

Detiding time series of dissolved oxygen for improved estimates of ecosystem metabolism

Marcus W. Beck¹, Michael C. Murrell², James D. Hagy III²

¹*ORISE Research Participation Program*

*USEPA National Health and Environmental Effects Research Laboratory
Gulf Ecology Division, 1 Sabine Island Drive, Gulf Breeze, FL 32561
Phone: 850-934-2480, Fax: 850-934-2401, Email: beck.marcus@epa.gov*

²*USEPA National Health and Environmental Effects Research Laboratory
Gulf Ecology Division, 1 Sabine Island Drive, Gulf Breeze, FL 32561*

Phone: 850-934-2433, Fax: 850-934-2401, Email: murrell.michael@epa.gov

³*USEPA National Health and Environmental Effects Research Laboratory
Gulf Ecology Division, 1 Sabine Island Drive, Gulf Breeze, FL 32561*

Phone: 850-934-2455, Fax: 850-934-2401, Email: hagy.jim@epa.gov

Running head: Noise in Estuary Metabolism

Acknowledgments

Will add something here...

Abstract

Time series of dissolved oxygen (DO) can be used to estimate rates of primary production and respiration in aquatic ecosystems. However, continuous monitoring data at estuaries may reflect variation from both biological and physical processes, such that observed data may produce inaccurate or misleading estimates of metabolism. Statistical techniques that dynamically quantify variation in DO and tidal changes over time have the potential to isolate biological signals in DO variation to more accurately estimate metabolism. A weighted regression method was developed to normalize, or detide, the predicted DO signal to remove the influence of physical advection on metabolism estimates. The method was tested using a simulation approach to create multiple DO time series with known additive components of biological and physical variation on different periods. The method was further validated using one year of continuous monitoring data from four case studies. We provide a detailed discussion on use of the method for improving certainty in evaluation of DO measurements from sites with strong tidal influences. Moreover, we propose that the method could expand use of the open-water method for estimating ecosystem metabolism in estuaries given that the approach can produce robust estimates of DO that are independent of tidal advection. In particular, this could facilitate the use of shorter deployment periods for water quality monitors or incomplete time series given that known biases related to water movement could be removed.

21 ***Introduction***

22 Metabolism estimates from time series of dissolved oxygen provide integrated estimates
23 of production in aquatic ecosystems (Kemp and Testa 2012, Needoba et al. 2012). Autotrophic or
24 productive systems are characterized by high rates of energy transfer between trophic levels
25 leading to accumulation of organic matter, whereas heterotrophic systems are sinks of organic
26 matter that are supported by allochthonous sources of energy input. Integrated measures of
27 metabolism describe the balance between production and respiration that accounts for varying
28 rates in processes that create and consume organic matter. Although metabolic rates vary
29 naturally at multiple spatiotemporal scales (Ziegler and Benner 1998, Caffrey 2004, Russell and
30 Montagna 2007), anthropogenic stressors are often contributing factors that increase rates of
31 production (Diaz 2008). Inputs of limiting nutrients beyond background concentrations may
32 decrease the resilience of an ecosystem such that higher rates of production are coupled with
33 higher biological oxygen demand (Yin et al. 2004, Kemp et al. 2009). Cultural eutrophication is
34 frequently linked to declines in water quality through lower levels of dissolved oxygen,
35 degradation in aquatic vegetation habitat, and increased frequency of harmful algal blooms
36 (Cloern 1996, Short and Wyllie-Echeverria 1996, Rabalais et al. 2002). Reliably estimates of
37 ecosystem metabolism are critical for measuring both background rates of production and
38 potential impacts of human activities on ecosystem condition.

39 Ecosystem metabolism can be estimated using two basic techniques, each of which is
40 appropriate under different conditions or assumptions (Kemp and Testa 2012). Bottle-based
41 techniques rely on rate measurements from discrete water quality samples, whereas open-water
42 techniques infer metabolic rates using *in situ* measurements from continuous monitoring data.

Bottle-based techniques are useful for partitioning metabolic contributions into discrete habitats, such as pelagic production rates during specific time periods (Kemp and Testa 2012). However, such measurements may be insufficient for evaluating whole ecosystem metabolism if significant production occurs in habitats that are not sampled, such as the benthos. As such, the open-water technique provides an integrative measure of metabolism by inferring process rates from *in situ*, continuous monitoring data. Originally for use in streams (Odum 1956), the method has been used with varying success in lakes (Staeher et al. 2010, Coloso et al. 2011, Batt and Carpenter 2012) and estuaries (Caffrey 2004, Hopkinson and Smith 2005, Caffrey et al. 2013). As with any method, the ability of the open-water technique to accurately estimate whole system metabolism depends on whether the assumptions for its use are not violated. Such assumptions are often only implicitly verified in practice, leading to potential biases.

The open-water method uses the diel fluctuation of dissolved oxygen to infer rates of ecosystem metabolism, after correcting for losses or gains through air-water exchange (Kemp and Testa 2012). Daily integrated measurements of metabolism represent the balance between daytime estimates of gross production and nighttime estimates of respiration. The fundamental assumption is that dissolved oxygen (DO) measurements describe the same water mass over time (Needoba et al. 2012). Estimates of metabolism from a single location may be inaccurate if substantial variation in water column mixing occurs throughout the period of observation (Russell and Montagna 2007). Application of the technique to estimate metabolism in streams requires the comparison of data from an upstream and downstream station (Odum 1956). Application to lakes or estuaries have often assumed that a single sampling station provides sufficient data for estimating metabolism (Staeher et al. 2010). While single stations may be valid under specific conditions, numerous studies have shown that the open-water method may be inappropriate given

the effects of physical mixing in lakes or estuaries (Ziegler and Benner 1998, Caffrey 2003, Coloso et al. 2011, Batt and Carpenter 2012, Nidzieko et al. 2014). An exhaustive analysis by Caffrey (2003) applied the open-water method to estimate metabolism at 28 continuous monitoring stations at 14 US estuaries. A non-trivial portion of the estimates were negative for production during the day and positive for respiration during the night. These ‘anomalous’ values were attributed to the effects of tidal advection such that water masses with different metabolic histories were sampled at multiple sites.

The effects of tidal advection on estimates of ecosystem metabolism have been a point of concern in numerous studies (Monbet 1992, Ziegler and Benner 1998, Caffrey 2003, Collins et al. 2013, Howarth et al. 2014), although systematic estimates of its effects have been minimal. Analytical techniques to evaluate and correct for tidal advection could improve certainty in metabolism estimates and increase the use of data from shorter deployment periods if sources of bias are removed. This article describes the theory and application of a method for detiding an observed DO time series to more accurately quantify estimates of ecosystem metabolism for estuaries. Specifically, the method characterizes the effects of tidal advection on DO observations to improve estimates of open-water metabolism with multi-year time series of high frequency (< one hour) water quality data. The focus of our analysis is the use of a weighted regression method previously developed for trend analysis of pollutant concentrations in streams and rivers (Hirsch et al. 2010) and recently adapted for trend evaluation of water quality in estuaries (Beck and Hagy, In review). The weighted regression approach creates dynamic predictions of DO as a function of time and tidal height change, which are then used to normalize, or detide, the DO signal. First, we use a simulation approach to create time series of DO observations with known characteristics to evaluate ability of the weighted regression to remove the effects of tidal

advection. Second, four case studies from the National Estuarine Research Reserve System (NERRS, [Wenner et al. 2004](#)) are used to validate the method for improving estimates of ecosystem metabolism. Overall, the analysis is meant to improve the certainty of information obtained from monitoring data by evaluating the relative roles of biological and physical processes in estuarine systems. Applications are expected to have implications for ecosystem management by outlining strategies for interpreting water quality data with more accuracy.

Materials and Procedures

Weighted regression for modelling and detiding DO time series

The weighted regression model for detiding DO time series was adapted from the weighted regression on time, discharge, and season (WRTDS) method developed by [Hirsch et al. \(2010\)](#). The functional form of our model is a simple linear regression:

$$DO_{obs} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 H \quad (1)$$

where observed DO is a linear function of decimal time t and astronomical tidal height H . Decimal time is a continuous variable for the day and time of each observation with time as a proportion of the number of total observations added to each day. The beginning of each day was considered the nearest thirty minute observation at which sunrise was expected for a given location and time of year. Days were centered on the diel cycle rather than conventional times (i.e., midnight) given that the objective was to develop a predictive model relevant for biological DO variation that follows solar and seasonal cycles. The functional form also differed from the original WRTDS method that included parameters to estimate variation of the response variable

on a sinusoidal period. DO variation was not modeled using this approach because rates of change may be abrupt following diurnal variation in irradiance or daily DO variation may be muted given the weather, as on cloudy days.

Weighted regression is implemented as a moving window that allows for estimation of DO throughout the time series by adapting to variation through time as a function of tide. Regression models are estimated sequentially for each observation in the time series using dynamic weight vectors that change with the center of the window. Weight vectors quantify the relevance of observations to the center of the window in respect to decimal time, hour of the day, and tidal height. Specifically, weights are assigned to each variable using a tri-cube weighting function (Tukey 1977, Hirsch et al. 2010):

$$w = \begin{cases} \left(1 - (d/h)^3\right)^3 & \text{if } |d| \leq h \\ 0 & \text{if } |d| > h \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where the weight w of each observation is inversely proportional to the distance d from the center of the window such that observations more similar to the point of reference are given higher importance in the regression. Weights exceeding the maximum width of the window h are equal to zero. The tri-cube weighting function is similar to a normal distribution such that weights decrease gradually from the center until the maximum window width is reached. Observations that are half the distance from the center of the window to the maximum window width are weighted one third less than values at the center. Regressions that use simpler windows (e.g., boxcar approach) are more sensitive to influential observations as they enter or leave the window, whereas the tri-cube function minimizes their effect through gradual weighting of observations

from the center ([Hirsch et al. 2010](#)). The final weight vector for each observation is the product of three separate weight vectors for decimal time (day), hour, and tidal height. Windows for decimal time and hour describe the the amount of time from the center of window, whereas the window for tidal height describes the distance as a proportion of the total range. A low weight is given to an observation if any of the three weighting values were not similar to the center of the window since the final weight vector is the product of three weight vectors for each variable (see the link in the [multimedia](#) section for graphical display of different weights).

A nontrivial issue with weighted regression is the choice of window width for each weight vector. Excessively large or small window widths may respectively under- or over-fit the data. Additionally, optimal window widths may depend on the objective for using the model. The weighted regression approach can be used for predicting DO or normalizing to remove the variance from tidal changes. Optimal window widths that minimize prediction error or fit to the observed data are typically smaller than the optimum window widths for normalizing the time series. Similarly, window widths that more effectively detide the DO signal may produce predictions for the observed data that are not optimal. Evaluations of the weighted regression method with simulated DO time series, described below, used multiple window widths to identify an approximate optimal window width for detiding the DO signal. As such, the ability of the models to predict observed DO was not a primary concern given that the optimal window width for detiding likely corresponds to a model that predicts DO as a function of tide rather than observed DO as a function of both tide and biological variation.

Detiding the DO signal using weighted regression

The primary objective of the weighted regression is to detide a DO signal to obtain more accurate estimates of metabolism. [Hirsch et al. \(2010\)](#) developed the normalization approach for the WRTDS method to remove the effects of stream discharge on estimates of pollutant concentration using a two-dimensional interpolation grid of predicted pollutant concentrations across the time series and the range of stream discharge values observed in the study system ([Hirsch et al. 2010](#)). Normalized values for pollutant concentration are obtained by averaging the model predictions across the discharge values that are likely to occur on a given day to provide an estimate that is independent of flow variation. Similarly, predicted values of DO concentration were normalized to remove variation from tidal height changes, although the approach differs slightly from [Hirsch et al. \(2010\)](#). Only two time series are predicted from the observed time series DO_{obs} , rather than creating an interpolation grid. The first time series is predicted values from the model that represent DO as a function of time and observed tide. The second time series are the same predictions conditional on time and constant tidal height set to the mean:

$$DO_{tid} = f(DO_{obs}|H, t) \quad (3)$$

$$DO_{nrm} = f(DO_{obs}|\bar{H}, t) \quad (4)$$

The first time series isolates variation in observed DO as a function of physical advection, whereas the second represents variation related to biological processes (Fig. 1).

Assessment

Simulation of DO time series

The ability of the weighted regression to detide the DO signal was evaluated first using a simulation approach. Observed DO time series were created to represent the sum of variation from biological processes and physical effects related to tidal advection:

$$DO_{obs} = DO_{bio} + DO_{adv} \quad (5)$$

Biological DO signals are inherently noisy (Batt and Carpenter 2012) and can be further described as:

$$DO_{bio} = DO_{die} + DO_{unc} \quad (6)$$

$$DO_{unc} = \epsilon_{obs} + \epsilon_{proc} \quad (7)$$

where the biological DO signal is the sum of diel variation plus uncertainty or noise. Total uncertainty in the biological DO signal is described as variation from observation and process uncertainty (Hilborn and Mangel 1997). Multiple time series at 30 minute time steps over 30 days were created following eqs. (5) to (7) such that observed DO is generalized as the additive combination of four time series (Fig. 2):

$$DO_{obs} = DO_{adv} + DO_{die} + \epsilon_{obs} + \epsilon_{pro} \quad (8)$$

Time series were created by varying the relative magnitudes of each of the four components of observed DO to test the effectiveness of weighted regression under different scenarios. The effects of air-sea gas exchange were not considered in the simulation given that methods are available for *in situ* data to correct observed DO for diffusion (i.e., [Thébault et al. 2008](#)).

Each component of the simulated time series was created as follows. First, the diel component, DO_{die} , was estimated using a sine/cosine function ([Cryer and Chan 2008](#)):

$$DO_{die} = \alpha + \beta \cos(2\pi ft + \Phi) \quad (9)$$

such that the mean DO α was 8, amplitude β was 1, f was 1/48 to repeat on a 24 hour period every 30 minutes, t was the time series vector and Φ was the x-axis origin set for an arbitrary sunrise at 630am. The diel signal was increasing during the day and decreasing during the night for each 24 hour period and ranged from 7 to 9 mg L⁻¹. Noise or uncertainty was added to the diel DO signal to simulate natural variation in DO throughout the time series (Fig. 2). Total uncertainty was the sum of observation and process uncertainty for $n = 1440$ (30 minutes by 30 days) observations ([Hilborn and Mangel 1997](#)), such that:

$$DO_{unc,n} = \epsilon_{obs,n} + \int_{t=1}^n \epsilon_{pro,t} \quad (10)$$

where observation and process uncertainty (ϵ_{obs} , ϵ_{pro}) were simulated as normally distributed random variables with mean zero and standard deviation varying from zero to an upper limit, described below. To induce auto-correlation, process uncertainty was estimated as the cumulative sum of n observations where the noise at time $t + 1$ was equal to the noise at time t plus

additional variation drawn from the normal distribution. The noise vector for process uncertainty was rescaled to constrain the variation within the bounds for standard deviation defined by the random variable. The total uncertainty, DO_{unc} , was added to the diel DO time series to create the biological DO time series (eq. (6) and Fig. 2).

A semidiurnal tidal series was simulated as a sine wave with a period of 12.5 hours to represent the principal lunar component (Foreman and Henry 1989). The amplitude was set to 1 meter and centered at 4 meters. Initial assessments indicated that tide type (i.e., diurnal, semidiurnal, mixed) did not significantly affect the outcome of the results and a semidiurnal time series was used to reduce the total number of simulations. The tidal time series was added to the biological DO series to simulate DO changes with advection, DO_{adv} (eq. (8) and Fig. 2).

Conceptually, this vector represents the rate of change in DO as a function of horizontal water movement from tidal advection such that:

$$\frac{\delta DO_{adv}}{\delta t} = \frac{\delta DO}{\delta x} \cdot \frac{\delta x}{\delta t} \quad (11)$$

$$\frac{\delta x}{\delta t} = k \cdot \frac{\delta H}{\delta t} \quad (12)$$

where the first derivative of the tidal time series, as change in height over time $\delta H/\delta t$, is multiplied by a constant k , to estimate horizontal tidal excursion over time, $\delta x/\delta t$. The horizontal excursion is assumed to be associated with a horizontal DO change, $\delta DO/\delta x$, such that the product of the two estimates the DO change at each time step from advection, DO_{adv} . In practice, the simulated tidal signal was used to estimate DO_{adv} :

$$DO_{adv} \propto H \quad (13)$$

$$DO_{adv} = 2 \cdot a + a \cdot \frac{H - \min H}{\max H - \min H} \quad (14)$$

where a is analogous to k in eq. (12) and is chosen as the transformation parameter to standardize change in DO from tidal height change to desired units. For example, $a = 1$ will convert H to a scale that simulates changes in DO from tidal advection that range from +/- 1 mg L⁻¹. The final time series for observed DO was the sum of biological DO and advection DO (eq. (5) and Fig. 2).

Evaluation of weighted regression with simulated DO time series

Multiple time series were simulated by varying the conditions in eqs. (5) to (14).

Specifically, the simulated data varied in the relative amount of noise in the measurement (e_{pro} , e_{obs}), relative amplitude of the diel DO component (DO_{die}), and degree of association of the tide with the DO signal (DO_{adv}). Three levels were evaluated for each variable: relative noise as 0, 1, and 2 standard deviations for both process and observation uncertainty, amplitude of diel biological DO as 0, 1, and 2 mg L⁻¹, and DO change from tidal advection as 0, 1, and 2 mg L⁻¹. A total of 81 time series were created based on the unique combinations of parameters (Fig. 3). Three half window widths for each variable (day, hour of day, and tide height) were evaluated for each simulation: decimal time as 1, 3, and 6 days, time of day as 1, 3, and 6 hours, and tidal height as 0.25, 0.5, and 1 as a proportion of the total range given the height at the center of the window. The window widths were chosen based on preliminary assessments that suggested variation in model performance was adequately captured by these values. In total, 27 window width combinations were evaluated for each of 81 simulated time series, producing results for 2187 weighted regressions.

The detided or normalized values for each regression were compared to the simulated data to evaluate the ability of weighted regression to reproduce the biological DO signals. Results

were summarized using Pearson correlation coefficients and the root mean square error (RMSE) between the detided time series and the biological DO time series as a known component of the observed. Overall, the weighted regressions provided accurate results for the detided time series compared to the ‘true’ biological time series regardless of the simulation parameters (Table 1) or window widths (Table 2, results for each simulation can be viewed using the link in the [multimedia](#) section). Mean correlation for all time series and window widths between the detided and biological values was 0.60, with values ranging from -0.78 to 1.00. Mean error was 1.21, with values ranging from 0 to 2.40. Simulations with very poor performance (e.g., negative correlations) were those that had minimum widths for day windows and maximum widths for hour windows, or were those with the DO signal composed entirely of noise from observation uncertainty. Conversely, simulations with detided time series that were identical to the true time series (e.g., correlation of one, RMSE of zero) were those for which there was no biological or tidal influence. Although these examples do not represent real-world scenarios, they were included in the simulations to provide verification that the weighted regression provided reasonable results given extremes.

Characteristics of DO time series that contributed to improved model performance were increasing amplitude of the diel DO component (DO_{die}) and increasing process uncertainty (e_{pro}), whereas increasing observation uncertainty contributed to decreased performance (Table 1 and Fig. 4). Model performance was minimally influenced by magnitude of the tidal advection component (DO_{adv}), although performance decreased slightly with increasing tidal effects. Increasing widths for day and tidal proportion windows contributed to increasing model performance, whereas the opposite was true for increasing hour windows (Table 2 and Fig. 5). Graphical summaries of model performance by simulation parameters (Fig. 4) and half window

widths (Fig. 5) support the general trends described by Tables 1 and 2. Scale differences between Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 emphasize that model performance was more affected by characteristics of the DO time series rather than the selected window widths. For example, the range of correlation values comparing the effects of half window widths (averaged across all simulation parameters, Fig. 5) were approximately half the range of correlations for comparing the effects of simulation parameters (averaged across all half window widths, Fig. 4).

Validation of weighted regression with case studies

NERRS is a federally-funded network of 28 protected estuaries established for long-term research, water-quality monitoring, education, and coastal stewardship (Wenner et al. 2004). Continuous water quality data have been collected at NERRS sites since 1994 through the System Wide Monitoring Program (SWMP). In addition to providing a basis for trend evaluation, data from SWMP provides an ideal opportunity to evaluate long-term variation in water quality parameters from biological and physical processes. Continuous SWMP data can be used to describe DO variation at sites with different characteristics, including variation from ranges in tidal regime (Sanger et al. 2002) and rates of ecosystem production (Caffrey 2003, 2004).

Continuous DO time series and tidal height measurements at four sites from the SWMP database (CDMO 2014) were used to validate the detiding model with real data. Monitoring data from January 1st to December 31st 2012 were obtained from a range of geographic locations (Fig. 6 and Table 3). Astronomical tidal heights were predicted for each site using harmonic regression applied to the sonde depth data (oce package in R, Foreman and Henry 1989, RDCT 2014). Although, the depth data represent tidal height variation from both astronomical (i.e., gravitational effects) and meteorological (e.g., wind, precipitation inflows) sources, we isolated

the former given that daily metabolism estimates were more likely to be affected by repeated diel cycling from normal tidal changes. Each station was also chosen based on highly significant correlations between DO and tidal changes. The four sites included the Vierra Mouth station at Elkhorn Slough (California, 36.81°N, 121.78°W), Bayview Channel at Padilla Bay (Washington, 48.50°N 122.50°W), Middle Blackwater River station at Rookery Bay (Florida, 25.93°N 81.60°W), and Dean Creek station at Sapelo Island (Georgia, 31.39°N 81.28°W). The stations are generally macrotidal semidiurnal or mixed semidiurnal and net heterotrophic on an annual basis (Table 3). Net heterotrophy (i.e., respiration exceeding production) is typical for shallow water systems at temperate latitudes (Caffrey 2003), although values in Table 3 are from observed DO time series that are strongly influenced by tidal advection.

Estimates of ecosystem metabolism before and after detiding

The weighted regression method was applied to the time series for each station to obtain a detided DO time series for estimating metabolism. Half window widths of six days, one hour, and a tidal proportion of one half were chosen based on a balance between large and small window widths, although the chosen window widths are arbitrary and a more exhaustive evaluation should be conducted prior to using the results to inform management. Unlike the simulated data, the true biological DO signal was unknown for the case studies. Accordingly, results were evaluated using correlations of DO and metabolism estimates with tidal height before and after application of the model. Daily metabolism estimates before and after detiding were compared to the mean rate of tidal height change (i.e., first derivative of the predicted tidal height) for each day during separate solar periods. Production rates were compared to mean rates of tidal height change during the day, respiration rates were compared to mean rates of change during the night, and net

metabolism rates were compared to mean rates of change for the total 24 hour period each day. Results were also evaluated based on the occurrence of ‘anomalous’ daily production or respiration estimates, where anomalous was defined as negative production during the day and positive respiration estimates during the night. Anomalous values have been previously attributed to the effects of physical processes on DO time series (Caffrey 2003). We hypothesized that metabolism estimates using the detided signal would contain less ‘anomalous’ values than those from the observed DO time series. Although anomalies could be caused by processes other than tidal advection, e.g., abiotic dark oxygen production (Pamatmat 1997), we assume that physical processes are the dominant sources of these values given the tidal characteristics at each site. Finally, means and standard errors of metabolism estimates were evaluated before and after detiding to determine if annual aggregations were significantly different.

Ecosystem metabolism was estimated from the DO time series using the open-water technique (Odum 1956) as described in Caffrey et al. (2013). The method is used to infer net ecosystem metabolism using the mass balance equation:

$$\frac{\delta DO}{\delta t} = P - R + D \quad (15)$$

where the change in DO concentration (δDO , g O₂ m⁻³) over time (δt , hours) is equal to photosynthetic rate (P , g O₂ m⁻³ hr⁻¹) minus respiration rate (R , g O₂ m⁻³ hr⁻¹), corrected for air-sea gas exchange at the surface (D , g O₂ m⁻³ hr⁻¹) (Caffrey et al. 2013). D is estimated as the difference between the DO saturation concentration and observed DO, multiplied by a volumetric reaeration coefficient, k_a (Thébault et al. 2008). The diffusion-corrected DO flux estimates were averaged during day and night for each 24 hour period in the time series, where flux is an hourly

rate of DO change as the difference between observations at time t and $t + 1$ on an hourly scale. Areal respiration rates were assumed constant during the night and subtracted from daily gross production estimates to yield net ecosystem metabolism (Table 3).

Detiding had significant effects on the correlations between tidal height changes, DO time series, and metabolism estimates (Table 4, see the link in the [multimedia](#) section for graphical results of each case study). Correlations of observed DO time series with predicted tidal height were highly significant, with all sites indicating positive relationships, except Padilla Bay where tidal increases were associated with declines in DO concentration. This suggests that seaward water masses were less anoxic than landward masses, with the opposite being true for Padilla Bay. The detided DO time series had greatly reduced correlations with tidal height, although relationships were still significant after detiding likely because of the large sample size for each site ($n \approx 17500$). Comparison of metabolic rates to tidal changes before and after detiding produced inconsistent results (Table 4). Correlations for Elkhorn Slough and Sapelo Island showed consistent reductions in all three metabolisms estimates after detiding. Correlations for Padilla Bay and Rookery Bay were of opposite sign and greater magnitude after detiding for production and respiration, although net metabolism estimates had reduced correlations.

The proportion of daily integrated metabolism estimates that were anomalous (negative production, positive respiration) were significantly reduced for most sites after detiding (Table 5). Before detiding, anomalous values ranged from 0.09 (Rookery Bay) to 0.22 (Padilla Bay) for production and 0.08 (Rookery Bay) to 0.21 (Elkhorn Slough) for respiration. Anomalous values were reduced to near zero for Rookery Bay and Sapelo Island, by approximately half for Padilla Bay (0.13 for production, 0.13 for respiration), and only slightly reduced for Elkhorn Slough (0.17 for production, 0.17 for respiration). Metabolism estimates using detided DO time series

had decreased mean production and respiration for Elkhorn Slough, increased mean production and respiration for Padilla Bay, and generally unchanged mean production and respiration for Rookery Bay and Sapelo Island (Table 5). Mean net ecosystem metabolism was unchanged for all sites. Decreases in the standard error for all metabolism estimates (production, respiration, and net) were observed for all cases after detiding.

An example from Sapelo Island illustrates the effects of weighted regression on DO and metabolism estimates (Figs. 7 to 9). A two-week period in February shows when the tidal changes were both in and out of phase with the diel cycling. Maximum tide heights were generally out of phase with the diel cycle during the first week such that low tides were observed during the middle of the night and the middle of the day (Fig. 8). The opposite scenario occurred during the second week when the maximum tide height occurred during the day and night (Fig. 8). The effects of tidal height change on the observed DO time series are visually apparent in the plots. The first week illustrates a strong negative bias (less respiration, less production) in the observed DO signal from low tides at mid-day and mid-night, whereas the second example illustrates a strong positive bias (more respiration, more production) in the observed DO from high tides. These biases are apparent in the metabolism estimates using the observed data (Fig. 9). Anomalous estimates occur when low tides are in phase with the solar cycle, whereas metabolism estimates are likely over-estimated when high tides are in phase with the solar cycle. The detided time series shows noticeable changes given the direction of bias from the phasing between tidal height and diel period. DO values were higher after detiding when low tides occurred during night and day periods, whereas DO values were lower after detiding when high tides occurred during day and night periods (Figs. 7 and 8). Changes in metabolism estimates after detiding were also apparent, such that the anomalous values were removed during the first week and the

positive bias in the second week is decreased. Detiding had similar effects for the remaining sites, particularly when tidal changes were strongly in or out of phase with diel periods.

Effects of aggregation and importance of detiding

A final point of concern is the period of observation within which observed DO is affected by tidal height changes and the extent to which this affects the interpretation of ecosystem metabolism. From a management or ecological perspective, the effects of tidal variation on daily estimates may not be a primary concern given that seasonal or annual rates may be more relevant for evaluating ecosystem dynamics with continuous monitoring data. The example from Sapelo Island in the previous section highlights this point given that mean production and respiration estimates before and after detiding were generally unchanged for the two-week period. Table 5 also indicated that mean annual estimates of production and respiration were unchanged for Rookery Bay and Sapelo Island, whereas production and respiration estimates were significantly different for Elkhorn Slough and Padilla Bay. Although we acknowledge that the specific results may be related to the window widths, this suggests that tidal effects contribute to changes in metabolic estimates from observed time series that are aggregated on longer time periods. Therefore, an evaluation of the effects of tidal variation on ecosystem metabolism for different periods of observation is critical for understanding practical implications of weighted regression. Specifically, when should detiding be applied if aggregation of observed data on longer time periods removes potential bias? A comparison of observed and detided estimates that are aggregated over different periods of observation (e.g., annual, seasonal, monthly) could help address this question.

The observed and detided daily estimates were averaged by month and season (Fall,

Spring, Summer, and Winter) for each case study to evaluate effects of aggregation on mean production and respiration estimates. Mean annual estimates in Table 5 also provided a basis of comparison with monthly and seasonal aggregation. Significant variation in aggregated production and respiration estimates for month and season was observed for each case study (Figs. 10 and 11). Detided production and respiration estimates for Padilla Bay and Rookery Bay exhibited seasonal and monthly variation that was more characteristic of expected trends with increases in metabolism during warmer months. Specifically, production estimates based on observed DO were substantially muted for both Padilla Bay (Fig. 10) and Rookery Bay (Fig. 11) during summer months, whereas values were significantly higher based on the detided data. Results for Sapelo Island suggested that winter and summer months were under- and over-estimated, respectively, based on the observed data. Results for Elkhorn Slough varied significantly such that production and respiration were significantly reduced after detiding regardless of the aggregation period. Overall, these trends emphasize the importance of considering different aggregation periods for interpreting metabolism estimates. Each case study showed differences in observed and detided values at monthly and seasonal aggregations, whereas only two of the four case studies had mean aggregated estimates that were substantially different (Elkhorn Slough and Padilla Bay, Table 5). Periods of observation as long as one year may include significant sources of bias from tidal advection, suggesting the need for applying weighted regression given careful consideration of appropriate window widths.

Discussion

The primary objective for development and application of the weighted regression technique was to provide a method for more accurately estimating ecosystem metabolism by

removing variation associated with tidal change in observed DO time series. The application of weighted regression to simulated DO time series with known characteristics and extension to continuous monitoring data from selected NERRS sites provided a proof-of-concept that the method can isolate and remove variation in observed DO from tidal change. Further, aggregation of metabolism estimates using the detided DO time series were significantly different than those using the observed data, particularly for relatively long periods of observation. These results suggest that previous estimates of annual means may not accurately reflect true metabolic signals if the effects of tidal variation confound biological signals in observed DO time series. Additionally, variation of aggregated metabolism estimates were substantially reduced after detiding, suggesting greater confidence in interpreting detided estimates even if the mean values are similar. Monitoring data for periods of observation up to one year may also produce significantly different metabolism estimates if observed data are not detided.

Comparisons between detided and biological DO time series from the simulations indicated that adequate results can be obtained from weighted regressions for a range of characteristics of DO time series. An examination of scenarios that produced abnormal results can provide additional insight into factors that affect the performance of weighted regression. For example, poor performance was observed when the observation uncertainty (ϵ_{obs}) was high and both process uncertainty (ϵ_{pro}) and tidal advection (DO_{adv}) were low. These examples represent time series with excessive random variation, no auto-correlation, and no tidal influence. Poor performance is expected because the weighted regression models a non-existent tidal signal in a very noisy DO time series. These results were observed even for time series with a large diel component of the biological DO signal, suggesting that the model will produce random results in microtidal systems with high noise and no serial correlation. From a practical perspective,

weighted regression should not be applied to noisy time series if there is not sufficient evidence to suggest the variation is related to tidal changes. Similarly, results with perfect or near-perfect correlations between detided and biological DO time series were observed when observation uncertainty and tidal effects were not components of the simulated time series. Although there is no logical basis for applying weighted regression to time series with no apparent tidal influences, the results will be as expected, as was true for cases with low tidal advection, high observation uncertainty, and low process uncertainty. We emphasize that the weighted regression should only be applied to time series for which specific conditions apply, as described below.

The performance metrics used to evaluate weighted regression with the case studies suggested that detiding provided more accurate estimates of ecosystem metabolism. Correlations of metabolism estimates with tidal height changes after detiding were generally reduced, although trends were not always consistent as correlations were reduced in some cases (Sapelo Island) or reversed in others (Padilla Bay). However, correlations of net metabolism estimates were reduced in all cases. Tidal height change provided a proxy for horizontal advection that directly affects the measured rate of change of oxygen. Further, changes in DO concentration represent integrated measures of both production and respiration (eq. (15)). The inconsistent results in Table 4 are potentially related to the effects of horizontal advection on the integrated DO signal, given that production and respiration each represent a unique component of the diel DO variation that is directly affected by tidal variation. Regardless, the proportion of anomalous metabolism estimates was reduced by detiding for all case studies, although this measure may also be an incomplete indication of the combined effects of tidal variation. Negative production and positive respiration estimates suggest assumptions of the open-water method are violated (Needoba et al. 2012), whereas ‘normal’ estimates (positive production and negative respiration) may still include a

significant source of bias from physical advection by providing over-estimates of true values. For example, [Nidzieko et al. \(2014\)](#) observed that net metabolism at Elkhorn Slough was more often heterotrophic during maximum spring tides that occurred at nighttime, as a substantially larger area of salt marsh was inundated leading to higher respiration estimates. Although this result supports our general conclusions, a broader discussion regarding whether or not this represents an actual bias in metabolism from physical advection may be needed.

A strength of the weighted regression approach is a lack of assumptions describing the relationships between DO and tidal variation over time. Although the functional form of the model is a simple linear regression with only two explanatory variables (eq. (1)), the moving window approach combined with the adaptive weighting scheme allows for quantification of complex tidal effects that may not be possible using alternative approaches. For example, [Batt and Carpenter \(2012\)](#) described the use of a moving window or Kalman filter ([Harvey 1989](#)) to improve estimates of ecosystem metabolism in lakes. The approach minimizes the influences of process and observation uncertainty on observed DO time series, which is attributed to the effects of water movement on metabolic signals. Although a similar approach may be useful for estuaries if process and observation uncertainty are the only sources of variation in the DO series, the weighted regression approach is more appropriate if periodic tidal advection is the primary confounding factor. Additionally, results from the case studies illustrated the ability of the weighted regression approach to model changes over time in the relationships between tidal change and DO. Results for Padilla Bay and Rookery Bay suggested that detiding had the largest effect during the summer, whereas the results for cooler months were not significantly different from the observed. The weighted regression method produced detided time series that accommodated seasonal variation in DO conditional on tidal height change, whereas moving

479 window filters or standard regression techniques would likely not have characterized these
480 dynamic relationships.

481 *Comments and recommendations*

482 Results from the simulations and case studies suggested that weighted regression can be a
483 practical approach for detiding DO time series to remove the effects of physical advection on
484 estimates of ecosystem metabolism. However, application of the method may only be appropriate
485 under specific situations. The case studies were chosen based on the relatively high proportion of
486 metabolism estimates that were anomalous and the strength of correlation between the observed
487 DO time series and tidal height. Despite these similarities among the case studies, detiding had
488 variable effects on metabolism estimates. The results for Elkhorn Slough and Padilla Bay are of
489 particular concern given that mean annual estimates were substantially different compared to
490 those from the observed DO time series. Although the correlation of DO and tidal height was
491 reduced for both cases, in addition to a reduction of anomalous estimates, the relative change in
492 mean metabolism before and after detiding suggests a more careful evaluation of the method is
493 needed. In particular, alternative window widths should be evaluated for the ability to remove tidal
494 effects while preserving the biological signal. The window widths in the above analysis may have
495 removed variation in the DO signal from both of these sources.

496 Although the above analyses suggest the approach has merit, the case studies emphasize a
497 critical challenge in applying weighted regression to monitoring data. Specifically, the true
498 biological signal is not known and the relative contribution of horizontal advection to bias is not
499 accurately quantified with the available data. Comparative analyses between systems with varying
500 tidal influence or within-system evaluations of multiple sites at fixed distances are necessary to

further validate the performance of weighted regression. In the absence of additional validation, we propose a precautionary approach for application of the weighted regression to monitoring data. Weighted regression may be most effective at macrotidal sites with strong evidence of the effects of tidal advection on biological signals. A weight-of-evidence approach should be used such that the occurrence of anomalous metabolism estimates, strong correlations between observed DO and tide height, and clear visual patterns of tide change on DO would suggest detiding is appropriate. The choice of window widths may also produce varying results. Window widths that produce large changes in mean annual estimates should be interpreted with caution. In general, a pragmatic approach is emphasized such that results should be evaluated based on the preservation of diel variation from production while exhibiting minimal changes with the tide. Such an approach, combined with further validation, will support informed management decisions through more accurate estimates of ecosystem metabolism.

References

- Batt RD, Carpenter SR. 2012. Free-water lake metabolism: Addressing noisy time series with a Kalman filter. *Limnology and Oceanography: Methods*, 10:20–30.
- Beck MW, Hagy III JD. In review. Adaptation of a weighted regression approach to evaluate water quality trends in an estuary. *Environmental Modeling and Assessment*.
- Caffrey JM. 2003. Production, respiration and net ecosystem metabolism in U.S. estuaries. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*, 81(1-3):207–219.
- Caffrey JM. 2004. Factors controlling net ecosystem metabolism in U.S. estuaries. *Estuaries*, 27(1):90–101.
- Caffrey JM, Murrell MC, Amacker KS, Harper J, Phipps S, Woodrey M. 2013. Seasonal and inter-annual patterns in primary production, respiration and net ecosystem metabolism in 3 estuaries in the northeast Gulf of Mexico. *Estuaries and Coasts*.
- CDMO (Centralized Data Management Office). 2014. National Estuarine Research Reserve System. <http://cdmo.baruch.sc.edu/>. (Accessed January, 2014).

- Cloern JE. 1996. Phytoplankton bloom dynamics in coastal ecosystems: A review with some general lessons from sustained investigation of San Francisco Bay, California. *Review of Geophysics*, 34(2):127–168.
- Collins JR, Raymond PA, Bohlen WF, Howard-Strobel MM. 2013. Estimates of new and total productivity in Central Long Island Sound from in situ measurements of nitrate and dissolved oxygen. *Estuaries and Coasts*, 36(1):74–97.
- Coloso JJ, Cole JJ, Pace ML. 2011. Difficulty in discerning drivers of lake ecosystem metabolism with high-frequency data. *Ecosystems*, 14(6):935–948.
- Cryer JD, Chan KS. 2008. *Time Series Analysis with Applications in R*. Springer, New York, New York, second edition.
- Diaz RJ. 2008. Spreading dead zones and consequences for marine ecosystems. *Science*, 321:926–929.
- Foreman MGG, Henry RF. 1989. The harmonic analysis of tidal model time series. *Advances in Water Resources*, 12(3):109–120.
- Harvey AC. 1989. *Forecasting, Structural Time Series Models and the Kalman Filter*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom.
- Hilborn R, Mangel M. 1997. *The Ecological Detective: Confronting Models with Data*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey.
- Hirsch RM, Moyer DL, Archfield SA. 2010. Weighted regressions on time, discharge, and season (WRTDS), with an application to Chesapeake Bay river inputs. *Journal of the American Water Resources Association*, 46(5):857–880.
- Hopkinson CS, Smith EM. 2005. Estuarine respiration: an overview of benthic, pelagic, and whole system respiration. In: Giorgio PAD, Williams P, editors, *Respiration in Aquatic Ecosystems*, pages 122–146. Oxford Press, Oxford, United Kingdom.
- Howarth RW, Hayn M, Marino RM, Ganju N, Foreman K, McGlathery K, Giblin AE, Berg P, Walker JD. 2014. Metabolism of a nitrogen-enriched coastal marine lagoon during the summertime. *Biogeochemistry*, 118(1-3):1–20.
- Kemp WM, Testa JM. 2012. Metabolic balance between ecosystem production and consumption. In: Wolanski E, McLusky DS, editors, *Treatise on Estuarine and Coastal Science*, pages 83–118. Academic Press, New York.
- Kemp WM, Testa JM, Conley DJ, Gilbert D, Hagy JD. 2009. Temporal responses of coastal hypoxia to nutrient loading and physical controls. *Biogeosciences*, 6(12):2985–3008.
- Monbet Y. 1992. Control of phytoplankton biomass in estuaries: A comparative analysis of microtidal and macrotidal estuaries. *Estuaries*, 15(4):563–571.

- Needoba JA, Peterson TD, Johnson KS. 2012. Method for the quantification of aquatic primary production and net ecosystem metabolism using in situ dissolved oxygen sensors. In: Tiquia-Arashiro SM, editor, *Molecular Biological Technologies for Ocean Sensing*, pages 73–101. Springer, New York.
- Nidzieko NJ, Needoba JA, Monismith SG, Johnson KS. 2014. Fortnightly tidal modulations affect net community production in a mesotidal estuary. *Estuaries and Coasts*.
- Odum HT. 1956. Primary production in flowing waters. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 1(2):102–117.
- Pamatmat MM. 1997. Non-photosynthetic oxygen production and non-respiratory oxygen uptake in the dark: A theory of oxygen dynamics in plankton communities. *Marine Biology*, 129(4):735–746.
- Rabalais NN, Turner RE, Scavia D. 2002. Beyond science into policy: Gulf of Mexico hypoxia and the Mississippi river. *BioScience*, 52(2):129–142.
- RDCT (R Development Core Team). 2014. R: A language and environment for statistical computing, v3.1.0. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.
<http://www.R-project.org>.
- Russell MJ, Montagna PA. 2007. Spatial and temporal variability and drivers of net ecosystem metabolism in western Gulf of Mexico estuaries. *Estuaries and Coasts*, 30(1):137–153.
- Sanger DM, Arendt MD, Chen Y, Wenner EL, Holland AF, Edwards D, Caffrey J. 2002. A synthesis of water quality data: National estuarine research reserve system-wide monitoring program (1995–2000). Technical report, National Estuarine Research Reserve Technical Report Series 2002:3. South Carolina Department of Natural Resources, Marine Resources Division Contribution No. 500, Charleston, South Carolina.
- Short FT, Wyllie-Echeverria S. 1996. Natural and human-induced disturbance of seagrasses. *Environmental Conservation*, 23(1):17–27.
- Staehr PA, Bade D, de Bogert MCV, Koch GR, Williamson C, Hanson P, Cole JJ, Kratz T. 2010. Lake metabolism and the diel oxygen technique: State of the science. *Limnology and Oceanography: Methods*, 8:628–644.
- Thébault J, Schraga TS, Cloern JE, Dunlavy EG. 2008. Primary production and carrying capacity of former salt ponds after reconnection to San Francisco Bay. *Wetlands*, 28(3):841–851.
- Tukey JW. 1977. *Exploratory Data Analysis*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts.
- Wenner E, Sanger D, Arendt M, Holland AF, Chen Y. 2004. Variability in dissolved oxygen and other water-quality variables within the National Estuarine Research Reserve System. *Journal of Coastal Research*, 45(SI):17–38.

- 596 Yin KD, Lin ZF, Ke ZY. 2004. Temporal and spatial distribution of dissolved oxygen in the Pearl
597 River Estuary and adjacent coastal waters. *Continental Shelf Research*, 24(16):1935–1948.
- 598 Ziegler S, Benner R. 1998. Ecosystem metabolism in a subtropical, seagrass-dominated lagoon.
599 *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 173:1–12.

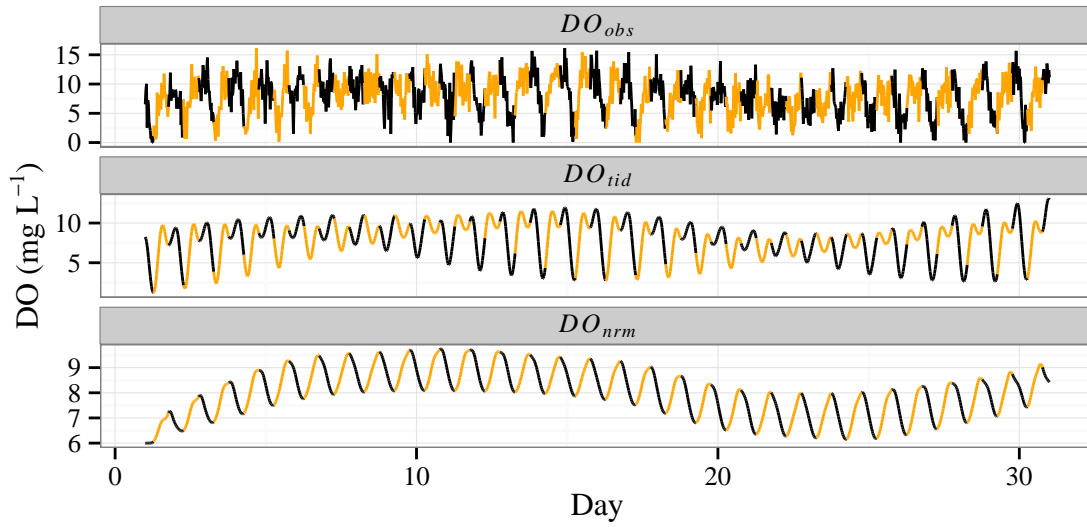


Fig. 1: Example of detiding a simulated DO time series. DO_{obs} represents an additive time series as in eq. (8), DO_{tid} represents the predicted values of DO conditional on tidal height and time (eq. (3)), and DO_{nrm} represents the detided values of DO conditional on constant tidal height and time (eq. (4)). Yellow indicates daylight periods.

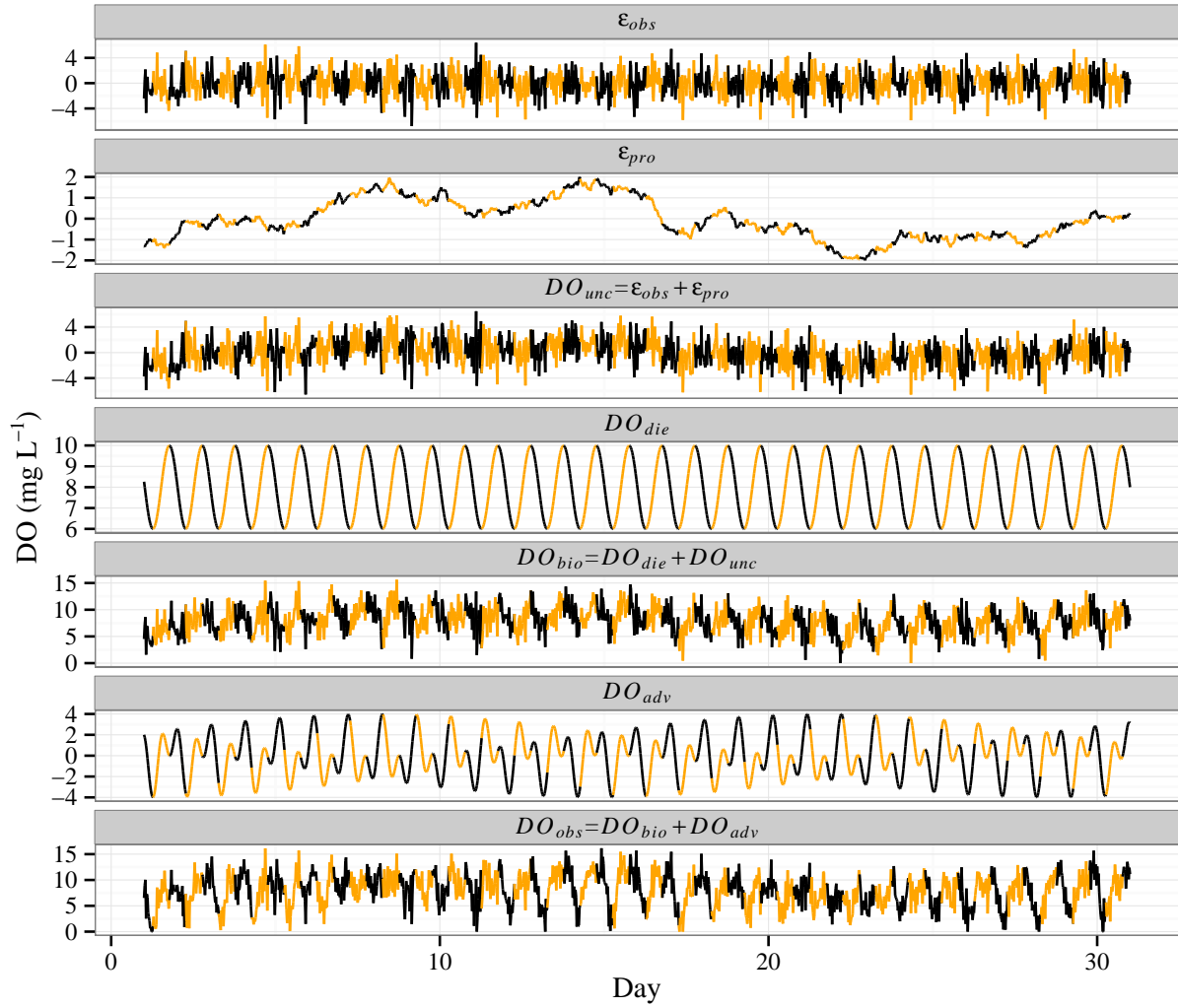


Fig. 2: Example of each component of a simulated DO time series for testing weighted regression. The time series were created using eqs. (5) to (14). Yellow indicates daylight periods.

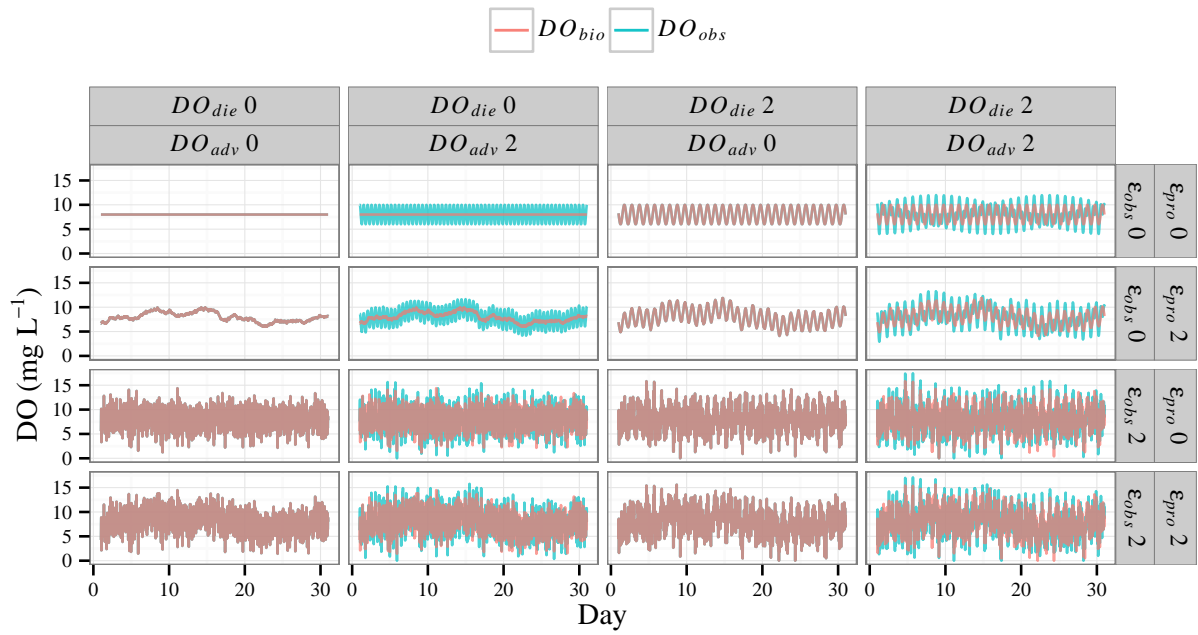


Fig. 3: Representative examples of simulated time series of observed DO (DO_{obs}) and biological DO (DO_{bio} , as a component of observed) created by varying each of four parameters: strength of tidal association with DO signal (DO_{adv}), amount of process uncertainty (ϵ_{pro}), amount of observation observation uncertainty (ϵ_{obs}), and strength of diel DO component (DO_{die}). Parameter values represent the minimum and maximum used in the simulations as mg L⁻¹ of DO.

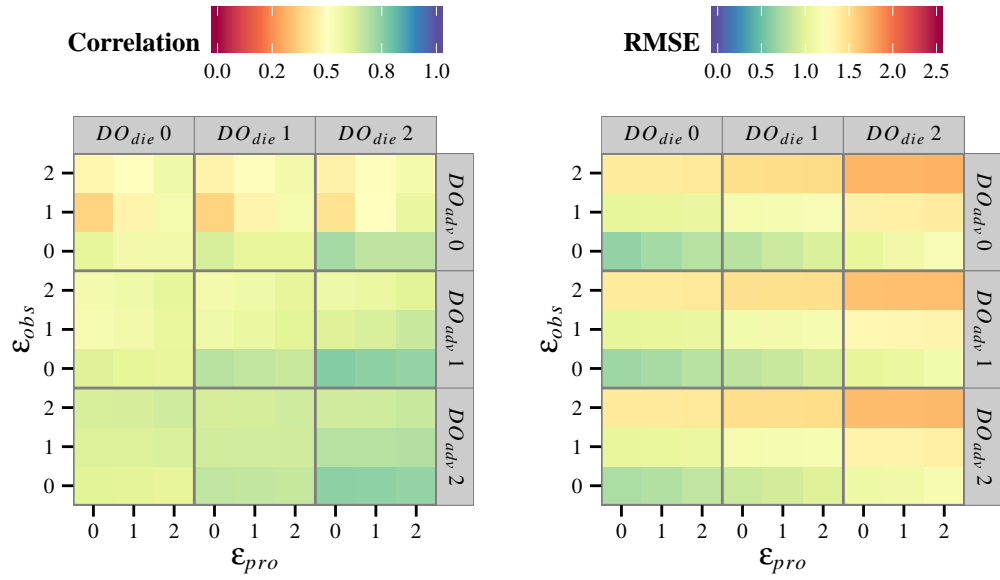


Fig. 4: Correlations and errors (RMSE) for deduced DO time series (DO_{dtd}) from weighted regression with ‘true’ biological DO (DO_{bio}) for varying simulation parameters: strength of tidal association with DO signal (DO_{adv}), amount of process uncertainty (ϵ_{pro}), amount of observation uncertainty (ϵ_{obs}), and strength of diel DO component (DO_{die}). Each tile represents the correlation or error from results for a given combination of simulation parameters averaged for all window widths (Fig. 5).

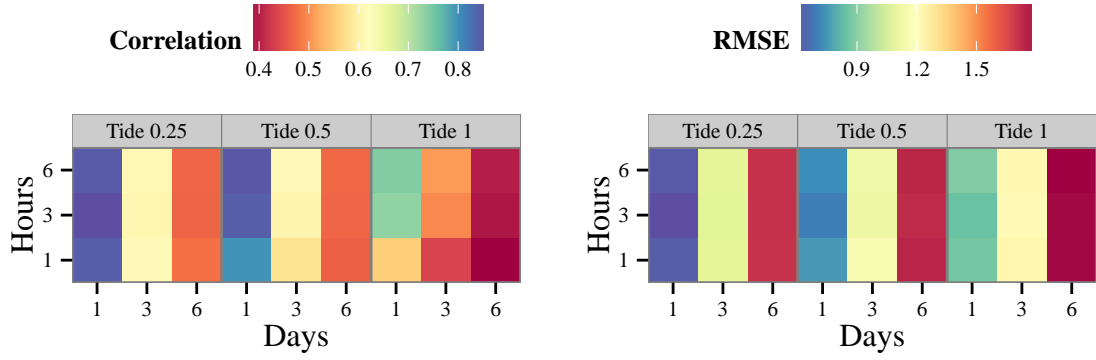


Fig. 5: Correlations and errors (RMSE) for detided DO time series (DO_{dtd}) from weighted regression with ‘true’ biological DO (DO_{bio}) for varying half window widths: days, hour of day, and proportion of tidal range. Each tile represents the correlation or error from results for a given combination of window widths averaged for all simulation parameters (Fig. 5).

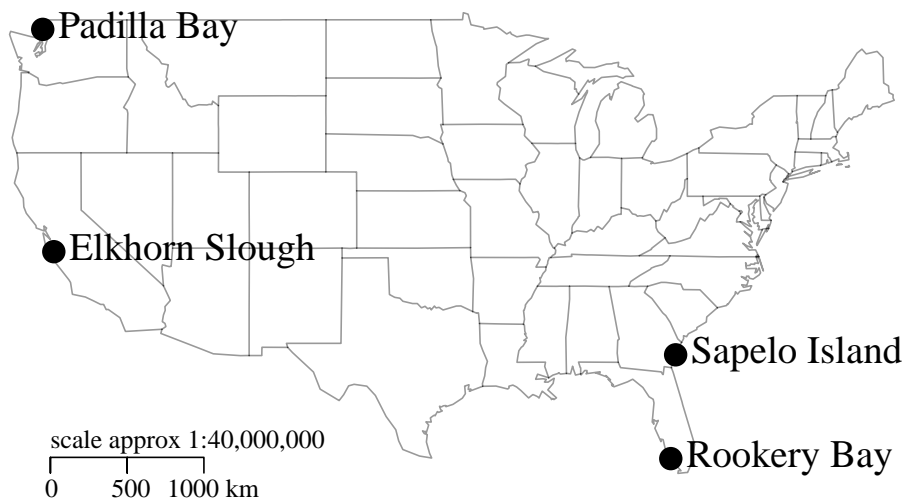


Fig. 6: Locations of NERRS sites used as case studies to validate weighted regression. Stations at each reserve are ELKVM (Vierra Mouth at Elkhorn Slough), PDBBY (Bayview Channel at Padilla Bay), RKBMB (Middle Blackwater River at Rookery Bay), and SAPDC (Dean Creek at Sapelo Island).

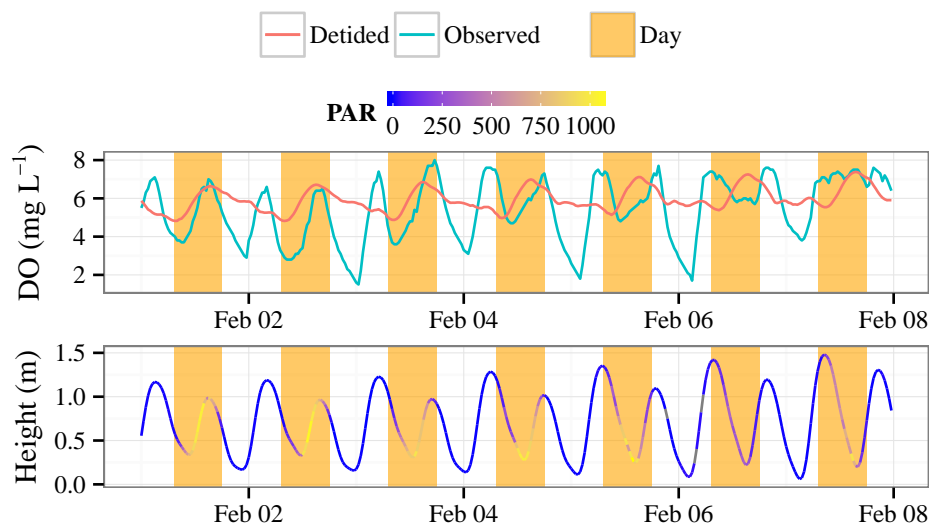


Fig. 7: Continuous DO time series before (observed) and after (detided) detiding with weighted regression (top) and tidal height colored by total photosynthetically active radiation (bottom, mmol m^{-2}). Results are for the Sapelo Island station for a seven day period when high tide events were out of phase with diel periods, creating lower than expected observed DO during night and day periods. Detided values are based on a weighted regression with half window widths of six days, one hour within each day, and tidal height proportion of one half.

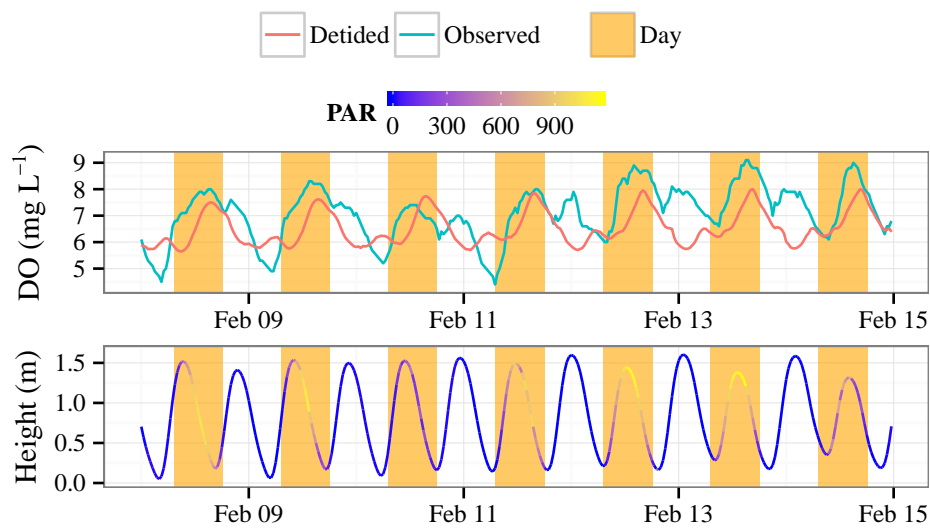


Fig. 8: Continuous DO time series before (observed) and after (detided) detiding with weighted regression (top) and tidal height colored by total photosynthetically active radiation (bottom, mmol m^{-2}). Results are for the Sapelo Island station for a seven day period when high tide events were in phase with diel periods, creating higher than expected observed DO during night and day periods. Detided values are based on a weighted regression with half window widths of six days, one hour within each day, and tidal height proportion of one half.

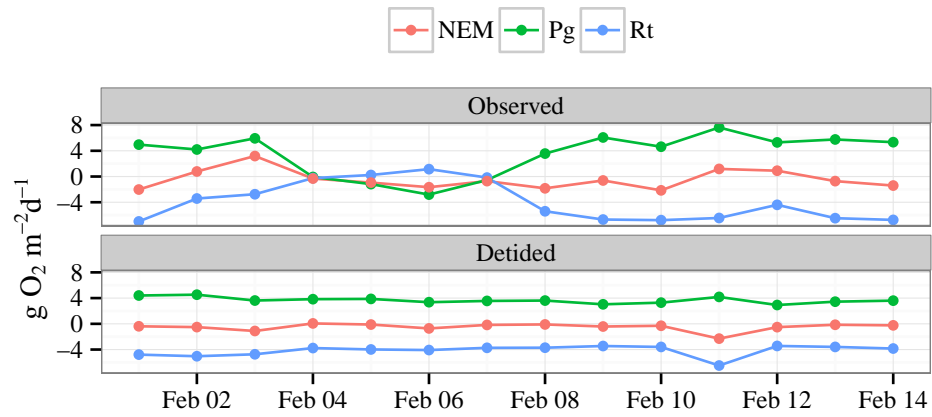


Fig. 9: Example of daily mean metabolism (net ecosystem metabolism, gross production, and total respiration) before (observed) and after (detided) detiding with weighted regression. Results are for the Sapelo Island station for a two week period in February, 2012 when high tide was out of phase with the diel cycle during the first week (Fig. 7) and in phase during the second week (Fig. 8).

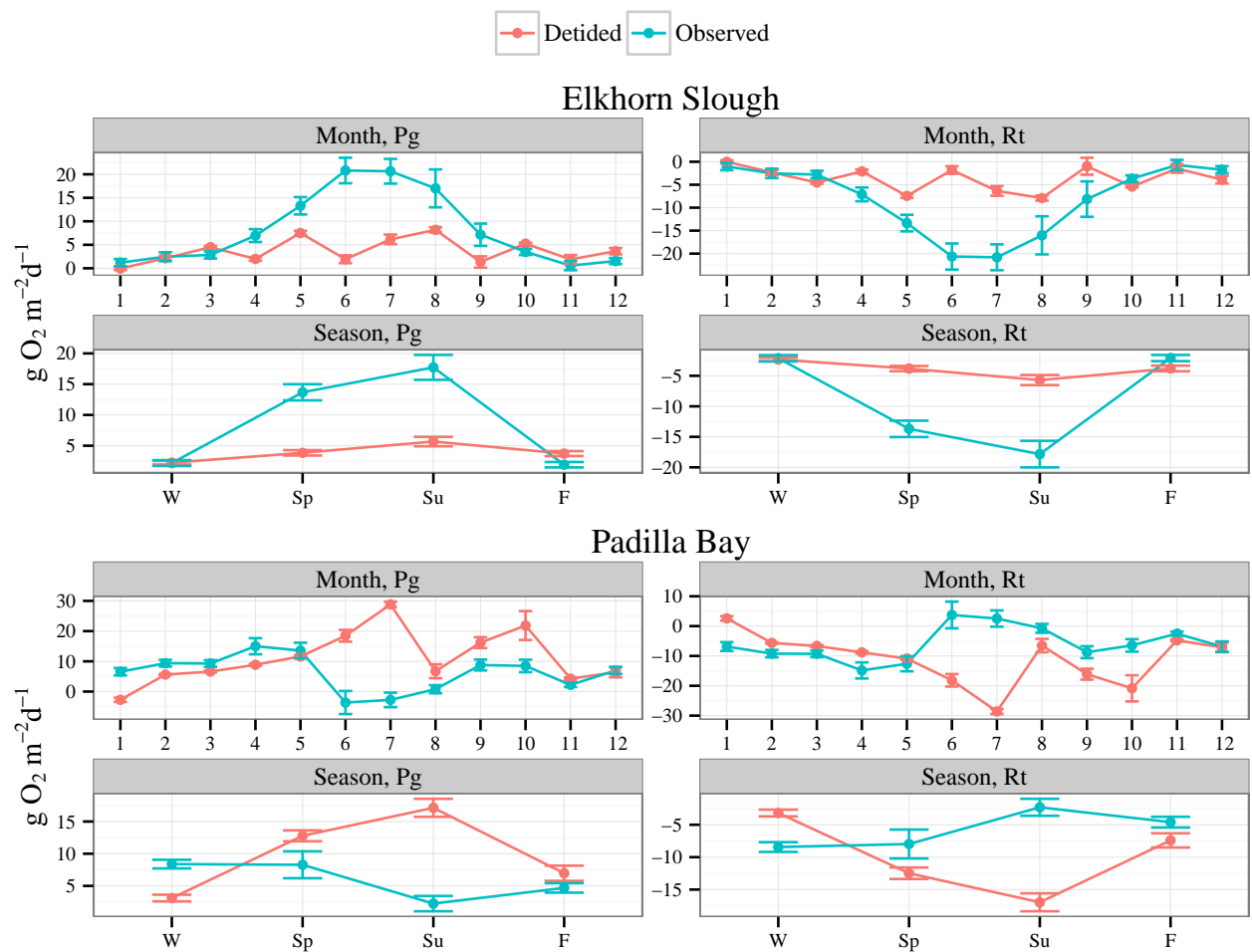


Fig. 10: Means and standard errors of daily metabolism estimates (gross production, total respiration) aggregated by month and season. Aggregated estimates are for Elkhorn Slough and Padilla Bay from observed and detided DO time series.

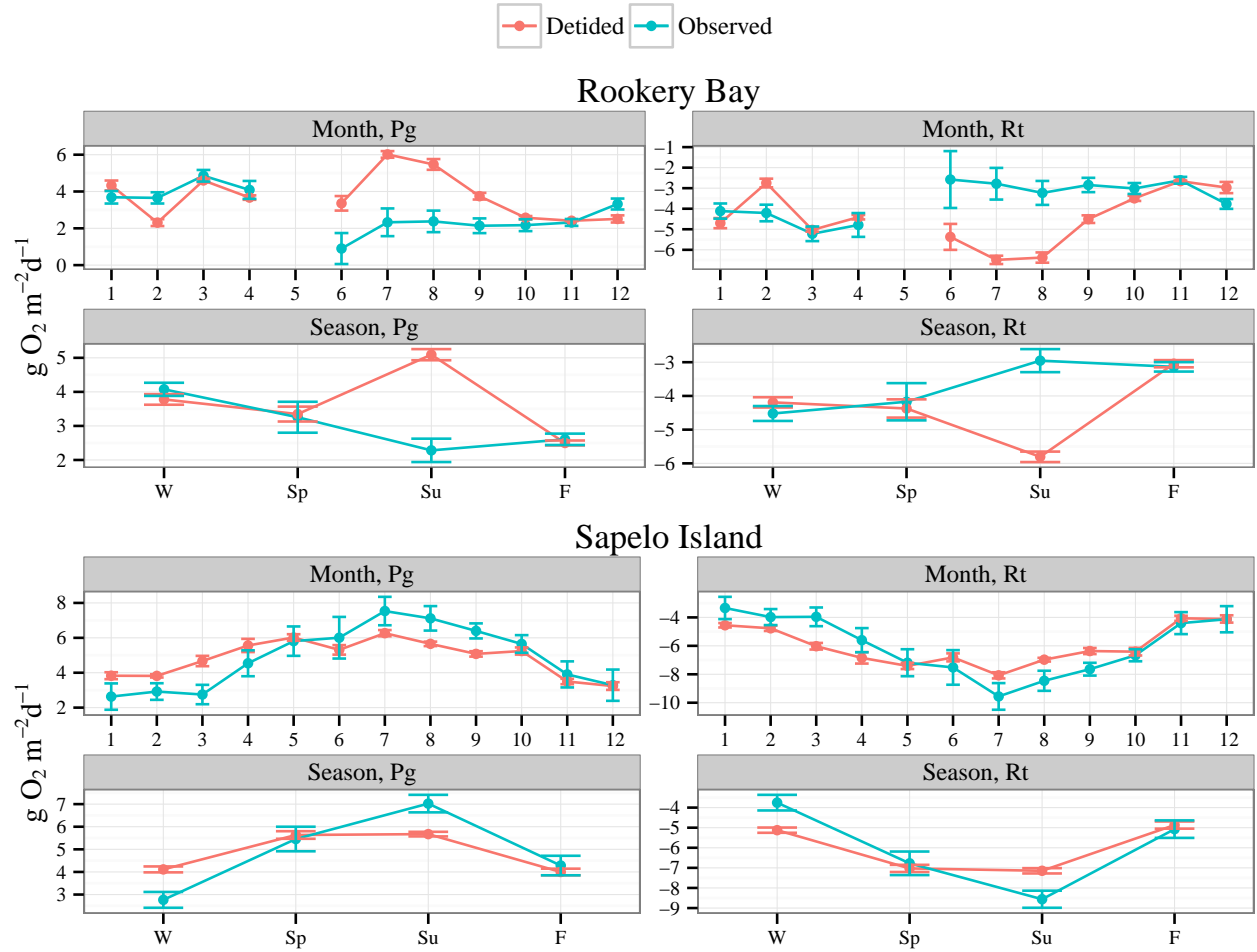


Fig. 11: Means and standard errors of daily metabolism estimates (gross production, total respiration) aggregated by month and season. Aggregated estimates are for Rookery Bay and Sapelo Island from observed and detided DO time series. May was removed from Rookery Bay because of incomplete data.

Table 1: Summary (range, mean, percentiles) of correlations and error estimates comparing detided and biological DO time series for different simulation parameters (DO_{die} , DO_{adv} , ϵ_{pro} , ϵ_{obs}). Values represent averages from multiple simulations with common parameters (e.g., row one is a summary of all simulations for which diel DO component was zero).

Parameter	Correlation					RMSE				
	Min	25 th	Mean	75 th	Max	Min	25 th	Mean	75 th	Max
DO_{die}										
0	-0.78	0.30	0.53	0.82	1.00	0.00	0.68	1.22	1.97	2.39
1	-0.28	0.38	0.61	0.88	1.00	0.00	0.59	1.20	1.96	2.40
2	-0.39	0.46	0.65	0.90	1.00	0.00	0.62	1.22	1.97	2.40
DO_{adv}										
0	0.00	0.27	0.57	0.93	1.00	0.00	0.34	1.07	1.96	2.12
1	-0.78	0.37	0.59	0.83	1.00	0.00	0.63	1.18	1.98	2.12
2	-0.78	0.47	0.63	0.82	1.00	0.00	0.98	1.38	1.99	2.40
ϵ_{pro}										
0	-0.78	0.34	0.58	0.86	1.00	0.00	0.63	1.19	1.96	2.40
1	-0.78	0.37	0.59	0.85	1.00	0.00	0.63	1.21	1.97	2.40
2	-0.78	0.41	0.61	0.85	1.00	0.00	0.63	1.24	1.98	2.40
ϵ_{obs}										
0	-0.78	0.31	0.65	0.98	1.00	0.00	0.29	0.92	1.50	2.40
1	0.05	0.37	0.57	0.81	0.99	0.07	0.98	1.18	1.49	2.39
2	0.05	0.40	0.57	0.70	0.99	0.15	1.06	1.54	2.01	2.40

Table 2: Summary (range, mean, percentiles) of correlations and error estimates comparing detided and biological DO time series for simulations using different half window widths in the weighted regressions (days, hours, and proportion of tidal range). Values represent averages from multiple simulations with common window values (e.g., row one is a summary of all simulations for which the half window width was one day).

Window	Correlation					RMSE				
	Min	25 th	Mean	75 th	Max	Min	25 th	Mean	75 th	Max
Days										
1	-0.78	0.63	0.78	0.97	1.00	0.00	0.28	0.74	1.04	2.12
3	-0.07	0.40	0.56	0.75	1.00	0.00	0.99	1.15	1.28	2.08
6	0.00	0.26	0.45	0.58	1.00	0.00	1.95	1.75	2.05	2.40
Hours										
1	-0.78	0.36	0.57	0.82	1.00	0.00	0.63	1.22	1.96	2.40
3	0.00	0.40	0.61	0.87	1.00	0.00	0.58	1.20	1.97	2.36
6	0.03	0.37	0.61	0.85	1.00	0.00	0.64	1.22	1.98	2.40
Tide										
0.25	0.00	0.42	0.64	0.91	1.00	0.00	0.51	1.14	1.97	2.21
0.5	0.06	0.43	0.63	0.88	1.00	0.00	0.61	1.20	1.97	2.27
1	-0.78	0.30	0.52	0.79	1.00	0.00	0.73	1.30	1.97	2.40

Table 3: Summary statistics of tidal component amplitudes (m), selected water quality parameters (DO mg L⁻¹, chlorophyll-a $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, salinity psu, water temperature °C) and metabolism estimates (gross production, respiration, and net ecosystem metabolism as g m⁻² d⁻¹) for each case study. Tidal components are principal lunar semidiurnal (O1, frequency 25.82 hours), solar diurnal (P1, 24.07 hours), lunar semidiurnal (M2, 12.42 hours), and solar semidiurnal (S2, 12 hours) estimated from harmonic regressions of tidal height (`oce` package in R, [Foreman and Henry 1989](#), [RDCT 2014](#)). Water quality data are averages for the entire period of record (30 minute observations) for each site. Metabolism estimates are means of daily integrated values.

Site	Tidal amplitude				Water quality				Metabolism ^a		
	O1	P1	M2	S2	DO	Chl	Sal	Temp	Pg	Rt	NEM
ELKVM	0.24	0.12	0.48	0.13	7.87	3.87	32.43	13.78	8.14	-8.19	-0.05
PDBBY	0.46	0.23	0.63	0.15	8.97	2.24	29.17	10.44	5.95	-5.90	0.05
RKBMB	0.13	0.04	0.36	0.10	4.48	4.50	30.53	25.85	3.02	-3.62	-0.60
SAPDC	0.10	0.02	0.54	0.07	4.96	5.98	27.30	21.77	4.89	-6.04	-1.16

^aPg: gross production, Rt: respiration, NEM: net ecosystem metabolism

Table 4: Correlations of tidal changes at each site with continuous DO observations and metabolism estimates (gross production, respiration, and net metabolism) before (observed) and after (detided) detiding with weighted regression. DO values are correlated with predicted tidal height at each observation, whereas metabolism estimates are correlated with mean tidal height change between observations during day, night, or total day periods for production, respiration, and net metabolism, respectively.

Site	DO	Pg ^a	Rt	NEM
ELKVM				
Observed	0.47***	0.60***	0.73***	0.35***
Detided	0.02*	0.19***	0.13*	0.06
PDBBY				
Observed	-0.45***	-0.33***	-0.46***	-0.25***
Detided	0.07***	0.48***	0.47***	-0.21***
RKBMB				
Observed	0.28***	0.34***	0.39***	0.24***
Detided	-0.02**	-0.31***	-0.36***	0.12*
SAPDC				
Observed	0.48***	0.54***	0.71***	0.41***
Detided	-0.03***	0.16**	0.18***	-0.05

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

^aPg: gross production, Rt: respiration, NEM: net ecosystem metabolism

Table 5: Summary of metabolism estimates (gross production, respiration, and net metabolism) for case studies using DO time series before (observed) and after (detided) detiding with weighted regression. Means and standard errors are based on daily integrated metabolism estimates. Anomalous values are the proportion of metabolism estimates that were negative for gross production and positive for respiration. Results are for weighted regressions with half window widths of six days, one hour within each day, and a tidal height proportion of one half.

Site	Pg^a			Rt			NEM	
	Mean	Std. Err.	Anom	Mean	Std. Err.	Anom	Mean	Std. Err.
ELKVM								
Observed	8.14	0.67	0.19	-8.19	0.69	0.21	-0.05	0.16
Detided	3.63	0.23	0.17	-3.67	0.24	0.17	-0.04	0.05
PDBBY								
Observed	5.95	0.69	0.22	-5.90	0.74	0.19	0.05	0.22
Detided	10.36	0.63	0.13	-10.32	0.63	0.13	0.04	0.08
RKBMB								
Observed	3.02	0.14	0.09	-3.62	0.15	0.08	-0.60	0.06
Detided	3.73	0.09	0.01	-4.35	0.10	0.00	-0.62	0.04
SAPDC								
Observed	4.89	0.23	0.13	-6.04	0.25	0.11	-1.16	0.09
Detided	4.85	0.08	0.00	-6.04	0.10	0.00	-1.19	0.05

^aPg: gross production, Rt: respiration, NEM: net ecosystem metabolism

Multimedia

The supporting information for this manuscript includes a graphical illustration of the weighting scheme described in the material and procedures section (http://spark.rstudio.com/beckmw/weights_widget), results for each simulation (http://spark.rstudio.com/beckmw/detiding_sims), and results for each case study (http://spark.rstudio.com/beckmw/detiding_cases). Each link is a graphical summary of data based on interactive inputs to support the results in the manuscript.