

1 **Identification of hydrological model parameters variation using**  
2 **ensemble Kalman filter**

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20 **Abstract:** Hydrological model parameters play an important role in the ability of model prediction. In  
21 a stationary context, parameters of hydrological models are treated as constants; however, model  
22 parameters may vary with time under climate change and human activities. The technique of ensemble  
23 Kalman filter (EnKF) is proposed to identify the temporal variation of parameters for a two-parameter  
24 monthly water balance model (TWBM) by assimilating the runoff observations. Through a synthetic  
25 experiment, the proposed method is evaluated with time-invariant (i.e., constant) parameters and  
26 different types of parameter variations, including trend, abrupt change, and periodicity. Various levels of  
27 observation uncertainty are designed to examine the performance of the EnKF. The results show that the  
28 EnKF can successfully capture the temporal variations of the model parameters. The application to the  
29 Wudinghe basin shows that the water storage capacity ( $SC$ ) of the TWBM model has an apparent  
30 increasing trend during the period from 1958 to 2000. The identified temporal variation of  $SC$  is  
31 explained by land use and land cover changes due to soil and water conservation measures. Whereas,  
32 the application to the Tongtianhe basin shows that the estimated  $SC$  has no significant variation during  
33 the simulation period of 1982-2013, corresponding to the relatively stationary catchment properties. The  
34 evapotranspiration parameter ( $C$ ) has temporal variations while no obvious change patterns exist. The  
35 proposed method provides an effective tool for quantifying the temporal variations of the model  
36 parameters, thereby improving the accuracy and reliability of model simulations and forecasts.

37

38 **Keywords:** model parameter identification, temporal variation of parameter, catchment characteristics,  
39 ensemble Kalman filter

# 40 **1 Introduction**

41 Hydrological model parameters are critically important for accurate simulation of runoff. Parameters of  
42 conceptual hydrological models can be considered as a simplified representation of the physical  
43 characteristics in hydrologic processes. Therefore, parameter values are closely related to the catchment  
44 conditions, such as climate change, afforestation and urbanization (Peel et al., 2011). In hydrological  
45 modeling, parameters are usually assumed to be stationary, i.e., the calibrated parameters are constants  
46 during the calibration period, and have extrapolative ability outside the range of the observations used  
47 for parameter estimation (Merz et al., 2011). The estimated parameters usually depend on the calibration  
48 period since the calibration period may contain different climatic conditions and hydrological regimes  
49 compared to the simulation period (Merz et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2011; Coron et al., 2012; Seiller et  
50 al., 2012; Westra et al., 2014; Patil and Stieglitz, 2015). The model parameters may change responding  
51 to the variations in climatic conditions and catchment properties. For example, land use and land cover  
52 changes contribute to temporal changes of model parameters (Andréassian et al., 2003; Brown et al.,  
53 2005; Merz et al., 2011). Therefore, it is no longer appropriate to treat parameters as time-invariant.

54

55 The time-variant hydrological model parameters has been reported in a few recent publications (Merz et  
56 al., 2011; Brigode et al., 2013; Jeremiah et al., 2014; Thirel et al., 2014; Westra et al., 2014; Patil and  
57 Stieglitz, 2015). For example, Ye et al. (1997) and Paik et al. (2005) mentioned the seasonal variations  
58 of hydrological model parameters. Merz et al. (2011) analyzed the temporal changes of model

59 parameters, which were calibrated respectively by using six consecutive 5-year periods between 1976  
60 and 2006 for 273 catchments in Austria. Recently, Westra et al. (2014) proposed a strategy to cope with  
61 nonstationarity of hydrological model parameters, which were represented as a function of a  
62 time-varying covariate set before using an optimization algorithm for calibration. Previous studies  
63 provided two main methods to estimate the time-variant model parameters: (1) Available historical  
64 record is divided into consecutive subsets, and parameters are calibrated separately for each subset  
65 using an optimization algorithm (Merz et al., 2011; Thirel et al., 2015); (2) A functional form of the  
66 selected time-variant model parameters is constructed and, the parameters for the function are estimated  
67 using an optimization algorithm based on the entire historical record (Jeremiah et al., 2014; Westra et al.,  
68 2014).

69  
70 The data assimilation (DA) actually provides another method to identify the potential temporal  
71 variations of model parameters by updating them in real-time when observations are available (Liu and  
72 Gupta, 2007; Xie and Zhang, 2013). The DA method has been widely applied in hydrology for soil  
73 moisture estimation (Han et al., 2012; Kumar et al., 2012) and flood forecasting (Liu et al., 2013; Abaza  
74 et al., 2014). It has also been successfully used to estimate model parameters (Moradkhani et al., 2005;  
75 Kurtz et al., 2012; Montzka et al., 2013; Panzeri et al., 2013; Vrugt et al., 2013; Xie and Zhang, 2013;  
76 Shi et al., 2014; Xie et al., 2014). For example, Vrugt et al. (2013) proposed two Particle-DREAM  
77 methods, i.e., Particle-DREAM for time-variant parameters and time-invariant parameters, to track the

78 evolving target distribution of HyMOD parameters, while both the results were approximately similar  
79 and statistically coherent since only three years of data were used. Xie and Zhang (2013) used a  
80 partitioned forecast-update scheme based on the EnKF to retrieve optimal parameters in a distributed  
81 hydrological model. Although the DA method has been used to estimate model parameters, these  
82 studies are focused on the estimation of constant parameters. Little attention has been paid to the  
83 identification of time-variant model parameters by using the DA method.

84

85 The aim of this study is to assess the capability of the EnKF to identify the temporal variations of the  
86 model parameters for a monthly water balance model. Thus, a synthetic experiment, including four  
87 scenarios with different parameter variations and one scenario with time-invariant parameters, is  
88 designed for parameter estimation at different uncertainty levels. Furthermore, two case studies are  
89 implemented to estimate the model parameter series and to interpret the parameter variations in  
90 response to the changes in catchment characteristics, i.e., land use and land cover. The remainder of this  
91 paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents a brief review of the monthly water balance model and  
92 the EnKF method. Following the methodology, Section 3 describes the synthetic experiment and the  
93 application to two case studies. Results and discussion are presented in Section 4, followed by  
94 conclusions in Section 5.

95

## 96 **2 Methodology**

### 97 **2.1 Monthly water balance model**

98 The two-parameter monthly water balance model (TWBM), developed by Xiong and Guo (1999), has  
99 been widely applied for monthly runoff simulation and forecast (Guo et al., 2002; Guo et al., 2005;  
100 Xiong and Guo, 2012; Li et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2013; Xiong et al., 2014). The inputs of the model  
101 include monthly areal precipitation and potential evapotranspiration. The actual monthly  
102 evapotranspiration is calculated as follows:

$$103 \quad E_i = C \times EP_i \times \tanh(P_i / EP_i), \quad (1)$$

104 where  $E_i$  represents the actual monthly evapotranspiration;  $EP_i$  and  $P_i$  are the monthly potential  
105 evapotranspiration and precipitation, respectively;  $C$  is the first model parameter; and  $i$  is the time  
106 step.

107

108 The monthly runoff is dependent on the soil water content and is calculated by the following equation:

$$109 \quad Q_i = S_i \times \tanh(S_i / SC), \quad (2)$$

110 where  $Q_i$  is the monthly runoff; and  $S_i$  is the soil water content. As the second model parameter,  
111  $SC$  represents the water storage capacity of the catchment in millimeter. The available water for  
112 runoff at the  $i$ th month is computed by  $S_{i-1} + P_i - E_i$ . Then, the monthly runoff is calculated as:

$$113 \quad Q_i = (S_{i-1} + P_i - E_i) \times \tanh[(S_{i-1} + P_i - E_i) / SC], \quad (3)$$

114

115 Finally, the soil water content at the end of each time step is updated based on the water conservation  
116 law:

$$117 \quad S_i = S_{i-1} + P_i - E_i - Q_i, \quad (4)$$

118

## 119 **2.2 Ensemble Kalman filter**

120 As a sequential data assimilation technique, EnKF is essentially the Monte Carlo implementation of  
121 the Kalman filter, producing an ensemble of state simulations for updating the state variables and their  
122 covariance matrices (Evensen 1994; Burgers et al., 1998; Moradkhani et al., 2005; Shi et al., 2014). It  
123 is applicable to a variety of nonlinear problems (Evensen, 2003; Weerts and El Serafy, 2006) and has  
124 been widely applied to hydrological models (Abaza et al., 2014; DeChant and Moradkhani, 2014;  
125 Delijani et al., 2014; Samuel et al., 2014; Tamura et al., 2014; Xue and Zhang, 2014; Deng et al.,  
126 2015). Furthermore, the EnKF has been successfully used in time-invariant parameter estimations for  
127 hydrological models (Moradkhani et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2009; Xie and Zhang, 2010; Xie and  
128 Zhang, 2013).

129

130 In this paper, the EnKF is applied to simultaneously estimate state variables and parameters (**Table 1**)  
131 in the TWBM model. The augmented state vector includes both states and model parameters (Wang et  
132 al., 2009), i.e.,  $Z = (\theta, x)^T$ , where  $\theta$  includes the evapotranspiration parameter  $C$  and the catchment  
133 water storage capacity  $SC$ , and  $x$  is the soil water content  $S$ . The model forecast is conducted for

134 each ensemble member as follows:

135 
$$\begin{pmatrix} \theta_{i+1|i}^k \\ x_{i+1|i}^k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_{i|i}^k \\ f(x_{i|i}^k, \theta_{i+1|i}^k, u_{i+1}) \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \delta_i^k \\ \varepsilon_i^k \end{pmatrix}, \text{ where } \delta_i^k \sim N(0, U_i), \varepsilon_i^k \sim N(0, G_i). \quad (5)$$

136 where  $\theta_{i+1|i}^k$  is the  $k$ th ensemble member forecast of model parameters at time  $i+1$ ;  $\theta_{i|i}^k$  is the  $k$ th  
137 updated ensemble member of model parameters at time  $i$ ;  $x_{i+1|i}^k$  is the  $k$ th ensemble member forecast  
138 of model state at time  $i+1$ ;  $x_{i|i}^k$  is the  $k$ th updated ensemble member of model state at time  $i$ ;  $f$  is  
139 the forecasting model operator, i.e. the TWBM model;  $u_{i+1}$  is the forcing data for the hydrological  
140 model, including precipitation and potential evapotranspiration;  $\varepsilon_i^k$  and  $\delta_i^k$  are the independent  
141 white noise for the forecasting model, following a Gaussian distribution with zero mean and specified  
142 covariance  $G_i$  and  $U_i$ , respectively. Note that the parameters in Eq. (5) are propagated by adding  
143 random disturbances to the parameter member between time steps (Wang et al., 2009).

144 The observation ensemble member can be written as:

145 
$$y_{i+1}^k = h(x_{i+1|i}^k, \theta_{i+1|i}^k) + \xi_{i+1}^k, \xi_{i+1}^k \sim N(0, W_{i+1}), \quad (6)$$

146 where  $y_{i+1}^k$  is the  $k$ th ensemble member of the model simulated runoff at time  $i+1$ ;  $h$  is the  
147 observation operator which represents the relationship between the observation and the state variables;  
148  $\xi_{i+1}^k$  is the noise term which follows a Gaussian distribution with zero mean and specified covariance  
149  $W_{i+1}$ .

150

151 Based on the available state and observation equations, the model parameters and state are updated



152 according to the following equation:

$$153 \quad Z_{i+1|i+1}^k = Z_{i+1|i}^k + K_{i+1} \left( y_{i+1}^k - h \left( Z_{i+1|i}^k \right) \right), \quad (7)$$

154 where  $Z$  is the augmented state vector that includes both state and parameters;  $y_{i+1}^k$  is the  $k$ th  
155 observation ensemble member generated by adding the observation error  $\xi_{i+1}^k$  to the observed runoff:

$$156 \quad y_{i+1}^k = y_{i+1} + \xi_{i+1}^k, \quad (8)$$

157  $K_{i+1}$  is the Kalman gain matrix that represents the weight between the forecasts and observations. It  
158 can be calculated as (Evensen 1994; Evensen and van Leeuwen, 1996; Evensen 2003; Moradkhani et  
159 al., 2005):

$$160 \quad K_{i+1} = \sum_{i+1|i}^{zy} \left( \sum_{i+1|i}^{yy} + W_{i+1} \right)^{-1}, \quad (9)$$

161 where  $\sum_{i+1|i}^{zy}$  is the cross covariance of the forecasted state and parameters;  $\sum_{i+1|i}^{yy}$  is the error  
162 covariance of the forecasted output. The error covariance matrix is calculated based on the forecasted  
163 ensemble members:

$$164 \quad \sum_{i+1|i} = \frac{1}{N-1} Z_{i+1|i} Z_{i+1|i}^T, \quad (10)$$

165 where  $Z_{i+1|i} = \left( z_{i+1|i}^1 - \bar{z}_{i+1|i}, \dots, z_{i+1|i}^N - \bar{z}_{i+1|i} \right)$  and  $\bar{z}_{i+1|i}$  is the ensemble mean of the forecasted members,  
166 and  $N$  is the ensemble size.

167

168 Since the parameters are limited within a range, the constrained EnKF (Wang et al., 2009) is used in this  
169 study. The ensemble size, uncertainties in input and output have significant impacts on the assimilation  
170 performance of the EnKF, and they are specified following the previous studies (Moradkhani et al.,

171 2005; Wang et al., 2009; Xie and Zhang, 2010; Nie et al., 2011; Lü et al., 2013; Samuel et al., 2014).  
172 The ensemble size is set to 1000 for the synthetic experiment and the two case studies. In the present  
173 study, the uncertainties, including state variable and parameter errors ( $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  in Eq. (5), respectively),  
174 and runoff observation error ( $\xi$  in Eq. (6)), are assumed to follow a Gaussian distribution with zero  
175 mean and specified covariance. Note that the model parameter errors should vary relying on the  
176 hydrological model used and the study basin (Clark et al., 2008). Larger standard deviation can generate  
177 greater perturbations to model parameters, and it can improve the coverage of updated parameters but  
178 also may cause fluctuations in the estimates. In this study, the parameter errors are determined  
179 empirically, i.e., the standard deviation of  $C$  is set to 0.01 for all the cases, while that of  $SC$  is set to  
180 5.0, 1.0 and 0.5 in the synthetic experiment, Wudinghe basin and Tongtianhe basin, respectively. The  
181 standard deviations of both model state and observation errors are assumed to be proportional to the  
182 magnitude of true values (Wang et al., 2009; Lü et al., 2013). The proportional factors of model state are  
183 set to 0.05 for all the cases. Different proportional factors of runoff observation and precipitation (**Table**  
184 **3**) are evaluated to examine the capability of the EnKF in the synthetic experiment; whereas, the  
185 proportional factors of runoff observation are set to 0.1 and zero precipitation errors are assumed in the  
186 two case studies.

187

## 188 **2.3 Evaluation index**

189 Two evaluation criteria, including the Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (*NSE*) (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) and

190 the volume error (*VE*) are used to evaluate the runoff assimilation results for the synthetic experiment  
 191 and the application to real catchments (Deng et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015).

$$192 \quad NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{sim,i} - Q_{obs,i})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{obs,i} - \bar{Q}_{obs})^2} \quad (11)$$

$$193 \quad VE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Q_{sim,i} - \sum_{i=1}^n Q_{obs,i}}{\sum_{i=1}^n Q_{obs,i}} \quad (12)$$

194 where  $Q_{sim,i}$  and  $Q_{obs,i}$  are the simulated and observed runoff for the  $i$ th month;  $\bar{Q}_{obs}$  is the mean  
 195 values of the observed runoff; and  $n$  is the total number of data points. The *NSE* ranges from  $-\infty$  to  
 196 1 and has been widely used to assess the goodness-of-fit for hydrological modeling. A *NSE* value of 1  
 197 means that a perfect match of simulated runoff to the observations, while a value of 0 indicates that  
 198 the model simulations are equivalent to the mean value of the runoff observations; and negative *NSE*  
 199 values indicate that the mean observed runoff is better than the model simulations. The *VE* is a  
 200 measure of bias between the simulated and observed runoff. For example, *VE* with the value of 0  
 201 denotes no bias, and a negative value means an underestimation of the total runoff volume.

202

203 The assimilated parameter results are evaluated using the following criteria, including the Pearson  
 204 correlation coefficient (*R*), the root mean square error (*RMSE*) and mean absolute relative error  
 205 (*MARE*):

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\theta_{sim,i} - \bar{\theta}_{sim})(\theta_{obs,i} - \bar{\theta}_{obs})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (\theta_{sim,i} - \bar{\theta}_{sim})^2 (\theta_{obs,i} - \bar{\theta}_{obs})^2}}, \quad (13)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\theta_{sim,i} - \theta_{obs,i})^2}, \quad (14)$$

$$MARE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|\theta_{sim,i} - \theta_{obs,i}|}{\theta_{obs,i}}, \quad (15)$$

where  $\theta_{sim,i}$  and  $\theta_{obs,i}$  are the assimilated and true model parameters for the  $i$ th month;  $\bar{\theta}_{sim}$  and  $\bar{\theta}_{obs}$  are the mean of the assimilated and true model parameters, respectively for the  $i$ th month;  $n$  is the total number of data points.

212

## 213 **3 Data and study area**

### 214 **3.1 Synthetic experiment**

215 A synthetic experiment is designed to evaluate the capability of the assimilation procedure to identify  
 216 the temporal variation of model parameters. Five scenarios of different parameter variations are  
 217 developed, as shown in **Table 2**. The model parameters in the first four scenarios are time-variant, and  
 218 those in the last scenario are constant. Parameter  $C$ , the evapotranspiration parameter, is considered to  
 219 be sinusoidal reflecting potential seasonal variations in hydrological model parameters (Paik et al., 2005;  
 220 Ye et al., 1997). An increasing trend is also considered to account for the potential annual or long-term  
 221 variability. The change of parameter  $SC$  is considered to be gradual and abrupt, since the catchment  
 222 water storage capacity can be affected by land use and land cover changes, such as afforestation and

223 dam construction. The parameters in Scenario 5 are treated as constants like the conventional  
224 hydrological modeling. Observations for precipitation and potential evapotranspiration are generated by  
225 adding a Gaussian disturbance to the corresponding data from a real catchment, and runoff is then  
226 produced using the TWBM model. The data set used in this experiment is of 672-month length. The  
227 first 24-month period is set for model warm-up to reduce the impact of the initial soil moisture  
228 conditions. The steps toward identifying temporal variation of model parameters are as follows:

229 (1) Time series of model parameters are synthetically generated, including the time-variant parameters  
230 and the constant parameters. Model parameter sets are produced using a sinusoidal function and/or a  
231 linear trend function within the specified ranges shown in **Table 1**. The runoff observations for each  
232 scenario are computed from the TWBM model taking monthly potential evapotranspiration and  
233 precipitation, and the parameters as inputs.

234 (2) The initial ensembles of model parameters and state variables are generated using uniform  
235 distributions within the specified ranges in **Table 1**. The ensemble size and the total number of  
236 assimilation time steps are specified.

237 (3) After the initialization of parameters and state variables, the hydrological model parameters and  
238 states are updated by assimilating the runoff observations obtained in Step (1). The additive errors for  
239 generating the ensemble members of model parameters, state variables and runoff observations are  
240 obtained from Gaussian distributions with zero mean and specified variance.

241

242 To evaluate the effect of errors on identifying parameter variation, different levels of observation  
243 uncertainty are considered in the synthetic experiment, as detailed in **Table 3**. The uncertainties from  
244 the observed precipitation and runoff are characterized by adding Gaussian noises where the standard  
245 deviations are assumed to be proportional to the magnitude of the true values, and the corresponding  
246 proportional factors are denoted as  $\gamma_P$  and  $\gamma_Q$ . The proportional factors are set to account for the  
247 practical measurement error (Wang et al., 2009; Xie and Zhang, 2010).

248

## 249 **3.2 Study area**

### 250 **3.2.1 Case 1: Wudinghe basin**

251 The method is applied to the Wudinghe basin (**Fig. 1**), which is a sub-basin of the Yellow River basin  
252 and located in the southern fringe of Maowusu Desert and the northern part of the Loess Plateau in  
253 China with a semiarid climate. It has a drainage area of approximately 30,261 km<sup>2</sup> and a total length of  
254 491 km. The Wudinghe basin has an average slope of 0.2%, and its elevation ranges from 600 to 1800  
255 m above the sea level. The Baijiachuan gauge station, which is the most downstream station of the  
256 Wudinghe basin, drains 98% of the total basin area. The mean annual precipitation over the basin is  
257 401 mm, of which 72.5% occurs in the rainy season from June to September (**Fig. 2**). The mean  
258 annual potential evapotranspiration is 1077 mm, and the mean annual runoff is about 39 mm with a  
259 runoff coefficient of 0.1.

260 The soil erosion is severe in the Wudinghe basin owing to the highly erodible loess and sparse  
261 vegetation. Since the 1960s, the soil and water conservation measures have been undertaken. Lots of  
262 engineering measures including tree and grass plantation, check dam and reservoir construction, and  
263 land terracing were effectively implemented during several decades. The land use changes caused by  
264 the soil and water conservation measures had a significant effect on increasing water storage capacity  
265 (Xu, 2011).

266

### 267 **3.2.2 Case 2: Tongtianhe basin**

268 The Tongtianhe basin (**Fig. 3**) is located in southwestern Qinghai Province in China with a continental  
269 climate. It belongs to the source area of Yangtze River basin with a drainage area of about 140,000 km<sup>2</sup>  
270 and a total main stream length of 1206 km. The elevation of the Tongtianhe basin approximately ranges  
271 from 3500 to 6500 m above the sea level. Zhimenda is the basin outlet. The mean annual precipitation  
272 over the basin is 440 mm, of which 76.9% occurs in the period from June to September (**Fig. 4**). The  
273 mean annual potential evapotranspiration is 796 mm, and the mean annual runoff is about 99 mm with a  
274 runoff coefficient of 0.23. The Tongtianhe basin is rarely affected by human activities owing to the  
275 water source protection guidelines conducted by the government. The Tongtianhe basin is used for  
276 comparison on model parameter identification.

277

### 278 **3.2.3 Data**

279 The data sets used in this study include monthly precipitation, potential evapotranspiration and runoff in  
280 Wudinghe basin (from 1956 to 2000) and Tongtianhe basin (from 1980 to 2013). The potential  
281 evapotranspiration is estimated using the Penman-Monteith equation (Allen et al., 1998) based on the  
282 meteorological data from the China Meteorological Data Sharing Service System (<http://cdc.nmic.cn>).  
283 To reduce the impact of the initial conditions, a 2-year data set, i.e., from 1956 to 1957 for Wudinghe  
284 basin and from 1980 to 1981 for Tongtianhe basin, is reserved as the warm-up period.

285

## 286 **4 Results and discussion**

### 287 **4.1 Synthetic experiment**

288 The comparisons of the estimated and true model parameters under different scenarios are presented  
289 in **Fig. 3**, **Fig. 4** and **Fig. 5**. **Tables 4** and **5** show the evaluation statistics for the parameters and runoff  
290 estimations. The assimilated parameter values are obtained from the ensemble mean at each time step.  
291 The estimation of parameters  $C$  and  $SC$  have the similar trends as the true parameter series. The  
292 temporal variations of the estimated  $C$  agree well with the true series, although it has biases on the  
293 peaks of the periodic changes. For  $SC$ , the temporal estimates can capture the different changes in  
294 **Table 2**, especially for the abrupt change where the estimated values respond immediately. Different  
295 uncertainty levels are considered to examine the capability of the EnKF method. The results in **Fig. 3**



296 show that the estimated  $C$  has more accurate peaks with smaller  $RMSE$  and higher  $R$  values under the  
297 high level uncertainty (**Table 4**); whereas, the  $SC$  estimates in **Fig. 4** have some fluctuations when the  
298 uncertainty level increases. This is due to the reason that the estimated values vary with increasing  
299 uncertainty level in the assimilation process. In the synthetic experiment, the true  $C$  is assumed to be  
300 periodic with higher degree of variation, while the true  $SC$  series have less variation.

301

302 It should be noted that there are time lags between the assimilated and true  $C$ . The observation at the  
303 current time step is used to adjust the state variables and parameters in EnKF, and the updates of  
304 parameters depend on the Kalman gain for parameters. A runoff observation at the current time is  
305 determined by states at the current and previous time steps (Pauwels and Lannoy, 2006). The Kalman  
306 gain is dependent on the relative value of observation error to model error. The updated states are  
307 closer to the observation with a higher Kalman gain (Tamura et al., 2014). The synthetic  $C$  series were  
308 assumed to be periodic where lots of peak values exist; while the variation of  $SC$  series is less. The  
309 time lag between assimilated and true values exists especially when peak values occur (Clark et al.,  
310 2008; Samuel et al., 2014).

311

312 The results for the scenario of constant parameters are shown in **Fig. 5**, demonstrating that the  
313 estimated parameters can approach their true values after the initial 24 assimilation steps. The grey  
314 areas represent the 95% prediction uncertainty intervals, which reduce quickly and approach a stable

315 spread. The performance of the estimated parameters is correlated with the uncertainty level. Higher  
316 precipitation and runoff observation errors correspond to greater *RMSE* values (**Table 4**) of estimated  
317 parameters and uncertainty ranges. The performance of runoff estimations for various parameter  
318 changes under different levels of uncertainty is shown in **Table 5**, suggesting that the EnKF perfectly  
319 matches the observations with NSEs higher than 0.95 and absolute VEs smaller than 0.02. The EnKF  
320 can successfully capture the temporal variations of the true parameters, although the uncertainty levels  
321 of the observations can affect its performance to a certain degree. The above results demonstrate that  
322 the EnKF is able to identify the temporal variation of the model parameters by updating the state  
323 variables and parameters based on the runoff observations.

324

## 325 **4.2 Case studies**

326 **Fig. 6** shows the double mass curve between monthly runoff and precipitation for the Wudinghe and  
327 Tongtianhe basins, respectively. The top panel shows the linear relationship between cumulative runoff  
328 and precipitation pre- and post-1972 in the Wudinghe basin, which is similar to the result presented by  
329 Xu (2011) and Li et al. (2014). The results show two straight lines with different slopes for the  
330 relationships between precipitation and runoff, indicating that an abrupt change occurred in 1972,  
331 namely, the runoff generation had been changed from this year due to the soil and water conservation  
332 measures. On the other hand, the bottom panel demonstrates that a single linear relationship fits all the  
333 data for the Tongtianhe basin, suggesting a stable precipitation-runoff relationship during the 1982-2013

334 period.

335

336 The estimated parameters and the associated 95% prediction uncertainty intervals are shown in **Fig. 7**.

337 The time series of estimated *SC* shows an apparent increasing trend, with two different trends for pre-

338 and post-turning point in **Fig. 6(a)**. The temporal variation of the water storage capacity is correlated

339 with the changes of land use and land cover. Both the trends in **Fig. 7(c)** show an increase of *SC*,

340 because the implementation of the large-scale engineering measures significantly improved the water

341 holding capacity of the Wudinghe basin, especially for the reservoir and check dam construction. The

342 trend slopes of the two periods, one is from 1956 to 1971, the other is from 1972 to 2000, are different

343 because the degree of implementing engineering measures varied during the period of 1958-2000.

344 Moreover, the increase of the water holding capacity slowed down during the 1980s due to the

345 sedimentation in reservoirs and check dams after periods of operation (Wang and Fan, 2003). **Fig. 8(a)**

346 shows the long-term time series of precipitation and potential evaporation in Wudinghe basin. The result

347 shows that the runoff decreases significantly while precipitation changes slightly and potential

348 evaporation has no trend, indicating that the actual evaporation increases significantly due to impacts of

349 human activities, i.e., the soil and water conservation measures. **Fig. 8(b)** presents the runoff reduction

350 caused by all the soil and water conservation measures, i.e., land terracing, tree and grass plantation,

351 check dam and reservoir construction. The runoff reduction positively relates to the water holding

352 capacity, namely the *SC* value. The slope for the period of 1958-1971 is higher than that for the period

353 of 1972-1996, suggesting that the  $SC$  in the former period has higher increasing trend. On the other  
354 hand, results of Tongtianhe basin show that the estimated  $SC$  has no detectable trend with a small  $R$   
355 value. Moreover, the ranges and standard deviation of the estimated  $SC$  values are much smaller than  
356 those in the Wudinghe basin (**Fig. 7**), suggesting that the estimated  $SC$  has no obvious temporal  
357 variations.

358

359 For parameter  $C$ , the results show that the estimates have no significant temporal patterns because the  
360 trend line slopes are almost zero and the standard deviations are relatively small for the two basins (**Fig.**  
361 **7(a)** and **(b)**). However, it can be treated as time-variant parameter since temporal variations exist in the  
362 estimated  $C$  series. The temporal variations of the estimated  $C$  are related to the variation of monthly  
363 actual evaporation, which is affected by multiple climatic factors, such as air temperature, soil moisture  
364 and solar irradiance (Su et al., 2015). The grey regions represent the 95% prediction uncertainty  
365 intervals obtained from the parameter ensembles. The stable and narrow uncertainty bounds shown in  
366 **Fig. 7** indicate that the EnKF can provide superior performance of parameter estimation. The runoff  
367 simulations for both the two basins have good match with the runoff observations. Specifically, the  $NSE$   
368 and  $VE$  for the Wudinghe basin are 0.93 and 0.07 respectively. While the corresponding index values  
369 are 0.99 and 0.04 for the Tongtianhe basin.

370

371 In summary, the above results demonstrate that the EnKF can identify the temporal variation of model

372 parameters well by updating both state variables and parameters based on the runoff observations. The  
373 trends of parameter  $SC$  can be explained by the changes of catchment characteristics (i.e., land use  
374 and land cover) in the Wudinghe basin. However, the estimated  $SC$  for the Tongtianhe basin is  
375 approximately stable with small standard deviation because the basin is located in a water protection  
376 zone and has no significant changes on water storage capacity caused by human activities. The  
377 parameter  $C$  has temporal variations and can be treated as a time-variant parameter for both basins,  
378 although the estimates have no obvious temporal patterns. Therefore, the EnKF is capable of identifying  
379 the temporal variations of model parameters.

380

## 381 **5 Conclusions**

382 This study proposes an ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF) to identify the temporal variation of model  
383 parameters of the two-parameter monthly water balance model (TWBM) by assimilating runoff  
384 observations. A synthetic experiment, which contains four scenarios with different changes of model  
385 parameters and one scenario with constant parameters, is designed to examine the capability of the  
386 proposed approach. Furthermore, three different levels of observation uncertainty are taken to assess the  
387 performance of the EnKF. The main conclusions are: For the time-variant parameters, the EnKF  
388 provides superior performance even though slight time lags exist for parameters with periodic variations.  
389 The true values of the constant parameters can be approached quickly after 24 time steps of assimilation  
390 process. The temporal variations of the parameters can be successfully captured even under a high level

391 of observation uncertainties, which would have an influence on the performance of the EnKF.

392

393 The EnKF method is applied to the Wudinghe basin in China, aiming to detect the temporal variations  
394 of the model parameters and to provide an explanation for the parameter variation from the perspective  
395 of the catchment characteristic changes. Meanwhile, a comparison is implemented to investigate the  
396 variation of model parameters in the Tongtianhe basin, which is barely affected by human activities. The  
397 parameter of water storage capacity ( $SC$ ) for the monthly water balance model shows a significant  
398 increasing trend for the period of 1958-2000 in the Wudinghe basin. The soil and water conservation  
399 measures, including land terracing, tree and grass plantation, check dam and reservoir construction,  
400 have been implemented during 1958 to 2000, resulting in the increase of the water holding capacity of  
401 the basin, which explains the increasing trends of  $SC$ . Moreover, the magnitudes of the engineering  
402 measures in different time periods play an important role in the degree of increasing trend for  $SC$ . In the  
403 Tongtianhe basin, the parameter  $SC$  has no significant trend for the period of 1982-2013, which is  
404 consistent with the relatively stationary catchment characteristics. The evapotranspiration parameter ( $C$ )  
405 has temporal variations and can be treated as time-variant parameter, but no obvious trends exist.

406

407 The method proposed in this paper provides an effective tool for the time-variant model parameter  
408 identification. Future work will be focused on the influence of the correlations between/among model  
409 parameters and performance comparison of multiple data assimilation methods.

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416

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598

599 **Tables**

600

**Table 1.** States and parameters of the two-parameter monthly water balance model.

Parameters and state variables		Description	Ranges and unit
Parameter	$C$	Evapotranspiration parameter	0.2-2.0 (-)
	$SC$	Catchment water storage capacity	100-4000 (mm)
State variable	$S$	Soil water content	mm

601

602

**Table 2.** Different variations of model parameters in the synthetic experiment.

Scenario	Description
Scenario 1	$C$ has a periodic variation, and $SC$ has an increasing trend
Scenario 2	$C$ has a periodic variation, and $SC$ has an abrupt change
Scenario 3	$C$ has a periodic variation with an increasing trend, and $SC$ has an increasing trend
Scenario 4	$C$ has a periodic variation with an increasing trend, and $SC$ has an abrupt change
Scenario 5	Both $C$ and $SC$ are constant

603

604

**Table 3.** Proportional factors of the standard deviations for precipitation ( $\gamma_P$ ) and runoff ( $\gamma_Q$ ) uncertainties.

Type	Low level	Medium level	High level
$\gamma_P$	0	0.05	0.10
$\gamma_Q$	0.05	0.10	0.20

605

606

607

**Table 4.** Performance statistics for various changes of (a) parameter  $C$  and (b)  $SC$  estimations under different levels of uncertainty in the synthetic experiment.

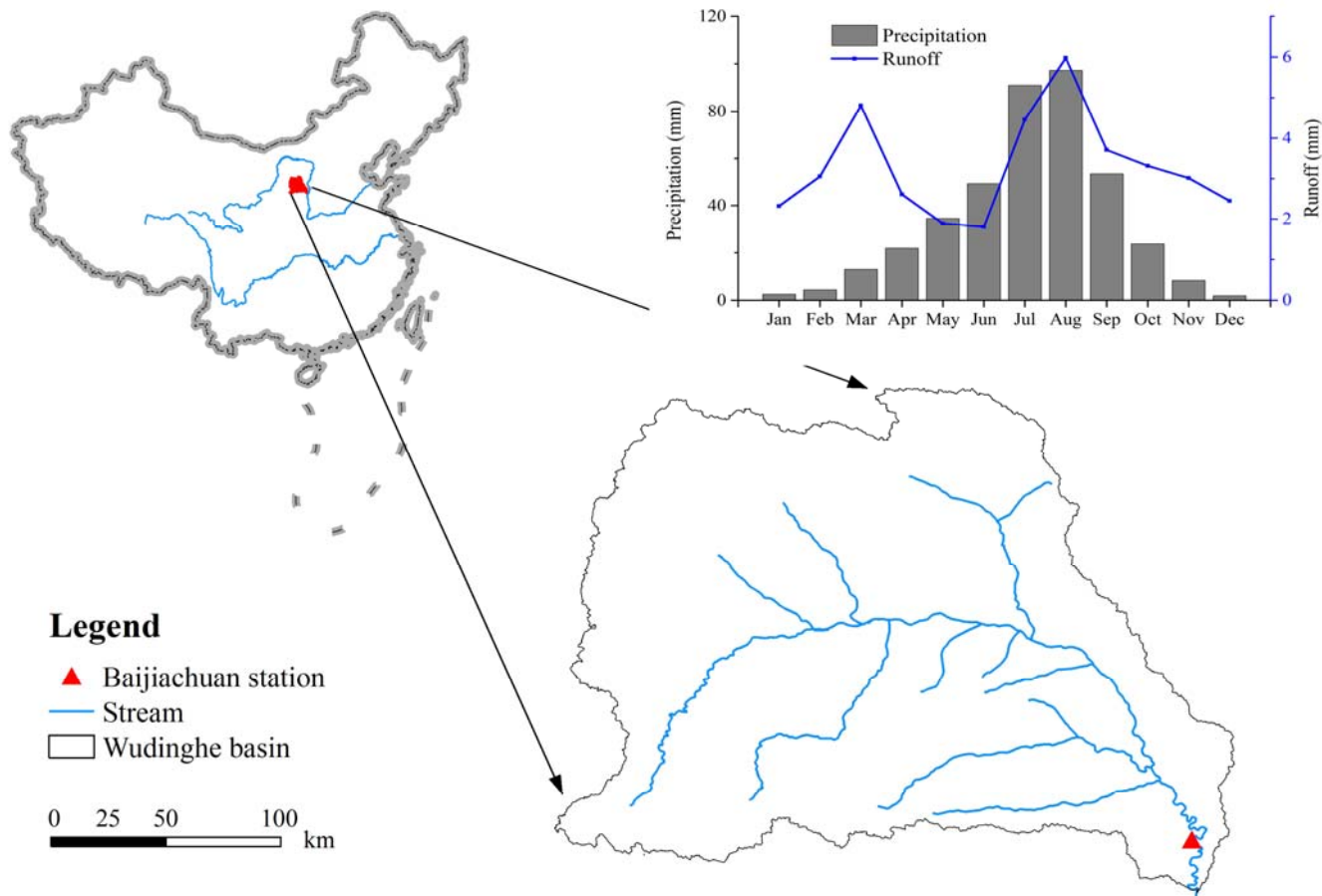
Scenario	Low level			Medium level			High level		
	<i>RMSE</i>	<i>MARE</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>RMSE</i>	<i>MARE</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>RMSE</i>	<i>MARE</i>	<i>R</i>
(a) Parameter $C$									
Scenario 1	0.15	0.21	0.55	0.16	0.18	0.68	0.18	0.11	0.89
Scenario 2	0.16	0.19	0.63	0.17	0.16	0.75	0.18	0.09	0.91
Scenario 3	0.12	0.13	0.64	0.13	0.11	0.72	0.14	0.07	0.91
Scenario 4	0.13	0.12	0.70	0.13	0.10	0.77	0.14	0.06	0.93
Scenario 5	0	--	--	0	--	--	0	--	--
(b) Parameter $SC$									
Scenario 1	182.87	0.03	0.99	187.76	0.05	0.94	253.35	0.83	0.83
Scenario 2	158.30	0.04	0.96	167.47	0.07	0.91	189.59	0.80	0.80
Scenario 3	180.20	0.03	0.99	183.06	0.04	0.97	215.04	0.88	0.88
Scenario 4	156.42	0.03	0.97	158.50	0.05	0.93	170.90	0.86	0.86
Scenario 5	1.54	--	--	3.67	--	--	20.54	--	--

608



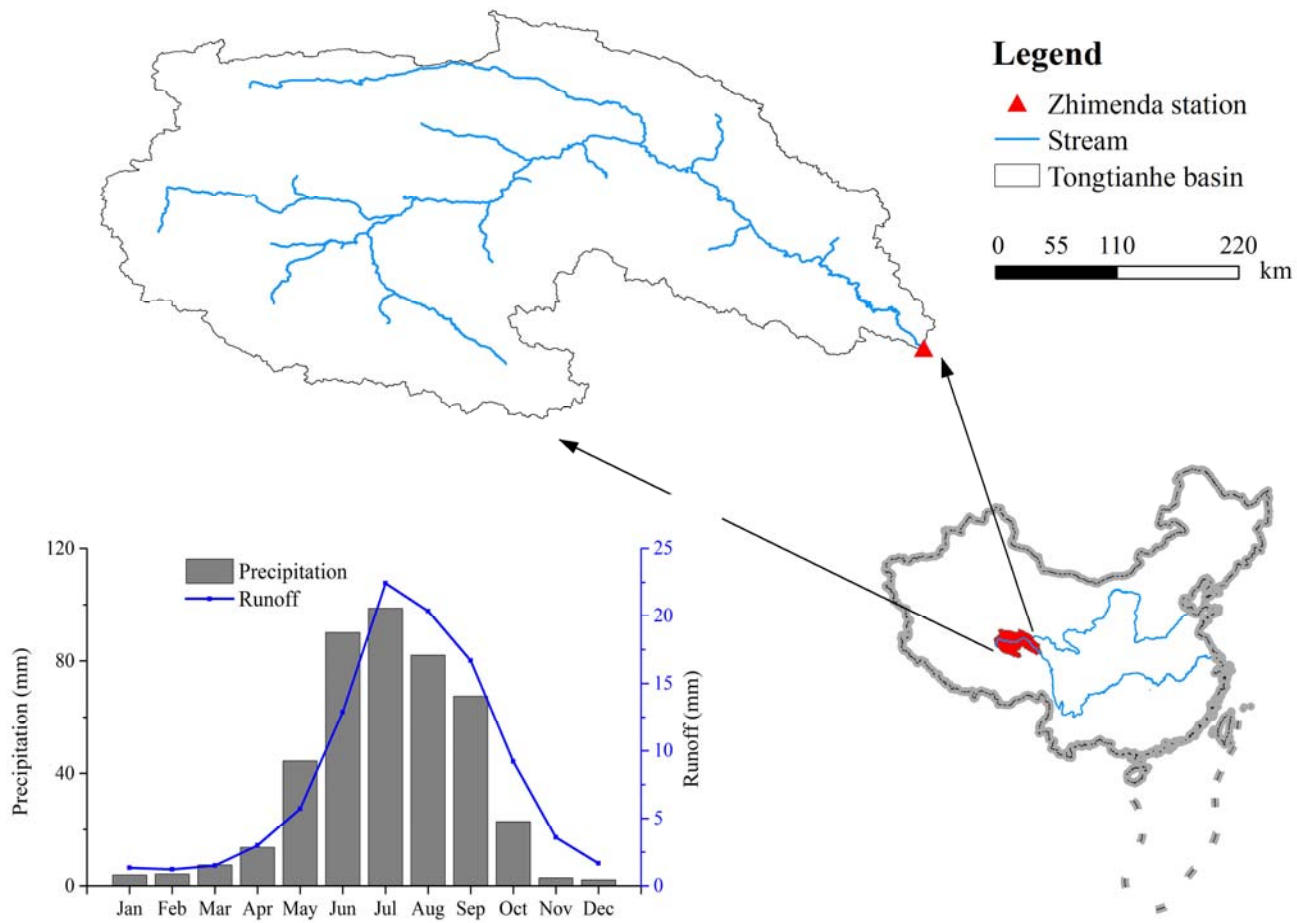
610 **Table 5.** Performance of runoff estimations for various parameter changes under different levels of uncertainty in the  
 611 synthetic experiment.

Scenario	Low level		Medium level		High level	
	<i>NSE</i>	<i>VE</i>	<i>NSE</i>	<i>VE</i>	<i>NSE</i>	<i>VE</i>
Scenario 1	0.999	-0.0003	0.988	-0.0046	0.967	-0.0230
Scenario 2	0.999	0.0001	0.990	-0.0028	0.967	-0.0141
Scenario 3	0.999	-0.0011	0.990	-0.0013	0.974	-0.0264
Scenario 4	0.999	-0.0009	0.992	0.0002	0.959	-0.0147
Scenario 5	0.999	-0.0022	0.992	-0.0077	0.961	-0.0187



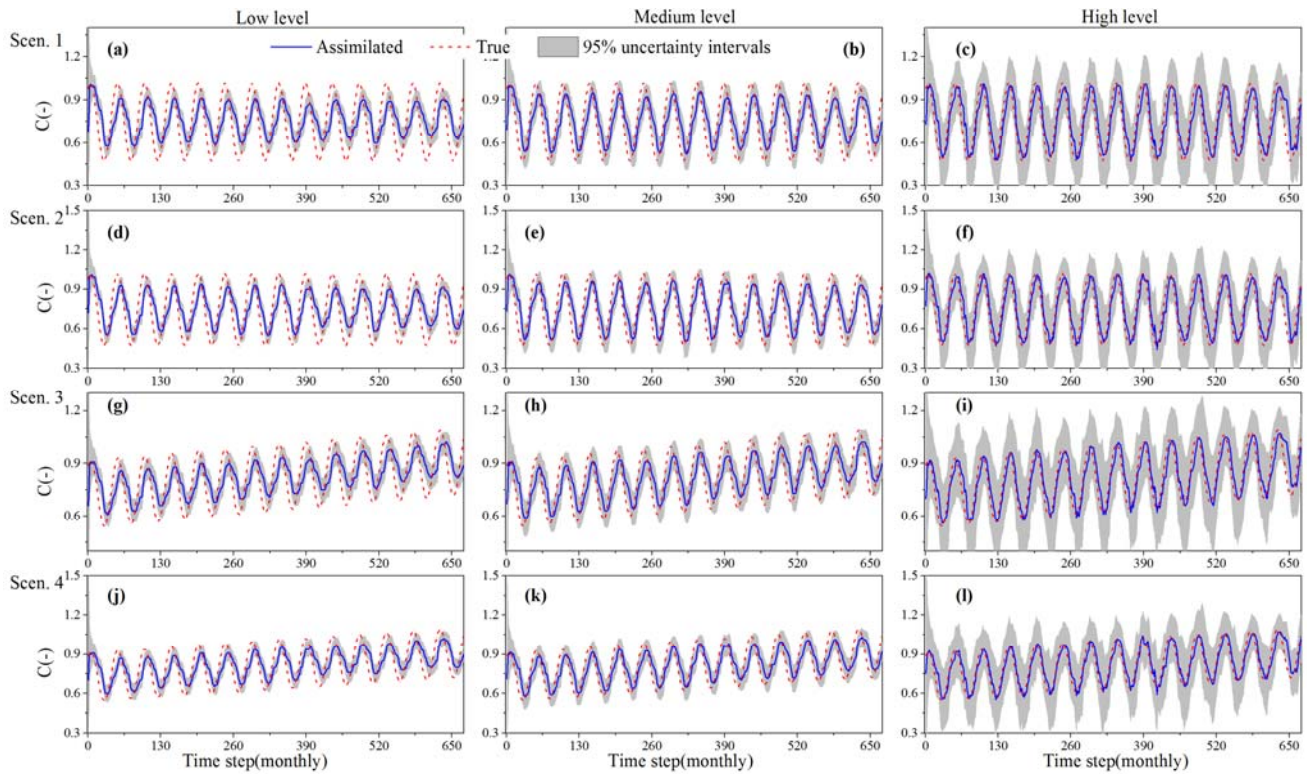
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**Figure 1.** Location and mean monthly precipitation and runoff from 1956 to 2000 of the Wudinghe basin.



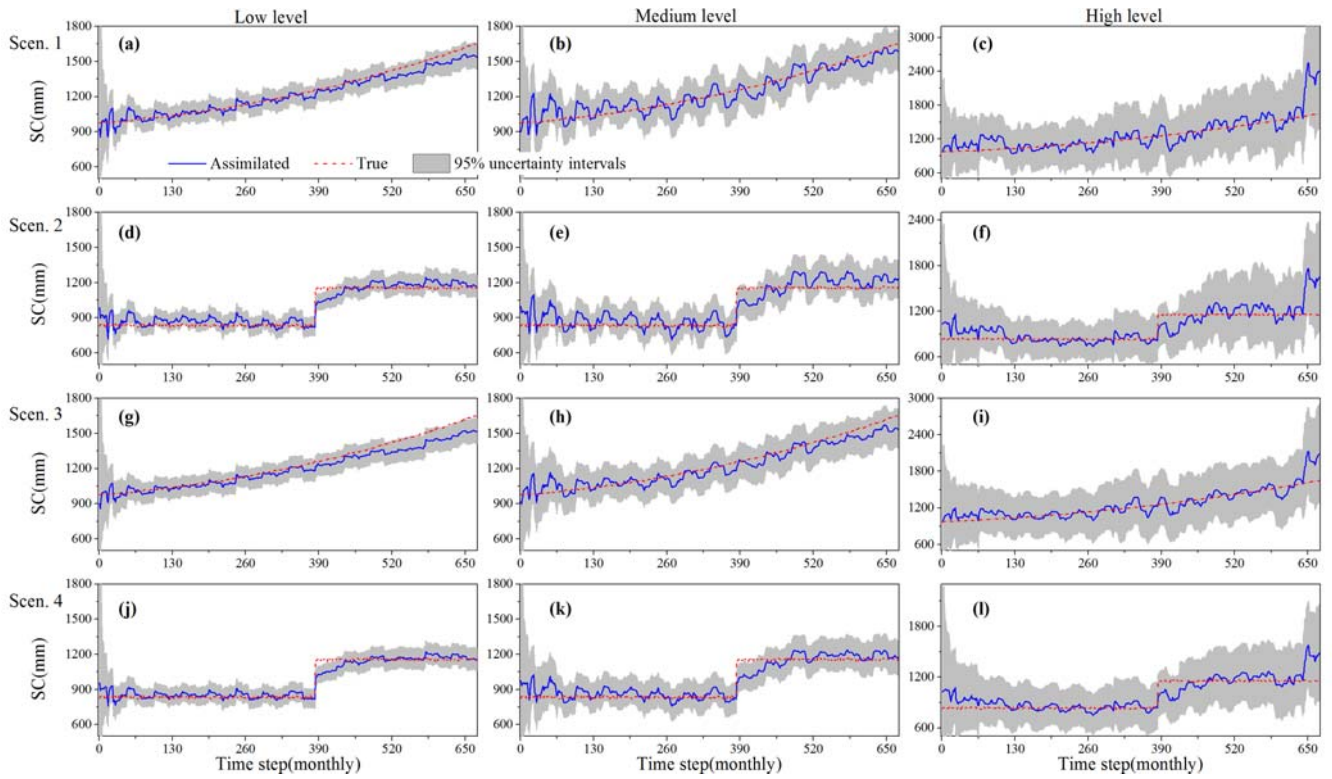
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**Figure. 2.** Location and mean monthly precipitation and runoff from 1980 to 2013 of the Tongtianhe basin.



**Figure 3.** Comparison between estimated  $C$  and its true values for various parameter changes under different uncertainty levels. The grey areas represent the 95% prediction uncertainty intervals.

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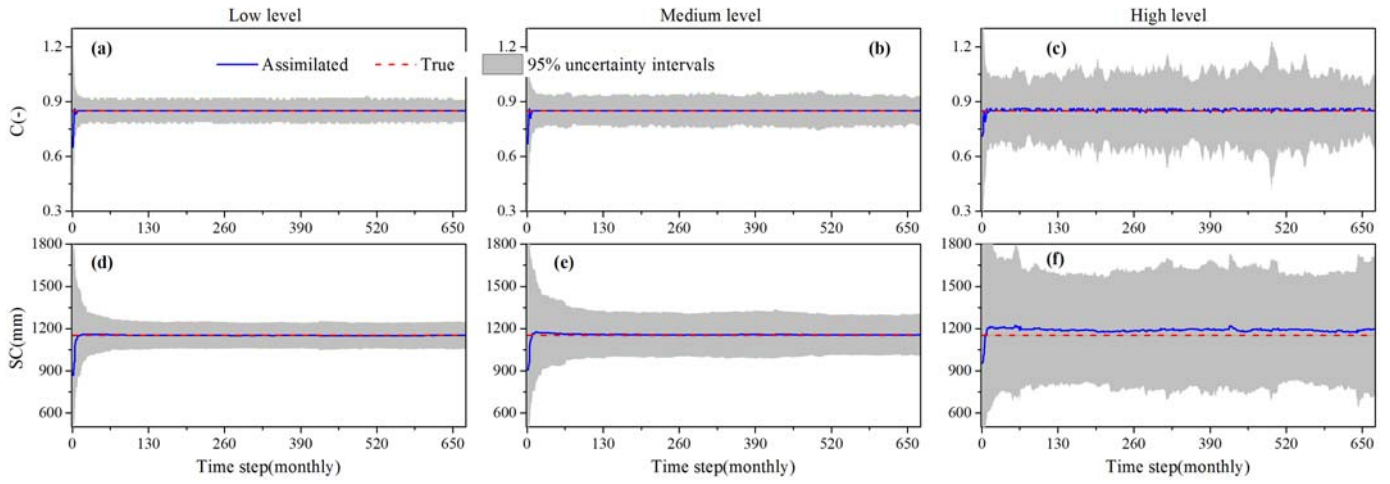


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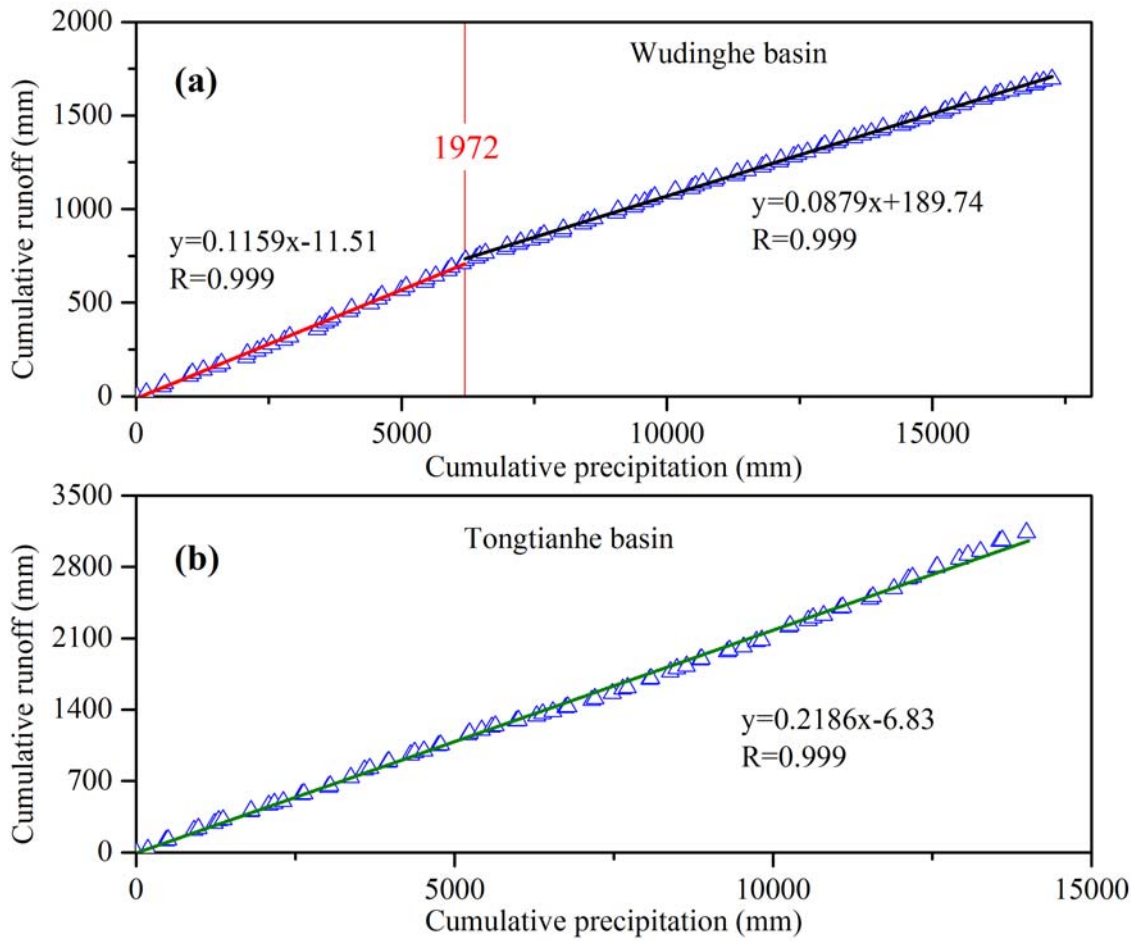
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**Figure. 4.** Comparison between estimated *SC* and its true values for various parameter changes under different uncertainty levels. The grey areas represent the 95% prediction uncertainty intervals.



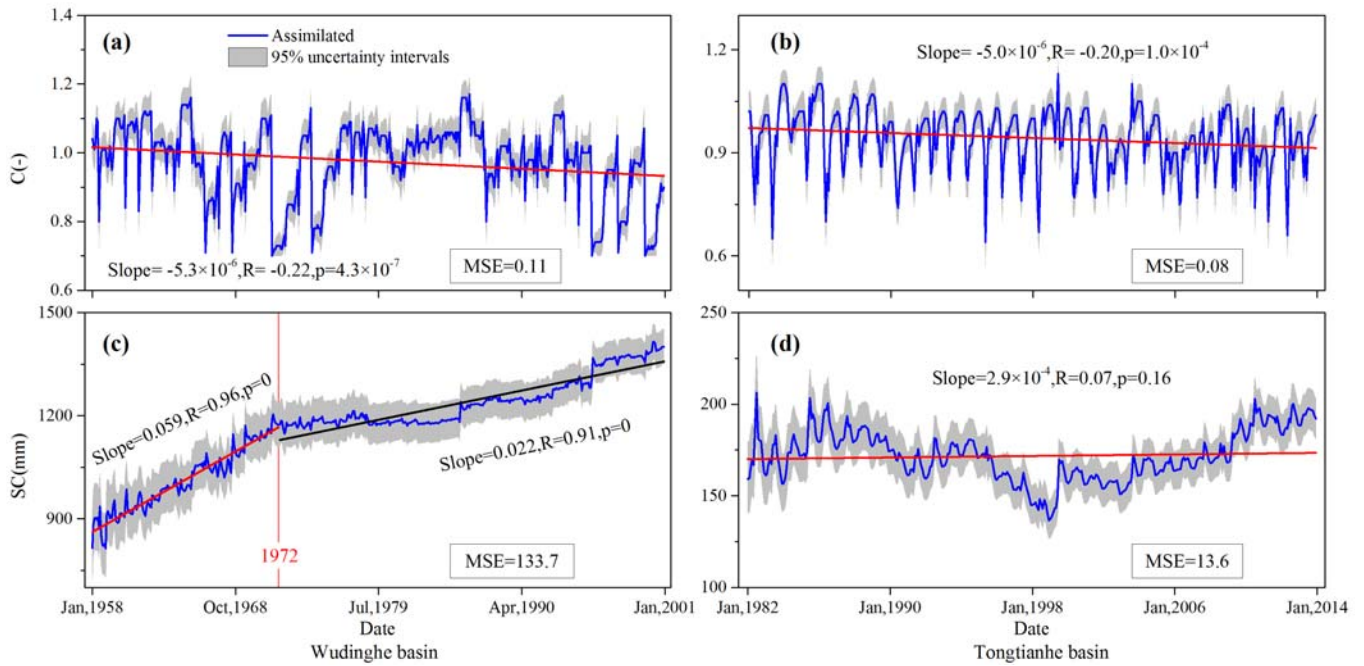
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**Figure. 5.** Estimations of time-invariant  $C$  and  $SC$  under different uncertainty levels. The grey areas represent the 95% prediction uncertainty intervals.



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**Figure 6.** Double mass curve between monthly runoff and precipitation for Wudinghe basin within the period of 1958-2000 (top figure) and Tongtianhe basin within the period of 1982-2013 (bottom), respectively.



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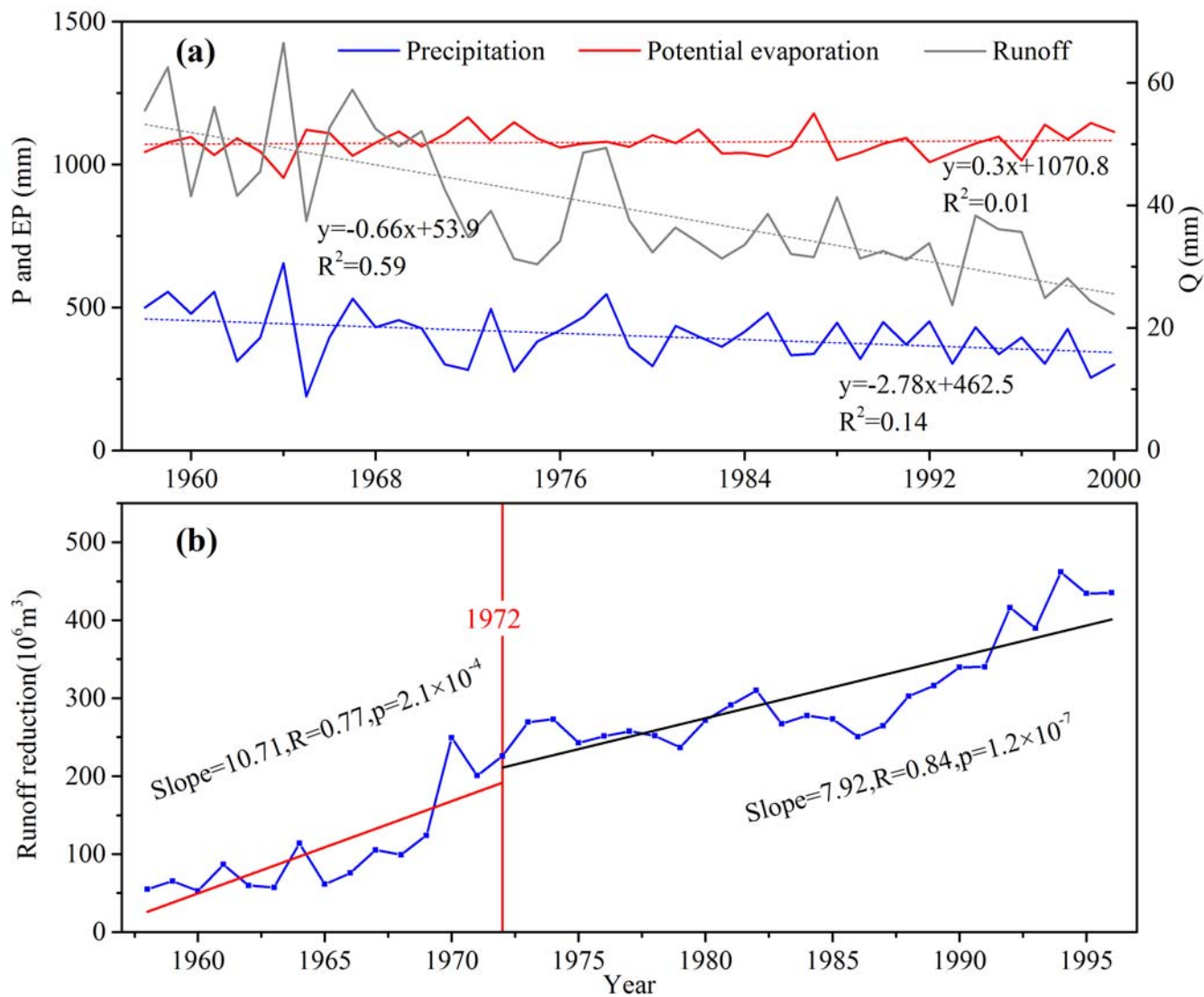
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**Figure 7.** Estimated parameter values of  $C$  and  $SC$  for (1) Wudinghe basin within the period of 1958-2000, and (2) Tongtianhe basin within the period of 1982-2013. The grey areas represent the 95% prediction uncertainty intervals.

Note that the MSE denotes the standard deviation of the estimated parameter values.





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**Figure 8.** (a) Yearly precipitation, potential evaporation and runoff in Wudinghe basin during the period of 1958-2000; (b) Runoff reduction in Wudinghe basin caused by all the soil and water conservation measures, i.e., land terracing, tree and grass plantation, check dam and reservoir construction for the period of 1958- 1996. Note that the data is from Wang and Fan (2003) and is only available from 1956 to 1996.