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Oxygen data assimilation for estimating micro-organism communities' parameters in river systems

Shuaitao Wang^{a,*}, Nicolas Flipo^a, Thomas Romary^a

^a*Geosciences and Geoengineering Department, MINES ParisTech, PSL University, 35 Rue Saint-Honoré 77300 Fontainebleau, France*

5 Abstract

6 The coupling of high frequency data of water quality with physically based models of river systems is of great interest
7 for the management of urban socio-ecosystems. One approach to exploit high frequency data is data assimilation
8 which has received an increasing attention in the field of hydrology, but not for water quality modeling so far. We
9 present here a first implementation of a particle filtering algorithm into a community-centered hydro-biogeochemical
10 model to assimilate high frequency dissolved oxygen data and to estimate metabolism parameters in the Seine River
11 system. The procedure is designed based on the results of a former sensitivity analysis of the model (Wang et al.,
12 2018) that allows for the identification of the twelve most sensible parameters all over the year. Those parameters
13 are both physical and related to micro-organisms (reaeration coefficient, photosynthetic parameters, growth rates, res-
14 piration rates and optimal temperature). The performances of the approach are assessed on a synthetic case study
15 that mimics 66 km of the Seine River. Virtual dissolved oxygen data are generated using time varying parameters.
16 This paper aims at retrieving the predefined parameters by assimilating those data. The simulated dissolved oxygen
17 concentrations match the reference concentrations. The identification of the parameters depends on the hydrological
18 and trophic contexts and more surprisingly on the thermal state of the river. The physical, bacterial and phytoplank-
19 tonic parameters can be retrieved properly, leading to the differentiation of two successive algal blooms by comparing
20 the estimated posterior distribution of the optimal temperature for phytoplankton growth. Finally, photosynthetic
21 parameters' distributions following circadian cycles during algal blooms are discussed.

22 *Keywords:* Data assimilation, Dissolved oxygen, Parameter estimation, Particle filter, ProSE-PA

23 1. Introduction

24 The coupling of high frequency data of water quality with physically based model of river systems is of great inter-
25 est for the management of urban socio-ecosystems. One approach to exploit high frequency data is data assimilation

*Corresponding author

Email addresses: shuaitao.wang@mines-paristech.fr, shuaitaowang@outlook.com (Shuaitao Wang), nicolas.flipo@mines-paristech.fr (Nicolas Flipo), thomas.romary@mines-paristech.fr (Thomas Romary)

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26 which combines observations and short-range forecasts to estimate the distribution of the true state of a process (Wikle
27 and Berliner, 2007). Assimilating high frequency data allows for the identification of the multiple sources of model
28 uncertainty relative to parameters, model structure, forcing data (e.g. temperature, wind speed and solar radiation)
29 and observations (Evensen, 2003), which limit the validation and application of water quality models (Beven, 1989;
30 Polus et al., 2011).

31 A lot of data assimilation techniques exist in literature such as the variational methods (Sasaki, 1955, 1958), the
32 Kalman filter (KF, (Kalman, 1960)), the extended Kalman filter (EKF, (Beck, 1987)), the ensemble Kalman filter
33 (EnKF, (Evensen, 1994)) and the particle filter (PF, (Doucet et al., 2001)). A review of these methods can be found
34 in the literature (Wikle and Berliner, 2007; Cappe et al., 2007; Särkkä, 2013). The variational methods minimizing
35 a cost function have been widely used in numerical weather prediction (Courtier et al., 1994, 1998; Gauthier et al.,
36 2007; Kleist and Ide, 2015; Yucel et al., 2015). The major drawbacks of variational methods are the numerical
37 implementation complexity and the computational cost. The KF handles only linear models with Gaussian errors,
38 which are not consistent with the hydrologic and water quality models.

39 To extend to nonlinear models, the EKF uses the linearized formula tangent to the forward model, which is an
40 approximation and would be very costly to implement for high-dimensional systems (Evensen, 2003). The EnKF
41 uses Monte Carlo samples to approximate the forecast distribution and then applies linear update formulas to obtain
42 the posterior distribution (Evensen, 2003), while the particle filter based methods estimate the forecast and posterior
43 distributions using discrete probability densities (Arulampalam et al., 2002) obtained via Bayes' theorem (Bayes,
44 1763). Since the EnKF and particle filter resolve the two major drawbacks related to the use of EKF and handle highly
45 nonlinear models, the EnKF and particle filter based methods have become the most commonly used sequential data
46 assimilation techniques in hydrologic modeling for state-parameter estimation (Moradkhani et al., 2005; Weerts and
47 El Serafy, 2006; Andreadis et al., 2007; Salamon and Feyen, 2009; Plaza et al., 2012; DeChant and Moradkhani,
48 2012; Vrugt et al., 2013; Shi et al., 2014; Abbaszadeh et al., 2018).

49 In biogeochemical oceanography, the efficiency of the ensemble-based Kalman filters has been assessed on ocean
50 models for ocean biogeochemical state and parameter estimation (Simon and Bertino, 2012; Simon et al., 2012;
51 Gharamti et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2018). Due to the lack of data, the difficulties in representing complex hydro-
52 ecosystems and the computational cost, there are still relatively few applications about the state-parameter estimation
53 by assimilating high-frequency dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations in river systems. Pastres et al. (2003) have
54 applied the EKF to update three parameters of a simple DO-chlorophyll model in the lagoon of Venice. Mao et al.
55 (2009) used EKF to forecast algal blooms and dissolved oxygen dynamics in a marine ecosystem. The recent studies
56 focus particularly on forecasting algal bloom dynamics using EnKF in river system (Kim et al., 2014) or in lakes

57 (Huang et al., 2013; Page et al., 2018). Xue et al. (2012) applied also EnKF in the Massachusetts Bay to design the
58 optimal monitoring sites for DO measurements.

59 However, as stated by Wikle and Berliner (2007, p. 10-11), “We assume that the forecast distribution can be char-
60 acterized by its first two moments (or, equivalently, that it is Gaussian with mean and (estimated) variance/covariance
61 matrix). ... However, in nonlinear cases, since Gaussianity cannot hold for all time, the EnKF must yield biased sam-
62 ples and estimates, even for unlimited sample sizes”. The recent investigations concluded also that the assumption of
63 a Gaussian error structure for the forecast distribution may not be realistic for hydrologic systems and phytoplankton
64 dynamics and the authors suggested testing the particle filter based methods to overcome this problem (Plaza et al.,
65 2012; Pasetto et al., 2012; DeChant and Moradkhani, 2012; Huang et al., 2013). The feasibility of Bayesian inference
66 with a Particle Markov Chain Monte Carlo algorithm is tested on a simple predator-prey model in ecological research
67 (Kattwinkel and Reichert, 2017).

68 In this paper, we present the ProSE-PA model, which consists in a first implementation of a particle filtering
69 algorithm into the community-centered hydro-biogeochemical model ProSE (Even et al., 1998, 2007b; Flipo et al.,
70 2004; Vilmin et al., 2015b) in order to assimilate 15 min-DO data and estimate metabolisms’ parameters in the Seine
71 River system. The procedure is designed from the results of a sensitivity analysis of the biogeochemical module,
72 C-RIVE , of the ProSE model that identified the twelve most sensible parameters of the model (Wang et al., 2018).
73 Those parameters are both physical (water re-aeration by fluvial navigation) and physiological (for instance growth
74 rate of heterotrophic bacteria and photosynthetic parameters of phytoplankton). The performances of ProSE-PA are
75 assessed on a synthetic case study that mimics 66 km of the Seine River and generates virtual “observation” data of
76 DO. The objectives of this study are to retrieve the predefined parameters used to generate the “observation” data and
77 to distinguish two successive algal blooms by identifying different physiological properties.

78 The manuscript is organized as follows. The section 2 presents the ProSE model and the study area, followed
79 by the ProSE-PA approach including the mathematical formulations of the particle filter, the resampling algorithm
80 as well as the full numerical algorithm. The considered parameters, the “observation” data and the input data of
81 ProSE model are described in section 2.3. The numerical settings and the computational cost are given in section 3.1.
82 Then, we evaluate the simulated DO concentrations by four statistical criteria (section 3.2) and show the identification
83 of metabolisms’ parameters in frame of state classification (section 3.3). The real time parameter identification is
84 discussed in section 4.1, followed by the identifiability of two successive algal blooms by comparing the different
85 physiological properties. The photosynthetic parameters’ distributions following circadian cycles are described in
86 section 4.3. The sensitivity of ProSE-PA performances to the observation error is discussed in the section 4.4. To
87 finish, a brief conclusion is given in section 5.

88 2. Material and methods

89 2.1. Synthetic case study

90 2.1.1. The PROSE model

91 The PROSE model (Even et al., 1998, 2007b; Flipo et al., 2004; Vilmin et al., 2015b), couples three libraries (a hy-
92 drodynamic library, a transport library and a biogeochemical library), that simulate together the hydro-biogeochemical
93 functioning of a river system. The hydraulic module solves the 1D shallow water equations with a finite volume
94 scheme. The transport module simulates the advection and dispersion of both particulate and dissolved substances,
95 including also water re-oxygenation by overflowing over hydraulic works. The biogeochemical library is based
96 on the RIVE conceptual model which is a community-centered model (Billen et al., 1994; Garnier et al., 1995)
97 (<https://www.fire.upmc.fr/rive>). The cycles of carbon, nutrients and dissolved oxygen are simulated in both water col-
98 umn and sediment layer. The compound exchanges between water column and benthic layers have been successively
99 developed (Even et al., 2004, 2007a; Flipo et al., 2004, 2007; Vilmin et al., 2015b). The PROSE model has been well
100 validated and largely applied in the Seine River system (Even et al., 1998, 2004, 2007a; Polus et al., 2011; Raimonet
101 et al., 2015; Vilmin et al., 2015a,b, 2016, 2018).

102 2.1.2. Study area

103 The study area is located downstream Paris city and consists of 66 km of the Seine River (Fig. 1). The bathymetry
104 data of the channel is extracted from the full 220 km Seine model used in recent studies (Vilmin et al., 2016, 2018).
105 This area is highly impacted by human activities including two Waste Water Treatment Plants (WWTPs, Seine Aval
106 and Seine Centre) and two major Combined Sewer Overflows (CSOs). The Seine Aval (SAV) is the largest WWTP of
107 Europe, which treats the effluents of over 6.5 million equivalent inhabitants (Rocher et al., 2011). During rain events,
108 CSOs discharge large amount of suspended solids, organic matters and nutrients into the Seine River (Even et al.,
109 2007b). Assimilating DO is therefore of great interest for the decision makers in this area.

110 2.2. Data assimilation framework using particle filtering, the PROSE-PA approach

111 2.2.1. State-space model

112 To begin with, we represent the PROSE model as a state-space model (Kalman, 1960). A state-space model uses
113 inputs, state variables, outputs to describe the evolution of a system over time. In our case, it uses three equations (Eq.
114 (1), (2), (3)). Let \mathbf{y} represents the state variable vector of the system in terms of physics (DO concentrations in this
115 study) and \mathbf{x} be the vector of model parameters. The state variable and the model parameters are both modelled as
116 random variables \mathbf{Y} , \mathbf{X} characterized by their probability distribution functions (pdf). \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} denote the realizations

117 of random variables \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{Y} . The observation vector \mathbf{y}^* is a realization of the random variable \mathbf{Y}^* . The state-space model
 118 explains the temporal evolution of the system by assuming that it behaves as a Markov process (Markov, 1906). This
 119 means that the values at t depend on the values at $t - 1$ only:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\eta}_t \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_t = M(\mathbf{y}_{t-1}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_t, \mathbf{x}_t) + \boldsymbol{\nu}_t \quad (2)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_t^* = h(\mathbf{y}_t) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \quad (3)$$

120 The transition of model parameter \mathbf{x} from $t - 1$ to t is described by a Gaussian perturbation ($\boldsymbol{\eta}_t$, Eq. (1)). In the
 121 above equations, M is the forward model (in our case ProSE) and h is the observation operator relating the forecasted
 122 state variable (\mathbf{y}_t) to the observation (\mathbf{y}_t^*). In other words, h denotes the selection of model cells where observations
 123 are available. \mathbf{y}_{t-1} stands for the posterior state variable at previous time step ($t - 1$) or equivalently for the prior state
 124 variable at current time step (t). The symbols $\boldsymbol{\mu}_t$ and \mathbf{x}_t represent respectively the prior forcing data (e.g. temperature,
 125 wind speed and solar radiation) and the prior model parameters at time step t . The variables $\boldsymbol{\nu}_t$ and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$ characterize the
 126 unknown model and measurement errors respectively. The ProSE model aims at conserving the mass balance. The
 127 model does it with accuracy, the relative errors being in the order 10^{-5} or 10^{-6} . This is far below observation errors.
 128 Therefore, no model errors are considered ($\boldsymbol{\nu}_t = 0$) in our case.

129 Note that the nomenclature we use here is not canonical. In dynamical system literature, the parameters would
 130 have been called the "states" because they are the hidden dynamic variables that govern the system's behaviour. In
 131 forward modelling and especially hydrology, the state variables designate the variable that are computed by the model,
 132 while the parameters represents the time varying functional inputs of the numerical model. We consider the latter as
 133 the reader is more likely to be accustomed to this definition. Please note that, with this definition, the input fluxes at
 134 the boundary of the model are not called parameters, but boundary conditions.

135 2.2.2. Bayesian inference

136 We seek to estimate the posterior pdf of both the random variable \mathbf{Y} and the parameter \mathbf{X} conditionally to the
 137 observations \mathbf{Y}^* . To simplify the writing, we define the state vector $\mathbf{Z} = [\mathbf{Y}^T, \mathbf{X}^T]^T$ and its realizations $\mathbf{z} = [\mathbf{y}^T, \mathbf{x}^T]^T$.
 138 Therefore, our goal can be reformulated in finding the conditional pdf of \mathbf{Z} knowing \mathbf{y}^* noted $f_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y}^*)$. Through
 139 Bayes' theorem (Bayes, 1763), the posterior pdf $f_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y}^*)$ can be deduced from the product of the prior pdf ($f_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z})$) and
 140 the likelihood distribution ($f_{\mathbf{Y}^*}(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{z})$), up to a normalizing constant independent from \mathbf{Z} :

$$f_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y}^*) \propto f_{\mathbf{Y}^*}(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{z})f_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z}) \quad (4)$$

141 The prior pdf $f_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z})$ gives the prior knowledge on \mathbf{z} before the measurements are taken. The likelihood $f_{\mathbf{Y}^*}(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{z})$
 142 describes the pdf of the observation data given the model predictions.

143 2.2.3. Sequential form

144 The formulation (4) does not relate to time. To introduce a sequential form for data assimilation, we define the
 145 temporal trajectories of the random variables \mathbf{Z} and \mathbf{Y}^* , $\mathbf{Z}_{1:t} \equiv \{\mathbf{Z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Z}_t\}$ and $\mathbf{Y}_{1:t}^* \equiv \{\mathbf{Y}_1^*, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_t^*\}$, discretized over
 146 time by sequences of state $(\mathbf{Z}_i, \mathbf{Y}_i^*, i = 1, \dots, t)$, as well as their realizations $\mathbf{z}_{1:t}, \mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*$. The posterior pdf of the trajectory
 147 $\mathbf{Z}_{1:t}$ given observation $\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*$ writes $f_{\mathbf{Z}_{1:t}}(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$.

148 Next, we can write the posterior pdf $f_{\mathbf{Z}_{1:t}}(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ under a recursive form (Arulampalam et al., 2002; Doucet
 149 et al., 2001; Wikle and Berliner, 2007; Särkkä, 2013) owing to the Markovian nature of the process. We simplify the
 150 notations rewriting a pdf $f_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z})$ into $f(\mathbf{z})$.

$$f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*) \propto f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_{1:t}, \mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*)f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*) \quad (5)$$

$$= f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t)f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}, \mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*)f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*) \quad (6)$$

$$= f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t)f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1})f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*), \quad (7)$$

151 where we use first the Bayes' theorem to get equation (5), then the Bayes' theorem and the Markov property
 152 for equation (6) and the Markov property to obtain the sequential relation (7). We propagate \mathbf{z}_t using the evolution
 153 equations (1) and (2) in order to model the distribution $f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1})$. Note in case of a deterministic formulation ($(\nu_t, \eta_t) =$
 154 $(0, 0)$ in equations (1) and (2)), $f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1})$ is a Dirac measure. Consequently, we can access the posterior pdf $f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$
 155 of the trajectory $\mathbf{Z}_{1:t}$ by updating it at each time step. This will be done through the use of sampling techniques.

156 2.2.4. The particle filter

157 The particle filter aims at approximating the posterior pdf $f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ of the trajectory $\mathbf{Z}_{1:t}$ knowing $\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*$ by a set of
 158 particles (simulations) associated with weights (ω_t) . It is generally impossible to sample from $f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ directly. To
 159 address this problem, sequential importance sampling has been suggested (Doucet et al., 2000; Liu, 2001). For the
 160 ease of reading, the principle of the importance sampling and the definition of the importance weights are detailed

161 in [Appendix B](#). We give here the weight update formula for each particle directly, which is a consequence of the
 162 sequential decomposition of the posterior of the trajectory obtained in (Eq. (7)).

$$\omega_t^i = f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t^i)\omega_{t-1}^i \quad (8)$$

$$\hat{\omega}_t^i = \frac{\omega_t^i}{\sum \omega_t^i} \quad (9)$$

163 where $f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t^i)$ denotes the likelihood function, which quantifies how \mathbf{y}_t^* is likely to be observed given \mathbf{z}_t^i at time t .
 164 ω_t^i and ω_{t-1}^i stand for the posterior and prior weights at time t . In other words, the posterior weight at time $t - 1$ serves
 165 as a prior weight at time t . We also define the normalized importance weight, $\hat{\omega}_t^i$, associated with the particle i .

166 In practice, it is usually not necessary to estimate the posterior pdf $f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ of the trajectory $\mathbf{Z}_{1:t}$ knowing $\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*$.
 167 We are interested here in the marginal distribution of $f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$, called filtering distribution $f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$. It represents the
 168 distribution of the state variables knowing all the past observations as well as the current one. In this paper, we note
 169 the filtering posterior pdf at time t as $f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ which can be approximated as,

$$f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*) \approx \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{\omega}_t^i \delta_{\mathbf{z}_t^i} \quad (10)$$

170 where $\delta(\cdot)$ is a Dirac delta function and N denotes the number of particles. That is the filtering distribution is
 171 approximated by a discrete distribution, whose probability mass function is defined by the normalized importance
 172 weights and charges the particles.

173 If we assume that the observation error is Gaussian, then the likelihood probability of each particle can be calcu-
 174 lated using the pdf of the multivariate normal distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln L(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t^i) &= -\frac{m}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(|\Sigma|) - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y}_t^* - h(\mathbf{y}_t^i))^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_t^* - h(\mathbf{y}_t^i)) \\ f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t^i) &= \frac{L(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t^i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N L(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t^i)} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

175 where m is the number of observation sites and Σ is the error covariance matrix of the observations.

176 2.2.5. Resampling algorithm

177 A common problem when using particle filtering is the degeneracy phenomena. This occurs when almost all
 178 the particles have zero or very small importance weights. Only a few particles have significant importance weights.

179 Therefore, the discrete probability densities cannot represent the posterior pdf of a given state adequately. A resam-
 180 pling procedure reduces the degeneracy effect. The basic idea of the resampling is to discard particles that have a
 181 small weight and to duplicate particles with a large weight. Generally, it is not necessary to perform resampling at
 182 every time step, but only when necessary. A way to monitor the need of resampling is to estimate the “effective”
 183 number of particles by the effective sample size (N_{eff}). The N_{eff} cannot be evaluated exactly but it can be estimated
 184 it by (Kong et al., 1994; Doucet et al., 2000):

$$\widehat{N_{eff}} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{\omega}_t^i)^2} \quad (12)$$

185 When N_{eff} is below a threshold ($N_{thres} = \alpha \cdot N$) predefined by the user, resampling is performed. After the
 186 resampling step, all weights are reset to $1/N$. As the particles having a important weight may be copied many times,
 187 which results in sample impoverishment problem. To maintain the diversity of the ensemble, a random perturbation
 188 is added to the parameters’ value after the resampling step (eq. (13)).

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1}^i = \mathbf{x}_{t,resampling}^i + \eta_t^i \quad \eta_t^i \sim N(0, (s \cdot \Phi)^2) \quad (13)$$

189 where s is a percent perturbation predefined by the user (0.1 in this study) and Φ denotes the parameter range.

190 The resampling technique used in this work is referred to as systematic resampling. The procedure of systematic
 191 resampling is thoroughly described in the literature (Kitagawa, 1996; Moradkhani et al., 2005; Li et al., 2015).

192 2.2.6. Numerical algorithm

193 The coupling of the particle filtering algorithm with PROSE model is called PROSE-PA. PA stands for Parallel
 194 computing and data Assimilation. A full description of the PROSE-PA approach is given below (Fig. 2).

195 2.3. Description of the synthetic case study

196 2.3.1. Parameters considered and virtual “observation” data

197 Twelve parameters of the PROSE model were identified in different hydrological and trophic contexts in a previous
 198 work (Wang et al., 2018). Those parameters are both physical and physiological (Table 1).

199 Five monitoring stations are located in the study area (Suresnes, Chatou, Bougival, Sartrouville, and Andresy, from
 200 upstream to downstream respectively. Fig. 1). The assimilation period is the year 2011 when algal blooms occurred
 201 in March and July in the Seine River (Vilmin et al., 2016). The two successive algal blooms are characterized by

202 different physiological properties, especially the optimal temperature for growth of phytoplankton (Vilmin, 2014). A
 203 high-frequency DO (dissolved oxygen) dataset (\mathbf{y}^{ref} , every 15 minutes), which corresponds to the frequency of the
 204 real measurement, is generated using predefined parameters (Table 1). Three phytoplanktonic parameters are modified
 205 manually at day 139 in order to represent the two different algal blooms ($P_{max,pp}$, $R_{m,pp}$ and $T_{opt,pp}$, see Tab. 1 for
 206 parameter definition). In this case study, the “observation” data are obtained adding a Gaussian error to the reference
 207 dataset with a mean of zero and a standard deviation of $0.01 \times \mathbf{y}^{ref}$ ($\mathbf{y}_t^* = \mathbf{y}_t^{ref} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$, $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \sim N(0, (0.01 \times \mathbf{y}_t^{ref})^2)$). A
 208 standard deviation of $0.01 \times \mathbf{y}^{ref}$ ensures that the 95% observation errors are less than $0.02 \times \mathbf{y}^{ref}$, which is coherent
 209 with the sensors used in the Seine River system (Garnier et al., 2019). The reference dataset and predefined parameters
 210 are assumed to be true and are assessed via data assimilation. In this study, no model errors are considered ($\mathbf{v}_t = 0$,
 211 see Eq. (2)). The major aims of this work are to retrieve the reference DO concentrations and the dominant predefined
 212 parameters identified by Wang et al. (2018) over time.

213 2.3.2. Input data for PROSE model

214 Apart from hydraulic (time varying river discharge and CSOs data), geometric data (river channels), the PROSE model
 215 also requires time varying concentrations of the biogeochemical variables (micro-organism biomass, dissolved oxy-
 216 gen, nutrients, organic matters, suspended solids) entering the system and the meteorological data (solar irradiance,
 217 water temperature and wind speed). These data are used as boundary conditions of the PROSE model. The quantifica-
 218 tion of uncertainties on boundary conditions is an ambitious topic that extent far beyond the scope of this paper and
 219 will require the study of real systems. Here we only investigate uncertainties on parameters.

220 2.3.3. Qualitative description of the simulation period: state classification

221 According to the former sensitivity analysis of the biogeochemical module, C-RIVE, of the PROSE model (Wang
 222 et al., 2018), we can classify the year 2011 into different periods (Fig. 3). The polygons at the bottom show this clas-
 223 sification (Fig. 3). The water temperature increases from black to white (color gradient) and the line shaded polygons
 224 represent algal bloom periods ($C_{chla} > 10 \mu\text{g/L}$). Wang et al. (2018) concluded that at low temperatures (Interbloom T
 225 $< 6^\circ\text{C}$, black polygons), the river system is controlled by the reaeration process (K_{navig}). At moderate and high water
 226 temperatures, the maximum growth rate of bacteria ($\mu_{max,hb}$) is most sensitive to variation of DO concentrations when
 227 no algal bloom occurs (Interbloom T $> 6^\circ\text{C}$, gray polygons). Once algal bloom occurs, phytoplanktonic parameters
 228 related to respiration ($R_{m,pp}$) and to photosynthesis (α_{pp} , $P_{max,pp}$ etc.) are dominant. A supplementary sensitivity
 229 analysis by Sobol method (Sobol, 1993) during algal bloom shows that the optimal temperature ($T_{opt,pp}$) plays an
 230 important role on the growth of phytoplankton and that the sensitivity of $R_{m,pp}$ (respiration of maintenance) depends
 231 on the water temperature (Fig. A.1). When the water temperature exceeds 20°C , the total sensitivity index of $R_{m,pp}$

232 decreases dramatically (Fig. A.1).

233 2.4. Numerical setting and computational cost

234 According to a test of the number of particles (not shown here), we select 500 particles in this work which is
235 sufficient to i) match the observed oxygen concentrations and ii) identify the posterior pdfs of sensible parameters.
236 The OpenMP Application Programming Interface (API) is implemented in the code to simulate the 500 particles
237 in parallel. For a 1 year-simulation period (365 days) at a 15-min time step, the computation takes 1.13 days with
238 20 processors (Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2640 v4 @ 2.40 GHz). A resampling threshold of $\alpha = 0.3$ is chosen,
239 corresponding to a minimum effective sample size of 150.

240 3. Results: Oxygen simulation and parameter identification

241 3.1. Effective sample size for resampling procedure

242 Although the effective sample size (N_{eff}) reduce fast after two months, synchronously with the start of the first
243 algal bloom (day 64), the parameter perturbation allows the restoration of particle diversity (Fig. 4, $N_{eff} > 450$
244 after resampling), which indicates a proper exploration of the parameter space by the algorithm. This is achieved by
245 selecting a configuration of the Gaussian random walk (Pearson, 1905) through its standard deviation. After several
246 trials (not shown here), the standard deviation of the random walk has been set to 0.1 times the parameters' range (eq.
247 (13)).

248 3.2. Almost perfect DO simulation with ProSE-PA

249 Figure 5 shows simulated DO concentrations at three downstream monitoring stations. Those stations are selected
250 because they are less sensitive to input boundary conditions and therefore permit to evaluate the conceptual structure
251 of the code and the conceptualization of processes. The model performances are evaluated by four statistical criteria
252 (RMSE, Root-Mean-Square-Error; MAE, Maximum Absolute Error; NSE, Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency; R, Correlation
253 coefficient).

254 The ensemble weighted average DO concentrations at all stations match the reference DO concentrations. Two
255 algal blooms are well retrieved. The first starts at 64th day and the second around 171st day (Fig. 5). The maximum
256 RMSE and MAE values between ensemble weighted mean and reference DO data are obtained at the Suresnes station
257 with an error of 0.035 mgO₂/L and an error of 0.321 mgO₂/L respectively (Tab. 2). Furthermore, all NSEs and cor-
258 relation coefficients (R) are close to 1, which signifies a perfect match of simulated DO concentration to the reference
259 DO data. In addition, the 95 percentile confidence intervals are very narrow, which means a perfect simulation also.

260 3.3. Parameter identification in the frame of the state classification

261 In this section, the identification of physical, bacterial and phytoplanktonic parameters is shown in plots displaying
262 normalised weights over time (Fig. 6,7,8) for each parameter of interest. The daily normalised weights over time
263 permits to represent the evolution of the posterior pdf of each parameter. Each parameter range is divided in 20
264 intervals. The sum of daily normalised weights in each interval which approximates the posterior pdf are shown by a
265 image plot. The dashed black line represents the predefined value of parameter used to generate “observation” data.

266 3.3.1. Physical parameters

267 Two physical parameters are assimilated in this paper, the light extinction coefficient for pure water (η_{water}) and
268 the reaeration coefficient related to the navigation (K_{navig}). Albeit light extinction by clear water (η_{water}) is a physical
269 parameter, it is an important control for phytoplankton growth (Wang et al., 2018). It is not very well determined
270 most of the time, except during algal blooms when the posterior pdfs focus around the reference value of 0.32 m^{-1}
271 (see the line shaded polygons in Fig. 6A). K_{navig} controls the reaeration process and is the most sensitive parameter
272 to variation of DO in winter when the water temperature is below $6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Wang et al., 2018). In this period (see the
273 second black polygon in Fig.6B), the particle filter achieves a very fine identification of its pdf. Seeing other periods
274 of the year, its effect remains negligible and logically it remains unidentified.

275 3.3.2. Bacterial parameters

276 In the previous sensitivity analysis (Wang et al., 2018), the maximum growth rate of bacteria ($\mu_{max,hb}$) is the
277 first ranked parameter out of algal bloom with a moderate water temperature ($T > 6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and the bacterial growth
278 yield (Y_{hb}) is identified as the second sensitive parameter for inter algal bloom periods (both low and moderate water
279 temperatures). $\mu_{max,hb}$ can be retrieved well for several periods. These periods match globally the gray polygons which
280 correspond to inter algal bloom periods with a water temperature $T > 6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Fig. 7). Y_{hb} is slightly overestimated during
281 the simulation, except for the algal blooms periods (see the line shaded polygons in Fig. 7). The optimal temperature
282 for bacterial growth ($T_{opt,hb}$) can be determined at the beginning of simulation. However, the maximal mortality rate
283 of bacteria ($mort_{hb}$) spreads uniformly over the parameter range during the data assimilation period.

284 3.3.3. Phytoplanktonic parameters

285 It can be observed that the respiration of maintenance ($R_{m,pp}$), the photosynthetic capacity (α_{pp}), the light extinc-
286 tion coefficient by algal self-shading ($\eta_{chla,pp}$), and the optimal temperature for growth of phytoplankton ($T_{opt,pp}$) are
287 well estimated during the first algal bloom (see the gray line shaded polygon in Fig 8), while the maximum photosyn-
288 thesis rate ($P_{max,pp}$) is overestimated (Fig. 8). Similarly, almost all the phytoplanktonic parameters can be retrieved

289 during the second algal bloom (see the clear line shaded polygons in Fig. 8), but not for $R_{m,pp}$ and $Chla/C_{pp}$. The
290 ratio of chlorophyll *a* to carbon ($Chla/C_{pp}$) is unidentified during the simulation, because $Chla/C_{pp}$ has little effect
291 on the variation of DO concentrations (Wang et al., 2018). The particle filter captures the change of phytoplanktonic
292 properties after 139 day for $P_{max,pp}$ and $T_{opt,pp}$. During algal blooms, five among seven parameters including η_{water}
293 can be retrieved. Even though the two other parameters are not well estimated, we obtain satisfying simulated DO
294 concentrations during algal blooms (Fig. 5). Although α_{pp} , η_{water} , $\eta_{chla,pp}$ and $T_{opt,pp}$, are always identified by the
295 algorithm during blooms, this is not the case for $R_{m,pp}$ and $P_{max,pp}$ which are supposed to be important during algal
296 bloom (Wang et al., 2018). This is further discussed in the next section.

297 4. Discussion

298 4.1. Specifications for real time parameter identification

299 As shown by the results, the identification of the different parameters is not always ensured during the data as-
300 simulation period. This result can be explained by the parameters' sensitivity in contrasted hydrological and trophic
301 contexts. One parameter that is dominant on DO concentration can be well estimated, while the other insensitive
302 parameters have a relatively large uncertainty. In this section, we discussed the real time parameter identification.

303 4.1.1. Parameters identified between algal blooms

304 Out of algal blooms, the identified parameters are $\mu_{max,hb}$ and K_{navig} , which is coherent with the previous sensitivity
305 analysis (Wang et al., 2018). At low temperatures ($T < 6$ °C), bacterial and phytoplanktonic activities are limited,
306 the reaeration (K_{navig}) controls DO concentration within water column. The river system is governed by physical
307 processes. The daily posterior pdfs of K_{navig} at low temperature period (day 21-38) are shown (Fig. 9A). Although
308 the pdfs of K_{navig} from day 21 to day 28 have more dispersion than those for day 29-38, their modes are centred on
309 the reference value (Fig. 9A). However, the water temperature is below 6 °C at the beginning of the simulation (days
310 0-6), K_{navig} is not very well estimated (see the first black polygon in Fig. 6B). This can be explained by the fact that
311 the prior pdf of K_{navig} is uniform at the start of the simulation and this period is too short.

312 When the water temperature increases ($T > 6$ °C), the heterotrophic bacteria develops and degrades organic
313 matters. $\mu_{max,hb}$ becomes the most important parameter governing the DO concentration in river system (Wang et al.,
314 2018). The identification of $\mu_{max,hb}$ in those periods can be expected (see the gray polygons in Fig. 7). The pdfs of
315 $\mu_{max,hb}$ are displayed for day 45-62 when the water temperature increases (Fig. 9B). It can be clearly seen that the
316 modes of the pdfs of $\mu_{max,hb}$ move towards the reference value (Fig. 9B). The particle filter captures the change from
317 physical control (K_{navig}) to bacterial control ($\mu_{max,hb}$).

318 Next, the mortality of phytoplankton at the end of algal blooms supplies organic matters for bacterial growth.
319 $\mu_{max,hb}$ is thus well estimated after algal blooms (see the gray polygons day 91-140 and day 280-300 in Fig. 7). This
320 indicates that the algorithm adapts the evolution of the regime of river system from autotroph to heterotroph. However,
321 $\mu_{max,hb}$ is not well estimated for day 300-325, even if this period corresponds to inter algal blooms. The correlation
322 between the water temperature and the DO concentration in this period (Fig. 3) signifies that the DO concentration
323 is controlled by water temperature and then colsed to saturation. The reaeration and micro-organism activities are not
324 important in this period. Therefore, no parameter can be identified in this period.

325 4.1.2. Parameters identified during algal blooms

326 The maximum photosynthesis rate ($P_{max,pp}$) is third ranked parameter during algal blooms in the sensitivity anal-
327 ysis (Wang et al., 2018). However, $P_{max,pp}$ is overestimated with a stable posterior pdf during the first algal bloom
328 (see line shaded polygon day 64-90 in Fig. 8). The particles with $P_{max,pp}$ close to 0.2 h^{-1} (predefined value) are
329 under weighted. That means the compensation of $P_{max,pp}$ with the other parameters exist. The parameter interaction
330 of $P_{max,pp}$ has been shown by the difference between the total sensitivity index and the first order sensitivity index
331 (Wang et al., 2018). Nonetheless, the DO concentrations have been well estimated.

332 The former sensitivity analysis which used almost constant water temperatures didn't highlight the sensitivity of
333 $T_{opt,pp}$. The supplementary result shows that the sensitivity of $T_{opt,pp}$ depends on the water temperature (Fig. A.1).
334 Therefore, the water temperature is a crucial factor for algal blooms when $T_{opt,pp}$ is defined. This is the reason why
335 $T_{opt,pp}$ can be identified before algal blooms, but not after algal blooms (Fig. 8).

336 Contrarily to the first algal bloom, the identification of $R_{m,pp}$ fails for the second algal bloom (Fig. 8). The
337 supplementary sensitivity analysis shows that when the water temperature exceeds $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, the total sensitivity index
338 of $R_{m,pp}$ reduces dramatically (Fig. A.1). The water temperatures are over $21 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ during the second bloom (Fig. 3).
339 Therefore, $R_{m,pp}$ is insensitive during the second algal bloom and remains unidentified. The other identified parameters
340 match the sensitivity analysis ($\alpha_{pp}, \eta_{water}, \eta_{chla,pp}$).

341 In conclusion, the identification of the parameters depends on not only the hydrological and trophic contexts but
342 also on the thermal state of the river system. The detailed identification of the parameters is resumed in figure 10.

343 4.2. Possibility to identify different phytoplanktonic communities

344 In this paper, we define two different phytoplanktonic properties to distinguish blooms in March and in July ($R_{m,pp}$,
345 $P_{max,pp}$ and $T_{opt,pp}$). The particle filter detects well the change of phytoplanktonic properties (Fig. 8), especially the
346 optimal temperature for the growth of phytoplankton ($T_{opt,pp}$). The posterior pdfs of $T_{opt,pp}$ are stable during the
347 two algal blooms (Fig. 11). It is therefore possible to differentiate phytoplanktonic communities in real time by

348 comparing the posterior distributions of $T_{opt,pp}$. The different optimal temperatures that have been used for modeling
349 the phytoplanktonic communities during spring and summer are the ones determined in the Loire and Seine rivers
350 (Descy et al., 2012; Garnier et al., 1995; Vilmin, 2014).

351 4.3. Circadian rhythm

352 At night, the photosynthetic parameters are absolutely insensitive and thus should remain unidentified. Therefore,
353 a circadian rhythm (day and night) can be expected for the photosynthetic parameters. To study the circadian rhythm
354 of photosynthetic parameters, the posterior pdfs of $P_{max,pp}$, α_{pp} and $T_{opt,pp}$ are displayed every 3 hours during days
355 184-186 (Fig. 12). It can be clearly noticed that the posterior pdfs of the three parameters have more dispersion at
356 night (00:00-6:00) than those during the day (9:00-18:00). Their modes don't match the reference values at night,
357 while the three parameters are well estimated during the day (Fig. 12). The ProSE-PA approach retrieves well the
358 circadian rhythm of the photosynthetic parameters' sensitivity.

359 4.4. Performances' sensitivity to the observation error

360 The proof of concept of the particle filter has been achieved assuming a relative error on observations of 1 %. In
361 this section, we assess the impact of the relative error on both ProSe-PA ability to simulate oxygen concentrations
362 and to identify parameter posterior pdfs. To this aim, various relative observation errors are tested from 1% to 10%.
363 The Kling-Gupta Efficiencies (KGE) (Gupta et al., 2009; Kling et al., 2012) are calculated to evaluate the model
364 performances. KGE is based on the decomposition of the mean squared error and NSE performance criteria (Gupta
365 et al., 2009). KGEs range from -Inf to 1. Essentially, the closer to 1, the more accurate the model is.

366 The results show that the model performance decreases slightly with the increase of the observation relative error.
367 Nevertheless, ProSE-PA retrieves in average the reference DO concentrations for all observation relative errors tested.
368 KGEs are always larger than 0.96 (not shown here) whatever the relative error. The identifiability of the bacterial
369 parameters ($\mu_{max,hb}$, Y_{hb} and $T_{opt,pp}$) and the reaeration coefficient related to navigation (K_{navig}) is not ensured when
370 the observation relative error exceeds 5% while ProSE-PA is able to capture phytoplanktonic properties for all tested
371 relative errors (1%-10%), except for the ratio of chlorophyll *a* to carbon ($Chla/C_{pp}$) which has little influence on the
372 variation of DO concentrations (Wang et al., 2018).

373 5. Conclusions

374 In this work, we present a first implementation of particle filter into a hydro-biogeochemical model for metabolism's
375 parameter estimation. The assimilation of a 15-min "observation" DO data is realized in the Seine River system on a
376 synthetic case study.

- 377 • It can be concluded that the particle filter is an efficient method for the biogeochemical data assimilation and
378 for the metabolism's parameter estimation in urban river systems.
- 379 • The ProSE-PA approach is capable to retrieve perfectly the reference DO concentrations at all stations.
- 380 • The identification of the metabolism parameters depends on the hydrological and trophic contexts and more
381 surprisingly on the thermal state of the river system.
- 382 • The data assimilation method adapts to the trophic state's change of the Seine River system and the circadian
383 cycle of photosynthetic parameters is well captured by the ProSE-PA approach.
- 384 • It is possible to distinguish phytoplanktonic species by identifying the different physiological properties via data
385 assimilation.
- 386 • The ProSE-PA model is operational and transferable to waste water manager for assessing the impact of their
387 practices now. However, it is necessary to quantify input uncertainties (forcing data, reject water of WWTPs
388 and CSOs etc.), which are not considered in this paper.

389 **Software availability**

390 A virtual machine including the ProSe-PA0.30 executable and a tutorial based on the synthetic dataset will be
391 accessible online. If one wants to access the source code of the ProSE-PA model, please contact Dr. Nicolas Flipo.
392 The software license is currently under discussion.

393 **Declarations of interest**

394 The authors report that there are no known conflicts of interest associated with this publication and there has been
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401 List of figures

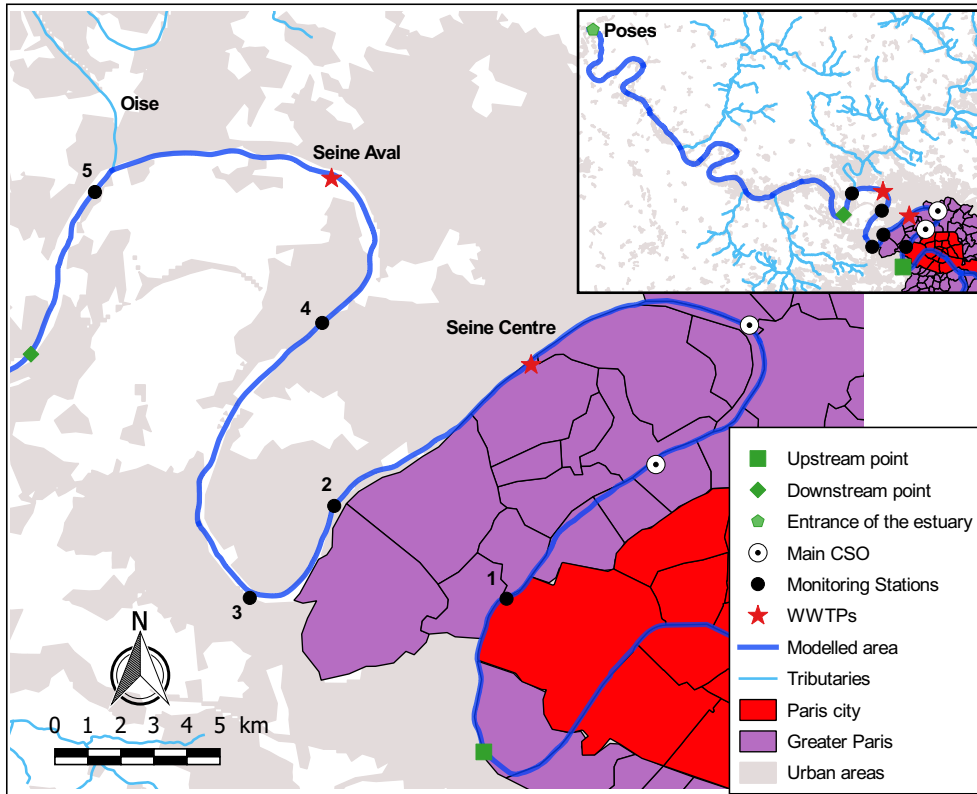


Fig. 1: The description of study area and monitoring sites. Full Seine model is shown at upper-right corner; Monitoring stations from upstream to downstream: 1. Suresnes, 2. Chatou, 3. Bougival, 4. Sartrouville, 5. Andresy.

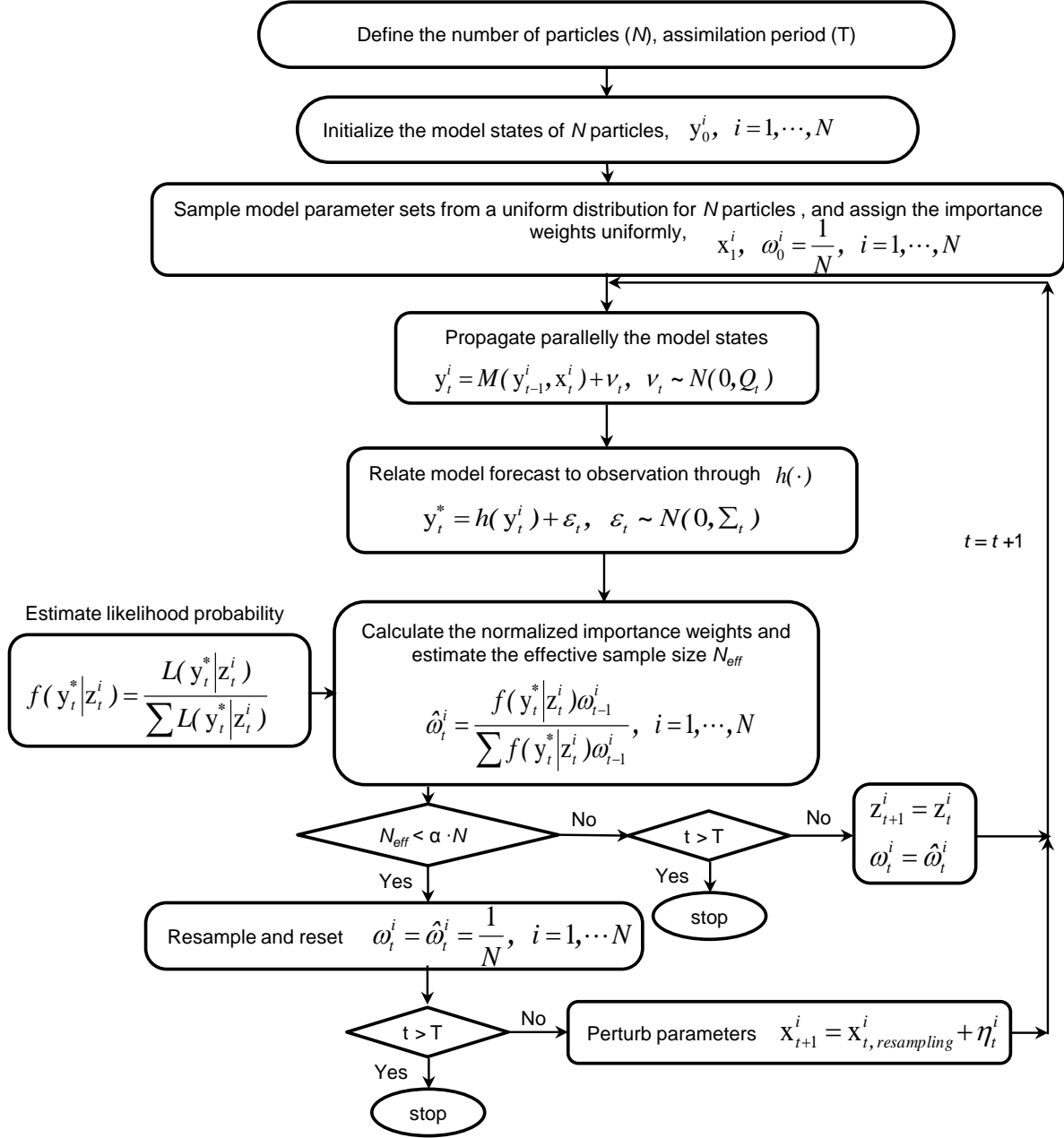


Fig. 2: The flowchart of ProSE-PA approach. The state \mathbf{z}^i denotes i th particle or a realization of random variable $\mathbf{Z} = [\mathbf{Y}^T, \mathbf{X}^T]^T$. \mathbf{y}^i and \mathbf{x}^i signify model state and parameter set of particle i . \mathbf{Q}_t and Σ_t correspond to the model error covariance matrix and the observation error covariance matrix respectively. In this work, no model errors are considered, $\mathbf{v}_t = \mathbf{0}$.

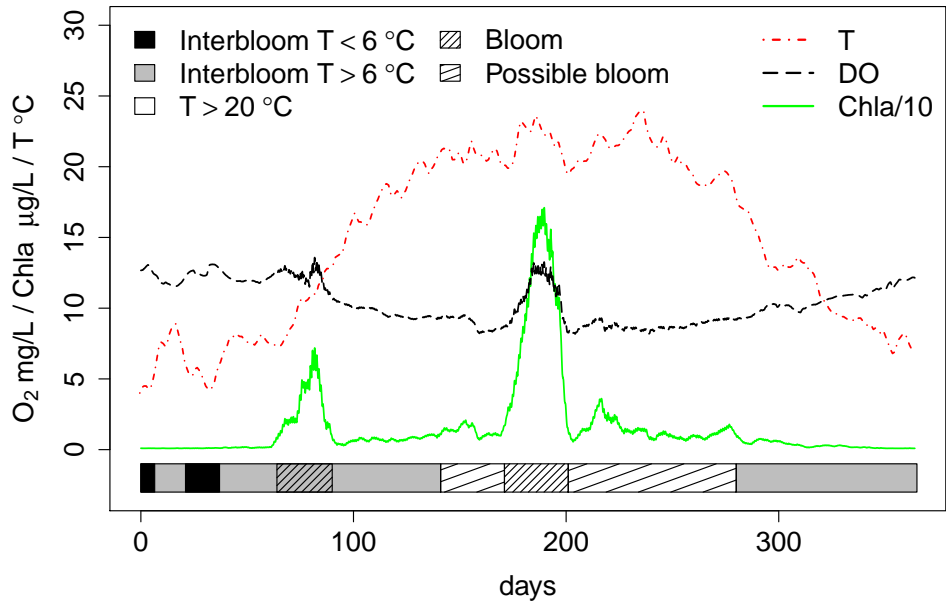


Fig. 3: State classification of synthetic case study over time, concluded by Wang et al. (2018). The red line (dash-dotted) represents water temperature; The black line (dashed) denotes reference DO concentrations at the Bougival station; The green line (solid) shows the evolution of *chl**a* concentrations. The polygons at the bottom correspond to the different periods. The water temperature increases from black to white.

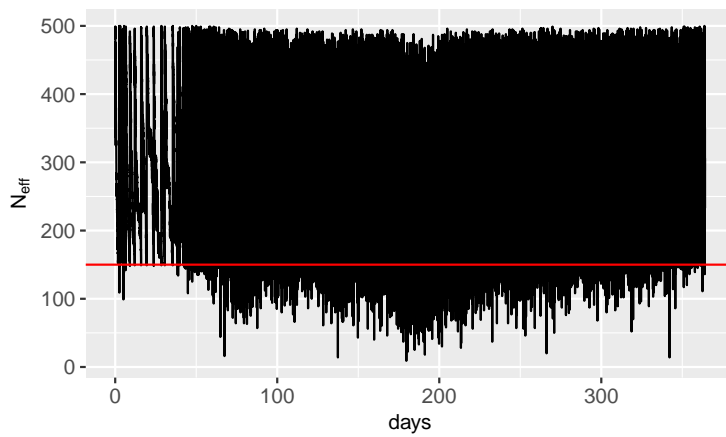


Fig. 4: The evolution of effective sample size during assimilation. Red line corresponds to the minimum effective sample size 150. Frequent resamplings ensure a proper searching of the parameter space.

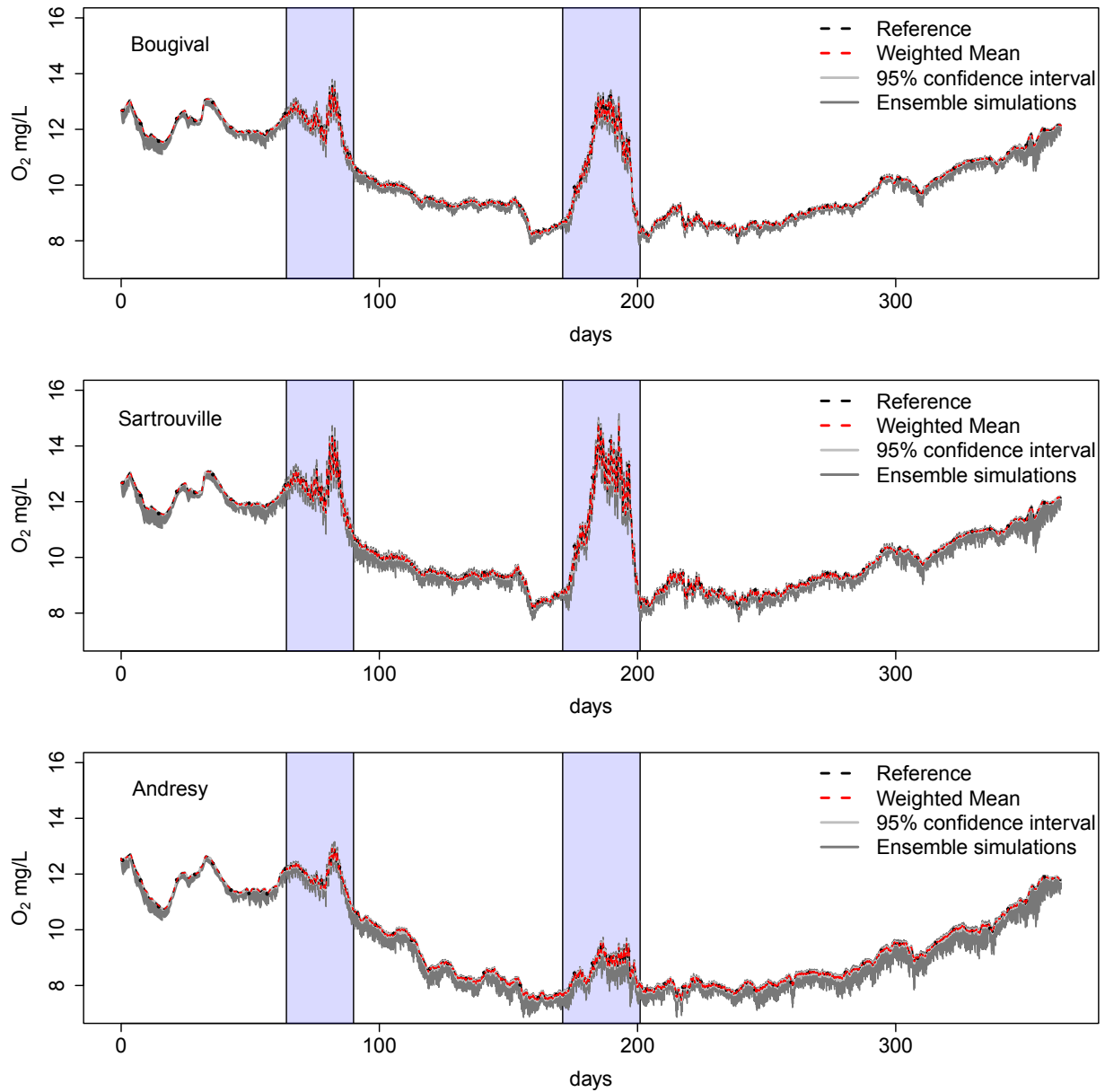


Fig. 5: Simulated DO concentrations at Bougival, Sartrouville and Andresy stations. The dashed red lines denote ensemble weighted means. The reference DO data are represented by dashed black lines. To clarify the illustration, weekly reference DO concentrations are shown by black points. The gray areas correspond to the ensemble simulations (dark gray areas) and the 95 percentile confidence intervals (light gray areas). The two algal bloom periods are shown by blue polygons.

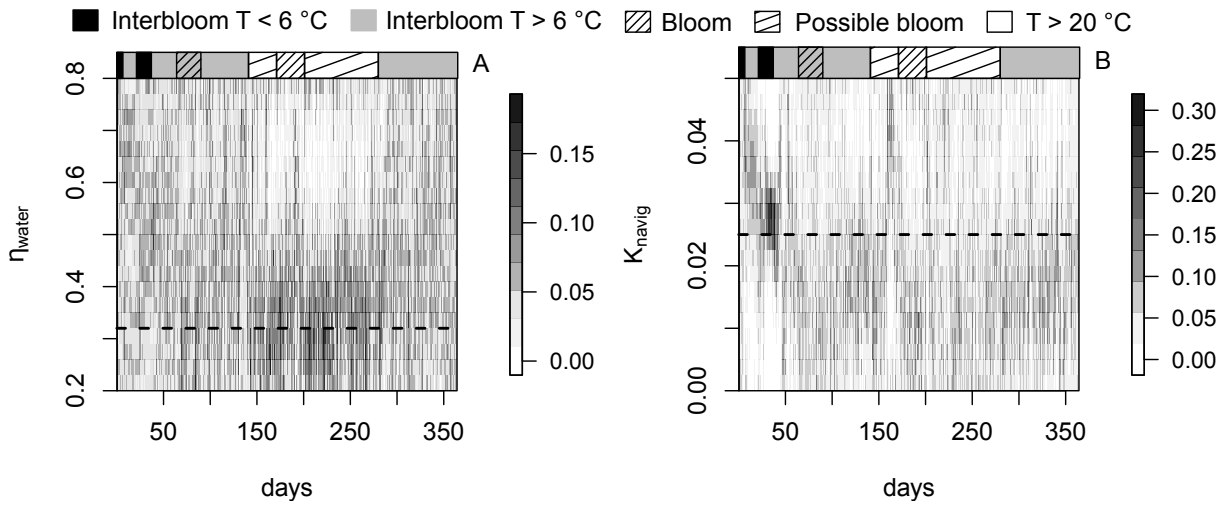


Fig. 6: Daily normalised weights of physical parameters: light extinction coefficient for pure water (η_{water}) and reaeration coefficient due to navigation (K_{navig}). The dashed line represents the predefined reference value. Line shaded polygons correspond to algal bloom periods and water temperature increases from black to white (color gradient). See Fig. 3 for detailed state classification.

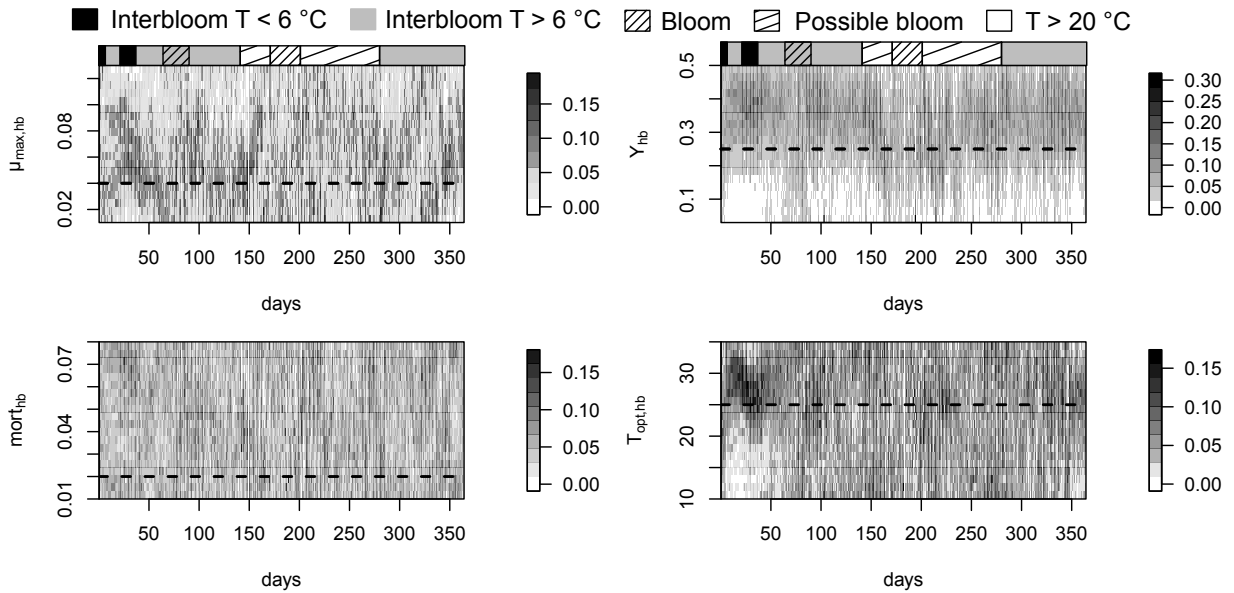


Fig. 7: The normalised importance weights of bacterial parameters. See Tab. 1 for parameter definition. The dashed line represents the predefined reference value. Line shaded polygons correspond to algal bloom periods and water temperature increases from black to white (color gradient). See Fig. 3 for detailed classification.

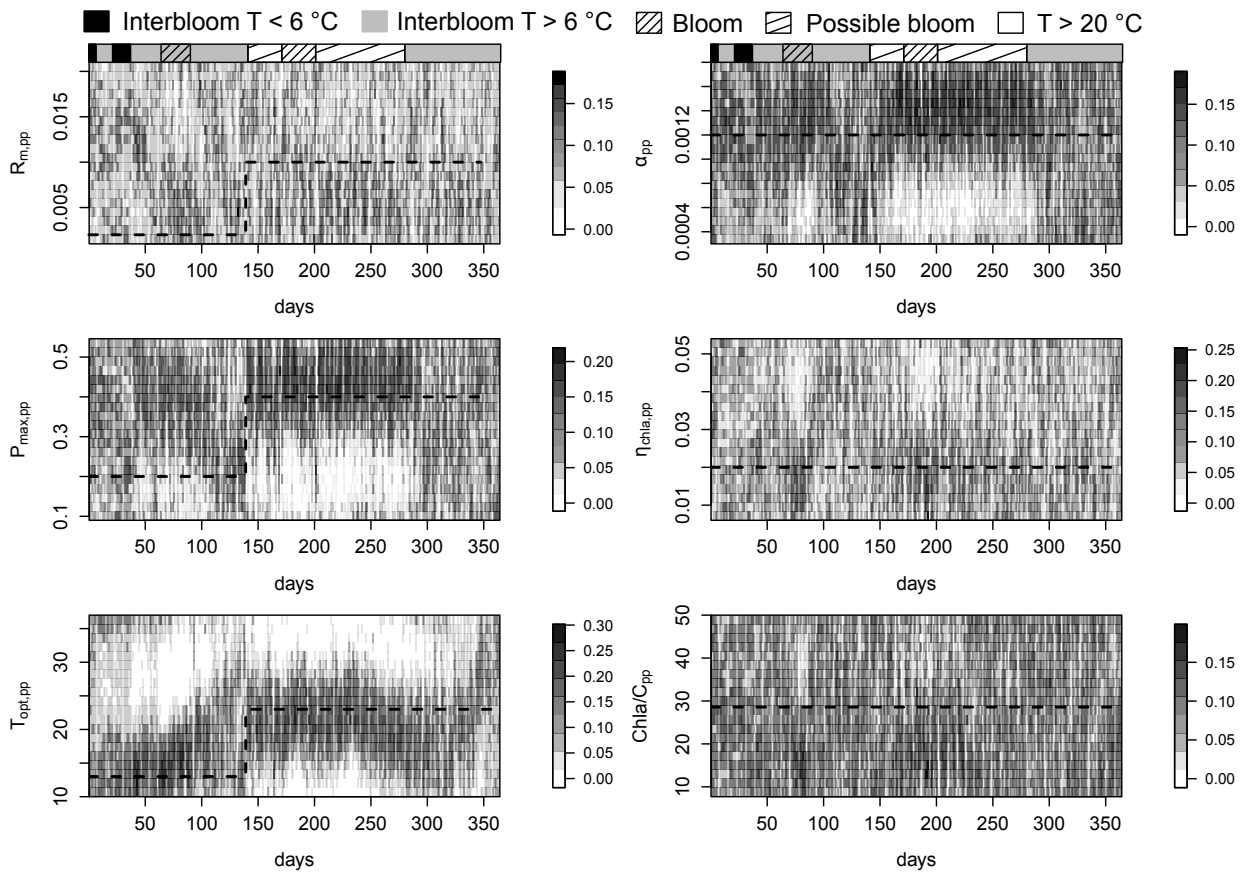


Fig. 8: The normalised importance weights of phytoplanktonic parameters. See Tab. 1 for parameter definition. The dashed line represents the predefined reference value. Line shaded polygons correspond to algal bloom periods and water temperature increases from black to white (color gradient). See Fig. 3 for detailed classification.

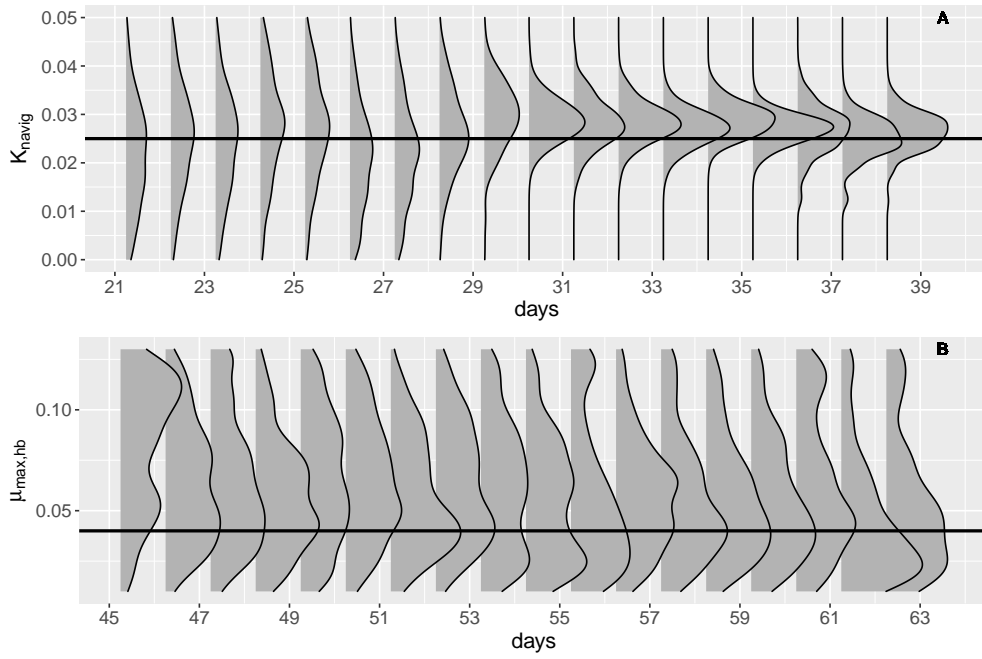


Fig. 9: The posterior pdf of K_{navig} during low temperature period (A) and the posterior pdf of $\mu_{max,hb}$ with a moderate temperature (B); Black lines represent the predefined values.

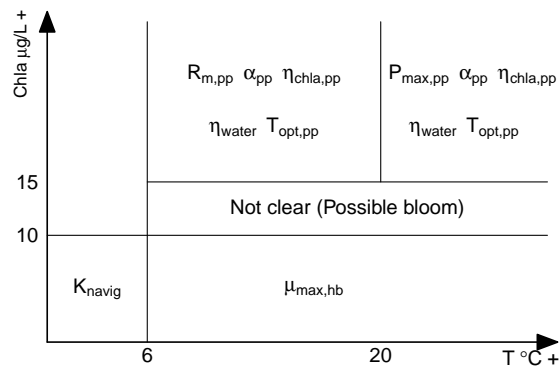


Fig. 10: The identification of parameters in different trophic (C_{chla}) and thermal (T °C) contexts of river system. See Tab. 1 for parameter definition.

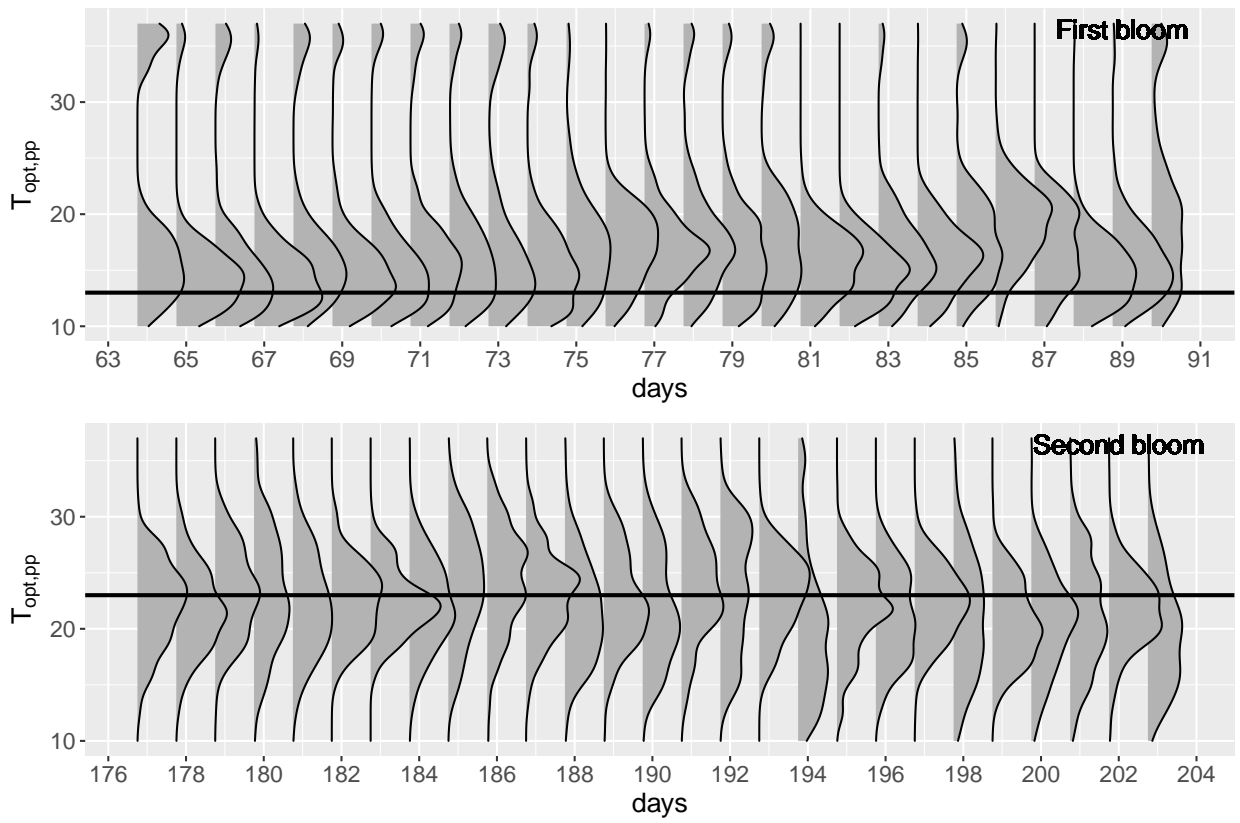


Fig. 11: The posterior distributions of $T_{opt,pp}$ during the first and the second algal bloom at 6 pm. Black line represents the predefined value.

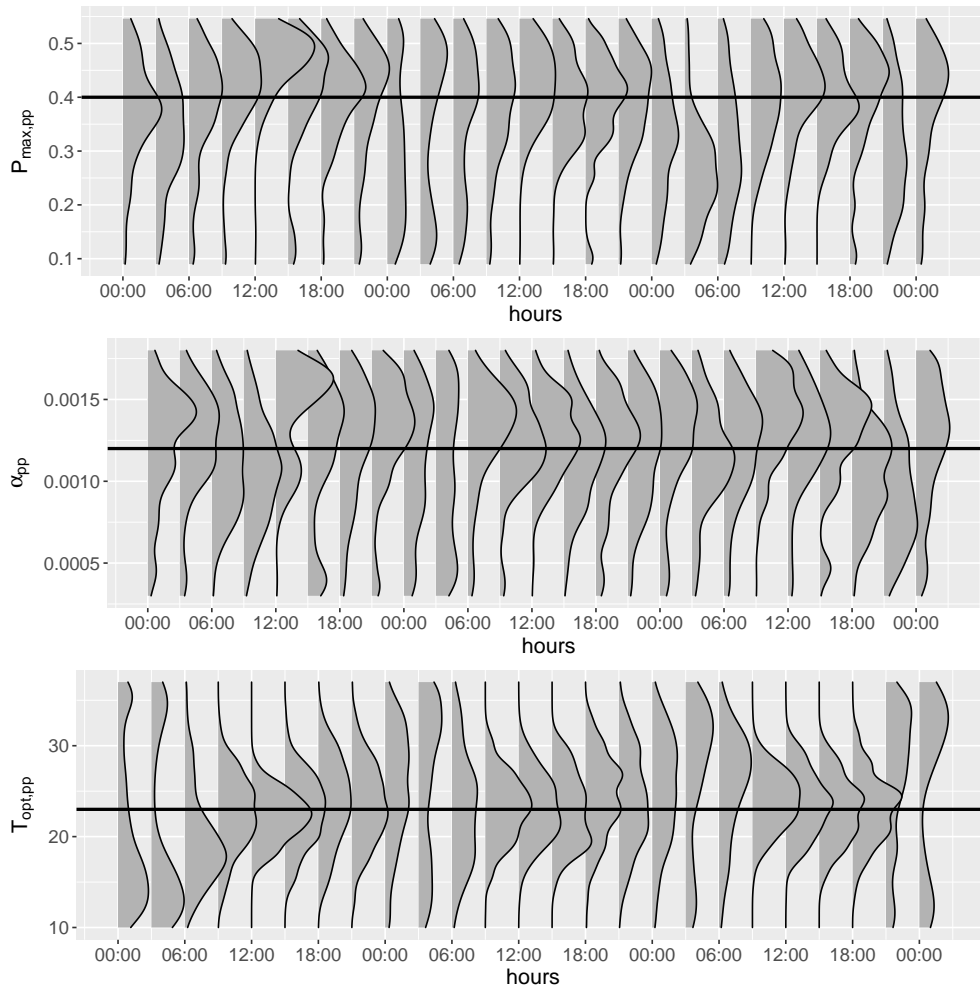


Fig. 12: The posterior distributions of $P_{max,pp}$, α_{pp} and $T_{opt,pp}$ during 184-186 days

402 List of tables

Table 1: Reference parameters considered in data assimilation (Parameter range from Wang et al. (2018))

Parameters	Description	Range	Reference March	Reference July	Unit
Physical parameters					
η_{water}	Light extinction coefficient for pure water	[0.2, 0.8]	0.32	0.32	[m ⁻¹]
K_{navig}	Reaeration coefficient related to the navigation	[0, 0.05]	0.025	0.025	[m.h ⁻¹]
Bacterial parameters					
$\mu_{max,hb}$	Maximum growth rate of bacteria	[0.01, 0.13]	0.04	0.04	[h ⁻¹]
$mort_{hb}$	Maximum mortality rate of bacteria	[0.01, 0.08]	0.02	0.02	[h ⁻¹]
$T_{opt,hb}$	Optimal temperature for bacterial growth	[10, 35]	25	25	[°C]
Y_{hb}	Bacterial growth yield	[0.03, 0.5]	0.25	0.25	[-]
Phytoplanktonic parameters					
α_{pp}	Photosynthetic capacity	[0.0003, 0.0018]	0.0012	0.0012	[m ² .s. μ E ⁻¹ .h ⁻¹]
$\eta_{chla,pp}$	Light extinction coefficient by algal self-shading	[0.006, 0.054]	0.02	0.02	[L. μ gchla ⁻¹ .m ⁻¹]
Chla/C _{pp}	Ratio of chlorophyll <i>a</i> to carbon	[50, 7.69]	28.57	28.57	[μ gchla.mgC ⁻¹]
$P_{max,pp}$	Maximum photosynthesis rate	[0.09, 0.546]	0.2	0.4	[h ⁻¹]
$R_{m,pp}$	Respiration of maintenance	[0.001, 0.021]	0.002	0.01	[h ⁻¹]
$T_{opt,pp}$	Optimal temperature for growth of phytoplankton	[10, 37]	13	23	[°C]

Table 2: Statistical criteria of the weighted average DO concentrations of 500 particles/simulations at five monitoring sites

Stations	RMSE	NSE	MAE	r
Suresnes	0.0345	0.9995	0.3209	0.9998
Chatou	0.0173	0.9999	0.1347	0.9999
Bougival	0.0192	0.9998	0.1627	0.9999
Sartrouville	0.0201	0.9998	0.1765	0.9999
Andresy	0.0163	0.9998	0.1350	0.9999

RMSE: Root-Mean-Square-Error

NSE: Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency

MAE: Maximum Absolute Error

r : Correlation coefficient

Table 3: Thresholds of the relative observation error for the parameter identifiability (1%-10%)

Parameters	Thresholds	Parameters	Thresholds	Parameters	Thresholds
$R_{m,pp}$	10% ($T < 20$ °C)	η_{water}	10%	Y_{hb}	$< 7.5\%$
$P_{max,pp}$	10%	$Chla/C_{pp}$	Not stable	$mort_{hb}$	Not stable
α_{pp}	10%	$T_{opt,pp}$	10%	$T_{opt,hb}$	$< 5\%$
$\eta_{chla,pp}$	10%	$\mu_{max,hb}$	$< 5\%$	K_{navig}	$< 5\%$

10%: The parameters are always identified for the relative observation errors tested.

See the table 1 for the parameters' definition and units.

403 Appendix A. Sobol sensitivity analysis of C-RIVE module during algal bloom at different temperatures

404 The sensitivity analysis of C-RIVE model during algal blooms is realized every two degrees from 2 °C to 26
 405 °C. The results show that the optimal temperature for the growth of phytoplankton ($T_{opt,pp}$) is the most influential
 406 parameter at low temperatures (< 6 °C). When the water temperature exceeds 20 °C, the importance of the respiration
 407 of maintenance ($R_{m,pp}$) reduces drastically. For more detailed information about the sensitivity analysis of C-RIVE
 408 model, one can consult Wang et al. (2018).

409 Appendix B. Importance sampling and definition of the importance weights in particle filtering

410 We suppose here that we want to simulate a random variable \mathbf{U} which may have a complex distribution. The
 411 importance sampling method uses an instrumental distribution called the importance distribution $\pi(\cdot)$ from which we
 412 know how to draw samples (Särkkä, 2013). The importance sampling relies on the following formula:

$$\int f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} = \int \left[\frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})}{\pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})} \right] \pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

413 where $\pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})$ is a proposal pdf for the random variable \mathbf{U} from which we can draw samples and $f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})$ is the posterior

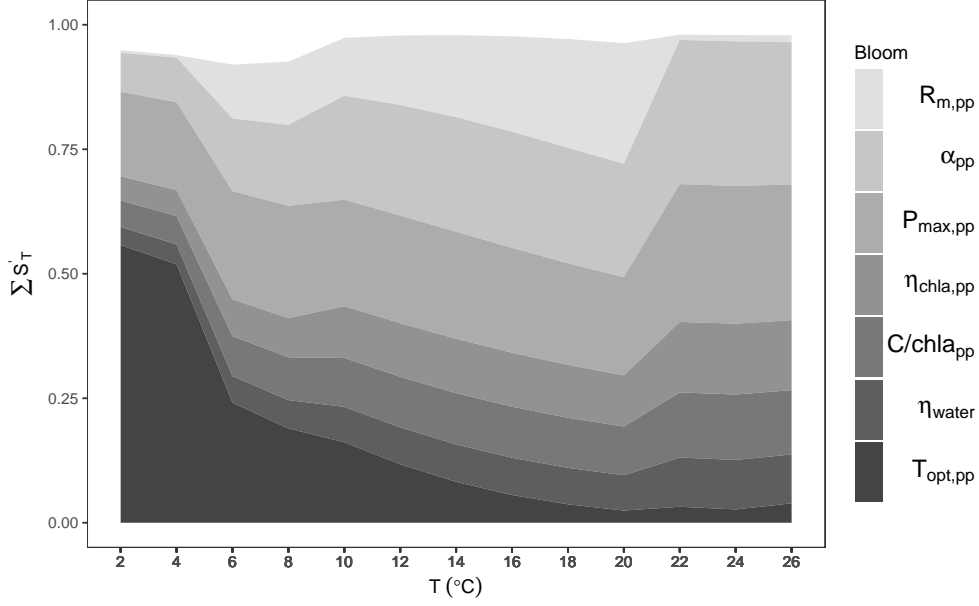


Fig. A.1: The evolution of the total sensitivity indices (normalised to 100%) with temperature for Bloom condition (From bottom to top: $T_{opt,pp}$, η_{water} , $C/Chla_{pp}$, $P_{max,pp}$, α_{pp} , $R_{m,pp}$). See Table 1 for parameter definition. For more detailed information about sensitivity analysis, one can consult Wang et al. (2018).

414 pdf of given state \mathbf{U} from which we cannot directly or efficiently draw samples. The equation (B.1) transforms the
 415 expectation of \mathbf{U} into the expectation of the term $\left[\mathbf{u} \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})}{\pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})} \right]$. We can perform Monte Carlo approximation to estimate
 416 the expectation of $g(\mathbf{U})$, denoted $\mathbf{E}(g(\mathbf{U}))$, for any function g :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{E}(g(\mathbf{U})) &= \int [g(\mathbf{u}) \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})}{\pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})}] \pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u} & (B.2) \\
 &\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N g(\mathbf{u}^i) \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}^i)}{\pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}^i)} \\
 \omega^i &= \frac{1}{N} \frac{f_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}^i)}{\pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u}^i)}
 \end{aligned}$$

417 where \mathbf{u}^i ($i = 1, \dots, N$) is i th sample (particle) drawn from the importance distribution $\pi_{\mathbf{U}}(\mathbf{u})$ and ω^i denotes the
 418 weight associated with i th sample (particle). With particular choices of g , we can hence retrieve the expectation of \mathbf{U} ,
 419 its variance, quantiles, etc.

420 We can use importance sampling to address the problem of sampling directly from the posterior pdf $f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t} | \mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ of
 421 the trajectory $\mathbf{Z}_{1:t}$. Let the importance distribution, $\pi(\mathbf{z}_{1:t} | \mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$, from equation (7) we can compute importance weights,

$$\omega_t = \frac{f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)}{\pi(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)} \propto \frac{f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t)f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1})f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*)}{\pi(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)} \quad (\text{B.3})$$

422 Then, assuming the importance distribution $\pi(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ to be Markovian, that is

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*) &= \pi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}, \mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)\pi(\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*) \\ &= \pi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1}, \mathbf{y}_t^*)\pi(\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*), \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.4})$$

423 then equation (B.3) becomes,

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_t &\propto \frac{f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t)f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1})f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*)}{\pi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1}, \mathbf{y}_t^*)\pi(\mathbf{z}_{1:t-1}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t-1}^*)} \\ &\propto \frac{f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t)f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1})}{\pi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1}, \mathbf{y}_t^*)} \omega_{t-1} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.5})$$

424 In other words, we derive an update formula for the importance weights in the same form as the update formula
425 for the posterior pdf ((7)). If we can draw N samples (particles) from the importance distribution $\pi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$,

$$\mathbf{z}_t^i \sim \pi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*) \quad i = 1, \dots, N \quad (\text{B.6})$$

426 a weight update formula for each particle can be written as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_t^i &\propto \frac{f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t^i)f(\mathbf{z}_t^i|\mathbf{z}_{t-1}^i)}{\pi(\mathbf{z}_t^i|\mathbf{z}_{t-1}^i, \mathbf{y}_t^*)} \omega_{t-1}^i \\ \hat{\omega}_t^i &= \frac{\omega_t^i}{\sum \omega_t^i} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.7})$$

427 where we define the normalized importance weight ($\hat{\omega}_t^i$) associated with the particle i . Normalizing the weights
428 allows to evacuate the problem of the normalizing constant in the Bayesian representation of the posterior ((5)).
429 Equation (B.7) shows that we only need to store the state \mathbf{z}_t at time t . In addition, it is usually not necessary to
430 estimate the full pdf $f(\mathbf{z}_{1:t}|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ in practice. In this work, we are interested in the marginal distribution $f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{y}_{1:t}^*)$ at time

431 t , called filtering distribution. The filtering posterior pdf $f(\mathbf{z}_t|y_{1:t}^*)$ at time t can be approximated as,

$$f(\mathbf{z}_t|y_{1:t}^*) \approx \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{\omega}_t^i \delta(\mathbf{z}_t - \mathbf{z}_t^i) \quad (\text{B.8})$$

432 where $\delta(\cdot)$ is a Dirac delta function.

433 The performance of the above algorithm depends on the quality of the importance distribution $\pi(\cdot)$. Typically, the
434 optimal importance distribution is (Doucet et al., 2001; Särkkä, 2013),

$$\pi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1}, \mathbf{y}_t^*) = f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1}, \mathbf{y}_t^*) \quad (\text{B.9})$$

435 In practice, however we generally do not know the distribution $f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1}, \mathbf{y}_t^*)$ and we rather propagate \mathbf{z}_t using the
436 evolution equations (1) and (2), which terms to draw samples from $f(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{z}_{t-1})$. In that case, the equations (B.5) and
437 (B.7) simplifies into

$$\omega_t \propto f(\mathbf{y}_t^*|\mathbf{z}_t)\omega_{t-1} \quad (\text{B.10})$$

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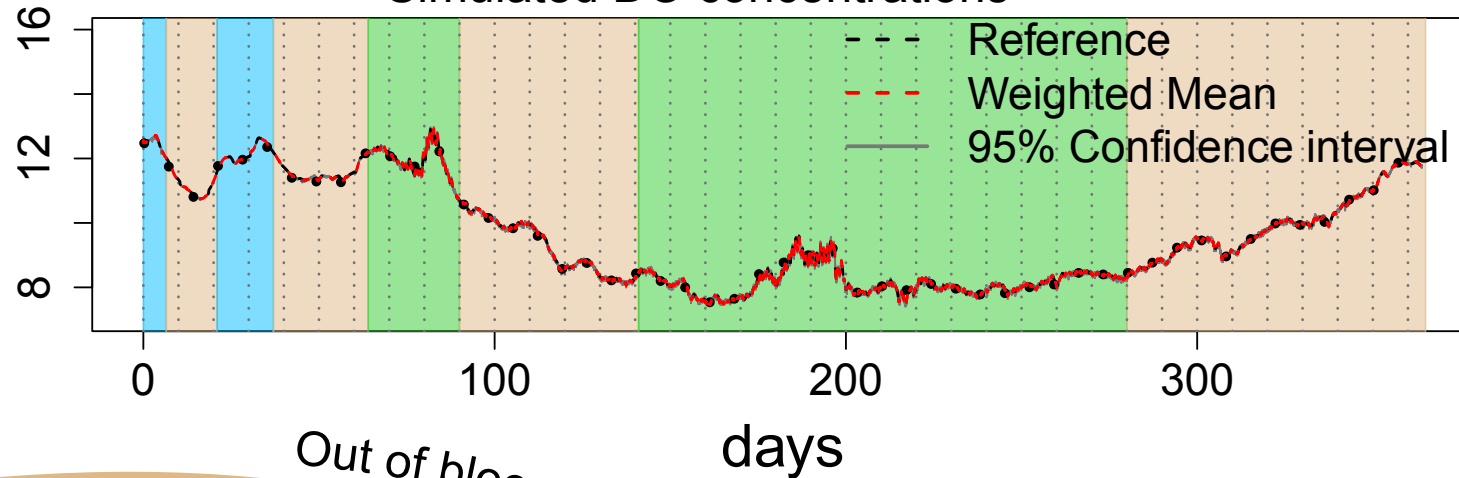
DO: Dissolved Oxygen

ProSe-PA model
Particle Filter

DO simulation

O₂ mg/L

Simulated DO concentrations



Parameter estimation

Out of bloom $T > 8\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$

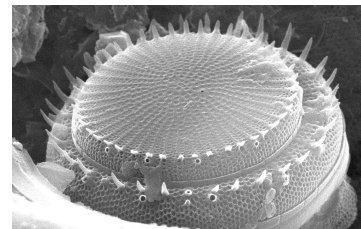
$T < 6\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$

Reaeration



Potential algal bloom

Phytoplanktonic



Bacterial

