

1 **Supplemental Information for “Near-term forecasts of NEON lakes reveal gradients of**
2 **environmental predictability across the U.S.”**

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9 This supplementary information includes:

10 WebPanel: 1

11 WebTables: 2

12 WebFigures: 4

13 **WebPanel 1.** Description of the forecasted NEON lakes, overview of the FLARE configuration
14 for each lake, meteorological driver data, and mean day-of-year null model
15

16 **Lake and descriptions**

17 We generated forecasts for the six NEON lakes in the conterminous USA (WebTable 1).
18 The six forecast sites were two paired lakes in the Great Lakes NEON ecoclimatic domain
19 (Crampton Lake, NEON site ID – CRAM; Little Rock Lake, NEON site ID - LIRO), two paired
20 lakes in the Northern Plains domain (Prairie Lake, NEON siteID – PRLA; Prairie Pothole,
21 NEON siteID - PRPO), and two paired lakes in the Southeastern domain (Barco Lake, NEON
22 siteID – BARC; Suggs Lake, NEON siteID - SUGG). We excluded the seventh NEON lake site
23 (Toolik Lake) since it was not part of a paired NEON set and it has major surface inflows, unlike
24 the other lakes.

25 Each lake had 5-10 water temperature sensors (Precision Measurement Engineering Inc.
26 T-Chain RS 232/485 thermistors) deployed at various depths in the water column. The first
27 sensor is deployed 0.05 m below the surface, with remaining depths dependent on the total depth
28 of the lake. Generally, sensors are deployed at more frequent intervals within the upper 1.05 m
29 than at deeper depths. These discrete depth water temperature data are available from NEON
30 (NEON 2022a, b), and were accessed using the *neonstore* R package, which creates a "store" of
31 NEON data on a local computer and eases the iterative downloading of additional NEON data
32 without re-downloading data already within the store (Boettiger *et al.* 2021).

33 All data were filtered using the quality assurance codes provided by NEON. The 30-
34 minute data product was aggregated to the hour and only the 00:00-01:00 UTC hour was used
35 each day for assimilation and evaluation. The NEON (NEON 2022a, b) data were exported using
36 the *neon_export* function in the *neonstore* R package and archived at Thomas and Boettiger
37 (2022). Gaps in NEON's discrete depth water temperature dataset were filled using water
38 temperature data collected by a YSI EXO2 multiparameter sonde as part of NEON's water
39 quality data product (Hensley 2022).
40

41 **FLARE and GLM configuration**

42 Adapting FLARE to NEON lakes required configuring six unique GLM models with
43 each lake's bathymetry and physical specifications and developing functions to download and
44 process NEON water temperature data. Across all six lakes, we used the same initial default
45 GLM hydrodynamic parameters (Hipsey *et al.* 2019) and tuned the same set of three parameters
46 governing lake water temperature during data assimilation (*lw_factor*, *kw*, and *sed_mean_temp*).
47 Since none of the six NEON lakes have major surface inflows or outflows and prior applications
48 at a reservoir in Virginia showed limited sensitivity of forecast uncertainty to inflows (Thomas *et*
49 *al.* 2020), we parameterized each lake without inflows or outflows.

50 We parameterized the process uncertainty in water temperature to be the same across
51 sites and throughout the water column (standard deviation = 0.75°C). This value was based on
52 the findings of Thomas *et al.* (2020), in which FLARE's process uncertainty was estimated
53 across water column depths at a reservoir in Virginia. The process uncertainty was added to each
54 ensemble member and modeled depth at each daily timestep. Since we expect this uncertainty to
55 be correlated with depth (e.g., if the modeled temperature at a certain depth was 1°C warmer than
56 observed, nearby depths should also likely be too warm as well), we included a correlation
57 length that represents an exponential decay of correlations across depths (following Appendix A
58 in Lenartz *et al.* 2007). The decay in correlation results in stronger correlations in water

59 temperature at closer depths than further away depths. This decorrelation length parameter was
60 set to 2 m.

61 Similarly, observation uncertainty in water temperature data was set to be the same across
62 lakes and depths (standard deviation = 0.1°C), based on the FLARE application in Thomas *et al.*
63 (2020). Since observation uncertainty represents sensor and sampling uncertainty, we did not
64 expect observation uncertainty to be correlated with depth, and therefore the decorrelation length
65 for this uncertainty source was set to 0 m.

66 Parameter estimation using the ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF) uses the estimated
67 correlation between parameter values and the size of the errors between the predicted and
68 observed states across ensemble members (Evensen 2009). Ensemble members that require large
69 adjustments in the states to be consistent with observations will also adjust parameters that are
70 correlated with that error. One challenge with estimating parameters using the EnKF is that the
71 variation in parameter values across ensemble members collapses over time. The small variance
72 among ensemble members prevents the parameters from further adjusting to reduce new biases
73 in the model predictions (i.e., the calibration does not change through time).

74 As a result, parameter estimation methods using the EnKF need to use a technique to
75 prevent a collapse in variance. Here, we use a method called variance inflation, in which the
76 variance in parameter values among the ensemble members is increased at each time-step when
77 data assimilation occurs. The variance inflation increases the spread in the parameters among
78 ensemble members while maintaining the rank order of ensemble members. We used the same
79 variance inflation factor across all parameters and lakes (0.04).

80 The FLAREr R package that contains FLARE functions can be found in the Zenodo
81 repository (Thomas *et al.* 2022b), as well as the scripts for running FLARE at the six NEON
82 lakes (Thomas *et al.* 2022a). All analyses were conducted in R software version 4.1.1 (R Core
83 Team 2021).

84

85 **Meteorological inputs**

86 The forecasts were driven by numerical meteorological forecasts produced by NOAA's
87 Global Ensemble Forecasting System (GEFS) version 12 (Li *et al.* 2019). We automated the
88 downloading of ensemble members (n=31 total) from the NOAA GEFS output for each
89 0.5°×0.5° grid cell that included a NEON lake. NOAA GEFS generates weather forecasts at
90 multiple times per day (00:00, 06:00, 12:00, and 18:00 UTC), which vary in their forecast
91 horizon length (i.e., days into the future). We focused on the GEFS weather forecast that started
92 at 00:00 UTC each day, as 30 of its 31 ensemble members extended 35 days into the future on a
93 6-hour time step and included all meteorological variables required by the GLM as model driver
94 data. The 6-hour output resolution of each of the 30 ensemble members was temporally
95 downscaled to 1-hour resolution for use in the GLM following Thomas *et al.* (2020).

96 We used a “stacked” GEFS product during the 1-month spin-up period. One challenge
97 when using data assimilation to set initial conditions and tune parameters is a potential mismatch
98 between the meteorological data used in the spin-up and data used for generating future
99 forecasts. Since observed and forecasted meteorology are rarely a 1:1 match, a smooth transition
100 from data assimilation to forecasting requires either the forecasted meteorology to be corrected
101 for the site or past meteorological forecasts to be used in place of observed meteorology for data
102 assimilation. Here, we used the latter option because NEON meteorological data has a 1.5-month
103 latency and often has gaps for some of the required meteorological variables. To develop a
104 “stacked” GEFS product, we downloaded the first time step of the forecasts that were initiated at

105 06:00, 12:00, and 18:00 UTC. We then combined the meteorological forecast at the first time
106 step of the 00:00, 06:00, 12:00, and 18:00 UTC forecasts together to generate a 6-hr data product
107 starting on 18 April 2021. The first time step is used because it directly follows data assimilation
108 in the GEFS, and therefore is most closely aligned with observed meteorology. The “stacked”
109 data product is generated each time new GEFS forecasts are available, and thus is near-real time.

110 To estimate the 10-day variance in air temperature that was used in the predictability
111 correlation analysis, we calculated the running standard deviation over a rolling 10-day window
112 between 18 May 2021 and 31 October 2021 from the “stacked” GEFS product. We used the
113 mean of the 10-day running standard deviation to represent air temperature variance for each
114 lake during the period that forecasts were generated.

115 All NOAA GEFS 1-hour forecasts and “stacked” products for the six NEON lakes are
116 archived at Thomas and Woelmer (2022).

117 118 **Mean Day-of-Year Null Forecast**

119 We note that while the 1 to 3.5 years of data at the NEON lakes available for this day-of-
120 year (DOY) null model (see WebTable 1) is lower than the ~30 years of data typically used in
121 weather forecasting null climatology models, it still included all NEON data available for each
122 lake. Moreover, the DOY null model for the lake with just one year of data (PRLA) performed
123 similarly to the DOY null model for its paired lake (PRPO), which had three years of data
124 (Figure 2b).

125 126 **Analysis**

127 Thomas and Boettiger (2022) and Thomas and Woelmer (2022). This submission uses
128 novel code, which is provided in Thomas *et al.* (2022a) and Thomas *et al.* (2022b).

129 130 **WebReferences**

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169

170 **WebTable 1.** Metadata of the six conterminous U.S. lake sites in the National Ecological Observatory Network. Variables that were
 171 included in the predictability correlation analysis included: latitude, maximum lake depth, fetch, volume, surface area, mean Secchi
 172 depth, mean annual temperature, mean annual precipitation, variance in air temperature, mean hydrological residence time, and
 173 catchment size.

siteID	Lake name	NEON Ecoclimatic domain	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Elevation (m)	Maximum lake depth (m)	Fetch (m)	Volume (m ³)	Surface area (km ²)
BARC	Barco Lake	Southeast	29.675982	-82.008414	27	6	425	256888	0.12
SUGG	Suggs Lake	Southeast	29.68778	-82.017745	32	3	867	415356	0.31
CRAM	Crampton Lake	Great Lakes	46.209675	-89.473688	509	19	782	889734	0.26
LIRO	Little Rock Lake	Great Lakes	45.998269	-89.704767	501	10	623	466757	0.19
PRLA	Prairie Lake	Northern Plains	47.15909	-99.11388	565	4	1010	389429	0.23
PRPO	Prairie Pothole	Northern Plains	47.129839	-99.253147	579	4	511	158520	0.11

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176 **WebTable 1.** Continued

siteID	Mean Secchi depth (m)	Mixing regime	Mean annual temperature (°C)	Mean annual precipitation (mm)	Variance in air temperature (10-day standard deviation, °C)	Mean hydrological residence time (yrs)	Catchment size (km ²)	Number of years in time series for day-of-year null model
BARC	4.08	Polymictic	20.9	1308	1.09	3.3	0.8	2.4
SUGG	0.43	Polymictic	20.9	1308	1.09	1.6	36.9	3.4
CRAM	4.16	Dimictic	4.3	794	2.86	4.9	0.6	2.3
LIRO	4.37	Dimictic	4.4	796	2.86	3.4	0.9	3.1
PRLA	0.33	Polymictic	4.9	490	3.34	3.8	4.5	1.0
PRPO	0.40	Polymictic	4.9	494	3.39	3.2	1.4	2.0

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179 **WebTable 1.** Continued

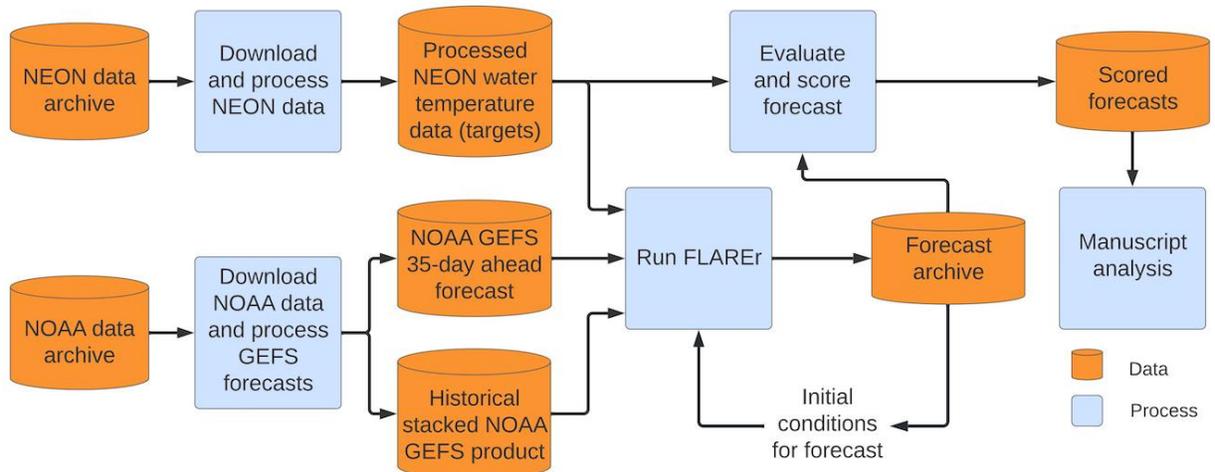
siteID	Catchment land cover	NEON Website
BARC	shrub/scrub	https://www.neonscience.org/field-sites/barc
SUGG	evergreen/forest; woody wetlands	https://www.neonscience.org/field-sites/sugg
CRAM	woody wetlands	https://www.neonscience.org/field-sites/cram
LIRO	deciduous forest; mixed forest	https://www.neonscience.org/field-sites/liro
PRLA	grassland/herbaceous	https://www.neonscience.org/field-sites/prla
PRPO	grassland/herbaceous	https://www.neonscience.org/field-sites/prpo

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181 **WebTable 2.** Forecast accuracy, defined as root-mean square error (RMSE) at 1-day ahead, and
 182 forecast accuracy degradation, defined as the difference in maximum and minimum RMSE
 183 across the 35-day forecast horizon. We used Spearman rank correlations to quantify the
 184 relationships between morphometric, hydrological, ecological, and meteorological characteristics
 185 and mean forecast accuracy and accuracy degradation for each lake. To ease interpretation of the
 186 correlation coefficient, we negated RMSE so positive correlations are associated with higher
 187 accuracy. Given the extremely limited sample size of lakes (n=6), which is too small for reliable
 188 p-values for rho, we focused our interpretation on Spearman rho correlations $|\geq| 0.5$ (included
 189 here).

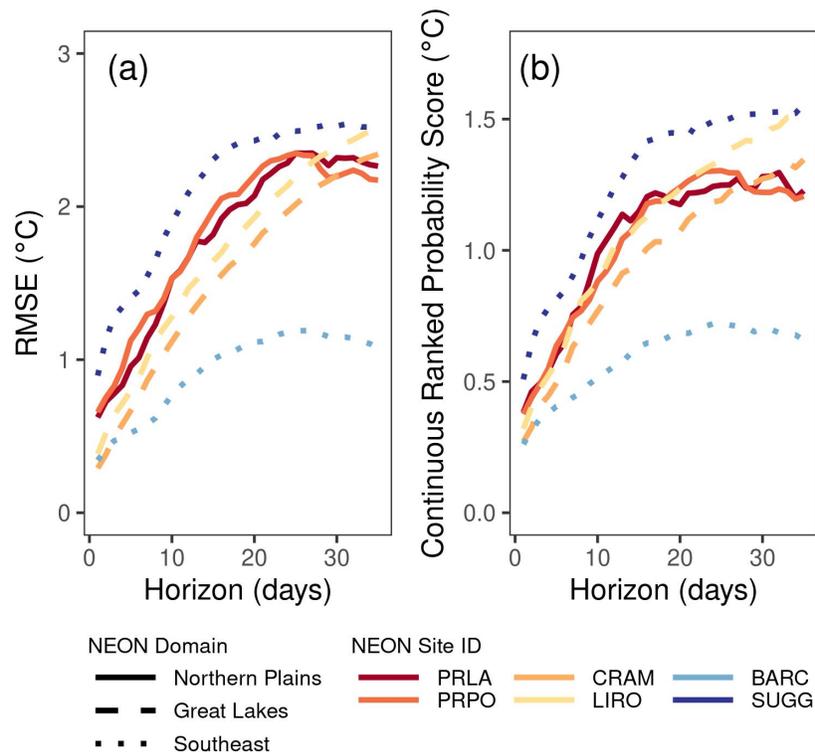
variable	metric	rho
Catchment size	accuracy	-0.94
Fetch	accuracy	-0.71
Maximum depth	accuracy	0.81
Water clarity (Secchi depth)	accuracy	0.60
Mean annual air temperature	degradation	-0.79
Water clarity (Secchi depth)	degradation	0.60
Volume	degradation	0.60

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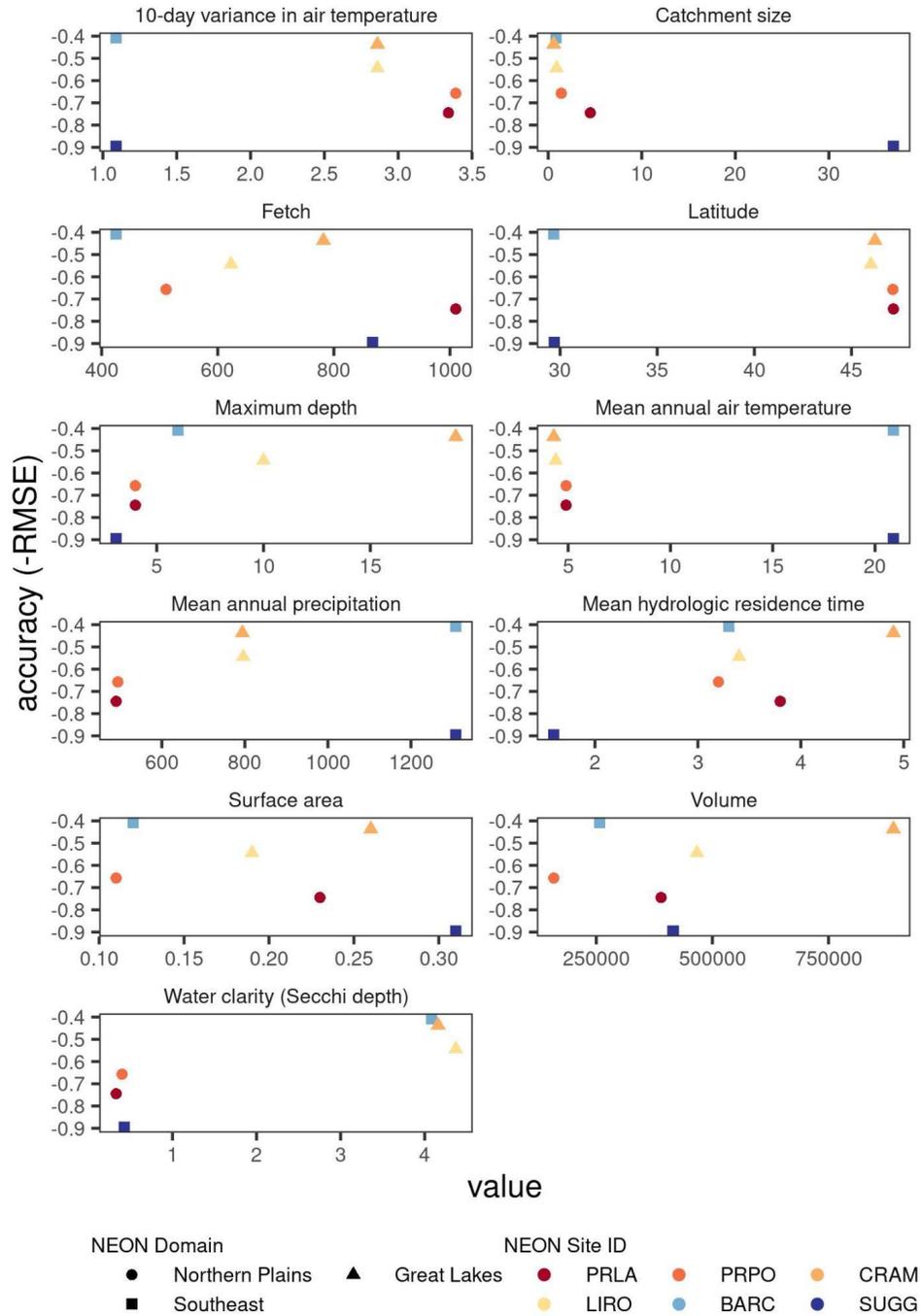
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 192 **WebFigure 1.** A diagram of the workflow used to generate the daily iterative forecasts using
 193 NOAA Global Ensemble Forecasting System (GEFS) meteorology forecasts, National
 194 Ecological Observatory Network (NEON) water temperature data, and the Forecasting Lake and
 195 Reservoir Ecosystems R package (FLAREr).

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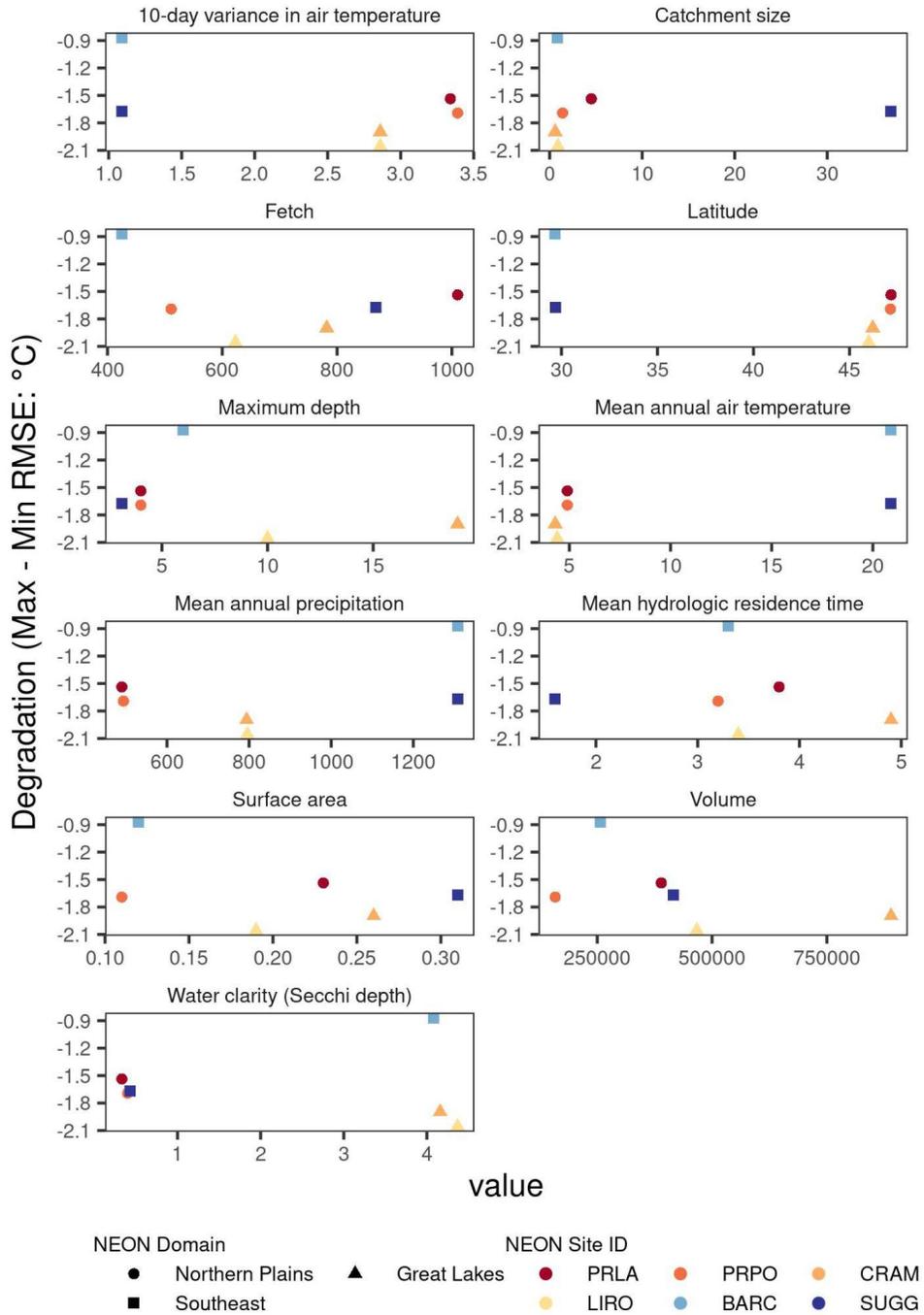
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200 **WebFigure 2.** (a) Forecast accuracy for water temperature at all depths in each lake aggregated
201 together. Accuracy is defined by RMSE (root-mean square error in °C), calculated separately for
202 each 1 to 35-days ahead (horizon) at the six NEON lakes. (b) Surface water temperature forecast
203 accuracy, defined by the Continuous Ranked Probability Score (CRPS, in °C), a metric that uses
204 the entire ensemble to evaluate the forecast, which is analogous to mean absolute error.



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WebFigure 3. Relationships between forecast accuracy (y-axis) and the morphometric, hydrological, ecological, and weather characteristics included in Figure 3 (x-axis). We negated RMSE (root-mean square error in °C), so positive correlations are associated with higher accuracy. WebTable 1 includes the units for each variable.



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WebFigure 4. Relationships between forecast accuracy degradation (y-axis) and the morphometric, hydrological, ecological, and weather characteristics included in Figure 3 (x-axis). Degradation is defined as the difference in RMSE (root-mean square error in °C) between the maximum and minimum RMSE over the 35-day forecast horizon. WebTable 1 includes the units for each variable.