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# Capturing Extreme Events in Turbulence using an Extreme Variational Autoencoder

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## Abstract

1 Turbulent flows are characterized by intense generation of turbulent kinetic energy  
2 through nonlinear physical processes which cascade from the large- to small-scale  
3 structures in a forward energy cascade, which is chaotic in nature, and statisti-  
4 cally intermittent. Using a recently developed extreme variational autoencoder  
5 (XVAE), the turbulent flow fields are replicated to a high order of accuracy. In  
6 this extended abstract, we demonstrate XVAE as a powerful alternative to the  
7 classical Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD) technique for reconstructing  
8 large-eddy-simulation (LES) data for scalar temperatures from a buoyant turbu-  
9 lent field at a high Reynolds number of  $10^{10}$ .

10 *Keywords:* Turbulence, Spatial extremes, POD, Variational autoencoder

## 11 1 Introduction

12 Simulating turbulent flows numerically becomes computationally prohibitive as the Reynolds num-  
13 ber increases. Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD) has been the most successful statistical  
14 method, extracting dominant energetic structures from turbulent flow fields as eigenfunctions of the  
15 two-point correlation tensor [Berkooz et al., 1993]. However, POD neglects the intermittency and  
16 also extreme turbulence events in the flow. This limitation leads to inaccuracies and information loss  
17 in the emulation process.

18 Variational autoencoders [VAEs; Kingma and Welling, 2013] offer an alternative, encoding data  
19 inputs as latent variables for generating new output realizations. However, traditional VAEs use  
20 Gaussian distributions and do not naturally account for extremes. We introduce a novel framework  
21 that incorporates dependent extremes within a VAE engine, allowing for flexible modeling of ex-  
22 tremal dependence and efficient uncertainty quantification (UQ). Specifically, we develop a flexible  
23 max-infinitely divisible (max-id) process embedded in the VAE’s structure (XVAE), enabling a ro-  
24 bust emulation of complex turbulent flow systems [Zhang et al., 2023].

25 In this study, we apply both POD and XVAE to emulate turbulence flow from a high-resolution  
26 large-eddy simulation (LES) at the  $x$ - $z$  plane of a fixed  $y$  level. We also extend the XVAE to allow  
27 for the emulation of 3D indexed data so we can model and emulate the evolution of turbulent plumes  
28 in all three different directions. We evaluate the methods based on their ability to emulate full data  
29 and joint tail behavior, with XVAE showing particular strength in UQ for extreme events.

## 30 2 Large-Eddy-Simulation of a Turbulent Plume

31 A modified version of the Advanced Research Weather Research and Forecast Model (WRF-ARW  
32 v4.1) [hereafter WRF; Skamarock et al., 2008] was used to simulate a turbulent buoyant plume

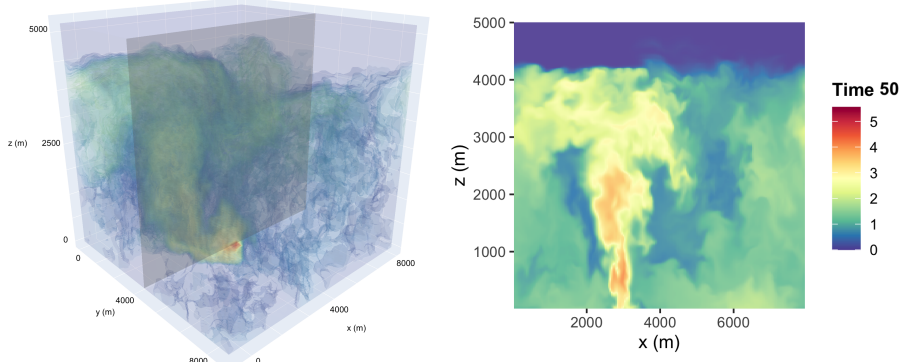


Figure 1: The left panel shows the log scale of marginally-transformed LES simulation of the Mosquito wildland fire at the 50th time; see Equation (1). The right panel shows the centerline data in the  $x$ - $z$  plane at  $y = 4$  km. See Figure 2 for the corresponding emulation results.

33 via LES with active scalar transport equations, validated for buoyant plumes [Bhaganagar and  
 34 Bhimireddy, 2020, Bhimireddy and Bhaganagar, 2021].

35 The simulation involved a heated, axisymmetric source with diameter  $D$  in a quiescent environment.  
 36 The LES model solves the compressible Euler equations in flux formulation, conserving mass, mo-  
 37 mentum, and energy; see Bhaganagar and Bhimireddy [2020] for details of the LES methodology  
 38 and the validation. In this study, the LES coupled with WRF is used to simulate the Mosquito wild-  
 39 land fire (California, September 2022) using realistic boundary conditions from NOAA’s HRRR  
 40 model. The plume is released from a 400m diameter circular source at  $(39.006^\circ \text{ N}, 120.745^\circ \text{ W})$ .  
 41 The background atmospheric velocity profile, temperature profile and surface heat flux, were ob-  
 42 tained from the WRF-LES simulations initiated at 11am on September 09.

43 The LES domain measured  $8 \text{ km} \times 8 \text{ km} \times 5 \text{ km}$  with a uniform Cartesian grid ( $198 \times 198 \times 500$   
 44 nodes). Periodic boundary conditions were set on the sides, and constant-pressure at the top. At the  
 45 center of the bottom boundary, the plume source had a prescribed buoyancy flux of  $1.0710^4 m^4 s^{-3}$ ,  
 46 with no initial momentum, driven purely by buoyancy. Simulations ran for 50 minutes with data  
 47 recorded every 30 seconds (i.e., 100 times in total). Planar data were extracted from the  $x$ - $z$  plane  
 48 at  $y = 99$  grid location (i.e., 4 km), the centerline of the plume.

### 49 3 VAE with spatial extremes

50 The turbulent buoyant plume exhibits high spatial irregularity, temporal volatility, and significant  
 51 spatial clustering of extremes with anisotropy. Accurate spatio-temporal modeling is challenging  
 52 due to its high-resolution grid. Therefore, we need to carefully model the tail of the joint distribu-  
 53 tion while ensuring computational efficiency. Zhang et al. [2023] extended the max-id process,  
 54 and developed a model to allow for both short-range asymptotic dependence along with mid-range  
 55 asymptotic independence, and long-range exact independence. They were able to emulate the ex-  
 56 treme values in Red Sea sea surface temperature in very high dimensions for the first time.

57 Denote the observed turbulent plume at  $t$  by  $\{u_t(\mathbf{s}) : \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}$ , in which  $\mathcal{S}$  may either be the 3D  
 58 domain of  $8 \text{ km} \times 8 \text{ km} \times 5 \text{ km}$  or the 2D centerline; see Figure 1. In our study, we marginally  
 59 transform the data so the input data conform to the max-id model assumptions

$$X_t(\mathbf{s}) = 1 - u_t(\mathbf{s}) \times 10^5. \quad (1)$$

60 Then  $\{X_t(\mathbf{s}) : \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}, t = 1, \dots, 100\}$  are modeled as follows:

$$X_t(\mathbf{s}) = \epsilon_t(\mathbf{s})Y_t(\mathbf{s}), \quad \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}, \quad (2)$$

61 where  $\epsilon_t(\mathbf{s})$  is a noise process with independent Fréchet( $\mu, \tau, 1/\alpha_0$ ) marginal distributions, where  
 62  $x > 0, \tau > 0$  and  $\alpha_0 > 0$ . Then,  $Y_t(\mathbf{s})$  is constructed using a low-rank representation:

$$Y_t(\mathbf{s}) = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^K \omega_k(\mathbf{s})Z_{kt} \right\}^{\alpha_0}, \quad (3)$$

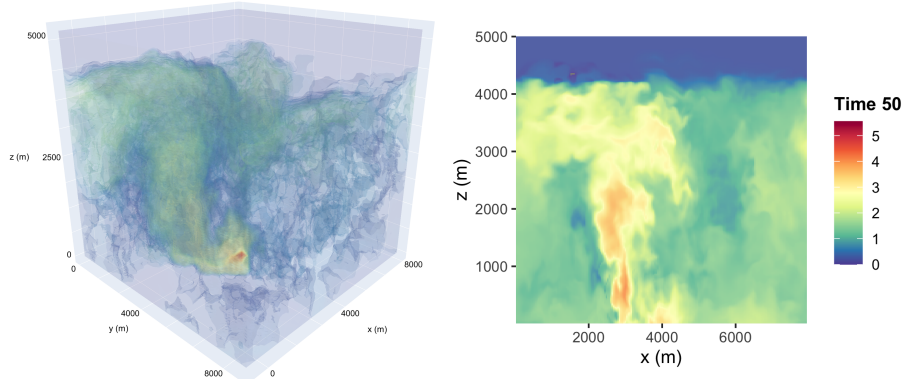


Figure 2: The left panel shows the emulation of the marginally-transformed LES simulation using the 3D XVAE and the right panel shows the emulation of cross section of  $y = 4$  km using the 2D XVAE. See Figure 1 for the original turbulent plume input.

63 where  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\{\omega_k(\mathbf{s}) : \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}, k = 1, \dots, K\}$  are a set of basis functions, and  $\{Z_{kt} : k =$   
 64  $1, \dots, K\}$  are independent exponentially-tilted positive-stable (expPS) variables, controlled by a  
 65 rate parameter  $\alpha_t \in (0, 1)$  and a tilting parameter  $\theta_{kt} \geq 0$ . See Section B.1 in Zhang et al. [2023]  
 66 for more specific forms of an  $\text{expPS}(\alpha, \theta_k)$  distribution.

67 The hierarchical construct of our model (2)–(3) allows the embedding of the latent variables  $Z_{kt}$ ,  $k =$   
 68  $1, \dots, K$  in encoded space of a VAE so we can encode and decode the turbulent plume fields  
 69 while minimizing reconstruction error. The encoder and decoder are multilayer perceptron (MLP)  
 70 neural networks that optimize parameters to retain maximum information and replicate the joint tail  
 71 properties of the original field (i.e., to minimize the evidence lower bound). We refer to this VAE,  
 72 integrated with the max-id process, as XVAE.

73 Once the XVAE is trained and its weights and biases are optimized, posterior simulation of new  
 74 latent variables  $\mathbf{Z}_t$  for the observations  $\mathbf{X}_t$  at time  $t$  can be performed efficiently. Synthetic data  $\mathbf{X}_t^*$   
 75 can then be generated rapidly by passing these latent variables through the decoder and sampling  
 76 from the model specified by (2)–(3). To transform  $\mathbf{X}_t^*$  back to the original scale of the turbulence  
 77 plume, we apply an inverse marginal transformation:  $\mathbf{u}_t^* = (1 - \mathbf{X}_t^*)/10^5$ , yielding the final emu-  
 78 lated output. Refer to Zhang et al. [2023] for an explicit architecture of the XVAE.

## 79 4 Results

80 For both the 2D and 3D emulation tasks, we pre-specify a dense grid of  $K$  knots  $\{\mathbf{s}_1^0, \dots, \mathbf{s}_K^0\}$   
 81 in the domain  $\mathcal{S} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  or  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The  $k$ th basis function is the Gaussian radial basis function, i.e.,  
 82  $\omega_k(\mathbf{s}) \propto \exp\{-\|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_k^0\|^2/c\}$  for  $\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, K$ . We follow Algorithm 1 in Zhang et al.  
 83 [2023] to choose the best number of knots  $K$  and shape parameter  $c$ ,

84 Figure 2 displays emulation results at time 50 using the XVAE for both 2D and 3D LES. Generally,  
 85 XVAE closely replicate the spatial patterns of turbulence across all times. More importantly, multi-  
 86 ple model evaluation metrics, such as the tail RMSE and the spatially-pooled QQ-plot, show good  
 87 performance in fitting and emulating both the full range of data and the joint tail behavior.

88 In addition, we conduct a comparative study in the 2D case to evaluate the emulation performance  
 89 of XVAE against POD, commonly used to capture dominant structures in 2D turbulent flows. We  
 90 compute an extremal dependence measure from spatial extremes literature:

$$\chi_{ij}(p) = \Pr\{F_j(u_j) > p \mid F_i(u_i) > p\} = \frac{\Pr\{F_j(u_j) > p, F_i(u_i) > p\}}{\Pr\{F_i(u_i) > p\}} \in [0, 1], \quad (4)$$

91 in which  $p \in (0, 1)$  and  $F_i$  and  $F_j$  are the marginal distribution functions for  $u_i$  and  $u_j$ , respectively.  
 92 Assuming stationarity and isotropy, we simplify  $\chi_{ij}(u)$  to  $\chi_d(u)$ , with  $d = \|\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_j\|$  denoting the  
 93 distance. The metric  $\chi_d(p)$  is then empirically estimated for each data set (observed or emulated).

94 Figure 3 compares empirical measure  $\hat{\chi}_d(p)$  for  $p \in (0.9, 0.9999)$  at  $d = 4.24$  and  $d = 8.49$  for  
 95 the observed turbulent buoyant plume and the emulations from POD (50 modes) and XVAE. The

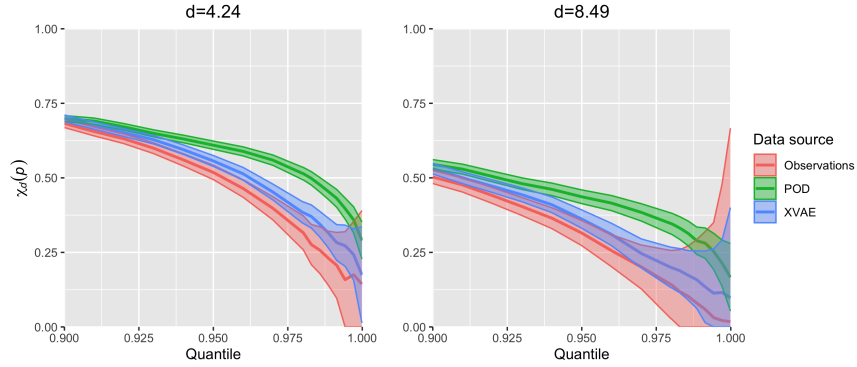


Figure 3: The empirically-estimated  $\chi_d(p)$  at  $d = 4.24$  (left) and  $d = 8.49$  (right) based on plume observations (red), POD reconstructed data using 50 modes (green) and XVAE emulated data (blue).

96 XVAE aligns closely with observed data at both distances, while POD tends to overestimate extremal  
 97 dependence at sub-asymptotic levels ( $p \in (0.93, 0.99)$ ), likely due to oversmoothing.

98 To investigate how the marginal distributions at different locations evolve over time, we generate  
 99 1,000 emulated samples of  $\{\mathbf{X}_t : t = 1, \dots, n_t\}$  using XVAE. For each location and time point, we  
 100 thus obtain 1,000 replicates to assess variational Bayes-based marginal uncertainty. Figure 4 shows  
 101 the marginal distributions of  $\log(X_{it})$  for  $i = 500, 3861, 17323, 80017, 83014$  at  $t = 1$  and 100.  
 102 The plots reveal how the density shapes change over time at each location, offering sensible UQ for  
 103 understanding the range and likelihood of turbulence intensity at specific locations and times.

## 104 5 Conclusion

105 The proposed XVAE method improves the emulation of turbulent buoyant plumes, especially in  
 106 capturing joint extremal behavior. This approach has significant potential for enhancing predictive  
 107 models of extreme events. Moreover, the XVAE allows for parameter estimation and UQ within a  
 108 variational Bayesian framework. This helps in assessing how sensitive the LES is to changes in input  
 109 parameters and in evaluating the probability of extreme clusters, such as those involving the transport  
 110 of hazardous or contaminant gases in the atmosphere, essential for improved risk management and  
 more robust decision-making.

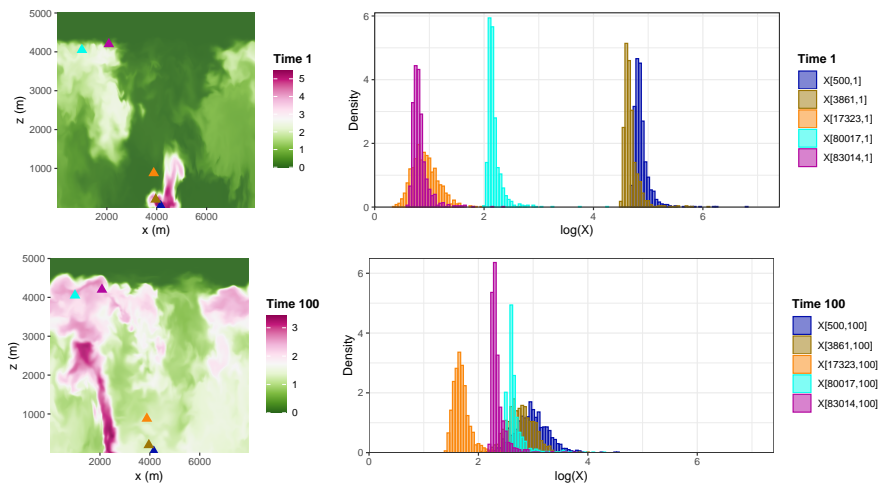


Figure 4: The left panels show the log scale of  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and  $\mathbf{X}_{100}$ . The right panels show the histograms based on 1,000 samples from the emulation. We present density histograms individually for 5 specific sites (marked in the left panels) at the two times.

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