



An introduction to data assimilation

Episode 2

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Previously...

Model problem: least squares approach

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

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

- ▶ Let $J(x) = \frac{1}{2} [(x - y_1)^2 + (x - y_2)^2]$
- ▶ $\text{Min}_x J(x) \rightarrow \hat{x} = \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2} = 20^\circ\text{C}$

Model problem: least squares approach

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

- ▶ Let $H(x) = \frac{9}{5}x + 32$
- ▶ Let $J(x) = \frac{1}{2} [(H(x) - y_1)^2 + (H(x) - y_2)^2]$
- ▶ $\text{Min}_x J(x) \rightarrow \hat{x} = 20^\circ\text{C}$

Drawback # 1: if observation units are inhomogeneous

$y_1 = 66.2^\circ\text{F}$ and $y_2 = 21^\circ\text{C}$

- ▶ $J(x) = \frac{1}{2} [(H(x) - y_1)^2 + (x - y_2)^2] \rightarrow \hat{x} = 19.47^\circ\text{C} !!$

Drawback # 2: if observation accuracies are inhomogeneous

If y_1 is twice more accurate than y_2 , one should obtain $\hat{x} = \frac{2y_1 + y_2}{3} = 19.67^\circ\text{C}$

$$\rightarrow J \text{ should be } J(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{x - y_1}{1/2} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{x - y_2}{1} \right)^2 \right]$$

Model problem: statistical approach

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**: $\hat{X} = \alpha_1 Y_1 + \alpha_2 Y_2$ (in order to be simple)
 - ▶ **unbiased**: $E(\hat{X}) = x$ (it seems reasonable)
 - ▶ **of minimal variance**: $\text{Var}(\hat{X})$ minimum (optimal accuracy)

→ BLUE (Best Linear Unbiased Estimator)

Model problem: statistical approach

Let $Y_i = x + \varepsilon_i$ with

Hypotheses

- ▶ $E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$ ($i = 1, 2$) unbiased measurement devices
- ▶ $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma_i^2$ ($i = 1, 2$) known accuracies
- ▶ $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) = 0$ independent measurement errors

BLUE

$$\hat{X} = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} Y_1 + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} Y_2}{\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2}}$$

Its accuracy: $[\text{Var}(\hat{X})]^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2}$ accuracies are added

Model problem: statistical approach

Variational equivalence

This is equivalent to the problem:

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

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

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

Model problem: 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

$$\hat{x} = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma_b^2} x_b + \frac{1}{\sigma_o^2} y}{\frac{1}{\sigma_b^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_o^2}} = x_b + \underbrace{\frac{\sigma_b^2}{\sigma_b^2 + \sigma_o^2}}_{\text{gain}} \underbrace{(y - x_b)}_{\text{innovation}}$$

Model problem: Bayesian approach

One can also consider x as a realization of a r.v. X , and be interested in the pdf $p(X|Y)$.

Several optimality criteria

- ▶ **minimum variance:** \hat{X}_{MV} such that the spread around it is minimal
→ $\hat{X}_{MV} = E(X|Y)$
- ▶ **maximum a posteriori:** most probable value of X given Y
→ \hat{X}_{MAP} such that $\frac{\partial p(X|Y)}{\partial X} = 0$
- ▶ **maximum likelihood:** \hat{X}_{ML} that maximizes $p(Y|X)$

- ▶ Based on the Bayes rule:

$$P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{P(Y = y | X = x) P(X = x)}{P(Y = y)}$$

- ▶ requires additional hypotheses on prior pdf for X and for $Y|X$
- ▶ In the Gaussian case, these estimations coincide with the BLUE

Generalization: arbitrary number of unknowns and observations

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 $H : \mathbf{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^p$

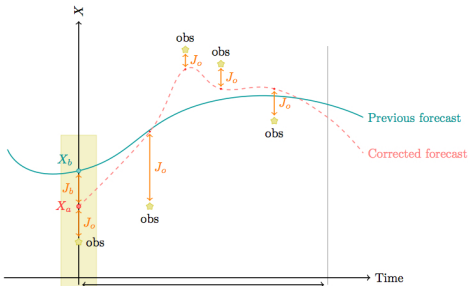
Generalization: variational approach

Stationary case: $J(\mathbf{x}) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b\|_b^2}_{\text{background term } J_b} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \|H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}\|_o^2}_{\text{observation term } J_o}$

Time dependent case:

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

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



Generalization: statistical approach

Let $\mathbf{X}_b = \mathbf{x} + \varepsilon_b$ and $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon_o$

Hypotheses:

- ▶ $E(\varepsilon_b) = 0$ unbiased background
- ▶ $E(\varepsilon_o) = 0$ unbiased measurement devices
- ▶ $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_b, \varepsilon_o) = 0$ independent background and observation errors
- ▶ $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_b) = \mathbf{B}$ et $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_o) = \mathbf{R}$ known accuracies and covariances

Statistical approach: BLUE

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

with $[\text{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}})]^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}$ accuracies are added

Links between both approaches

Statistical approach: BLUE

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

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

Variational approach in the linear stationary case

$$\begin{aligned} J(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b\|_b^2 + \frac{1}{2} \|H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}\|_o^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \end{aligned}$$

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

Same remarks as previously

- ▶ The statistical approach rationalizes the choice of the norms for J_o and J_b in the variational approach.
- ▶ $\underbrace{[\text{Cov}(\hat{\mathbf{X}})]^{-1}}_{\text{accuracy}} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H} = \underbrace{\text{Hess}(J)}_{\text{convexity}}$

If the problem is time dependent

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
- ▶ $\mathbf{M}(t_k, t_{k+1})$ model **assumed linear** between t_k and t_{k+1}
- ▶ $\mathbf{e}(t_k)$ model error at time t_k

Observations \mathbf{y}_k distributed in time.

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 \mathbf{y}_k , with error covariance matrix \mathbf{R}_k
- ▶ $\mathbf{e}(t_k)$ and analysis error $\mathbf{x}^a(t_k) - \mathbf{x}^t(t_k)$ are independent

If the problem is time dependent

Kalman filter (Kalman and Bucy, 1961)

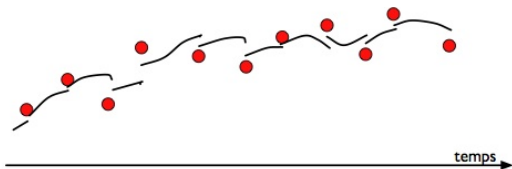
Initialization:

$$\mathbf{x}^a(t_0) = \mathbf{x}_0 \quad \text{approximate initial state}$$
$$\mathbf{P}^a(t_0) = \mathbf{P}_0 \quad \text{error covariance matrix}$$

Step k : (prediction - correction, or forecast - analysis)

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f = \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1} \mathbf{x}_k^a \quad \text{Forecast}$$
$$\mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f = \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1} \mathbf{P}_k^a \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1}^T + \mathbf{Q}_k$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1}^a = \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f + \mathbf{K}_{k+1} [\mathbf{y}_{k+1} - \mathbf{H}_{k+1} \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f] \quad \text{BLUE analysis}$$
$$\mathbf{K}_{k+1} = \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f \mathbf{H}_{k+1}^T [\mathbf{H}_{k+1} \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f \mathbf{H}_{k+1}^T + \mathbf{R}_{k+1}]^{-1}$$
$$\mathbf{P}_{k+1}^a = \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f - \mathbf{K}_{k+1} \mathbf{H}_{k+1} \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f$$



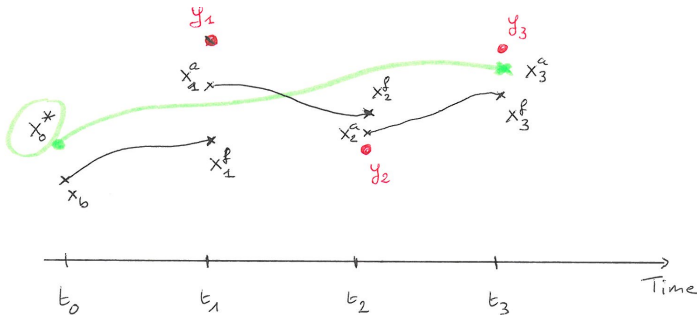
If the problem is time dependent

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 $t = t_N$.



Common main methodological difficulties

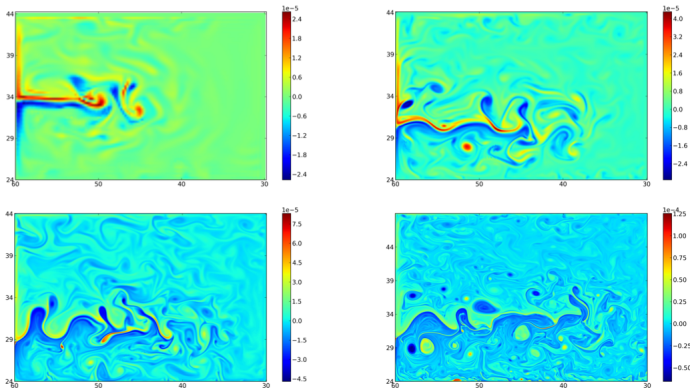
- ▶ **Non linearities**: J non quadratic / what about Kalman filter ?
- ▶ **Huge dimensions** $[\mathbf{x}] = \mathcal{O}(10^6 - 10^9)$: minimization of J / management of huge matrices
- ▶ Poorly known **error statistics**: choice of the norms / $\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{Q}$

- ▶ Scientific computing issues (data management, code efficiency, parallelization...)

→ TODAY'S LECTURE

Towards larger dimensions and stronger nonlinearities

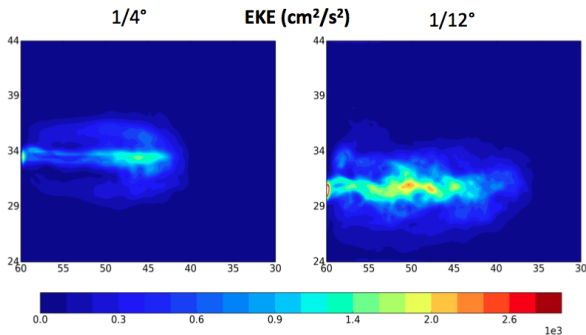
Increasing the model resolution increases the size of the state variable and, for a number of applications, allows for stronger scale interactions.



Snapshots of the surface relative vorticity in the SEABASS configuration of NEMO, for different model resolutions: $1/4^\circ$, $1/12^\circ$, $1/24^\circ$ and $1/100^\circ$.

Towards larger dimensions and stronger nonlinearities

This results in increased turbulent energy levels and nonlinear effects.

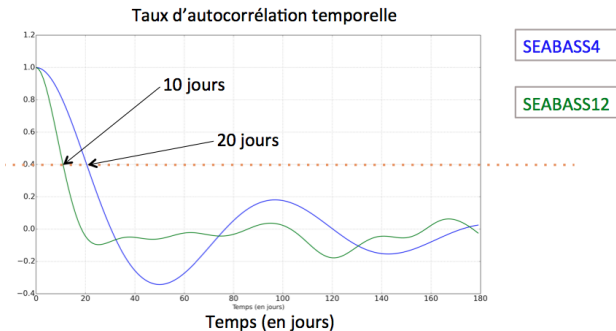


Max EKE

- 1/4° : 1650 cm^2/s^2
- 1/12° : 3000 cm^2/s^2
- Jason-1 Gulf Stream: 3000 cm^2/s^2

Towards larger dimensions and stronger nonlinearities

This results in increased turbulent energy levels and nonlinear effects.



Statistical approach

Non linearities: extended Kalman filter

The Kalman filter assumes that M and H are linear. If not: linearization

Reminder: derivatives and gradients

$f : E \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$ (E being of finite or infinite dimension)

- ▶ **Gradient (or Fréchet derivative)**: E being an Hilbert space, f is Fréchet differentiable at point $x \in E$ iff

$$\exists p \in E \text{ such that } f(x + h) = f(x) + (p, h) + o(\|h\|) \quad \forall h \in E$$

p is the **derivative** or **gradient** of f at point x , denoted $f'(x)$ or $\nabla f(x)$.

- ▶ $h \rightarrow (p(x), h)$ is a **linear** function, called **differential function** or **tangent linear function** or **Jacobian** of f at point x

Non linearities: extended Kalman filter

The Kalman filter assumes that M and H are linear. If not: linearization

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f &= M_{k,k+1}(\mathbf{x}_k^a) \simeq M_{k,k+1}(\mathbf{x}_k^t) + \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1} \underbrace{(\mathbf{x}_k^a - \mathbf{x}_k^t)}_{\mathbf{e}_k^a} \\ \implies \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f - \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^t &= \mathbf{e}_{k+1}^f = \underbrace{M_{k,k+1}(\mathbf{x}_k^t) - \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^t}_{\mathbf{e}_k} + \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1} \mathbf{e}_k^a \\ \implies \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f &= \text{Cov}(\mathbf{e}_{k+1}^f) = \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1} \mathbf{P}_k^a \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1}^T + \mathbf{Q}_k\end{aligned}$$

and similarly for the other equations of the filter

Non linearities: extended Kalman filter

Extended Kalman filter

Initialization: $\mathbf{x}^a(t_0) = \mathbf{x}_0$ *approximate initial state*
 $\mathbf{P}^a(t_0) = \mathbf{P}_0$ *error covariance matrix*



Step k : (*prediction - correction, or forecast - analysis*)

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f = M_{k,k+1}(\mathbf{x}_k^a) \quad \text{Forecast}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f = M_{k,k+1} \mathbf{P}_k^a M_{k,k+1}^T + \mathbf{Q}_k$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1}^a = \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f + \mathbf{K}_{k+1} [\mathbf{y}_{k+1} - H_{k+1}(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f)] \quad \text{BLUE analysis}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_{k+1} = \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f \mathbf{H}_{k+1}^T [\mathbf{H}_{k+1} \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f \mathbf{H}_{k+1}^T + \mathbf{R}_{k+1}]^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{k+1}^a = \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f - \mathbf{K}_{k+1} \mathbf{H}_{k+1} \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f$$

Non linearities: extended Kalman filter

Extended Kalman filter

Initialization: $\mathbf{x}^a(t_0) = \mathbf{x}_0$ *approximate initial state*
 $\mathbf{P}^a(t_0) = \mathbf{P}_0$ *error covariance matrix*



Step k : (*prediction - correction, or forecast - analysis*)

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$$\mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f = \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1} \mathbf{P}_k^a \mathbf{M}_{k,k+1}^T + \mathbf{Q}_k$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1}^a = \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f + \mathbf{K}_{k+1} [\mathbf{y}_{k+1} - \mathbf{H}_{k+1}(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}^f)] \quad \text{BLUE analysis}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_{k+1} = \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f \mathbf{H}_{k+1}^T [\mathbf{H}_{k+1} \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f \mathbf{H}_{k+1}^T + \mathbf{R}_{k+1}]^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{k+1}^a = \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f - \mathbf{K}_{k+1} \mathbf{H}_{k+1} \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^f$$

- ▶ OK if nonlinearities are not too strong
- ▶ Requires the availability of $\mathbf{M}_{k,k+1}$ and \mathbf{H}_k
- ▶ More sophisticated approaches have been developed \rightarrow **unscented Kalman filter** (exact up to second order, requires no tangent linear model nor Hessian matrix)

Huge dimension: reduced order filters

As soon as $[\mathbf{x}]$ becomes huge, it's no longer possible to handle the covariance matrices.

Idea: a large part of the system variability can be represented (or is assumed to) in a reduced dimension space.

→ RRSQRT filter, SEEK filter, SEIK filter...

Huge dimension: reduced order filters

Example: Reduced Rank Square Root filter

- ▶ $\mathbf{P}_0^f \simeq \mathbf{S}_0^f (\mathbf{S}_0^f)^T$ with $\text{size}(\mathbf{S}_0^f) = (n, r)$ (r leading modes, $r \ll n$)
- ▶ This is injected in the filter equations. This leads for instance to $\mathbf{P}_k^a = \mathbf{S}_k^a (\mathbf{S}_k^a)^T$, with

$$\mathbf{S}_k^a = \underbrace{\mathbf{S}_k^f}_{(n,r)} \left(\underbrace{\mathbf{I}_r - \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\Psi}_k^T [\boldsymbol{\Psi}_k \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k^T + \mathbf{R}_k]^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k}_{(r,r)}} \right)^{1/2}$$



where $\boldsymbol{\Psi}_k = \underbrace{\mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{S}_k^f}_{(p,r)}$

Pros: most computations in low dimension

Cons: choice and time evolution of the modes

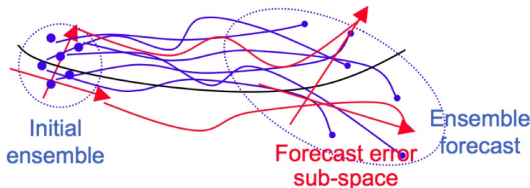
A widely used filter: the Ensemble Kalman filter

- ▶ addresses both problems of non linearities and huge dimension
- ▶ rather simple and intuitive

Idea: generation of an ensemble of N trajectories, by N perturbations of the set of observations (consistently with \mathbf{R}). Standard extended Kalman filter, with covariance matrices computed using the ensemble:

$$\mathbf{P}_k^f = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_{j,k}^f - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k^f)(\mathbf{x}_{j,k}^f - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k^f)^T \quad \text{with} \quad \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k^f = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbf{x}_{j,k}^f$$

$$\mathbf{P}_k^a = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_{j,k}^a - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k^a)(\mathbf{x}_{j,k}^f - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k^f)^T \quad \text{with} \quad \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k^a = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbf{x}_{j,k}^a$$



Variational approach

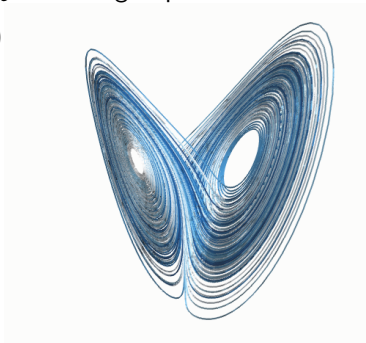
Cost function and non linearities

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

- ▶ If H and/or M are nonlinear then J_o is no longer quadratic.

Example: the Lorenz system (1963)

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

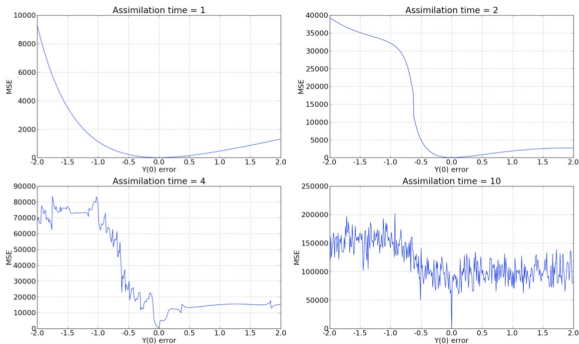


$$J_o(y_0) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (x(t_i) - x_{\text{obs}}(t_i))^2 dt$$

Cost function and non linearities

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

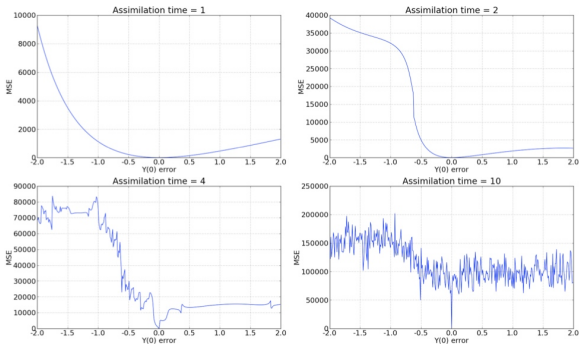
- If H and/or M are nonlinear then J_o is no longer quadratic.



Cost function and non linearities

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

- ▶ 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.

4D-Var

4D-Var algorithm corresponds to the minimization of

$$J(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (H_i(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mathbf{y}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (H_i(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mathbf{y}_i)$$

Preconditioned cost function

Defining $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{B}^{-1/2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^b)$, J becomes

$$J(\mathbf{v}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{v}_0^T \mathbf{v}_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (H_i(\mathbf{B}^{1/2} \mathbf{v}_i + \mathbf{x}_i^b) - \mathbf{y}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (H_i(\mathbf{B}^{1/2} \mathbf{v}_i + \mathbf{x}_i^b) - \mathbf{y}_i)$$

4D-Var / Incremental 4D-Var / 3D-FGAT / 3D-Var

The problem is written in terms of $\delta \mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b$, and

$$J(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (H_i(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mathbf{y}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (H_i(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mathbf{y}_i)$$

is approximated by a series of **quadratic** cost functions:

$$J^{(k+1)}(\delta \mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \delta \mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} \delta \mathbf{x}_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (\mathbf{H}_i^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{d}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{H}_i^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{d}_i)$$

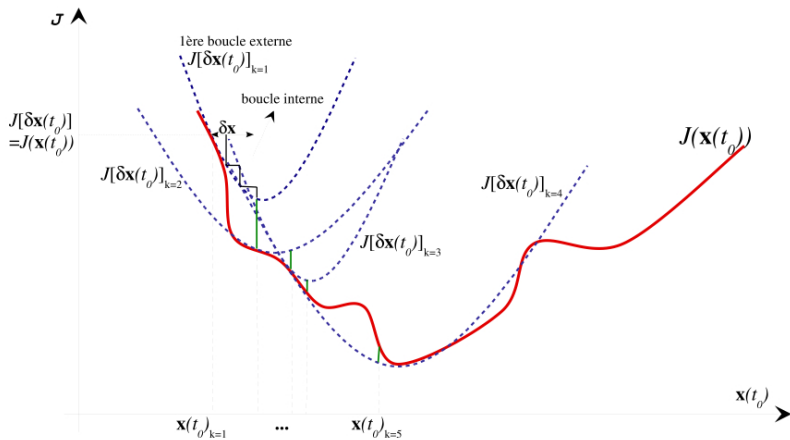
with $\delta \mathbf{x}_{i+1} = \mathbf{M}_{i,i+1}^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_i$ and $\mathbf{d}_i = \mathbf{y}_i - H_i(\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)})$

- ▶ Kind of Gauss-Newton algorithm
- ▶ Tangent linear hypotheses must be satisfied:

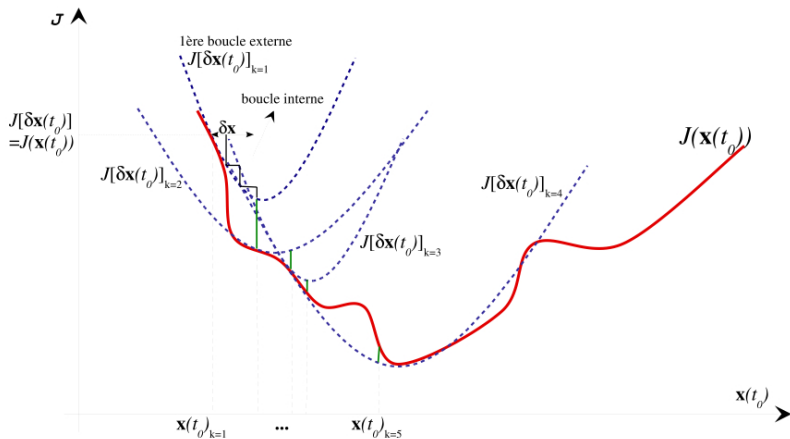
$$M(\mathbf{x}_0^{(k)} + \delta \mathbf{x}_0) \simeq M(\mathbf{x}_0^{(k)}) + \mathbf{M}^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_0$$

$$H_i(\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)} + \delta \mathbf{x}_i) \simeq H_i(\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)}) + \mathbf{H}_i^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_i$$

4D-Var / Incremental 4D-Var / 3D-FGAT / 3D-Var



4D-Var / Incremental 4D-Var / 3D-FGAT / 3D-Var



Multi-incremental 4D-Var: inner loops can be made using some simplified physics and/or coarser resolution (Courtier et al. 1994, Courtier 1995, Veersé and Thépaut 1998, Trémolet 2005).

4D-Var / Incremental 4D-Var / 3D-FGAT / 3D-Var

The **3D-FGAT (First Guess at Appropriate Time)** is an approximation of incremental 4D-Var where the tangent linear model is replaced by identity:

$$J^{(k+1)}(\delta \mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \delta \mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} \delta \mathbf{x}_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (\mathbf{H}_i^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{d}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{H}_i^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{d}_i)$$

→ something between 3D and 4D

Pros:

- ▶ much cheaper, does not require the adjoint model (see later)
- ▶ algorithm is close to incremental 4D-Var
- ▶ innovation is computed at the correct observation time

Cons: approximation !

4D-Var / Incremental 4D-Var / 3D-FGAT / 3D-Var

3D-Var: all observations are gathered as if they were all at time t_0 .

$$J(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (H_i(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{y}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (H_i(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{y}_i)$$

Pros: still cheaper

Cons: approximation !!

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Pros: still cheaper

Cons: approximation !!

Remark: 3D-Var = Optimal Interpolation = Kriging

Summary: simplifying $J \rightarrow$ a series of methods

4D-Var:

$$J(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^b) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (H_i(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mathbf{y}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (H_i(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mathbf{y}_i)$$

Incremental 4D-Var: $M(\mathbf{x}_0 + \delta \mathbf{x}_0) \simeq M(\mathbf{x}_0) + \mathbf{M} \delta \mathbf{x}_0$

$$J^{(k+1)}(\delta \mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \delta \mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} \delta \mathbf{x}_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (\mathbf{H}_i^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{d}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{H}_i^{(k)} \delta \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{d}_i)$$

Multi-incremental 4D-Var: $M(\mathbf{x}_0 + \delta \mathbf{x}_0) \simeq M(\mathbf{x}_0) + \mathbf{S}^{-1} \mathbf{M}^L \delta \mathbf{x}_0^L$

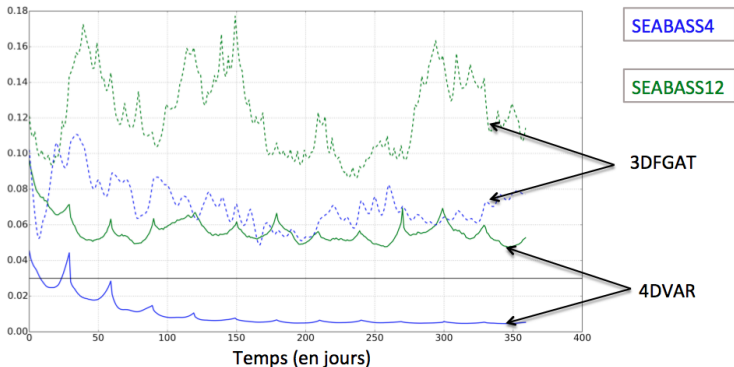
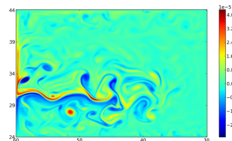
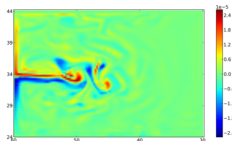
$$J^{(k+1)}(\delta \mathbf{x}_0^L) = \frac{1}{2} (\delta \mathbf{x}_0^L)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1} \delta \mathbf{x}_0^L + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N (\mathbf{H}_i^{(k),L} \delta \mathbf{x}_i^L - \mathbf{d}_i)^T \mathbf{R}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{H}_i^{(k),L} \delta \mathbf{x}_i^L - \mathbf{d}_i)$$

3D-FGAT: $M(\mathbf{x}_0 + \delta \mathbf{x}_0) \simeq M(\mathbf{x}_0) + \delta \mathbf{x}_0$

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3DFGAT inefficace au 1/12°

4DVAR >> 3DFGAT

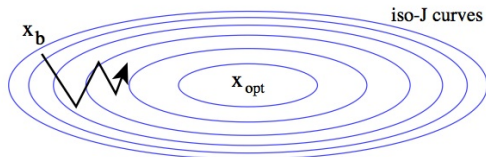
Given the size of n and p , it is generally impossible to handle explicitly H , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{R} . So, even in the simplest case (3D-Var + H linear, for which we have an explicit expression for $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$) the direct computation of the gain matrix is impossible.

- ▶ the computation of $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is performed using an optimization algorithm.

Descent methods

Descent methods for minimizing the cost function require the knowledge of (an estimate of) its gradient.

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}_k$$



$$\text{with } \mathbf{d}_k = \begin{cases} -\nabla J(\mathbf{x}_k) & \text{gradient method} \\ -[\text{Hess}(J)(\mathbf{x}_k)]^{-1} \nabla J(\mathbf{x}_k) & \text{Newton method} \\ -\mathbf{B}_k \nabla J(\mathbf{x}_k) & \text{quasi-Newton methods (BFGS, \dots)} \\ -\nabla J(\mathbf{x}_k) + \frac{\|\nabla J(\mathbf{x}_k)\|^2}{\|\nabla J(\mathbf{x}_{k-1})\|^2} \mathbf{d}_{k-1} & \text{conjugate gradient} \\ \dots & \dots \end{cases}$$

Reminder: derivatives and gradients

$f : E \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$ (E being of finite or infinite dimension)

- ▶ **Directional (or Gâteaux) derivative** of f at point $x \in E$ in direction $d \in E$:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial d}(x) = \hat{f}[x](d) = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \alpha d) - f(x)}{\alpha}$$

Example: partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ are directional derivatives in the direction of the members of the canonical basis ($d = e_i$)

Reminder: derivatives and gradients

$f : E \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$ (E being of finite or infinite dimension)

- ▶ **Gradient (or Fréchet derivative)**: E being an Hilbert space, f is Fréchet differentiable at point $x \in E$ iff

$$\exists p \in E \text{ such that } f(x + h) = f(x) + (p, h) + o(\|h\|) \quad \forall h \in E$$

p is the **derivative** or **gradient** of f at point x , denoted $f'(x)$ or $\nabla f(x)$.

- ▶ $h \rightarrow (p(x), h)$ is a **linear** function, called **differential function** or **tangent linear function** or **Jacobian** of f at point x

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- ▶ **Important (obvious) relationship**: $\frac{\partial f}{\partial d}(x) = (\nabla f(x), d)$

Getting the gradient is not obvious

The computation of $\nabla J(\mathbf{x}_k)$ may be difficult if the dependency of J with regard to the control variable \mathbf{x} is not direct.

Example:

- ▶ $u(x)$ solution of an ODE
- ▶ K a coefficient of this ODE
- ▶ $u^{\text{obs}}(x)$ an observation of $u(x)$
- ▶ $J(K) = \frac{1}{2} \|u(x) - u^{\text{obs}}(x)\|^2$

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$$\hat{J}[K](k) = (\nabla J(K), k) = \langle \hat{u}, u - u^{\text{obs}} \rangle$$

$$\text{with } \hat{u} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial k}(K) = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{u_{K+\alpha k} - u_K}{\alpha}$$

Getting the gradient is not obvious

It is often difficult (or even impossible) to obtain the gradient through the computation of growth rates.

Example:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = M(\mathbf{x}(t)) & t \in [0, T] \\ \mathbf{x}(t=0) = \mathbf{u} \end{cases} \quad \text{with } \mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_N \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \|\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{x}^{\text{obs}}(t)\|^2 \quad \longrightarrow \text{requires one model run}$$

$$\nabla J(\mathbf{u}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\partial u_1}(\mathbf{u}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial u_N}(\mathbf{u}) \end{pmatrix} \simeq \begin{pmatrix} [J(\mathbf{u} + \alpha \mathbf{e}_1) - J(\mathbf{u})] / \alpha \\ \vdots \\ [J(\mathbf{u} + \alpha \mathbf{e}_N) - J(\mathbf{u})] / \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

$\longrightarrow N + 1$ model runs

Getting the gradient is not obvious

In actual applications like meteorology / oceanography,
 $N = [\mathbf{u}] = \mathcal{O}(10^6 - 10^9)$ \rightarrow this method cannot be used.

Alternatively, the adjoint method provides a very efficient way to compute ∇J .

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In actual applications like meteorology / oceanography,
 $N = [\mathbf{u}] = \mathcal{O}(10^6 - 10^9) \rightarrow$ this method cannot be used.

Alternatively, the adjoint method provides a very efficient way to compute ∇J .



On the contrary, do not forget that, if the size of the control variable is very small (< 10), ∇J can be easily estimated by the computation of growth rates.

Reminder: adjoint operator

► **General definition:**

Let \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} two prehilbertian spaces (i.e. vector spaces with scalar products).

Let $A : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ an operator.

The adjoint operator $A^* : \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ is defined by:

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y}, \quad \langle Ax, y \rangle_{\mathcal{Y}} = \langle x, A^*y \rangle_{\mathcal{X}}$$

In the case where \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are Hilbert spaces and A is linear, then A^* always exists (and is unique).

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► **Adjoint operator in finite dimension:**

$A : \mathbf{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^m$ a linear operator (i.e. a matrix). Then its adjoint operator A^* (w.r. to Euclidian norms) is A^T .

The adjoint method: a simple example (continuous case)

The assimilation problem

- ▶
$$\begin{cases} -u''(x) + c(x) u'(x) = f(x) & x \in]0, 1[\\ u(0) = u(1) = 0 \end{cases} \quad f \in L^2(]0, 1[)$$
- ▶ $c(x)$ is **unknown**
- ▶ $u^{\text{obs}}(x)$ an **observation** of $u(x)$
- ▶ **Cost function:** $J(c) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (u(x) - u^{\text{obs}}(x))^2 dx$

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$\nabla J \rightarrow$ Gâteaux-derivative: $\hat{J}[c](\delta c) = \langle \nabla J(c), \delta c \rangle$

$$\hat{J}[c](\delta c) = \int_0^1 \hat{u}(x) (u(x) - u^{\text{obs}}(x)) dx \quad \text{with } \hat{u} = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{u_{c+\alpha\delta c} - u_c}{\alpha}$$

What is the equation satisfied by \hat{u} ?

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$$\begin{cases} -\hat{u}''(x) + c(x) \hat{u}'(x) = -\delta c(x) u'(x) & x \in]0, 1[\\ \hat{u}(0) = \hat{u}(1) = 0 \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{tangent} \\ \text{linear model} \end{array}$$

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Then $\nabla J(c(x)) = -u'(x) p(x)$

The adjoint method: a simple example (continuous case)

Remark

Formally, we just made

$$(TLM(\hat{u}), p) = (\hat{u}, TLM^*(p))$$

We indeed computed the adjoint of the tangent linear model.

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Actual calculations

- ▶ Solve for the direct model

$$\begin{cases} -u''(x) + c(x)u'(x) = f(x) & x \in]0, 1[\\ u(0) = u(1) = 0 \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Then solve for the adjoint model

$$\begin{cases} -p''(x) - (c(x)p(x))' = u(x) - u^{\text{obs}}(x) & x \in]0, 1[\\ p(0) = p(1) = 0 \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Hence the gradient: $\nabla J(c(x)) = -u'(x)p(x)$

The adjoint method: a simple example (discrete case)



Model

$$\begin{cases} -u''(x) + c(x) u'(x) = f(x) & x \in]0, 1[\\ u(0) = u(1) = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{cases} -\frac{u_{i+1} - 2u_i + u_{i-1}}{h^2} + c_i \frac{u_{i+1} - u_{i-1}}{2h} = f_i & i = 1 \dots N \\ u_0 = u_{N+1} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Cost function

$$J(c) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (u(x) - u^{\text{obs}}(x))^2 dx \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (u_i - u_i^{\text{obs}})^2$$

Gâteaux derivative:

$$\hat{J}[c](\delta c) = \int_0^1 \hat{u}(x) (u(x) - u^{\text{obs}}(x)) dx \quad \rightarrow \quad \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i (u_i - u_i^{\text{obs}})$$

The adjoint method: a simple example (discrete case)

Tangent linear model

$$\begin{cases} -\hat{u}''(x) + c(x) \hat{u}'(x) = -\delta c(x) u'(x) & x \in]0, 1[\\ \hat{u}(0) = \hat{u}(1) = 0 \end{cases}$$

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Adjoint model

$$\begin{cases} -p''(x) - (c(x) p(x))' = u(x) - u^{\text{obs}}(x) & x \in]0, 1[\\ p(0) = p(1) = 0 \end{cases}$$

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Gradient

$$\nabla J(c(x)) = -u'(x) p(x) \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ -p_i \frac{u_{i+1} - u_{i-1}}{2h} \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

The adjoint method: a simple example (discrete case)

Remark: with matrix notations

What we do when determining the adjoint model is simply **transposing the matrix** which defines the tangent linear model

$$(\hat{\mathbf{M}}\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{P}) = (\hat{\mathbf{U}}, \mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{P})$$

In the preceding example:

$$\hat{\mathbf{M}}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{F} \quad \text{with } \mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 2\alpha & -\alpha + \beta & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -\alpha - \beta & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & -\alpha - \beta & -\alpha + \beta \\ & & & & 2\alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\alpha = 1/h^2, \beta = c_i/2h$$

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$$\alpha = 1/h^2, \beta = c_i/2h$$

But \mathbf{M} is generally not explicitly built in actual complex models...

A more complex (but still linear) example: control of the coefficient of a 1-D diffusion equation

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(K(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) = f(x, t) & x \in]0, L[, t \in]0, T[\\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ u(x, 0) = u_0(x) & x \in [0, L] \end{cases}$$

- ▶ $K(x)$ is unknown
- ▶ $u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)$ an available observation of $u(x, t)$

$$\text{Minimize } J(K(x)) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \int_0^L (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t))^2 dx dt$$

Gâteaux derivative

$$\hat{J}[K](k) = \int_0^T \int_0^L \hat{u}(x, t) (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)) dx dt$$

Gâteaux derivative

$$\hat{J}[\mathcal{K}](k) = \int_0^T \int_0^L \hat{u}(x, t) (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)) dx dt$$

Tangent linear model

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \hat{u}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\mathcal{K}(x) \frac{\partial \hat{u}}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(k(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) & x \in]0, L[, t \in]0, T[\\ \hat{u}(0, t) = \hat{u}(L, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{u}(x, 0) = 0 & x \in [0, L] \end{cases}$$

Gâteaux derivative

$$\hat{J}[K](k) = \int_0^T \int_0^L \hat{u}(x, t) (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)) dx dt$$

Tangent linear model

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \hat{u}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(K(x) \frac{\partial \hat{u}}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(k(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) & x \in]0, L[, t \in]0, T[\\ \hat{u}(0, t) = \hat{u}(L, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{u}(x, 0) = 0 & x \in [0, L] \end{cases}$$

Adjoint model

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(K(x) \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \right) = u - u^{\text{obs}} & x \in]0, L[, t \in]0, T[\\ p(0, t) = p(L, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ p(x, T) = 0 & x \in [0, L] \end{cases} \text{ final condition !! } \rightarrow \text{backward integration}$$

Gâteaux derivative of J

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{J}[K](k) &= \int_0^T \int_0^L \hat{u}(x, t) (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)) \, dx \, dt \\ &= \int_0^T \int_0^L k(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \, dx \, dt\end{aligned}$$

Gradient of J

$$\nabla J = \int_0^T \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(\cdot, t) \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}(\cdot, t) \, dt \quad \text{function of } x$$

Discrete version:

same as for the preceding ODE, but with $\sum_{n=0}^N \sum_{i=1}^I u_i^n$

Matrix interpretation: **M** is much more complex than previously !!



A nonlinear example: the Burgers' equation



The assimilation problem

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \nu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = f & x \in]0, L[, t \in [0, T] \\ u(0, t) = \psi_1(t) & t \in [0, T] \\ u(L, t) = \psi_2(t) & t \in [0, T] \\ u(x, 0) = u_0(x) & x \in [0, L] \end{cases}$$

- ▶ $u_0(x)$ is unknown
- ▶ $u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)$ an **observation** of $u(x, t)$
- ▶ **Cost function:** $J(u_0) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \int_0^L (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t))^2 dx dt$

Gâteaux derivative

$$\hat{J}[u_0](h_0) = \int_0^T \int_0^L \hat{u}(x, t) (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)) dx dt$$

Gâteaux derivative

$$\hat{J}[u_0](h_0) = \int_0^T \int_0^L \hat{u}(x, t) (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)) \, dx \, dt$$

Tangent linear model

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \hat{u}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(u\hat{u})}{\partial x} - \nu \frac{\partial^2 \hat{u}}{\partial x^2} = 0 & x \in]0, L[, t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{u}(0, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{u}(L, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{u}(x, 0) = h_0(x) & x \in [0, L] \end{cases}$$

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$$\hat{J}[u_0](h_0) = \int_0^T \int_0^L \hat{u}(x, t) (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)) dx dt$$

Tangent linear model

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \hat{u}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(u\hat{u})}{\partial x} - \nu \frac{\partial^2 \hat{u}}{\partial x^2} = 0 & x \in]0, L[, t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{u}(0, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{u}(L, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{u}(x, 0) = h_0(x) & x \in [0, L] \end{cases}$$

Adjoint model

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \nu \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} = (u - u^{\text{obs}}) & x \in]0, L[, t \in [0, T] \\ p(0, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ p(L, t) = 0 & t \in [0, T] \\ p(x, T) = 0 & x \in [0, L] \end{cases} \text{ final condition !! } \rightarrow \text{ backward integration}$$

Gâteaux derivative of J

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{J}[u_0](h_0) &= \int_0^T \int_0^L \hat{u}(x, t) (u(x, t) - u^{\text{obs}}(x, t)) \, dx \, dt \\ &= - \int_0^L h_0(x) p(x, 0) \, dx\end{aligned}$$

Gradient of J

$$\nabla J = -p(\cdot, 0) \quad \text{function of } x$$

Derivation and validation of an adjoint code

Writing an adjoint code

- ▶ obeys systematic rules
- ▶ is not the most interesting task you can imagine
- ▶ there exists automatic differentiation softwares:
→ cf <http://www.autodiff.org>

Validation tests

- ▶ of the tangent linear model: compare $M(x + \delta x) - M(x)$ with $\mathbf{M}[x](\delta x)$ for small values of $\|\delta x\|$
- ▶ of the adjoint model: compare $(\mathbf{M}x, z)$ with (x, \mathbf{M}^*z)
- ▶ of the gradient: compare the directional derivative $(\nabla J(x), d)$ with the growth rate $\frac{J(x + \alpha d) - J(x)}{\alpha}$ (where $\nabla J(x)$ is the gradient given by the adjoint code)

Possible other uses for an adjoint model

The (local) sensitivity problem

How much is a particular model output Z_{out} sensitive to any change in a particular model input c_{in} ? $\rightarrow \nabla_{c_{in}} Z_{out}$

$$J_o(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N \|H_i(M_{0 \rightarrow t_i}(\mathbf{x}_0)) - \mathbf{y}(t_i)\|_0^2 \quad \text{is replaced by } Z_{out}(c_{in}).$$

Possible other uses for an adjoint model

The (local) sensitivity problem

How much is a particular model output Z_{out} sensitive to any change in a particular model input c_{in} ? $\rightarrow \nabla_{c_{in}} Z_{out}$

$$J_o(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N \|H_i(M_{0 \rightarrow t_i}(\mathbf{x}_0)) - \mathbf{y}(t_i)\|_o^2 \quad \text{is replaced by } Z_{out}(c_{in}).$$

The stability problem

Let consider a dynamical system: $\mathbf{x}(t)$ the state vector, $M_{t_1 \rightarrow t_2}$ the model between t_1 and t_2 .

Find the optimal perturbation $\mathbf{z}_1^*(t_1)$ that maximizes

$$\rho(\mathbf{z}(t_1)) = \frac{\|M_{t_1 \rightarrow t_2}(\mathbf{x}(t_1) + \mathbf{z}(t_1)) - M_{t_1 \rightarrow t_2}(\mathbf{x}(t_1))\|}{\|\mathbf{z}(t_1)\|}$$

\rightarrow leading eigenvectors of $\mathbf{M}_{t_1 \rightarrow t_2}^* \mathbf{M}_{t_1 \rightarrow t_2}$ (singular vector theory)

Summary

In summary

- ▶ Several methods, either variational or statistical, that faces the same difficulties: non linearities, huge dimension, poorly known error statistics...
- ▶ **Variational methods:**
 - ▶ a series of approximations of the cost function, corresponding to a series of methods
 - ▶ the more sophisticated ones (**4D-Var**, **incremental 4D-Var**) require the tangent linear and adjoint models (the development of which is a real investment)
- ▶ **Statistical methods:**
 - ▶ **extended Kalman filter** handle (weakly) non linear problems (requires the TL model)
 - ▶ **reduced order Kalman filters** address huge dimension problems
 - ▶ a quite efficient method, addressing both problems: **ensemble Kalman filters** (EnKF)
 - ▶ these are so called “Gaussian filters”
 - ▶ **particle filters:** currently being developed - fully Bayesian approach - still limited to low dimension problems

Some present research directions

- ▶ **new methods**: less expensive, more robust w.r.t. nonlinearities and/or non gaussianity (particle filters, En4DVar, BFN...)
- ▶ better management of **errors** (prior statistics, identification, a posteriori validation...)
- ▶ “**complex**” **observations** (images, Lagrangian data...)
- ▶ **new application domains** (often leading to new methodological questions)
- ▶ definition of **observing systems**, **sensitivity analysis**...

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Two announcements

- ▶ **CNA 2014:** 5ème Colloque National d'Assimilation de données
Toulouse, 1-3 décembre 2014
- ▶ **Doctoral course “Introduction to data assimilation”**
Grenoble, January 5-9, 2015