

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/319009321>

# Latitude and lake size are important predictors of over-lake atmospheric stability

Article · August 2017

DOI: 10.1002/2017gl073941

CITATIONS

13

READS

159

13 authors, including:



**R. Iestyn Woolway**

Dundalk Institute of Technology

40 PUBLICATIONS 695 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



**Piet Verburg**

National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research

64 PUBLICATIONS 2,034 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



**C. J. Merchant**

University of Reading

180 PUBLICATIONS 3,266 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



**J. D. Lenters**

LimnoTech

76 PUBLICATIONS 4,059 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



Effect Assessment Study: Discharge of Treated Effluent to an iconic New Zealand lake [View project](#)



Sen4LST [View project](#)

## RESEARCH LETTER

10.1002/2017GL073941

## Key Points:

- Atmospheric boundary layer stability above lakes varies predictably across temporal and spatial scales
- The atmospheric boundary layer above lakes is more often unstable toward the tropics annually and above smaller lakes during summer
- The effects of latitude and lake size on lake-atmosphere interactions have implications for heat loss from lakes and the hydrologic cycle

## Supporting Information:

- Supporting Information S1

## Correspondence to:

P. Verburg,  
piet.verburg@niwa.co.nz

## Citation:

Woolway, R. I., et al. (2017), Latitude and lake size are important predictors of over-lake atmospheric stability, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 44, doi:10.1002/2017GL073941.

Received 26 APR 2017

Accepted 4 AUG 2017

Accepted article online 8 AUG 2017

## Latitude and lake size are important predictors of over-lake atmospheric stability

R. Iestyn Woolway<sup>1</sup>, Piet Verburg<sup>2</sup>, Christopher J. Merchant<sup>1</sup>, John D. Lenters<sup>3</sup>, David P. Hamilton<sup>4</sup>, Justin Brookes<sup>5</sup>, Sean Kelly<sup>6,7</sup>, Simon Hook<sup>8</sup>, Alo Laas<sup>9</sup>, Don Pierson<sup>10</sup>, Alon Rimmer<sup>11</sup>, James A. Rusak<sup>12</sup>, and Ian D. Jones<sup>13</sup>
<sup>1</sup>Department of Meteorology, University of Reading, Reading, UK, <sup>2</sup>National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research, Hamilton, New Zealand, <sup>3</sup>Center for Limnology, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA, <sup>4</sup>Australian Rivers Institute, Griffith University, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia, <sup>5</sup>Environment Institute, School of Biological Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South Australia, Australia, <sup>6</sup>Marine Institute, Newport, Ireland, <sup>7</sup>Earth and Ocean Science, School of Natural Sciences, National University of Ireland Galway, Galway, Ireland, <sup>8</sup>Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, USA, <sup>9</sup>Centre for Limnology, Institute of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences, Estonian University of Life Sciences, Tartu, Estonia, <sup>10</sup>Department of Ecology and Genetics/Limnology, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden, <sup>11</sup>Yigal Allon Kinneret Limnological Laboratory, Israel Oceanographic and Limnological Research, Migdal, Israel, <sup>12</sup>Ontario Ministry of the Environment and Climate Change, Dorset Environmental Science Centre, Dorset, Ontario, Canada, <sup>13</sup>Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster, UK

**Abstract** Turbulent fluxes across the air-water interface are integral to determining lake heat budgets, evaporation, and carbon emissions from lakes. The stability of the atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) influences the exchange of turbulent energy. We explore the differences in over-lake ABL stability using data from 39 globally distributed lakes. The frequency of unstable ABL conditions varied between lakes from 71 to 100% of the time, with average air temperatures typically several degrees below the average lake surface temperature. This difference increased with decreasing latitude, resulting in a more frequently unstable ABL and a more efficient energy transfer to and from the atmosphere, toward the tropics. In addition, during summer the frequency of unstable ABL conditions decreased with increasing lake surface area. The dependency of ABL stability on latitude and lake size has implications for heat loss and carbon fluxes from lakes, the hydrologic cycle, and climate change effects.

## 1. Introduction

Temperature gradients between lake water surfaces and air influence the exchange of heat, gas fluxes, and evaporation from lakes. Lake surface temperatures are governed by the interactions with the overlying atmosphere and radiative fluxes [Schmid *et al.*, 2014]. Lake surface temperature exceeding surface air temperature tends to produce an unstable atmospheric boundary layer (ABL), which is the lower layer of the troposphere that is influenced directly by the Earth's surface [Garratt, 1994]. In general, the higher the lake surface temperature is relative to the air temperature, the more unstable the ABL, although other factors play a role as well. In turn, the thermodynamic interaction of lakes with the atmosphere is influenced by the stability of the ABL.

Unstable ABL conditions can result in enhanced heat loss (where heat loss is defined as heat transport from lakes to the atmosphere) by sensible and latent heat transfer from the lake surface to the atmosphere [Brutsaert, 1982], thereby influencing the local climate [Bonan, 1995; Lofgren, 1997], altering hydrological cycles at catchment scales [Rouse *et al.*, 2005], and enhancing lake evaporation and water level decline [Gronewold and Stow, 2014], with consequences for water security [Vörösmarty *et al.*, 2000] and supply [Brookes *et al.*, 2014]. This is of significance to lakes which are an important supply of national water demand and can have considerable consequences for water management strategies [Vörösmarty *et al.*, 2000; Immerzeel *et al.*, 2010; Vörösmarty *et al.*, 2010]. The turbulent heat and moisture fluxes can also enhance the gas transfer coefficient and thereby the emission of carbon dioxide and methane from lakes [Polsenaere *et al.*, 2013; Podgrajsek *et al.*, 2015].

Unstable ABL conditions have been shown to persist above lakes for long periods [Rouse *et al.*, 2003], resulting in enhanced turbulent heat loss. ABL conditions have been reported in lake studies from around the world, in tropical [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010] and temperate regions [Derecki, 1981; Lofgren and Zhu,

©2017. The Authors.

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

2000; Laird and Kristovich, 2002; Rueda et al., 2007] but no study has compared ABL stability across a range of latitudes and other lake attributes.

In view of increasing temperature gradients reported between lake surfaces and air in the past few decades as a result of climate warming [O'Reilly et al., 2015; Woolway and Merchant, 2017], and the acceleration expected in the hydrologic cycle [Wentz et al., 2007], an understanding of the extent, causes, and effects of variations in the stability of the ABL above lakes is of great interest. However, until recently, in situ high-frequency measurements at the air-water interface of wind speed, water temperature, air temperature, and relative humidity, that are required to examine patterns in the stability of the ABL, have not been widely available, preventing a comprehensive comparison across lakes.

The recent establishment of scientific networks dedicated to the collaborative analysis of high-frequency lake buoy data has provided an opportunity for a large-scale analysis. We have collated data from 39 lakes from around the globe to quantify variability and identify patterns in annual, seasonal, and diurnal ABL conditions above the water surface and analyze how these patterns vary across different lake types and climatic gradients. To understand the overarching controls on ABL stability, we examine the influence of four variables that might be expected to have an effect, latitude, altitude, lake surface area, and lake depth. Latitude determines variation in net radiation flux and thus has a strong influence on lake temperature and the seasonal temperature cycle [Straskraba, 1980] and ultimately on ABL stability [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010]. Altitude can influence air-water temperature relationships via differential lapse rates [Livingstone et al., 1999] and can thus be expected to influence ABL stability [Rueda et al., 2007]. Lake area has been shown to affect lake temperatures at diurnal timescales [Woolway et al., 2016]. Lake depth influences the thermal capacity of water and thus air-water temperature relationships [Balsamo et al., 2010; Woolway and Merchant, 2017].

## 2. Materials and Methods

We collected high-frequency observations (measurement interval range from 4 min to 1 h) of lake surface temperatures and meteorological conditions from 39 lakes on 5 continents, ranging in surface area between 0.001 km<sup>2</sup> and 32,900 km<sup>2</sup>, in altitude between 0 m above sea level (asl) and 1897 m asl, in latitude between 38.8°S and 71.24°N, and in maximum depth between 2 m and 1470 m (Table S1 in the supporting information). Instrumented buoys measured near-surface water temperatures ( $T_0$ , K) at an average depth of about 0.5 m, always within the surface mixed layer. In this study, we assume that the measured water temperature equals that at the surface, although it must be noted that under certain conditions (e.g., under intense heating conditions) temperatures can vary considerably within the upper meter of a lake [Tedford et al., 2014]. Meteorological conditions including wind speed ( $u_z$ , m s<sup>-1</sup>), air temperature ( $T$ , K), and relative humidity (RH, %) were measured on average 2.9 m (range 1.3 to 10 m) above the lake surface. Fourteen lakes had observations available throughout at least 1 year (i.e., 12 months of observations). All lakes had observations for the summer months (defined as July to September in the Northern Hemisphere and January to March in the Southern Hemisphere) for at least 1 year. Each lake had measurements at one location, except for Lake Tanganyika (two locations) and Lake Tahoe (four locations). We analyzed the data from each monitoring station in these two lakes independently before combining the results.

Stability of the atmospheric boundary layer is characterized by the nondimensional atmospheric stability parameter, determined from surface measurements which we obtained from the lake buoy monitoring stations. It is given by  $\zeta = zL^{-1}$  [Brutsaert, 1982], which is the ratio of the sensor measurement height above the water surface ( $z$ ; in meters) to the Monin-Obukhov stability length

$$L = \frac{-\rho_a u_*^3 T_v}{\kappa g \left( \frac{Q_h}{c_{pa}} + 0.61 \frac{T Q_e}{L_v} \right)} \quad (1)$$

where the absolute value of  $L$  is the height above ground level above which buoyancy-generated turbulence dominates wind shear-generated turbulence,  $\rho_a$  is air density (kg m<sup>-3</sup>),  $u_*$  is the air friction velocity (m s<sup>-1</sup>),  $T_v = T(1 + 0.61q_z)$  is virtual air temperature (K), which we assume to be approximate to the virtual potential temperature and thus are neglecting the influence of adiabatic expansion and compression on  $T_v$  [MacIntyre et al., 2002; Hipsey et al., 2014],  $q_z$  is the specific humidity (kg kg<sup>-1</sup>) calculated from relative humidity, air temperature, and air pressure,  $\kappa = 0.41$  is the von Karman constant,  $g = 9.81$  m s<sup>-2</sup> is the gravitational acceleration,  $Q_h$  and  $Q_e$  are the sensible (equation (2)) and latent (equation (3)) heat fluxes,

respectively, positive when heat flux is from the lake surface to the atmosphere ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ),  $C_{pa} = 1005 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$  is the specific heat of air at constant pressure, and  $L_v$  is the latent heat of vaporization ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ). A negative  $\zeta$  indicates an unstable ABL, a convective atmosphere above the lake, and increased potential for heat loss from lakes via turbulent heat fluxes. The opposite is the case when  $\zeta$  is positive and the ABL is stably stratified. ABL conditions are neutral when  $\zeta = 0$ . We analyzed the incidence of an unstable ABL as the percentage of time in which  $\zeta < 0$ , using hourly data, and examined the incidence against lake attributes using a multiple regression model.

Air pressure was not measured on all instrumented buoys, and since local variability in air pressure has negligible effect on the estimation of ABL stability, transfer coefficients, and turbulent fluxes [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010], a constant air pressure was assumed for each site, based on the altitude of the lake [Woolway et al., 2015a]. With the exception of air pressure, all data used to estimate the stability of the ABL were measured directly above each lake, as opposed to over land. Previous work has often relied on overland weather data [e.g., Derecki, 1981; Croley, 1989; Rueda et al., 2007].

Sensible heat and latent heat fluxes were estimated with bulk aerodynamic methods [Brutsaert, 1982]

$$Q_h = \rho_a C_{pa} C_h u_z (T_o - T) \quad (2)$$

$$Q_e = \rho_a L_v C_e u_z (q_s - q_z) \quad (3)$$

where  $q_s$  is the specific humidity at saturation ( $\text{kg kg}^{-1}$ ). The turbulent transfer coefficients for heat ( $C_h$ ) and humidity ( $C_e$ ), which regulate  $Q_h$  and  $Q_e$  energy exchanges, were assumed to be equal and adjusted for ABL stability by applying stability functions [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010]. Estimates of the surface turbulent fluxes of  $Q_h$  and  $Q_e$  taking into account varying ABL conditions were compared with estimates that assume ABL neutrality to elucidate the role of ABL stability in regulating air-water exchanges.

The air-water surface temperature difference ( $\Delta T = T - T_o$ ) has been used as a measure of ABL stability in previous studies [Croley, 1989; Derecki, 1981]. However, stability of the ABL is more accurately related to the virtual air-water temperature gradient [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010], which is estimated as the difference between  $T_v$  and the virtual temperature of saturated air at the water surface ( $T_{0v}$ , K):  $\Delta T_v = T_v - T_{0v}$ . When  $\zeta < 0$  (unstable ABL), then  $\Delta T_v < 0$  is also true (Figure S1), while  $T - T_o$  can be several degrees higher [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010]. Therefore, in addition to  $\zeta$ , we use  $\Delta T_v$  as an alternative measure of ABL stability and estimate the incidence of an unstable ABL as the percentage of time in which  $\Delta T_v < 0$ . As the meteorological measurement heights vary among lakes, we converted  $T$  and  $q_z$  to a surface elevation of 10 m ( $T_{10}$  and  $q_{10}$ , respectively) following Zeng et al. [1998], using the algorithms of Woolway et al. [2015a], prior to calculating  $\Delta T_v$ . In addition, to ensure that ABL conditions that were close to neutral were not inferred as unstable as a result of measurement uncertainty, we included an uncertainty threshold to our estimates of percent unstable conditions by determining the prevalence of unstable ABL conditions as the proportion of time during which  $\Delta T_v < -0.5 \text{ K}$ .

All statistical analyses in this study were performed in R [R Development Core Team, 2014], including bilinear regressions computed with the "Segmented" package [Vito and Muggeo, 2008], used to relate the frequency of unstable ABL conditions to lake surface area.

To evaluate further the influence of latitude on ABL stability, we also examined incoming solar radiation (i.e., shortwave;  $Q_{sw}$ ) and thermal radiation (i.e., longwave;  $Q_{lw}$ ). A number of lakes ( $n = 28$ ) had in situ measurements of  $Q_{sw}$ , but to be consistent among all lakes, we used  $Q_{sw}$  and  $Q_{lw}$  estimates from the ERA-Interim reanalysis product [Dee et al., 2011], available at a spatial resolution of  $0.75^\circ$ . Data were extracted for the grid point situated closest to the center of each lake, and the reanalysis data were verified using in situ measurements when available. To estimate net incoming longwave radiation,  $Q_{lw\text{in}} = (1 - \alpha_{lw})Q_{lw}$ , 3% of  $Q_{lw}$  was assumed to be reflected at the lake surface ( $\alpha_{lw} = 0.03$ ) [Brutsaert, 1982]. Emitted, outgoing longwave radiation was estimated as  $Q_{lw\text{out}} = 0.972\sigma T_o^4$ , where  $\sigma$  is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant ( $= 5.67 \times 10^{-8}$ ). The shortwave albedo ( $\alpha_{sw}$ ), estimated from Fresnel's equation [Woolway et al., 2015a], was used to account for the amount of  $Q_{sw}$  reflected at the lake surface and to estimate the net incoming shortwave radiation:  $Q_{sw\text{in}} = (1 - \alpha_{sw})Q_{sw}$ . These surface radiative fluxes were then used to calculate net radiation, as  $Q_{\text{net}} = Q_{sw\text{in}} + Q_{lw\text{in}} - Q_{lw\text{out}}$ .

### 3. Results

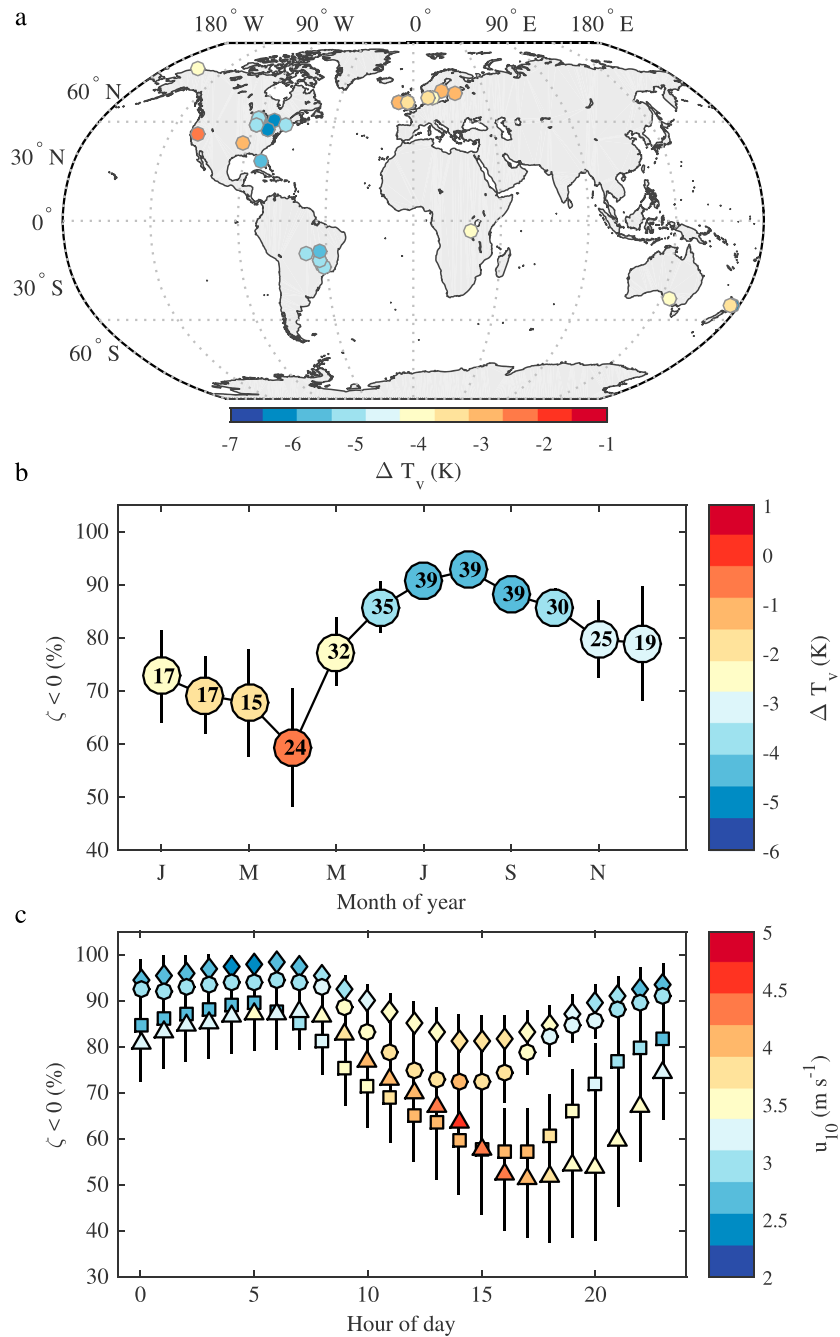
The ABL over lakes was unstable ( $\zeta < 0$  and  $\Delta T_v < 0$ ) 82% of the time on an annual basis ( $n = 14$ ) averaged across this globally distributed set of lakes (Figure 1 and Table S1). However, the stability of the ABL varied at both seasonal and diurnal timescales and differed between lakes. Unstable ABL conditions were most prevalent in summer (91% of time) and least common in spring and winter (74% and 70% of time, respectively; Figures 1b and S2). Since an unstable ABL can enhance surface heat loss considerably [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010] this suggests seasonal differences in heat transfer efficiency [Lofgren and Zhu, 2000; Rouse *et al.*, 2003; Woolway *et al.*, 2015b]. Unstable ABL conditions were most common during the late evening to early morning hours (Figures 1c and S3), when air temperatures tend to be cooler while the surface temperature of the lake retains daytime heat longer. In addition, at night, winds are often less intense, producing less mixing of the lower ABL (Figures 1c and S4). The magnitude of the diurnal cycle in ABL stability also varied among the seasons, similar to that of  $T_0$  [Woolway *et al.*, 2016] with greatest diurnal variability in spring (Figure S3).

For lakes with data available throughout the year ( $n = 14$ ), a multiple linear regression model including latitude, altitude, lake surface area, and lake depth explains 94% of the variation in annual mean frequency of occurrence of unstable ABL conditions ( $\zeta < 0$ ,  $\Delta T_v < 0$ , Table S2 and 95% for  $\Delta T_v < -0.5$ , Table S3). Latitude was the most important covariate ( $R^2 = 0.81$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ), and lake surface area was also significant ( $p < 0.1$ ). The ABL was most commonly unstable near the equator (Figure 2a), with  $\zeta < 0$  more than 99% of the year in Lake Tanganyika. Unstable conditions decreased with increasing latitude, to  $\zeta < 0$  occurring about 72% of the year for lakes situated in the English Lake District.  $Q_{\text{net}}$  increases with decreasing latitude ( $R^2 = 0.93$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).  $Q_{\text{net}}$  correlated significantly with  $T_{0v}$  ( $R^2 = 0.88$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and also with  $\Delta T_v$  ( $R^2 = 0.69$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), with a more negative  $\Delta T_v$  at higher  $Q_{\text{net}}$ .  $\Delta T_v$  decreased (i.e., became increasingly negative) at a rate of 0.28 K per  $10 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  increase in  $Q_{\text{net}}$ . Similarly,  $\Delta T_v$  decreased at a rate of 0.49 K per  $10^\circ$  decrease in latitude, meaning that while  $T_v$  increases toward the tropics, the increase in  $T_{0v}$  is larger, as a result of higher  $Q_{\text{net}}$  received by tropical lakes.

When restricting the analysis to summer, latitude and lake surface area were statistically significant predictors as well of the frequency of unstable ABL conditions ( $n = 39$ , Tables S2 and S3), with latitude being the stronger factor. The relationship between latitude and ABL stability was strongest among the larger lakes ( $>10 \text{ km}^2$ ) during summer ( $R^2 = 0.70$ ,  $n = 18$ ; Figure 2b) with, similar to the annual data, a higher incidence of unstable ABL conditions at lower latitude.

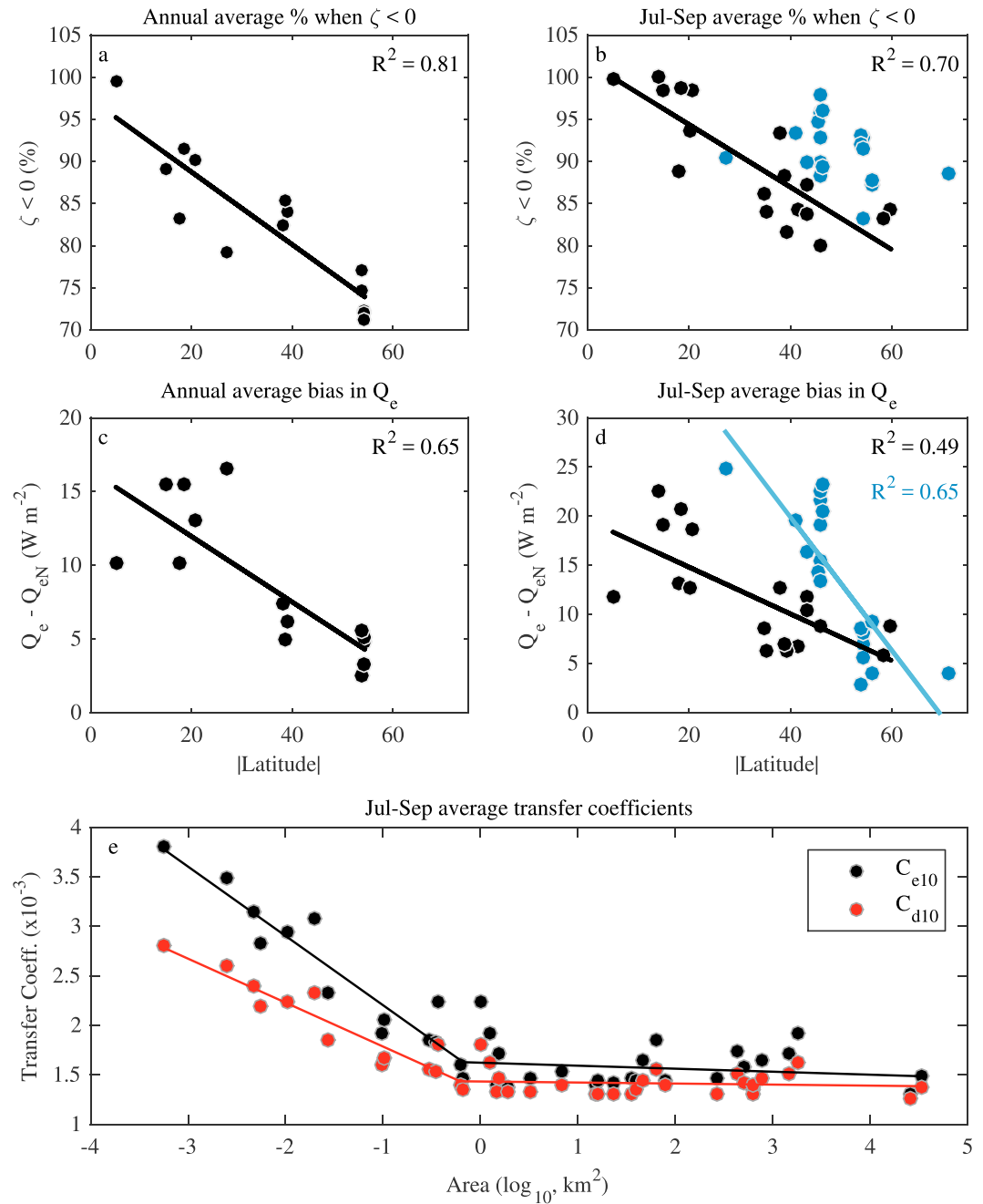
Assuming neutral turbulent transfer coefficients to estimate the transfer efficiency to and from the atmosphere of vapor and heat resulted in a mean annual ( $n = 14$ ) underestimate of  $8.6 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (12% difference) and  $3.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (28% difference) in estimates of  $Q_e$  and  $Q_h$ , respectively, compared to transfer coefficients adjusted for ABL stability. This bias in  $Q_e$  increased with decreasing latitude ( $R^2 = 0.65$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 2c). The bias was even greater, an average  $14.0 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  and  $4.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  for  $Q_e$  and  $Q_h$ , respectively, if a constant, such as  $1.35 \times 10^{-3}$  [Hicks, 1972, 1975] was assumed for the transfer coefficients  $C_e$  and  $C_h$ , as opposed to transfer coefficients accounting for ABL stability. Moreover, in summer ( $n = 39$ ), there was a mean difference of  $12.7 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (16% difference) and  $4.1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (28% difference) for  $Q_e$  and  $Q_h$ , respectively, between estimates assuming neutral transfer coefficients and those which account for ABL stability, with largest differences at low latitudes ( $R^2 = 0.56$ ; Figure 2d). Similar to the annual data, the bias was greater,  $21.5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  and  $5.5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  for  $Q_e$  and  $Q_h$ , respectively, in summer if constant transfer coefficients were assumed. A difference of  $27 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  in  $Q_e$  and  $Q_h$  combined equates to a 22% change in the surface energy budget as given by the summer average  $Q_{\text{net}}$  among the study lakes ( $121.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ).

The transfer coefficients for momentum ( $C_d$ ), and water vapor and heat ( $C_e = C_h$ ), which describe the transfer efficiency to and from the atmosphere, are higher when the ABL is unstable [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010] and when wind speeds are low, such as during summer (Figures S4 and S5). Mean wind speed ( $u_{10}$ ) in summer correlated significantly with lake surface area ( $R^2 = 0.36$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), but not with latitude or altitude ( $p > 0.1$ ), suggesting an effect of lake fetch. A strong lake size dependence also existed for the mean transfer coefficients (Figure 2e and Table S4). We also found a weak but statistically significant relationship ( $R^2 = 0.12$ ,  $p = 0.04$ ) between summer average wind speed and the percentage of time in which the ABL was unstable ( $\zeta < 0$  and  $\Delta T_v < 0$ ; Figure S6). The greatest change in the transfer coefficients following accounting for ABL



**Figure 1.** Comparisons of atmospheric stability above lakes across temporal and spatial scales. (a) Location of each lake, colored according to the summer (July–September in the Northern Hemisphere and January–March in the Southern Hemisphere) average air–water virtual temperature difference ( $\Delta T_v = T_v - T_{0v}$ ). (b) Monthly averaged percentage of time in which  $\zeta < 0$ , with confidence intervals, as well as with colors indicating mean  $\Delta T_v$ . The number of lakes with available data for each month contributing to the average is indicated. Monthly average percentage of time in which  $\zeta < 0$  in lakes with data available throughout the year ( $n = 14$ ) is shown in Figure S2. (c) Average diurnal cycles of the percentage of time in which  $\zeta < 0$ , for winter (January, February, March (JFM), triangles,  $n = 16$ ), spring (April, May, June (AMJ), squares,  $n = 30$ ), summer (July, August, September (JAS), diamonds,  $n = 39$ ), and autumn (October, November, December (OND), circles,  $n = 24$ ) months, with 95% confidence intervals. Colors represent the average diurnal cycles in surface wind speed adjusted to a height of 10 m ( $u_{10}$ ). Southern Hemisphere lakes were shifted by 182 days.





**Figure 2.** Relationships between lake location and size, atmospheric stability, and the accurate estimation of turbulent energy fluxes. Shown are the relationships between latitude (shown as absolute latitude) and (a) the annual percentage of time in which  $\zeta < 0$  ( $n = 14$ ), (b) the summer percentage of time in which  $\zeta < 0$  ( $n = 39$ ), (c) the annual average difference in the latent heat flux ( $Q_e$ ) which arises by not accounting for atmospheric stability in the estimation of transfer coefficients and (d) the summer average difference in  $Q_e$  which arises by not accounting for atmospheric stability in the estimation of transfer coefficients. For the summer data (Figures 2b and 2d), a linear fit is shown for the lakes (black) with surface area  $> 10$  km<sup>2</sup> ( $p < 0.1$ ). A linear fit is also shown for the smallest lakes ( $< 10$  km<sup>2</sup>; blue circles) where significant ( $p < 0.1$ ).  $R^2$  values are shown for each linear fit. (e) Relationship between lake surface area and the transfer coefficients (adjusted to a height of 10 m) for the latent heat flux ( $C_{e10}$ ) and momentum ( $C_{d10}$ ), accounting for atmospheric stability. All values are shown as summer averages. A bilinear trend is shown. Coefficient values are in Table S4.

stability was observed in lakes  $< \sim 1 \text{ km}^2$  (Figure 2e). These results demonstrate that lake surface area and its effect on ABL stability affects  $C_e$  and  $C_d$  and that the stability of the ABL has a greater influence on the transfer coefficients in smaller lakes during summer. Latitude showed no significant effect on the transfer coefficients ( $p > 0.1$ ). However, after removing the lake area effect (i.e., the bilinear trends in Figure 2e),  $C_{e10}$  (adjusted to a height of 10 m,  $R^2 = 0.19$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ) and  $C_{d10}$  ( $R^2 = 0.16$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ) were both significantly correlated with latitude, consistent with the aforementioned effect of  $Q_{\text{net}}$  on ABL stability.

#### 4. Discussion

This global-scale analysis has identified latitude and lake surface area as significant predictors of the variability in ABL stability over lake surfaces. Previous studies have shown evidence of a high incidence of unstable ABL conditions and its influence on the turbulent energy fluxes in individual lakes [Verburg and Antenucci, 2010; Lorenzetti et al., 2015; Yusup and Liu, 2016]. This paper investigated the effects of geographic location and lake morphometry on ABL stability, the turbulent transfer coefficients, and on energy fluxes across the air-water interface. High-frequency data recorded on lakes showed variability in ABL stability on diurnal, seasonal, and annual timescales. Our results reveal that the ABL was unstable on average  $> 80\%$  of the year across the examined lakes and that a strong latitudinal and lake size dependence exists for the incidence of unstable ABL conditions. An unstable ABL is more common above low-latitude lakes on seasonal and annual timescales and above small lakes during summer.

Lake size can affect lake temperatures (and the overlying atmosphere) and thereby the ABL and lake-air interactions. Small lakes are often well sheltered from the wind and experience lower wind speeds than large lakes with greater fetch [Hondzo and Stefan, 1993], resulting in less mechanical mixing of the lower ABL and, consequently, a higher incidence of unstable ABL ( $\zeta < 0$ ) conditions. Moreover, small lakes tend to have higher dissolved organic carbon concentrations [Hanson et al., 2007], resulting in more stratified distributions of thermal energy, higher lake surface temperatures, and more negative  $\Delta T_v$  due to higher attenuation of light in the water column [Read and Rose, 2013]. The effects of high dissolved organic carbon concentrations in small lakes on lake surface temperature and on ABL stability would be especially notable in summer when the lake water column is stratified. This is consistent with the relationship between lake size and the frequency of unstable conditions, which was negative during summer but not the rest of the year. The transfer coefficients  $C_d$  and  $C_e$  increased sharply as lake surface area fell below  $1 \text{ km}^2$ . This lake size threshold is similar to that reported for transitions in the relative contribution of convective mixing in the gas transfer coefficient [Read et al., 2012] and in the magnitude of diurnal heating and cooling in surface waters [Woolway et al., 2016].

Net radiation received by lakes is higher in the tropics, due to higher  $Q_{\text{swin}}$  and  $Q_{\text{lwin}}$ , and lower shortwave albedo. The latter is a result of a smaller zenith angle at low-latitude lakes [Cogley, 1979], thus increasing the proportion of shortwave radiation being absorbed annually. Higher  $Q_{\text{net}}$  likely explains why, while lake water temperatures are typically higher than air temperatures in most lakes, they are more so in tropical lakes, on an annual average.  $\Delta T_v$  becomes increasingly negative toward the tropics indicating a more frequently unstable ABL.

Comparisons of turbulent energy fluxes calculated without taking ABL stability into account with those calculated by applying stability functions demonstrate substantial differences. Assuming neutral transfer coefficients instead of accounting for ABL stability in the estimation of turbulent transfer coefficients resulted in evaporation being underestimated on average by 16% during summer. Note that this is not a comparison with turbulent energy fluxes in a truly neutral ABL ( $\zeta = \Delta T_v = 0$ ), because then  $Q_e$  and  $Q_h$  are close to zero. Many lake models that use a physically based approach [Imberger et al., 1978; Imberger and Patterson, 1981; Hipsey et al., 2014] apply fixed transfer coefficients [Fischer et al., 1979] when simulating lake temperatures at daily or longer timescales, as it is often assumed that only at diurnal timescales is the thermal inertia of water too great to use constant values. However, our results illustrate that on seasonal and annual timescales  $C_e$  and  $C_d$  can be over twice as large as assumed fixed values, particularly for small lakes (Figure 2e). This challenges the validity of neglecting the effect of ABL stability on transfer coefficients by using neutral coefficients or, more generally, of applying constant transfer coefficients at seasonal and longer timescales. The inclusion of variable ABL conditions in the formulation of turbulent transfer coefficients has consequences for the simulation of heat transfer, and thus lake thermal dynamics, which are fundamental to understanding lake biogeochemistry and ecology and the role of lakes in the global carbon cycle.



Variable ABL conditions, and the accurate estimation of their effect on the turbulent energy fluxes, are likely to influence estimates of rates of gas transfer, in particular, at lower latitudes [Erickson, 1993], where lakes generally have persistent carbon dioxide supersaturation [Cole *et al.*, 1994; Marotta *et al.*, 2009; Marotta *et al.*, 2014]. In addition, small lakes, which have recently been demonstrated to be important in the study of global and regional processes including carbon and nutrient cycling [Cole *et al.*, 2007], vastly outnumber large lakes globally [Downing *et al.*, 2006; Verpoorter *et al.*, 2014]; thus, our findings of the effect of lake size on ABL stability are important when evaluating the role of lakes in global cycles.

Given the importance of ABL stability in influencing the exchange of water and energy at the air-water interface, our findings highlight the importance of lake location and size for evaluating the role of lakes in the Earth's hydrologic cycle, which is expected to accelerate with climate change [Wentz *et al.*, 2007; Wu *et al.*, 2013]. Our results show that water surface temperatures are on average higher than air temperatures. While air temperature increases toward the tropics, the increase in lake surface temperature is larger. Climate warming will likely increase the destabilization of the ABL, as suggested by the observation that temperatures in many lakes have increased more than air temperatures in the past few decades [Desai *et al.*, 2009; O'Reilly *et al.*, 2015; Woolway and Merchant, 2017]. Such enhanced lake-air temperature gradients by climate warming are likely to result in enhanced heat loss, gas fluxes, and evaporation from lakes.

# Acknowledgments

R.I.W. was funded by EUSTACE which received funding from the EU Horizon 2020 Programme for Research and Innovation (grant 640171). We thank individuals that contributed data included in this analysis: Jon Cole, Brittany Potter, Peter Staehr, Hilary Swain, Gerardo Rivera, and Elvira de Eyto. This work benefited from participation in GLEON and NETLAKE. J.A.R. acknowledges funding from the Ontario Ministry of the Environment and Climate Change and the Inter-American Institute for Global Change Research (grant CRN3038). J.D.L. was supported by a grant from the National Science Foundation (NSF) Arctic Observing Network (AON; grant 1107792). Data collection for Vörtsjärv was supported by the Estonian Ministry of Education and Research (grant IUT21-2). Researchers from various institutions provided data used in this study. Please contact riwoolway@gmail.com for more information regarding requesting this data from the relevant individuals.

# References

- Balsamo, G., E. Dutra, V. M. Stepanenko, P. Viterbo, P. M. A. Miranda, and D. Mironov (2010), Deriving an effective lake depth from satellite lake surface temperature data: A feasibility study with MODIS data, *Boreal Environ. Res.*, *15*, 178–190.
- Bonan, G. B. (1995), Sensitivity of a GCM simulation to inclusion of inland water surfaces, *J. Clim.*, *8*, 2691–2704, doi:10.1175/1520-0442(1995)008<2691:SOAGST>2.0.CO;2.
- Brookes, J. D., C. C. Carey, D. P. Hamilton, L. Ho, L. van der Linden, R. Renner, and A. Rigosi (2014), Emerging challenges for the drinking water industry, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, *48*, 2099–2101, doi:10.1021/es405606t.
- Brutsaert, W. H. (1982), *Evaporation Into the Atmosphere: Theory, History, and Applications*, D. Reidel, Dordrecht, Netherlands.
- Cogley, J. G. (1979), The albedo of water as a function of latitude, *Mon. Weather Rev.*, *107*, 775–781, doi:10.1175/1520-0493(1979)107<0775:TAOWAA>2.0.CO;2.
- Cole, J. J., N. F. Caraco, G. W. Kling, and T. K. Kratz (1994), Carbon dioxide supersaturation in the surface waters of lakes, *Science*, *265*(5178), 1568–1570, doi:10.1126/science.265.5178.1568.
- Cole, J. J., *et al.* (2007), Plumbing the global carbon cycle: Integrating inland waters into the terrestrial carbon budget, *Ecosystems*, *10*, 172–185, doi:10.1007/s10021-006-9013-8.
- Croley, T. E., II (1989), Verifiable evaporation modeling on the Laurentian Great Lakes, *Water Resour. Res.*, *25*, 781–792, doi:10.1029/WR025i005p00781.
- Dee, D. P., *et al.* (2011), The ERA-Interim reanalysis: Configuration and performance of the data assimilation system, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, *137*, 553–597.
- Derecki, J. A. (1981), Stability effects on Great Lakes Evaporation, *J. Great Lakes Res.*, *7*, 357–362.
- Desai, A. R., J. A. Austin, V. Bennington, and G. A. McKinley (2009), Stronger winds over a large lake in response to weakening air-to-lake temperature gradient, *Nat. Geosci.*, *2*, 855–858, doi:10.1038/ngeo693.
- Downing, J. A., *et al.* (2006), The global abundance and size distribution of lakes, ponds, and impoundments, *Limnol. Oceanogr.*, *51*, 2388–2397, doi:10.4319/lo.2006.51.5.2388.
- Erickson, D. J., III (1993), A stability dependent theory for air-sea gas exchange, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *98*, 8471–8488, doi:10.1029/93JC00039.
- Fischer, H. B., E. J. List, R. C. Y. Koh, J. Imberger, and N. H. Brooks (1979), *Mixing in Inland and Coastal Waters*, Academic Press, London.
- Garratt, J. R. (1994), Review: The atmospheric boundary layer, *Earth Sci. Rev.*, *37*, 89–134.
- Gronewold, A. D., and C. A. Stow (2014), Water loss from the Great Lakes, *Science*, *343*(6175), 1084–1085, doi:10.1126/science.1249978.
- Hanson, P. C., S. R. Carpenter, J. A. Cardille, M. T. Coe, and L. A. Winslow (2007), Small lakes dominate a random sample of regional lake characteristics, *Freshw. Biol.*, *52*, 814–822, doi:10.1111/j.1365-2427.2007.01730.x.
- Hicks, B. B. (1972), Some evaluations of drag and bulk transfer coefficients over water bodies of different sizes, *Boundary Layer Meteorol.*, *3*, 201–213, doi:10.1007/BF02033919.
- Hicks, B. B. (1975), A procedure for the formulation of bulk transfer coefficients over water, *Boundary-Layer Meteorol.*, *8*, 515–524, doi:10.1007/BF02153568.
- Hipsey, M. R., L. C. Bruce, and D. P. Hamilton (2014), GLM—General Lake Model: Model overview and user information. AED Report #26, The University of Western Australia, Perth, Australia.
- Hondzo, M., and H. G. Stefan (1993), Regional water temperature characteristics of lakes subjected to climate change, *Clim. Chang.*, *24*, 187–211, doi:10.1007/BF01091829.
- Imberger, J., and J. C. Patterson (1981), A dynamic reservoir simulation model—DYRESM: 5, in *Transport Models for Inland and Coastal Waters*, edited by H. B. Fischer, pp. 310–361, Academic Press, New York.
- Imberger, J. C., J. Patterson, R. Hebbert, and I. Loh (1978), Dynamics of reservoir of medium size, *J. Hydr. Eng. Div.- ASCE*, *104*, 725–743.
- Immerzeel, W. W., L. P. H. van Beek, and M. F. P. Bierkens (2010), Climate change will affect the Asian water towers, *Science*, *328*(5984), 1382–1385, doi:10.1126/science.1183188.
- Laird, N. F., and D. A. R. Kristovich (2002), Variations of sensible and latent heat fluxes from a Great Lakes buoy and associated synoptic weather patterns, *J. Hydrometeorol.*, *3*, 3–12, doi:10.1175/1525-7541(2002)003<0003:VOSALH>2.0.CO;2.
- Livingstone, D. M., A. F. Lotter, and I. R. Walker (1999), The decrease in summer surface water temperature with altitude in Swiss Alpine Lakes: A comparison with air temperature lapse rates, *Arct. Antarct. Alp. Res.*, *31*, 341–352, doi:10.2307/1552583.
- Lofgren, B. M. (1997), Simulated effects of idealized Laurentian Great Lakes on regional and large-scale climate, *J. Clim.*, *10*, 2847–2858, doi:10.1175/1520-0442(1997)010<2847:SEOILG>2.0.CO;2.

- Lofgren, B. M., and Y. Zhu (2000), Surface energy fluxes on the Great Lakes based on satellite-observed surface temperatures 1992 to 1995, *J. Great Lakes Res.*, *26*, 305–314.
- Lorenzetti, J. A., C. A. S. Araújo, and M. P. Curtarelli (2015), Mean diel variability of surface energy fluxes over Manso Reservoir, *Inland Waters*, *5*, 155–172, doi:10.5268/IW-5.2.761.
- MacIntyre, S., J. R. Romero, and G. W. Kling (2002), Spatial-temporal variability in surface layer deepening and lateral advection in an embayment of Lake Victoria, East Africa, *Limnol. Oceanogr.*, *47*, 656–671, doi:10.4319/lo.2002.47.3.0656.
- Marotta, H., L. T. Paiva, and M. M. Petrucio (2009), Changes in thermal and oxygen stratification pattern coupled to CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing persistence in two oligotrophic shallow lakes of the Atlantic Tropical Forest, Southeast Brazil, *Limnology*, *10*, 195–202, doi:10.1007/s10201-009-0272-x.
- Marotta, H., L. Pinho, C. Gudas, D. Bastviken, L. J. Tranvik, and A. Enrich-Prast (2014), Greenhouse gas production in low-latitude lake sediments responds strongly to warming, *Nat. Clim. Chang.*, *4*, 467–470, doi:10.1038/nclimate2222.
- O'Reilly, C., et al. (2015), Rapid and highly variable warming of lake surface waters around the globe, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *42*, 10,773–10,781, doi:10.1002/2015GL066235.
- Podgrajsek, E., E. Sahlée, and A. Rutgersson (2015), Diel cycle of lake-air CO<sub>2</sub> flux from a shallow lake and the impact of waterside convection on the transfer velocity, *J. Geophys. Res. Biogeosci.*, *120*, 29–38, doi:10.1002/2014JG002781.
- Polsenaere, P., J. Deborde, G. Detandt, L. O. Vidal, M. A. P. Pérez, V. Marieu, and G. Abril (2013), Thermal enhancement of gas transfer velocity of CO<sub>2</sub> in an Amazon floodplain lake revealed by eddy covariance measurements, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *40*, 1734–1740, doi:10.1002/grl.50291.
- R Development Core Team (2014), *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. [Available at <http://www.R-project.org/>.]
- Read, J. S., and K. C. Rose (2013), Physical responses of small temperate lakes to variation in dissolved organic carbon concentrations, *Limnol. Oceanogr.*, *58*, 921–931, doi:10.4319/lo.2013.58.3.0921.
- Read, J. S., et al. (2012), Lake-size dependency of wind shear and convection as controls on gas exchange, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *39*, L09405, doi:10.1029/2012GL051886.
- Rouse, W. R., C. M. Oswald, J. Binyamin, P. D. Blanken, W. M. Schertzer, and C. Spence (2003), Interannual and seasonal variability of the surface energy balance and temperature of central Great Slave Lake, *J. Hydrometeorol.*, *4*, 720–730, doi:10.1175/1525-7541(2003)004<0720:IASVOT>2.0.CO;2.
- Rouse, W. R., C. J. Oswald, J. Binyamin, C. Spence, W. M. Schertzer, P. D. Blanken, N. Bussi  res, and C. R. Duguay (2005), The role of northern lakes in a regional energy balance, *J. Hydrometeorol.*, *6*, 291–305, doi:10.1175/JHM421.1.
- Rueda, F., E. Moreno-Ostos, and L. Cruz-Pizarro (2007), Spatial and temporal scales of transport during the cooling phase of the ice-free period in a small high-mountain lake, *Aquat. Sci.*, *69*, 115–128, doi:10.1007/s00027-006-0823-8.
- Schmid, M., S. Hunziker, and A. J. W  est (2014), Lake surface temperatures in a changing climate: A global sensitivity analysis, *Clim. Chang.*, *124*, 301–315, doi:10.1007/s10584-014-1087-2.
- Straskraba, M. (1980), The effects of physical variables on freshwater production: Analyses based on models, in *The Functioning of Freshwater Ecosystems*, edited by E. D. LeCren, pp. 13–84, Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, U. K.
- Tedford, E. W., S. MacIntyre, S. D. Miller, and M. J. Czikowsky (2014), Similarity scaling of turbulence in a temperate lake during fall cooling, *J. Geophys. Res. Oceans*, *118*, 4689–4713, doi:10.1002/2014JC010135.
- Verburg, P., and J. P. Antenucci (2010), Persistent unstable atmospheric boundary layer enhances sensible and latent heat loss in a tropical great lake: Lake Tanganyika, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *115*, D11109, doi:10.1029/2009JD012839.
- Vito, M., and R. Muggeo (2008), Segmented: An R package to fit regression models with broken-line relationships, *R News*, *8*(1), 20–25.
- Verpoorter, C., T. Kuster, D. A. Seekell, and L. J. Tranvik (2014), A global inventory of lakes based on high-resolution satellite imagery, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *41*, 6396–6402, doi:10.1002/2014GL060641.
- V  r  smarty, C. J., P. Green, J. Salisbury, and R. B. Lammers (2000), Global water resources: Vulnerability from climate change and population growth, *Science*, *289*(5477), 284–288, doi:10.1126/science.289.5477.284.
- V  r  smarty, C. J., et al. (2010), Global threats to human water security and river biodiversity, *Nature*, *467*, 555–561, doi:10.1038/nature09440.
- Wentz, F. J., L. Ricciardulli, K. Hilburn, and C. Mears (2007), How much more rain will global warming bring?, *Science*, *317*, 233–235, doi:10.1126/science.1140746.
- Woolway, R. I., and C. J. Merchant (2017), Amplified surface temperature response of cold, deep lakes to inter-annual air temperature variability, *Sci Rep*, *7*, 4130, doi:10.1038/s41598-017-04058-0.
- Woolway, R. I., I. D. Jones, H. Feuchtmayr, and S. C. Maberly (2015a), A comparison of the diel variability in epilimnetic temperature for five lakes in the English Lake District, *Inland Waters*, *5*, 139–154, doi:10.5268/IW-5.2.748.
- Woolway, R. I., I. D. Jones, D. P. Hamilton, S. C. Maberly, K. Muraoka, J. S. Read, R. L. Smyth, and L. A. Winslow (2015b), Automated calculation of surface energy fluxes with high-frequency lake buoy data, *Environ. Model. Softw.*, *70*, 191–198, doi:10.1016/j.envsoft.2015.04.013.
- Woolway, R. I., et al. (2016), Diel surface temperature range scales with lake size, *PLoS One*, *11*(3), e0152466, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0152466.
- Wu, P., N. Christidis, and P. Stott (2013), Anthropogenic impact on Earth's hydrological cycle, *Nat. Clim. Change*, *3*, 807–810, doi:10.1038/nclimate1932.
- Yusup, Y., and H. Liu (2016), Effects of atmospheric surface layer stability on turbulent fluxes of heat and water vapor across the water-atmosphere interface, *J. Hydrometeorol.*, *17*, 2835–2851, doi:10.1175/JHM-D-16-0042.1.
- Zeng, X., M. Zhao, and R. E. Dickinson (1998), Intercomparison of bulk aerodynamic algorithms for the computation of sea surface fluxes using TOGA COARE and TAO data, *J. Clim.*, *11*, 2628–2644.