Assimilation Algorithms Lecture 1: Basic Concepts

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ECMWF

17 March 2025





Forehead	37.5°C	
Armpit L	36.0°C	





Forehead	37.5°C
Armpit L	36.0°C 36.3°C



Forehead	37.5°C
Armpit L	36.0°C
	36.3°C
Armpit R	36.2°C
	36.2°C





Forehead	37.5°C	A priori
	36.3°C	Observation bias Observation error Obs. operator error
Ampit n	36.2°C	Obs. operator error

Outline

- History and Terminology
- Elementary Statistics The Scalar Analysis Problem
- Extension to Multiple Dimensions
- Optimal Interpolation
- Summary



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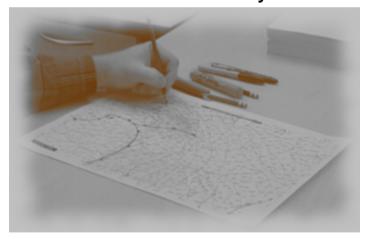


Interpreting the weather situation

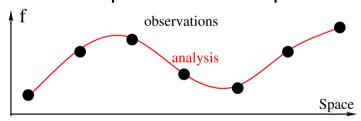
Definition

Analysis: The process of approximating the true state of a (geo-)physical system at a given time using the available knowledge.

First hand analysis of synoptic observations in 1850 by LeVerrier and Fitzroy.



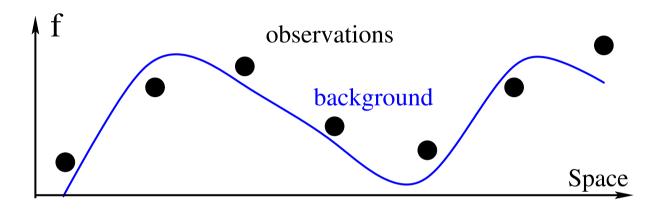
Polynomial Interpolation in the 1950s by Panofsky with the developments of computers



The black dots denote the data points, while the red curve shows the polynomial interpolation.

Background

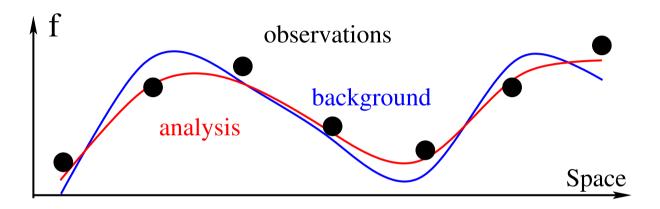
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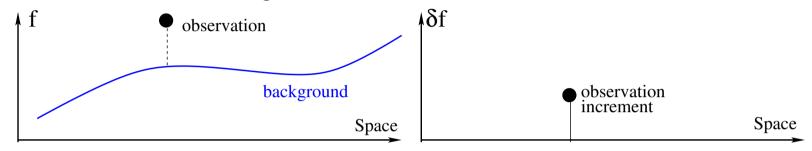


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Optimal interpolation

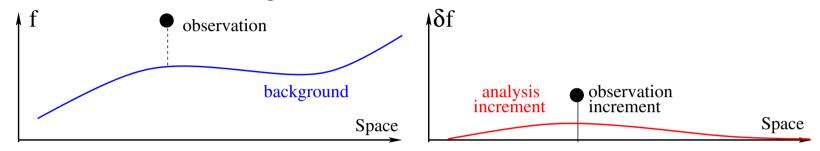
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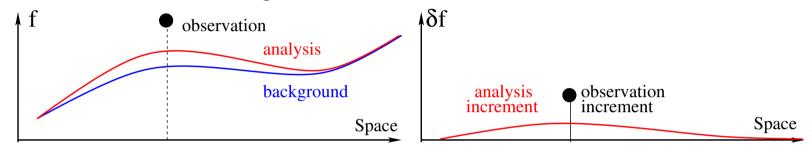
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Optimal interpolation

➤ Bergthorsson and Döös (1955) took the idea of using a background field a step further by casting the analysis problem in terms of increments which were added to the background.



- The increments were weighted linear combinations of nearby observation increments (observation minus background), with the weights determined statistically.
- ✗ This idea of statistical combination of background and synoptic observations led ultimately to Optimal Interpolation.
- ✗ The use of statistics to merge model fields with observations is fundamental to all current methods of analysis.



- ★ An important change of emphasis happened in the early 1970s with the introduction of primitive-equation models.
- ➤ Primitive equation models support inertia-gravity waves. This makes them much more fussy about their initial conditions than the filtered models that had been used hitherto.
- ✗ The analysis procedure became much more intimately linked with the model. The analysis had to produce an initial state that respected the model's dynamical balances.
- Unbalanced increments from the analysis procedure would be rejected as a result of geostrophic adjustment.
- ✗ Initialisation techniques (which suppress inertia-gravity waves) became important.





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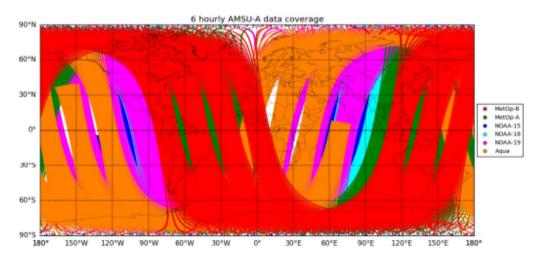
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Our definition

✗ The process of objectively adapting the model state to observations in a statistically optimal way taking into account model and observation errors



- ✗ A final impetus towards the modern concept of data assimilation came from the increasing availability of asynoptic observations from satellite instruments.
- X It was no longer sufficient to think of the analysis purely in terms of spatial interpolation of contemporaneous observations.
- ➤ The time dimension became important, and the model dynamics assumed the role of propagating observational information in time to allow a synoptic view of the state of the system to be generated from asynoptic data.



Example of satellite data coverage in 6 hours (AMSU-A data).



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Problem

Suppose we want to estimate the body temperature of a person, given:

- \times A prior estimate: T_b .
- \times A thermometer: T_o .
- \times The true (unknown) body temperature T_t .

Errors

X The errors in T_b and T_o are:

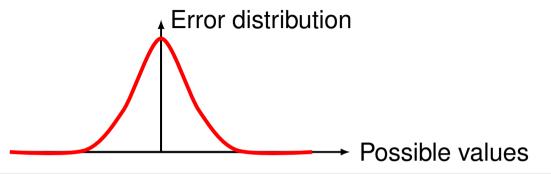
$$\varepsilon_b = T_b - T_t$$

$$|\epsilon_o| = T_o - T_t$$

 \times ε_b and ε_o are random variables (or stochastic variables)

Hypotheses

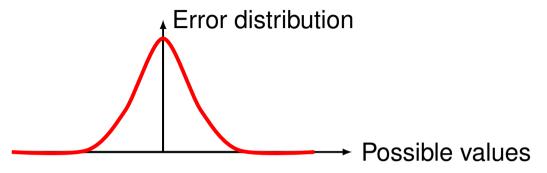
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Hypotheses

X We will assume that the error statistics of T_b and T_o are known.



We will assume that T_b and T_o have been adjusted (bias corrected) so that their mean errors are zero:

$$|\overline{\varepsilon_b}| = |\overline{\varepsilon_o}| = 0.$$

X There is usually no reason for ε_b and ε_o to be connected in any way:

$$|\overline{\varepsilon_o\varepsilon_b}|=0.$$

X The quantity $\overline{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_b}$ represents the covariance between the error of our prior estimate and the error of our thermometer measurement.

 \times We estimate the body temperature as a linear combination of T_b and T_o :

$$T_a = \alpha T_o + \beta T_b + \gamma$$



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- \blacksquare Denote the error of our estimate as $\epsilon_a = T_a T_t$.
- We have:

$$T_a = T_t + \varepsilon_a = \alpha \left(T_t + \varepsilon_o \right) + \beta \left(T_t + \varepsilon_b \right) + \gamma$$

or
$$\varepsilon_a = (\alpha + \beta - 1) T_t + \alpha \varepsilon_o + \beta \varepsilon_b + \gamma$$

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X We want the estimate to be unbiased: $\overline{\varepsilon_a} = 0$:

$$\overline{\varepsilon_a} = (\alpha + \beta - 1) T_t + \gamma = 0$$

 \times Since this holds for any T_t , we must have

$$\Rightarrow \gamma = 0$$
 and $\alpha + \beta - 1 = 0$.

X Then

$$T_a = \alpha T_o + (1 - \alpha) T_b$$



✗ The general Linear Unbiased Estimate is:

$$T_a = \alpha T_o + (1 - \alpha) T_b$$

- X Now consider the error of this estimate.
- \times Subtracting T_t from both sides of the equation gives

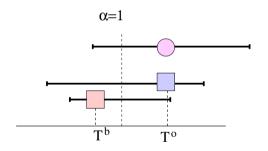
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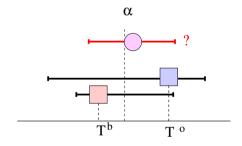
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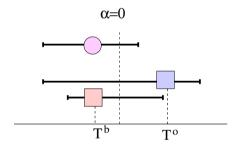
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- X Now consider the error of this estimate.
- \times Subtracting T_t from both sides of the equation gives

$$\varepsilon_a = \alpha \varepsilon_o + (1 - \alpha) \varepsilon_b$$

X The variance of the estimate is:

$$\overline{\varepsilon_a^2} = \alpha^2 \overline{\varepsilon_o^2} + 2\alpha (1 - \alpha) \overline{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_b} + (1 - \alpha)^2 \overline{\varepsilon_b^2}$$

X With the previous hypothesis $\overline{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_b} = 0$:

$$\overline{\varepsilon_a^2} = \alpha^2 \overline{\varepsilon_o^2} + (1 - \alpha)^2 \overline{\varepsilon_b^2}$$

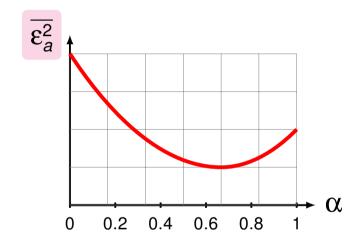
$$\overline{\varepsilon_a^2} = \alpha^2 \overline{\varepsilon_o^2} + (1 - \alpha)^2 \overline{\varepsilon_b^2}$$

We can easily derive some properties of our estimate:

$$\frac{d\overline{\varepsilon_a^2}}{d\alpha} = 2\alpha\overline{\varepsilon_o^2} - 2(1-\alpha)\overline{\varepsilon_b^2}$$

x For
$$\alpha=0$$
, $\overline{\epsilon_a^2}=\overline{\epsilon_b^2}$ and $\frac{d\overline{\epsilon_a^2}}{d\alpha}=-2\overline{\epsilon_b^2}<0$

$$imes$$
 For $\alpha=1$, $\overline{\epsilon_a^2}=\overline{\epsilon_o^2}$ and $\frac{d\overline{\epsilon_a^2}}{d\alpha}=2\overline{\epsilon_o^2}>0$



From this we can deduce:

x For
$$0 \le \alpha \le 1$$
, $\overline{\varepsilon_a^2} \le \max(\overline{\varepsilon_b^2}, \overline{\varepsilon_o^2})$

- **X** The minimum-variance estimate occurs for $\alpha \in (0,1)$.
- The minimum-variance estimate satisfies $\overline{\varepsilon_a^2} < \min(\overline{\varepsilon_b^2}, \overline{\varepsilon_o^2})$, which means it is lower than the variance of each piece of information.

The minimum-variance estimate occurs when

$$\frac{d\overline{\varepsilon_a^2}}{d\alpha} = 2\alpha \overline{\varepsilon_o^2} - 2(1 - \alpha) \overline{\varepsilon_b^2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \alpha = \frac{\overline{\varepsilon_b^2}}{\overline{\varepsilon_b^2} + \overline{\varepsilon_o^2}}.$$

It is not difficult to show that the error variance of this minimum-variance estimate is:

$$\frac{1}{\overline{\varepsilon_a^2}} = \frac{1}{\overline{\varepsilon_b^2}} + \frac{1}{\overline{\varepsilon_o^2}},$$

and the analysis is:

$$\frac{T_a}{\overline{\varepsilon_a^2}} = \frac{T_b}{\overline{\varepsilon_b^2}} + \frac{T_o}{\overline{\varepsilon_o^2}}.$$

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A Covid story - Part 2



Forehead	37.5°C
Armpit L - T ₁	36.0°C
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Armpit L - T ₂	36.1°C
	36.2°C
Armpit R - T ₂	35.9°C
	36.0°C
Armpit L - T ₃	···∘C
	\cdots $_{\circ}$ C
Armpit R - T ₃	\cdots $_{\circ}$ C







Extension to Multiple Dimensions

- X Now, let's turn our attention to the multi-dimensional case.
- \mathbf{x} Instead of a scalar prior estimate T_b , we now consider a vector \mathbf{x}_b .
- We can think of \mathbf{x}_b as representing the entire state of a numerical model at some time.
- \mathbf{x} The elements of \mathbf{x}_b might be grid-point values, spherical harmonic coefficients, etc., and some elements may represent temperatures, humidity, others wind components, etc.
- \times We refer to \mathbf{x}_b as the background.
- Similarly, we generalise the observation to a vector y.
- **y** can contain a disparate collection of observations at different locations, and of different variables.



Extension to Multiple Dimensions

➤ The major difference between the simple scalar example and the multi-dimensional case is that there is no longer a one-to-one correspondence between the elements of the observation vector and those of the background vector.



- X It is no longer trivial to compare observations and background.
- When the background is a state of a numerical model at some time
 - Observations are not necessarily located at model gridpoints
 - The observed variables (e.g. radiances) may not correspond directly with any of the variables of the model.
 - To overcome this problem, we must assume that our model is a more-or-less complete representation of reality, so that we can always determine "model equivalents" of the observations.

- **X** We formalise this by assuming the existence of an observation operator, \mathcal{H} .
- \mathbf{x} Given a model-space vector, \mathbf{x} , the vector $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x})$ can be compared directly with \mathbf{y} , and represents the "model equivalent" of \mathbf{y} .

$$\mathbf{x} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{H}(\cdot)} \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}) o \underbrace{\hspace{1cm}} \leftarrow \mathbf{y}$$

For now, we will assume that \mathcal{H} is perfect. I.e. it does not introduce any error, so that:

$$\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathbf{y}_t$$

where \mathbf{x}_t is the true state, and \mathbf{y}_t contains the true values of the observed quantities.

X As we did in the scalar case, we will look for an analysis that is a linear combination of the available information:

$$\mathbf{x}_a = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{x}_b + \mathbf{K} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{c}$$

where **F** and **K** are matrices, and where **c** is a vector.

- \mathbf{X} If \mathcal{H} is linear, we can proceed as in the scalar case and look for a linear unbiased estimate.
- **X** In the more general case of nonlinear \mathcal{H} , we will require that error-free inputs ($\mathbf{x}_b = \mathbf{x}_t$ and $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}_t$) produce an error-free analysis ($\mathbf{x}_a = \mathbf{x}_t$):

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{x}_t + \mathbf{K} \, \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_t) + \mathbf{c}$$

 X Since this applies for any x_t , we must have $\mathsf{c}=0$ and

$$\mathbf{I} \equiv \mathbf{F} + \mathbf{K} \, \mathcal{H}(\cdot)$$
 or $\mathbf{F} \equiv \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K} \, \mathcal{H}(\cdot)$

Our analysis equation is thus:

$$\mathbf{x}_a = \mathbf{x}_b + \mathbf{K} (\mathbf{y} - \mathcal{H} (\mathbf{x}_b))$$



$$\mathbf{x}_a = \mathbf{x}_b + \mathbf{K} (\mathbf{y} - \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_b))$$

X Remember that in the scalar case, we had

$$T_a = \alpha T_o + (1 - \alpha) T_b$$

= $T_b + \alpha (T_o - T_b)$

- imes We see that the matrix **K** plays a role equivalent to that of the coefficient α .
- **X** K is called the gain matrix.
- X It determines the weight given to the innovation $\mathbf{y} \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_b)$
- ✗ It handles the transformation of information defined in "observation space" to the space of model variables.

- The next step in deriving the analysis equation is to describe the statistical properties of the analysis errors.
- We define

$$egin{array}{lll} oldsymbol{\epsilon}_a &=& oldsymbol{x}_a - oldsymbol{x}_t \ oldsymbol{\epsilon}_b &=& oldsymbol{x}_b - oldsymbol{x}_t \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{\varepsilon}_b = \mathbf{x}_b - \mathbf{x}_t$$

$$|\mathbf{\epsilon}_o| = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_t$$

We will assume that the errors are small, so that

$$\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_b) = \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_t) + \mathbf{H}[\mathbf{\epsilon}_b] + O(|\mathbf{\epsilon}_b^2|)$$

where **H** is the Jacobian of \mathcal{H} (if \mathcal{H} is nonlinear).

X Substituting the expressions for the errors into our analysis equation, and using $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathbf{y}_t$, gives (to first order):

$$\mathbf{\epsilon}_{a} = \mathbf{\epsilon}_{b} + \mathbf{K} \left(\mathbf{\epsilon}_{o} - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{\epsilon}_{b} \right)$$

- As in the scalar example, we will assume that the mean errors have been removed, so that $\overline{\varepsilon_b} = \overline{\varepsilon_o} = 0$. We see that this implies that $\overline{\varepsilon_a} = 0$.
- ✗ In the scalar example, we derived the variance of the analysis error, and defined our optimal analysis to minimise this variance.
- X In the multi-dimensional case, we must deal with covariances.

Covariance

 \times The covariance between two variables x_i and x_i is defined as

$$\operatorname{cov}(x_i, x_j) = \overline{(x_i - \overline{x_i})(x_j - \overline{x_j})}$$

- **X** Given a vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)^T$, we can arrange the covariances into a covariance matrix, **C**, such that $C_{ij} = \text{cov}(x_i, x_j)$.
- **X** Equivalently:

$$\mathbf{C} = \overline{(\mathbf{x} - \overline{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x} - \overline{\mathbf{x}})^{\mathrm{T}}}$$

- X Covariance matrices are symmetric and positive definite
 - \Rightarrow symmetric: $\mathbf{C}^T = \mathbf{C}$
 - \Rightarrow positive definite: $\mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{z}$ is positive for every non-zero vector \mathbf{z}

X The analysis error is:



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✗ Forming the analysis error covariance matrix gives:

$$\overline{\varepsilon_{a}\varepsilon_{a}^{T}} = \overline{\left[(I - KH) \varepsilon_{b} + K \varepsilon_{o} \right] \left[(I - KH) \varepsilon_{b} + K \varepsilon_{o} \right]^{T}}
= (I - KH) \overline{\varepsilon_{b}\varepsilon_{b}^{T}} (I - KH)^{T}
+ K \overline{\varepsilon_{o}\varepsilon_{o}^{T}} K^{T}
+ K \overline{\varepsilon_{o}\varepsilon_{b}^{T}} (I - KH)^{T} + (I - KH) \overline{\varepsilon_{b}\varepsilon_{o}^{T}} K^{T}$$

Assuming that the background and observation errors are uncorrelated (i.e. $\overline{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_b^{\mathrm{T}}} = \overline{\varepsilon_b \varepsilon_o^{\mathrm{T}}} = 0$), we find:

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

$$\overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{a}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{a}^{\mathrm{T}}} = \left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H}\right) \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{b}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{b}^{\mathrm{T}}} \left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{K} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{o}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{o}^{\mathrm{T}}} \mathbf{K}^{\mathrm{T}}$$

X This expression is the equivalent of the expression we obtained for the error of the scalar analysis:

$$\overline{\varepsilon_a^2} = (1 - \alpha)^2 \overline{\varepsilon_b^2} + \alpha^2 \overline{\varepsilon_o^2}$$

$$= (1 - \alpha) \overline{\varepsilon_b^2} (1 - \alpha) + \alpha \overline{\varepsilon_o^2} \alpha$$

- \times Again, we see that **K** plays essentially the same role in the multi-dimensional analysis as α plays in the scalar case.
- $m{\times}$ In the scalar case, we chose α to minimise the variance of the analysis error.
- **X** What do we mean by the minimum-variance analysis in the multi-dimensional case?



- Note that the diagonal elements of a covariance matrix are variances $C_{ii} = \text{cov}(x_i, x_i) = \overline{(x_i \overline{x_i})^2}$.
- ★ Hence, we can define the minimum-variance analysis as the analysis that minimises the sum of the diagonal elements of the analysis error covariance matrix.
- X The sum of the diagonal elements of a matrix is called the trace.
- **X** In the scalar case, we found the minimum-variance analysis by setting $\frac{d\varepsilon_a^2}{d\alpha}$ to zero.
- X In the multidimensional case, we are going to set

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{trace}(\overline{\varepsilon_a \varepsilon_a^{\mathrm{T}}})}{\partial \mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{0}$$

X Note: $\frac{\partial \operatorname{trace}(\overline{\varepsilon_a \varepsilon_a^T})}{\partial \mathbf{K}}$ is the matrix whose ij^{th} element is $\frac{\partial \operatorname{trace}(\overline{\varepsilon_a \varepsilon_a^T})}{\partial \mathcal{K}_{ij}}$.

- **X** We have: $\overline{\varepsilon_a \varepsilon_a^{\mathrm{T}}} = (\mathbf{I} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{H}) \overline{\varepsilon_b \varepsilon_b^{\mathrm{T}}} (\mathbf{I} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{H})^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{K} \overline{\varepsilon_o \varepsilon_o^{\mathrm{T}}} \mathbf{K}^{\mathrm{T}}$.
- **X** The following matrix identities come to our rescue:

$$\frac{\partial \text{trace}(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{K}^{T})}{\partial \mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{T})$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{trace}(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{A}^{T}$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{trace}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{K}^{T})}{\partial \mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{A}$$

X Applying these to $\partial \operatorname{trace}(\overline{\varepsilon_a \varepsilon_a^T})/\partial \mathbf{K}$ gives:

$$\frac{\partial \text{trace}(\overline{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{a}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{a}^{T}})}{\partial \mathbf{K}} = 2\mathbf{K}\left[\mathbf{H}\overline{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{b}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{b}^{T}}\mathbf{H}^{T} + \overline{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{o}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{o}^{T}}\right] - 2\overline{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{b}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{b}^{T}}\mathbf{H}^{T} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\mathbf{X}$$
 Hence: $\mathbf{K} = \overline{\mathbf{\varepsilon}_b \mathbf{\varepsilon}_b^{\mathrm{T}}} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \left[\mathbf{H} \overline{\mathbf{\varepsilon}_b \mathbf{\varepsilon}_b^{\mathrm{T}}} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} + \overline{\mathbf{\varepsilon}_o \mathbf{\varepsilon}_o^{\mathrm{T}}} \right]^{-1}$.

$$\mathbf{K} = \overline{\mathbf{\epsilon}_b \mathbf{\epsilon}_b^T} \, \mathbf{H}^T \left[\mathbf{H} \, \overline{\mathbf{\epsilon}_b \mathbf{\epsilon}_b^T} \, \mathbf{H}^T + \overline{\mathbf{\epsilon}_o \mathbf{\epsilon}_o^T} \, \right]^{-1}$$

- This optimal gain matrix is called the Kalman Gain Matrix.
- X Note the similarity with the optimal gain we derived for the scalar analysis:

$$\alpha = \overline{\varepsilon_b^2} \left[\overline{\varepsilon_b^2} + \overline{\varepsilon_o^2} \right]^{-1}$$

X The variance of analysis error for the optimal scalar problem was:

$$\frac{1}{\overline{\varepsilon_a^2}} = \frac{1}{\overline{\varepsilon_b^2}} + \frac{1}{\overline{\varepsilon_o^2}}$$

✗ The equivalent expression for the multi-dimensional case is:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \overline{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{a}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{a}^{\mathrm{T}} \end{array} \right]^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{c} \overline{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{b}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{b}^{\mathrm{T}} \end{array} \right]^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \left[\begin{array}{c} \overline{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{o}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{o}^{\mathrm{T}} \end{array} \right]^{-1} \mathbf{H}$$

Notation

- ✗ The notation we have used for covariance matrices can get a bit cumbersome.
- X The standard notation is:

$$\mathbf{P}^{a} \equiv \overline{\mathbf{\epsilon}_{a}\mathbf{\epsilon}_{a}^{\mathrm{T}}}$$
 $\mathbf{P}^{b} \equiv \overline{\mathbf{\epsilon}_{b}\mathbf{\epsilon}_{b}^{\mathrm{T}}}$
 $\mathbf{R} \equiv \overline{\mathbf{\epsilon}_{o}\mathbf{\epsilon}_{o}^{\mathrm{T}}}$

- \times In many analysis schemes, the true covariance matrix of background error, \mathbf{P}^b , is not known, or is too large to be used.
- ✗ In this case, we use an approximate background error covariance matrix.
 This approximate matrix is denoted by **B**.

Alternative Expression for the Kalman Gain

Finally, we derive an alternative expression for the Kalman gain:

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \left[\mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{R} \right]^{-1}$$

Multiplying both sides by $\left[\mathbf{P}^{b^{-1}} + \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{H}\right]$ gives:

$$\begin{split} \left[\mathbf{P}^{b^{-1}} + \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{H}\right]\mathbf{K} &= \left[\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^{b}\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\right]\left[\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^{b}\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{R}\right]^{-1} \\ &= \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\left[\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^{b}\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\right]\left[\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^{b}\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} + \mathbf{R}\right]^{-1} \\ &= \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{R}^{-1} \end{split}$$

Hence:

$$\mathbf{K} = \left[\mathbf{P}^{b^{-1}} + \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{H}\right]^{-1}\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{R}^{-1}$$

- Expression 1: need the inverse of a matrix of dimension size(R)
- \times Expression 2: need the inverse of a matrix of dimension size(\mathbf{P}^b)
- \mathbf{x} Remember that $\mathbf{x}_a = \mathbf{x}_b + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{y} \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_b))$

Outline

- History and Terminology
- Elementary Statistics The Scalar Analysis Problem
- **Extension to Multiple Dimensions**
- **Optimal Interpolation**
- Summary



- Optimal Interpolation is a statistical data assimilation method based on the multi-dimensional analysis equations we have just derived.
- The Kalman gain **K** can not be computed because of the size of \mathbf{P}^b and \mathbf{R}
- X The basic idea is to split the global analysis into a number of boxes which can be analysed independently:

$$\mathbf{x}_a^{(i)} = \mathbf{x}_b^{(i)} + \mathbf{K}^{(i)} \left[\mathbf{y}^{(i)} - \mathcal{H}^{(i)}(\mathbf{x}_b)
ight]$$

where

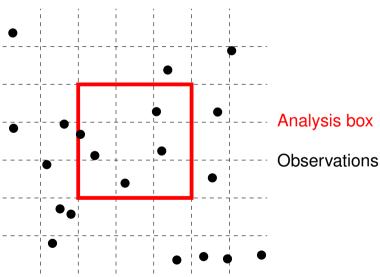
$$\mathbf{x}_a = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a^{(1)} \\ \mathbf{x}_a^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_a^{(M)} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{x}_b = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_b^{(1)} \\ \mathbf{x}_b^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_b^{(M)} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{K}^{(1)} \\ \mathbf{K}^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{K}^{(M)} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{K} = \left(egin{array}{c} \mathbf{K}^{(1)} \ \mathbf{K}^{(2)} \ dots \ \mathbf{K}^{(M)} \end{array}
ight)$$

✗ The method was used operationally at ECMWF from 1979 until 1996, when it was replaced by 3D-Var.

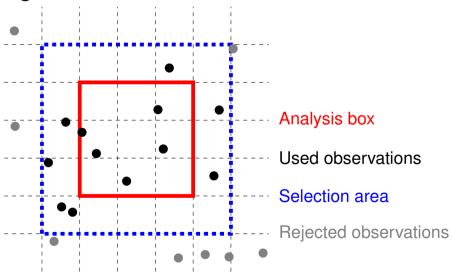
$$\mathbf{x}_a^{(i)} = \mathbf{x}_b^{(i)} + \mathbf{K}^{(i)} \left(\mathbf{y}^{(i)} - \mathcal{H}^{(i)}(\mathbf{x}_b) \right)$$

- In principle, we should use *all* available observations to calculate the analysis for each box. However, this might be too expensive.
- ✗ To produce a computationally-feasible algorithm, Optimal Interpolation (OI) restricts the observations used for each box to those observations which lie in a surrounding selection area:



$$\mathbf{x}_a^{(i)} = \mathbf{x}_b^{(i)} + \mathbf{K}^{(i)} \left(\mathbf{y}^{(i)} - \mathcal{H}^{(i)}(\mathbf{x}_b) \right)$$

- In principle, we should use *all* available observations to calculate the analysis for each box. However, this might be too expensive.
- ✗ To produce a computationally-feasible algorithm, Optimal Interpolation (OI) restricts the observations used for each box to those observations which lie in a surrounding selection area:





The gain matrix used for each box is:

$$\mathbf{K}^{(i)} = \left(\mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\right)^{(i)} \left[\left(\mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\right)^{(i)} + \mathbf{R}^{(i)} \right]^{-1}$$

- **X** Now, the dimension of the matrix $\left[\left(\mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^T \right)^{(i)} + \mathbf{R}^{(i)} \right]$ is equal to the number of observations in the selection box.
- ✗ Selecting observations reduces the size of this matrix, making it feasible to use direct solution methods to invert it.
- Note that to implement Optimal Interpolation, we have to specify $(\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T)^{(i)}$ and $(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T)^{(i)}$. This effectively limits us to very simple observation operators, corresponding to simple interpolations.
- ✗ This, together with the artifacts introduced by observation selection, was one of the main reasons for abandoning Optimal Interpolation in favour of 3D-Var.

Outline

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Summary

- ✗ We derived the linear analysis equation for a simple scalar example.
- X We showed that a particular choice of the weight α given to the observation resulted in an optimal minimum-variance analysis.
- ✗ We repeated the derivation for the multi-dimensional case. This required the introduction of the observation operator.
- The derivation for the multi-dimensional case closely parallelled the scalar derivation.
- ✗ The expressions for the gain matrix and analysis error covariance matrix were recognisably similar to the corresponding scalar expressions.
- Finally, we considered the practical implementation of the analysis equation, in an Optimal Interpolation data assimilation scheme.

