Climate variability indices for ecological and crop models in R: the climatrends package

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Kauê de Sousa^{1,2[*]}, Jacob van Etten², Svein Øivind Solberg¹

- Department of Agricultural Sciences, Inland Norway University of Applied Sciences, 2318 Hamar, Norway
- ² Bioversity International, 00054 Maccarese, Rome, Italy
- [*] Correspondence should be addressed to: kaue.desousa@inn.no

Summary

Abiotic factors play an important role in most ecological and crop systems that depend on certain levels of temperature, light and precipitation (and their interplay) to initiate important physiological events (Schulze et al., 2019). In the walk of climate change, understanding how these factors drive the physiological processes is a key approach to provide recommendations for adaptation and biodiversity conservation. The package climatrends aims to provide the methods in R (R Core Team, 2020) to compute precipitation and temperature indices that serve as input for climate and crop models (Kehel, Crossa, & Reynolds, 2016; van Etten et al., 2019), trends in climate change (Aguilar et al., 2005; de Sousa et al., 2018) and applied ecology (Prentice et al., 1992; Liu & El-Kassaby, 2018).

Methods and features

Implementation

Six main functions are provided (Table 1), crop_sensitive(), ETo(), GDD(), late_frost(), rainfall() and temperature() with a default method for numeric 'vector' and additional methods implemented via the package methods (R Core Team, 2020) for classes 'matrix' (or array), 'data.frame', and 'sf' (of geometry POINT or POLYGON) (Pebesma, 2018). The last two methods are designed to fetch data from cloud sources, until now from the packages nasapower (Sparks, 2018) and chirps (de Sousa, Sparks, Ashmall, van Etten, & Solberg, 2020).

Function	Definition
crop_sensitive()	Compute crop sensitive indices
ETo()	Reference evapotranspiration using the Blaney-Criddle method
GDD()	Compute growing degree-days
late_frost()	Compute the occurrence of late-spring frost
rainfall()	Precipitation indices
temperature()	Temperature indices

Table 1: Main functions available in climatrends.

These functions started as a set of scripts to compute indices in citizen science trials. In these trials. Aiming to capture the environmental variation across different sites, which can differ since each data-point generally

have a different starting day and duration, the arguments day.one and span are vectorised and may be variable across data-points. For time series analysis, where fixed periods are defined across many locations, the indices can be adjusted with the argument last.day linked to the argument day.one.

Temperature and precipitation indices

The package climatrends computes 12 temperature indices and 10 precipitation indices that were suggested by previous research on climatology and crop science (Aguilar et al., 2005; Kehel et al., 2016). The indices computed by the functions temperature() and rainfall() are described in Table 2.

Table 2: Temperature and precipitation indices available in climatrends.

Index	Definition	Unit
maxDT	Maximun day temperature	°C
$\overline{\min}$ DT	Minimum day temperature	$^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$
maxNT	Maximun night temperature	°C
$\overline{\min}$ NT	Minimum night temperature	°C
DTR	Diurnal temperature range (mean difference	°C
	between DT and NT)	
SU	Summer days, number of days with maximum temperature > 30 °C	days
TR	Tropical nights, number of nights with	dorra
1 K	maximum temperature > 25 °C	days
CFD	Consecutive frosty days, number of days with	days
QI B	temperature < 0 °C	days
WSDI	Maximum warm spell duration, consecutive	days
	days with temperature > 90th percentile	
CSDI	Maximum cold spell duration, consecutive	days
	nights with temperature < 10th percentile	
T10p	The 10th percentile of night temperature	$^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$
T90p	The 90th percentile of day temperature	$^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$
MLDS	Maximum length of consecutive dry day, rain	days
	< 1 mm	
MLWS	Maximum length of consecutive wet day, rain	days
	>= 1 mm	
R10mm	Heavy precipitation days $10 >= rain < 20 \text{ mm}$	days
R20mm	Very heavy precipitation days rain $>= 20$	days
Rx1day	Maximum 1-day precipitation	mm
Rx5day	Maximum 5-day precipitation	mm
R95p	Total precipitation when rain > 95th	mm
	percentile	
R99p	Total precipitation when rain > 99th	mm
	percentile	
Rtotal	Total precipitation in wet days, rain ≥ 1 mm	mm
SDII	Simple daily intensity index, total	mm/days
	precipitation divided by the number of wet	
	days	

Growing degree-days

Growing degree-days (gdd) is an heuristic tool in phenology that measures heat accumulation and is used to predict plant and animal development rates (Prentice et al., 1992). Growing degree-days are calculated by taking the integral of warmth above a base temperature (T_0) . The function GDD() applies by default the

following equation.

Equation [1]

$$GDD = \frac{T_{max} + T_{min}}{2} - T_0$$

where T_{max} is the maximum temperature in the given day, T_{min} is the minimum temperature in the given day and T_0 is the minimum temperature for growth (as per the physiology of the focal organism or ecosystem averages).

Additionally, the function GDD() offers three modified equations designed for cold environments and for tropical environments. For cold environments, where T_{min} may be lower than T_0 , there are two modified equations that adjust either T_{mean} (variant a) or T_{min} (variant b). The variant a changes T_{mean} to T_0 if $T_{mean} < T_0$ and is expressed as follow.

Equation [2]

$$GDD = max\left(\frac{T_{max} + T_{min}}{2} - T_0, \ 0\right)$$

The variant b, is calculated using Equation 1, but adjusts T_{min} or T_{max} to T_0 if $T < T_0$, the equation is adjusted as follows.

Equation [3]

$$T < T_0 \rightarrow T = T_0$$

where T may refer to T_{min} and/or T_{max} when the condition of being below T_0 applies.

For tropical areas, where the temperature may surpass a maximum threshold $(T_{0_{max}})$, resulting in limited development, the minimum temperature is adjusted using Equation 3 and the maximum temperature is adjusted to a maximum base temperature as follow.

Equation [4]

$$T_{max} > T_{0_{max}} \rightarrow T_{max} = T_{0_{max}}$$

where $T_{0_{max}}$ is the maximum base temperature for growth, defined in GDD() using the argument tbase_max.

These modified equations are defined as 'a', 'b' and 'c', respectively, and can be selected using the argument equation.

By default, the function returns the degree-days that is accumulated over the time series using Equation 1. Additionally, the function may return the daily values of degree-days or the number of days that a given organism required to reach a certain number of accumulated degree-days. These values are defined by 'acc', 'daily' or 'ndays' and can be adjusted using the argument return.as. The required accumulated gdd is defined with argument degree.days. For example, the Korean pine (*Pinus koraiensis*) requires 105 °C accumulated gdd to onset the photosynthesis (Wu, Guan, Yuan, Wang, & Jin, 2013). In that case, GDD() will calculate the growing degree-days (gdd) and sum up the values until it reaches 105 °C and return the number of days required in the given season (GDD_r) , as follows.

Equation [5]

$$||GDD_r|| = ggd_1 + \dots + gdd_n$$

where GDD_r is the length of the vector with accumulated degree-days from day 1 to n.

Late-spring frost

Late-spring frost is a freezing event occurring after a substantial accumulation of warmth. Frost damage is a known issue in temperate and boreal regions, it is associated with the formation of extracellular ice crystals that cause damage in the membranes (Lambers, Chapin III, & Pons, 2008). Freezing occurring after an advanced phenological stage during spring may harm some plant species, resulting in lost of productivity in crop systems (Trnka et al., 2014) and important ecological impacts (Zohner et al., 2020).

The function late_frost() supports the computation of late-spring frost events. The function counts for the number of freezing days with minimum temperature below a certain threshold (argument tfrost). And returns the number of days spanned by frost events (temperature below tfrost), latency (event with no freezing temperature but also no accumulation of growing degree-days) and warming (when growing degree-days are accumulated enabling the development of the target organism). Additionally the function returns the first day of the events. The function calculates the growing degree-days applying the variant b (Eq. 3), which can be adjusted using the argument equation passed to GDD() as explained in the later section. The main inputs are a vector with maximum and minimum temperatures to compute the degree-days, a vector of dates (argument date), and, if needed, the tbase and tfrost, set by default to 4 and -2 °C.

Crop-related indices

Two functions in **climatrends** are mainly designed to capture the effects of climate on the development and stress of crop species, **crop_sensitive()** computes indices that aim to capture the changes in temperature extremes during key phenological stages (e.g. anthesis), and **ETo()** computes the reference evapotranspiration.

The crop sensitive indices available in **climatrends** are described in Table 3. These indices were previously used in crop models to project the impacts of climate change on crop yield (Trnka et al., 2014; Challinor, Koehler, Ramirez-Villegas, Whitfield, & Das, 2016). Each index has a default temperature threshold(s) which can be adjusted by using the arguments *.threshold. Where the * means the index. For example, to change the defaults for hts_max (high temperature stress), a vector with the temperature thresholds is passed through the argument hts max.thresholds.

The reference evapotranspiration measures the influence of the climate on a given plant's water need (Brouwer & Heibloem, 1986). The function ETo() applies the Blaney-Criddle method, a general theoretical method used when only air-temperature is available locally. It should be noted that this method is not very accurate and aims to provide the order of magnitude of evapotranspitation. The reference evapotranspiration is calculated using the following equation.

Equation [6]

$$ETo = p \times \left(0.46 \times \frac{T_{max} + T_{min}}{2} + 8\right) \times K_c$$

Where p is the mean daily percentage of annual daytime hours, T_{max} is the maximum temperature, T_{min} is the minimum temperature, and K_c is the factor for organism water need.

The percentage of daytime hours (p) is calculated internally by the 'data.frame' and 'sf' methods in ETo() using the given latitude (taken from the inputted object) and date (taken from the inputted day.one). It matches the latitude and date with a table of daylight percentage derived from Brouwer and Heibloem (1986). The table can be verified using climatrends:::daylight.

Table 3: Crop sensitive indices computed by climatrends.

Index	Definition	Default thresholds
hts_mean	High temperature stress using daily mean	32, 35, 38 °C
	temperature, and given as percentage number	
	of days a certain threshold is exceeded	
hts_max	High temperature stress using daily max	36, 39, 42 °C
	temperature, and given as percentage number	
	of days a certain threshold is exceeded	
hse	Heat stress event, and given as percentage	31 °C
	number of days a certain threshold is	
	exceeded for at least two consecutive days	
hse_ms	Heat stress event, and given the maximum	31 °C
	number of days a certain threshold is	
	exceeded for at least two consecutive days	
cdi_mean	Crop duration index using daily mean	22, 23, 24 °C
	temperature, and given as max(Tmean -	
	threshold, 0)	
cdi_max	Crop duration index using daily max	27, 28, 29 °C
	temperature, and given as max(Tmax -	
	threshold, 0)	
lethal	Lethal temperatures, defined as percentage of	43, 46, 49 °C
	days during the timeseries where daily mean	
	temperature exceeds a given threshold	

Examples

Common bean

During five growing seasons (from 2015 to 2017) in Nicaragua, van Etten et al. (2019) conducted a crowdsourcing citizen-science experiment testing 11 common bean varieties (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) in 842 farmer-managed plots. Sets of three varieties were allocated randomly to farms as incomplete blocks. A Plackett-Luce model was used to analyse the data, this model estimates for each variety the probability that it wins, beating all other varieties in the set (Turner, van Etten, Firth, & Kosmidis, 2020). An earlier version of climatrends was used in this research to capture the seasonal climate variation, here we reproduce part of this analysis regarding calculation and application of the climate indices. The approach here is slightly different because it considers the growing-degree days from planting date to maturity (the earlier study used planting date to the end of reproductive stage) and add new indices to illustrate the package implementation.

The data used here is available as supplementary material (**zenodo ref**) as cbean. This contains a data.frame with a Plackett-Luce grouped rankings, the geographical coordinates of each sampled plot and the planting dates from where each farmer decided to start the experiment. The planting dates differ from each other in the same season. The temperature data used was the land surface temperature MODIS (MYD11A2) (Wan, Hook, & Hulley, 2015) and is storaged as an array with two layers (1st for the day and 2nd for the night temperatures). Each column corresponds to the dates (from 2015-09-10 to 2017-06-09) and the rows corresponds to the rows in the cbean data.frame.

Since the phenological stages were not available, we estimate these stages based on the amount of growing degree-days required to reach a given stage using the function GDD(). For common beans, we define 900 degree-days, from planting date to maturity (de Medeiros, Daniel, & Fengler, 2016). The input data is the array with the temperature data, the vector with planting dates (cbean\$planting_date), the required amount of degree-days passed to the argument degree.days and the character string 'ndays' specifying that the function must return the values as number of days. GDD() calls internally the function get_timeseries() which will match the given dates in day.one with the column names in the array and concatenate the values for each row. Then GDD() computes the degree-days for the time series and return the length of the vector

where the accumulated gdd reached the pre-defined threshold (900).

The degree-days spanned from 54 to 100 days as shown in Fig. 1a. For simplicity we take the average per season and use this vector to compute the temperature indices.

To compute the temperature indices we use the array with tempeture data, the vector with planting dates, and the seasonal averaged degree-days passed as a vector using the argument span. temperature() concatenates the data from the given day.one to the given span and compute the indices for each row.

In van Etten (2019), a forward variable selection was applied to retain the most representative covariates based on the deviance reduction. This analysis retained the maximum night temperature (maxNT) as the most representative covariate. To illustrate how the Plackett-Luce trees can grow in complexity as we add more indices, we included the summer days (SU, number of days with maximum day temperature $> 30~^{\circ}C$) together with maxNT.

Across-season distribution of maxNT captured for each sample plot in this experiment is shown in Fig. 1b. The data has a bimodal distribution which is reflected in the splitting value (18.7 $^{\circ}C$) for the Plackett-Luce trees in Fig. 1c. The upper node splits with 49 summer days (SU). We can interpret these results as that differences in growing performance of common beans is led by a considerable amount of diurnal temperature above a warmer threshold of 30 $^{\circ}C$ (in this case >70% of the growing days) and warmer nights (> 18.7 $^{\circ}C$).

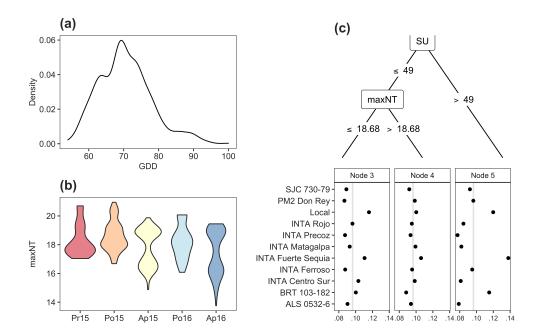


Fig. 1. Application of climatrends functions to support the analysis of a citizen-science data testing 11 common bean varieties in Nicaragua. (A) Days required to reach 900 growing-degree days from planting date calculated using the function GDD(). (B) Maximum night temperature (°C) distributed across seasons computed using the function temperature(). (C) Plackett-Luce Tree showing the probability of one common bean variety has to win against the others (axys X) in three different nodes splitted with the summer days (day temperature > 30 °C) and maximum night temperature (°C). Note: the first season (primera, Pr) spans from May to August, the second (postrera, Po) from September to October, and the third (apante, Ap) from November to January.

Trends in climate variability in Norway and Sweden

We randomly selected 100 points in hexagonal within the coordinates 7° and 17° W, and 59° and 63° N, that comprises Norway and Sweden before the Arctic Circle. We compute the temperature indices from 2000-01-01 to 2019-12-31 using the function temperature() with the method for objects of class 'sf'. The temperature data is fetched from from the NASA Langley Research Center POWER Project funded through the NASA Earth Science Directorate Applied Science Program (https://power.larc.nasa.gov/), using the R package nasapower (Sparks, 2018).

```
library("climatrends")
library("sf")
library("nasapower")
# create a polygon within the coordinates 7, 17, 59, 63
e \leftarrow matrix(c(7, 59, 17, 59, 17, 63,
              7, 63, 7, 59),
            nrow = 5, ncol = 2, byrow = TRUE)
e <- st_polygon(list(e))
# sample 100 points in the hexagonal type
p <- st sample(e, 100, type = "hexagonal")</pre>
p \leftarrow st_as_sf(p, crs = 4326)
# compute the temperature indices using the random points
temp <- temperature(p,
                     day.one = "2000-01-01",
                     last.day = "2019-12-31"
                     timeseries = TRUE,
                     intervals = 365)
```

We then select the indices CSDI (cold spell duration of night temperature), WSDI (warm spell duration of day temperature), and their associated indices the T10p (the 10th percentile of night temperature) and T90p (the 90th percentile of day temperature), in Figure 2. Plots are generated with ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016) and patchwork (Pedersen, 2020).

The trends show a decrease in the cold spell duration (number of consecutive cold nights bellow the 10th percentile) and warm spell duration (number of consecutive warm days above the 90th percentile). However, the values of the percentiles show an increase over the time series. The T10p index shows a decrease around the year of 2010, but again rises up to the a value around the -10 °C, meaning that the could nights are becoming a bit warmer over the time. The T90p index also shows an increase in the temperature across the sampled area, with the average 90th percentile rising from ~ 16 °C to ~ 18 °C over the time series.

Further development

The package can support the integration with other datasets as they become available in R via API client packages. Also new indices related to the physiology of crops could be implemented.

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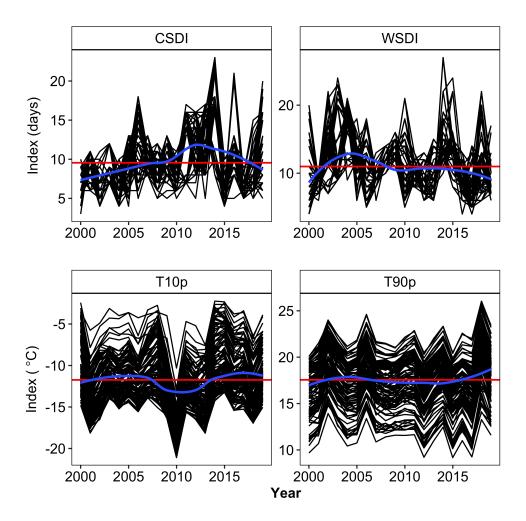


Fig. 2. Trends in temperature indices across Southern Norway and Sweeden from 2000 to 2019. CSDI, maximum cold spell duration, consecutive nights with temperature < 10th percentile. WSDI, maximum warm spell duration, consecutive days with temperature > 90th percentile. T10p, the 10th percentile of night temperature. T90p, the 90th percentile of day temperature. Red line indicates the historical mean of each index in the time series. Blue line indicates the smoothed trends in each index using the 'loess' method.

Data availability statement

To explore the latest functionalities of climatrends, please check the package's updates at CRAN (https://cran.r-project.org/package=climatrends).

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