## Introduction to data assimilation



Peyresq, 25<sup>th</sup> – 26<sup>th</sup> of April 2015

Peyresq Summer School 2015

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## Data assimilation Principle

• Forecast is produced by integration of a model from an initial state



• Data Assimilation combines in a consistent manner all the available information (model, observations, a priori knowledge) in order to retrieve the 'optimal' initial state.

Numerous possible aims:

- Forecast: estimation of the present state (initial condition)
- Model tuning: parameter estimation
- Inverse modeling: estimation of some input fields
- Data analysis: re-analysis (model = interpolation operator)
- OSSE: optimization of observing systems

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Its application to Earth sciences generally raises a number of difficulties, some of them being rather specific:

- non linearities
- huge dimensions
- poor knowledge of error statistics
- non reproducibility (each experiment is unique)
- operational forecast (computations must be performed in a limited time)

- introduce data assimilation from several points of view
- give an overview of the main methods
- detail the basic ones and highlight their pros and cons
- introduce some current research problems









## Outline



Generalisation: variational approach



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## Model problem: least squares approach

Two different available measurements of a single quantity. Which estimation for its true value ?  $\longrightarrow$  least squares approach

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Two different available measurements of a single quantity. Which estimation for its true value ?  $\longrightarrow$  least squares approach

**Example** 2 obs  $y_1 = 19^{\circ}$ C and  $y_2 = 21^{\circ}$ C of the (unknown) present temperature x.

• Let 
$$J(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ (x - y_1)^2 + (x - y_2)^2 \right]$$

• Min<sub>x</sub> 
$$J(x) \longrightarrow \hat{x} = \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2} = 20^{\circ}$$
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#### A simple example

## Model problem: least squares approach

**Observation operator** If  $\neq$  units:  $y_1 = 66.2^{\circ}$ F and  $y_2 = 69.8^{\circ}$ F

• Let 
$$H(x) = \frac{1}{5}x + 32$$
  
• Let  $J(x) = \frac{1}{2} [(H(x) - y_1)^2 + (H(x) - y_2)^2]$   
• Min<sub>x</sub>  $J(x) \longrightarrow \hat{x} = 20^{\circ}$ C

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**Drawback # 1:** if observation units are inhomogeneous  $y_1 = 66.2^\circ F$  and  $y_2 = 21^\circ C$ •  $J(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ (H(x) - y_1)^2 + (x - y_2)^2 \right] \longrightarrow \hat{x} = 19.47^\circ C !!$ 

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**Drawback # 2:** *if observation accuracies are inhomogeneous* If  $y_1$  is twice more accurate than  $y_2$ , one should obtain  $\hat{x} = \frac{2y_1 + y_2}{3} = 19.67^{\circ} \text{C} \longrightarrow J$ should be  $J(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{x - y_1}{1/2} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{x - y_2}{1} \right)^2 \right]$ 

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Reformulation in a probabilistic framework:

- the goal is to estimate a scalar value x
- $y_i$  is a realization of a random variable  $Y_i$
- One is looking for an estimator (i.e. a r.v.)  $\hat{X}$  that is
  - linear:  $\hat{X} = \alpha_1 Y_1 + \alpha_2 Y_2$
  - unbiased:  $E(\hat{X}) = x$
  - of minimal variance:  $Var(\hat{X})$  minimum
  - → BLUE (Best Linear Unbiased Estimator)

(in order to be simple) (it seems reasonable) (optimal accuracy)

Let  $Y_i = x + \varepsilon_i$  with

Hypotheses	
• $E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$ $(i = 1, 2)$	unbiased measurement devices
• $Var(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma_i^2$ $(i = 1, 2)$	known accuracies
• $Cov(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) = 0$	independent measurement errors

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Then, since  $\hat{X} = \alpha_1 Y_1 + \alpha_2 Y_2 = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)x + \alpha_1 \varepsilon_1 + \alpha_2 \varepsilon_2$ :

•  $E(\hat{X}) = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)x + \alpha_1 E(\varepsilon_1) + \alpha_2 E(\varepsilon_2) \implies \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$ 

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Then, since  $\hat{X} = \alpha_1 Y_1 + \alpha_2 Y_2 = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)x + \alpha_1 \varepsilon_1 + \alpha_2 \varepsilon_2$ :

• 
$$E(X) = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)x + \alpha_1 E(\varepsilon_1) + \alpha_2 E(\varepsilon_2) \implies \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$$
  
•  $Var(\hat{X}) = E\left[(\hat{X} - x)^2\right] = E\left[(\alpha_1\varepsilon_1 + \alpha_2\varepsilon_2)^2\right] = \alpha_1^2\sigma_1^2 + (1 - \alpha_1)^2\sigma_2^2$ 

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_1} = \mathbf{0} \Longrightarrow \alpha_1 = \frac{\sigma_2^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}$$

(variance minimum)

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#### In summary:



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#### Remarks:

• The hypothesis  $Cov(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) = 0$  is not compulsory at all.

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) = c \longrightarrow \alpha_i = \frac{\sigma_j^2 - c}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2c}$$

 Statistical hypotheses on the two first moments of ε<sub>1</sub>, ε<sub>2</sub> lead to statistical results on the two first moments of X̂.

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Variational equivalence

This is equivalent to the problem:

Minimize 
$$J(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{(x - y_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{(x - y_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2} \right]$$

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### Remarks:

- This answers the previous problems of sensitivity to inhomogeneous units and insensitivity to inhomogeneous accuracies
- This gives a rationale for choosing the norm for defining J

• 
$$\underbrace{J''(\hat{x})}_{\text{convexity}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} = \underbrace{[\mathsf{Var}(\hat{x})]^{-1}}_{\text{accuracy}}$$

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## Model problem

#### Alternative formulation: background + observation

If one considers that  $y_1$  is a prior (or *background*) estimate  $x_b$  for x, and  $y_2 = y$  is an independent observation, then:

$$J(x) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - x_b)^2}{\sigma_b^2}}_{J_b} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - y)^2}{\sigma_o^2}}_{J_o}$$

and



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## Outline





2 Generalisation: variational approach

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## Definitions and notations:

italic capitals : non linear operators (M, H, ...); bold capitals: linear operator or matrices (M, R, ...); bold small caps: vectors  $(\mathbf{x}^{b}, \mathbf{y}^{o}, ...)$ 

- Assimilation window: time window over which the data will be considered all at once
- First guess or background: prior estimation of the control vector  $(\mathbf{x}^b)$
- Analysis: estimation of the control vector after data assimilation (x<sup>a</sup>)
- Increment: correction to the control vector  $(\mathbf{x}^a \mathbf{x}^b)$
- Innovation vector: misfit to the observation  $(\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{y}^{\circ} H(\mathbf{x}))$

In this part, we sometime consider a time evolving system described by a set of non linear PDE (aka the model M)

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{x}_{t_i} = M_{t_{i-1}, t_i}(\mathbf{x}_{t_{i-1}}), & i = 1, N \\ \mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{x}^b \end{cases}$$

assuming the system state and the observation are random variable we want to maximise the probability of  $x^a$  knowing the observations. , i.e.:

$$P(X = \mathbf{x} | Y = \mathbf{y}^{\circ}) = P_{X|Y}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}^{\circ})$$

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thanks to the Bayes theorem, we know:

$$P_{X|Y}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}^{o}) = rac{P_{Y|X}(\mathbf{y}^{o}|\mathbf{x})P_{X}(\mathbf{x})}{P_{Y}(\mathbf{y}^{o})}$$

- $P_{Y|X}(\mathbf{y}^{o}|\mathbf{x})$ : likelihood function
- $P_X(\mathbf{x})$ : prior distribution
- $P_{X|Y}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}^{\circ})$ : posterior distribution

The marginal  $P_Y(\mathbf{y}^\circ)$  does not depend on the choice of  $\mathbf{x}$ , so maximising  $P_{X|Y}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}^\circ)$  is equivalent to maximising  $P_{Y|X}(\mathbf{y}^\circ|\mathbf{x})P_X(\mathbf{x})$ .

If we assume that

$$\mathbf{y}^o = H(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon$$
 and  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^b + v$ 

with

 $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \mathbf{R})$  and  $\nu \sim N(0, \mathbf{B})$ ,  $\varepsilon$  and  $\nu$  uncorrelated

therefore

 $\mathbf{y}^o | \mathbf{x} \sim N(H(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{R})$  and  $\mathbf{x} \sim N(\mathbf{x}^b, \mathbf{B})$ 

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then

$$P_{Y|X}(\mathbf{y}^{\circ}|\mathbf{x}) = (2\pi^{m}|R|)^{1/2} exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}^{\circ} - H(\mathbf{x}))^{T}\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}^{\circ} - H(\mathbf{x}))\right]$$

and

$$P_X(\mathbf{x}) = (2\pi^n |B|)^{1/2} exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^b)\right]$$

finally

$$P_{X|Y}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}^{o}) \propto exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}^{o} - H(\mathbf{x}))^{T}\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}^{o} - H(\mathbf{x}))\right]exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{b})^{T}\mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{b})\right]$$

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by taking minus the log we obtains the so-called 3D-Var cost function:

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = -\log\left(\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}^{o} - H(\mathbf{x}))^{T}\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}^{o} - H(\mathbf{x}))\right]\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{b})^{T}\mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{b})\right]\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}^{o} - H(\mathbf{x}))^{T}\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}^{o} - H(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{b})^{T}\mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{b})$$

and maximizing  $P_{X|Y}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}^{o})$  is equivalent to minimizing  $J(\mathbf{x})$ 

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## If the problem is time dependent

- Observations are distributed in time:  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}(t)$
- The observation cost function becomes:

$$J_o(\mathbf{x}) = rac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N \|H_i(\mathbf{x}(t_i)) - \mathbf{y}(t_i)\|_o^2$$

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 There is a model describing the evolution of x: x<sub>ti</sub> = M<sub>ti-1</sub>,t<sub>i</sub>(x<sub>ti-1</sub>) with x(t = 0) = x<sub>0</sub>. Then J is often no longer minimized w.r.t. x, but w.r.t. x<sub>0</sub> only, or to some other parameters.

$$J_{o}(\mathbf{x}_{0}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{N} \|H_{i}(\mathbf{x}(t_{i})) - \mathbf{y}(t_{i})\|_{o}^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{N} \|H_{i}(M_{0 \to t_{i}}(\mathbf{x}_{0})) - \mathbf{y}(t_{i})\|_{o}^{2}$$

## If the problem is time dependent



$$J(\mathbf{x}_0) = J_b(\mathbf{x}_0) + J_o(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_b\|_b^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N \|H_i(M_{0 \to t_i}(\mathbf{x}_0)) - \mathbf{y}(t_i)\|_o^2$$

• If H and M are linear then  $J_o$  is quadratic.

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- However it generally does not have a unique minimum, since the number of observations is generally less than the size of x<sub>0</sub> (the problem is underdetermined: p < n).</li>

Example: let  $(x_1^t, x_2^t) = (1, 1)$  and y = 1.1 an observation of  $\frac{1}{2}(x_1 + x_2)$ .

$$J_o(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x_1 + x_2}{2} - 1.1 \right)^2$$



$$J(\mathbf{x}_{0}) = J_{b}(\mathbf{x}_{0}) + J_{o}(\mathbf{x}_{0}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}_{0} - \mathbf{x}_{b}\|_{b}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{N} \|H_{i}(M_{0 \to t_{i}}(\mathbf{x}_{0})) - \mathbf{y}(t_{i})\|_{o}^{2}$$

- If H and M are linear then  $J_o$  is quadratic.
- However it generally does not have a unique minimum, since the number of observations is generally less than the size of  $x_0$  (the problem is underdetermined).
- Adding  $J_b$  makes the problem of minimizing  $J = J_o + J_b$  well posed.

Example: let 
$$(x_1^t, x_2^t) = (1, 1)$$
 and  $y = 1.1$  an observation of  $\frac{1}{2}(x_1 + x_2)$ .  
Let  $(x_1^b, x_2^b) = (0.9, 1.05)$   
 $J(x_1, x_2) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x_1 + x_2}{2} - 1.1 \right)^2}_{J_o} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \left[ (x_1 - 0.9)^2 + (x_2 - 1.05)^2 \right]}_{J_b}$   
 $\longrightarrow (x_1^*, x_2^*) = (0.94166..., 1.09166...)$ 



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Non linear case

$$J(\mathbf{x}_0) = J_b(\mathbf{x}_0) + J_o(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_b\|_b^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N \|H_i(M_{0\to t_i}(\mathbf{x}_0)) - \mathbf{y}(t_i)\|_o^2$$

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Example: the Lorenz system (1963)

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = \alpha(y - x) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = \beta x - y - xz \\ \frac{dz}{dt} = -\gamma z + xy \end{cases}$$


# Uniqueness of the minimum?

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$$J_{o}(y_{0}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{N} (x(t_{i}) - x_{obs}(t_{i}))^{2} dt$$

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• If H and/or M are nonlinear then  $J_o$  is no longer quadratic.



• Adding  $J_b$  makes it "more quadratic" ( $J_b$  is a regularization term), but  $J = J_o + J_b$  may however have several local minima.

### Minimum of a quadratic function in finite dimension

Theorem: Generalized (or Moore-Penrose) inverse	
Let <b>M</b> a $p \times n$ matrix, with rank $n$ , and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{R}^p$ .	(hence $p \ge n$ )
Let $J(\mathbf{x}) = \ \mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\ ^2 = (\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^T (\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}).$ <i>J</i> is minimum for $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{M}^+ \mathbf{b}$ , where $\mathbf{M}^+ = (\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{M})^{-1} \mathbf{M}^T$ (generalized, or Moore-Penrose, inverse).	

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(generalized, or Moore-Penrose, inverse).Corollary: with a generalized normLet N a  $p \times p$  symmetric definite positive matrix.

Let  $J_1(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_{N}^2 = (\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^T \mathbf{N} (\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}).$ 

 $J_1$  is minimum for  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{N} \mathbf{M})^{-1} \mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{N} \mathbf{b}$ .

### Link with data assimilation

In the case of a linear, time independent, data assimilation problem:

$$J_o(\mathbf{x}) = rac{1}{2} \left\| \mathbf{H} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} 
ight\|_o^2 = rac{1}{2} \left( \mathbf{H} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} 
ight)^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{H} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$$

Optimal estimation in the linear case:  $J_o$  only

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbf{R}^n} J_o(\mathbf{x}) \longrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

go to statistical approach

### Link with data assimilation



With the formalism "background value + new observations":

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = J_b(\mathbf{x}) + J_o(\mathbf{x})$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b\|_b^2 + \frac{1}{2} \|H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}\|_o^2$   
=  $\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$   
=  $(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^T \mathbf{N} (\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}) = \|\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_{\mathbf{N}}^2$   
with  $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_n \\ \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_b \\ \mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{N} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{B}^{-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{R}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$ 

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=  $\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$   
=  $(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^T \mathbf{N} (\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}) = \|\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_{\mathbf{N}}^2$   
with  $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_n \\ \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_b \\ \mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{N} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{B}^{-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{R}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$ 

Optimal estimation in the linear case:  $J_b + J_o$ 

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}_b + \underbrace{(\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}}_{\text{gain matrix}} \underbrace{(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{x}_b)}_{\text{innovation vector}}$$

**Remark:** The gain matrix also reads  $\mathbf{BH}^{T}(\mathbf{HBH}^{T} + \mathbf{R})^{-1}$ (Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula)

go to statistical approach

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### Outline

A simple example

Generalisation: variational approach

Generalization: statistical approach

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To be estimated: 
$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^n$$
 Observations:  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_p \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^p$ 

Observation operator:  $\mathbf{y} \equiv H(\mathbf{x})$ , with  $H : \mathbf{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^p$ 

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#### Statistical framework:

• y is a realization of a random vector Y

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Observation operator:  $\mathbf{y} \equiv H(\mathbf{x})$ , with  $H : \mathbf{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^p$ 

#### Statistical framework:

- y is a realization of a random vector Y
- One is looking for the BLUE, i.e. a r.v.  $\hat{\boldsymbol{X}}$  that is
  - linear:  $\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}$  with size( $\mathbf{A}$ ) = (n, p)
  - unbiased:  $E(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = \mathbf{x}$
  - of minimal variance:

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}(\hat{X}_i) = \operatorname{Tr}(\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}))$$
 minimum

#### Hypotheses

- Linear observation operator:  $H(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}$
- Let  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  with  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  random vector in  $\mathbf{R}^p$ 
  - $E(\varepsilon) = 0$ •  $Cov(\varepsilon) = E(\varepsilon \varepsilon^T) = \mathbf{R}$

unbiased measurement devices known accuracies and covariances

#### Hypotheses

- Linear observation operator:  $H(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}$
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#### BLUE:

- linear:  $\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{AY}$  with  $\mathbf{A}(n, p)$
- unbiased:  $E(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = E(\mathbf{AHx} + \mathbf{A\varepsilon}) = \mathbf{AHx} + \mathbf{AE}(\varepsilon) = \mathbf{AHx}$

So: 
$$E(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = \mathbf{x} \iff \mathbf{AH} = \mathbf{I}_n$$
.

#### Hypotheses

- Linear observation operator:  $H(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}$
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#### BLUE:

• linear: 
$$\hat{X} = AY$$
 with  $A(n, p)$ 

• unbiased: 
$$E(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = E(\mathbf{AHx} + \mathbf{A\varepsilon}) = \mathbf{AHx} + \mathbf{AE}(\mathbf{\varepsilon}) = \mathbf{AHx}$$

So: 
$$E(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = \mathbf{x} \iff \mathbf{AH} = \mathbf{I}_n$$
.

Remark:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{I}_n \Longrightarrow \ker \mathbf{H} = \{\mathbf{0}\} \Longrightarrow \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{H}) = n$$
  
Since size(**H**) = (p, n), this implies  $n \le p$  (again !)

#### BLUE:

• minimal variance: min Tr(Cov(X))

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{A}\varepsilon = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{A}\varepsilon \operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = E\left([\hat{\mathbf{X}} - E(\hat{\mathbf{X}})][\hat{\mathbf{X}} - E(\hat{\mathbf{X}})]^{T}\right) = \mathbf{A}E(\varepsilon\varepsilon^{T})\mathbf{A}^{T} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{A}^{T}$$

Find **A** that minimizes  $Tr(ARA^{T})$  under the constraint  $AH = I_n$ 

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#### BLUE:

• minimal variance: min Tr(Cov( $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ ))

$$\begin{split} \hat{\mathbf{X}} &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{A}\varepsilon = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{A}\varepsilon \\ & \text{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) \quad = E\left([\hat{\mathbf{X}} - E(\hat{\mathbf{X}})][\hat{\mathbf{X}} - E(\hat{\mathbf{X}})]^{T}\right) \\ & = \mathbf{A}E(\varepsilon\varepsilon^{T})\mathbf{A}^{T} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{A}^{T} \end{split}$$

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Gauss-Markov theorem

$$\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}$$

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Find **A** that minimizes  $Tr(ARA^T)$  under the constraint  $AH = I_n$ 

Gauss-Markov theorem

$$\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1}$$

This also leads to  $\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = (\mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1}$ 



Statistical approach: BLUE

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{Y}$$
 with  $\mathsf{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1}$ 

go to variational approach

Statistical approach: BLUE

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{Y}$$
 with  $\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1}$ 

go to variational approach

Variational approach in the linear case

$$J_o(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_o^2 = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$$
$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n} J_o(\mathbf{x}) \longrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

Statistical approach: BLUE

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{Y}$$
 with  $\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1}$ 

go to variational approach

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$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n} J_o(\mathbf{x}) \longrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

#### Remarks

• The statistical approach rationalizes the choice of the norm in the variational approach.

• 
$$\left[ \operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) \right]^{-1} = \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H} = \underbrace{\operatorname{Hess}(J_o)}_{\operatorname{convexity}}$$

### Statistical approach: formalism "background value + new observations"

$$\mathbf{Z} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{X}_b \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{array}\right) \begin{array}{l} \longleftarrow \text{ background} \\ \longleftarrow \text{ new observations} \end{array}$$

Let  $\mathbf{X}_b = \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_b$  and  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_o$ 

Hypotheses:	
• $E(\varepsilon_b) = 0$	unbiased background
• $E(\varepsilon_o)=0$	unbiased measurement devices
• $Cov(m{arepsilon}_b,m{arepsilon}_o)=0$	independent background and observation errors
• $Cov(\varepsilon_b) = \mathbf{B} \text{ et } Cov(\varepsilon_o) = \mathbf{R}$	known accuracies and covariances

This is again the general BLUE framework, with

$$\mathbf{Z} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}_b \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_n \\ \mathbf{H} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} + \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_b \\ \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_o \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{Cov}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{B} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{R} \end{pmatrix}$$

### Statistical approach: formalism "background value + new observations"





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Statistical approach: BLUE

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}_b + (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{X}_b)$$
  
with  $\mathsf{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1}$ 

go to variational approach

Variational approach in the linear case

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b\|_b^2 + \frac{1}{2} \|H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}\|_o^2$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$   
min  $J(\mathbf{x}) \longrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}_b + (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}_b)$ 

Statistical approach: BLUE

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}_b + (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{X}_b)$$
  
with  $\mathsf{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) = (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1}$ 

go to variational approach

Variational approach in the linear case

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b\|_b^2 + \frac{1}{2} \|H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}\|_o^2$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$   
min  $J(\mathbf{x}) \longrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}_b + (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}_b)$ 

#### Same remarks as previously

• The statistical approach rationalizes the choice of the norms for  $J_o$  and  $J_b$  in the variational approach.

$$\bullet \underbrace{\left[\mathsf{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}})\right]^{-1}}_{\mathsf{accuracy}} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H} = \underbrace{\mathsf{Hess}(J)}_{\mathsf{convexity}}$$

Dynamical system:  $\mathbf{x}^{t}(t_{k+1}) = \mathbf{M}(t_{k}, t_{k+1})\mathbf{x}^{t}(t_{k}) + \mathbf{e}(t_{k})$ 

- $\mathbf{x}^t(t_k)$  true state at time  $t_k$
- $M(t_k, t_{k+1})$  model assumed linear between  $t_k$  and  $t_{k+1}$
- $\mathbf{e}(t_k)$  model error at time  $t_k$

At every observation time  $t_k$ , we have an observation  $\mathbf{y}_k$  and a model forecast  $\mathbf{x}^f(t_k)$ . The BLUE can be applied:



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$$\mathbf{x}^{t}(t_{k+1}) = \mathbf{M}(t_{k}, t_{k+1}) \mathbf{x}^{t}(t_{k}) + \mathbf{e}(t_{k})$$

#### Hypotheses

- $\mathbf{e}(t_k)$  is unbiased, with covariance matrix  $\mathbf{Q}_k$
- $\mathbf{e}(t_k)$  and  $\mathbf{e}(t_l)$  are independent  $(k \neq l)$
- Unbiased observation y<sub>k</sub>, with error covariance matrix R<sub>k</sub>
- $\mathbf{e}(t_k)$  and analysis error  $\mathbf{x}^a(t_k) \mathbf{x}^t(t_k)$  are independent

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#### Equivalence with the variational approach

If  $\mathbf{H}_k$  and  $\mathbf{M}(t_k, t_{k+1})$  are linear, and if the model is perfect ( $\mathbf{e}_k = 0$ ), then the Kalman filter and the variational method minimizing

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \mathbf{P}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{N} (\mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{M}(t_0, t_k) \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}_k)^T \mathbf{R}_k^{-1} (\mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{M}(t_0, t_k) \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}_k)$$
  
lead to the same solution at  $t = t_N$ .





# In summary

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#### In summary

variational approach least squares minimization (non dimensional terms)

- no particular hypothesis
- either for stationary or time dependent problems
- If M and H are linear, the cost function is quadratic: a unique solution if  $p \ge n$
- Adding a background term ensures this property.
- If things are non linear, the approach is still valid. Possibly several minima

#### statistical approach

- hypotheses on the first two moments
- time independent + H linear +  $p \ge n$ : BLUE (first two moments)
- time dependent + M and H linear: Kalman filter (based on the BLUE)
- hypotheses on the pdfs: Bayesian approach (pdf) + ML or MAP estimator

The statistical approach gives a rationale for the choice of the norms, and gives an estimation of the uncertainty.

time independent problems if H is linear, the variational and the statistical approaches lead to the same solution (provided  $\|.\|_b$  is based on  $B^{-1}$  and  $\|.\|_o$  is based on  $R^{-1}$ )

time dependent problems if H and M are linear, if the model is perfect, both approaches lead to the same solution at final time.



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### Common main methodological difficulties

- Non linearities: J non quadratic / what about Kalman filter ?
- Huge dimensions  $[x] = O(10^6 10^9)$ : minimization of J / management of huge matrices
- Poorly known error statistics: choice of the norms / B, R, Q
- Scientific computing issues (data management, code efficiency, parallelization...)

 $\rightarrow$  NEXT LECTURE

### Further generalisation

Considering an imperfect model (e.g.  $\mathbf{x}_t = M_{t-1,t}(\mathbf{x}_t) + \eta_t$  with  $\eta_t \sim N(0, \mathbf{Q}_t)$  leads to

$$\begin{aligned} J(\mathbf{x}_{0},\ldots,\mathbf{x}_{N}) &= \frac{1}{2}\sum_{t=1}^{N}(\mathbf{y}_{t}^{o}-H_{t}(\mathbf{x}_{t}))^{T}\mathbf{R}_{t}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_{t}^{o}-H_{t}(\mathbf{x}_{t})) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{0}-\mathbf{x}^{b})^{T}\mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_{0}-\mathbf{x}^{b}) \\ &+ \sum_{t=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_{t}-M_{t-1,t}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}))^{T}\mathbf{Q}_{t}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_{t}-M_{t-1,t}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1})) \end{aligned}$$

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If we note the model state trajectory:

$$\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_{N-1}, \mathbf{x}_N)^T$$

N being the number of time steps per assimilation window, the full variational data assimilation scheme can be defined by the minimization of :

cost function  
$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \underbrace{\frac{J^b}{\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^b)}_{I} + \underbrace{\frac{J^o}{\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y} - H(\mathbf{x}))^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - H(\mathbf{x}))}_{I} + \underbrace{\frac{J^g}{\frac{1}{2}F(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{Q}^{-1}F(\mathbf{x})}_{I}}_{I}$$

Where **B** and **R** are the background and observation error correlation matrices respectively, **y** is the observation vector, and *H* the observation operator, and *F* represents the remaining theoretical knowledge after background information has been accounted for (basically the model).

$$F_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}_i - M_i(\mathbf{x}_{i-1})$$

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## Further generalisation: weak constraint 4D-Var



The meaning of this cost function is that we seek for a state trajectory  $\mathbf{x}$  that is satisfying the background error statistics  $(J^b)$ , that is not far from the observation  $(J^o)$  and that it follows (weakly) the model equations  $(J^q)$ 

In practice this algorithm is not doable for large time dependent problems. The size of x (the size of the state vector times the number of time step of the assimilation window) becomes huge and the definition and handling of **B** is more than problematic

Therefore, in practice, additional hypothesis or approximations have to be made in order to implement variational data assimilation.

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## Back to 4D-Var:

In the so-called 4D-Var algorithm, the assumption is now that the model is perfect, meaning x is fully determined by the initial condition  $x_0$  (*e.g.*  $J^q = 0$ ). It is also called *strong constraint 4D-Var*, meaning that the model is a strong constrain of the minimization process.

The cost function is then

$$J(\mathbf{x}_{0}) = J^{b}(\mathbf{x}_{0}) + J^{o}(\mathbf{x}_{0})$$
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where the background term  $J^b$  is the same as before:

$$J^{b}(\mathbf{x}_{0}) = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{0} - \mathbf{x}_{0}^{b})^{T}\mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_{0} - \mathbf{x}_{0}^{b})$$

The background  $\mathbf{x}_0^b$ , as  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , is one possible state vector at initial time i = 0. The observation term  $J^o$  is a bit more complex:

$$J^{o}(\mathbf{x}_{0}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{n} (\mathbf{y}_{i}^{o} - H_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i}))^{T} \mathbf{R}_{i}^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_{i}^{o} - H_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i}))$$

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## 4D-Var:



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