

Forecasting water temperature in lakes and reservoirs using seasonal climate prediction

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1 **Supplementary material**

2 *Hydrologic modeling*

3 *Mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHM)*

4 The mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHM v5.9: <http://www.ufz.de/mhm>)
5 was used to implement the hydrologic simulations in the Ter River catch-
6 ment in the Sau Reservoir case study. This is an open source and spatially
7 distributed model with grid pixel as the main hydrologic unit and a mul-
8 tiscala parameter regionalization approach. It has the capacity to repre-
9 sent the main physical processes for the temporal and spatial scales of this
10 study (e.g, soil moisture dynamics, infiltration and surface runoff, subsurface
11 processes, canopy interception, and snowmelt processes). Apart from being

12 driven by meteorological variables (precipitation, temperature and potential
13 evaporation), it also depends on land cover, leaf area index (LAI), soil, and
14 hydrogeologic maps.

15 The model has three levels of resolution to represent the surface character-
16 istics (i.e, soil, land cover, terrain), the hydrologic processes and geological
17 formations, and the variability of the meteorological forcing. Accordingly,
18 the model was set up using the resolutions 100, 1000 and 10000 meters, re-
19 spectively. These resolutions were selected according to (i) the area of our
20 catchment and terrain resolution, (ii) the resolution of the meteorological
21 forcing used and (iii) the suggestions from the user manual of the model.
22 Additionally, the Jarvis equation (Jarvis, 1989) to represent soil moisture
23 processes and the Muskingum approach (McCarthy, 1939) to represent the
24 routing conditions were selected.

25 The hydrologic model was auto-calibrated using a Shuffled Complex Evo-
26 lution optimization algorithm and NSE (Nash–Sutcliffe model efficiency co-
27 efficient) as objective function ($1.0 - 0.5 * (NSE + \log(NSE))$), to calibrate
28 high and low flows. The observed data to implement the calibration was
29 provided by the water treatment plant company in charge of the reservoir
30 (Ens d’Abastament Ter-Llobregat (ATL)). More details of calibration and
31 validation results are found in Table ??, where the NSE and Kling-Gupta
32 efficiency (KGE) metrics are calculated.

33 *GR4J & GR6J*

34 To model the inflows for the Wupper Reservoir and the Mt Bold Reser-
35 voir (Onkaparinga and Echunga Creek), the *Génie Rural* (GR) models were
36 used within the R package ”*airGR*” (Coron et al., 2017). These are a range

37 of lumped conceptual rainfall-runoff models that can be applied at varying
38 timescales from annual to hourly (Perrin et al., 2013). These models have
39 been demonstrated to accurately simulate hydrologic flow regimes across a va-
40 riety of different catchments such as mountainous terrain (Coron et al., 2017),
41 near-natural catchments with high precipitation (Broderick et al., 2016) and
42 across climatic shifts (Brulebois et al., 2018).

43 The GR4J and GR6J models are parsimonous model which are forced
44 by precipitation and potential evapotranspiration (PET). Catchment size is
45 the other required variable that is used in the computation of discharge.
46 There are four parameters that can be calibrated within GR4J: production
47 store capacity, intercatchment exchange coefficient, routing store capacity
48 and unit hydrograph time constant. While GR6J (Pushpalatha et al., 2011)
49 includes the same four parameters it comes along with two extra parameters:
50 intercatchment exchange threshold and coefficient for emptying exponential
51 store.

52 To calibrate the model, first a manual screening process was performed
53 using a predefined grid to identify a 'good parameter set'. This is then
54 used as the initial conditions for starting a steepest descent local search
55 algorithm. Similarly to mHM, NSE was the objective function used within
56 the calibration algorithm. However, for the German case study, the GR6J
57 was calibrated using KGE as an objective function in order to ensure better
58 representation of base flows since the reservoir was otherwise prone to drying
59 out. More details of calibration and validation results are found in Table ??

60 *SimplyQ*

61 SimplyQ, used to model the inflows to Lake Vansjø (Norway), is the
62 hydrologic module of the catchment model for phosphorus SimplyP and de-
63 scribed in detail by Jackson-Blake et al. (2017). Briefly, SimplyQ is forced
64 by precipitation and air temperature, and computes snow accumulation and
65 melt, evapotranspiration, terrestrial (soil, quick-surface and groundwater
66 flows) and in-stream hydrologic processes. Six parameters were manually
67 calibrated: degree-day evapotranspiration, degree-day factor for snow melt,
68 proportion of precipitation that contributes to quick flow, baseflow index,
69 groundwater time constant and soil water time constant. As for the other
70 models, NSE was the objective function used during calibration, more details
71 of calibration and validation results are found in Table ??

72 *Lake temperature modeling*

73 *General Ocean Turbulence Model (GOTM)*

74 The General Ocean Turbulence Model (GOTM: <http://gotm.net>) was
75 used for simulating the thermal dynamics of Sau Reservoir (Spain) and Lake
76 Vansjø (Norway). GOTM is an open source ocean model adapted to lakes,
77 which assumes a one-dimensional water column model for studying hydrody-
78 namic and biogeochemical processes in marine and limnic waters. It models
79 the state-of-the-art of the main physical processes in lakes: vertical tur-
80 bulent fluxes of momentum, heat, and dissolved and particulate matter. To
81 execute, it must be forced by meteorological data (precipitation, winds, pres-
82 sure, air temperature, relative humidity, cloud fraction and solar radiation)
83 and associated river inflow data (river discharge and water temperature).
84 Additionally, for the Spanish case study, the water level fluctuations in the

lake depend also on the historical outflow controlled by the water supply company, which was supplied as an observed forcing.

The model was calibrated against observed water temperature profiles using the ParSAC autocalibration tool (<https://bolding-bruggeman.com/portfolio/parsac/>) and the Maximum Likelihood optimization method. The parameters considered during calibration were the scale factor for short-wave solar radiation, scale factor for surface heat fluxes, scale factor for wind, minimum turbulent kinetic energy (TKE), and the light extinction coefficient. For Lake Vansjø, two additional parameters were calibrated for the ice dynamics: the ice albedo and the minimum threshold ice thickness.

The same parameters from the calibration were then used to run all time period for the water temperature data period using ERA5. The outflows are managed everyday according to the real-time changes in the water quality column in SAU reservoir and it reproduces a natural flow in the Vansjo lake. In Sau reservoir then, any difference between ERA5 inflows from mHM model (hydrologic) could lead to a dry out in the GOTM model (lake).

According to the most common statistical parameters (Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) and Root-Mean-Square Error (RMSE)) to evaluated calibration and validation in lake modeling (see Table ??), the fit between modelled and observed temperatures is better when closer to surface. However, it has to be noticed that when going deeper the amount of observations decreased affecting the statistical parameters to evaluate the fitting.

General Lake Model (GLM)

The General Lake Model (GLM) is a 1-D lake model that calculates the water balance and models thermal stratification within lake water bodies

(Hipsey et al., 2019). It can be coupled to ecological and biogeochemical models through the Framework for Aquatic Biogeochemical Models (FABM) and also has an own Aquatic Ecosystems Dynamics library (AED) (Hipsey et al., 2013). It includes the impact of inflows, outflows, internal mixing, heat fluxes and ice formation. Within the model, a flexible Lagrangian layer structure is incorporated, which allows the layer thickness to change in response to inflows, outflows, internal mixing and heat and mass fluxes. It has been used to model lake hydrodynamics at regional scales (Read et al., 2014), reservoir operation (Feldbauer et al., 2020), lake management strategies (Ladwig et al., 2018), and has undergone rigorous stress testing across 32 lakes globally distributed (Bruce et al., 2018).

The model was calibrated slightly differently at Wupper Reservoir and Mt. Bold. In both cases, modelled temperatures were compared to observed temperatures but also considerable effort was made to ensure that the water balance and thus the water level simulated within the model reasonably replicated observed changes. Accurately capturing the water balance is critically important owing to the sensitivity of the heat budget to the volume of water.

For Mt. Bold Reservoir, assumptions were made in regards to the withdrawal and the Murray Bridge pipeline delivering water to the Onkaparinga. Using historically observed data, an average annual cycle was calculated for both and then replicated throughout the entire timeseries. While this assumption does not allow for inter-annual variation, it allowed for simulation of water level fluctuation each year that represented the seasonal cycle apparent within Mt. Bold. For calibration, residuals were visualized and it

135 was identified that mixing of heat to lower depths was the largest. Using
136 an automatic calibration for two parameters, scaling factor on the wind and
137 scaling factor on the incoming long-wave radiation a RMSE of 1.17 degrees
138 for the calibration period was achieved.

139 For Wupper Reservoir, a statistical model was developed to calculate the
140 reservoir's outflow based on the inflow using the historical observations for
141 each discharge simulation of the catchment model. Such an approach allows
142 mimicking the outflow decision and approximately resembling the observed
143 water-level to avoid the cases of dry-outs or exceedingly low volumes of water
144 due to inflow underestimation. Moreover, this method could also help in
145 future operational forecastings, aiming to represent a realistic water balance
146 while respecting the reservoir's operational rules during the system run-time.
147 The calibration function of the R package "glmtools" was used to set the
148 values of the wind factor, light extinction coefficient, and long-wave radiation.
149 Since the reservoir has a short residence time and is substantially affected
150 by the inflow dynamics, the inflow parameters (i.e. streams drag coefficient,
151 slope, and width angle) were also calibrated.

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