Bayesian Inference and Data Assimilation

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12 April 2021

Consider a particle with position q(t) and mass m attached to an elastic spring with spring constant κ . We assume that there is no friction.

The second-order **Newtonian equations of motion** are

$$m\ddot{q}(t) = -\kappa q(t)$$
.

Or, after introducing the momentum $p(t) = m\dot{q}(t)$, the equivalent pair of first-order **differential equations**

$$\dot{q}(t) = m^{-1}p(t),$$

 $\dot{p}(t) = -\kappa q(t)$

is obtained.



Let us set m=1 and $\kappa=1$ for simplicity. It is easy to verify that the trigonometric functions

$$q(t) = \sin t, \qquad q(t) = \cos t$$

both satisfy the associated Newtonian equation of motion

$$\ddot{q}(t) = -q(t).$$

It is also true that any **linear superposition** will also satisfy the equations of motion, that is,

$$q(t) = A\cos t + B\sin t$$

with $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$ arbitrary.

This follows from

$$\dot{q}(t) = -A\sin t + B\cos t, \qquad \ddot{q}(t) = -A\cos t - B\sin t = -q(t).$$

To fix a **solution** q(t), we need to **infer** the two parameters A and B.

Assume, for example, that you **observe** the oscillator at positions q(1) = 5 and q(2) = 4 at times t = 1 and t = 2, respectively.

It follows that

$$5 = A \cos 1 + B \sin 1,$$
 $4 = A \cos 2 + B \sin 2$

or, in matrix notation,

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} 5\\4 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \cos 1 & \sin 1\\ \cos 2 & \sin 2 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} A\\B \end{array}\right) \,.$$

Thus $A \approx 1.4030$ and $B \approx 5.0411$. Now you can **predict** the behaviour of the oscillator for all times:

$$q(t) \approx 1.4030 \cos t + 5.0411 \sin t$$
.

This is a first (trivial) example of data assimilation.



Let us make to problem a bit more challenging. Assume that you have observed several (N) positions $q_{\rm obs}(t_n)$ at times t_n , which are subject to observation errors.

It makes sense to find the two parameters A and B that minimise the loss function

$$I(A,B) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (q_{\text{obs}}(t_n) - q(t_n))^2$$

subject to

$$q(t) = A\cos t + B\sin t.$$

The two parameters are found by minimising the loss function *I*. This corresponds to the **maximum likelihood estimator** also called the **method of least-squares**.

Exercise: Find the (linear) normal equations

$$0=\partial_A I(A,B)\,,$$

$$0=\partial_B I(A,B).$$

Our approach here has been **model-driven** (harmonic oscillator). Alternatively, we could have just taken the data $q_{\rm obs}(t_n)$ and fit a polynomial (or a neural network or something else). This would constitute a **data-driven** approach of classical **machine learning**/statistics.

The **model-driven** approach **generalises** (predicts) extremely well provided the model (harmonic oscillator) is correct! This is in contrast to purely data-driven approaches.

What if we, for example, do not know the **mass**, m, of the particle?

Then we need to deal with the more general harmonic oscillator model

$$m\ddot{q}(t)=-q(t).$$

But we can still write down its general solution:

$$q(t) = A\cos(m^{-1/2}t) + B\sin(m^{-1/2}t)$$
,

where now both A and B as well as the mass, m > 0, are unknown!

Note that

$$\ddot{q}(t) = -m^{-1}A\cos(m^{-1/2}t) - m^{-1}B\sin(m^{-1/2}t) = -m^{-1}q(t)$$
.

We generalise the method of least squares to include the unknown parameter m:

$$I(A, B, m) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (q_{\text{obs}}(t_n) - q(t_n))^2.$$

This problem is no longer quadratic and methods such as **gradient descent** or **Gauss-Newton** are required; all of which require the **gradient**

$$\nabla I(A,B,m) := \begin{pmatrix} \partial_A I(A,B,m) \\ \partial_B I(A,B,m) \\ \partial_m I(A,B,m) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

Hint: Replace m by $\theta = m^{-1/2}$ and minimise with respect to θ instead!

Exercise: Compute the gradient $\nabla I(A, B, \theta)$ for the loss function $I(A, B, \theta)$.

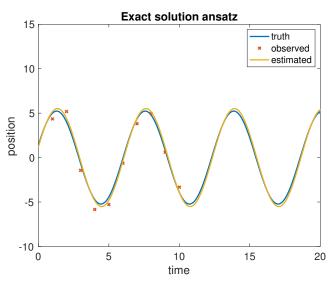
Gradient descent produces a sequence of approximations $x_i = (A_i, B_i, \theta_i)^T \in \mathbb{R}^3$ via

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \alpha \nabla I(x_i)$$

with step-sizes $\alpha > 0$.



We use m=1, $\kappa=1$ and $t_n=n$, $n=1,\ldots,N$, with N=10.



1000 steps of gradient descent with $\alpha=0.0001$ and starting from m=1.5 yield $m\approx 1.015$.

So far we have assumed that the positions q(t) can be explicitly characterised in terms of appropriate parameters A and B. In general, this is not possible and the governing differential equations need to be solved **numerically**.

The forward Euler method

$$q_{k+1} = q_k + \frac{\Delta t}{m} p_k,$$

$$p_{k+1} = p_k - \Delta t \kappa q_k,$$

$$t_{k+1} = t_k + \Delta t,$$

 $k=0,\ldots,K-1$, with **step-size** $\Delta t>0$ is the simplest of all approximations.

We rewrite in matrix notation

$$z_{k+1} = C z_k, t_{k+1} = t_k + \Delta t,$$

with $z_k = (q_k, p_k)^{\mathrm{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and

$$C := \left(egin{array}{cc} 1 & rac{\Delta t}{m} \ -\Delta t \kappa & 1 \end{array}
ight)$$

The unknown parameters are the initial values of $z_0 = (q_0, p_0)^T$ at time $\underline{t} = 0$.

How to **infer** the initial z_0 from observed positions $q_{obs}(t_n)$ at times $t_n \geq 0$?

Let us again set N=2 and $t_1=1$ and $t_2=2$ for simplicity with $q_{\rm obs}(1)=5$ and $q_{\rm obs}(2)=4$. Let $e_1=(1,0)$ and $\Delta t=1/L$. For example, L=10 and $\Delta t=0.1$.

Then

$$q_{\text{obs}}(1) = 5 = e_1 C^L z_0, \qquad q_{\text{obs}}(2) = 4 = e_1 C^{2L} z_0.$$

These are two equations in the two unknowns $z_0 = (q_0, p_0)^{\mathrm{T}}$.

Consider now again the case with **observation errors** and observations taken at **integer times** $t_n = n$, n = 1, ..., N. Then the loss function becomes

$$I(z_0) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (q_{\text{obs}}(t_n) - e_1 C^{nL} z_0)^2.$$

The appropriate initial value z_0 is now found as the minimiser of this functional.

This leads to the **method of least squares** yet again. Try to compute the associated **normal equation**.

How to adjust this procedure when the mass, m, is again unknown?

No problem at all formally: Just note that the matrix C depends on m, that is,

$$C(m) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{\Delta t}{m} \\ -\Delta t \kappa & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

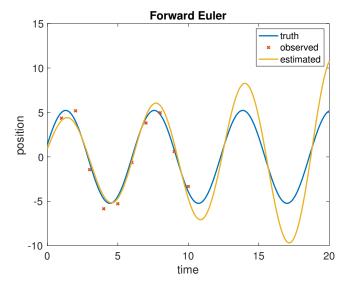
This leads to the extended loss function

$$I(z_0, m) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (q_{\text{obs}}(t_n) - e_1 C(m)^{nL} z_0)^2.$$

Question: Can you compute the **gradient** of this loss function? How would you go about finding a **minimiser** of *I*?

Question: Could one infer both m and κ from the observed particle positions $q_{\rm obs}(t_n)$?

We again set m=1, $\kappa=1$, L=10, $\Delta t=0.1$, $t_n=n$, and N=10.



The numerical example has demonstrated that the forward Euler approximation leads to large **prediction errors**. This can be understood as a **model error** which in this case is caused by the **numerical approximation** (forward Euler method).

This numerical error can be largely reduced by the following simple modification:

$$q_{k+1} = q_k + \frac{\Delta t}{m} p_k,$$

$$p_{k+1} = p_k - \Delta t \kappa q_{k+1},$$

$$t_{k+1} = t_k + \Delta t,$$

called a symplectic Euler method, or, more compactly,

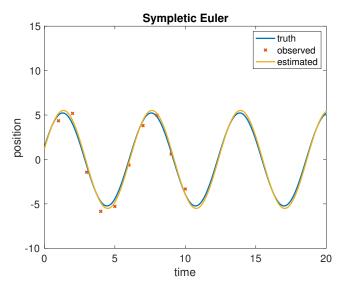
$$z_{k+1} = C z_k, \quad C := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{\Delta t}{m} \\ -\Delta t \kappa & 1 - \frac{\Delta t^2 \kappa}{m} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Model errors can arise for many other reasons. For example, our harmonic oscillator equations ignore that there is **friction**; or **Hooks's law** might not be applicable since the restoring spring force is actually nonlinear, e.g.,

$$F(q) = -\kappa q - \eta q^3$$

with $\eta > 0$, etc.

We repeat the previous experiment with forward Euler being replaced by its symplectic counterpart.



We have looked at very simple oscillatory dynamics. Much more complex dynamical phenomena such as chaos can be encountered. An example is provided by the **Lorenz-63 model** which is discussed in the Prolog. The **dynamics** is either described by differential equations

$$\dot{z}=f(z,t)$$

and/or discrete-time iterations

$$z^{n+1}=\Psi(z^n,t_n).$$

The aim of data assimilation (DA) is to adjust such (mechanistic) models to data in order to make predictions. In ML one would say that the data-fitted models generalise well.

DA focuses on time-dependent phenomena and tries to predict future events.

In the Prolog from the book, you will also find a more detailed discussion on **model- versus data-driven** approaches to prediction.

We will primarily follow a **Bayesian approach** to DA. I.e., we will attempt to quantify uncertainties in addition to providing a best estimate.