# Assimilation Algorithms: Ensemble Kalman Filters

Massimo Bonavita

#### ECMWF

Massimo.Bonavita@ecmwf.int

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# Outline

- The Standard Kalman Filter
- Kalman Filters for large dimensional systems
- A Monte Carlo implementation of the Kalman Filter: the Ensemble Kalman Filter
- Ensemble Kalman Filters in Hybrid Data Assimilation



 In the Overview talk we have seen that, assuming all errors have Gaussian statistics, the posterior (i.e., analysis) distribution p(x | y) can also be expressed as a Gaussian distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} |\mathbf{R}|^{1/2}} exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}))^T (\mathbf{R})^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}))\right)$$
$$p(\mathbf{x}_b | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} |\mathbf{P}_B|^{1/2}} exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_b - \mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{P}_B)^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_b - \mathbf{x})\right)$$
$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}_b | \mathbf{x}) \propto exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}))^T (\mathbf{R})^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})) - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_b - \mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{P}_B)^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_b - \mathbf{x})\right)$$

- Kalman Filter methods are designed to find the mean and covariance of this posterior distribution and to cycle it in time
- Under this Gaussian assumption, knowing the mean and covariance of p(xly) amounts to knowing the full posterior pdf

• Let us consider a univariate 1-D example:

Assume we are analysing a single state variable x, whose errors are zero mean and normally distributed around its background forecast  $x_b$ :

$$p(x_b|x) = \frac{1}{\left(2\pi\sigma_b^2\right)^{1/2}} exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x_b-x)^2}{\sigma_b^2}\right) \sim \mathcal{N}(x_b,\sigma_b^2)$$

We have one observation of the state variable, also with Gaussian errors:

$$p(y|x) = \frac{1}{\left(2\pi\sigma_o^2\right)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(y-x)^2}{\sigma_o^2}\right) \sim \mathcal{N}(y,\sigma_o^2)$$

Applying Bayes theorem we find:

$$p(x|y) \propto p(y|x)p(x_b|x) \propto exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(y-x)^2}{\sigma_b^2} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{(x_b-x)^2}{\sigma_b^2}\right) \propto exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_b^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_o^2}\right)x^2 - 2\left(\frac{x_b}{\sigma_b^2} + \frac{y}{\sigma_o^2}\right)x\right)\right)$$

Comparing to a standard Gaussian distribution:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)x^2 - 2\left(\frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}\right)x + \left(\frac{\mu^2}{\sigma^2}\right)\right)\right)$$

we see that the posterior distribution p(x|y) is also Gaussian with mean and variance:

$$Var(x|y) = \sigma^{2} = \left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{b}^{2}} + \frac{1}{\sigma_{o}^{2}}\right)^{-1} = \frac{\sigma_{o}^{2}\sigma_{b}^{2}}{\sigma_{o}^{2} + \sigma_{b}^{2}}$$
$$E(x|y) = \mu = \sigma^{2} \left(\frac{x_{b}}{\sigma_{b}^{2}} + \frac{y}{\sigma_{o}^{2}}\right) = \frac{\sigma_{o}^{2}\sigma_{b}^{2}}{\sigma_{o}^{2} + \sigma_{b}^{2}} \left(\frac{x_{b}}{\sigma_{b}^{2}} + \frac{y}{\sigma_{o}^{2}}\right) = \frac{\sigma_{o}^{2}}{\sigma_{o}^{2} + \sigma_{b}^{2}} x_{b} + \frac{\sigma_{b}^{2}}{\sigma_{o}^{2} + \sigma_{b}^{2}} y$$

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Defining the Kalman gain:  $K \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\sigma_b^2}{\sigma_o^2 + \sigma_b^2}$  the equations for the mean and variance can be

recast as:

$$Var(x|y) = \sigma_a^2 = \frac{\sigma_o^2 \sigma_b^2}{\sigma_o^2 + \sigma_b^2} = (1 - K)\sigma_b^2$$
$$E(x|y) = x_a = \frac{\sigma_o^2}{\sigma_o^2 + \sigma_b^2} x_b + \frac{\sigma_b^2}{\sigma_o^2 + \sigma_b^2} y = x_b + K(y - x_b)$$

The posterior variance is thus reduced (1-K<0) with respect to the prior (background) variance, while the posterior mean is a linear, weighted average of the prior (background) and the observation.



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• These Kalman Filter analysis update equations can be generalised to the multi-dimensional and multivariate case (Wikle and Berliner, 2007; Bromiley, 2014):

 $E(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}_{a} = \mathbf{x}_{b} + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}_{b}))$   $Var(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{P}^{a} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H})\mathbf{P}^{b}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H})^{T} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{K}^{T} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H})\mathbf{P}^{b} - \mathbf{P}^{b}\mathbf{H}^{T}\mathbf{K}^{T} + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^{b}\mathbf{H}^{T} + \mathbf{R})\mathbf{K}^{T} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H})\mathbf{P}^{b}$   $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{P}^{b}\mathbf{H}^{T}(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^{b}\mathbf{H}^{T} + \mathbf{R})^{-1} = ((\mathbf{P}^{b})^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^{T}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{H})^{-1}\mathbf{H}^{T}\mathbf{R}^{-1}$ 

- These are the same update equations for the state *x* and its uncertainty **P** obtained in the lecture on Assimilation Algorithms (1).
- In that context they were derived without making assumptions of Gaussianity, but looking for the analysis estimate which had: 1) the minimum error variance and 2) could be expressed as a linear combination of the background and the observations (we called it the BLUE, Best Linear Unbiased Estimate). Linearity of observation operator and model was invoked.
- If the background and observations are normally distributed, the KF update equations give the mean and the covariance of the posterior distribution. Under these hypotheses the posterior distribution is also Gaussian, so we have completely solved the problem!

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• In NWP applications of data assimilation we want to update our estimate of the state and its uncertainty at later times, as new observations come in: we want to cycle the assimilation



- For each analysis update in this cycle, we require a background x<sup>b</sup><sub>t</sub> (i.e. a prior estimate of the state valid at time t)
- Usually, our best prior estimate of the state at time t is given by a forecast from the preceding analysis at time t-1 (the "background"):

$$\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{b}}_{\mathrm{t}} = \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{a}}_{\mathrm{t-1}})$$

• What is the error covariance matrix (=> the uncertainty) associated with this background?

 $\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{b}}_{\mathrm{t}} = \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{a}}_{\mathrm{t-1}})$ 

• Subtract the true state  $\mathbf{x}_{t}^{*}$  from both sides of the equation:

$$\mathbf{x}^{b} - \mathbf{x}^{*}_{t} = \mathbf{\epsilon}^{b}_{t} = \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{x}^{a}_{t-1}) - \mathbf{x}^{*}_{t}$$

• Since 
$$\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{a} = \mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{*} + \mathbf{\varepsilon}_{t-1}^{a}$$
 we have:

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{b}_{t} = \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{x}^{*}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{a}_{t-1}) - \mathbf{x}^{*}_{t} \approx$$
$$\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{x}^{*}_{t-1}) + \mathbf{M}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{a}_{t-1} - \mathbf{x}^{*}_{t} =$$
$$\mathbf{M}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{a}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\eta}_{t}$$

- Here we have defined the model error  $\eta_t \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} M(x_{t-1}^*) x_t^*$
- We assume small errors (linearisation of model) and no systematic errors are present in our system (or have been separately dealt with!)

$$\langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{a} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{\eta} \rangle = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{b} \rangle = 0$$

• The background error covariance matrix will then be given by:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{b}}_{t} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \boldsymbol{<} \mathbf{\epsilon}^{\mathbf{b}}_{t} \left( \mathbf{\epsilon}^{\mathbf{b}}_{t} \right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{>} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \boldsymbol{<} (\mathbf{M} \mathbf{\epsilon}^{\mathbf{a}}_{t-1} + \mathbf{\eta}_{t}) \left( \mathbf{M} \mathbf{\epsilon}^{\mathbf{a}}_{t-1} + \mathbf{\eta}_{t} \right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{>} = \\ \mathbf{M} \boldsymbol{<} \mathbf{\epsilon}^{\mathbf{a}}_{t-1} \left( \mathbf{\epsilon}^{\mathbf{a}}_{t-1} \right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{>} \mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}} + \boldsymbol{<} \mathbf{\eta}_{t} \left( \mathbf{\eta}_{t} \right)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{>} = \\ &= \mathbf{M} \mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{a}}_{t-1} \mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{Q}_{t} \end{split}$$

- Here we have assumed  $\langle \epsilon^{a}_{t-1} (\eta_{t})^{T} \rangle = 0$  and defined the model error covariance matrix  $\mathbf{Q}_{t} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle \eta_{t} (\eta_{t})^{T} \rangle$
- Note how the background error is described as the sum of the errors of the previous analysis propagated by the linear (or linearised) model dynamics to the time of the new update (M P<sup>a</sup><sub>t-1</sub> M<sup>T</sup>, also called "predictability" error covariance) and the new additive errors introduced by the model integration (Q<sub>t</sub>)
- We now have all the equations necessary to propagate and update both the state and its error estimates



- Under the assumption that the model M and the observation operator H are linear operators (i.e., they do not depend on the state x), the Kalman Filter produces an optimal sequence of analyses (x<sup>a</sup><sub>1</sub>, x<sup>a</sup><sub>2</sub>, ..., x<sup>a</sup><sub>t-1</sub>, x<sup>a</sup><sub>t</sub>)
- The KF analysis  $\mathbf{x}_{t}^{a}$  is the best (minimum error variance) linear unbiased estimate of the state at time t, given  $\mathbf{x}_{t}^{b}$  and all observations up to time t ( $\mathbf{y}_{0}$ , $\mathbf{y}_{1}$ ,..., $\mathbf{y}_{t}$ ).
- Note that Gaussianity of errors has not been invoked. If errors are Gaussian the Kalman Filter provides the correct posterior conditional probability estimate (according to Bayes' Law), i.e. p(x<sup>a</sup><sub>t</sub>| x<sup>b</sup><sub>0</sub>; y<sub>0</sub>,y<sub>1</sub>,...,y<sub>t</sub>). This also implies that if errors are Gaussian then the state estimated with the KF is also the most likely state (the mode of the pdf).

## **Extended Standard Kalman Filter**

 The extended Kalman Filter (EKF) is a non-linear extension of the Kalman Filter where the model and observation operators are allowed to be nonlinear operators (independent of the state) as in the standard KF:

 $y = \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_b) + \varepsilon_o \quad (\mathsf{EKF}) \qquad \qquad \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}_b + \varepsilon_o \quad (\mathsf{KF})$  $\mathbf{x}_b = \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{x}_a) + \eta \quad (\mathsf{EKF}) \qquad \qquad \mathbf{x}_b = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{x}_a + \eta \quad (\mathsf{KF})$ 

• The covariance update and prediction steps of the KF equations use the Jacobians of the model and observation operators, linearized around the current state estimate:

$$\mathbf{M} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{M}}{\partial x}(\mathbf{x}_{t}), \quad \mathbf{H} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial x}(\mathbf{x}_{t})$$

- The EKF is thus a first order linearization of the KF equations around the current state estimates. Reasonable for systems which are only moderately nonlinear on the timescales of the DA cycle update interval
- A type of EKF has long been used in the land DA community (and ECMWF) in the analysis of soil variables (Simplified Extended Kalman Filter, SEKF). More on this later this week in the Land DA lecture.

- The Kalman Filter (standard or extended) is unfeasible for large dimensional systems
- The size N of the analysis/background state in the ECMWF 4DVar is  $O(10^8)$ : the KF requires us to store and evolve in time state covariance matrices ( $P^{a/b}$ ) of O(NxN)
  - > The World's fastest computer can sustain ~ 10<sup>18</sup> operations per second
  - An efficient implementation of matrix multiplication of two 10<sup>8</sup>x10<sup>8</sup> matrices requires ~10<sup>22</sup> (O(N<sup>2.8</sup>))operations: hours on current fast HPCs!
  - Brute force evaluating P<sup>b</sup><sub>t</sub> = M P<sup>a</sup><sub>t-1</sub> M<sup>T</sup> + Q<sub>k</sub> requires 2\*N≈2\*10<sup>8</sup> model integrations!
- A range of approximate Kalman Filters has been developed for use with largedimensional systems.
- All of these methods rely on some form of low-rank approximation of the state covariance matrices.

- Let us assume that P<sup>a/b</sup> has rank M<<N (e.g. M≈100). (rank=dim. of vector space spanned by its columns/rows)</li>
- In this case we can write  $P^{b} = X^{b}(X^{b})^{T}$ , where  $X^{b}_{k}$  is N x M. This decomposition also assures us that the resulting  $P^{b}$  is positive semi definite.  $X^{b}$  is a thin matrix!
- The Kalman Gain then becomes:

 $K = P^{b} H^{T} (H P^{b} H^{T} + R)^{-1} =$  $X^{b} (X^{b})^{T} H^{T} (H X^{b} (X^{b})^{T} H^{T} + R)^{-1} =$  $X^{b} (HX^{b})^{T} (H X^{b} (HX^{b})^{T} + R)^{-1}$ 

- Note that, to evaluate K, we apply H to the M columns of  $X^{\rm b}$  rather than to the N columns of  $P^{\rm b}!$
- The N x N matrices P<sup>a/b</sup> have been eliminated from the computation! In their place we have to deal with thin N x M (X<sup>b</sup>) matrices in state space and their observation space projections HX<sup>b</sup> matrices which have dimension L x M (L = number of observations)

- The approximated KF described above is called Reduced-Rank Kalman Filter (RRKF)
- Unsurprisingly, there is a price to pay for this huge reduction in computational cost
- The analysis increment is a linear combination of the columns of **X**<sup>b</sup>:

 $\mathbf{x}^{a} - \mathbf{x}^{b} = \mathbf{K} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^{b})) = \mathbf{X}^{b} (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{X}^{b})^{T} ((\mathbf{H}\mathbf{X}^{b})(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{X}^{b})^{T} + \mathbf{R})^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^{b}))$ 

- The whole blue part of the equation computes to a vector of size M (ie, the number of columns of  $X^{\rm b}$ , which is the rank of  $P^{\rm b}$ )!
- The analysis increments are thus formed as a linear combination of the columns of X<sup>b</sup>: they are confined to the column subspace of X<sup>b</sup>, which has at most rank M << N.</li>
- This severe reduction in rank of P<sup>a/b</sup> has two main effects:
  - There are only M (~100) degrees of freedom available to fit the O(10<sup>7</sup>) observations available during the analysis window: the analysis will smooth out local detail;
  - 2. The low-rank approximations of the covariance matrices suffer from spurious long-distance correlations and cross-correlations.

- Localization of the analysis update is the standard solution to the rank deficiency/sampling noise problem. It comes in two main flavours:
  - 1. Domain localization (also called "Observation space localization", Houtekamer and Mitchell, 1998; Ott *et al.* 2004);
- Domain localization solves the analysis equations independently for each grid point, or for each of a set of regions covering the domain (very good for parallelisation!)
- Each analysis uses only observations that are local to the grid point (or region) and the observations are usually weighted according to their distance from the analysed grid point (e.g., Hunt *et al.*, 2007)
- This guarantees that the analysis at each grid point (or region/column) is not influenced by distant observations (-> noisy grid point – obs correlations are suppressed)
- The method acts to vastly increase the dimension of the sub-space in which the analysis increment is constructed because each grid point (region/column) is updated by a different linear combination of ensemble perturbations
- However, performing independent analyses for each region can lead to a) reduced skill in the analysis of the large scales and b) in producing balanced analyses.

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Domain localization (e.g. Houtekamer and Mitchell, 1998; Ott *et al.* 2004, Hunt et al., 2007);

- Analysed grid point
  - Local observations





- 2. Covariance localization (also called "Model space localization", Houtekamer and Mitchell, 2001).
- Covariance localization is performed by element wise (Schur) multiplication of the error covariance matrices with a predefined correlation matrix representing a decaying function of distance (vertical and/or horizontal).

 $P^{b} \rightarrow \rho_{L} \circ P^{b}$ 

- In this way spurious long-range correlations in  $I\!\!P^b$  are suppressed.  $\rho_L$  is often called a "moderation function"
- As for domain localization, the method acts to vastly increase the dimension of the subspace in which the analysis increment is constructed.
- Choosing the product function is non-trivial and largely heuristic. It is easy to modify P<sup>b</sup> in undesirable ways. In particular, physical balance relationships (e.g. geostrophy) may be adversely affected and long-distance correlations will be ignored.
- In order to suppress sampling noise some of the information content of the observations is always lost



Figure 4. Similar to Figure 1 but at 00:00 UTC 18 January with the yellow star point at 46.389°N, 176.25°W and for different ensemble sizes ((a) 20, (c) 80, (d) 320, (e) 1280, and (f) 10,240 members) and (b) with localization for 20 members.

#### Miyoshi et al., 2014

Random sampling of vertical background error correlation matrix for different ensemble sizes.

Note how sampling noise decreases slowly with ensemble size O(M<sup>1/2</sup>)







- Standard Error of sample correlation  $\approx (1-\rho^2)/\sqrt{(N_{ens}-1)}$
- For small  $\rho$ , N<sub>ens</sub> SE becomes ~  $\rho$  (e.g.  $\rho=0.1$ , N<sub>ens</sub>=40 => stderr( $\rho$ ) $\approx$ 0.16)
- Since  $\rho$  becomes small for large horiz./vert. distances, we apply distance based covariance localization on the sample P<sup>f</sup>



- Domain/Covariance localization is a practical requirement for using the KF in large dimensional applications
- Finding the right amount of localization is an (expensive) tuning exercise: a good trade-off needs to be found between computational effort, controlling sampling error and not losing observational information
- Finding the "optimal" localization scales as functions of the system characteristics is an area of active research (e.g., Flowerdew, 2015; Periáñez et al., 2014; Menetrier et al., 2014; Bishop, 2017)
- Recent ideas on how to combine domain and covariance localisation will also play a role (eg, domain loc. in the horizontal, covariance loc. in the vertical, Farchi and Bocquet, 2019)

- Ensemble Kalman Filters (EnKF, Evensen, 1994; Houtekamer and Mitchell, 1998; Burgers et al., 1998, Houtekamer and Zhang, 2016) are Monte Carlo implementations of the reduced rank KF
- In EnKF error covariances are constructed as sample covariances from an ensemble of background/analysis fields, of size M<<N:</li>

$$\mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{b}} = \frac{1}{M-1} \Sigma_{\mathbf{m}} (\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{b}}_{\mathbf{m}} - \langle \mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{b}}_{\mathbf{m}} \rangle) (\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{b}}_{\mathbf{m}} - \langle \mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{b}}_{\mathbf{m}} \rangle)^{\mathrm{T}} =$$
$$= \mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{b}} (\mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{b}})^{\mathrm{T}}$$

• **X**<sup>b</sup> is the *N* x *M* matrix of normalised background perturbations, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{X}^{b} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M-1}} \left( (\mathbf{x}^{b}_{1} - \langle \mathbf{x}^{b} \rangle), (\mathbf{x}^{b}_{2} - \langle \mathbf{x}^{b} \rangle), ..., (\mathbf{x}^{b}_{M} - \langle \mathbf{x}^{b} \rangle) \right)$$

 Note that the full covariance matrix is never formed explicitly: The error covariances are usually computed locally for each grid point (or column) in the M x M ensemble space

 In the standard KF the error covariances are explicitly computed and propagated in time using the tangent linear and adjoint of the model and observation operators, i.e.:

 $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{b}} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{H} \, \mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{b}} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{R})^{-1}$  $\mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{b}} = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{Q}$ 

In the EnKF the error covariances are sampled from the ensemble forecasts
 (M(x<sub>m</sub>)) and their observation equivalents (H(M(x<sub>m</sub>))) and the huge matrix P<sup>b</sup> is
 never explicitly formed:

$$P^{b}H^{T} = X^{b}(X^{b})^{T}H^{T} = X^{b}(HX^{b})^{T} \approx \frac{1}{M-1}\Sigma_{m}(x^{b}_{m} - \langle x^{b}_{m} \rangle) (Hx^{b}_{m} - \langle H(x^{b}_{m}) \rangle)^{T}$$
$$HP^{b}H^{T} = HX^{b}(HX^{b})^{T} \approx \frac{1}{M-1}\Sigma_{m}(Hx^{b}_{m} - \langle H(x^{b}_{m}) \rangle) (Hx^{b}_{m} - \langle H(x^{b}_{m}) \rangle)^{T}$$

• Not having to code and maintain TL and ADJ operators is a distinct advantage!

In the EnKF the error covariances are sampled from the ensemble forecasts. They reflect uncertainties in the state of the atmospheric flow



Standard deviation of surface pressure background t+6h fcst (shaded, Pa) Z1000 background t+6h fcst (black isolines)

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- The Ensemble Kalman Filter is a Monte Carlo technique: it requires us to generate a sample  $\{x_{m}^{b}; m=1,..,M\}$  drawn from the pdf of background error: how to do this?
- We can generate this from a sample  $\{x^{a}_{t-1,m}; m=1,..,M\}$  of the pdf of analysis error for the previous cycle:

$$\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{b}}_{\mathrm{t,m}} = \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{a}}_{\mathrm{t-1,m}}) + \mathbf{\eta}_{\mathrm{m}}$$

where  $\eta_{\rm m}$  is a sample drawn from the pdf of model error.

• This shifts the problem to: How do we generate a sample from the analysis pdf? Let us look at the analysis update again:

$$\mathbf{x}^{a} = \mathbf{x}^{b} + \mathbf{K} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^{b})) = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H}) \mathbf{x}^{b} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{y}$$

• If we subtract the true state  $x^*$  from both sides (and assume  $y^*=Hx^*$ )

$$\mathbf{e}^{\mathrm{a}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H}) \, \mathbf{e}^{\mathrm{b}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{e}^{\mathrm{o}}$$

• i.e., the errors have the same update equation as the state

 Consider now an ensemble of analysis where all the inputs to the analysis (i.e., the background forecast and the observations) have been perturbed according to their errors:

 $\mathbf{x}^{a'} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H}) \mathbf{x}^{b'} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{y}'$ 

- If we subtract the unperturbed analysis  $\mathbf{x}^{a} = (I-KH) \mathbf{x}^{b} + K\mathbf{y}$ 

 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{a} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H}) \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{b} + \mathbf{K}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{o}$ 

- Note that the **observations** (during the update step) and the **model** (during the forecast step) are **perturbed explicitly** (i.e., we add random numbers with prescribed statistics).
- The **background** is **implicitly perturbed**, i.e.:

$$\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{b}}_{\mathrm{t,m}} = \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{a}}_{\mathrm{t-1,m}}) + \mathbf{\eta}_{\mathrm{m}}$$

- Hence, one way to generate a sample drawn from the pdf of analysis error is to perturb the observations and the model with perturbations drawn from their error covariances.
- The EnKF based on this idea is called Perturbed Observations (Stochastic) EnKF (Houtekamer and Mitchell, 1998). It is also the basis of ECMWF EDA (more on this later)

• Another way to construct the analysis sample without perturbing the observations (but still perturb the model!) is to make a linear combination of the background sample:

$$X^a = X^b T$$

where **T** is a linear transformation (M x M) chosen so that it produces the correct analysis covariance when applied to  $X^{b}$ :

$$\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{a}}(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{a}})^{\mathrm{T}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{b}}\mathbf{T}) (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{b}}\mathbf{T})^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{a}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H})\mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{b}}$$

- Note that the choice of T is not unique: Any orthonormal transformation Q (QQ<sup>T</sup>=Q<sup>T</sup>Q=I) can be applied to T and give another valid analysis sample
- Implementations also differ on the treatment of observations (i.e., local patches, one at a time)
- Consequently there are a number of different, functionally equivalent, implementations of the Deterministic EnKF (ETKF, Bishop *et al.*, 2001; LETKF, Ott *et al.*, 2004, Hunt *et al.*, 2007; EnSRF, Whitaker and Hamill, 2002; EAF, Anderson, 2001;...)

- We might want to ask the questions:
  - 1. How good is the EnKF for state estimation?
  - 2. How does it compare with 4D-Var?



- We might want to ask the questions:
  - 1. How good is the EnKF for state estimation?
  - 2. How does it compare with 4D-Var?
- The short answer: it depends...

(more detailed answers in Hamrud et al, 2015; Bonavita et al, 2015; Bonavita et al, 2020)



• For sparsely observed systems the EnKF works quite well:



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• For densely observed systems the EnKF works not quite as well as 4D-Var:



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- Advantages:
  - 1. Background/Analysis error estimates reflect state of the flow
  - 2. Provides an ensemble of analyses: can use to directly initialise ensemble prediction
  - 3. Competitive with 4D-Var for sparsely observed systems (eg early period reanalysis, Ocean/Land DA, etc.)
  - 4. Excellent scalability properties
  - 5. Relative ease of coding and maintenance (No TL and ADJ models!)

- Disadvantages:
  - 1. The affordable ensembles are relatively small (O(100)), thus sampling noise and rank deficiency of the sampled error covariances become a performance limiting factor for the EnKF (Stop the press! ML models are very cheap to run, could make order of magnitudes larger ensemble possible...)
  - Careful localization of sampled covariances becomes necessary: This is an on-going research topic for both EnKF and Ensemble Variational systems. Note that localisation reduces amount of information that can be extracted from observations
  - 3. Vertical covariance localization becomes conceptually and practically more difficult for observations (e.g., satellite radiances) which are non-local, i.e. they sample a layer of the atmosphere (Campbell *et al.*, 2010).



FIG. 1. AMSU-A weighting functions for channels 6–11 projected onto the 30 levels of NOGAPS.

from Campbell et al., 2010

- It is more effective (and mathematically consistent) to do model space localisation in the vertical for nonlocal observations like those from satellite sounders (Campbell *et al.*, 2010).
- Model space localisation can be implemented also in LETKF type of EnKF, using an expanded ensemble in the analysis step ("modulated ensemble". Whitaker, 2016, Bishop et al., 2017). This is more computationally expensive (larger ensemble) but the additional cost can be absorbed by updating the whole vertical column at once
- Further details in Lei et al, 2018 and references therein; Farchi and Bocquet, 2019

- Minuses:
  - 4. EnKF produces linear analysis updates. However high-resolution models and new cloud/precip. sensitive observations (e.g., rain radar, cloud/rain affected radiances, etc) are increasingly nonlinear. What to do?
    - 1. Iterate the analysis, similar to what incremental 4D-Var does (e.g., Iterative EnKF, Sakov, 2012; Sakov et al., 2018). Conceptually easy but computationally expensive;
    - Extend the Gaussian framework of the EnKF to classes of non-Gaussian pdfs. This can be done in a variety of ways, e.g. Gaussian Mixture models (Andersson and Andersson, 1999; Bengtsson et al. 2003; Hoteit et al. 2008, 2012; Stordal et al. 2011; Frei and Künsch, 2013), GIGGS Filter (Bishop, 2016); expansion to higher orders in the innovations (Hodyss, 2011);
    - 3. A combination of 1 and 2 (e.g., Posselt and Bishop, 2018);
    - 4. Rank Histogram Filters (Andersson, 2010, 2020; Metref et al, 2014)
    - 5. Employ some combination/hybrid of EnKF and Particle Filter (see for example: Van Leeuwen, Y. Cheng and S. Reich, 2015; Carrassi et al, 2017; Google this for even more recent results!)
    - 6. Let the EnKF give up gracefully in presence of increasing nonlinearity (Bonavita, Geer and Hamrud, 2020)
    - 7. Increase frequency of analysis updates (6h->3h->1h->...)

#### Ensemble Kalman Filters in hybrid DA

 While the pure EnKF is not currently competitive with variational methods for state estimation in global NWP, its good scalability properties and ease of maintenance make it a popular choice as a Monte Carlo system to estimate and cycle the error covariances (P<sup>a/b</sup>) needed in a variational analysis system and to initialise an ensemble prediction system: hybrid Variational-EnKF analysis systems (NCEP, CMC, UKMO, JMA)

## Dual-Res Coupled Hybrid Var/EnKF Cycling



## Summary

- For linear model M and the observation operators H the Kalman Filter produces an optimal (minimum error variance) sequence of analyses  $(x_1^a, x_2^a, ..., x_{t-1}^a, x_t^a)$
- Under the additional assumption of Gaussian errors the Kalman Filter provides the exact posterior probability estimate, p(x<sup>a</sup><sub>t</sub>| x<sup>b</sup><sub>0</sub>; y<sub>0</sub>,y<sub>1</sub>,...,y<sub>t</sub>).
- Kalman Filters are impractical for large-dimensional systems like in NWP, due to the impossibility of storing and evolving the state error covariance matrices (P<sup>a/b</sup>)
- We need to use reduced-rank representations of the state error covariance matrices: this can be done, but has other drawbacks (need for localisation, physical imbalances, etc.)
- The Ensemble Kalman Filter is a Monte Carlo implementation of the reduced-rank Kalman Filter. It works well for sparsely observed systems, but for well observed systems the severe rank reduction can be a performance limiting factor
- The EnKF (and its variants) are currently used in many global NWP Centres as the error cycling component of a hybrid Variational-EnKF system

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