Welcome to the appendix of "Forcing of abrupt transitions of the last 300,000 yrs" 😳

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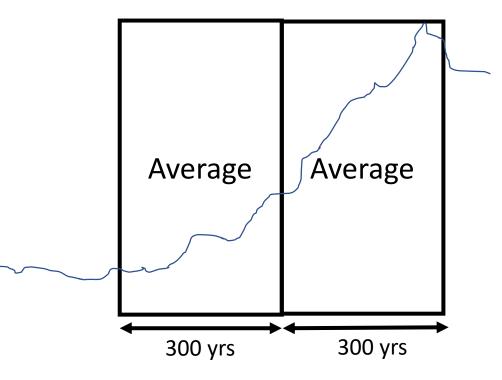


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In order to identify abrupt transitions in the stalagmite records, we linearly interpolate the data to obtain a regular time scale (equidistant time steps).

We then run a two neighbouring 300-year windows over the data (sketch on the right).

For each time step, we compute the difference in mean values of the isotope data in each window. When the difference is above/below a certain threshold (one standard deviation (1 σ) of the whole record of difference in neighbouring windows δ^{18} O) we mark the first time step crossing the threshold as corresponding to an abrupt transition.

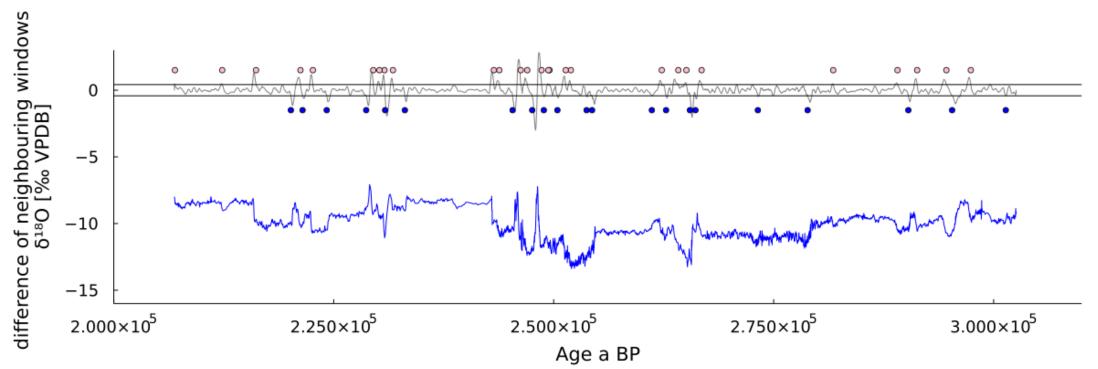


Methods – Event detection

In the example plot below we show that procedure for one of the Swiss stalagmite composite records (Marine Isotope Stage 8). A higher isotope value in the first 300-yr window than in the subsequent 300-yr window (positive difference in means), marks transitions leading to warmer climate conditions (interstadials, pink dots in example plot below) and vice versa for transitions leading to colder climate conditions (blue dots in example plot below).

In Chinese stalagmites, the a lower δ^{18} O corresponds to interstadials/transitions leading to warmer conditions (and higher δ^{18} O to stadials), thus negative differences in means between the running windows here correspond to interstadial transitions (thus, would be pink dots).

Hit me up if you wanna know about what we think the Swiss stalagmite δ^{18} O is a proxy for!



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Thus, a **ZIP** regression model consists of three parts:

1) Logistic regression

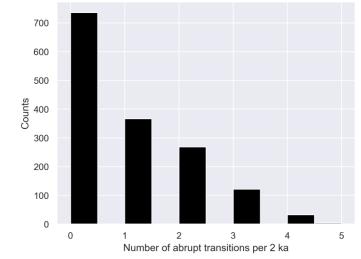
2) Poisson regression

1. A PMF $P(y_i=0)$ which is used to calculate the probability of observing a zero count.

2. A second PMF $P(y_i=k)$ which is used to calculate the probability of observing k events, given that k > 0.

3. A link function that is used to express the mean rate λ as a function of the regression variables **X**.

Probability Mass Function of the Zero-Inflated Poisson regression model When $y_i = 0$: $P(y_i = 0) = \phi_i + (1 - \phi_i) * e^{-\lambda_i}$ ϕ_i = proportion of zeros for the ith row in the data set When *y*^{*i*} = 1,2,3,...: $P(y_i = k) = (1 - \phi_i) \frac{e^{-\lambda_i} * \lambda_i^k}{k}$ x_i =Regression variables in the ith row Where $\lambda_i = e^{x_i \beta}$ β =Vector of regression coefficients



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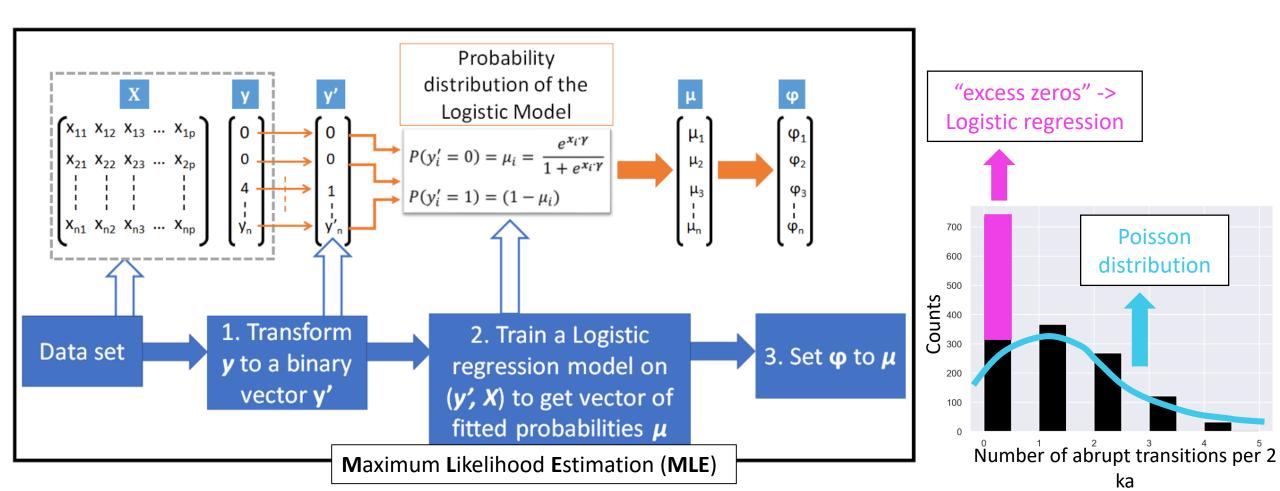
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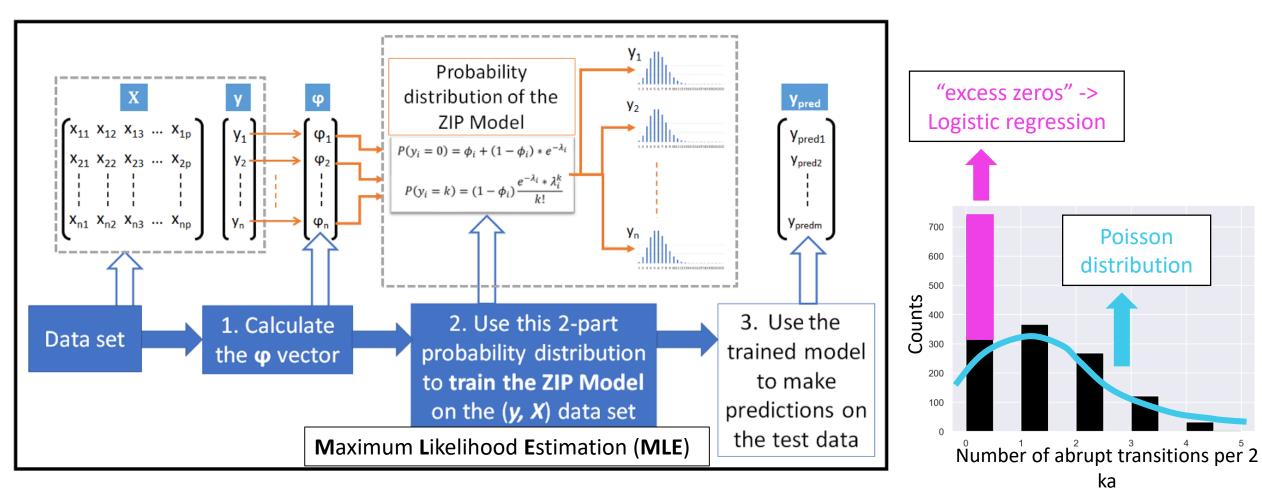
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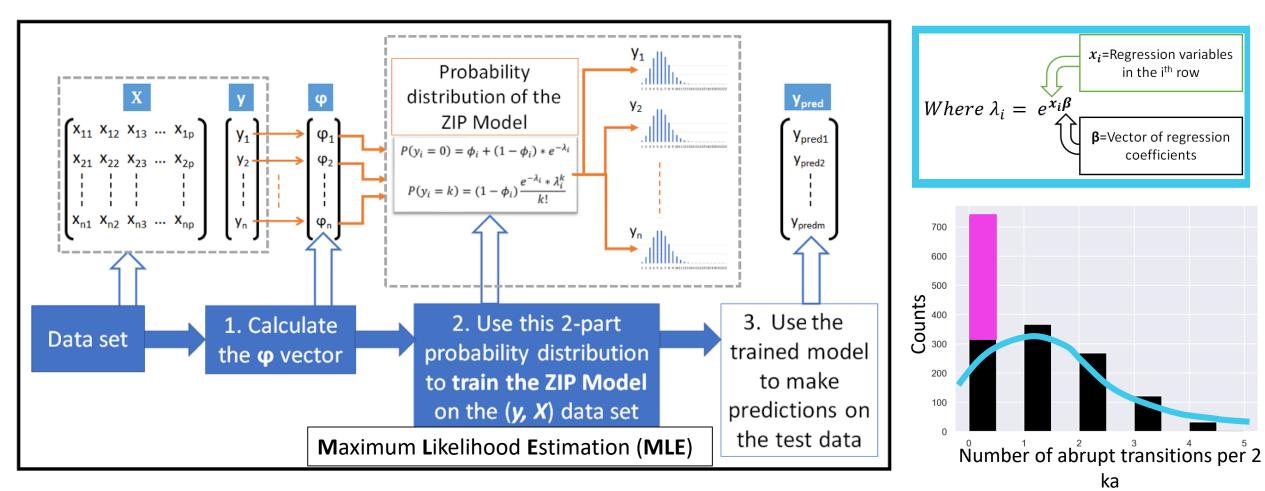
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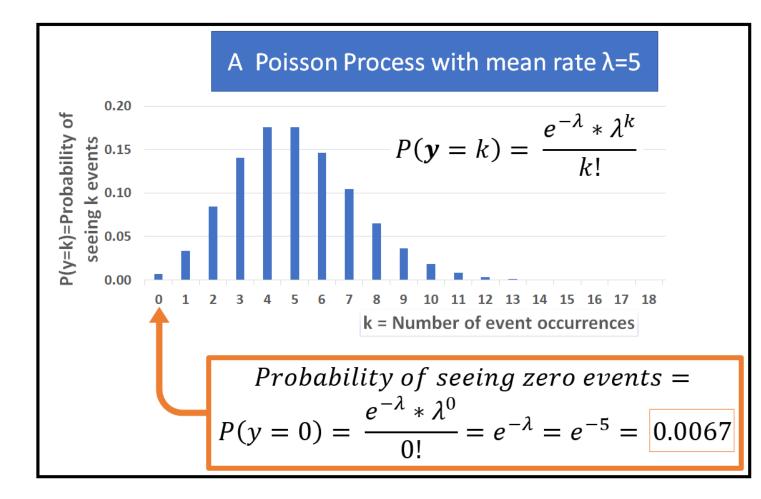
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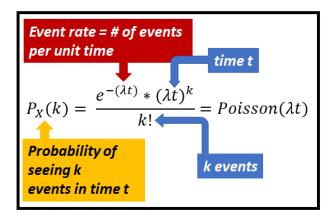
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Brushing up on Poisson regression



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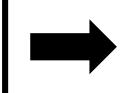


Probability of seeing **k** events in time **t**, given λ events occurring per unit time

Methods – Training and testing procedure

Different (combinations) predictor variables

Model **training** on half of the data (predictor varibales & count data)



Use fitted model to predict counts via remaining predictor variables (**test data**)



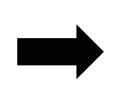
Estimate model **accuracy** using difference between predicted vs observed counts

Check for overfitting by comparing train and test accuracy

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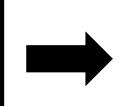
accuracy

Model **training** involves hyperparameter optimisation: we include nth degree polynomials of the input variables and test weather the model accuracy improves for both test and training data (see next slides). If increasing the polynomial degree would improve prediction accuracy for the train data but not for the test data, while the variance of the test data prediction accuracy increases, we have overfitted the model (found relationships in the train data which are not a description of the data in general).

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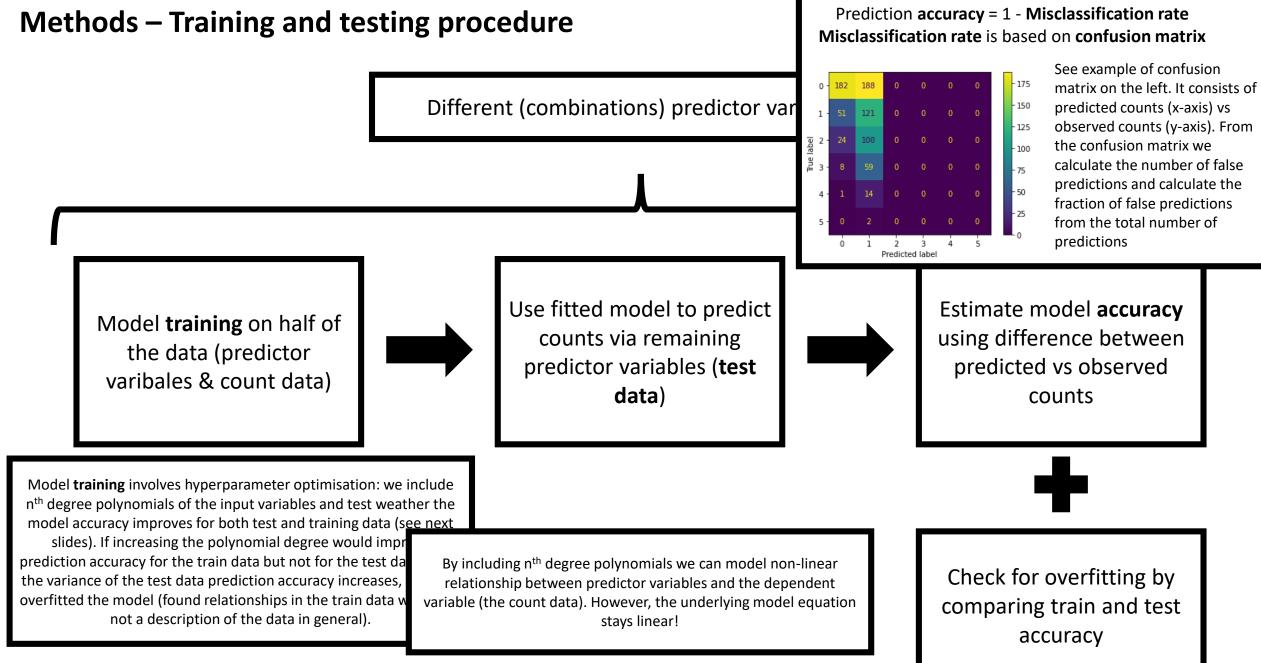
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By including nth degree polynomials we can model non-linear relationship between predictor variables and the dependent variable (the count data). However, the underlying model equation stays linear!

Check for overfitting by comparing train and test accuracy



Let's have a chat! ③

Now or: skiba@pik-potsdam.de



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