# Issues specific to data sparse systems

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# Outline

## Introduction

- 2 Reduction methods
- 3 An overlooked problem for sparse data
- 4 Sparse observations and the ensemble Kalman filter

#### 6 Conclusions



#### In situ, surface-based observations

▶ In situ, surface-based observations usually come from sparse monitoring networks.

► They are of high value because of their accuracy, their frequency, and the direct access to the instruments.



▶ But afflicted by representation errors. Their measurements are not faulty, only our inability to simulate them. All observations are impacted by representation errors to some extend.

Janjić et al., 2018

#### In situ, surface-based observations

► The in-situ observations are still critical in atmospheric chemistry, especially air quality (boundary layer chemistry), in oceanography, etc, in meteorological reanalysis, boundary layer meteorology and micro-meteorology.



Gas: Global Atmosphere Watch network

Lidar: Earlinet network

▶ Intermediate instruments such as radar/lidar can form sparse networks too.

#### In situ, surface-based observations

▶ Because of the contrasted scales of in-situ observations and models, sparsity calls for multiscale modelling and data assimilation.

▶ Sparsity of observations affects the balance of background statistics in a cycled data assimilation → strong impact on most reanalysis endeavours, where the observation network can considerably evolve.

► Calls for:

- Fill-in data using geostatistics?
- Ensemble-based flow-dependent background error covariances (EnKF),
- Adjustable (ideally adaptive) background error covariances (EDA-based; diagnostics),
- Spatially adaptive inflation schemes: e.g. avoid inflating in data sparse regions,
- The problem gets tougher with coupled models with heterogeneous observation networks.

#### ERA-20C innovations RMS $\longrightarrow$

Karspeck et al., 2012; Whitaker et al., 2004; Poli et al., 2016; Laloyaux et al., 2018



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#### Dimensional reduction

► For most geophysical data assimilation / inverse problems, only a small fraction of the control space is actually informed by the observations.

- ▶ This could be for instance due to
  - the chaotic dynamics: it could be sufficient to control the unstable subspace and a few extra modes,
  - or to sparse observations (observation driven reduction?)
- Dimension reduction allows
  - faster computation of the solution and its uncertainty,
  - the use of sophisticated inference methods (non-linear sampling such as MCMC),
  - identification of surrogate models (Polynomial Chaos, machine learning techniques),

and naturally applies to multiscale DA systems.

► How does the dimensional reduction impact the accuracy of the solution? Is there an optimal resolution?

#### Dimensional reduction

- ▶ There may be a competition between:
  - The aggregation errors
  - Errors that are due to scale-dependent modelling errors.



► Paradigm discussed by the greenhouse house gases inverse modelling community! Peylin et al., 2001

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#### Inverse modelling context

• Context: Inverse modelling of sources  $\sigma$  in atmospheric chemistry

- Background **B** in control space. First guess  $\sigma_{\rm b}$ .
- R a priori on the observation/model errors
- **H** Jacobian matrix of the problem (observation + model):

$$\mu = \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\sigma} + \epsilon \,. \tag{1}$$

• BLUE analysis:

$$\sigma_{\rm a} = \sigma_{\rm b} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{H}^{\rm T} \left(\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{H}^{\rm T}\right)^{-1} \left(\boldsymbol{\mu} - \mathbf{H}\sigma_{\rm b}\right),$$
$$\mathbf{P}^{\rm a} = \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{H}^{\rm T} \left(\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{H}^{\rm T}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{H}\mathbf{B}.$$
(2)

 In the following a representation ω ∈ R(Ω) is a discretisation of the space-time domain of control (parameter) space Ω.

## Up and down the scale ladder (1/4)

#### Restriction and prolongation

- Restriction operator :  $\sigma \xrightarrow[coarse graining]{} \sigma_{\omega} = \Gamma_{\omega}\sigma$ , where  $\Gamma_{\omega} : \mathbb{R}^{N_{fg}} \to \mathbb{R}^{N}$  defines the coarse graining operator (non-ambiguous).
- Prolongation operator :  $\Gamma_{\omega}^{\star} : \mathbb{R}^{N} \to \mathbb{R}^{N_{\mathrm{fg}}}$  refines  $\sigma_{\omega}$  into  $\sigma$  (ambiguous).

#### Scaling of errors

- Background error covariance matrix:  $\mathbf{B}_{\omega} = \mathbf{\Gamma}_{\omega} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{\Gamma}_{\omega}^{\mathrm{T}}$ ,
- Observations/representativeness/model errors: R<sub>ω</sub>, to be discussed later.



Bocquet et al., 2011

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#### Up and down the scale ladder (2/4)



Bayesian choice of a prolongation operator

• Idea: Use prior  $\sigma \sim \mathcal{N}(\sigma_{\rm b}, \mathbf{B})$  to refine the source. Knowing  $\sigma_{\omega}$  in representation  $\omega$ , then from Bayes' rule, the most likely refined source is given by the mode of

$$q(\boldsymbol{\sigma}|\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\omega}) = \frac{q(\boldsymbol{\sigma})}{q_{\omega}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\omega})} \delta\left(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\omega} - \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\omega}\boldsymbol{\sigma}\right), \qquad (3)$$

## Up and down the scale ladder (3/4)

#### Bayesian choice of a prolongation operator

- Refinement is now a statistical process! But the prolongation operator will be defined as the most likely refinement operation.
- Thus the (estimate of the) refined source is

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\star} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{b}} + \mathbf{B} \mathbf{\Gamma}_{\omega}^{\mathrm{T}} \left( \mathbf{\Gamma}_{\omega} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{\Gamma}_{\omega}^{\mathrm{T}} \right)^{-1} \left( \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\omega} - \mathbf{\Gamma}_{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{b}} \right) \,, \tag{4}$$

which suggests the (affine) prolongation operator

$$\Gamma_{\omega}^{\star} \equiv (\mathbf{I}_{N_{\rm fg}} - \mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega})\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\rm b} + \mathbf{\Lambda}_{\omega}^{\star} \,, \tag{5}$$

where the linear part of  $\mathbf{\Gamma}_{\omega}^{\star}$  is

$$\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\omega}^{\star} \equiv \boldsymbol{\mathsf{B}}\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\omega}^{\mathrm{T}} \left(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\omega} \boldsymbol{\mathsf{B}}\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\omega}^{\mathrm{T}}\right)^{-1}, \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\omega} \equiv \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{\omega}^{\star}\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\omega}.$$
(6)

#### Up and down the scale ladder (4/4)

#### Up and down

- Must consistently satisfy  $\Gamma_{\omega}\Gamma_{\omega}^{\star} = I_N$ .
- Down and up:  $\Gamma^{\star}_{\omega}\Gamma_{\omega} = (I_{N_{\mathrm{fg}}} \Pi_{\omega})\sigma_{\mathrm{b}} + \Pi_{\omega}$

#### Properties of $\Pi_{\omega}$

- $\Pi_{\omega}$  is a projector since  $\Pi_{\omega}^2 = \Pi_{\omega}$ .
- It is also  $\mathbf{B}^{-1}$ -symmetric:  $\mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega}^{\mathrm{T}}$ .

Observation equation in representation  $\omega$ 

• Then **H** becomes  $\mathbf{H}_{\omega} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{\Gamma}_{\omega}^{\star}$ , and

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\mathsf{H}}_{\omega}\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\omega} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\omega} = \boldsymbol{\mathsf{H}}\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\omega}^{\star}\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\omega}\boldsymbol{\sigma} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\omega}\,, \tag{7}$$

so that

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{b}} + \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\omega}(\boldsymbol{\sigma} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{b}}) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\omega} \,. \tag{8}$$

## Accounting for aggregation/representation errors

Consistent observation equations:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\sigma} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \mathbf{H}_{\omega}\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\omega} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\omega} \,. \tag{9}$$

Assuming aggregation is the only source of scale-dependent errors, one has  $H\sigma + \epsilon = H\sigma_{\rm b} + H\Pi_{\omega}(\sigma - \sigma_{\rm b}) + \epsilon_{\omega}$ , leading to the identification

$$\epsilon_{\omega} = \epsilon + \mathbf{H} \left( \mathbf{I}_{N_{\rm fg}} - \mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega} \right) \left( \boldsymbol{\sigma} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\rm b} \right). \tag{10}$$

Assuming independence of the error and source priors, the computation of the covariance matrix of these errors leads to

$$\mathbf{R}_{\omega} = \mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \left( \mathbf{I}_{N_{\rm fg}} - \mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega} \right) \mathbf{B} \left( \mathbf{I}_{N_{\rm fg}} - \mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega} \right) \mathbf{H}^{\rm T}$$
(11)

$$= \mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \left( \mathbf{I}_{N_{\rm fg}} - \mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega} \right) \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\rm T} \,. \tag{12}$$

In that case, one checks that the innovation statistics are scale-independent.

Rodgers, 2000; Bocquet et al., 2011

# The DFS criterion for the optimality of representations

• <u>Idea:</u> maximise the number of degrees of freedom in the signal (DFS), that come from the observations and is transferred to control space:

$$\mathcal{J} = \operatorname{Tr} \left( \mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{N}} - \mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathbf{B}^{-1} \right) = \operatorname{Tr} \left( \mathbf{H} \mathbf{K} \right)$$
$$= \operatorname{Tr} \left( \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \left( \mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \right)^{-1} \right).$$
(13)

It also maximises the potential of BLUE.

- Bounded by the number of available observations: 0 ≤ J ≤ d.
   For a perfect observation/perfect model experiment: max<sub>ω</sub> J = d.
   Limited by the errors diagnosed in the observations max<sub>ω</sub> J ≤ d.
- It also reads, for any representation  $\omega$ :

$$\mathcal{J}_{\omega} = \operatorname{Tr}\left(\mathbf{H}_{\omega}\mathbf{B}_{\omega}\mathbf{H}_{\omega}^{\mathrm{T}}\left(\mathbf{R}_{\omega} + \mathbf{H}_{\omega}\mathbf{B}_{\omega}\mathbf{H}_{\omega}^{\mathrm{T}}\right)^{-1}\right).$$
 (14)

Bocquet, 2009; Bocquet et al., 2011

## Accounting for full scale-dependent errors

► Decomposition of errors from the scale analysis point of view:

- ${\, \bullet \,}$  the scale-independent observation error  $\epsilon^{\rm o}$  ,
- an aggregation error:  $\epsilon_{\omega} \equiv \epsilon + \epsilon_{\omega}^{c}$ , where  $\epsilon_{\omega}^{c} = \mathsf{H} \left( \mathsf{I}_{N_{\mathrm{fg}}} \mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega} \right) (\boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{b}})$ ,
- the model error that would be scale-dependent  $\epsilon_{\omega}^{m}$ .

As a result:

$$\epsilon_{\omega} = \epsilon^{\rm o} + \epsilon_{\omega}^{\rm c} + \epsilon_{\omega}^{\rm m} \,. \tag{15}$$

The criterion for the design of representations may then be non-monotonic.

► Criteria under scale-covariant errors (i.e. without model error except representation errors)

$$\mathcal{J}_{\omega} = \mathrm{Tr}\left(\mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\left(\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\right)^{-1}\right).$$
 (16)

## Criteria under scale-covariant errors

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▶ When considering scale-covariant errors, the dependence of the criteria in the representation  $\omega$  can be simplified

• Fisher:

$$\mathcal{J}_{\omega} = \operatorname{Tr} \left( \mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H} \right) \,. \tag{17}$$

• DFS:

$$\mathcal{J}_{\omega} = \mathrm{Tr} \left( \mathbf{\Pi}_{\omega} \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \left( \mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \right)^{-1} \right) \,. \tag{18}$$

• Data-dependent:

$$\mathcal{J}_{\omega} = \operatorname{Tr} \left( \Pi_{\omega} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}})^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{b}}) \right.$$
$$\times (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{b}})^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}})^{-1} \mathbf{H}) .$$
(19)

► These objective functions can be proven to be increasing functions of the number of grid cells!

#### CTBTO IMS radionuclide network



► Objective: 80 radionuclide particle filters worldwide. 79 stations with designated location (treaty).

► Design network study Performance of the network assessed with detectability criteria.



Koohkan et al., 2012; Ringbom & Milley, 2009

# Optimal adaptive grid for the IMS radionuclide network (1/3)

▶ Large error case. Equivalent to dfs/number of observations  $\rightarrow 0$ . N = 4096.



Koohkan et al., 2012

# Optimal adaptive grid for the IMS radionuclide network (2/3)

▶ Realistic case (optimistic): dfs/number of observations  $\simeq 10\%$ . N = 4096.



Koohkan et al., 2012

# Optimal adaptive grid for the IMS radionuclide network (3/3)

▶ Small error case: dfs/number of observations  $\simeq$  90%. N = 4096. Performance of distant future modelling and data assimilation systems.



Koohkan et al., 2012

#### Comparison of the asymptotic and exact designs performances



Optimised on the qtrees set, with the DFS criterion, on the CTBTO test case. Bocquet & Wu, 2011

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#### More general reduction techniques

Instead of defining optimal adaptive control space grids, one can look for general low-rank representation and analyses within a truncated basis of the dominant modes.

▶ I invite you to read the recent and complete review on the topic by N. Bousserez and D. Henze, with further applications to greenhouse gas inverse problems.





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#### Inverse problem in atmospheric chemistry with sparse networks

▶ Inverse modelling of emissions of trace gas (greenhouse gases, VOCs, gaseous reactive species, particulate matter, radionuclides, etc.)

► Sparse surface-based network remains key for the inversion of emissions/fluxes/source.

► Can be solved with traditional techniques of data assimilation/inverse problems assuming a fixed discretisation resolution of the model and of the emission prior and statistics.



## The colocation issue

▶ Odd dependence of the solution on the resolution (colocation).



Issartel, 2003; Bocquet, 2005; Saide et al., 2011

 $\blacktriangleright$  Assimilation of one concentration observation  $\mu$  to retrieve an emission field  $\sigma$ 

$$\mathcal{J}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{r^2} \left( \mu - \int \mathrm{d}x \, h(x) \sigma(x) \right)^2 + \frac{1}{m^2} \int \mathrm{d}x \, \sigma^2(x)$$

 ${\it h}$  is the forward model adjoint solution attached to  $\mu.$  Thikonov regularisation.

► The solution is:

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{m^2 h(x)}{r^2 + m^2 \int \mathrm{d}x \, h^2(x)} \mu$$

► The physical model must have a proper continuum limit. In particular  $\int dx h(x)\sigma(x)$  and  $\int dx h(x)$  are proper.

▶ However, the data assimilation system does not necessarily have one! In particular  $\int dx h^2(x)$  is not necessarily proper. Its Riemann discretisation might diverge as  $\Delta_x \longrightarrow 0$ . In that case, when  $\Delta_x \longrightarrow 0$ , one has:

• 
$$\sigma(x) \longrightarrow 0$$
, except maybe at the stations,

• dfs 
$$\propto \left[1 + \frac{r^2}{m^2} \left(\int \mathrm{d}x \, h^2(x)\right)^{-1}\right]^{-1} \longrightarrow 1$$

Bocquet, 2005

- ▶ The divergence depends on many critical factors:
  - the geometry of control space (where the background statistics are defined),
  - the geometry of the observation space,
  - the nature of the physics (advection, diffusion, convection, etc.) and the geometry of the physical space.
- **•** Example of a diffusion problem  $\mu = \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ :

$$oldsymbol{\sigma}^{\star} = \mathsf{B}\mathsf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathsf{G}^{-1}oldsymbol{\mu} \quad ext{with} \quad \mathsf{G} = \mathsf{H}\mathsf{B}\mathsf{H}^{\mathrm{T}}$$
 ,

The information matrix  ${\bf G}$  is the Grammian of the adjoint solutions. A diagonal entry of  ${\bf G}$  has the form

$$g \sim \sum_{k} v_k [\mathbf{c}_i^*]_k [\mathbf{c}_i^*]_k \tag{20}$$

We assume  $\mathbf{c}_i^*$  has a diffusive behaviour close to the observation network:

$$c^{*}(\mathbf{r},\mathbf{z},t) = \frac{\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{t}\left(\frac{|\mathbf{r}|^{2}}{4K_{h}} + \frac{|\mathbf{z}|^{2}}{4K_{z}}\right)\right\}}{\sqrt{(4\pi t)^{D} K_{h}^{d} K_{z}^{D-d}}}.$$
(21)

Bocquet, 2005

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Geometry:

- D: the dimension of the physical space in which diffusion takes place,
- d: the dimension of control (source) space,
- $\delta$ : the dimension of the observation embedding space.

• Asymptotically (taking first the limits  $\Delta_t$  and  $\Delta_z$  go to 0)

$$g \sim (D-2)! \frac{S_d}{2\pi^D} \frac{1}{K_h} \left(\frac{K_h}{K_z}\right)^{D-d} \frac{\Delta_x^{d-2D+2}}{2D-d-2},$$
 (22)

where  $S_d = 2\pi^{d/2}/\Gamma(d/2)$  is the area of the unit sphere in dimension d.

- ► Two regimes:
  - If d 2D + 2 > 0, g diverges when  $\Delta_x$  goes to 0. Then there is degeneracy.
  - If d − 2D + 2 ≤ 0, g converges. No degeneracy. Higher resolution is not detrimental to the inverse problem.

Bocquet, 2005

D	d	δ	divergence	$\  oldsymbol{\sigma}^{\star} \ _{\mathbf{B}^{-1}}^2 / \  oldsymbol{\sigma} \ _{\mathbf{B}^{-1}}^2$	1 context
3	2	2	$g\sim rac{1}{2\pi^2 K_z}\Delta_x^{-2}$	$\ oldsymbol{\mu}\ ^2\Delta_x^2$	surface obs. and source
2	2	2	$g\sim -rac{1}{\pi K_{h}}\ln\Delta_{x}$	$-\frac{\ \boldsymbol{\mu}\ ^2}{\ln \Delta_x}$	surface obs., source and transport
3	3	3	$g\sim rac{2}{\pi^2 K_b}\Delta_{x}^{-1}$	$\  oldsymbol{\mu} \ ^2 \Delta_x$	air obs., vol. source
3	2	3	no singularity	constant	air obs., surface source
3	0	2	no singularity	constant	surface obs., pointwise source

► Key findings :

- For a 3D dispersion (diffusive-like close to the stations), ||σ<sup>\*</sup>||<sup>2</sup><sub>B<sup>-1</sup></sub>/||σ||<sup>2</sup><sub>B<sup>-1</sup></sub> behaves like Δ<sup>4-d</sup><sub>x</sub>. Always singular DA system.
- Radiance height-resolved products and lidar observations used for inversion of emission on the ground does lead to the proper data assimilation system. No fundamental constraint on the spatial resolution.
- ▶ What is wrong with our setting of the inverse problem?
  - White noise has improper power spectrum; Tikhonov regularisation is unphysical!
  - But is coloured noise appropriate? Is there an intrinsic correlation length?

Bocquet, 2005

#### The INFLUX inverse problem

▶ INFLUX experiments in Indianapolis: inverse estimation of  $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4$  and CO urban fluxes using 12 towers, 5 NOA flasks samplers, 3 eddy flux towers, 1 Doppler lidar.



Lauvaux et al., 2016

#### The INFLUX inverse problem



Error reduction in  $CO_2$  emissions for a correlation length in **B** of 8, 5 and 2 kms.



Wu et al., 2018

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#### Required EnKF ensemble size with sparse observations

▶ RMSE of EnKF runs with sparser and sparser observations (without localisation, inflation optimally tuned)



Catastrophic divergence of the EnKF with a sparse network.

## Required EnKF ensemble size with sparse observations

▶ RMSE of EnKF runs with sparser and sparser observations (without localisation, inflation optimally tuned) but with adjusted variance so as provide the same amount of information.



Catastrophic divergence still present.

## Catastrophic divergence

▶ Mechanism proposed by Gottwald and Majda (probably known by e.g., Anderson): Analysis at n for assimilating one observation  $y_m$  at site m:

$$x_n^{\rm a} = x_n^{\rm b} + P_{nm} \left( r + P_{mm} \right)^{-1} \left( y_m - x_n^{\rm b} \right).$$
 (23)

- $P_{mm}$  fluctuates around the local variance as  $\sim 1/N$ .
- $P_{nm}$  is of the order of  $\sim 1/N$  whereas it should exponentially vanish with d(n, m).
- As a consequence: spurious correlations yielding spurious update.
- Phenomenon amplified by a smaller r.

Obviously localisation should be a remedy to catastrophic divergence

$$x_n^{\rm a} = x_n^{\rm b} + \rho_{nm} P_{nm} \left( r + P_{mm} \right)^{-1} \left( y_m - x_n^{\rm b} \right).$$
(24)

But imbalance may be exacerbated by the lack of observations.

▶ Hybridisation of covariances is another option:

$$x_{n}^{\rm a} = x_{n}^{\rm b} + (\alpha P_{nm} + (1 - \alpha) B_{nm}) (r + \alpha P_{mm} + (1 - \alpha) B_{mm})^{-1} (y_{m} - x_{n}^{\rm b}).$$
(25)

Gottwald & Majda, 2013; Penny, 2014

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#### Conclusions

▶ Optimal reduction techniques: Adapt control space in order to capture most of the system DFS and minimise the representation error (multiscale data assimilation).

Sparse data assimilation systems pose several mathematical challenges:

- Sparse observations in a density-changing cycled DA system requires reliable, adaptive, possibly flow-dependent, background error statics; possibly spatially adaptive localisation, inflation and hybridisation for EnKF/hybrid/EDA.
- Depending on the geometry, statistics and physics of the data assimilation system, the continuous limit of the system might not exist! Traditional regularisation is inefficient or questionable. Alternatives?
- The EnKF used with sparse observations may lead to catastrophic divergence (another resurgence of sampling errors); that could be cured by (adaptive) localisation and/or hybridisation.

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