

# A functional error analysis of differential optical flow methods

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**Abstract** We analyze the sources of error in differential optical flow methods using techniques for the analysis of partial differential equations. We first derive an *a priori* error bound for the estimated optical flow field. We then systematically interpret this error bound and show that the estimation error is primarily bounded by the *best-fit approximation error* — which quantifies the fidelity with which one can represent the true optical flow field by a chosen or learned set of basis functions — divided by a *stability constant* — which quantifies one’s ability to infer the optical flow field given the information content of the acquired data. We also show that the estimation error is bounded by effects associated with the finite temporal and spatial resolution of the acquired data. In particular, we show that the main finite resolution effects are related to the finite differencing and time-averaging of the measured intensity fields. Finally, we demonstrate the error bound numerically using synthetic three-dimensional data sets based on direct numerical simulations of homogeneous isotropic turbulence and transitional boundary layer flow provided by Johns Hopkins University (Li Y. et al. (2008) *J. Turbulence* 9:31, Zaki T.A. (2013) *Flow Turbul. Combust.*).

**Keywords** optical flow · *a priori* error analysis · uncertainty quantification · functional analysis

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## 1 Introduction

Optical flow (OF) is a concept introduced by the psychologist Gibson (1950) that is qualitatively defined as the apparent motion of brightness patterns within an image plane. OF motion estimation (OFME) is a computer vision framework dating back to the early 1980s (Horn and Schunck, 1981; Lucas and Kanade, 1981; Lucas, 1984) that systematically quantifies this notion. Tersely stated, the goal of OFME is to determine the *OF field* in a region of interest. Historically, OFME has been used most extensively for rigid and quasi-rigid body motion estimation (Horn and Schunck, 1981; Lucas and Kanade, 1981; Lucas, 1984; Enkelmann, 1988; Bergen et al, 1992; Barron et al, 1994; Beauchemin and Barron, 1995; Mémin and Pérez, 1998; Cohen and Herlin, 1999; Wu et al, 2000; Fleet and Weiss, 2005). Despite this origin, OFME has also found increasing adoption in fluid velocimetry (Corpetti et al, 2002; Heitz et al, 2009; Zhong et al, 2017; Ruhnau et al, 2004; Ruhnau and Schnörr, 2007; Schmidt and Sutton, 2019, 2020; Ruhnau et al, 2007; Corpetti et al, 2006; Yuan et al, 2007; Heitz et al, 2008; Quénot et al, 1998).

The interest in OFME methods for fluid velocimetry is due to their potential as alternatives or supplements to particle image velocimetry (PIV). A motion estimation framework based on the cross-correlation of successive particle image pairs, PIV is capable of providing robust velocity field estimates of particle-laden flows with low to medium seeding densities (Raffel et al, 2018; Elsinga et al, 2006; Scarano, 2012). However, PIV has constitutional limitations in terms of both spatial resolution and accuracy (Raffel et al, 2018), the latter being especially compromised when velocity gradients within PIV interrogation regions (IR) are significant. In contrast, OFME is non-correlational and, hence, lim-

ited in spatial resolution and accuracy solely by the information contained within the acquired data.

However, compared to PIV, the underlying sources of uncertainty in OFME fluid velocimetry are less understood. Indeed, results from OFME fluid velocimetry often are presented with vectors at every pixel in the domain — even though this greatly exceeds the information present in the underlying data — and without uncertainty quantification (UQ). This paper presents a rigorous *a priori* error analysis of the OFME fluid velocimetry estimation problem using error analysis techniques for the approximation of partial differential equations (PDEs), yielding an error bound that articulates the influence of various physical and numerical factors on the ultimate velocity uncertainty.

Fundamentally, OFME methods estimate the OF field by invoking some condition of photometric invariance (Barron et al, 1994; Fleet and Weiss, 2005; Corpetti et al, 2002; Heitz et al, 2009; Zhong et al, 2017). Within the context of rigid and quasi-rigid body motion estimation, OFME methods are almost invariably predicated on the *brightness constancy constraint* (Barron et al, 1994; Beauchemin and Barron, 1995; Weickert and Schnörr, 2001a), which is the condition in which the registered image intensity is neither generated nor destroyed in the measurement region. Instead, it is simply *transported* according to the underlying motion of objects within the region.

Provided that the image intensity field is sufficiently smooth, we may formalize the brightness constancy constraint as (Horn and Schunck, 1981)

$$\partial_t I(\underline{x}, t) + \nabla I(\underline{x}, t) \cdot \underline{u}(\underline{x}, t) = 0 \quad \forall \underline{x} \in \Omega, \forall t \in T, \quad (1)$$

where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_d}$  is the measurement region;  $T := [t_0, t_0 + \Delta t]$  is the measurement time domain;  $I : \Omega \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the image intensity field;  $\underline{u} : \Omega \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_d}$  is the OF field; and  $n_d$  is the number of spatial dimensions under consideration. Equation (1) is a differential statement of the transport of the (approximately) known image intensity  $I$  due to the unknown OF field  $\underline{u}$ . It is one of the prototypical constraint equations of OFME and is known as the *gradient constraint equation* (GCE) (Barron et al, 1994) or the OF constraint equation (Heitz et al, 2009; Weickert and Schnörr, 2001a). Indeed, a myriad of OF techniques are based on the GCE, or variations thereof (Barron et al, 1994; Corpetti et al, 2002; Heitz et al, 2009; Ruhнау et al, 2004; Ruhнау and Schnörr, 2007; Schmidt and Sutton, 2019, 2020). In the literature, such techniques are broadly classified as *differential methods* (Barron et al, 1994; Heitz et al, 2009; Weickert and Schnörr, 2001a).

Strictly speaking, OF is a two-dimensional (2D) concept. Therefore, OFME is technically a 2D framework.

However, we may also envision a setting in which (1) is applied to a three-dimensional (3D) intensity field, such as one inferred by tomographic reconstruction. In this paper, we treat both 2D and 3D cases. As such, we allow the number of dimensions  $n_d$  under consideration to equal either two or three, albeit at the expense of an abuse of terminology.

While the design of an OFME method requires a choice of which photometric invariance condition to invoke, it is also true that a single photometric invariance condition cannot fully constrain the OFME problem. For example, the GCE only constrains the component of  $\underline{u}$  that is normal to the level sets of  $I$  (Horn and Schunck, 1981; Lucas and Kanade, 1981; Bergen et al, 1992; Barron et al, 1994; Beauchemin and Barron, 1995; Heitz et al, 2009). In order to resolve this closure problem — known in the literature as the *aperture problem* (Barron et al, 1994; Heitz et al, 2009) — additional prior information must be invoked.

With respect to differential methods, these additional prior constraints are generally divided into two categories: (i) localized or region-based schemes and (ii) global variational schemes (Barron et al, 1994; Heitz et al, 2009). The prototype of the former category is the Lucas-Kanade (1981; 1984) method, which stipulates that the OF field  $\underline{u}$  is comprised of patches, within each of which the value of  $\underline{u}$  is constant. Once  $\Omega$  is partitioned into a prescribed grid of patches, the value of  $\underline{u}$  in a given patch can then be computed by a weighted linear least squares fit of the GCE over the patch (Lucas and Kanade, 1981; Lucas, 1984; Barron et al, 1994; Beauchemin and Barron, 1995). The presumption of a piecewise constant  $\underline{u}$  is particularly well-suited to rigid and quasi-rigid body motion estimation. As a result, the Lucas-Kanade method and its derivatives are widely used in computer vision (Barron et al, 1994; Beauchemin and Barron, 1995).

On the other hand, the prototypical global variational scheme is the Horn-Schunck (1981) method, which stipulates that  $\underline{u}$  is the minimizer of a cost function  $J$  defined by

$$J(\underline{w}) := \int_{\Omega} \left( (\partial_t I + \nabla I \cdot \underline{w})^2 + \lambda_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} \|\nabla w_i\|_2^2 \right) d\underline{x}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\lambda_r$  is a *regularization constant*. The cost function  $J$  consists of (i) a *data term*, which in this case quantifies the consistency of the photometric information and the OF field estimate  $\underline{w}$  with the GCE, and (ii) a first-order *regularization term*, which imposes a global smoothness condition on  $\underline{u}$ . The regularization parameter  $\lambda_r$  simply sets the effect of the regularization term relative to the data term. In general, global variational

methods are predicated on cost functions of the same or similar form as (2) (Heitz et al, 2009).

As Heitz et al (2009) indicate in their review paper, most OFME methods developed and used for fluid velocimetry can be classified as variational. A notable exception is the first documented study of OFME fluid velocimetry (Quénot et al, 1998), which presents and demonstrates a method based on image matching and dynamic programming. Heitz et al (2009) assert that variational methods are favored in fluid velocimetry because they are amenable to supplementation by additional structural or physical constraints.

Indeed, much of the research in this area has been devoted towards the refinement of variational OFME methods in order to achieve improvements in the accuracy and spatial resolution of fluid flow estimates (Heitz et al, 2009). Moreover, most of this refinement occurs in variations of either the data term (Béréziat et al, 2000; Haußecker and Fleet, 2001; Brox et al, 2004; Papenberg et al, 2006; Brox and Malik, 2010), regularization term (Weickert and Schnörr, 2001a; Ruhnau and Schnörr, 2007; Ruhnau et al, 2007; Suter, 1994) or both (Corpetti et al, 2002; Zhong et al, 2017; Corpetti et al, 2006; Yuan et al, 2007). For instance, Corpetti et al (2002, 2006) propose a method that features (i) the Suter (1994) regularizer, which enforces smoothness of the divergence and curl of the OF field, and (ii) a physics-based variant of the GCE that they call the *integrated continuity equation* (ICE). Combining the more conservative second-order Suter regularizer with the physics-based ICE, Corpetti et al (2002, 2006) demonstrate a method that is particularly well suited to meteorological fluid velocimetry (Heitz et al, 2009; Cuzol et al, 2007; Héas et al, 2007). Other notable examples of variational OFME methods include those that incorporate physical constraints explicitly. These include methods that directly incorporate governing equations, such as mass conservation for constant density flows (Ruhnau and Schnörr, 2007; Álvarez et al, 2009) or the Stokes equations (Ruhnau and Schnörr, 2007), and methods that incorporate physical constraints within their regularization schemes (Schmidt and Sutton, 2019; Ruhnau et al, 2007; Cuzol et al, 2007; Papadakis et al, 2007; Weickert and Schnörr, 2001b).

Despite this body of work, comparatively little research has been done in terms of the UQ and error analysis of OFME methods, especially within the context of fluid velocimetry. To be sure, there are several important papers on the mathematical analysis of OFME methods in the literature (Aubert and Kornprobst, 1999; Aubert et al, 1999; Wang et al, 2015). However, these studies focus on fundamental analytical problems such as well-posedness and convergence,

as opposed to the more applied problems of UQ and error analysis.

Within the UQ and error analysis literature itself, most studies focus on the estimation of confidence in OF measurements in order to identify unreliable vectors for weighting or pruning prior to subsequent processing (Barron et al, 1994; Haußecker and Spies, 2000; Kondermann et al, 2007, 2008; Kybic and Nieuwenhuis, 2011; Gehrig and Scharwächter, 2011; Mac Aodha et al, 2012; Brumm et al, 2015; Wannenwetsch et al, 2017). While many confidence measures — from photometric proxy metrics such as the image intensity gradient (Barron et al, 1994) or the Horn-Schunck cost function (2) (Brumm et al, 2015), to statistical and probabilistic metrics (Kondermann et al, 2008; Wannenwetsch et al, 2017), to metrics computed with machine learning methods (Gehrig and Scharwächter, 2011; Mac Aodha et al, 2012) — have been developed, these measures are *post hoc* and empirical. Moreover, these measures are designed for rigid and quasi-rigid body motion estimation; they are primarily used to improve the accuracy of OF estimates by rejecting spurious vectors (Kybic and Nieuwenhuis, 2011).

In addition to these studies on confidence measures, there are a few papers on UQ and perturbation analysis of OFME. For example, Sun et al (2018) break from the convention of treating OFME deterministically and, instead, treat OFME in terms of a statistical inverse problem. The result is a Bayesian OFME framework that yields not only “point” estimates of the OF field, but also statistical estimates, such as the uncertainty of the measured field. However, this framework does not enable the prediction of uncertainty prior to the computation of the OF estimate itself. We also note that Sun et al (2018) demonstrate their framework for rigid body motion only.

Cai et al (2017) also propose a stochastic framework for 2D OF estimation in turbulent fluid flows. Unlike the method of Sun et al (2018), which is founded on a Bayesian interpretation of the OFME problem, this framework relies on a stochastic decomposition of the fluid flow into a large scale “motion” component and a small scale “uncertainty” component. The resulting framework naturally incorporates a notion of uncertainty in the OF measurement. However, as with the method of Sun et al (2018), this framework does not provide a means of *a priori* error analysis.

Liu et al (2008; 2015) also address uncertainty in OFME fluid velocimetry; the 2008 paper is mainly concerned with the relationship between the OF field and fluid velocity field, whereas the 2015 paper addresses differences between OF and PIV. Both papers present a perturbation analysis for a physics-based OFME scheme

designed for fluid motion estimation. Specifically, their analysis yields an error-propagation equation that relates the noise in the images to the error in the estimated velocity field.

In this paper, we focus on identifying and quantifying the sources of error in differential OFME methods. In particular, we propound an *a priori* error analysis of the GCE for double-frame, single-exposure problems. In addition to being the prototypical photometric constraint equation of OFME, the GCE is particularly amenable to mathematical analysis; it is linear in the unknown OF field  $\underline{u}$ , and the corresponding estimation problem can be cast in a standard linear least squares form. This, in turn, opens the estimation problem up to rigorous study by error analysis techniques for PDEs.

To this end, we derive an *a priori* error bound for the estimated OF flow field using these error analysis techniques. We then interpret this error bound with the goal of gaining insight into the nature and limitations of OFME methods more generally. Finally, we present numerical demonstrations of the error bound based on 3D data sets of homogeneous isotropic turbulence (HIT) and transitional boundary layer flow (BL) generated from direct numerical simulations (DNS) conducted by researchers at Johns Hopkins University (JHU) (Perlman et al, 2007; Li et al, 2008; Zaki, 2013).

We note that by limiting our analysis to the GCE, we do not treat complex physical effects that may arise in actual fluid velocimetry experiments. These include non-solenoidal convection, molecular diffusion, chemical reaction and, in the 2D case, out-of-plane motion of flow tracers. These effects may be treated by analysing more sophisticated OF constraint equations, such as those reviewed by Heitz et al (2009). By focusing on the GCE, we also limit our analysis to OFME problems characterized by small intensity displacements. In other words, we do not treat multi-resolution schemes (Enkelmann, 1988; Mémin and Pérez, 1998; Cohen and Herlin, 1999; Ruhnau et al, 2004, 2007; Heitz et al, 2008) or warping operator schemes (Brox et al, 2004; Papenberg et al, 2006; Brox and Malik, 2010), even though such methods are commonplace due to their ability to handle large intensity displacements (Heitz et al, 2009). In addition, we do not treat methods that employ explicit regularization strategies. Finally, we assume that the flow tracers perfectly track the flow, and we do not consider noisy intensity fields. By narrowing our scope to such an extent, it becomes possible to propound in detail a mathematically rigorous UQ of OFME fluid velocimetry. Our hope is that this analysis may serve as an insightful foundation for error analyses of OFME problems that are encountered in practice.

## 2 Problem statement

### 2.1 Mathematical preliminaries

#### 2.1.1 Definitions from functional analysis

To make our analysis precise, we first define some concepts from functional analysis. Here we state these definitions in their technical forms and provide intuitive interpretations where appropriate. The interested reader can find these definitions in standard textbooks on variational and finite element analysis of PDEs (Quarteroni and Valli, 1997; Brenner and Scott, 2008; Ern and Guermond, 2010).

We begin with two useful function norms and spaces. The  $L^\infty(\Omega)$  norm of a continuous function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined as

$$\|f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} := \max_{\underline{x} \in \Omega} |f(\underline{x})|.$$

In general, the  $L^\infty(\Omega)$  norm of a matrix-valued function is defined as the maximum over the  $L^\infty(\Omega)$  norms of the individual scalar components of the function. Meanwhile, the function space  $L^\infty(\Omega)$  corresponding to this norm is defined as

$$L^\infty(\Omega) := \{f \mid \|f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} < \infty\}.$$

That is,  $L^\infty(\Omega)$  is the space of all functions  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that are bounded almost everywhere. Later, we also refer to the  $L^\infty(\Omega \times T)$  norm and space, which are defined analogously over the space-time domain  $\Omega \times T$ .

The  $L^2(\Omega)$  norm of a function  $\underline{g} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is defined as

$$\|\underline{g}\|_{L^2(\Omega)} := \left( \int_{\Omega} \|\underline{g}\|_2^2 d\underline{x} \right)^{1/2},$$

where  $\|\cdot\|_2$  denotes the Euclidean norm. Meanwhile, the function space  $L^2(\Omega)^m$  is defined as

$$L^2(\Omega)^m := \{\underline{g} \mid \|\underline{g}\|_{L^2(\Omega)} < \infty\}.$$

That is,  $L^2(\Omega)^m$  is the set of all functions  $\underline{g} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  that are square-integrable. In this work,  $m = 1$  or  $m = n_d$  depending on whether  $\underline{g}$  is scalar- or vector-valued.

For convenience, we also define the  $q$ th-order  $n_d$ -dimensional (weak) derivative  $D^q f$  of  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as follows. First, we let  $Df : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_d}$  be the  $n_d \times 1$  matrix whose components are given by

$$(Df)_i := \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n_d.$$

Second, we let  $D^2 f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_d \times n_d}$  be the  $n_d \times n_d$  matrix whose components are given by

$$(D^2 f)_{ij} := \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n_d.$$

Finally, we let  $D^q f$  be the  $q$ -dimensional matrix of the  $q$ th derivatives of  $f$ .

### 2.1.2 Definitions of discrete operators

We conclude our discussion of mathematical preliminaries by laying out our formalism for the finite resolution of the measured intensity fields. To begin, we consider a uniform tessellation  $\mathcal{T}_h := \{K_k\}_{k=1}^{N_K}$  of  $\Omega$ . In 2D,  $\mathcal{T}_h$  consists of  $N_K$  square *pixels*  $K$  of side length  $h$ , and in 3D,  $\mathcal{T}_h$  consists of  $N_K$  cubic *voxels*  $K$  of side length  $h$ .

We now define the discrete operators that we use in our analysis. Firstly, we define the discretized integration operator  $\int_{\Omega, h} \cdot d\underline{x} : L^\infty(\Omega) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as

$$\int_{\Omega, h} I(\underline{x}, t) d\underline{x} := \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} h^{n_d} I(\underline{x}_c^{(K)}, t),$$

where  $\underline{x}_c^{(K)} \in \Omega$  is the centroid of  $K \in \mathcal{T}_h$ . This is precisely the midpoint rule of numerical integration.

Secondly, we define the  $n_d$ -dimensional rectangular filter  $\Pi_h * : L^\infty(\Omega) \rightarrow L^\infty(\Omega)$  as

$$(\Pi_h * I)(\underline{x}, t) := \int_{\Omega} I(\underline{y}, t) \Pi_h(\underline{x} - \underline{y}) d\underline{y} \quad \forall \underline{x} \in \Omega,$$

where  $\Pi_h : \mathbb{R}^{n_d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the  $n_d$ -dimensional rectangular function that satisfies

$$\Pi_h(\underline{x}) = \begin{cases} 1/h^{n_d} & \underline{x} \in (-h/2, h/2)^{n_d}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We adopt this definition because we choose to model the *measured* intensity fields as the *true* intensity field  $I : \Omega \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  spatially averaged over square or cubic regions of side length  $h$ . Specifically, we model the measured intensity field pair  $I_h \in L^\infty(\Omega)^2$  according to

$$\begin{aligned} I_h &:= \{I_{h,i} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, I_{h,f} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\} \\ &:= \{\Pi_h * I(\cdot, t_0), \Pi_h * I(\cdot, t_0 + \Delta t)\}, \end{aligned}$$

where the subscripts i and f signify the initial and final image frames, respectively.

Thirdly, we define the sliding finite difference operator  $\underline{\nabla}_h : L^\infty(\Omega) \rightarrow L^\infty(\Omega)^{n_d}$  according to

$$(\underline{\nabla}_h I)(\underline{x}, t)_i := \frac{1}{2h} (I(\underline{x} + h\underline{e}_i, t) - I(\underline{x} - h\underline{e}_i, t))$$

$\forall \underline{x} \in \Omega, i = 1, \dots, n_d$ . Here  $\{\underline{e}_i\}_{i=1}^{n_d}$  is the standard basis of an  $n_d$ -dimensional coordinate space, and  $t$  is an arbitrary instant of time in  $T$ . We note that this operator provides a central difference approximation of gradients with second-order accuracy in space.

Fourthly, we define the time-averaged sliding finite difference operator  $\overline{\nabla}_h : L^\infty(\Omega)^2 \rightarrow L^\infty(\Omega)^{n_d}$  as

$$\overline{\nabla}_h I_h := \frac{1}{2} (\underline{\nabla}_h I_{h,i} + \underline{\nabla}_h I_{h,f}).$$

In addition to being second-order accurate in space, this time-averaged finite difference operator is second-order accurate in time at  $t^* := t_0 + \Delta t/2$ . This is important because, in this paper, we limit ourselves to double-frame, single exposure problems, for which we can achieve a maximum of second-order accuracy in time.

Finally, we define the temporal finite difference operator  $\partial_{t, \Delta t} I_h : L^\infty(\Omega)^2 \rightarrow L^\infty(\Omega)$  as

$$\partial_{t, \Delta t} I_h := (I_{h,f} - I_{h,i}) / \Delta t.$$

As with the  $\overline{\nabla}_h$  operator, the  $\partial_{t, \Delta t}$  operator is second-order accurate in time at the midpoint time  $t^*$ .

## 2.2 Motion estimation problem

We can now formalize our motion estimation problem. We assume that we are given a smooth, time-dependent intensity field  $I$  that satisfies (1). In addition, we limit our focus to OFME schemes without explicit regularization. As such, we express the solution of our OFME problem as

$$\underline{u}(\cdot, t) = \arg \min_{\underline{w}} \int_{\Omega} \left( \partial_t I(\underline{x}, t) + \underline{\nabla} I(\underline{x}, t) \cdot \underline{w}(\underline{x}) \right)^2 d\underline{x} \quad (3)$$

for a given time  $t \in T$ .

Strictly speaking, (3) is not well-posed; we need to specify the *approximation space* within which to search for the minimizer of the functional in (3). To this end, we introduce a basis  $\{\underline{\phi}^{(j)} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_d}\}_{j=1}^n$  and define an arbitrary approximation  $\underline{w}_n : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_d}$  of  $\underline{u}(\cdot, t)$  by

$$\underline{w}_n(\underline{x}) := \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \underline{\phi}^{(j)}(\underline{x}) \quad \forall \underline{x} \in \Omega, \quad (4)$$

where  $c_j \in \mathbb{R}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , are arbitrary coefficients. For a prescribed value of  $n$ , we may then define the  $n$ -dimensional approximation space  $\mathcal{W}_n$  as

$$\mathcal{W}_n := \text{span}\{\underline{\phi}^{(j)}\}_{j=1}^n. \quad (5)$$

Of course in practice, one needs to choose or learn a basis for  $\underline{w}_n$ . Possible basis functions include *radial basis functions* (Lowitzsch, 2004; Macêdo and Castro, 2008), *wavelets* (Wu et al, 2000; Schmidt and Sutton, 2019, 2020; Kadri-Harouna et al, 2013) and *Legendre polynomials*. In fact, the Lucas-Kanade (1981; 1984) method of OFME can be viewed as a special case of

the framework defined by (3) and (4) with *piecewise constant basis functions*.

With definitions (4) and (5), we may more precisely pose the motion estimation problem as

$$\underline{u}_n(\cdot, t) = \arg \min_{\underline{w}_n \in \mathcal{W}_n} \int_{\Omega} \left( \partial_t I(\underline{x}, t) + \nabla I(\underline{x}, t) \cdot \underline{w}_n(\underline{x}) \right)^2 d\underline{x} \quad (6)$$

for a given time  $t \in T$ . Of course, in reality, we do not know  $I$ ,  $\partial_t I$  or  $\nabla I$ . Instead, we can only measure  $I_{h,i}$  and  $I_{h,f}$  and evaluate  $\partial_{t,\Delta t} I_h$ , and  $\overline{\nabla}_h I_h$ . As such, we approximate the continuous operators in (6) with the discrete operators defined in section 2.1.2 and obtain

$$\underline{u}_\delta = \arg \min_{\underline{w}_\delta \in \mathcal{W}_n} \int_{\Omega, h} (\partial_{t,\Delta t} I_h + \overline{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w}_\delta)^2 d\underline{x}, \quad (7)$$

where  $u_\delta : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_d}$  is the computable estimate of  $u(\cdot, t^*)$ . For notational convenience, we have introduced a set  $\delta := \{n, h, \Delta t\}$  that collects the three hyperparameters associated with (7). We add  $\delta$  as a subscript to the minimizer of (7) to indicate that the solution to this discretized minimization problem is parameterized by  $n$ ,  $h$ , and  $\Delta t$ . We note that while  $n$  and  $\Delta t$  can readily be varied in practice,  $h$  cannot be adjusted once a camera sensor and desired field-of-view have been selected.

We conclude this section by noting that, given an explicit basis  $\{\phi^{(j)}\}_{j=1}^n$  for  $\mathcal{W}_n$ , (7) reduces to a standard linear least squares problem for the coefficients  $\{c_j\}_{j=1}^n$  of the given basis functions.

### 3 A priori error analysis

The fact that (7) is reducible to a linear least squares problem is salient because the linear least squares problem is equivalent to the *Petrov-Galerkin problem* (Quarteroni and Valli, 1997). A key topic in the analysis of PDEs, the Petrov-Galerkin problem features in the theory that underpins a major class of finite element methods (Quarteroni and Valli, 1997; Brenner and Scott, 2008). The main contribution of this paper is the application of Petrov-Galerkin analysis techniques to differential OFME to derive an error bound for the estimated OF field  $u_\delta$ . In this section, we present and interpret the error bound resulting from such an analysis.

#### 3.1 Statement of a priori error bound

Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_d}$  be a Lipschitz domain,

$$\mathcal{W} := \{\underline{w} \in L^2(\Omega)^{n_d} \mid \nabla \cdot \underline{w} \in L^2(\Omega)\}$$

be the trial space, and

$$\mathcal{V} := L^2(\Omega)$$

be the test space. Given a smooth, time-dependent intensity field  $I : \Omega \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , assume that the exact OF field  $\underline{u}$  satisfies (1). Furthermore, let the estimated OF field  $\underline{u}_\delta$  be given by (7), and the approximation space  $\mathcal{W}_n$  corresponding to the trial space  $\mathcal{W}$  be given by (5). Then, the error of  $\underline{u}_\delta$  in the  $L^2(\Omega)$  norm at time  $t^* := t_0 + \Delta t/2$  is bounded by

$$\begin{aligned} \|\underline{u}(\cdot, t^*) - \underline{u}_\delta\|_{L^2(\Omega)} &\leq \left(1 + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha_\delta}\right) \inf_{\underline{w}_n \in \mathcal{W}_n} \|\underline{u}(\cdot, t^*) - \underline{w}_n\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{\alpha_\delta} \left( Ah^2 + B\Delta t^2 + O(h^4) + O(h^2 \Delta t^2) \right), \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where the continuity constant  $\gamma$  is defined by

$$\gamma := \sup_{\underline{w}_n \in \mathcal{W}} \frac{\|\nabla I \cdot \underline{w}_n\|_{L^2(\Omega)}}{\|\underline{w}_n\|_{\mathcal{W}}},$$

the stability constant  $\alpha_\delta$  is bounded from the below according to

$$\alpha_\delta \geq \inf_{\underline{w}_n \in \mathcal{W}_n} \frac{\|\overline{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w}_n\|_{L^2(\Omega)}}{\|\underline{w}_n\|_{\mathcal{W}}} - O(h^2),$$

the expressions  $A$  and  $B$  are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} A &:= (c_{\text{fdx}} \|D^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} + c_f \|D^3 I(\cdot, t^*)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &\quad + c_{q,1} \max_{0 \leq q \leq 3} \|D^q I(\cdot, t^*)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)}) \|\underline{u}(\cdot, t^*)\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ &\quad + c_f \|D^3 I(\cdot, t^*)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &\quad + c_{q,2} \max_{0 \leq q \leq 2} \|D^q \partial_t I(\cdot, t^*)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \end{aligned}$$

$$B := c_t \|\partial_t^2 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} + c_{\text{fdt}} \|\partial_t^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)},$$

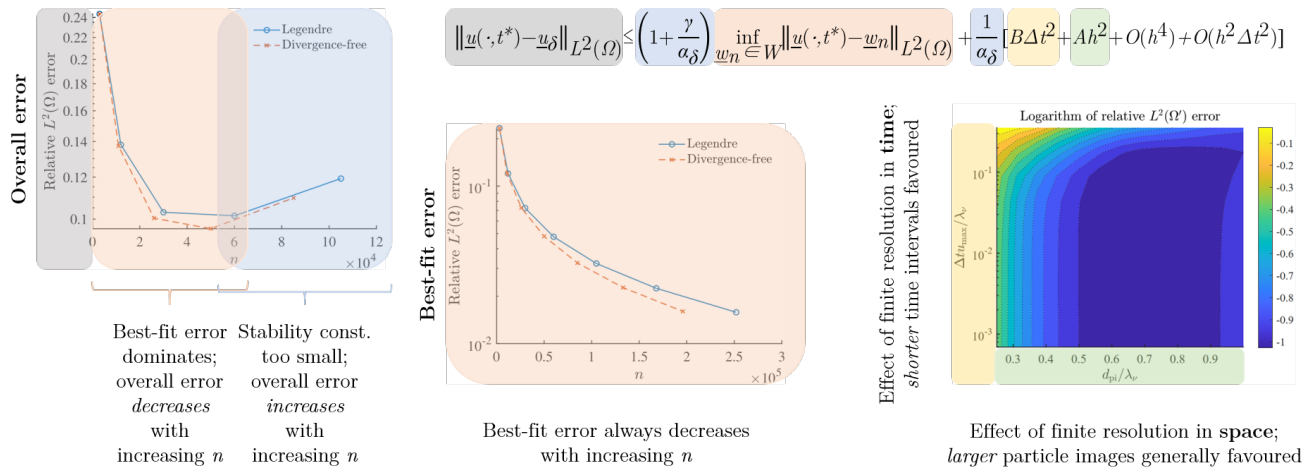
and  $c_{\text{fdx}}$ ,  $c_t$ ,  $c_f$ ,  $c_{\text{fdt}}$ ,  $c_{q,1}$  and  $c_{q,2}$  are coefficients that are independent of  $h$  and  $\Delta t$ . We prove this error bound in the appendix.

Figure 1 is a graphical summary of error bound (8). In the remainder of this section, we present a systematic interpretation of the error bound. We note that the inset graphics in figure 1 are derived from the numerical demonstrations of the error bound, the details of which we present in section 4.

#### 3.2 Interpretation of error bound

We now make sense of the *a priori* error bound. We do so by interpreting each term in the bound individually, starting with

$$\|\underline{u}(\cdot, t^*) - \underline{u}_\delta\|_{L^2(\Omega)}.$$



**Fig. 1** Graphical overview of error bound (8). Terms and coefficients in the error bound are color-coded along with their associated graphics. The construction and meaning of these graphics is detailed in section 4. The best-fit approximation error (peach) always decreases as the dimension  $n$  of the approximation space increases. This causes the overall error (gray) to initially decrease precipitously. At the same time however, the stability constant (blue) decreases as  $n$  increases, eventually causing overall error to increase with increasing  $n$ . Meanwhile, finite-resolution effects are accounted by the leading-order terms  $Ah^2$  (green) and  $B\Delta t^2$  (yellow). In the case of particle-based velocimetry, these effects are minimized by choosing a large particle-image diameter — which results in smoother images — and, in the absence of noise, minimizing the time interval between particle-image frames.

This quantity is the  $L^2(\Omega)$  error of the estimate  $\underline{u}_\delta$  relative to the exact OF field  $\underline{u}(\cdot, t^*)$ . We call this the estimation error.

The quantity

$$\inf_{\underline{w}_n \in \mathcal{W}_n} \|\underline{u}(\cdot, t^*) - \underline{w}_n\|_{L^2(\Omega)}$$

is the *best-fit* error, which quantifies the fidelity with which we can represent the true OF field  $\underline{u}(\cdot, t^*)$  in a given approximation space  $\mathcal{W}_n$ . This error quantifies the ability of the  $n$  basis functions that span the space to approximate  $\underline{u}(\cdot, t^*)$ . In other words, the best-fit error reflects the “richness” of  $\mathcal{W}_n$ . We can view the best-fit error as a mathematical characterization of the spatial resolution of a given OFME method.

In general, as the value of  $n$  increases, the space  $\mathcal{W}_n$  becomes more “enriched”, and the best-fit error decreases. In practice however, the information content of the acquired data limits the extent to which we can enrich  $\mathcal{W}_n$  (e.g. by increasing  $n$ ). The stability constant  $\alpha_\delta$  quantifies this limitation. Also known in the analysis of PDEs as the *inf-sup* constant,  $\alpha_\delta$  quantifies our ability to infer an estimate  $\underline{u}_\delta$  in the approximation space  $\mathcal{W}_n$  based on  $\overline{\nabla}_h I_h$ . The stability constant is a mathematical characterization of the accuracy of a given OFME method.

The stability constant should be bounded away from zero; a stability constant of zero implies that the measured intensity field pair  $I_h$  contains insufficient information to infer the coefficients associated with some or all of the basis functions. In other words, a stability

constant of zero implies that the estimation problem is ill-posed. We note that the stability constant is a non-increasing function of  $n$ . That is, it decreases as the approximation space becomes more enriched. (On the other hand, the continuity constant  $\gamma$  is dictated solely by the information content of the acquired data; it does not depend on the particular OFME method used and only serves to rescale the parameter-dependent stability constant.) In the context of particle-based velocimetry, we note two possible scenarios in which the stability constant becomes too small: (i) There are insufficient particles in support of one or more basis functions, or (ii) the chosen value of  $n$  is too high for the number of particles present.

With expressions  $Ah^2$  and  $B\Delta t^2$ , error bound (8) also accounts for the finite resolution of the measured intensity field pair  $I_h$ . Specifically, the terms

$$c_{q,1} h^2 \max_{0 \leq q \leq 3} \|D^q I(\cdot, t^*)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)}$$

and

$$c_{q,2} h^2 \max_{0 \leq q \leq 2} \|D^q \partial_t I(\cdot, t^*)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)},$$

as well as the  $O(h^2)$  correction term appearing in the bound for  $\alpha_\delta$  account for the *quadrature error*. This is simply the error associated with the midpoint-rule approximation (7) of the integral appearing in (6). The coefficients  $c_{q,1}$  and  $c_{q,2}$  are associated with this type of error. In addition, the quantity

$$c_f h^2 \|D^3 I(\cdot, t^*)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)}$$

is the error associated with the spatial filtering inherent in  $I_h$ . Furthermore, the quantity

$$c_t \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)}$$

is the error associated with the time averaging of  $I_h$  over the time interval  $\Delta t$  between frames.

The remaining terms in expressions  $Ah^2$  and  $B\Delta t^2$  account for the finite difference approximations of the temporal and spatial derivatives in (6). We start with the temporal finite difference error term

$$c_{\text{fdt}} \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)}.$$

Because we use a second-order finite difference scheme in time, this error scales with the third temporal derivative of  $I$  and quadratically with  $\Delta t$ . In the absence of noise, this error decreases as  $\Delta t$  decreases. We note that Liu and Shen (2008; 2015) find a commensurate relationship for a first-order temporal finite difference scheme.

This scaling reveals why differential OFME methods are regarded as being ill-suited to particle-based velocimetry experiments exhibiting large particle displacements. As Sugii et al (2000) summarize, differential OFME methods “cannot measure large displacements because of [their] small dynamic range”. Indeed, this scaling has served as an impetus for the development of numerous variations of differential OFME, such as multi-resolution schemes (Enkelmann, 1988; Mémin and Pérez, 1998; Cohen and Herlin, 1999; Ruhnau et al, 2004, 2007; Heitz et al, 2008), warping schemes (Brox et al, 2004; Papenberg et al, 2006; Brox and Malik, 2010), hybrid PIV-OFME schemes (Sugii et al, 2000; Yang and Johnson, 2017), and wavelet-based schemes (Wu et al, 2000; Schmidt and Sutton, 2019, 2020).

On the other hand, the quantity

$$c_{\text{fdx}} h^2 \|D^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)}$$

is the spatial finite difference error. Because we use a second-order centered difference scheme in space, this error scales with the third spatial derivative of  $I$  and quadratically with  $h$ .

This scaling has interesting practical ramifications in the context of particle-based velocimetry. If we define the particle image diameter  $d_{\text{pi}}$  in terms of  $h$  (e.g.  $d_{\text{pi}} = Rh$  for a fixed constant  $R \sim O(1)$ ), this error decreases as  $R$  increases. This is because  $\|D^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} \propto d_{\text{pi}}^{-3}$ . This means that while we cannot adjust  $h$  once a camera sensor and desired field-of-view have been selected, we can still minimize the spatial finite difference error by maximizing the particle image diameter, either by optical or numerical filtering.

The remaining terms in error bound (8) are fourth order in spacetime. The interested reader can consult

Total domain $\Omega_{\text{tot}}$	$[0, 2\pi]^3$
Grid	$1024^3$ nodes
Viscosity $\nu$	0.000185
Simulation time-step	0.0002
Time interval of simulation	$[0, 10.056]$
Total kinetic energy $E_{\text{tot}} = \frac{1}{2} \overline{u_i u_i}$	0.705
RMS velocity $u' = (\frac{2}{3} E_{\text{tot}})^{1/2}$	0.686
Average dissipation $\bar{\varepsilon} = 2\nu \overline{s_{ij} s_{ij}}$	0.103
Taylor length scale $\lambda = (15\nu(u')^2/\bar{\varepsilon})^{1/2}$	0.113
$\text{Re}_\lambda = u'\lambda/\nu$	418
Kolmogorov time scale $\tau_\eta = (\nu/\bar{\varepsilon})^{1/2}$	0.0424
Kolmogorov length scale $\eta = (\nu^3/\bar{\varepsilon})^{1/4}$	0.00280
Integral length scale	1.364

**Table 1** Parameters and statistics of JHU forced isotropic DNS data (Perlman et al, 2007; Li et al, 2008). Turbulence statistics are time averaged over time interval  $[0, 10.056]$ .

the appendix for the exact forms of these higher order terms.

## 4 Numerical demonstrations of error bound

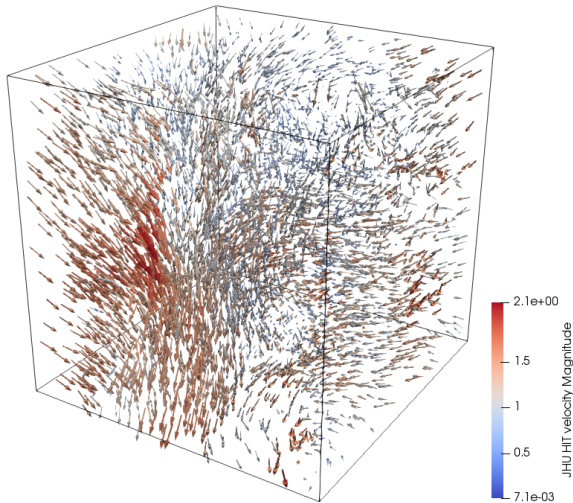
We now present numerical demonstrations of the derived error bound. All demonstrations are based on solutions of the discretized motion estimation problem (7) using piecewise continuous Legendre polynomials and divergence-free (DF) polynomials. For the sake of brevity, we do not describe the implementation of this method here; the interested reader can find these details in (Kumashiro, 2019). Instead, we focus on the results of this method as they pertain to the error analysis presented in this paper.

### 4.1 Description of reference data set

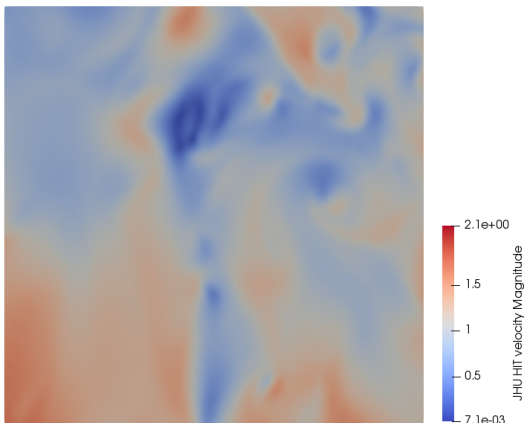
The reference data set for these demonstrations is derived from the DF forced isotropic DNS data provided by JHU (Perlman et al, 2007; Li et al, 2008). In particular, we use a single snapshot of the forced isotropic turbulence DNS solution originally computed on a large grid with  $1024^3$  nodes. Table 1 summarizes the parameters and statistics of this data set. In addition, figure 2 shows a 3D vector plot of the velocity solution over a  $55^3$ -node subsection at the center of the total domain, and figure 3 shows the velocity magnitude over a slice cutting through the center of this smaller domain. In the remainder of this paper, we use  $\Omega$  to denote the aforementioned subsection and  $\Omega_{\text{tot}}$  to denote the total domain.

As stated in table 1,  $\Omega_{\text{tot}} = [0, 2\pi]^3$ , and there are originally  $1024^3$  nodes in  $\Omega_{\text{tot}}$ . As such,  $\Omega$  is a cubic domain with length  $(55 - 1)/(1024 - 1) \times 2\pi \approx 0.332$ . Assuming that the correlation of Buch and Dahm (1996)





**Fig. 2** Three-dimensional quiver plot of the JHU forced isotropic DNS data. This figure shows a  $55 \times 55 \times 55$ -node subsection  $\Omega$  at center of  $\Omega_{\text{tot}}$ .



**Fig. 3** Velocity magnitude of the JHU forced isotropic DNS data plotted over a central slice of the domain  $\Omega$  shown in figure 2.

applies, we find that the viscous length scale for the reference velocity field is

$$\lambda_\nu \approx 6\eta = 0.0168.$$

As such, the volume of  $\Omega$  is approximately  $(20\lambda_\nu)^3$ .

#### 4.2 Preprocessing of reference data set

The raw DNS velocity field over  $\Omega$  has 55 nodes in each direction. This corresponds to approximately three computational cells per viscous length, which is too low for an informative evaluation of the proposed method. Instead, we first supersample the DNS velocity field so that we have 16 voxels (vx) per viscous length, which

is representative of PIV experiments that attempt to capture the majority of the turbulent kinetic energy (Lavoie et al, 2007). The resulting velocity field has 301 vx in each direction. We supersample the original data set by tri-cubic spline interpolation with not-a-knot end conditions, one of the methods recommended by JHU (Perlman et al, 2007; Li et al, 2008). We henceforth refer to this supersampled velocity field as the reference velocity field  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$ .

#### 4.3 Synthesis of 3D particle image intensity fields

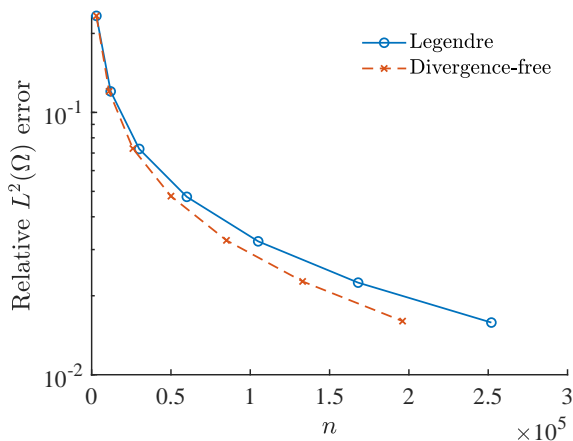
We synthesize our 3D particle image pairs as follows. First, we seed  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  with a prescribed number  $N$  of point particles according to a uniform random distribution. Then, we numerically convect these point particles according to a four-stage explicit Runge-Kutta scheme coupled with piecewise tri-cubic interpolation of  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$ . In formulating the equations of motion for each particle, we assume that (i) the velocity field is static over the time between frames  $\Delta t$ , and (ii) the Stokes drag is negligible. Lastly, we position Gaussian intensity distributions about the positions of each point particle in both the initial and final frames. Following the recommendation of Raffel et al (2018), these particle image intensity distributions have the form

$$I_{\text{pi}}(\underline{r}) = \exp\left(-8\|\underline{r}\|_2^2/d_{\text{pi}}^2\right),$$

where  $\underline{r}$  is the position relative to the particle image center, and  $d_{\text{pi}}$  is the particle image diameter. For ease of analysis, we assume here that  $d_{\text{pi}}$  is the same for each particle. (We later treat the case of a normally distributed  $d_{\text{pi}}$  in section 4.6.) We also assume that the particle image intensity distributions of different particles are additive, and we do not corrupt the intensity field with noise. These assumptions are intended to minimize the number of salient parameters in our demonstration. As such, they serve to simplify the interpretation of the demonstration without affecting the underlying takeaways.

#### 4.4 Best-fit error results

Before we present the results from the estimation tests (that is, tests where  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  is inferred from the synthesized particle image intensity fields), we verify that the piecewise continuous Legendre and DF polynomials are capable of approximating the JHU DNS data in a best-fit error sense. For this demonstration, we divide  $\Omega$  into  $n_{\text{IB}} = 1000$  interrogation boxes (IB), each with a volume of  $31^3$  vx, and solve the best-fit approximation problem using Legendre and DF polynomials that are



**Fig. 4** Best-fit error relative to  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  as a function of  $n$ . The best-fit error computations are performed on the domain  $\Omega$  using both Legendre and DF polynomials.

continuous within each IB. Specifically, we vary the local polynomial degree  $p$  of these piecewise continuous polynomials from zero to six and compute the best-fit error with respect to  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$ .

The results of these computations are shown in figure 4. These results are presented in terms of (i) the relative  $L^2(\Omega)$  error, which is defined as

$$\|\underline{u}_{\text{bf}} - \underline{u}_{\text{ref}}\|_{L^2(\Omega)} / \|\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}\|_{L^2(\Omega)},$$

where  $\underline{u}_{\text{bf}}$  is the best-fit approximation of the velocity field, and (ii) the number of basis functions  $n$ , which is related to the local polynomial degree  $p$  by

$$n = n_{\text{IB}} \frac{(p+1)(p+2)(p+3)}{2} \quad (9)$$

for Legendre polynomials, and

$$n = n_{\text{IB}} \left[ \frac{(p+1)(p+2)(p+3)}{2} - \frac{p(p+1)(p+2)}{6} \right] \quad (10)$$

for DF polynomials. We approximate the  $L^2(\Omega)$  norms by voxel-wise Riemann sums.

We make two observations based on the results in figure 4. First, we see that the best-fit error decreases with increasing  $n$  for both classes of basis functions, as expected. In terms of polynomial basis functions, we can interpret this result as follows. The complexity of a polynomial increases with its degree. As such, the higher the degree of the polynomial, the more features it is capable of resolving.

The second observation is that the best-fit error of the DF-polynomial approximation is less than or equal to that of the Legendre-polynomial approximation for a given value of  $n$ . That is, the DF polynomials provide a more “efficient” basis than the Legendre polynomials for this data set. This is simply because our data

set is divergence free (up to numerical precision), and the DF constraint affords a reduction in the number of basis functions required to span a given DF function space. As shown in (9) and (10), this dimensionality reduction is borne out transparently for polynomial basis functions. We thus note that, in addition to the *dimension* of the chosen approximation space, the *class* of approximation space can yield substantial improvements in the performance of a given OFME method.

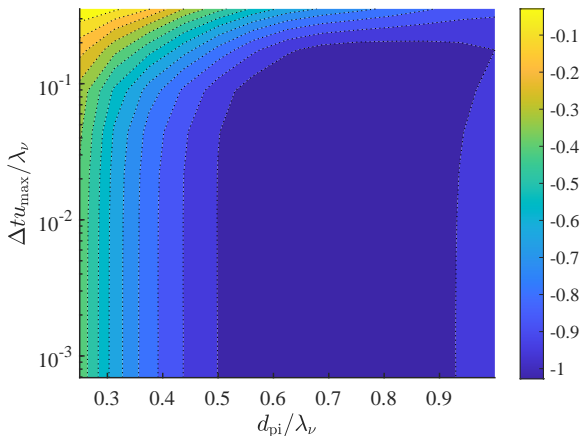
We may gain further insights into the significance of approximation spaces by comparing our OFME scheme with PIV. Because each PIV interrogation region is assigned one independent vector, PIV intrinsically makes use of an approximation space of piecewise constant functions (i.e. zeroth degree polynomials). While this enables the application of robust cross-correlation algorithms to determine the values of these vectors (or equivalently, the coefficients of the zeroth degree polynomials), the low dimensionality of the approximation space amounts to a major limitation of PIV, particularly with respect to spatial resolution. In contrast, OFME methods can naturally accommodate complex approximation spaces and, hence, have an inherent advantage in terms of spatial resolution.

#### 4.5 Parametric study: variation of $d_{\text{pi}}$ and $\Delta t$

In the remainder of this section, we present and discuss results from estimation tests. The first such set of results is from a parametric study with respect to  $d_{\text{pi}}$  and  $\Delta t$ . For this study, we focus on a single IB  $\Omega'$  located about the center of  $\Omega$ . In particular, we seed  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  with  $N = 20$  particles inside  $\Omega'$  according to a uniform random distribution. This corresponds to a typical seeding density used in tomographic PIV experiments (Raffel et al, 2018; Elsinga et al, 2006; Scarano, 2012). We then convect these particles over a variable  $\Delta t$  and position Gaussian particle image distributions with a uniform but variable  $d_{\text{pi}}$ .

Figure 5 shows the results of this parametric study as a filled contour plot of the decimal logarithm of the relative  $L^2(\Omega')$  estimation error as a function of  $\Delta t$  and  $d_{\text{pi}}$ . For each sampled pair of  $d_{\text{pi}}$  and  $\Delta t$ , we estimate  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  using DF polynomials of degrees zero to four and retain the estimate with the lowest relative  $L^2(\Omega')$  error. For nearly all sampled pairs of  $d_{\text{pi}}$  and  $\Delta t$ , we find that piecewise cubic DF polynomials yield the lowest relative  $L^2(\Omega')$  error. We also note that we non-dimensionalize  $d_{\text{pi}}$  as  $d_{\text{pi}}/\lambda_\nu$  and  $\Delta t$  as  $\Delta t u_{\text{max}}/\lambda_\nu$ , where  $u_{\text{max}}$  is the maximum velocity magnitude of  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  in  $\Omega'$ .

The estimation error decreases with decreasing  $\Delta t$ . This is especially the case for small  $d_{\text{pi}}$ . In addition, the



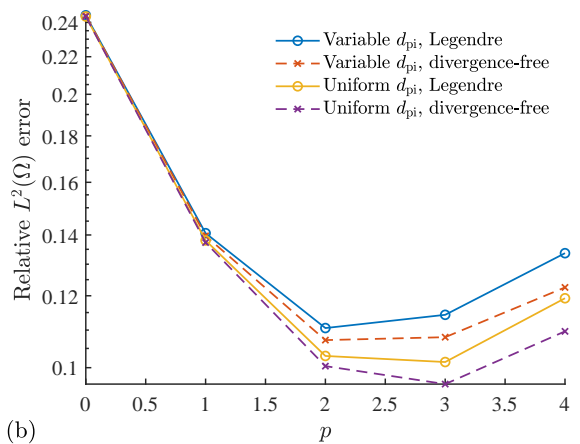
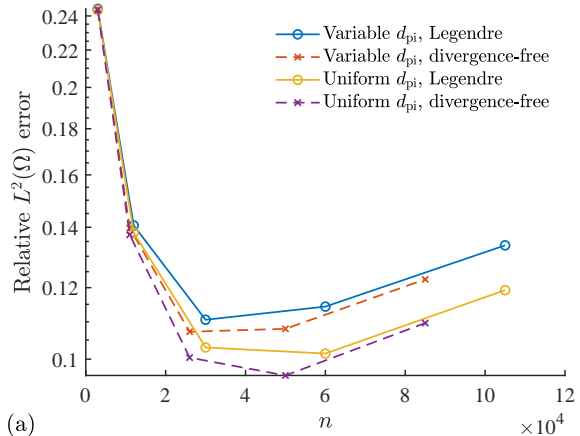
**Fig. 5** The decimal logarithm of the estimation error relative to  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  as a function of  $\Delta t$  and  $d_{\text{pi}}$ . The estimation error computations are performed on a single IB  $\Omega'$  located about the center of  $\Omega$ .

estimation error decreases with increasing  $d_{\text{pi}}$ . These two trends are consistent with the *a priori* error analysis, which predicts that the temporal finite difference error decreases with decreasing  $\Delta t$ , and the spatial finite difference error decreases with increasing  $d_{\text{pi}}$ .

However, the estimation error is not strictly monotonic with respect to  $d_{\text{pi}}$ ; there is a global, albeit shallow, minimum in the estimation error. We hypothesize that this non-monotonicity is due to the error introduced in the motion constraint equation by the filtering that is inherent in the particle image intensity field. We note that we start the *a priori* error analysis with a “true” intensity field  $I$  that satisfies (1). Here the true intensity field is induced by particles and therefore does not exactly satisfy (1). This is because the particles are imaged with a finite diameter, and the motion of a given particle image is governed solely by that of its center. That is, even when the particles themselves are convected in accordance with (1), the induced intensity field is altered by a filter that introduces a residual in the motion constraint equation.

#### 4.6 Full-scale estimation results

We now present results from estimation tests over the whole of  $\Omega$ . As with the best-fit error tests, we divide  $\Omega$  into  $n_{\text{IB}} = 1000$  IBs, each with a volume of  $31^3$  vx. Similar to the parametric study shown above, we seed  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  with 20 particles per IB. In addition, we choose a non-dimensionalized  $\Delta t$  of  $\Delta t u_{\text{max}}/\lambda_\nu = 1.25 \times 10^{-2}$  and a non-dimensionalized  $d_{\text{pi}}$  of  $d_{\text{pi}}/\lambda_\nu = 1$ . We note that these values of  $\Delta t$  and  $d_{\text{pi}}$  are located inside the “valley” of the filled contour plot shown in figure 5.



**Fig. 6** Overall estimation error relative to  $\underline{u}_{\text{ref}}$  as a function of  $n$  and  $p$ . For the uniform  $d_{\text{pi}}$  case  $d_{\text{pi}}$  is fixed to  $d_{\text{pi}} = \lambda_\nu$ , and for the variable  $d_{\text{pi}}$  case  $d_{\text{pi}}$  is drawn from a normal distribution with mean  $d_{\text{pi},\mu} = \lambda_\nu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma = d_{\text{pi},\mu}/3$ . In both cases,  $\Delta t u_{\text{max}}/\lambda_\nu = 1.25 \times 10^{-2}$ .

Figure 6a shows the relative  $L^2(\Omega)$  error as a function of  $n$  for both Legendre and DF polynomials, while figure 6b shows the same error figures as a function of the local polynomial degree  $p$ . We see that the estimation error first decreases with increasing  $n$  (or equivalently  $p$ ) but then increases once  $n$  becomes too high relative to the number of particles  $N$ . In particular, the relative  $L^2(\Omega)$  error reaches a minimum when  $p = 3$  for both Legendre and DF polynomials. We note that this corresponds to an  $n$  to  $N$  ratio of  $n/N \approx 0.5$ .

This is precisely a manifestation of the central insight of error bound (8): the competition between the best-fit error term, which decreases with increasing  $n$ , and the inverse stability constant, which increases with increasing  $n$ . That is, for  $n/N < 0.5$ , the effect of the best-fit error term dominates, and we attain accuracy and resolution improvements by enriching the approximation space. However, for  $n/N > 0.5$ , the effect of the

stability constant dominates, and the estimate worsens as we enrich the approximation space.

Of course in practice,  $d_{\text{pi}}$  is not uniform but instead varies according to some distribution. However, we can show that the effect of variable  $d_{\text{pi}}$  on the error analysis is of secondary importance to the competition between the best-fit error term and the inverse stability constant. Figures 6a and 6b show the estimation error for a corresponding set of tests where  $d_{\text{pi}}$  is drawn from a normal distribution with a mean of  $d_{\text{pi},\mu} = \lambda_\nu$  and a standard deviation of  $\sigma = d_{\text{pi},\mu}/3$ . We readily see that the variable  $d_{\text{pi}}$  curves are similar to the uniform  $d_{\text{pi}}$  curves. That is, while the estimation error at a given value of  $n$  or  $p$  is higher for the variable  $d_{\text{pi}}$  case compared to the uniform  $d_{\text{pi}}$  case, the behavior of the estimation error with respect to  $n$  and  $p$  is the same regardless.

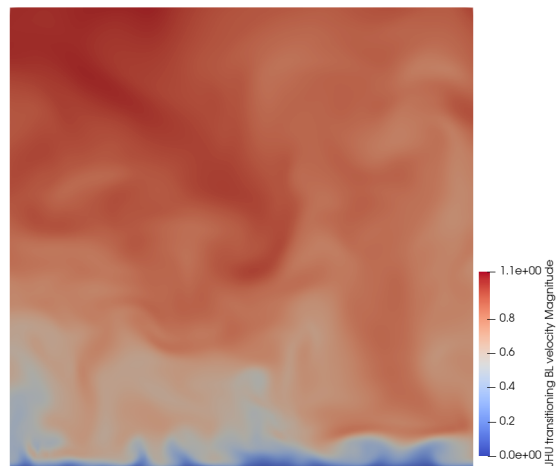
#### 4.7 Robustness with respect to flow configuration

Finally, we show that these estimation error results are not unique to the HIT data set. To this end, we perform comparable estimation tests with the transitional BL data set provided by JHU (Zaki, 2013). Specifically, we extract from the data set a  $301^3$  vx subsection  $\Omega_{\text{BL}}$  at the end opposite the leading edge of the BL-inducing plate; divide  $\Omega_{\text{BL}}$  into  $n_{\text{IB}} = 1000$  IBs, each with a volume of  $31^3$  vx; and seed the flow with an average of 20 particles per IB. All particles are assigned the same  $d_{\text{pi}}$  as that used in the uniform  $d_{\text{pi}}$  HIT tests. The non-dimensionalized  $\Delta t$  is also the same as that used in the HIT tests. Figure 7 shows the velocity magnitude of the BL flow plotted over the central slice of  $\Omega_{\text{BL}}$  that is normal to the free stream velocity.

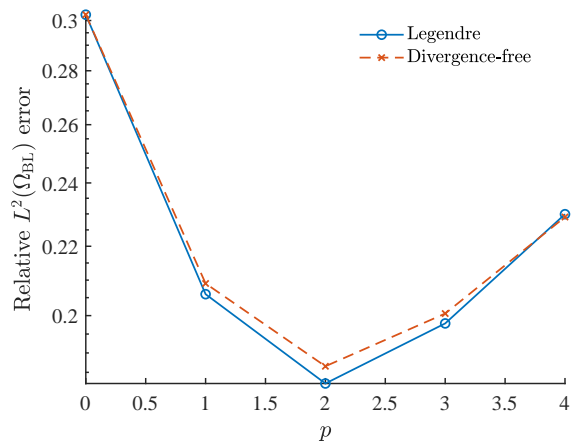
Figure 8 shows the relative  $L^2(\Omega_{\text{BL}})$  error as a function of  $p$  for both Legendre and DF polynomials. As in figure 6b, the estimation error first decreases with increasing  $p$  but increases with increasing  $p$  once the corresponding  $n$  becomes too high relative to the number of particles  $N$ . Unlike the HIT cases however, Legendre polynomials perform better than DF polynomials, particularly for  $p = 2$ . This is likely because the reference velocity in this case is not DF; it contains appreciable non-solenoidal components that, by definition, cannot be resolved by DF polynomials.

## 5 Conclusion

We have analyzed the error of a prototypical linear OF model using error analysis techniques for PDEs. In particular, we have shown, through both rigorous mathematical analysis and numerical demonstrations, that



**Fig. 7** Velocity magnitude of the JHU transitional BL flow plotted over a central slice of the domain  $\Omega_{\text{BL}}$ . The free stream velocity is directed into the page. The BL-inducing plate lies just below the bottom of the figure.



**Fig. 8** Overall estimation error relative to the reference velocity inside  $\Omega_{\text{BF}}$  as a function of  $p$ . The parameter values used in these tests are the same as those of the uniform  $d_{\text{pi}}$  HIT tests.

the estimation error is bounded primarily by the best-fit approximation error — which quantifies the fidelity with which one can represent the true OF field in a chosen approximation space — divided by the stability constant — which quantifies one’s ability to infer the estimated OF field given the information content of the acquired data. We have also shown that the estimation error is bounded secondarily by effects related to the finite resolution, both in space and time, of the acquired data. These are the quadrature and filtering error terms — which nominally do not manifest themselves — and the finite difference and time-averaging error terms — which can significantly affect the accuracy and resolution of the estimated OF field. We reiterate that the scope of our analysis is limited to linear OFME

methods with implicit regularization (enforced through the explicit choice of approximation spaces). While this scope is admittedly narrow, it yields an OFME problem that is particularly amenable to systematic error analysis via techniques originally developed for the numerical approximation of PDEs. Our hope is that this analysis may serve as a rigorous foundation for more widely applicable error analyses of OFME methods.

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## A Proof of a *a priori* error bound

### A.1 Key lemmas

Before we prove error bound (8), we state four key lemmas required for the proof.

**Lemma 1 (midpoint rule error bound)** For all twice differentiable  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\left| \int_{\Omega} f d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} f d\mathbf{x} \right| \leq c_q h^2 \|D^2 f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)},$$

for some  $c_q$  independent of  $h$ .

*Proof* See Theorem 8.5 of (Ern and Guermond, 2010).

**Lemma 2 (filter error bound)** For any twice differentiable  $I(\cdot, t) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\|I(\cdot, t) - \Pi_h * I(\cdot, t)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \leq c_f h^2 \|D^2 I(\cdot, t)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)}$$

for some  $c_f$  independent of  $h$ .

*Proof* We first introduce an  $n_d$ -cube centered about  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\omega(\mathbf{x}) := \mathbf{x} + (-h/2, h/2)^{n_d}$ . We then note that by the definition of the rectangular filter, for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$  and  $t \in T$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| I(\mathbf{x}, t) - \frac{1}{\mu(\omega(\mathbf{x}))} \int_{\omega(\mathbf{x})} I(\mathbf{y}, t) d\mathbf{y} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{\mu(\omega(\mathbf{x}))} \left| \int_{\omega(\mathbf{x})} I(\mathbf{y}, t) d\mathbf{y} - \mu(\omega(\mathbf{x})) I(\mathbf{x}, t) \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\mu(\omega(\mathbf{x}))} c_f h^2 \mu(\omega(\mathbf{x})) \|D^2 I(\cdot, t)\|_{L^\infty(\omega(\mathbf{x}))} \\ &= c_f h^2 \|D^2 I(\cdot, t)\|_{L^\infty(\omega(\mathbf{x}))}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mu(\omega(\mathbf{x}))$  denotes the measure of  $\omega(\mathbf{x})$ , and the inequality follows from Lemma 8.4 of (Ern and Guermond, 2010).

**Lemma 3 (time-averaged finite difference error bound)** Let  $t^* := t_0 + \Delta t/2$  be the midpoint time in  $T$ . For any three-times differentiable  $I : \Omega \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \|\nabla I(\cdot, t^*) - \overline{\nabla}_h I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &\leq c_t \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 \nabla I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} + c_{fdx} h^2 \|D^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} \end{aligned}$$

for some constants  $c_t$  and  $c_{fdx}$  independent of  $h$  and  $\Delta t$ .

*Proof* We first decompose the error as

$$\begin{aligned} & \|\nabla I(\cdot, t^*) - \overline{\nabla}_h I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &\leq \|\nabla I(\cdot, t^*) - \overline{\nabla} I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} + \|\overline{\nabla} I - \overline{\nabla}_h I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\overline{\nabla} I := (\nabla I(\cdot, t_0) + \nabla I(\cdot, t_0 + \Delta t))/2$  is the time-averaged gradient. To bound the first term, we note that the time-averaging is equivalent to evaluating the linear interpolant at the midpoint time  $t^*$ . Hence,

$$\|\nabla I(\cdot, t^*) - \overline{\nabla} I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \leq c_t \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 \nabla I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)}.$$

To bound the second term, we note that the error in the centered finite difference is bounded by

$$\|\overline{\nabla} I - \overline{\nabla}_h I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \leq c_{fdx} h^2 \|D^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)}.$$

The application of the time-averaging and finite difference bounds to the error decomposition yields the desired result.

**Lemma 4 (temporal finite difference error bound)** Let  $t^* := t_0 + \Delta t/2$  be the midpoint time in  $T$ . For any  $I : \Omega \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that is three-times differentiable in time,

$$\|\partial_t I(\cdot, t^*) - \partial_{t, \Delta t} I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \leq c_{fdt} \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)},$$

for some  $c_{fdt}$  independent of  $\Delta t$ .

*Proof* This is a standard centered difference error bound.

### A.2 Problem statement

As stated in section 2.2, the estimated OF field  $\underline{u}_\delta \in \mathcal{W}_n$  is given by

$$\underline{u}_\delta = \arg \min_{\underline{w}_\delta \in \mathcal{W}_n} \int_{\Omega, h} (\partial_{t, \Delta t} I_h + \overline{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w}_\delta)^2 d\mathbf{x}.$$

We note that  $\underline{u}_\delta$  is the solution to the following Petrov-Galerkin problem: Find  $\underline{u}_\delta \in \mathcal{W}_n$  such that

$$a_\delta(\underline{u}_\delta, v_\delta) = \ell_\delta(v_\delta) \quad \forall v_\delta \in \mathcal{V}_\delta,$$

where  $\mathcal{V}_\delta := \{v \mid v = \overline{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w}_n, \forall \underline{w}_n \in \mathcal{W}_n\}$  and

$$\begin{aligned} a_\delta(\underline{w}, v) &:= \int_{\Omega, h} v \overline{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\mathbf{x} \quad \forall \underline{w} \in \mathcal{W}, \forall v \in \mathcal{V}, \\ \ell_\delta(v) &:= \int_{\Omega, h} v \partial_{t, \Delta t} I_h d\mathbf{x} \quad \forall v \in \mathcal{V}. \end{aligned}$$

We now assume that the true OF field  $\underline{u} \in \mathcal{W} := H(\text{div}; \Omega)$  satisfies

$$a(\underline{u}, v) = \ell(v) \quad \forall v \in \mathcal{V} := L^2(\Omega),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} a(\underline{w}, v) &:= \int_{\Omega} v \nabla I(\mathbf{x}, t^*) \cdot \underline{w} d\mathbf{x} \quad \forall \underline{w} \in \mathcal{W}, \forall v \in \mathcal{V}, \\ \ell(v) &:= \int_{\Omega} v \partial_t I(\mathbf{x}, t^*) d\mathbf{x} \quad \forall v \in \mathcal{V}, \end{aligned}$$

and  $t^* := t_0 + \Delta t/2$ .

We wish to bound the estimation error  $\|\underline{u} - \underline{u}_\delta\|_{\mathcal{W}}$ .

### A.3 *A priori* error estimate

To bound the estimation error, we first recall the Petrov-Galerkin error bound (e.g. Ern and Guermond, 2010):

$$\begin{aligned} \|\underline{u} - \underline{u}_\delta\|_{\mathcal{W}} &\leq \inf_{\underline{w}_\delta \in \mathcal{W}_n} \underbrace{\left[ \left(1 + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha_\delta}\right) \|\underline{u} - \underline{w}_\delta\|_{\mathcal{W}} \right]}_{\text{(I)}} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{\alpha_\delta} \sup_{v_\delta \in \mathcal{V}_n} \underbrace{\frac{|a(\underline{w}_\delta, v_\delta) - a_\delta(\underline{w}_\delta, v_\delta)|}{\|v_\delta\|_{\mathcal{V}}}}_{\text{(II)}} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{\alpha_\delta} \sup_{v_\delta \in \mathcal{V}_n} \underbrace{\frac{|\ell(v_\delta) - \ell_\delta(v_\delta)|}{\|v_\delta\|_{\mathcal{V}}}}_{\text{(III)}}. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

We now analyze terms (I)–(III) individually.

Let us begin with (I). Here we seek a bound for the stability constant  $\alpha_\delta$  defined as (e.g. Ern and Guermond, 2010)

$$\alpha_\delta := \inf_{\underline{w} \in \mathcal{W}_n} \sup_{v \in \mathcal{V}_n} \frac{a_\delta(\underline{w}, v)}{\|\underline{w}\|_{\mathcal{W}} \|v\|_{\mathcal{V}}},$$

We note that the continuity constant  $\gamma$  is defined as (e.g. Ern and Guermond, 2010)

$$\gamma := \sup_{\underline{w}_n \in \mathcal{W}} \frac{\|\nabla I \cdot \underline{w}_n\|_{L^2(\Omega)}}{\|\underline{w}_n\|_{\mathcal{W}}}$$

and, as such, is dictated by the information content of the acquired data; it does not depend on the particular OFME method used and serves only to rescale the parameter-dependent stability constant.

Before we continue with our analysis, we clarify three points regarding the notation that we use in the remainder of this proof. First, for the sake of notational convenience, we let  $\hat{D}^Q f$  be the *collection* of functions  $f, Df, \dots, D^Q f$  satisfying the identity

$$\|\hat{D}^Q f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \equiv \max_{0 \leq q \leq Q} \|D^q f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)}.$$

Second, we introduce the simplifying notation  $I^* := I(\cdot, t^*)$ . Third, the bounding coefficients  $c_q$  and  $C$  are *generic* and, hence, reused in multiple inequalities.

We now return to our analysis. By the definition of  $a_\delta(\cdot, \cdot)$  and the fact that  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{V}} \equiv \|\cdot\|_{L^2(\Omega)}$ ,  $\alpha_\delta$  specializes to

$$\alpha_\delta = \inf_{\underline{w} \in \mathcal{W}_n} \sup_{v \in \mathcal{V}_n} \frac{\int_{\Omega, h} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x}}{\|\underline{w}\|_{\mathcal{W}} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}}.$$

Because term (III) is *divided* by  $\alpha_\delta$ , we wish to bound  $\alpha_\delta$  from below so that  $1/\alpha_\delta$  is bounded from above.

We note that the error due to the quadrature is bounded by

$$\begin{aligned} &\left| \int_{\Omega} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} \right| \\ &\leq c_q h^2 \|D^2(v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w})\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ &\leq C h^2 \sum_{q=0}^2 \|D^q \bar{\nabla}_h I_h\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|D^{2-q}(\underline{w}v)\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ &\leq C h^2 \|\hat{D}^2 \bar{\nabla}_h I_h\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|\hat{D}^2 \underline{w}\|_{L^4(\Omega)} \|\hat{D}^2 v\|_{L^4(\Omega)} \\ &\leq c_{q,0} h^2 \|\hat{D}^2 \bar{\nabla}_h I_h\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|\underline{w}\|_{\mathcal{W}} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Here the first inequality follows from the quadrature error bound (Lemma 1); the second inequality follows from Hölder's inequality; the third inequality follows from Schwarz inequality; and the last inequality follows from the equivalence of norms of functions in polynomial spaces  $\mathcal{W}_n$  and  $\mathcal{V}_\delta$ . It hence follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_\delta &= \inf_{\underline{w} \in \mathcal{W}_n} \sup_{v \in \mathcal{V}_n} \left( \frac{\int_{\Omega} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x}}{\|\underline{w}\|_{\mathcal{W}} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{\int_{\Omega} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x}}{\|\underline{w}\|_{\mathcal{W}} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} \right) \\ &\geq \inf_{\underline{w} \in \mathcal{W}_n} \sup_{v \in \mathcal{V}_n} \frac{\int_{\Omega} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x}}{\|\underline{w}\|_{\mathcal{W}} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} - c_{q,0} h^2 \|\hat{D}^2 \bar{\nabla}_h I_h\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &= \inf_{\underline{w} \in \mathcal{W}_n} \frac{\|\bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w}\|_{L^2(\Omega)}}{\|\underline{w}\|_{\mathcal{W}}} - c_{q,0} h^2 \|\hat{D}^2 \bar{\nabla}_h I_h\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &= \inf_{\underline{w} \in \mathcal{W}_n} \frac{\|\bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w}\|_{L^2(\Omega)}}{\|\underline{w}\|_{\mathcal{W}}} - O(h^2). \end{aligned}$$

Here the first inequality follows from the substitution of (12) to the second term, and the second to last equality follows from choosing  $v = \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w}$ .

We next analyze (II). We first decompose the term as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(II)} &= \frac{1}{\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} \left( \int_{\Omega} v \nabla I^* \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} \underbrace{\left( \int_{\Omega} v \nabla I^* \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} v \nabla I^* \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} \right)}_{\text{(II.1)}} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} \underbrace{\left( \int_{\Omega, h} v \nabla I^* \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} v \bar{\nabla}_h I_h \cdot \underline{w} d\underline{x} \right)}_{\text{(II.2)}}. \end{aligned}$$

Term (II.1) is the error due to the quadrature and is bounded by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(II.1)} &\leq c_q h^2 \|D^2(v \nabla I^* \cdot \underline{w})\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ &\leq C h^2 \sum_{q=0}^2 \|D^{q+1} I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|D^{2-q}(\underline{w}v)\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ &\leq C h^2 \|\hat{D}^3 I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|\hat{D}^2 \underline{w}\|_{L^4(\Omega)} \|\hat{D}^2 v\|_{L^4(\Omega)} \\ &\leq c_{q,1} h^2 \|\hat{D}^3 I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|\underline{w}\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}. \end{aligned}$$

Here the first inequality follows from the quadrature error bound (Lemma 1); the second inequality follows from Hölder's inequality; the third inequality follows from Schwarz inequality; and the last inequality follows from the equivalence of norms of functions in polynomial spaces  $\mathcal{W}_n$  and  $\mathcal{V}_\delta$ .

To bound (II.2), we first note that

$$\begin{aligned} \|\nabla I^* - \bar{\nabla}_h I_h\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} &= \|\nabla I^* - \bar{\nabla}_h(\Pi_h * I)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &= \|\nabla I^* - \Pi_h * (\bar{\nabla}_h I)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &\leq \|\nabla I^* - \Pi_h * \nabla I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} + \|\Pi_h * (\nabla I^* - \bar{\nabla}_h I)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &\leq \|\nabla I^* - \Pi_h * \nabla I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} + \|\nabla I^* - \bar{\nabla}_h I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ &\leq c_t h^2 \|D^3 I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} + c_t \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 \nabla I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} \\ &\quad + c_{\text{fdx}} h^2 \|D^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} := F, \end{aligned}$$

where the first equality follows from the definition of the filter; the second equality follows from the commutativity of

the filter  $\Pi_h*$  with the time-averaged finite difference operator  $\bar{\nabla}_h$ ; the first inequality is the triangle inequality; the second inequality follows from the property  $\|\Pi_h * f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \leq \|f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \forall f$ ; and the last inequality follows from the filter error bound (Lemma 2) and the time-averaged finite difference error bound (Lemma 3). It follows that

$$(II.2) \leq F \int_{\Omega, h} |v \underline{w}| d\underline{x} \| \ell^1(\mathbb{R}^d) \\ \leq F(1 + c_q h^2) \| \underline{w} \|_{L^2(\Omega)} \| v \|_{L^2(\Omega)},$$

where the second inequality follows from the quadrature error bound.

Combining our results for (II.1) and (II.2), we thus find that (II) is bounded by

$$(II) \leq \left( c_{q,1} h^2 \|\hat{D}^3 I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} + c_f(1 + c_q h^2) h^2 \|D^3 I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \right. \\ \left. + c_{fdx}(1 + c_q h^2) h^2 \|D^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} \right. \\ \left. + c_t(1 + c_q h^2) \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} \right) \|w\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ = \left( c_{q,1} h^2 \|\hat{D}^3 I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} + c_f h^2 \|D^3 I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \right. \\ \left. + c_{fdx} h^2 \|D^3 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} + c_t \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} \right. \\ \left. + O(h^4) + O(h^2 \Delta t^2) \right) \|w\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}. \quad (13)$$

This bound identifies four sources of error that are second order in  $h$  or  $\Delta t$ : quadrature, filtering, spatial time difference and time averaging.

Finally, we analyze (III). We first note that

$$(III) = \frac{1}{\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} \left( \int_{\Omega} v \partial_t I^* d\underline{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} v \partial_{t, \Delta t} I_h d\underline{x} \right) \\ = \frac{1}{\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} \underbrace{\left( \int_{\Omega} v \partial_t I^* d\underline{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} v \partial_t I^* d\underline{x} \right)}_{(III.1)} \\ + \frac{1}{\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}} \underbrace{\left( \int_{\Omega, h} v \partial_t I^* d\underline{x} - \int_{\Omega, h} v \partial_{t, \Delta t} I_h d\underline{x} \right)}_{(III.2)}.$$

Term (III.1) is the error due to the quadrature and is bounded by

$$(III.1) \leq c_q h^2 \|D^2(v \partial_t I^*)\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ \leq C h^2 \sum_{q=0}^2 \|D^q \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|D^{2-q} v\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ \leq C h^2 \|\hat{D}^2 \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|\hat{D}^2 v\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ \leq c_{q,2} h^2 \|\hat{D}^2 \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}.$$

Here the first inequality follows from the quadrature error bound (Lemma 1); the second inequality follows from Hölder's inequality; the third inequality follows from the definition of the norms; and the last inequality follows from the equivalence of norms of functions in polynomial spaces  $\mathcal{W}_n$  and  $\mathcal{V}_\delta$ .

To bound (III.2), we first note that

$$\|\partial_t I^* - \partial_{t, \Delta t} I_h\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} = \|\partial_t I^* - \partial_{t, \Delta t} (\Pi_h * I)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ = \|\partial_t I^* - \Pi_h * (\partial_{t, \Delta t} I)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ \leq \|\partial_t I^* - \Pi_h * \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ + \|\Pi_h * (\partial_t I^* - \partial_{t, \Delta t} I)\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ \leq \|\partial_t I^* - \Pi_h * \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} + \|\partial_t I^* - \partial_{t, \Delta t} I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \\ \leq c_f h^2 \|D^2 \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} + c_{fdt} \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} := G,$$

where the first equality follows from the definition of the filter; the second equality follows from the commutativity of the filter  $\Pi_h*$  with the temporal finite difference operator  $\partial_{t, \Delta t}$ ; the first inequality is the triangle inequality; the second inequality follows from the property  $\|\Pi_h * f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \leq \|f\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \forall f$ ; and the last inequality follows from the filter error bound (Lemma 2) and the temporal finite difference error bound (Lemma 4). It follows that

$$(III.2) \leq G \int_{\Omega, h} |v| d\underline{x} \leq G(1 + c_q h^2) \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)},$$

where the second inequality follows from the quadrature error bound.

Combining our results for (III.1) and (III.2), we thus find that (III) is bounded by,

$$(III) \leq \left( c_{q,2} h^2 \|\hat{D}^2 \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \right. \\ \left. + c_f(1 + c_q h^2) h^2 \|D^2 \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \right. \\ \left. + c_{fdt}(1 + c_q h^2) \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} \right) \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ = \left( c_{q,2} h^2 \|\hat{D}^2 \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \right. \\ \left. + c_f h^2 \|D^2 \partial_t I^*\|_{L^\infty(\Omega)} \right. \\ \left. + c_{fdt} \Delta t^2 \|\partial_t^2 I\|_{L^\infty(\Omega \times T)} \right. \\ \left. + O(h^4) + O(h^2 \Delta t^2) \right) \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \quad (14)$$

This bound identifies three sources of error that are second order in either  $h$  or  $\Delta t$ : quadrature, filtering and temporal time difference.

Substituting (13) and (14) into (11) and evaluating the suprema, we obtain the desired bound.  $\square$

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