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Toward a multivariate reanalysis of the North Atlantic ocean biogeochemistry during 1998–2006 based on the assimilation of SeaWiFS chlorophyll data

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Abstract

Today, the routine assimilation of satellite data into operational models of the ocean circulation is mature enough to enable the production of global reanalyses describing the ocean circulation variability during the past decades. The expansion of the “re-analysis” concept from ocean physics to biogeochemistry is a timely challenge that motivates the present study. The objective of this paper is to investigate the potential benefits of assimilating satellite-estimated chlorophyll data into a basin-scale three-dimensional coupled physical-biogeochemical model of the North-Atlantic. The aim is on one hand to improve forecasts of ocean biogeochemical properties and on the other hand to define a methodology for producing data-driven climatologies based on coupled physical-biogeochemical modelling. A simplified variant of the Kalman filter is used to assimilate ocean color data during a 9 year-long period. In this frame, two experiences are carried out, with and without anamorphic transformations of the state vector variables. Data assimilation efficiency is assessed with respect to the assimilated data set, the nitrate World Ocean Atlas database and a derived climatology. Along the simulation period, the non-linear assimilation scheme clearly improves the surface chlorophyll concentrations analysis and forecast, especially in the North Atlantic bloom region. Nitrate concentration forecasts are also improved thanks to the assimilation of ocean color data while this improvement is limited to the upper layer of the water column, in agreement with recent related literature. This feature is explained by the weak correlation taken into account by the assimilation between surface phytoplankton and nitrate concentration deeper than 50 m. The assesment of the non-linear assimilation experiments indicates that the proposed methodology provides the skeleton of an assimilative system suitable for reanalysing the ocean biogeochemistry based on ocean color data.

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1 Introduction

Monitoring the evolution of the marine biogeochemistry with relevant accuracy and resolution is a key requirement to better understand the ocean response to accelerating global change and the consequent effects on the carbon cycle and living resources.

Unfortunately, the signature of the oceanic biogeochemical functioning, such as the regional patterns, vertical extension and timing of primary production at basin-scale, is still poorly known as a result of sparse historical data (Garcia et al., 2006) and the incomplete deployment of dedicated observing systems (Claustre et al., 2010a, b).

While it is conceivable to characterize the biogeochemical properties of a limited zone in the coastal domain through field measurements only (oceanographic cruises, autonomous sensors etc.), it seems unrealistic to obtain spatially and temporally synoptic descriptions of vast ocean basins using similar approaches in the foreseeable future. Ocean color sensors from space are the main source of global biogeochemical data available today. These sensors enable the observation of optical properties of the upper ocean such as the water leaving radiance in the visible spectrum, which can be related to the sea-surface chlorophyll concentration. Today, more than one decade of global ocean color data have been collected (Wilson, 2010), starting with the “proof-of-concept” Coastal Zone Color Scanner mission and more recently with several missions such as MERIS/Envisat, MODIS/Aqua-Terra, and SeaWiFS (Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-View). In spite of the invaluable merit of ocean color data, these sensors do not measure (directly or indirectly) other biogeochemical components such as nutrients (e.g. nitrates, ammonium) or trophic species. In addition, measurements are limited to the ocean surface, while the only source for deep observations is through the deployment of in situ sensors (Johnson et al., 2009).

An alternative approach to obtain depictions of the biogeochemical oceanic state is to use large-scale coupled physical-biogeochemical models (CPBM). The concept behind these models is to advect and diffuse biogeochemical tracers consistently with the ocean circulation as simulated by a numerical model solving the Navier-Stokes

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equations. A variety of biological formulations (either empirical or mechanistic) are used to update biogeochemical concentrations in the coupled model. One of the key assets of CPBMs is their ability to provide information on the coupled system with a high temporal and spatial resolution in 3-D. A recognized weakness of CPBMs, however, is the approximate modelling of processes governing exchanges between the biogeochemical compartments. These processes are mostly dependent on the level of complexity of the model formulation, while in reality these interactions are time and space-dependent as a lot of local factors may interfere in it (Doney et al., 1999). This is an obvious source of errors in the parameterization of the biogeochemical model and resulting model simulations.

The present study aims to combine ocean color satellite measurements with a CPBM to improve the representation of the biogeochemistry and its variability, extracting the best features from the model and the observations while reducing their respective weaknesses. Since satellite data are thought to describe the near-surface biogeochemistry with some faith, it is assumed here that the CPBM has enough skill to extrapolate the surface observation onto non-observed biogeochemical properties (especially at depth), in agreement with the underlying ocean physics and the biogeochemical principles of the model. Practically, this is achieved by assimilating satellite chlorophyll data into a CPBM to increase the realism of the biogeochemical state variables. This approach has many similarities with the philosophy of altimeter data assimilation into dynamical models, which aims at inverting the signature of the surface dynamic topography into estimates of its internal dynamics (e.g. Fukumori et al., 1995; Brasseur et al., 1999).

Today, the routine assimilation of satellite data (altimetry, sea surface temperature) into operational forecasting models of the ocean physics is mature enough to provide relevant information on non-observed parameters such as salinity, temperature and velocity fields (Cummings et al., 2009). This capacity has been demonstrated by the production of global reanalyses of ocean physics to reconstruct the variability of the circulation during the past decades (Stammer et al., 2010).

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The expansion of the “reanalysis” concept from physics to biogeochemistry is a timely challenge that motivates the present study. The sequential assimilation of a biogeochemical data set into CPBMs has not however yet reached the same level of maturity as for the physics, in spite of a number of successful studies on the subject (Carmillet et al., 2001; Natvik et al., 2003; Ford et al., 2012). A comprehensive review of biological data assimilation experiments, both sequential and variational, can be found in Gregg et al. (2009).

Several specific difficulties appear when considering the assimilation problem into CPBMs. Firstly, the measurement of top-of-atmosphere water-leaving radiance usually exhibit large differences when compared to above-sea-surface equivalent values, as a result of strong interactions between visible light and the atmosphere (Lavender et al., 2005); this issue partly explains why most of the pioneer studies dealing with ocean color data assimilation were first carried out using pseudo-data (extracted from a model) rather than with real data (Carmillet et al., 2001; Natvik et al., 2001; Simon and Bertino, 2009). Secondly, it is often difficult to use the ocean color information to control the effect of errors in the ocean physics that cascade onto the biogeochemistry (Béal et al., 2010). Thirdly, in general the response of 3-D biogeochemical models to external forcings and parameterizations is highly nonlinear, making the traditional assimilation framework inappropriate to develop these applications (Doron et al., 2011). In the context of multivariate state estimation, where not only the observed variables are impacted by the assimilation process, these nonlinearities can lead to failure of the method where corrections applied to the non-observed variables are unrealistic (Nerger and Gregg, 2007; Gregg, 2008). Finally, global ocean circulation models require important numerical resources and are generally designed to be run on the most powerful computers dedicated to oceanographic research or operational systems. The coupling of global and biogeochemical models requires the advection and diffusion of supplementary state variables which increase the numerical needs such that the CPBM becomes hard to handle from a practical point of view. This is especially true

for ensemble-based methods where the model need to be run $\sim O(100)$ times to obtain statistically consistent ensembles of simulations.

Considering recent advances made in the field of non-linear data assimilation (e.g. Bertino et al., 2003; Bocquet et al., 2010; Brankart et al., 2012), and the need to develop the next generation of operational ocean monitoring systems in the frame of the MyOcean project, the aims of the present study are (i) to identify the best possible implementation of a multivariate, ocean color assimilative system based on state-of-the-art methods and to assess its performances in a pre-operational configuration, (ii) to produce a multi-year reanalysis of the North Atlantic biogeochemistry using SeaWiFS satellite chlorophyll data from the period 1998–2006, that could eventually supersede the biogeochemical climatologies available today, and (iii) to investigate more specifically how non-observed variables (temporally, spatially and for non-observed variable e.g. nutrients at depth) are improved by assimilation of ocean color data into the model.

The strategy adopted for this work relies on assimilation of the SeaWiFS data set because this mission consists of the longest time-series of ocean color data to date (September 1997 to December 2010). The model domain is the North Atlantic, which exhibits highly contrasted seasonal and spatial biogeochemical behaviour as well as many ocean circulation features found in other ocean basins. In order to make the assimilation tractable from a computational point of view, a simplified version of the Singular Evolutive Extended Kalman (SEEK) filter (Pham et al., 1998) has been chosen while anamorphic transformations as developed by Béal et al. (2010) are used to deal with the nonlinear and non gaussian behavior of the CPBMs. Validation of the reanalysis is performed using independent data gathered from the World Ocean Atlas 2009 (WOA09) nitrate data set.

The paper is organized as follows: Sect. 2 describes the model setup, observations and the assimilation method implemented in the assimilative system; Sect. 3 presents the experimental setup of the reanalysis system; Sect. 4 discusses the results of the 1998–2006 reanalysis, showing the impact of the assimilation on a selection

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of observed and non-observed variables; finally, an assessment of the results is presented in Sect. 5 before drawing conclusions.

2 Data, models and assimilation method

The coupled physical-biogeochemical model and assimilation framework considered in this paper is inherited from previous modelling studies of the North Atlantic biogeochemistry (Berline et al., 2007; Ourmières et al., 2009) and related assimilation developments (Béal et al., 2010; Doron et al., 2011). In the next section the main features of the modelling system developed for ocean color assimilation are briefly described.

2.1 The coupled physical-biogeochemical model and associated modelling errors

The physical component of the coupled model is simulated using the NEMO code (Barnier et al., 2006) implemented in the North Atlantic basin at $1/4^\circ$ horizontal resolution, which is considered as “eddy-permitting” in the mid-latitudes. NEMO is a primitive equation model based on the free surface formulation. The prognostic variables are the three-dimensional velocity fields, temperature and salinity. The model domain covers the North Atlantic basin from 20° S to 80° N and from 98° W to 23° E (Fig. 1, left). Buffer zones are specified at the Southern, Northern and Eastern (Mediterranean) boundaries. Vertical discretization involves 45 geopotential levels, with grid spacing that increases from 6 m at the surface to 250 m at the bottom. The model is forced by ERA-INTERIM atmospheric fields from the ECMWF, using bulk formulations as proposed by Large and Yeager (2004).

The biogeochemical component of the coupled model is the LOBSTER model (Levy et al., 2005) in the North Atlantic setup described by Ourmières et al. (2009). The LOBSTER formulation is nitrogen-based and contains six prognostic variables: nitrate, ammonium, phytoplankton, zooplankton, detritus and semilabile dissolved organic matter

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effects of many different sources of error in a bunch, rather than assuming that one particular aspect of the model (e.g. simplified biological parameterizations) is responsible for the model/data misfits.

The ocean color data are assimilated using a Singular Evolutive Extended Kalman (SEEK) filter (Pham et al., 1998) implemented in the coupled model using the SESAM assimilation platform (Brankart et al., 2012). This tool is used to perform all matrix operations required by the assimilation scheme, such as the computation of Empirical Orthogonal Functions (EOF) of the reduced-order filter, the innovation vector and the analysis update. A reduced-rank Kalman filter with static error sub-space (Bresseur and Verron, 2006) is chosen here because its low computational burden enables making extended experiments compared to ensemble-based methods (e.g. EnKF) which require the explicit computation of ensemble evolution. Nevertheless, the upgrade of the assimilation scheme toward a fully explicit ensemble scheme will be straightforward in forthcoming applications.

The state vector entering the assimilation procedure is composed of all prognostic biogeochemical state variables of the 3-D model grid. This means that a multivariate analysis update is computed, where all observed and non-observed components of the biogeochemical model are modified. In addition, the SEEK filter is implemented using two different versions of the analysis step: in the first version, the analysis is performed using the original model state variables; in the second version, anamorphosis transformations are applied to each separate variable of the state vector prior to the analysis step, and the corresponding inverse transformation is applied after analysis to restart the model integration in the original model space. This aspect is identified as a key ingredient of the assimilation scheme that contributes to the efficiency of the procedure. When the analysis includes anamorphic transformations, the marginal probability density functions (PDFs) of the forecast variables are transformed into PDFs that are close to gaussian. We will not enter into the mathematical details here, as this aspect is already fully documented elsewhere (e.g. Bertino et al., 2003; Béal et al., 2010; Brankart et al., 2012). The parameterization of the anamorphic transformation is equivalent to

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scheme. This experiment is referred hereafter as the “linear” run. For the second run, the anamorphosis transformation is applied to the state vector, the observation vector and the error covariance matrix. This second experiment will be referred hereafter as the “anamorphosis” or “non-linear” run.

5 3.2 Specific setup of the assimilation system

The practical set up of the assimilation method is a critical step of the present reanalysis system. Numerous parameters enter the analysis computation, influencing the performance of the reanalysis experiments. However, as discussed previously, large-scale CPBMs requires important computational resources preventing an exhaustive exploration of the sensitivity of the assimilation process on each parameter (including their mutual interplay). We describe here below the strategy chosen to prescribe the key parameters of the reanalysis system.

The EOF basis entering the computation of the SEEK analysis is obtained from the free run variability. For each analysis date, a specific set of EOFs is computed using a temporal ensemble of state vectors sampled from the free model trajectory with a 2-day frequency. This “deterministic” ensemble is constructed as follows: for a given day of the year, all model states falling into the 2-month period surrounding the assimilation date are selected in the period 1999 to 2005 covered by the free simulation. Thus, every temporal ensemble contains 210 members that are used to compute the EOF basis and finally the error covariance matrix. The EOF basis is then truncated to the 20 dominant modes to perform the state vector update.

Regarding the observations, the SeaWiFS chlorophyll concentration maps are converted into phytoplankton concentration maps using the Chl/N ratio computed by the coupled model. These phytoplankton distributions are then assimilated in the coupled model and considered as representative of phytoplankton concentration in the upper first layer of the water column. The error associated with each distinct observation pixel is set to 30 % of the considered data, in agreement with the commonly used SeaWiFS error estimates for case 1 waters.

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4 Results

In this section, we examine the effects of the assimilation on the variability of the biogeochemical properties in space and time, comparing the linear and anamorphosis runs with the free model simulation. The performances of the assimilative system are first evaluated in terms of ocean surface properties, before investigating how the assimilated ocean color data modify the distribution of nutrients in the sub-surface layers.

4.1 Surface patterns of chlorophyll and nitrate concentrations

Figure 2 shows the surface chlorophyll maps obtained after time-averaging the simulation results over successive 60-day periods during the year 2006 (first row: day 1 to 60; second row: day 61 to 120; etc.). Figure 3 is organized the same way but for the surface nitrate distributions. These maps are shown for: (a) the free run, (b) the SeaWiFS data or climatology, (c) the linear run and (d) the anamorphosis run. The free run shows some significant differences with the SeaWiFS data (Fig. 2). The chlorophyll bloom starts slightly later in the free run than observed (second row, corresponding to March–April). An elongated structure centered at $\sim 35^\circ$ N appears along the southern flank of the Gulf Stream, while it is not present in the data (third row, corresponding to May–June). Inversely SeaWiFS data show for the same period an increase of chlorophyll concentration at latitudes greater than 45° N, corresponding to the beginning of the spring bloom, while concentration values are much lower in the free simulation. The available nutrients are rapidly consumed (Fig. 3, third and fourth rows, i.e. May–August) inducing a strong increase of the chlorophyll concentration. During the peak of the chlorophyll bloom in the free run, concentrations seem to be overestimated at high latitudes although the order of magnitude remains correct. When all nitrates are consumed, the chlorophyll concentration decreases quickly (Fig. 2), while the SeaWiFS data exhibit larger values that persist later until the summer season.

To summarize the comparison between the free simulation and satellite chlorophyll data, the modelled chlorophyll bloom starts too late, chlorophyll concentrations

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increase quickly to reach values overestimating data before decreasing rapidly. It is important to note here that, in spite of these differences, the main features of the annual biogeochemical cycle are well described (chlorophyll spring bloom, oligotrophic subtropical gyre, upwelling along the Mauritanian coast). This is a crucial point since the free run is actually sampled to compute the EOF basis used in the assimilation scheme.

Considering the runs with data assimilation, the bloom starts almost in phase with the observations, while the elongated pattern mentioned above in the Gulf Stream area is not present anymore (Fig. 2; columns c and d; third row). During the bloom, the model values are in good agreement with the observations both in the linear and anamorphosis situations (third and fourth row). However, the model values are still underestimated on average by the end of the year, as shown above for the free run. To understand why the assimilation efficiency is weaker on chlorophyll concentrations by the end of the year, one should consider the way the error covariance matrix is specified. The error covariance matrix is computed using free run model outputs on a 2 months period running window over years. As the free run variability is weaker than the variability revealed by observations on a 2 months period, the EOF basis is not able to capture the actual variability of the ecosystem in an efficient manner. This issue is related to the fixed-based variant of the SEEK filter chosen to assimilate data and could be attenuated by increasing the temporal windows during which the EOF are computed. However, one must be aware that it could lead to erroneous states corrections as it will include in the EOF computation numerous state having an extremely low probability to happen. This strong seasonal variation in the spreading of the non-stochastic ensemble used here is illustrated by Fig. 13 of Brankart et al. (2012).

From a global point of view, surface nitrate concentrations as modelled by the linear run (Fig. 3c) clearly differs from the climatology, the free run and the anamorphosis simulations along a seasonal cycle. The minimum surface nitrate concentrations reached after the bloom remain significantly higher than the climatology, suggesting that the multivariate linear analysis fails to estimate coherent surface nitrate patterns.

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In addition, localized patches of unrealistically high concentrations of nitrate appear in the subtropical zone (Fig. 3c), most likely as a consequence of the multivariate analysis scheme. In strongly contrasted zones indeed, such as in front of the Senegal Rivers (15° N–25° W) where upwelling and nitrate inputs govern the biogeochemical dynamics, erroneous corrections applied to the non-observed variables (e.g. nitrate concentrations) induce spurious effects on the phytoplankton growth. This results in localized spots of high chlorophyll concentration appearing in the linear run (Fig. 2c; fourth row; 0°–15° N), while these patterns are not present in the other runs or in the data. These patterns do not appear in the anamorphosis run either, suggesting that the corrections applied to the non-observed variables are more realistic when using a non-linear assimilation scheme.

The impact of the assimilation scheme is more difficult to assess in coastal waters; this is not critical in the frame of this study since the CPBM model is not specifically designed to describe the small-scale ocean circulation in the coastal zone. For example, river plumes are simply considered as “pure water” runoffs without extra nutrient inputs. However, these specific processes are most relevant in the context of coastal ocean color data assimilation experiments (Fontana et al., 2009, 2010; Hu et al., 2011).

4.2 Seasonal and interannual variability of the surface chlorophyll

After having investigated the annual cycle of the surface biogeochemical properties of a particular year (2006), we extend the diagnostics to focus on the seasonal-to-interannual variability of the primary production between 1998 and 2007. Figure 4 shows the temporal evolution of the horizontally averaged chlorophyll concentration in the first layer of the coupled model during the simulation period. The data and the model outputs are plotted after time-averaging over 16-day periods. The temporal evolution is shown for 8 biogeochemical provinces adapted from the Longhurst (1995) classification, as defined in Fig. 1.

The green fringe under the SeaWiFS curve is an indicator of the satellite data spatial coverage in the considered region. The fringe thickness vanishes when the considered

region is fully covered by satellite data. Conversely, the fringe thickness increases linearly with respect to the number of missing observations, approaching 100 % of the observation value when almost no data are available. When no data at all are present, no dots and no fringe are drawn. The thickness of the green fringe can thus be interpreted as an observation error index associated to the lack of data.

In region #1, the free run almost systematically overestimates the maximum peak of chlorophyll that occurs during the bloom period (late spring/early summer). This bias is efficiently corrected by the assimilation system, both in the linear and non-linear experiments. Unfortunately, during other seasons the number of chlorophyll observations is sometimes too low (as shown by the large green fringe) to enable efficient corrections of the model estimates. As an example in 2000, the satellite wasn't able to collect any ocean color measurement in region #1 during several months in winter. Similar conclusions can be drawn in other high latitude regions, e.g. in region #2 that includes the Baltic and North seas where the seasonal signal looks very weak. A first conclusion that can be drawn for these regions is that the maximum chlorophyll concentrations during the bloom are efficiently constrained in the range defined by the satellite data. Another point to be underlined is the difference between the linear and non-linear runs which is generally small, suggesting that the multivariate corrections have similar effects in both experiments.

Region #3 exhibits a seasonal cycle in the SeaWiFS data, with well-marked peaks of chlorophyll in the early spring period. This cycle is reproduced by the free run, but with maximum chlorophyll values that remain much below the measurements. Nevertheless an overestimation of the chlorophyll content by the SeaWiFS data set cannot be excluded in these coastal waters, notwithstanding the rather poor performance of the CPBM for such coastal areas as discussed previously. The non-linear run slightly increases the chlorophyll concentrations toward the measured values. This is not the case for the linear run, probably because the temporal dynamics is completely modified as a result of strong increments on nitrate concentrations (see Fig. 3c, third and fourth row).

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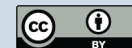
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computed in the free, linear and anamorphosis runs. The comparison is based on 410 model snapshots and more than 1.9×10^7 SeaWiFS individual pixel data. Figure 5 shows the probability density function (PDF) of the $\log(C_{\text{SeaWiFS}}/C_{\text{model}})$ function where C_{SeaWiFS} and C_{model} are the SeaWiFS and model concentration, respectively. It appears that the 8-day forecast of the free run is slightly biased, with an overestimation of the chlorophyll content by the model. This general behavior is mainly due to the overestimation of primary production at high latitudes during the spring bloom. The linear run shows a significant improvement of this diagnostics by shifting the PDF closer to 0 and reducing its dispersion. The assimilation impact is further improved when considering the non-linear run. Indeed, while the non-linear PDF is equivalent to the linear PDF for extreme values (log error lower than -2 and higher than 2), the PDF maximum is now almost perfectly centered around 0.

We show here that the prediction capacity of the model over a period of 8 days is improved with the assimilation system. In the case where the CPBM would have completely “forgotten” the increment from the previous assimilation step, the PDF as defined above would be slightly modified between the free and assimilation run. Conversely, the persistence of the analysis increment between two assimilation steps is an indication that the forecast skill of the system is improved in the assimilation run. More generally, Fig. 5 illustrates the benefit that can be expected in terms of forecast skill by assimilating ocean color data into a basin-scale CPBM.

4.4 Comparison with independent in situ nitrate measurements

In this section, we investigate how the assimilation is able to propagate the observed information to non-observed quantities such as surface and sub-surface nutrients. The nitrate model compartment is chosen here because in situ nitrate observations have been collected with a good coverage in the North Atlantic during the period of reanalysis. These diagnostics will provide further indications that the multivariate scheme is well suited for combining ocean color observations with CPBM predictions.

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The WOA09 data set was used to objectively evaluate the reanalysis of nutrient distributions. For comparison, only data measured in deep sea waters (i.e. bottom model topography deeper than 500 m) were kept in the process. This selection was made to ensure an objective determination of the method efficiency since the CPBM used here is not well designed for shallow waters. Figure 6 shows the in situ data available in the WOA09 data set during the simulation period (depth lower than 10 m). It is apparent that the data set covers the North Atlantic area well, permitting a valuable assessment of the method efficiency in the frame of this realistic experiment.

A histogram of the $\log(C_{\text{in situ}}/C_{\text{model}})$ function where $C_{\text{in situ}}$ and C_{model} are the in situ and colocalized model concentrations is shown in Fig. 7 for the surface data (depth lower than 10 m) represented on Fig. 6. It is important to note that the nitrate model concentrations used for the comparison correspond to model forecasts from day 1 to day 8 (actually between two assimilation steps). This histogram, based on 1759 measurements, is shown for the free run, the linear run, the non-linear run and the WOA09 climatology. The free run shows a centered function while some extreme mismatches of both over- and under-estimations appear, resulting in a RMS of 0.82. The histogram of the linear run shows that the number of instances where the model underestimates the measured concentration is reduced by the assimilation process. By contrast, the number of instances where the model overestimates the observations is increased. In this configuration, the RMS of the linear run is 0.87, attesting that the assimilation of satellite chlorophyll did not help to improve the nitrate representation. The result is objectively different when considering the non-linear assimilation scheme as overestimations remain more or less unchanged compared to the free run while the underestimations are significantly reduced, yielding an RMS value of 0.72. This result demonstrates that, in terms of nitrate, the forecast was improved by the assimilation of satellite chlorophyll data.

A more interesting point to be underlined is that the histogram of the climatology is very similar to the non-linear one, with a RMS of 0.66. The difference between the climatology and the data from which the climatology was computed may appear

surprising. There are several reasons that could explain this difference. Firstly, only a limited number of data included in the WOA09 data set were used to compute the WOA09 climatology as a result of numerous data quality control tests (e.g. range and gradient check; statistical check; subjective flagging; see Garcia et al., 2006) to eliminate questionable data from the climatology computation. Secondly, the temporal binning of data used to compute the climatology at monthly timescale, intrinsically induces temporal representativeness errors. The fact that the histogram of the non-linear run looks very similar to the climatology histogram indicates that the differences that may occur between the non-linear run and the in situ data are mainly due to questionable data. Therefore, this comparison should be more significant when considering only confident data.

Following the same methodology, an identical RMS index was computed for several running depth intervals in the euphotic layer. Considered intervals are 0–5, 5–10, 10–50, 30–70, 50–90, 70–110, 90–130, 110–150 and 130–170 m. Figure 8 shows the mean of the considered depth interval with respect to the corresponding RMS where all data entered the computation (a), and where only data higher than $1 \text{ mmol}(\text{NO}_3) \text{ m}^{-3}$ entered the computation (b). It appears that the assimilation reduces the error of the free run in the 0–5 and 5–10 intervals for the non-linear run and only in the first 0–5 m for the linear run (Fig. 8a). For the deeper part of the euphotic layer, the results are more contrasted and the non-linear assimilation process even increases the error at some depth intervals. Results are improved when considering only measured data greater than $1 \text{ mmol}(\text{NO}_3) \text{ m}^{-3}$ (Fig. 8b). In this case, the RMS profile in the non-linear situation is close to the climatology throughout the water column up to the 130–170 m interval. In the 0–5 m interval, the RMS is outstandingly reduced from 0.75 to 0.31 thanks to the assimilation process. The linear run reduces the error of the free run in the first two depth intervals, but increases it almost everywhere in the euphotic layer. There are several reasons to explain why the assimilation process performs better for observed values greater than $1 \text{ mmol}(\text{NO}_3) \text{ m}^{-3}$. Indeed, these data are generally measured outside the oligotrophic sub-tropical gyre, where the low temporal variability

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of biogeochemical concentrations for the free run (used to compute the EOFs) does not allow the assimilation system to correct strong differences between model and data. Secondly, data lower than $1 \text{ mmol}(\text{NO}_3) \text{ m}^{-3}$ are also measured in strong nutrient concentration gradients (around 45° N) where a well-reproduced ocean circulation is essential to obtain satisfying biogeochemical modelling. As the physics was not constrained by data assimilation, these transition zones may not be located at their exact position, preventing the assimilation system to perform correctly.

Figure 9 shows the spatial distribution of the $\log(C_{\text{in situ}}/C_{\text{model}})$ function computed for all data of the WOA09 data set included in the 0–10 m depths interval. Here, white dots indicate a weak difference between the model (or climatology) and the observations, blue dots indicate overestimation by the model, and red dots indicate underestimation by the model.

Maps are plotted for the free run (a), the linear run (b), the non-linear run (c) and the climatology (d). Maps were divided into 5 frames to make the discussion of the results clearer. At high-latitude regions (frame 1), the nitrate concentration remains roughly unchanged in the different experiments (a, b, c) as a consequence of the lack of ocean color data in this part of the ocean. The nutrient-enriched area (frame 2) shows the most significant differences between the each experiment. While the nitrate concentrations are underestimated and overestimated by (resp.) the free (a) and the linear run (b), the non-linear run (c) shows a clear improvement. In this region, we can see that the non-linear run performs as well as the climatology (d) both in terms of magnitude and error bias. In the western part of the subtropical gyre (frame 3), results remain unchanged for the various experiments, as previously observed for the chlorophyll variable. In the eastern part of the subtropical gyre (frame 4), the situation is the same except in the region of the Northwest African upwelling (25° W – 15° N) where nutrient inputs into the superficial layers of the water column induce a rather strong biogeochemical response captured by the EOF decomposition. This explains the good behavior of the non-linear run in that part of the ocean, performing even better than the climatology (d). In the Gulf of Mexico (frame 5), none of the modelled situations or

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climatology perform well showing that even the WOA climatology is not designed to fit the biogeochemical ocean state in coastal regions.

4.5 Assimilation impact on sub-surface biogeochemical description

To understand the assimilation impact on the biogeochemical variables in the water column, it is interesting to consider a zonal vertical section at 58°N from 60°W to 10°W. This vertical section is plotted for chlorophyll (Fig. 10) and nitrate concentrations (Fig. 11), showing the free (a), linear (b) and non-linear (c) runs. These sections were produced during a chlorophyll bloom (30 days temporal binning between 1 June 2006 and 1 July 2006) as previously stated, this period is the one offering the best assimilation efficiency. It is apparent that the vertical distributions of chlorophyll keep a similar shape (high in the euphotic layer, low deeper) even after data assimilation whatever method used.

For each assimilation situation, chlorophyll concentrations are also bounded by realistic values, relatively close to those of the free run. However, this is not the case when considering nitrate concentrations on the same vertical section (Fig. 11). Indeed, the linear run (b) does not follow the vertical distribution obtained in the other situations (a and c) and exhibits larger values, as it was already visible on Fig. 3 for the first layer of the model. In order to understand the assimilation mechanism responsible for this behaviour, one must consider the correlations specified in the analysis scheme between observed and non-observed variables. Figure 12 for instance shows the correlation of the ensemble on the geographic location 40°W–58°N between the surface phytoplankton (proxy of chlorophyll in our study) and the nitrate concentration along the water column for 1 June 2006. The linear case is represented as black dots while the non-linear one is represented as red dots. The linear run shows extremely high negative correlations in the first two layers of the model, while the correlation rapidly decreases as depth increases. In the deeper part of the water column, the correlation remains stable around -0.2 , attesting that the surface phytoplankton concentration is correlated to nitrate even below the euphotic layers. Nevertheless, these correlations

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are not a sufficient proof of the method efficiency as we previously showed that nitrate description was not improved in the deeper part of the water column by the linear assimilation process. When looking at the non-linear correlation profile, we see that a significant correlation (between -0.6 and -0.8) up to 50 m depth is visible while it rapidly decreases to approximately 0 below this depth. This 50 m depth is the one for which the method was proved to be efficient for nitrate data (Fig. 8) and is also the typical depth of the euphotic layers, as visible on Figs. 10 and 11. Therefore mitigated performances of the data assimilation system below the euphotic layer appear to be related to weak correlations between surface phytoplankton and nitrate concentration deeper in the water column. We can thus argue that the correlation profile showed here between surface phytoplankton concentration and nitrate concentration is more realistic when using an anamorphosis transformations (high correlation in the euphotic layer, low correlation below). This substantial increase in the spatial correlations description is discussed in Brankart et al. (2012) when considering several data assimilation experiments using anamorphosis transformation, including the present one.

This analysis of vertical sections and correlation profiles highlights a limitation of the methodology set up in the frame of the present study. Indeed results indicate that, using an efficiently defined assimilation method (as previously shown by model to independent data set comparison), the surface phytoplankton concentration is not correlated to the nitrate concentration below the euphotic layers. And thus we could not expect to control the 3-D CPBM using only superficial information such those brought by remote sensing of ocean color without defining an a priori information about biogeochemical concentration vertical distributions.

5 Conclusions and perspectives

In this paper, a state-of-the-art assimilation system was developed to assimilate satellite-derived chlorophyll data into a three-dimensional CPBM of the North Atlantic. Different simulations were conducted during a 9 year-long period (1998–2006),

allowing the assimilation of 410 SeaWiFS-estimated maps of chlorophyll temporally binned every 8 days. The assimilation was performed with a fixed variant of the reduced-rank Kalman filter (SEEK) to limit the computational burden of the data integration process. Several key parameters entering the analysis scheme (e.g. model and observation error parameterizations, local influence radius) were carefully tuned to maximize the benefit of the assimilation process. Comparisons were made between a free run, an assimilation run using a linear updating scheme, and an assimilation run using a non-linear updating scheme with anamorphic transformations.

These experiments show that the application of anamorphosis yield a non-linear analysis scheme which is identified as key element of the assimilation performance, without requiring significant increase of computing resources. The assimilation of chlorophyll data was found to be efficient in the non-linear configuration to improve the description of the seasonal cycles of surface chlorophyll along the simulation period. The model skill to forecast surface chlorophyll concentrations on 8-days period was also improved by the assimilation process. Temporal evolution of spatially-binned surface chlorophyll concentration showed that the spatial coverage of ocean color data remains a critical point as no ocean color data are available for high-latitude regions during several months each years.

Comparisons between model outputs and an independent set of in situ measurements showed that surface nitrate concentration is more accurately estimated by the assimilation of satellite-derived chlorophyll concentration. Indeed, the modelled surface nitrate concentration fields were closer to the climatology generated from the WOA09. Model performance was good in the chlorophyll bloom area (north of 45° N) while it was variable in the sub-tropical gyre region. Nevertheless, this gain was limited to the upper layers of the euphotic layer, while the deeper part of the water column was not significantly affected by the assimilation process. This is due to the weak correlations between surface phytoplankton and nitrate below the euphotic layer, arising from the application of anamorphic transformations.

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Overall, the assessment of the non-linear assimilation experiment shows that it can be seen as a first prototype opening perspectives toward reanalyses of the North Atlantic biogeochemistry during the satellite ocean color era. However, this study points out a limitation of the approach applied here since the full control of a 3-D CPBM trajectory is likely to be hopeless with the assimilation of surface chlorophyll data only. Equivalent conclusions regarding the mitigated impact of the satellite chlorophyll assimilation below the surface were recently drawn by Hu et al. (2011) and Ford et al. (2012).

Several solutions can then be envisaged to overcome this issue. The first one would be to define an a priori assumption on biogeochemical concentration vertical profiles. This means that the observation vector would not be limited to the first layer of the model but weightily-integrated along the water column. Efforts were recently undertaken to characterize relationships between spatially-sensed chlorophyll concentrations and vertical distribution of phytoplankton content (see e.g. Uitz et al., 2006). The use of such relationships to propagate information brought by superficial chlorophyll concentrations to deeper parts of the water column would deserve to be further investigated. While this solution could improve the assimilation performance in open sea waters, a universal a priori assumption on biogeochemical vertical profiles can hardly be defined consistently for coastal areas as various of local factors may influence directly the biogeochemical concentrations vertical distribution (river plumes, waves).

In the long-term, a more promising approach would be to explicitly include deeper observations into the assimilation process. In this way, no a priori assumption about the vertical distribution of biogeochemical concentration would be required, while more information would be assimilated explicitly at depth. The critical point here is that it requires a refined array of in situ sensors measuring systematically biogeochemical properties at basin-scale; to some degree an equivalent to the ARGO float dedicated to biogeochemical measurements. Such a sampling array currently does not exist but efforts are on-going to deploy autonomous biogeochemical sensors in deep sea waters which are able to measure precisely chlorophyll and nitrate profiles (Claustre et al., 2010a, b).

If such a large-scale data set should be available in the near future, investigations to optimally combine satellite and in situ biogeochemical data through observing system simulation experiments are a straightforward extension of the present study.

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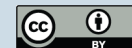
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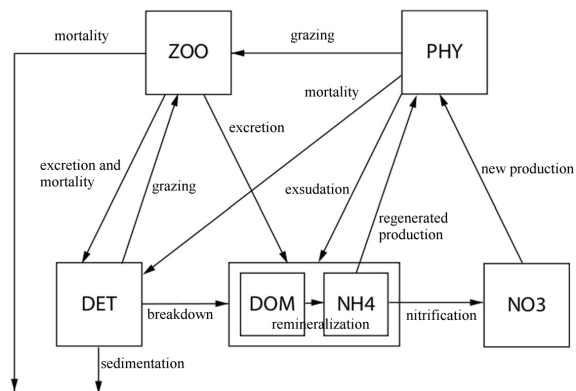
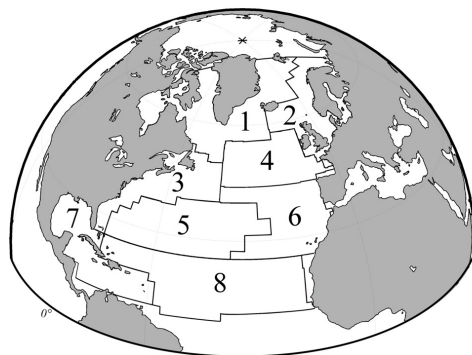


Fig. 1. Model domain and biogeochemical regions (left); LOBSTER biogeochemical model components and fluxes (right).

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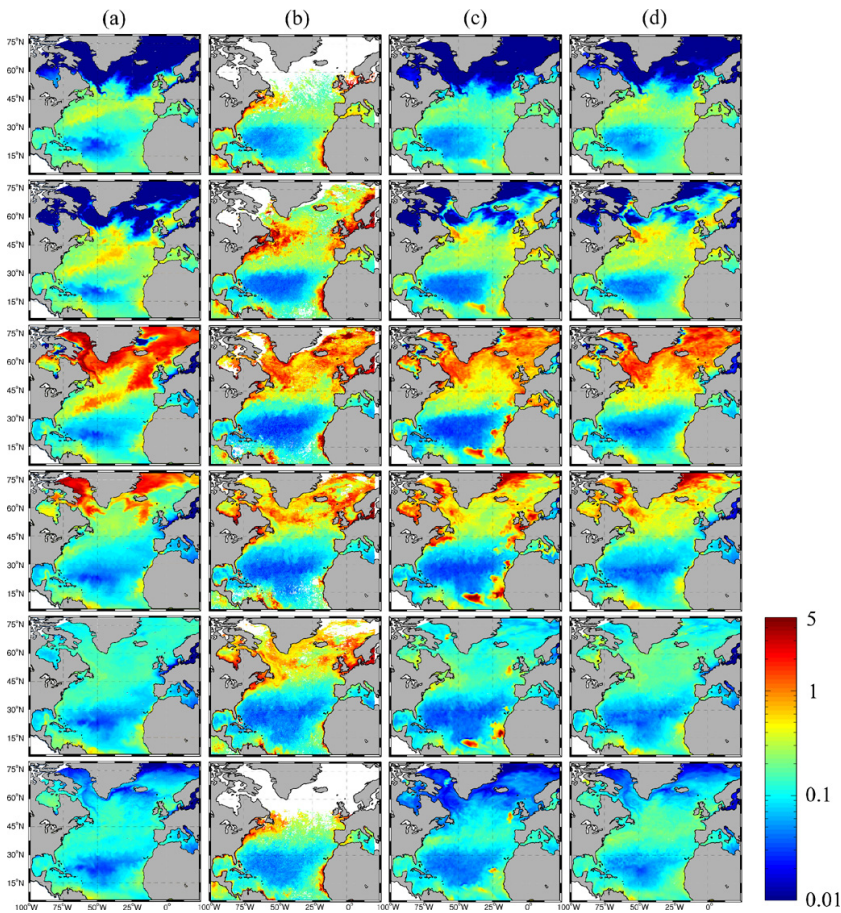


Fig. 2. Surface chlorophyll concentration binned on 60 days period (from top to bottom) for year 2006 for **(a)** free run; **(b)** SeaWiFS data; **(c)** linear run; **(d)** non-linear run. Concentrations are given in $\text{mg}(\text{Chl}) \text{m}^{-3}$.

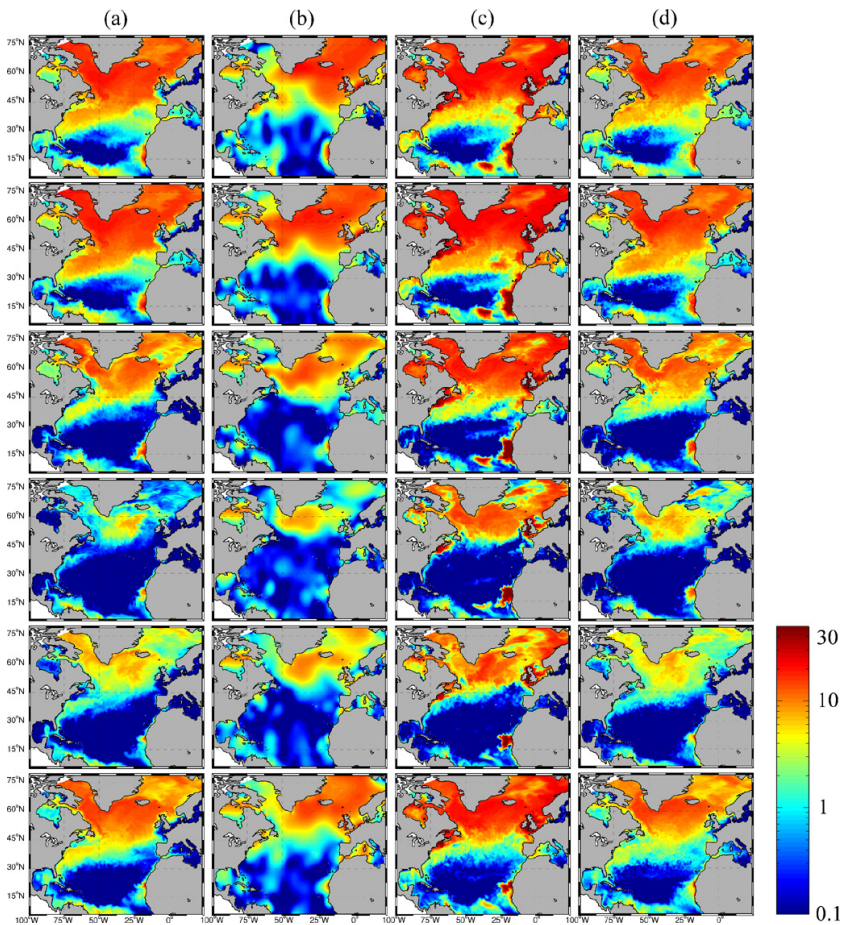


Fig. 3. Surface nitrate concentration binned on 60 days period (from top to bottom) for year 2006 for **(a)** free run; **(b)** WOA09 climatology; **(c)** linear run; **(d)** non-linear run. Concentrations are given in $\text{mmol}(\text{NO}_3) \text{m}^{-3}$.

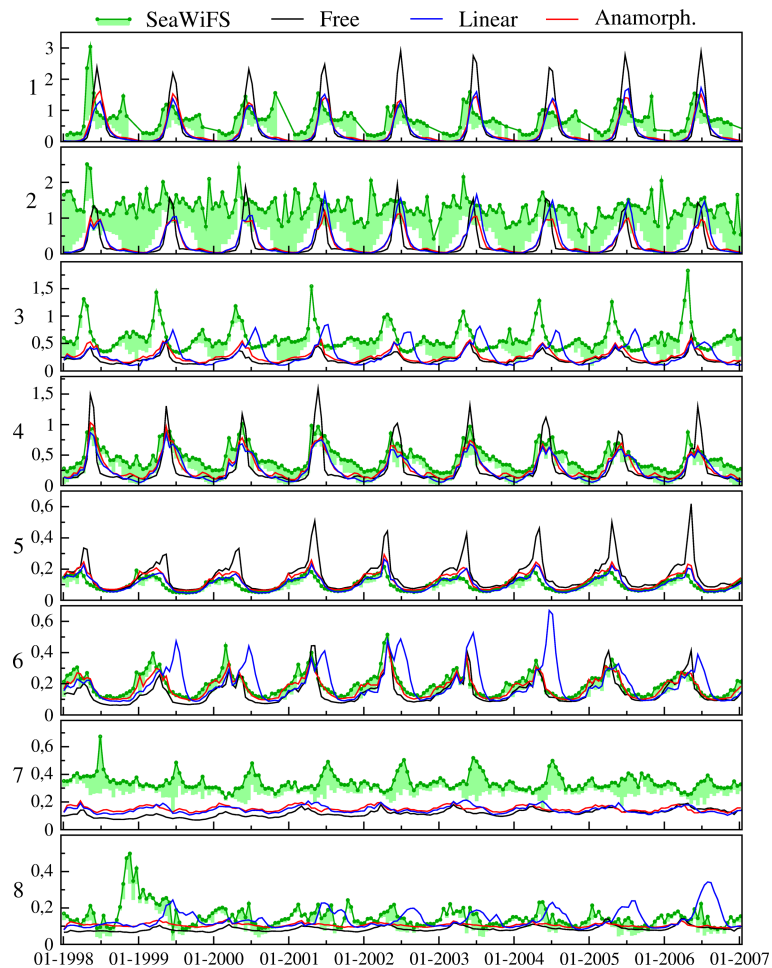


Fig. 4. Surface chlorophyll temporal evolution spatially binned on biogeochemical regions as defined on Fig. 1. Concentrations are given in $\text{mg}(\text{Chl}) \text{m}^{-3}$.

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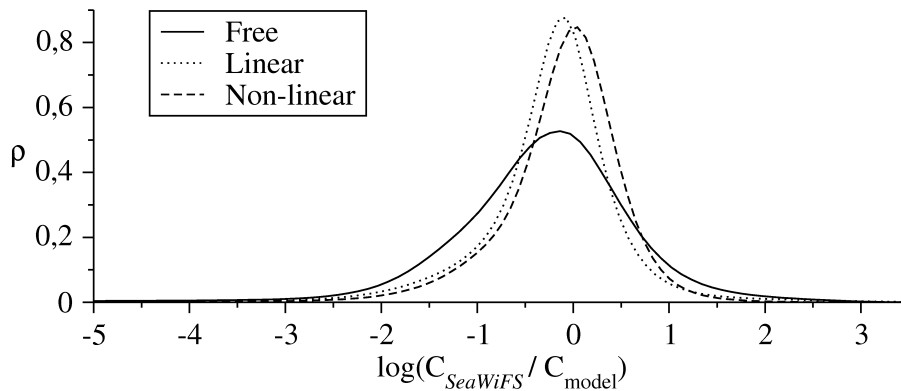


Fig. 5. Normalized histogram of $\log(C_{\text{SeaWiFS}}/C_{\text{model}})$ function where C_{seaWiFS} and C_{model} are the SeaWiFS and modelled concentration of chlorophyll (resp.).

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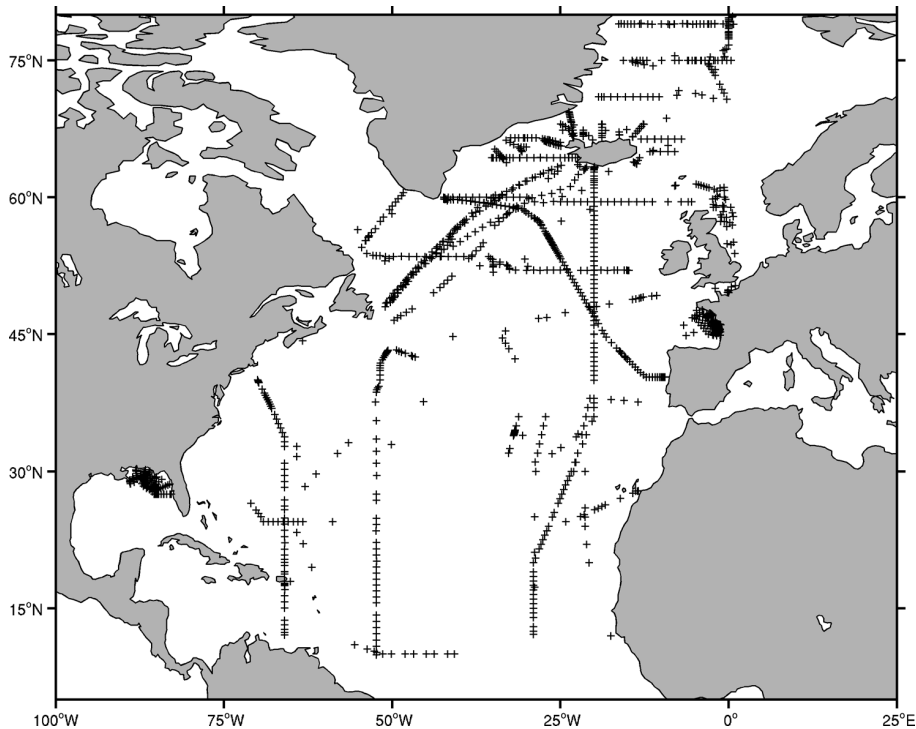


Fig. 6. Nitrate measurements contained in the World Ocean Atlas 2009 data set for the period 1998–2006 and a depth lower than 10 m.

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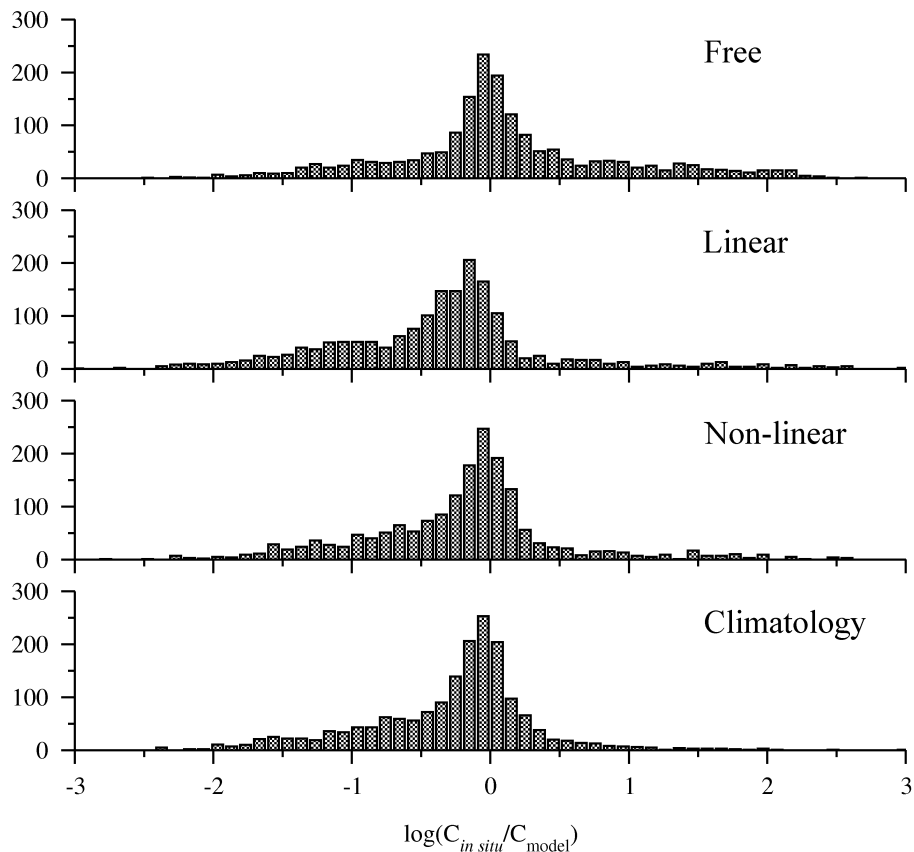


Fig. 7. Histogram of $\log(C_{in\ situ}/C_{model})$ function where $C_{in\ situ}$ and C_{model} are the in situ and modelled concentration of nitrate (resp.).

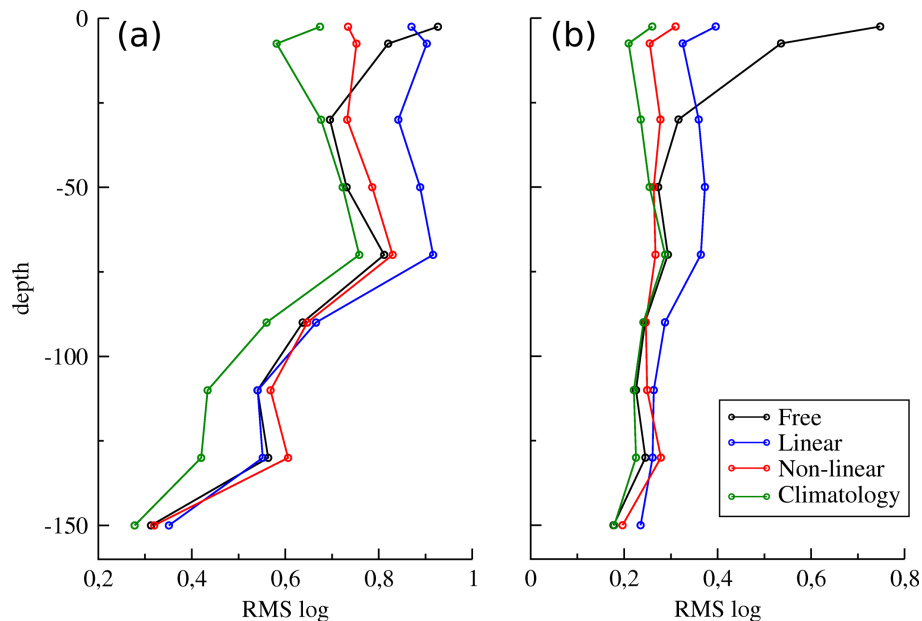


Fig. 8. Nitrate logarithmic RMS between in situ data and model with respect to the depth for: **(a)** all available data; **(b)** only data higher than $1 \text{ mmol}(\text{NO}_3) \text{ m}^{-3}$.

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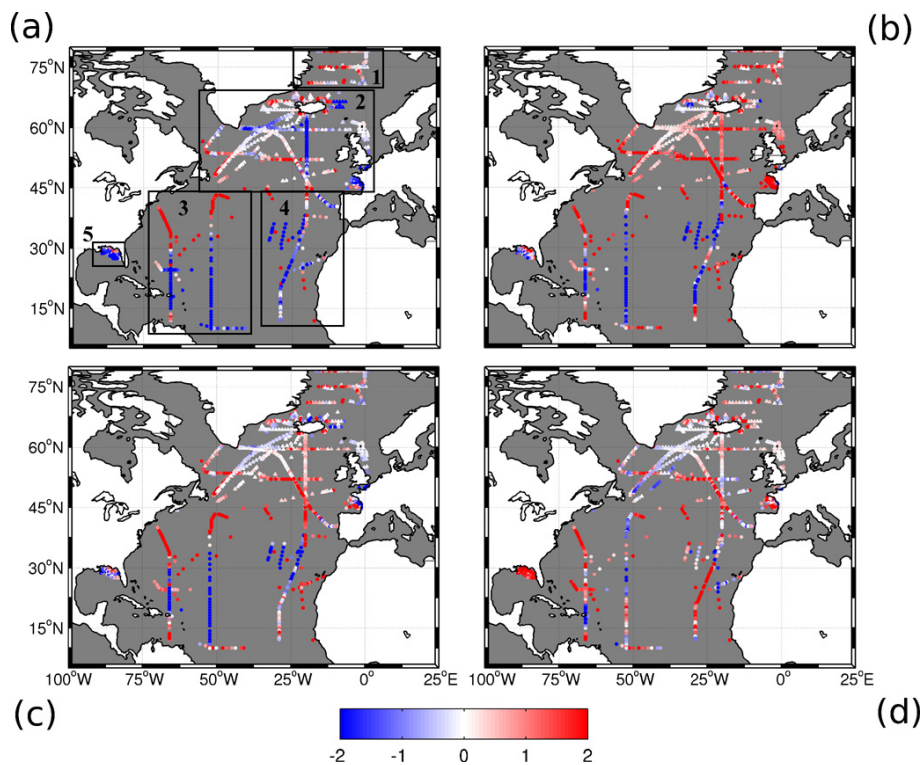


Fig. 9. Spatial distribution of $\log(C_{\text{in situ}}/C_{\text{model}})$ function where $C_{\text{in situ}}$ and C_{model} are the in situ and modelled concentration of nitrate (resp.).

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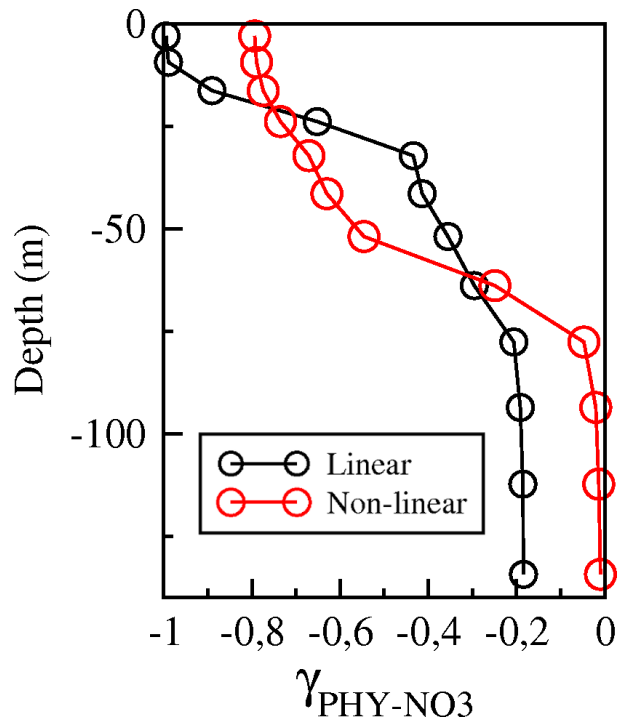


Fig. 12. Model correlation between surface phytoplankton and nitrate concentration with respect to the depth on location 58° N–40° W on 1 June 2006.

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