

# Computer Science in Ocean and Climate Research

## Lecture 10: Model Parameter Optimization

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- 1 Model Parameter Optimization
  - Parameter Optimization – the Problem
  - Observation Operators
  - Measuring the Model-to-data Misfit
  - Optimization Algorithms
  - Derivative Computation

# Model Parameter Optimization

- What is it?

Finding model parameters such that the model output matches given observational data

- Why are we studying this?

Method to improve the model quality

- How does it work?

Defining a meaningful cost function that measures the model-to-data misfit

Applying a mathematical optimization algorithm

Approximation or exact computation of the model derivative w.r.t. the parameters

- What if we can use it?

Improve model output

Check model quality

Determine new measurement locations that further improve model quality

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## Parameter-dependent models: Fully discrete setting

- We use the following general fully-discrete form of a climate model as

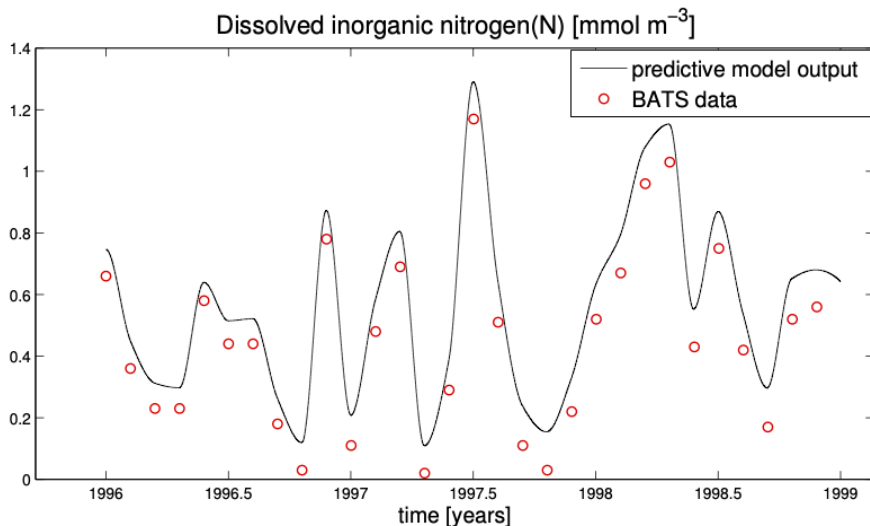
$$y_{k+1} = y_k + \Delta t \Phi(f, \mathbf{p}, y_k), \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1.$$

+ initial values.

- For simplicity of notation, we omit the dependency of  $\Phi$  on
  - time step-size  $\Delta t$ ,
  - time  $t_k, t_{k-1}, \dots$ ,
  - eventually used additional values  $y_{k-1}, \dots$
- Solution depends on **model parameters**  $\mathbf{p}$ .
- The model shall reproduce “reality” in the best possible way.
- We have measurement data  $z_k, k = 1, \dots, N$ .
- Aim: find parameter(s)  $\mathbf{p}$  such that

$$y_k \approx z_k, \quad k = 1, \dots, N.$$

## Example: Model-to-data misfit: 1-D model



## Simple example: Direct solution of the parameter optimization problem

- Zero-dimensional Energy Balance Model (EBM):
- Only variable: (global mean) temperature  $y = y(t)$  as function of time:

$$\dot{y}(t) = \frac{1}{C} \left( \frac{S}{4}(1 - \alpha) - \sigma \epsilon y(t)^4 \right) = f(y(t))$$

with coupling constant  $C$ , Boltzmann constant  $\sigma$ , solar constant  $S$ , and albedo  $\alpha$  given.

- Want to find the correct value of the emissivity  $\epsilon$  such that steady state (with  $f(y) = 0$ ) matches current real value ( $z \approx 287$  K).
- Steady state satisfies:

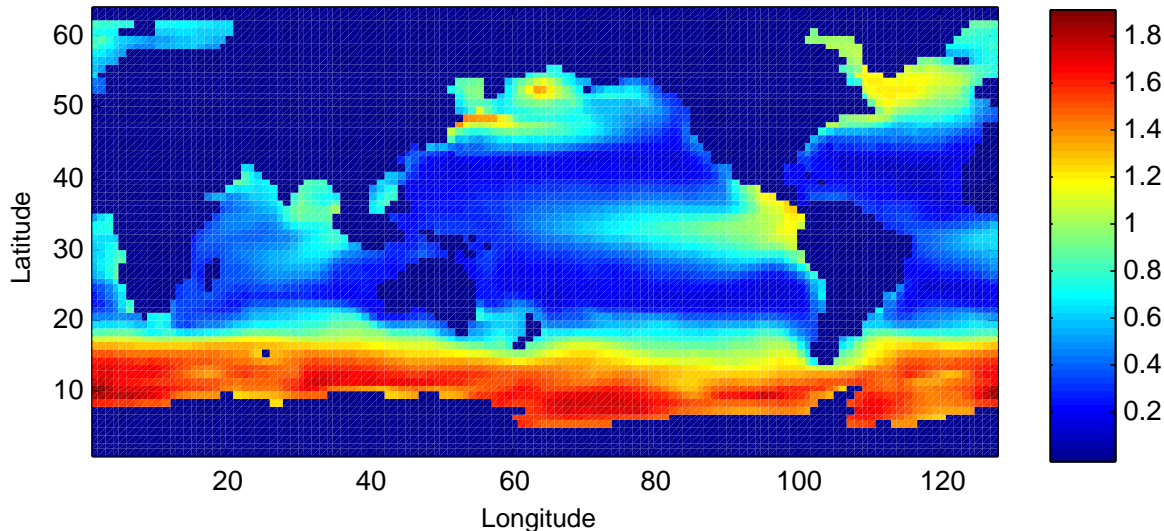
$$\frac{S}{4}(1 - \alpha) - \sigma \epsilon y^4 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad y = \sqrt[4]{\frac{S(1 - \alpha)}{4\sigma\epsilon}}$$

~> Compute  $\epsilon$  from

$$\epsilon = \frac{S}{4\sigma z^4}(1 - \alpha)$$

- Clearly not that easy for more complex models.

## 3-D model, model output at surface





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## General setting

- Model has several parameters, here summarized in a vector

$$p \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

- Measurement data are usual 3-D or 4-D fields , here also in a vector

$$z \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

- Model output is 3-D or 4-D, consists of several variables, here stored in some arbitrary data structure  $Y$ .
- Observation operator  $C$ , maps the output to a vector:

$$Y \mapsto CY \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

- It selects corresponding values of the output  $Y$ , corresponding to the variables and the points in space and time where there are measurements available.
- It optionally performs averaging (e.g., compare global mean temperature).

# Example: Predator-prey model

- ODE system:

$$\dot{x} = x(\alpha - \beta y - \lambda x)$$

$$\dot{y} = y(\delta x - \gamma - \mu y).$$

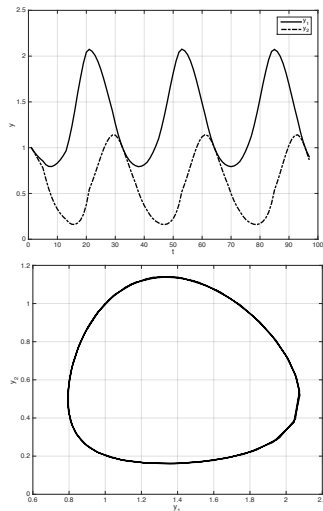
- Parameters:  $p = (\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \lambda, \mu)$ .
- Output of discretized model:

$$Y := (x_k, y_k)_{k=0}^N \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times (N+1)}, \quad N : \# \text{ time steps}$$

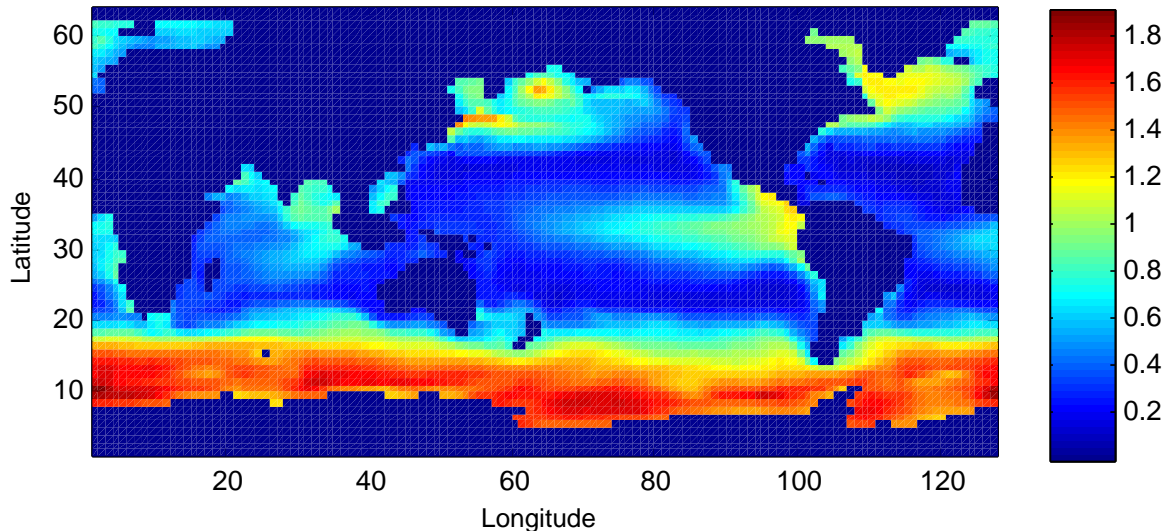
- Example: consider only last value of prey, i.e.,  $x_N$ .

↪ Observation operator

$$C : Y \mapsto x_N \in \mathbb{R} \quad (m = 1).$$



# Model-to-data misfit: 3-D model, model output at surface



## Model-to-data misfit: 3-D model, number of measurements at surface



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# Measuring the model-to-data misfit

- We write the output of the observation operator as

$$CY =: y \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

- These values we want to compare with measurement data  $z \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

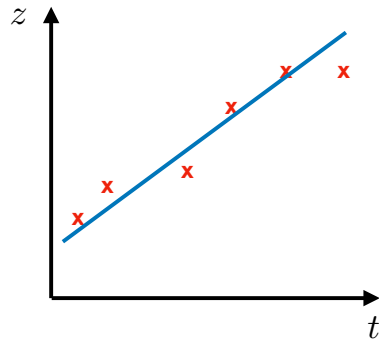
↪ Minimize distance between data and model output:

$$\min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^m (y_k - z_k)^2.$$

- Model output depends on parameters  $p$ :

$$y = y(p).$$

- Factor  $\frac{1}{2}$  just used for easy notation ↪ derivative computation below.



Best fit of a model (here: affine-linear function) to data.

# Generalization

- Above: Standard least-squares **cost function**:

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^m (y_k - z_k)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|y - z\|_2^2 = \frac{1}{2} (y - z)^\top (y - z).$$

- Different weights for different measurements  $\rightsquigarrow$  weighted least-squares cost function:

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{\sigma_k^2} (y_k - z_k)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|y - z\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 = \frac{1}{2} (y - z)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (y - z), \quad \Sigma := \text{diag}(\sigma_k^2) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}.$$

where  $\sigma^2$  is the **variance** of measurement  $z_k$ .

- More general: Include interdependency of different measurements.

$\rightsquigarrow$  Generalized least-squares cost function:

$$\frac{1}{2} \|y - z\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 := \frac{1}{2} (y - z)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (y - z).$$

Here, include **covariance matrix**  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ .



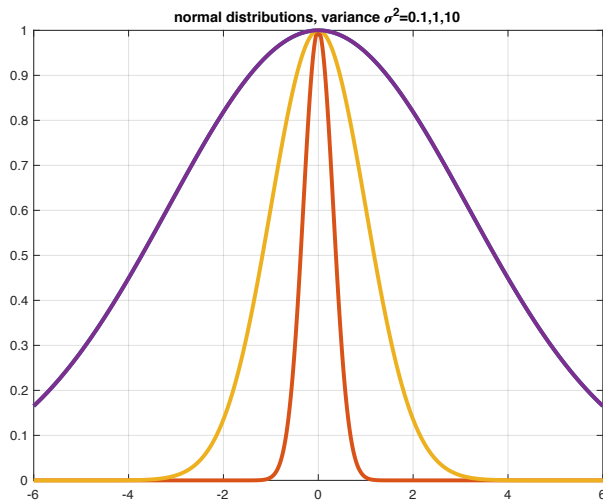
# Stochastic interpretation

- Minimizing the weighted least-squares cost function:

$$\begin{aligned}\min_p \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{(y_k - z_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2} &\Leftrightarrow \max_p \left( - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{(y_k - z_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2} \right) \Leftrightarrow \max_p \exp \left( - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{(y_k - z_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2} \right) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \max_p \prod_{k=1}^m \exp \left( - \frac{(y_k - z_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2} \right) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \max_p \prod_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_k} \exp \left( - \frac{(y_k - z_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2} \right).\end{aligned}$$

- Probability density function (pdf)** of the normal distribution with variance  $\sigma_k^2$ .
  - Interpretation:  $p$  maximizes the probability for  $y = z$  (in the mean/expectation).
- ~>  $p$  is called “maximum-likelihood” estimate.

# Pdf of normal distribution with different variances



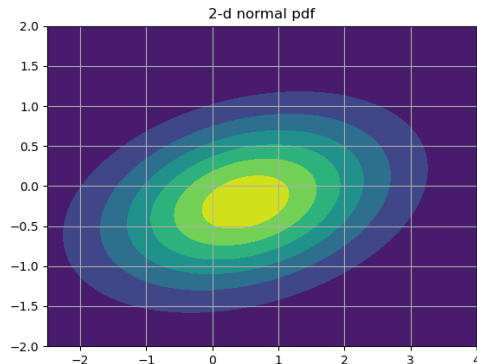
## Same stochastic interpretation

- Generalized least-squares cost function:

$$\min_p \frac{1}{2} \|y - z\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 \Leftrightarrow \max_p \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \Sigma}} \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \|y - z\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 \right)$$

- Covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ .
- Probability density function of the multi-variate normal distribution.
- Picture: pdf with

$$z = (0.5, 0.2), \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0.3 \\ 0.3 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}.$$



## Using a prior estimate for the parameters

- Often, a certain value  $p_0$  is known/given for the parameters (default/standard value).
- ~> Deviation from this value shall not get too big in the parameter optimization.
- ~> Add a second term to the cost function, e.g.,

$$\min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \|y - z\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \|p - p_0\|_{\Sigma_p^{-1}}^2, \quad \alpha > 0.$$

where  $p_0$  is called the **prior** and  $\Sigma_p$  the parameter covariance matrix.

- Stochastic interpretation (as above): optimal parameter  $p$  is now the value where the probability for  $y = z$  and  $p = p_0$  (in the mean/expectation) is maximized, taking into account:
  - the given spread/variances of both data and parameters,
  - the interdependency of the different measurements ...
  - ... and of the different parameters.

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# General form of an optimization method

- We need a method to solve the optimization problems above.
- Sometimes we have additional bounds on the parameters.

## Algorithm (General descent method):

- 1 Choose initial guess  $p_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- 2 For  $k = 0, 1, \dots$  :
  - 1 Choose a search direction  $d_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
  - 2 Choose a step-size  $\rho_k > 0$  that reduces the cost function  $f$ .
  - 3 Set  $p_{k+1} = p_k + \rho_k d_k$ .

until a stopping criterion is satisfied.

Search directions:

- $d_k = -\nabla f(p_k)$ : negative gradient of the cost.
- $d_k = -\nabla^2 f(p_k)^{-1} \nabla f(p_k)$ : Newton method, using **Hessian matrix** (2nd derivatives).
- $d_k$ : Quasi-Newton method, more efficient approximation of Newton direction.

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# Derivative computation

- We have seen: (most) optimization algorithms use derivative information.
- Parameter vector  $p \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightsquigarrow$  Derivative of the cost function

$$f(p) := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^m (y_k - z_k)^2.$$

is a vector of partial derivatives (gradient):

$$\nabla f(p) = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial p_i}(p) \right)_{i=1}^n.$$

- Model output depends on parameters:  $y = y(p)$ .
- $\rightsquigarrow$  Derivative (gradient) of the cost function has to be computed via the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^m (y_k - z_k)^2 \right) = \sum_{k=1}^m (y_k - z_k) \frac{\partial y_k}{\partial p_i} \Rightarrow \nabla f(p) = y'(p)^\top (y - z), \quad y' = \left( \frac{\partial y_k}{\partial p_i} \right)_{ki}.$$



# Ways to compute derivatives

1. Analytical derivative: there is a formula or the model is that simple that we can analytically compute the derivative:

Example EBM, steady state:

$$y = \sqrt[4]{\frac{S(1-\alpha)}{4\sigma\epsilon}} = \left(\frac{S(1-\alpha)}{4\sigma\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}}.$$

Derivative of  $y$  w.r.t. parameter  $p = \epsilon$ :

$$y'(\epsilon) := \frac{dy}{d\epsilon} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{S(1-\alpha)}{4\sigma\epsilon}\right)^{-\frac{3}{4}} \frac{S(1-\alpha)}{4\sigma} \left(-\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}\right).$$

Not that easy in the general, realistic case.

2. Symbolical computation using some online tools/software: works also only for simple functions.

### 3. Finite-difference derivative approximation

- Components of the gradient  $\nabla f(p)$  can be approximated by

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial p_i}(p) \approx \frac{f(p + he_i) - f(p)}{h}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

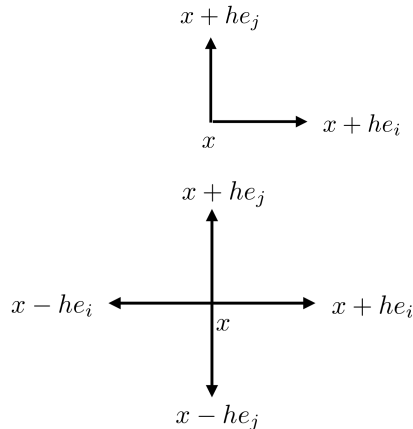
with  $h > 0$  fixed.

~>  $n$  additional evaluations of  $f$ .

- Central** approximation for gradient:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial p_i}(p) \approx \frac{f(p + he_i) - f(p - he_i)}{2h}.$$

~>  $2n$  additional evaluations of  $f$ .



## 4. Algorithmic/automatic differentiation (AD)

- Realistic case: cost function given as a computer program

$$f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f : p \mapsto f(p).$$

~>  $f$  is in fact a concatenation of elementary functions of the used programming language:

$$f = F_k \circ \dots \circ F_1$$

- Define the intermediate variables

$$x_0 := p, \quad x_i := F_i(x_{i-1}), i = 1, \dots, k, \quad f(p) = x_k.$$

~> Derivative of  $f$  to be computed by the **chain rule**:

$$x'_0 := I, \quad x'_i := F'_i(x_{i-1})x'_{i-1}, i = 1, \dots, k, \quad f'(p) = x'_k.$$

- The  $F_i$  are now elementary functions of the used language.
- ~> Their derivatives can be computed exactly.
- This can be done algorithmically (and efficiently).

# Simple example: AD using source transformation

$$F(x) = \sqrt{x} \Rightarrow F'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}.$$

```
real function f(x,y)
real x,y
y=sqrt(x)
f=y
return
end
```

original Fortran function code

Derivative of  $f$  to be computed by the **chain rule**:

$$x'_i := F'_i(x_{i-1})x'_{i-1}, i = 1, \dots, k.$$

```
r2_v = sqrt(x)
```

```
if ( x .gt. 0.0e0 ) then
```

```
    r1_p = 1.0e0 / (2.0e0 * r2_v)
```

```
else
```

```
    call ehufS0 (9,x, r2_v, r1_p,g_ehfid,32)
```

```
endif
```

```
g_y = r1_p * g_x
```

```
y = r2_v
```

```
---
```

```
g_f = y
```

part of algorithmically generated derivative code

# Algorithmic/automatic differentiation (AD)

- Works for long and operational climate and weather forecast models.
- Two methods: source transformation (example above) ...
- ... or operator overloading:

```

module ADClass
  use ISO_FORTRAN_ENV
  implicit none

  type, public :: AD
    private
    real(real64) :: val, der
  end type AD

  ! times operators:
  elemental type(AD) function times(advar, x)
    type(AD), intent(in) :: advar, x
    times%val = advar%val * x%val
    times%der = x%val * advar%der + advar%val * x%der
  end function

```

- Different software tools for Fortran, C, C++, Matlab® ...
- The obtained derivatives are exact (in contrast to the finite-difference derivatives).

# What is important

- Parameter optimization is an important method to improve model results.
- The model output is compared to available data.
- We try to find the parameters that provide the best model-to-data fit.
- For this purpose, a cost function that measures the misfit is defined.
- There are several options for the cost function.
- Some of them take into account data uncertainties and allow for a stochastic interpretation.
- We apply iterative optimization algorithms that approximate the optimal parameters.
- Many of these algorithms use derivative information.
- Derivatives can be computed via finite-difference approximations ...
- ... or applying software tools for Algorithmic/Automatic Differentiation.