

Exploring machine learning for data assimilation

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Machine Learning seminar series

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The emergence of machine learning

- \triangleright Machine learning (ML) methods, and in particular deep learning (DL), have recently demonstrated impressive skills in reproducing complex spatiotemporal processes.
- \blacktriangleright The emergence of DL is largely due to:
	- the development of efficient and user-friendly libraries;
	- the increasing computational capabilities (and in particular the use of GPUs);
	- the access to (very) large datasets for training.

Machine learning and optimisation

Definition

Machine learning (ML) algorithms build a *mathematical model* based on sample data, known as "training data", in order to make predictions or decisions without being explicitly programmed to perform the task.

In most cases, the goal is to minimise a loss function which expresses the discrepancy between the model prediction and the data:

$$
\mathbf{w}^* = \underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\mathrm{p}}}}{\arg \min} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\mathrm{e}}} \left\| \mathbf{y}_i - \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_i) \right\|_2^2.
$$
 (1)

- The set $\{(x_i, y_i), i = 1...N_e\}$ is the *training data*.
- **►** The model M depends on a set of parameters $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_p}$.
- This approach is called *supervised learning*.
- In this sense, ML is not that far from *data assimilation* (DA).

Machine learning for numerical weather prediction

IGUARY Suppose that $\psi(t)$ **is the trajectory of a physical system and define**

$$
\mathbf{x}_i = \psi(i \times \Delta t), \tag{2a}
$$

$$
\mathbf{y}_i = \psi((i+1) \times \Delta t). \tag{2b}
$$

IGM Then the ML problem (1) consists in finding the best approximation of the map $\psi(t) \mapsto \psi(t + \Delta t)$, *i.e.*, the *resolvent* of $\psi(t)$, among all models

$$
\left\{ \mathcal{M} : \mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}), \ \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\mathrm{p}}} \right\}.
$$
 (3)

Machine learning for numerical weather prediction

- \triangleright Such approaches has been used to reconstruct the dynamics of low-order models (Lorenz 1963, Lorenz 1996, Kuramoto–Sivashinski) using different variants:
	- recurrent neural network $[Park and Zhu, 1994];$
	- \triangleright reservoir computing [Pathak et al., 2017, 2018];
	- \triangleright artificial neural networks [Dueben and Bauer, 2018].
- In these examples, the trajectory of the system is *perfectly known*.
- \triangleright By contrast, observations in NWP are *sparse* and *noisy*: we need DA to recover the full state and to filter the noise!
- A rigorous formalism for this problem is that of a DA system with the model parameters **w** inside the control vector [Bocquet et al., 2019, 2020; Brajard et al., 2020].

The data assimilation problem

 \blacktriangleright In this case, the cost function to minimise is

$$
\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{N_{\mathrm{t}}}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{N_{\mathrm{t}}} \left\| \mathbf{y}_k - \mathcal{H}_k(\mathbf{x}_k) \right\|_{\mathbf{R}_k^{-1}}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{N_{\mathrm{t}}-1} \left\| \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathcal{M}_k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_k) \right\|_{\mathbf{Q}_k^{-1}}^2, \quad (4)
$$

- $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\mathbf{x}}}$ is the *state* at time t_k ;
- $\mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{N_\mathbf{y}}$ is the *observation vector* at time $t_k;$
- ► \bf{w} \in $\mathbb{R}^{N_{\text{p}}}$ is the set of *parameters of the surrogate model* \mathcal{M}_k *(e.g.*, the weights of an artificial neural network);
- \blacktriangleright *N*_t is the length of the *assimilation* or *training window*.
- \triangleright This resemble a typical weak-constraint 4D-Var cost function!
- If $H_k = \text{Id}$ (full observations) and $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{0}$ (no observation noise), we recover the standard ML cost function.

Joint minimisation of **w** and **x**

- If possible, one can optimise for the parameters **w** and the trajectory $\mathbf{x}_0, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_N$, at the same time.
- \triangleright This method has been used by [Bocquet at al., 2019] to reconstruct the dynamics of the Lorenz 1996 and Kuramoto–Sivashinski models, with as few parameters as possible.
- \triangleright For realistic models, a joint minimisation is very difficult to implement:
	- **•** the state space \mathbb{R}^{N_x} is already *high-dimensional*;
	- in order to get an accurate description of the dynamics, the *number of* parameters $N_{\rm p}$ and the length of the *training window* $N_{\rm t}$ must be large enough.

Coordinate descent: alternate ML and DA

- Because the parameters **w** and the trajectory $\mathbf{x}_0, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{N_t}$ are of different nature, it could be more efficient to use a *coordinate descent*, in which we alternate
	- \triangleright a standard *DA step*: minimisation over $(\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{N_t})$;
	- **a** standard ML step: minimisation over **w**.
- \blacktriangleright The algorithm is flexible: the DA and ML methods are independent.
- In this framework, the use of ML is more technical than conceptual.

Coordinate descent: alternate ML and DA

- \triangleright This method has been used by [Bocquet et al., 2020] and [Brajard et al., 2020] to reconstruct the dynamics of the Lorenz 1996 and Lorenz 2005 (two-scale) models using convolutional neural networks.
- \blacktriangleright The extension to realistic models is not immediate:
	- \triangleright the algorithm initialisation is critical:
	- \triangleright the convergence is not guaranteed and we cannot afford many DA steps.
- Instead of constructing the model from scratch, we could build a *hybrid* model using an already existent model:

$$
\mathcal{M}_k^{\mathsf{h}} : (\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) \mapsto \mathcal{M}_k^{\mathsf{o}}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathcal{M}_k^{\mathsf{mI}}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}), \tag{5}
$$

where \mathcal{M}° is the *original model* and $\mathcal{M}^{\mathsf{ml}}$ is the *trainable model*.

The hybrid model

 \blacktriangleright In this case, the ML cost can be rewritten as

$$
\mathcal{J}^{\mathsf{ml}}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{N_{\mathrm{t}}}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{N_{\mathrm{t}}-1} \left\| \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathcal{M}_k^{\mathsf{h}}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_k) \right\|_{\mathbf{Q}_k^{-1}}^2, \tag{6}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{N_{\mathrm{t}}-1} \left\| \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathcal{M}_k^{\mathsf{o}}(\mathbf{x}_k) - \mathcal{M}_k^{\mathsf{ml}}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_k) \right\|_{\mathbf{Q}_k^{-1}}^2. \tag{7}
$$

Therefore, the trainable model \mathcal{M}^{ml} has to learn the relationship

$$
\mathbf{x}_k \mapsto \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathcal{M}_k^{\circ}(\mathbf{x}_k) = \eta_{k+1},\tag{8}
$$

in other words the *model error* associated to \mathcal{M}° .

Short summary

How to estimate the full model dynamics using perfect observations (full and noiseless)?

$$
\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{N_{\mathrm{t}}-1} \left\| \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathcal{M}_{k}^{\mathrm{ml}}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_{k}) \right\|_{\mathbf{Q}_{k}^{-1}}^{2}.
$$

How to estimate the full model dynamics using sparse and noisy observations?

$$
\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w},\mathbf{x}_\star)=\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=0}^{N_\mathrm{t}}\left\|\mathbf{y}_k-\mathcal{H}_k(\mathbf{x}_k)\right\|_{\mathbf{R}_k^{-1}}^2+\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=0}^{N_\mathrm{t}-1}\left\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1}-\mathcal{M}_k^\mathrm{ml}(\mathbf{w},\mathbf{x}_k)\right\|_{\mathbf{Q}_k^{-1}}^2.
$$

How to estimate the model error using sparse and noisy observations?

$$
\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w},\mathbf{x}_\star) = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=0}^{N_\mathrm{t}} \left\|\mathbf{y}_k - \mathcal{H}_k(\mathbf{x}_k)\right\|_{\mathbf{R}_k^{-1}}^2 + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=0}^{N_\mathrm{t}-1} \left\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathcal{M}_k^{\mathrm{o}}(\mathbf{x}_k) - \mathcal{M}_k^{\mathrm{ml}}(\mathbf{w},\mathbf{x}_k)\right\|_{\mathbf{Q}_k^{-1}}^2.
$$

Learning the model error

- \triangleright We want to validate this approach using the framework developed at ECMWF (namely OOPS).
- \blacktriangleright The observations will be generated using the QG model:
	- **a** reasonably complex problem (2D, 2 layers, 1600 variables in total);
	- \blacktriangleright sufficiently small to perform extensive tests;
	- it has been used to validate the weak-constraint 4D-Var algorithm [Laloyaux et al., 2020].
- \triangleright The DA step will be performed using the *strong-constraint 4D-Var* algorithm:
	- If the original model \mathcal{M}° is to be determined (perturbed QG model);
	- \triangleright the total training window will be divided into smaller sub-windows.
- \triangleright The ML step will be performed with standard ML tools:
	- In the trainable model M^{ml} will be built with artificial neural networks:
	- \blacktriangleright the optimisation is left to TensorFlow 2.

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Brief model description

 \triangleright The model expresses the *conservation of potential vorticity q* for two layers of constant potential temperature in the $x - y$ plane (two-dimensional model):

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}q_1}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\mathrm{d}q_2}{\mathrm{d}t} = 0. \tag{9}
$$

I The potential vorticity *q* is related to the *stream function* ψ by

$$
q_1 = \Delta \psi_1 - F_1(\psi_1 - \psi_2) + \beta y,\tag{10a}
$$

$$
q_2 = \Delta \psi_2 - F_2(\psi_2 - \psi_1) + \beta y + R(x, y). \tag{10b}
$$

- \triangleright The domain is *periodic* in the *x* direction and *fixed boundary conditions* are used for *q* in the *y* direction. We use a discretisation of 40×20 points.
- \blacktriangleright The *orography R* is characterised by a Gaussian hill.

Dynamical behaviour

[show animation here]

- We have first checked that the model is stable and realistic for very long runs.
- **IDED** The evolution of ψ is characterised by a *slow westward motion*, with a mean period around 16 d.
- \blacktriangleright The model is *chaotic*, with a doubling time of errors around 250 h .
- For comparison, the doubling time of errors in the IFS is around $2d$.

Data assimilation with the QG model

- \triangleright We use the DA setup of [Laloyaux et al., 2020].
- The control vector is ψ : the state dimension is $N_x = 40 \times 20 \times 2 = 1600$.
- \triangleright Observations are available every $\Delta t = 2 h$ at $N_v = 50$ *random locations*.
- The observation standard deviation is set to $\sigma = 0.1$, about 2% of the model variability;
- \triangleright The 4D-Var algorithm is used with consecutive windows of $\Delta T = 1$ d.

The perturbed QG model: definition

- \blacktriangleright We add a model error on top of the exact QG model \mathcal{M}^t to create the original model \mathcal{M}° . The goal will be to recover the exact model $\mathcal{M}^{\rm t}$.
- In the weak-constraint 4D-Var test series [Laloyaux et al., 2020], the model error is a random additive noise, with a given covariance, and constant in time.
- However, such model noise makes the model unstable in the long term: we need another approach.
- For M° we use the QG model with *different parameters* (top and bottom layer depth, orography) and different integration time step.

The perturbed QG model: forecast skill

 \blacktriangleright We compute the *forecast skill* (FS) of \mathcal{M}° compared to \mathcal{M}° :

$$
FS(t) = RMSE(\mathcal{M}_{0 \to t}^{t}(\mathbf{x}_{0}), \mathcal{M}_{0 \to t}^{o}(\mathbf{x}_{0}))
$$
\n(11)

- The quantity is averaged over a large number (100) of initial conditions x_0 to get a reliable estimate.
- NB: learning the model error starting from persistence (*i.e.*, when $\mathcal{M}^{\circ} = Id$) is roughly equivalent to learning the full dynamics!

The perturbed QG model: model error

[show animation here]

- \blacktriangleright The resulting model error is dominated by the *orography* error.
- **In Compared to the error with persistence, it is large scale and it has a slow time** evolution.

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Idealised ML experiments

- \triangleright Before starting the experiments with sparse and noisy observations, we want to evaluate the potential of ML.
	- \triangleright What kind of model should be used? How should they be trained?
	- \triangleright What level of improvement can we expect?
- **In** Therefore, we first try to learn the model error using *perfect observations* (*i.e.*, full and noiseless).

Database creation

 \blacktriangleright We first make a long run with the exact QG model \mathcal{M}^{t} and we extract ψ at regular intervals:

$$
\psi_k = \psi(k \times \Delta T), \quad k = 0, \dots, N_t. \tag{12}
$$

Then, we compute the model error η for the perturbed QG model \mathcal{M}° as

$$
\eta_{k+1} = \psi_{k+1} - \mathcal{M}^{\circ}(\psi_k), \quad k = 0, \dots, N_{t} - 1.
$$
 (13)

 \blacktriangleright Finally, the database for ML is

$$
\Big\{ \big(\psi_{k-1}, \eta_k\big),\ k=1,\ldots,N_{\mathrm{t}} \Big\}.\tag{14}
$$

- \blacktriangleright The process is repeated 18 times:
	- \triangleright one trajectory is used for training;
	- one trajectory is used for *validation* (when to stop the training);
	- \blacktriangleright 16 trajectories are used for testing.
- \blacktriangleright This experiment has two hyperparameters:
	- \triangleright the sampling period $\Delta T \rightarrow 1, 2, 4, 8d$;
	- the size of the database $N_t \rightarrow 16, 32, 64, \ldots, 1024$.

Machine learning models

- \blacktriangleright The trainable model \mathcal{M}^{ml} is built using artificial neural networks.
- \blacktriangleright Two classes of architectures are considered:
	- \triangleright sequential models with only *dense* or *fully-connected* layers;
	- \triangleright sequential models with *convolutional* layers followed by *dense* layers.

Machine learning models

- \triangleright The models are implemented using TensorFlow (only a few lines of python code).
- \triangleright For each experiment, 24 models are trained, with variation of
	- \triangleright the number of layers \rightarrow 1, ..., 4;
	- **■** the number of nodes or filters per layer \rightarrow 4, 8, 16;
	- **►** the *activation function* \rightarrow linear or relu $x \mapsto \frac{1}{2}(x + |x|)$.
- \blacktriangleright The models are designed to use as few parameters as possible ($N_{\rm p}$ is between 10^4 and 10^5) because the problem is small $(N_x = 1600)$.
- Regularisation is empirically unnecessary in our experiments.

Model training

- \triangleright The models are trained using $Adam$, a variant of the *stochastic gradient descent* implemented in TensorFlow.
- \triangleright The model input / output are normalised to accelerate the convergence.
- \blacktriangleright The loss function is the *mean squared error* (MSE).
- \blacktriangleright The training consists of:
	- ► 10^3 epochs with an initial learning rate of 10^{-3} ;
	- ► 10^3 epochs with an initial learning rate of 10^{-4} (fine-tuning);
	- \triangleright in each case, we keep the model with the lowest validation MSE.

Training example

In Trainable model M^{ml} **: 1 dense layer with 4 nodes, linear activation, 14 404** parameters in total.

 \blacktriangleright The model learns about 92% of the model error variance.

Corrected forecast skill

The trained model is included in the hybrid model $\mathcal{M}^{h} = \mathcal{M}^{o} + \mathcal{M}^{m}$ and tested in forecast condition:

$$
FS(t) = RMSE\left(\mathcal{M}_{0\to t}^{t}(\mathbf{x}_0), \mathcal{M}_{0\to t}^{h}(\mathbf{x}_0)\right)
$$
\n(15)

- The FS is averaged over 16 different initial conditions x_0 to get a reliable estimate.
- The correction is still effective after a $10d$ forecast!
- \triangleright What are the results for the other models? Which are the best models?
- \triangleright What happens if we change the sampling period ΔT or the size of the database N_t ?
- \blacktriangleright How does this compare to persistence?

Comparative forecast skill

- \blacktriangleright There is a clear tendency: the more parameters, the lower the RMSE.
- \blacktriangleright The spread at 16 d is much larger than at 8 d.

How long must be the training trajectory?

RMSE at 8 d for the best hybrid model M^h

- \triangleright At fixed sampling period ΔT , the 8d forecast improves with the length of the training trajectory.
- **►** Globally the RMSE improves as the sampling period ΔT is decreased, even though this means using more hybrid model cycles.

Which are the best models?

- Increasing the number of parameters (e.g., the *number of nodes*) is a good strategy.
- \blacktriangleright The number of layers and layer types (dense or convolutional) has little impact.
- \triangleright Nonlinear activation functions are more efficient for small databases or if the sampling period ∆*T* is long. This is related to the development of nonlinearity for longer model forecast.

What about longer forecast?

RMSE at 16 d for the best hybrid model M^h

- \blacktriangleright The hybrid model \mathcal{M}^{h} clearly improves upon the original model \mathcal{M}^{o} .
- \blacktriangleright However, increasing the length of the training trajectory N_t or decreasing the sampling period ∆*T* does not improve the RMSE.

Comparison with persistence

- The training is easier when \mathcal{M}° is the perturbed QG model than with persistence $({\mathcal{M}}^\circ = \mathrm{Id}).$
- \triangleright With the perturbed QG model, the RMSE is globally better and much better for small databases.
- \triangleright With persistence, decreasing the sampling period ΔT does not significantly improve the RMSE.

Summary

Best hybrid models, $\Delta T = 1$ d and $N_t = 1024$

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Coupled DA–ML experiments

- \triangleright We are now ready to start the coupled DA–ML experiments.
- \triangleright We first perform a single cycle: one DA step, followed by one ML step.
- \blacktriangleright We then evaluate our options.

The data assimilation step

- Observations are available every $\Delta t = 2 h$ at $N_y = 50$ random locations.
- \triangleright The data assimilation step is performed with the strong-constraint 4D-Var algorithm:
	- \triangleright we use windows of $\Delta T = 1$ d:
	- If the algorithm uses the original (perturbed) QG model \mathcal{M}° ;
	- the observation standard deviation is set to $\sigma = 0.1$, about 2% of the model variability;
	- \triangleright the standard deviation of the background covariance matrix **B** is optimally tuned to yield the lowest analysis RMSE.

Database creation with data assimilation

 \blacktriangleright We first make a long run with the exact QG model \mathcal{M}^{t} and we extract ψ at regular intervals:

$$
\psi_k^{\mathsf{t}} = \psi(k \times \Delta T), \quad k = 0, \dots, N_{\mathsf{t}}.\tag{16}
$$

If Then, for each window k, we generate the synthetic observations \mathbf{v}_k (with noise) and we use the 4D-Var algorithm (with \mathcal{M}^{o}) to compute the analysis ψ_k^{a} and the analysis increment $\delta \psi_{k+1}^{\mathsf{a}}$ as

$$
\delta \psi_{k+1}^{\mathsf{a}} = \psi_{k+1}^{\mathsf{a}} - \mathcal{M}^{\mathsf{o}}(\psi_k^{\mathsf{a}}). \tag{17}
$$

Finally, the database for ML is

$$
\left\{ \left(\psi_{k-1}^a, \delta \psi_k^a \right), \ k = 1, \ldots, N_{\mathrm{t}} \right\}.
$$
 (18)

- The process is repeated 18 times:
	- \triangleright one trajectory is used for training ;
	- one trajectory is used for *validation* (when to stop the training);
	- \blacktriangleright 16 trajectories are used for testing.

Data assimilation results

- \triangleright We have successfully applied the method for 1032 consecutive assimilation windows.
- \triangleright The analysis RMSE stabilises after about 5 windows: we drop the first 8 windows.
- \triangleright The time-averaged analysis RMSE, averaged over the 18 trajectories, is about 0.25.

Machine learning models and training

- \triangleright We can easily play with the *size of the database* by keeping only the first N_t elements.
- \triangleright We can also play with the *sampling period* ΔT , for example by only keeping every other analysis state.
- \triangleright We can now start the ML step with the same models and same training method as for the idealised experiments.

Training example

In Trainable model M^{ml} **: 1 dense layer with 4 nodes, linear activation, 14 404** parameters in total.

 \blacktriangleright The model learns about 87% of the *increments* variance.

Further model evaluation

- \triangleright The primary goal is to learn the *model error* and not the analysis increments.
- \triangleright For each of the 16 test trajectory, we compute the model error using the truth:

$$
\eta_{k+1} = \psi_{k+1}^{\mathsf{t}} - \mathcal{M}^{\mathsf{o}}(\psi_k^{\mathsf{t}}), \quad k = 0, \dots, N_{\mathsf{t}} - 1. \tag{19}
$$

 \blacktriangleright We use this ideal database to test the trained model $\mathcal{M}^{\sf{ml}}$.

Further model evaluation

 $\Delta T = 2$ d and $N_t = 128$

- **Trainable model** M^{ml} : 1 dense layer with 4 nodes, linear activation, 14 404 parameters in total.
- \blacktriangleright The model learns about 87% of the *increments* variance, but only 70% of the model error variance.

Corrected forecast skill

 $\Delta T = 2$ d and $N_t = 128$

 \blacktriangleright The correction is less effective than if trained with perfect observations (full and noiseless), but still quite good!

- Confirm these results with other ML models.
- \triangleright As for the idealised experiments, change the size of the database N_t and the sampling period ∆*T*.
- \blacktriangleright Use the hybrid model \mathcal{M}^h for data assimilation and compare the results with other model error estimation methods, e.g., weak-constraint 4D-Var.
	- \blacktriangleright We need to be able to perform forecasts shorter than the assimilation window ∆*T*.
	- An easy fix could be to assume a linear growth of the error in time.
	- Another option is to cycle the hybrid model \mathcal{M}^{h} between consecutive sampling times.

Using the hybrid model for data assimilation

- \triangleright Suppose that we want to predict the model error for a 1 d integration using a sampling period of 2d.
- The effective model M^e to train is

$$
\mathcal{M}^{\mathsf{e}} : (\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) \mapsto \mathcal{M}^{\mathsf{h}}(\mathbf{w}, \mathcal{M}^{\mathsf{h}}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x})), \tag{20}
$$

where \mathcal{M}^{h} is the hybrid model:

$$
\mathcal{M}^h : (\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) \mapsto \mathcal{M}^o(\mathbf{x}) + \mathcal{M}^{ml}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}). \tag{21}
$$

For the ML step, we need the gradient of M^e with respect to w:

$$
\frac{\partial \mathcal{M}^e}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{M}^{ml}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{M}^{ml}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \times \left\{ \frac{\partial \mathcal{M}^o}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{M}^{ml}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right\} \circ \left\{ \mathcal{M}^o + \mathcal{M}^{ml} \right\},\tag{22}
$$

which depends on the tangent linear of the original model M° .

▶ We need to make OOPS and TensorFlow interact!

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- \triangleright ML tools can be used to learn either the full model dynamics or the model error dynamics of a system using only observations of the system.
- If the observations are *sparse* and *noisy*, ML must be coupled with DA:
	- \triangleright DA is used to estimate the state of the system;
	- \blacktriangleright ML is used to learn the model or model error dynamics.
- I With perfect observations of the QG model, we have shown that it is possible to learn the model or model error dynamics with only simple artificial neural networks.
- \blacktriangleright The best results are obtained when learning the model error dynamics instead of the full model dynamics.
- \triangleright The application to sparse and noisy observations is on the way!
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