

Variational Assimilation (§5.5)

We now turn from Optimal Interpolation to another approach to objective analysis, the **variational assimilation** technique.

This method is of growing popularity and is now in use in several major NWP centres.

Variational assimilation has been shown to yield **significant improvements in the quality** of numerical forecasts.

It has also been invaluable for **re-analysis**: The ERA-40 Project at ECMWF was carried out using the 3D-Var system.

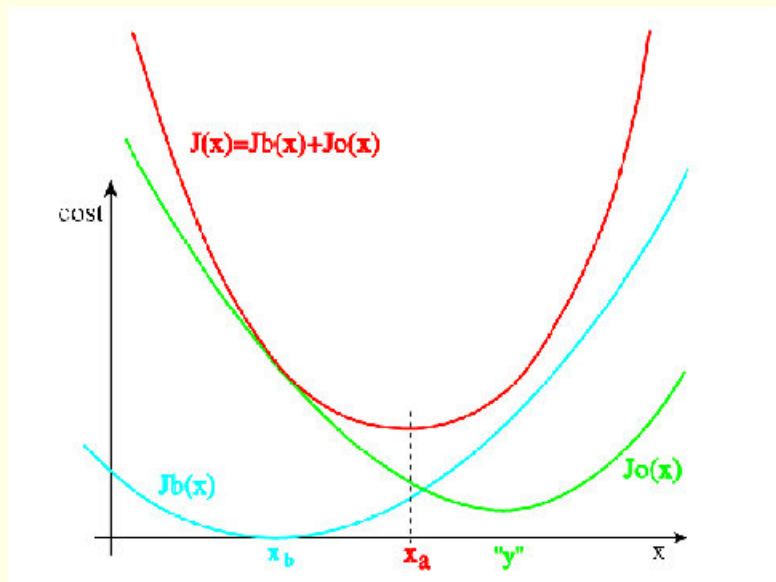
The Cost Function J

We saw, for the “two-temperature problem”, an important **equivalence** between the least squares approach and the variational approach.

The same equivalence holds for the full 3-dimensional case. Lorenc (1986) showed that the OI solution is equivalent to a specific variational assimilation problem: **Find the optimal analysis x_a field that minimizes a (scalar) cost function.**

The **cost function** is defined as the (weighted) distance between x and the background x_b , *plus the (weighted) distance to the observations y_o* :

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



Schematic representation of the cost function in a simple one-dimensional case. J_b and J_o respectively tend to pull the analysis towards the background x_b and the observation y .

Again, the **cost function** is

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

The minimum of $J(\mathbf{x})$ is attained for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_a$ such that

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} J(\mathbf{x}_a) = 0 \quad (n \times 1)$$

Assuming the analysis is close to the truth, we write

$$\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{x}_b + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)]$$

and assume that $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b$ is small.

Then we can **linearize** the observation operator:

$$[\mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x})] = \mathbf{y}_o - H[\mathbf{x}_b + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)] = \{\mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b)\} - \mathbf{H} \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)$$

We now substitute this into the cost function:

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

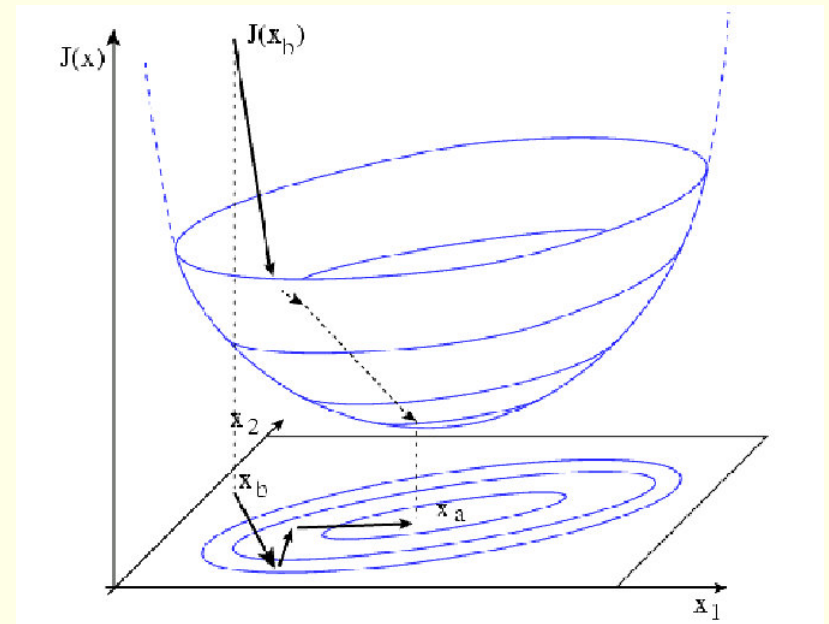
The result is:

$$2J(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + [\{\mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b)\} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)]^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} [\{\mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b)\} - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)]$$

Expanding the products, we get

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

The cost function is a quadratic function of the analysis increments $(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)$.



Schematic of the cost function in two dimensions. The minimum is found by moving down-gradient in discrete steps.

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We need to compute the **gradient of J** .

We use the following **Lemma**:

Given a quadratic function $F(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{x} + c$, where \mathbf{A} is a symmetric matrix, \mathbf{d} is a vector and c a scalar, the gradient is given by $\nabla F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}$.

* * *

Proof:

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j A_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_i d_i x_i + c$$

So the derivative w.r.t. x_k is

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_k} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_j A_{kj} x_j + \frac{1}{2} \sum_j A_{jk} x_j + d_k = \sum_j A_{kj} x_j + d_k$$

Q.E.D.

Recall the cost function was

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

Combining the first two terms, we get

$$2J(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T [\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}](\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) - \{\mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b)\}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) - (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \{\mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b)\} + \{\text{Term independent of } \mathbf{x}\}$$

The gradient of the cost function J with respect to \mathbf{x} is

$$\nabla J(\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}](\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) - \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \{\mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b)\}$$

Repeat: The gradient of J with respect to \mathbf{x} is

$$\nabla J(\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}](\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) - \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \{ \mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b) \}$$

We now set $\nabla J(\mathbf{x}_a) = 0$ to ensure that J is a minimum, and obtain an equation for $(\mathbf{x}_a - \mathbf{x}_b)$

$$[\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}](\mathbf{x}_a - \mathbf{x}_b) = \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \{ \mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b) \}$$

We can write this as:

$$\mathbf{x}_a = \mathbf{x}_b + [\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}]^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \{ \mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b) \}$$

This is the solution of the 3-dimensional variational (3D-Var) analysis problem.

It looks similar to the OI result, but the **weight matrix** is

$$\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}]^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}$$

The **equivalence** is *not obvious*.

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Again, the variational analysis is

$$\mathbf{x}_a = \mathbf{x}_b + [\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H}]^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \{ \mathbf{y}_o - H(\mathbf{x}_b) \}$$

It is a formal solution: the computation \mathbf{x}_a requires the inversion of a **huge matrix**, which is impractical.

In practice the solution is obtained through **minimization algorithms** for $J(\mathbf{x})$ using iterative methods for minimization such as the **conjugate gradient** or **quasi-Newton** methods.

Note that the **control variable** for the minimization is now the **analysis**, not the **weights** as in OI.

The **equivalence** between the minimization of the analysis error variance and the three-dimensional variational cost function approach is an important property.

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Conclusion of the foregoing

Minimization

In practical 3D-Var, **we do not invert a huge matrix**.

We find the minimum of $J(\mathbf{x})$ by computing the cost function for a range of values of \mathbf{x} and using an **optimization technique**.

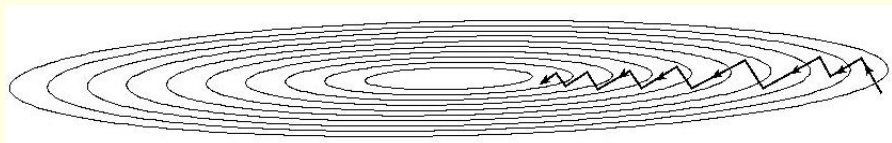
The idea is to “proceed downhill” as quickly as possible.

Examples are the **Steepest Descent** algorithm, **Newton’s method**, and the **Conjugate Gradient** algorithm.

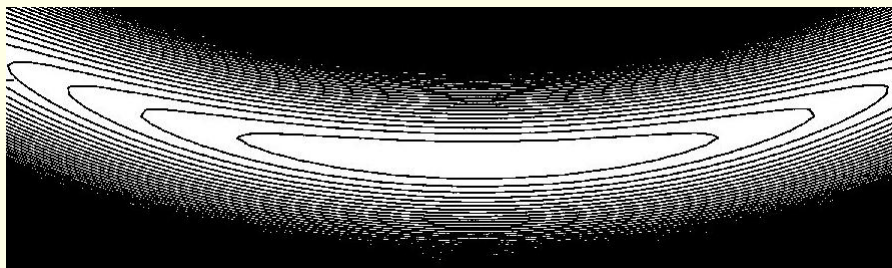
For a selection of techniques, see **Numerical Recipes**, which may be inspected online before purchase.

The location of the minimum depends greatly on the nature of the function J .

As an example, for two dimensions, we consider the shape of the “surface” $J = J(x, y)$.

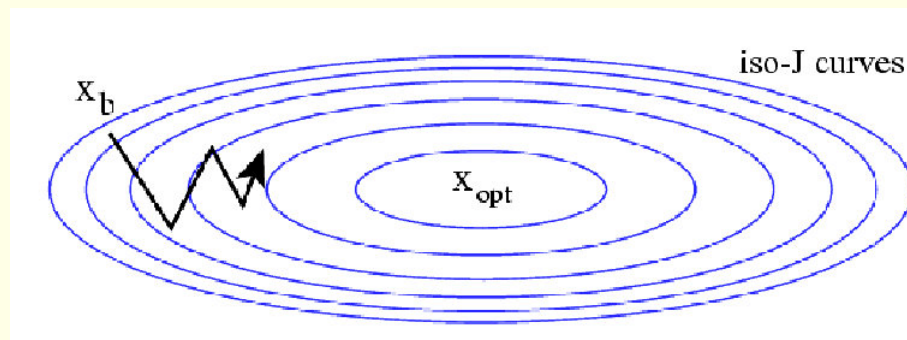


For a purely elliptic surface, the minimum is easily located.



For a banana shaped surface, the minimum is much harder to find.

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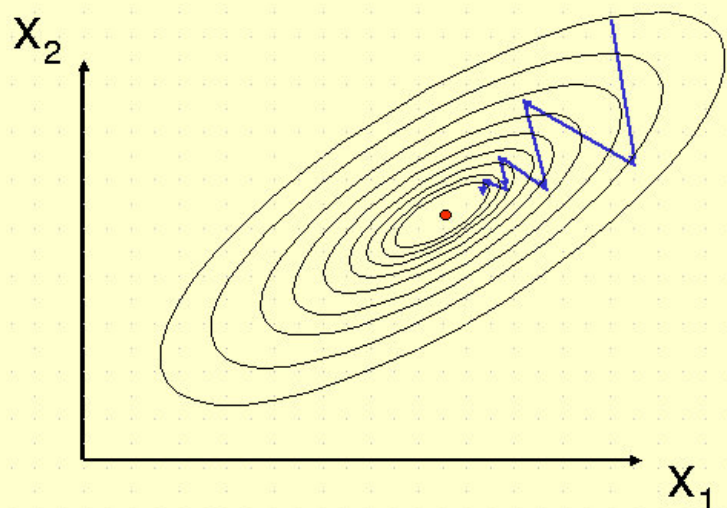


The “narrow-valley” effect. The minimization can spend many iterations zigzagging towards the minimum.

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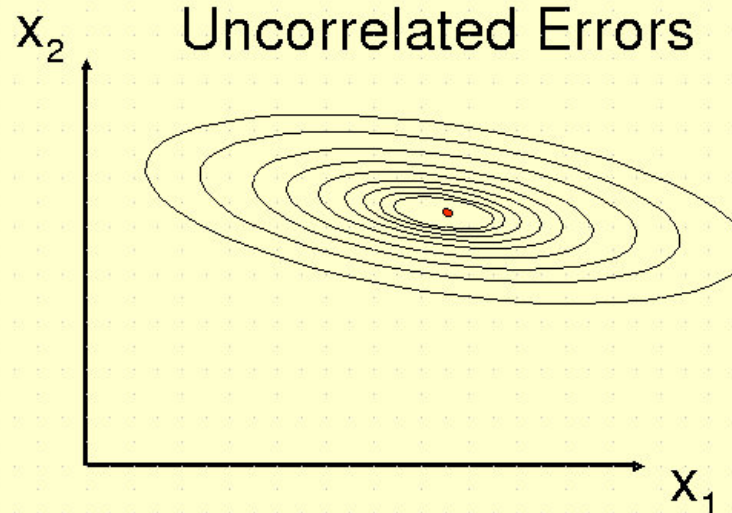
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Cost Function for Correlated Errors



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Cost Function for Uncorrelated Errors



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Equivalence between OI and 3D-Var

We have to show that the weight matrix that multiplies the innovation $\{y_o - H(x_b)\} = \delta y_o$ is the same as the weight matrix obtained with OI:

$$\underbrace{(\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}}_{(3\text{D-Var})} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^T)(\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^T)^{-1}}_{(\text{OI})}$$

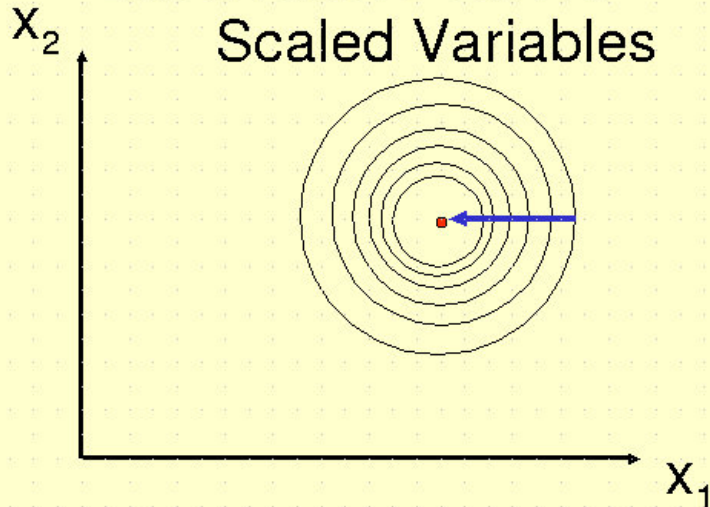
This identity is a variant of the **Sherman–Morrison–Woodbury** formula (Golub and Van Loan, 1996).

The mathematical proof (an elegant demonstration) is given in Kalnay, §5.5.1.

It demonstrates the formal equivalence of the problems solved by 3D-Var and OI.

However, because the methods of solution are different, their **results are different**, and many centers have now adopted the 3D-Var approach.

Cost Function for Uncorrelated Errors Scaled Variables



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Straightforward Demonstration of Equivalence

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

Inverse of left-hand side:

$$\mathbf{R} \mathbf{H}^{-T} (\mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^{-T} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})$$

$$(\mathbf{R} \mathbf{H}^{-T} \mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H})$$

$$(\mathbf{R} \mathbf{H}^{-T} \mathbf{B}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}) \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{H}^{-T} \mathbf{B}^{-1}$$

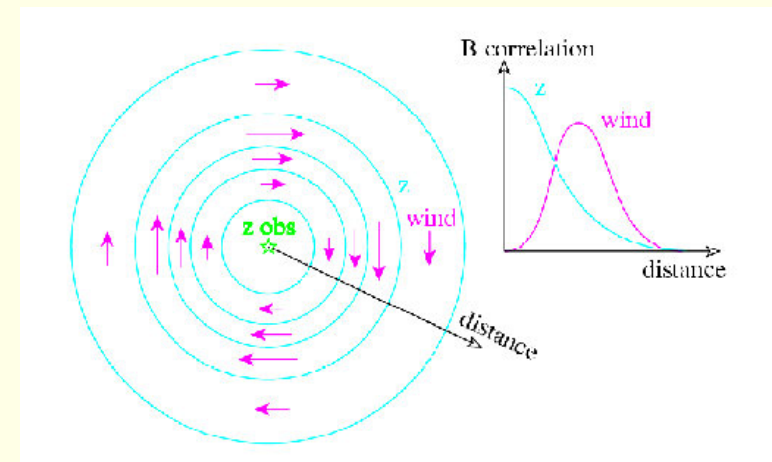
$$(\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^T) \mathbf{H}^{-T} \mathbf{B}^{-1}$$

The inverse of this is equal to the right-hand side

$$\mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^T (\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^T)^{-1}$$

Thus 3D-Var and OI are *mathematically* equivalent.

J_B : The Conventional Method



Typical “structure function” used in OI. The autocorrelation of height is an isotropic Gaussian function. By geostrophy, the cross correlation with the tangential wind is maximum where the radial gradient of the height correlation is maximum.

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J_B : The “NMC method”

Most NWP centres have now adopted the “NMC method” for estimating the forecast error covariance.

The structure of the **background error covariance** is estimated as the average difference between two short-range model forecasts verifying at the same time.

$$B \approx \alpha E\{[\mathbf{x}_f(48 \text{ h}) - \mathbf{x}_f(24 \text{ h})][\mathbf{x}_f(48 \text{ h}) - \mathbf{x}_f(24 \text{ h})]^T\}$$

The magnitude of the covariance is then appropriately scaled.

The model–forecast differences themselves provide a multivariate global forecast difference covariance.

This method has been shown to produce **better results** than previous estimates computed from *forecast minus observation* estimates.

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- For example, we may require the analysis increments to approximately satisfy the **linear global balance equation**.
- With the implementation of 3D-Var at NCEP, it became **unnecessary to perform a separate initialization** step in the analysis cycle.
- It is possible to incorporate **nonlinear relationships** between observed variables and model variables in the H operator. This is harder to do in the OI approach.
- 3D-Var has allowed three-dimensional variational assimilation of **radiances**.
- The **quality control of the observations** becomes easier and more reliable when it is made in the space of the observations than in the space of the retrievals.

Comparison of 3D-Var and OI

3D-Var has several important advantages with respect to OI, because the cost function J is minimized using **global minimization algorithms**.

As a result, many of the simplifying approximations required by OI are unnecessary in 3D-Var.

- In 3D-Var there is **no data selection**; all available data are used simultaneously. This avoids jumpiness in the boundaries between regions that have selected different observations.
- The **background error covariance matrix** for 3D-Var can be defined with a more general, global approach, rather than the local approximations used in OI.
- It is possible to add **constraints** to the cost function without increasing the cost of the minimization. These can be used to control spurious noise.

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End of §5.5