 -3.7 6	30 3		- 2 2.4 10	1 1 1 1 1 1
		Summary of Mete	A ALECTER LAL	Jan féb		13.6 13.5 30.7 37.3	NM NNK 29 28		11 8 11 2	28.5 34.4 NW NNW	29 28		6.5 7.4	24.0 20.3 s	61C 61C		-1.3 3.5	14.5 17.7 2	- 16.6 -8.31-	23 18		-7.4 -3.8	
 10m 4w 51 240s		Table 3-1.			100-m Wind	Mean Spred (mph) Maximum Spred (mph)	Direction of Maximum Speed Date of Maximum Speed	60-m Wind	Mean Speed (mob)	Hazimum Spred (mph) Direction of Mazimum Speed	Date of Maximum Speed	10-m Wind	Mean Speed (mph)	Parimum upsed (mph)	Date of Maximum Speed	10-m Ambient Temperature	Mean (Degree C)	Maximum (Degree C)	Minimum (Deares C)	Date of Minimum	10-m Dew Point Temperature	Hean (Degree C)	

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Table 3-1. Summary of Meteorological Data Measured at the Cooper Nuclear Station for January 1, 1988 through December 31, 1988

	Jan	Feb	Hez	Apr	Hey	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annue1
100-m Hind												en findi se tra ' se se se	and the second
Hean Speed (mph)	15.7	14.4	16.4	14.6	15.8	18.3	10.6	12.6	13.8	12.2	14.4	12.4	18.0
Hernismum Speed (mph)	36.2	40.3	35.6	34.7	34.1	24.0	28.3	29.7	34.9	31.6	49.4	30.6	10.9
Disection of Maximum Speed	HRW	NNW	NW	NNH	5	8	8		u	NUMPLI NO.	NU.	NHU	80.0
Date of Matimum Speed	12	14	12	5	,	21	15	22	19	22	5	14	14795
60-m Hind													
Hean Speed (mph)	12.3	12.6	14.4	12.8	14.0	11.4	9.3	10.8	11.9	11.0	14.1	12.0	12.2
Haziman Speed (mph)	83.6	\$7.2	36.U	32.5	32.5	24.2	25.4	28.2	32.2	31.1	33.2	32 8	87.9
Direction of Naximum Speed	HIN!	NIN	581	NRM	8	8	unui			Statu Matu	100.0	MARL	97.8
Date of Hanimum Speed		14	27	5	7	÷.,		22	10	22	-	14	14P-L
10-m Hind									4.7	**	,		141.60
Hean Bysed (c)	9.0	8.9	10.3	6.8	9.7	7.6	6.3	7.0	7.8	7.5	10.1		
Makimum Speed (mph)	8.85	28.3	30.3	27.3	24.2	18.6	19.4	19.4	24.2	25.4	28.0	56.6	30.5
Direction of Haxianan Speed	Harin	NRM	SSH	WHEN	WWW	8	WHE	NIN		80.0	10.04	0,03	20.3
Date of Namimum Speed	12	14	27	26	9	13	8	22	19	23	5	24	27Mer
10-m Ambight Temperature													
Hean (Degree C)	-4.7	-3.5	4.0	11.2	20.4	23.1	24.8	25.3	20.2	10.7			
Homimum (Degree C)	15.2	21.1	27.6	28.0	31.5	38.4	36.6	27.0	34.0	26 0		18 5	11.0
Date of Maximum	2.9	26	2.2	8	18	25	31	15	13	40.9		10.0	30.4
Minimum (Degree C)	, -10.3	-23.1	-10.6	-0.5	9.8		13.4				15		zoJune
Date of Hinimus	26	11	14	16	17	16	1	28	24	-3.5	-8.2	-13.9	-23.1 11Feb
10-m Day Point Temperature													
Heam (Degree C)	-9.3	-9.6	-4.5	-0.2									
Manismus (Deares C)	2.4	1.6	13.1	11.4	17.9	01.0	.0.9	13.5	10.8	0.7	-1.6	-7.2	2.9
Date of Manimum	29	21	24			#1.6	22.9	24.0	19.5	12.1	15.3	5.7	24.0
Hinimum (Degree C)	-24.0	-26.0	-10.0		91	2.2	14	17	18	22	15	26	17Aug
Date of Hintman		- 20.0	19.2	-14.2	-4.3	-1.9	9.8	0.9	-0.1	-10.0	-12.0	-21.6	-26.0
and the second se	1.1.1.1	**	14	18	9	9	21	28	6	30	28	16	liFeb

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14.5 39.6 27/28

13.4 30.3 26/15

35.8 35.8 22/11

24.5 24.5 28/22

10.4 26.3 29/18

27.8

19.2 34.3 29/15

NEED NUL

31.4 31.2 MARIA

11.8 29.3 26/15

10.5 33.7 22/17

9.1

9.3 29.138

19.0 24.1 20/16

11.3 36.1 29/15

12.6 28.3 8/9

33.2 34/36

11.2 29.7 1/4

22.0 28.0 31/26

Date/Bour of Maximus Spood

10-w Wind

Marizan Syeed (apt)

Hean Speed (mph)

60-m Wind

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-.27 22.8 ABC26 -90.8 DEC15

-11.8 3.8 5 15

-4.9 29.6 23 -29.6 25

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4.15	39.0	2113	8.1	24.9	2/13	8.9-	27.9	10	+29.4	22
12.9	32.3	27/38	\$.7	26.2	27/26	8.4	19.3	22	-12.1	. 82

1.15 1.15

6.5 23.8 22/17

6.0 15.1 28/22

6.2 17.6 29/19

6.7 39.2 2/23

8.2

9.6 24.8 8/2

9.9 33.6 14/36

8.7 24.5 1/4

8.3 23.9 31/25

Date/Bowr of Maximum Speed

Maan Speed (sph) Harlansa Speed (sph)

10-s Ambient Temperature

7.8 53.6 Mai:14

10.8 36.7 A0C4 -29.4 DEC22

11.9 5 -29.4 22

17.8 21.2 25.1

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Nern (Degree C) Nariscom (Degree C) Date of Maximon Miniscom (Degree C) Date of Miniscom

33.6	30.7	13	1.4	30	- 13.		15.0	5		20							1
								e i	ē.							11	ł
37.8	31.3	1	27.0	23		1.9	22.5	**	6.1	23							
		1	-3						4.1								
23.8	34.7		9.9			15.3	22.8	26	5.5	~					4	44	1
25.3	. 36.2	. 10	13.0	36		26.7	21.2	30	30.6	21	ĸ			142			
						÷	÷,	ŝ.	i.,			l.	u,				
21.2	34.3	21	9.2	16	- 44 	665=	666-	546	655-	666-						2	1
			à.				ź										
17.6	35.0	52	1.8	*		2.7	12.7	49	-8-3	ş							
33.5	34.1	26	8.8-	30		1.1	16.2	27	-16.4								
								1		1							
9.6	27.8	28	-13.3	*		-3.9	13.2	26	-28.3								
-7.3	5.7	25	-24.5			-13.3	2.1	25	-30.0	•							
2.9	19.5	31	-11.5	4		2.25	0.6	31 -	-19.0			-					

27.92 0.0

Hean (Dagree C)

10-m Pry Polat Temperators

Dete of Narikees 31 Minimus (Begrse C) -19.0 Date of Minimum 6 999 = Demotes Missing Date

Mariane (Degree C) Date of Mariana Miniane (Degrae C) Date of Miniana

Summary of Mateorological Data Massured at the Caoper Muclear Station for January 1, 1989 through Smossmber 91, 2989 Lable 3-2.

DOLLA OF	n Spead (aph) 13.	tamas Speed (apph) 25.	ef Bour of Maximum Speed 31/1
	12.4	30.5	4 3/4
	14.2	39.2	24/26
	13.6	28.8	818

100-w Wiped

	Jen	Feb	Her	Apr	Mary	Jun	Aud.	Aug	Sap	Oct	Herr	(Hec	Arresol
								1	-				
100-m 19[nd													
Nean Speed (aph) Maximum Speed (aph) Date/Neur of Maximum Speed	14.3 34.4 27/8	13.4 33.2 13/9	14_9 35.7 13/21	14.8 38.0 10/2	13.7 31.3 18/17	14.1 38.3 19/5	12.6 26.7 19/20	11.8 26.2 3/1	11.3 26.9 27/5	15.0 39.0 17/19	7.2 21.9 30/14	13.1 31.6 3/7	12.9 39.0 3717
60-m Wind													
Hewn Speed (mph) Maximum Speed (mph) Date/Hour of Maximum Speed	12.6 33.6 27/8	11.9 32.1 13/10	12.5 33.1 13/21	13.9 31.3 23/17	12.3 31.2 18/17	12_9 41_6 19/4	11.3 25.4 7/17	9.6 21.5 17/14	9.6 25.1 22/13	11.7 36.0 17/19	12.6 53.5 20/17	11.6 29.6 3/7	11.9 61.4 30879
10-m Wind													
Nean Speed (aph) Maximum Speed (aph) Dete/Hour of Maximum Speed	8.5 27.2 27/8	8.0 23.4 24/3	5.4 21.6 11/16	9.8 24.7 1/12	8.6 22.8 7/18	8.9 27.9 19/4	7.4 18.1 7/14	6.1 16.2 17/14	6.2 19.5 22/13	9.0 30.0 17/20	8.5 26.6 21/11	8_3 23_1 3/7	7.9 30.0 0CT17
10-m Ambient Jumperature													
Roan (Degree C) Maximum (Degree C) Lete of Maximum Minimum (Degree C) Date of Minimum	1.9 18.1 18 -9.4 1	0.8 22.2 12 -17.2 17	6.0 24.4 12 -6.9	11.3 29.1 23 -3.9 12	15.5 29.3 7 6.9 1	26.6 34.8 28 8.0 4	25.2 39.0 6 11.7 16	24.6 35.6 31 12.5 7	21.3 36.2 6 3.9 23	16.0 32.0 5 -2.0 28	8.6 26.7 1 -6.0 28	-3.8 16.6 11 -22.4 22	12.6 39.8 88.4 -22.4 DEC22
10-a Dew Point Temperature													
Mean (Begree C) Maximum (Degree C) Date of Maximum Minimum (Degree C) Pate of Minimum	-5.2 11.3 16 -15.9 12	-7.5 2.5 7 -20.6	-0.4 16.6 10 -17.5 3	1.2 15.0 22 -15.5 5	7.0 16.3 15 -7.1 1	15.5 23.0 13 1.9 3	14.8 21.2 1 6.3 14	16.5 23.4 28 7.6 6	10.4 21.9 1 -2.9 23	4.4 15.5 2 -8.8 28	0.0 13.9 20 -10.6 7	-9,3 5,1 14 -30,0 22	6.0 23.4 ANK28 -30.0 0EC22
Date of Minimum <u>10-a Dew Point Temperature</u> Mean (Degree C) Maximum (Degree C) Date of Maximum Minimum (Degree C) Date of Minimum	1 -5.2 11.3 16 -15.9 12	17 -7.5 2.5 7 -20_6 17	-0.4 16.6 10 -17.5 3	12 1.2 15.0 22 -15.5 5	1 7.0 16.3 15 -7.1 1	4 15.5 23.0 13 1.9 3	14.8 21.2 1 6.3 14	7 16.5 23.4 28 7.6 6	23 10.4 21.9 1 -2.9 23	28 4,4 15.3 2 -8.8 28	28 0.0 13.9 20 -10.6 7	-9,3 5,1 14 -30.0 22	4.9 23.4 AUG -30. 0EC

Teble 3-1. Summery of Heteorological Data Reemared at the Cooper Muclear Station for January 1, 1990 through Becauber 31, 1990 :

* 999 × Denotes Missing Data

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10/17/00

SHEET 77 M M	
JOB NO. NP-119 DATE 1/7/92	
PROJECT CNS STATION BLACKOUT	1.
SUBJECT SITE-SPECIFIC WEATHER EVALUATION	cold and
CLIENT NPPD ORIGINATOR E. HOLCOMB.	2 ppc c
REVIEWER John Mound APPROVED	
CALCULATION NO. NPP1-SB0-009	

Attachment 4

Variation of Wind Speed with Elevation

Nose:

The information in Attachment 4 use been extracted from the following document:

Simiu, Emil, Changery, Michael J. and James J. Filliben, "Extreme Wind Speeds at 129 Stations in the Contiguous U.S.", NBS Building Science Series #118, March 1979.

(1963 & 1972) Nashville, TN (1971)Abilene, TX (1972) Amarillo, TX (1963) Brownsville, TX (1955, 1961 a 1970) Corpus Christi, TX (1972) Port Arthur, TX (1968) Salt Lake City, UT (1968)Burlington, VT (1962 & 1967) Lynchburg, VA

2.3 ROUGHNESS CONDITIONS AT AIRPORT STATIONS

In an attempt to ensure that the terrain roughness conditions are uniform among all the sets of data being analyzed, only airport stations have been considered herein. In principle, it may be assumed that at such stations open exposure conditions prevail. Nevertheless the mere fact that wind speed measurements are taken at an airport station does not necessarily ensure that the wind climatological conditions reflected by these measurements are identical, from the standpoint of the terrain exposure, to those prevailing at a different airport. For example, it is noted in Reference 2 that the estimated 50-year wind at Chicago Midway Airport is about 15 mph less than at the Chicago O'Hare airport. The probable reason for this difference is that the terrain around the Chicago indway Airport is relatively heavily built-up. Similar considerations might explain to some extent the difference between the estimated 50-year winds at the Washington National Airport and the Baltimore-Washington International Airport, which are estimated in this report to be 66 mph and 75 mph respectively. Thus, in interpreting airport data for the purpose of developing wind maps, it is appropriate to take into account the possibility that, at the airport of concern, the terrain exposure conditions might differ somewhat from those defined as "open" (e.g., in Reference 3).

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2.4 VARIATION OF WIND SPEED WITH HEIGHT ABOVE GROUND

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To ensure the micrometeorological homogeneity of the data at any given station it is necessary to reduce all the wind speeds recorded at that station to a common elevation. The elevation chosen for this purpose is 10m above ground.

The mean wind profile near the ground in homogeneous terrain is given by the well-known logarithmic law, which may be written in the form:

$$(z) = \frac{\ln \frac{z}{z_0}}{\ln \frac{10}{z_0}} U(10)$$
(2.4.1)

where $z = \text{height above ground and } z_0 = \text{roughness length, both expressed in meters. In open terrain, <math>z_0$ may vary from, say, 0.03m to 0.10m. In this report the reduction of the data to an elevation of 10m is based on the assumption $z_0 = 0.05m$. It can be verified that the errors inherent in the assumption $z_0 = 0.05m$ — when in fact the values $z_0 = 0.03m$ or $z_0 = 0.10m$ were correct — are small (of the order 0.1% or 2%).

An approximation to Eq. 2.4.1 is given by the power law

$$U(z) = \left(\frac{z}{10}\right)^{\alpha} U(10)$$
(2.4.2)

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where, for open terrain conditions, it is generally assumed $\alpha = 1/7$ (3). It is noted that Eq. 2.4.1, and therefore its approximate equivalent given by Eq. 2.4.2, is valid for mean wind speeds averaged over a relatively long time interval, e.g., one hour. The question thus arises of expressing the variation with height of the fastest-mile wind speed, which is averaged over a relatively short time (30 to 90s or so).

To obtain an approximate expression for the fastest-mile wind profile, note that it may be assumed, approximately,

$$\frac{U_{\text{pk}} - U_{\text{fm}}}{U_{\text{pk}} - U} = \frac{1}{2}$$
(2.4.3)

where $U_{pk} = peak$ wind speed, $U_{fm} = fastest-mile speed$, and U = hourly mean speed (see, e.g., Reference 4, p. 62). The expression for U_{pk} can, in open terrain, be written as

$$U_{pk}(z) = U(z) + 3 u^{2}$$
 (2.4.4)

where u^{2} = r.m.s of longitudinal velocity fluctuations, and

$$\frac{1/2}{2} = \frac{U(10)}{\ln \frac{10}{z_0}}$$
(2.4.5)

where z is expressed in meters (see Reference 4, pp. 45 and 54).

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It can be verified by using Equations 2.4.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.4 and 2.4.5 that, within the anenometer elevation range of interest in this report, it is possible to write approximately

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$$\frac{U_{fm}(10)}{U_{em}(z)} = \frac{U(10)}{U(z)} (1 + \frac{z-10}{10} 0.02)$$

(2.4.6)

where z is expressed in meters. The errors inherent in Equation 2.4.6 are of the order of -1 to 3%, the higher errors being on the conservative side (i.e., yielding slightly higher fastest-mile values at 10m above ground than would be obtained by a more "exact" expression). Eq. 2.4.6 has been employed to obtain the corrected speeds at 10m above ground in this report.

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		SHEET	3 - 7	251	+	
JOB NO.	NP-119	DATE	1/7/93	1		
PROJECT	CNS STA	TION BL	ACKOUT			
SUBJECT_	SITE-SP	ECIFIC N	WEATHER	EVA	LUATION	n ik
CLIENT_	NPPD	ORI	GINATOR	Ε.	HOLCOMB	4
REVIEWEE	2 John B	malon	APPROVE	D		
CALCULAT	TION NO.	NPP1-SI	BO-009		-	

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Attachment 5

Summary of Probability Plot Correlation

Coefficient (PPCC) Method

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(3.1.1)

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-1«3617581 -«0481002 1«8655577 2«5792156 3«8928735 EXTREME VALUE TYPE 1 (EXPONENTIAL TYPE)

3. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

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3.1 OBJECTIVE OF STATISTICAL PROCEDURE

Probabilistic considerations, as well as available empirical evidence suggest that the asymptotic probability distributions of the largest values with unlimited upper tail are an appropriate model for the behavior of the largest yearly wind speed. There are two such distributions, known as the Type I and Type II distributions of the largest values, whose cumulative distributions functions, $F_{I}(v)$ and $F_{II}(v)$, respectively, are of the form

$$F_{I}(v) = \exp \left[-\exp \left(-\frac{v-u}{\sigma}\right)\right]; -\infty < v < \infty;$$
$$-\infty < \mu < \infty; \quad 0 < \sigma < \infty$$

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and
$$F_{II}(v) = \exp\left[-\left(\frac{v-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^{-\gamma}\right]; \mu < v < \infty;$$

- $\infty < \mu < \infty; 0 < \sigma < \infty; \gamma > 0$ (3.1.2)

in which ν , σ , and γ are location, scale, and tail length parameters, respectively. Actually, the Type I distribution may be shown to be a Type II distribution with $\gamma = \infty$ (see Reference 4, p. 422); however, it is convenient to refer to it separately.

The data were analyzed using -- with minor modifications -- a computer program listed in Reference 5. For convenience, the main features of the procedure used in the analysis of the data are summarized in this section.

The procedure consists of three distinct stages. In the first stage the value of γ (Eq. 3.1.2) is determined which yields the closest fit to the observed data set (recall that $\gamma = \infty$ corresponds to an extreme value type I distribution). The "closest fit" criterion used in this stage is the so-called maximum probability plot correlation coefficient criterion. The probability plot correlation coefficient is defined as

$$r_{D} = Corr(X,M) = \frac{r(X_{1} - \overline{X}) [M_{1}(D) - \overline{M}(D)]}{(r(X_{1} - \overline{X})^{2} r[M_{1}(D) - \overline{M}(D)]^{2})^{1/2}}$$
(3.1.3)

in which $\overline{X} = \Sigma A_1/n$; $\overline{M(D)} = \Sigma M_1(D)/n$; n=sample size; and D = probability distribution tested. The quantities X_1 are obtained by a rearrangement of the data set: X_1 is the smallest; X_2 the second smallest; and X_1 the ith smallest of the observations in the set. The quantities $M_1(D)$ are obtained as follows. Given a random variable X with probability distribution D and given an integer sample size n, it is possible from probabilistic considerations to derive mathematically the distributions of the smallest, second smallest, and generally the ith smallest values of X in a sample of size n. There are various quantities that can be utilized to measure the location of the distribution of the ith smallest value X_1 (e.g., the mean, the median, or the mode). It is convenient to use the median as a measure of location in Eq. 3.1.3 — these medians of the distribution of the ith smallest value being denoted by $M_1(D)$.

If the data set was generated by the distribution D, then aside from a location and scale factor, X_i will be approximately equal to $M_i(D)$ for all i, and so the plot of X_i versus $M_i(D)$ [referred to as probability plot] will be approximately linear. This linearity will, in turn, result in a near unity value ir τ_D . Thus, the better the fit of the distribution, D, to the data, the closer r_D will be to unity.

The procedure just described makes use of 46 extreme value Type II distributions defined by various values of γ from 1-25 in steps of 1, from 25-50 in steps of 5, from 50-100 in steps of 10, from 100-500 in steps of 50, from 500-1,000 in steps of 250, and $\gamma = \infty$. For any given data set, 46 probability plot correlation coefficients are computed corresponding to these distributions, and the distribution with the maximum probability plot correlation coefficient is chosen as the one which best fits the data (see, for example, computer output for Dallas, Texas, Section 4). The final result from this first stage is a value, γ_{opt} , of γ corresponding to the estimated best fitting distribution.

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(3.1.5)

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The second stage in the procedure consists of estimating the location and scale parameters, μ and σ , respectively, in Eqs. 3.1.1 and 3.1.2 for the observed data set and for the determined optimal value, γ_{opt} , as determined in stage 1. Estimates of the location and scale follow directly from the basic probability plot approach. If a least-squares line is fit to the probability plot corresponding to γ_{opt} ; then the computed intercept and slope of the fitted line serve as estimates for the unknown location and scale parameters, μ and σ . In terms of the X₁ and M₁(D), these estimated location and scale values, $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$, are as follows:

$$\hat{\sigma} = \frac{\Sigma(X_1 - \overline{X})[M_1(D) - \overline{M(D)}]}{\Sigma[M_1(D) - M(D)]^2}$$
(3.1.4)

 $\hat{u} = \overline{X} - \hat{\sigma} \overline{M(D)}$

The third and final stage in the procedure determines the predicted wind speed $v_{\rm N},$ for various intervals N of interest. The estimate for $v_{\rm N}$ is

$$v_{N} = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\sigma}G_{X_{\gamma}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right)$$
(3.1.6)

in which γ_{opt} = the optimal value of γ (as determined in stage 1); $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ are the estimates of the location and scale parameters, μ and σ in Eqs. 3.1.1 and 3.1.2 (as determined in stage 2); and $G_{X}\gamma_{opt}$ (p) = the percentage point function of the best fitting extreme value distribution. If $\gamma_{opt} \neq \infty$ (i.e., if a member of the extreme value type II family provides the best fit), then

$$G_{X_{\gamma opt}}(p) = (-\ln p)^{-1/\gamma}$$
 (3.1.7)

If $\gamma_{opt} = \infty$ (i.e., if the extreme value type 1 distribution provides the best fit), then

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 $G_{X_{\text{YOPL}}}(p) = -\ln(-\ln p)$ (3.1.8)

In effect, the procedure described in this section is an automated equivalent of probability paper plotting in which 46 types of probability paper, corresponding to 46 extreme value distributions, would be used and in which fitting would be carried out on the basis of the least-squares method, rather than by eye.

3.2 PROBABILITY PLOTS

A majority of the Type I probability plots generated by the computer from the data taken at the 129 stations fit a straight line reasonably well (see, e.g., plot included in computer output for Ely, Nevada, Section 4). However, in a number of cases the fit was relatively poor. A discussion of various reasons leading to a poor fit is presented in Section 3.5. To provide an idea of various types of deviations from a Type I distribution, probability plots were included in Section 4 for the following stations: Indianapolis, Indiana; Des Moines, Iowa; Topeka, Kansas; Wichita, Kansas; Boston, Massachusetts; Nantucket, Massachusetts; Detroit, Michigan; Grand Rapids, Michigan; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Missoula, Montana; Omaha, Nebraska; Valentine, Nebraska; Ely, Nevada; Albuquerque, New Mexico; Albany, New York; Abilene, Texas; and North Head, Washington.

3.3 ESTIMATION OF SAMPLING ERRORS

As indicated in Section 1, the computer output of Section 7 includes estimates of the standard deviation of the sampling errors, i.e., errors that are a consequence of the limited size of the data sample from which the Type I distribution parameters are estimated. Two such estimates were used. One estimate is based on the method of moments and has the following expression given by Gumbel in Reference 6 (pp. 10,174 and 228):

$$SD(\hat{v}_N) = \left[\frac{\pi^2}{6} + \frac{1.1396(y-0.5772)}{\sqrt{6}} + 1.1(y-0.5772)^2\right]^{1/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}$$
 (3.3.1)

in which $SD(\hat{v}_N)$ = the (estimated) standard deviation the sampling error in the estimation of the N-year wind

$$y = -\ln \left[-\ln \left(1 - \frac{1}{N} \right) \right]$$
 (3.3.2)

 $\hat{\sigma}$ = the estimated value of the scale parameter; and n = the sample size.

A lower bound for the estimated sampling error is given by the following expression:

$$\frac{\text{SD}(\hat{v}_{\text{R}})}{\text{CR}N} = (0.60793y^2 + 0.514y + 1.10866)^{1/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}$$
(3.3.3)

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where the notations are the same as in Equation 3.3.1. Equation 3.3.3 is commonly referred to as the Cramer-Rao lower bound (7).

3.4 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The results of the analysis are summarized in Table 3.4.1, in which the following notations are used:

- n = sample size \overline{X} = sample mean s = sample standard deviation
- v_{max} = sample maximum
- γ_{opt} = value of optimal tail length parameter (see section 3.1)

 \hat{v}_n = estimated extreme wind corresponding to a n-year return period, based on Type I distribution

ppcc = probability plot correlation coefficient (see Section 3.1)
 for Type I distribution

- \hat{v}_{so} = estimated 50-year wind speed
- $SD(\hat{v}_{50})$ = estimated standard deviation of sampling error for 50-year wind speed.

3.5 TYPE I VERSUS TYPE II DISTRIBUTION

Of the 129 stations listed in Table 3.4.1, 15 stations [marked with the superscript (c) in Table 3.4.1 and listed in Appendix 1] have been noted to have largest yearly speed records that may not provide a reliable basis for predicting extreme winds. The remaining 114 stations may be divided into three categories characterized by the value of the optimal tail length parameter γ_{opt} , as shown in Table 3.5.1.

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Table 3.5.1 Classification of Stations According to Value of Yopt

Category	Range of	opt	Number of Stations	Percentage
I	$13 \leq \gamma_0$	< m pt < 10	89	78%
11		pt 13	11	10%
III	2 - 7	pt 7	14	12%

The sample size for the stations of Table 3.5.1 varies between n=10 and n=45.

It is noted that the percentages of Table 3.5.1 are in qualitative agreement with those found from the analysis reported in Reference 8, in which all sample sizes were n = 37. This tends to confirm the hypothesis advanced in Reference 8 to the effect that, for stations in well-behaved wind climates, the best fit of a Type II (rather than Type I) distribution to a set of extreme wind data might be attributed to a sampling error in the estimation of the tail length parameter. This hypothesis does not exclude the possibility that stations exist for which a Type II distribution might provide an appropriate description of the wind climate; however, according to the results of both Reference 8 and Table 3.5.1, the number of such stations, if they exist, is very likely to be small. Thus, it appears justified to assume, as in Reference 8, that the Type I distribution of the largest values provides in general a better description of the wind climate than Type II distributions with small values of the tail length parameter (say, $2 \leq \gamma \leq 12$).

3.6 LARGEST WIND SPEED IN A SAMPLE OF SIZE N AND THE N-YEAR WIND

It is shown in Reference 9 (see also Reference 4, p. 423) that, if a variate X has a Type I distribution, the mode of the largest value in a sample of n values of X is very nearly equal to the value of the variate corresponding to the mean return period n (recall that the mode of a variate X is the value of that variable most likely to occur in any given trial). It can be seen from Table .5.1 that, for most set: for which \tilde{Y}_{n} is large, the ratio v_{max}/\hat{v}_n is indeed close to unity.

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Attachment 6

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NSSFC Program 'TORPLOT' Output for CNS

NATIONAL SEVERE STORMS FORECAST CENTER TORNADO DATA

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The enclosed tornado listing provides information on all reported tornadoes in the area indicated since 1950. The various entries, and tables are explained below. If you have additional questions, please write or call the National Severe Storms Forecast Center, Room 1728, 601 E. 12th St., Kansas City, MO. 64106, phone (816) 426-3367.

The item-by-item listing shows the year, month, date and time of occurrence of each tornado in Central Standard Time.

The columns labeled SEQ and SEG indicate the sequence number and segment number of each tornado. Sequence numbers are assigned chronologically within each state. The first tornado in 1973 in Ohio is given sequence number 1 for the state of Ohio that year. Many tornadoes have lengthy paths that cross county or state lines. Some change direction quickly. In such cases the tracks are broken into segments that are denoted by segment numbers. A tornado with 3 segments has the same sequence number, but a different segment number, for each separate segment. The statistics in the tables are based only on the initial touchdown points.

The Latitude and Longitude of the beginning and ending points of each tornado are shown followed by the overall length and width. Deaths and injuries for each segment are listed, followed by Damage Class. Damage Class numbers range from 1 to 9 and provide an estimate of the damage according to the table (#1) below.

The columns labeled FPP provide the Fujita-Pearson scale estimates of Force, Path Length and Path Width. All three scales are logarithmic with values ranging from "-" for the smallest category to +5 for the largest.

The following table (#2) shows the range in each scale. The Path Length and the Path Width values represent estimates as to the actual amount of ground contact for each tornado. For instance, if a tornado had an overall length of 45 miles but made actual ground contact only 60 percent of the time the Path Length scale value would be a 3.

The AZRAN column indicates the azimuth and range from the center point. 129/83 indicates the tornado touchdown was 129 degrees (southeast) at 83 nautical miles from the center point.

A circular plot of tornado touchdown points is enclosed. The city of interest is at the center of the plot, north is at the top, east at the right, etc. Each digit represents the number of touchdowns in a small square area, about 2 miles on a side. Thus, what might be plotted as 21 actually represents 2 touchdowns in one square and 1 touchdown in the adjacent square.

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The four frequency tables provide detailed information about the time of day, time of year and length and width characteristics of tornadoes in the area of interest.

The Path Width vs Path Length table is computed from the P1 and Pw data. Also, the mean path length and mean path areas are computed from the P1 and Pw data. When the length and width scale values are converted back to length and width figures the minimum values in each range are used. For example, a P1 value of 3 is converted to a length of 10 miles in the calculation.

The monthly and hourly distribution tables indicate the favored times of day and year for tornadoes in each area. Monthly and hourly percentages are shown on the hourly distribution table. Mean times are shown for each month and for the entire year. These times should be interpreted and used in conjunction with the hourly percentages in examining the diurnal trend of tornadoes. All times in these tables are Central Standard Time.

The latitude and longitude of the center point used by the search program is listed at the upper right of the Hourly Distribution Table. These figures are in degrees and hundredths. The map scale used in the circular plot is compatible with the WSR 57 radar map, 125 nautical mile range.

Table #1 (Damage Class)

1 Less than \$50 2 \$50 to \$500 3 \$500 to \$5,000 4 \$5,000 to \$50,000 5 \$50,000 to \$500,000 6 \$500,000 to \$5 million 7 \$5 Million to \$50 Million 8 \$50 Million to \$500 Million

Table #2 (FPP Scale)

Scale -	F (mph) Less than 40	Damage (little or no damage)	Pl (miles) Less than .3	Pw (width) Less than 6
0 1 2 3 4 5	40-72	Light	0.3-10	6-17 yds
	73-112	Moderate	1.0-3.1	18-55 yds
	113-157	Considerable	3.2-9.9	56-175 yds
	158-206	Severe	10-31	176-556 yds
	207-260	Devastating	32-99	0.3-0.9 mi
	261-318	Incredible	100-315	1.0-3.1 mi

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Mational Sovers Stores Forecast Center Kanses City MO CitOS

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6-31 NPP1-584-009

National Savere Storms Foracast Cantar

Kansas City MO 64306

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5-172 10 819.8 1.0 swerage F-scale is 1.20 which corresponds to 81. mph. average PL-scale is 1.17885; The average PL type path length is 5.290; True average length is everage PL state is 1.354665 The average PL type path width is 0.015 average pres results 1.354665 The average PL type path width is 0.015 everage pres results average PL & PL computed by 10.4*6(.5e(p)PPH) 1.1 a 0.015 average area cosing average PL & PL computed by 10.4*6(.5e(p)PPH) 1.1 a 0.015 average length times the average width is 0.015 average length times the average in 0.05 average length times the average is 0.012.05 based on 0.05 average average average average is 0.012.05 based on 0.05 average average average average is 0.012.05 based on 0.05 average average average average is 0.012.05 based on 0.05 based on 0. 175 158 58 24 24 95.631 tongitude 2.00 3802.57 3802.57 3858.15 4743.05 6629.97 29029.31 #RGWWSVILLE, 25.02 37.64 5-6 34.65 3.16 3.60 27." 13.02 3.00 .22 ****** 1 = 1 = 1 = 1 = 1 10 7.78 .10 00-02 1-27 5.74 24.90 3-5 -27 29.15 103 RN. 6 125. 20 Return Return Return Return Return Return . 20 3.76 C#14144 5.13 .94 76.00 16.20 60.45 1-1 *11114 12 4.0.4 2800er キレカワから 2-2 2-25 .36 262.00 .10 . 39 .03 7.04 211.03 10 2630E-03 2630E-03 2592E-03 2557E-03 1464E-03 3445E-04 #22541 ***しいまい .01 + 22 2.80 .04 80. .08 371.00 509.30 ** 125. robability = #ph prob = #ph prob = #ph prob = 1100 × 10. 246.90 1.14 0--1.4.4 10. - 02 104 195-00 *1111 10 4 local area 5.16 * .087 * .858 ä. n winds waceeding n winds waceeding n winds waceeding n winds exceeding n winds exceeding n winds exceeding . . . The following is for True everage langth a True everage width a True everage area for 3100#1 ちきした うきになたた * #131h * キニンモ langth 20 0.0 width 3 101 beseq **b*****d 18 810 NISC Dath 1 3 r. 1. Bu | #0 おびのしまう日 中行れしをうせ Auer 824 たびれしき ほわねしききは とひたしまうき 日辺に しき ス 出 なびた しきスリ ----501 501 501 701 a F F

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6-35 NPPI- 586-009 EX ,19 Tornedo plote elthin 125. NM of BROWNSVILLE. NE Total sey differ froe peth length 5 peth eldth setrix becode not ell evente have PL & PM scale recorded 40.35 95.63 -111 sei. * .