

Northern Hemisphere atmospheric stilling accelerates lake thermal responses to a warming world

Article

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21 22	Kay naints
22 22	1 Atmospheric stilling has resulted in an increase in lake surface temperature across the
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21 28	5. Shahow lakes and those situated at low-latitude are influenced most by autospheric stilling
20 29	stining
30	Abstract (<150 words)
31	Climate change, in particular the increase in air temperature, has been shown to influence
32	lake thermal dynamics, with climatic warming resulting in higher surface temperatures,
33	stronger stratification, and altered mixing regimes. Less-studied is the influence on lake
34	thermal dynamics of atmospheric stilling, the decrease in near-surface wind speed observed
35	in recent decades. Here we use a lake model to assess the influence of atmospheric stilling, or
36	lake thermal dynamics across the Northern Hemisphere. From 1980-2016, lake thermal
37	responses to warming have accelerated as a result of atmospheric stilling. Lake surface
38	temperatures and thermal stability have changed at respective rates of 0.33 and 0.38°C
39	decade ⁻¹ , with atmospheric stilling contributing 15 and 27% of the calculated changes,
40	respectively. Atmospheric stilling also resulted in a lengthening of stratification, contributing
41	23% of the calculated changes. Our results demonstrate that atmospheric stilling has
4Z 42	influenced lake thermal responses to warming.
43 11	Plain Language Summery
44 45	Studies of climate change impacts on lakes typically consider projections of air temperature
46	over time. Such studies have demonstrated that a warming world will have numerous
rU	over time, such studies have demonstrated that a warming world will have hullefous

- 47 repercussions for lake ecosystems. Climate, however, is much more than temperature. In
- 48 lakes, changes in near-surface wind speed play an important role. Here, using a lake model to

49 simulate the thermal behaviour of lakes across the Northern Hemisphere, we show that lake

50 warming has accelerated as a result of atmospheric stilling, the decrease in near-surface wind

51 speed observed in recent decades. Specifically, as a result of atmospheric stilling, lake surface

52 temperatures have increased at a faster rate since 1980. Atmospheric stilling also resulted in a

53 lengthening and strengthening of stratification, which is important for lake ecology and has

54 numerous implications for lake ecosystems. Our results demonstrate that atmospheric stilling

has influenced lake thermal responses to climatic warming and that future evolution of wind speed is highly pertinent to assessment of future climate change impacts on lake ecosystems.

56 57

58 1. Introduction

Atmospheric stilling is the decrease of near-surface (~10 m) terrestrial wind speed observed in recent decades [*Roderick et al.*, 2007; *McVicar et al.*, 2012]. This slowdown has had impacts across the world, including regions where inland waters are present. Although the exact cause is unknown, some of the hypothesised drivers of atmospheric stilling include a reduction in the equatorial-polar thermal gradient [*McVicar et al.*, 2012], changes in mean circulation [*Lu et al.*, 2007; *Azorin-Molina* et al., 2014], and an increase in land-surface roughness [*Pryor et al.*, 2009; *Vautard et al.*, 2010].

Wind speed is one of the most important drivers of physical processes within lakes. 66 67 Momentum and mechanical energy fluxes across the lake-air interface scale as the wind 68 speed squared and cubed, respectively [Wüest and Lorke, 2003]. Modest fractional reductions 69 in wind speed may cause substantial changes in stratification and mixing dynamics. Studies 70 suggest that increasing air and, in turn, lake surface temperature typically, although not 71 always [Tanentzap et al., 2008], leads to a strengthening of stratification, as a result of an 72 increase in the temperature difference between surface and bottom waters. A concurrent 73 decrease in wind speed over lakes could reduce the magnitude of vertical mixing, leading to 74 less heat being mixed from the surface to greater depths, and subsequently leading to an 75 increase in surface temperature, a decrease in bottom temperature, and a strengthening of 76 stratification. Such a process could accelerate the expected thermal impacts on lakes of 77 climatic warming [Woolway et al., 2017a; Magee et al., 2017].

78 Alterations to temperature and stratification have profound effects on lake 79 ecosystems. Increased surface temperature and more stable and longer stratification can 80 favour bloom-forming cyanobacteria [Paerl and Huisman, 2009] and influence lake productivity [Verburg et al., 2003; O'Reilly et al., 2003]. Moreover, when a lake stratifies the 81 82 deep water becomes decoupled from the atmospheric supply of oxygen and the longer the 83 stratification lasts the more the oxygen becomes depleted due to in-lake respiration [*Rippey*] and McSorley, 2009], resulting in anoxic conditions and the formation of deep-water dead 84 85 zones [North et al., 2014; Del Giudice et al., 2018]. This not only limits fish habitat for most 86 species [Regier et al., 1990] but also alters the water chemical balance, promoting the 87 production of methane [Borrel et al., 2011].

88 Despite the potentially large decrease in wind mixing energy as a result of 89 atmospheric stilling, the majority of climate change studies on lakes have ignored this influence, in part owing to an implicit assumption that surface air temperature is the dominant 90 91 factor impacting lake thermal responses to climate change [O'Reilly et al., 2015; Woolway et 92 al., 2017b; Winslow et al., 2018]. In this study, we aim to address this research gap by 93 analysing lake thermal responses to atmospheric stilling. We use a one-dimensional, 94 numerical lake model to study the influence of atmospheric stilling on lake surface and 95 bottom water temperatures, water column stability, and the number of stratified days per year 96 in lakes situated across the Northern Hemisphere.

- 97
- 98 2. Methods

100	2.1. Study sites – The studied lakes were selected based on the availability of mean
101	depth information as well as wind speed observations near lakes worldwide. Of the 1.4
102	million lakes globally (larger than 0.1 km ²) [Messager et al., 2016], only those situated
103	within 10 km of a meteorological station were included in this study ($n = 2,063$). The
104	majority of these lakes were situated in the Northern Hemisphere ($n = 1,924$), and thus we
105	restrict our study sites to this region. Of these 1,924 Northern Hemisphere lakes, not all were
106	suitable for inclusion in this study. Lakes were deemed suitable if the lake surface area was
107	considered large enough for the influence of terrestrial sheltering (e.g., tall tree canopy) on
108	over-lake wind speeds to be considered negligible, which depends on lake area and the
109	sheltering height (e.g., local canopy height). According to field and wind tunnel experiments
110	[Markfort et al., 2010], if the radius of the lake is 50 times greater than the average sheltering
111	height [Read et al., 2012], we can expect terrestrial sheltering to have less influence on over-
112	lake wind conditions. In total, 1,123 lakes met this criteria. In addition, as we were interested
113	in changes in thermal stability, lakes were only included if they stratified at any point
114	seasonally, as determined from the lake model (see below). Following the recommendations
115	of Balsamo et al., [2012] when using the selected model (see below) across a wide-spectrum
116	of lakes, we only included lakes in the analysis if their mean depth was less than 60m. This
117	resulted in 650 lakes for the analysis.
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119 2.2. Canopy height estimation - The mean sheltering height of each lake was 120 computed according to the land cover type within 250 meters of a given lake perimeter 121 following Van Den Hoek et al., [2015], where the lake shoreline polygons were extracted 122 from Messager et al., [2016]. Sheltering height was based on global canopy height data 123 collected in 2005 using the GLAS lidar aboard NASA ICESat [Friedl and Sulla-Menashe, 124 2015]. Land cover type was based on the 2005 MCD12Q1 V6 Annual IGBP land cover 125 classification product, derived from data collected by the NASA MODIS satellite [Simard et 126 al., 2011]. All data used to measure the mean sheltering height are open-access, and 127 calculations were performed using Google Earth Engine.

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129 2.3. Lake temperature model - To simulate lake thermal responses to climate change, 130 we used the one-dimensional Freshwater lake (FLake) model [Mironov, 2008; Mironov et al., 131 2010]. FLake has been tested extensively in past studies. It has been used for simulating the 132 vertical temperature profile as well as the mixing regime of lakes [Kirillin, 2010; Shatwell et 133 al., 2016; Woolway and Merchant, 2019], and has been shown to reproduce accurately 134 bottom water temperatures as well as temporal changes to the depth of the upper mixed layer 135 and thermocline [Thiery et al., 2014; Thiery et al., 2015]. The meteorological variables 136 required to drive FLake are air temperature at 2 m, wind speed at 10 m, surface solar and 137 thermal radiation, and specific humidity. The forcing data used by FLake were from ERA-138 Interim [Dee et al., 2011], available at a latitude-longitude resolution of 0.75°. Time series 139 data were extracted for the grid point situated closest to the lake centre [Carrea et al., 2015]. 140 A set of lake specific parameters are also needed to drive FLake, including fetch (m), which 141 we fix in this study to the square root of lake surface area; mean depth; lake-ice albedo, 142 which was assumed to be 0.6 [*Mironov*, 2008]; and the light attenuation coefficient (K_d , m^{-1}), 143 which was set to 1 m^{-1} .

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2.4. Near-surface wind speed observations - To ensure that ERA-Interim wind speeds
were comparable to those observed in-situ, we compared these data with observations from
within 10 km of each lake (Fig. S3), available from HadISD [*Dunn et al.*, 2012]. In addition
to the quality control applied by *Dunn et al.*, [2012], we performed a more robust

homogenization method following *Azorin-Molina et al.*, [2018a], using the R [*R Core Team*,
2018] package HOMER [*Mestre et al.*, 2013].

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152 2.5. Lake thermal metrics – We investigated changes in lake surface and bottom water 153 temperature, and thermal stability in each of the studied lakes. These were calculated only 154 during July–September, in order to avoid the period of ice-cover in some lakes [O'Reilly et 155 al., 2015; Woolway and Merchant, 2017]. The thermal stability of each lake was calculated as 156 the top (defined as 0.1m below the lake surface) minus bottom (defined as the deepest point 157 of the lake) temperature difference. We also calculated the change in the number of positively 158 stratified (i.e., excluding inverse stratification) days per year (not limited to July-September). 159 To capture all stratification periods in this study, we use a top-bottom density difference of 160 0.05 kg m^{-3} to define a stratified day.

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162 2.6. Lake model validation – To validate the simulated lake surface temperatures from 163 FLake, we use lake surface temperatures from the ARC-Lake dataset [MacCallum and 164 Merchant, 2012]. Daily lake-mean time-series were obtained from the spatially-resolved 165 satellite data by averaging across the lake area. Lake-mean surface temperatures are used, as 166 these have been shown to give a more representative picture of lake temperature responses to 167 climate change compared to single-point measurements [Woolway and Merchant, 2018], and 168 also correspond better to the lake-mean model used. Fourteen lakes simulated in this study 169 were included in the ARC-Lake dataset (Fig. S1; Table S3). Modelled summer average lake 170 surface temperatures were also compared with in-situ summer-average lake surface 171 temperatures (n = 4) from Sharma et al., [2015] (Fig S1; Table S2). To verify that FLake was 172 able to simulate lake stability, we compared these simulations with calculated stability from 173 22 lakes, in which high-resolution lake temperature observations were available (Fig. S2; 174 Table S4).

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176 2.7. Lake model experiments - To investigate the influence of atmospheric stilling on 177 lake thermal dynamics, we performed two model experiments. Firstly, the thermal metrics 178 were calculated from the lake model temperature profiles generated using the atmospheric 179 forcing data over the study period. These model runs were then repeated, but with a 180 detrended near-surface wind speed. Near-surface wind speed was detrended in each site while 181 maintaining the inter-annual variability by first calculating the rate of change, keeping the 182 wind speed for the first simulation year unchanged, and removing the trend from the 183 following years. We then calculated the difference between the annually (or July–September) 184 averaged 'stilling' and 'no-stilling' model runs for each thermal metric across the lakes. The 185 influence of atmospheric stilling on each thermal metric was evaluated by calculating the 186 trend in the time series of 'stilling' minus 'no-stilling' model outputs. Trends were calculated 187 using ordinary least squares linear regression models, and the 5% to 95% confidence intervals 188 were also calculated. To determine if any lake specific characteristics influenced the 189 sensitivity of different lake thermal metrics to atmospheric stilling, we used the computed 190 trend from the 'stilling' minus 'no-stilling' time series within a multiple linear regression 191 model. Lake area, depth, altitude, latitude, and the trend in wind speed were used as 192 predictors in the model (Woolway et al., 2017c).

193194 **3. Results**

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196 3.1. Change in near-surface wind speed - Among the studied lakes, the average rate 197 of change in wind speed was -0.07 (95% CI: -0.07, -0.06; p < 0.01) ms⁻¹ decade⁻¹, but with 198 considerable across-lake variability (Fig. 1; n = 650). Almost two-thirds of the sites (n = 422) 199investigated experienced a decrease in wind speed. The average rate of change among these200sites was -0.09 (95% CI: -0.09, -0.08; p < 0.01) m s⁻¹ decade⁻¹. The largest and most201consistent area of atmospheric stilling occurs in central and northern Europe (Fig. 1). Sites in202north-eastern and south-central USA, India, and some regions of east Asia also experience a203substantial decline in near-surface wind speed from 1980-2016.

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205 3.2. Lake thermal responses to climate change - As the objective of this study was to 206 investigate the influence of atmospheric stilling on lake thermal dynamics, we focus on the 207 large majority of lakes which experienced a decline in near-surface wind speed from 1980-208 2016. Among these 422 sites, lake surface temperature and thermal stability demonstrate a 209 clear response to climate change (Fig. 2). In terms of lake surface temperature, the average 210 rate of change over all sites was 0.33 (95% CI: 0.16, 0.50; p < 0.01) °C decade⁻¹. The 211 confidence interval in 74% of lakes did not include zero. The average rate of change in 212 bottom water temperatures was -0.07 (95% CI: -0.11, -0.03; p = 0.07) °C decade⁻¹. The 213 confidence interval in 61% of lakes did not include zero. As a result of greater warming at the 214 lake surface compared to bottom waters, lake thermal stability increased in 82% of lakes (Fig. 215 2) and the confidence interval did not include zero in 67% of lakes. The top-bottom 216 temperature difference increased at an average rate of 0.38 (95% CI: 0.34, 0.42; p < 0.01) °C 217 decade⁻¹. The number of stratified days also increased, at an average rate of 4.13 (95% CI: 3.72, 4.54; p < 0.01) days decade⁻¹ (Fig. 3). The confidence interval in 68% of lakes did not 218 219 include zero.

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221 3.3. Influence of atmospheric stilling on lake thermal dynamics - To investigate only 222 the influence of atmospheric stilling on lake thermal dynamics, we removed the decrease in 223 wind speed and repeated the lake model runs (see Methods). Our results demonstrate that 224 atmospheric stilling accelerated the response of lake surface temperature to climatic warming 225 (Fig. 4). The average rate of change in lake surface temperature from the 'no-stilling' model 226 run was 0.28 (95% CI: 0.26, 0.30; p < 0.01) °C decade⁻¹, 15% lower than the model run 227 where the influence of atmospheric stilling was present. The average rate of change in lake 228 bottom temperature from the 'no-stilling' model run was 0.03 (95% CI: -0.01, 0.07; p > 0.1) 229 °C decade⁻¹, which was higher than the rate of change calculated when the influence of 230 atmospheric stilling was present. This demonstrates that atmospheric stilling is having a 231 cooling influence on lake bottom temperature. The thermal stability of the lakes is also 232 influenced considerably. When the decline in wind speed was removed from the model input 233 data, the average rate of change in thermal stability was 0.28 (95% CI: 0.24, 0.32; p < 0.01) 234 $^{\circ}$ C decade⁻¹, ~27% lower than when the influence of atmospheric stilling was present. 235 Atmospheric stilling also influenced the number of stratified days per year, contributing 23% 236 of the changes observed across the Northern Hemisphere. The number of stratified days in 237 the 'no-stilling' model run changed at an average rate of 3.08 (95% CI: 2.67, 3.49; p < 0.01) 238 days decade⁻¹, which is lower than calculated by the model where the influence of 239 atmospheric stilling was included. Thus, atmospheric stilling resulted in a lengthening of the 240 thermally stratified period. From the stilling minus no-stilling model runs, we calculate that 241 79%, 52%, 57%, and 61% of the confidence intervals of the calculated trends do not include 242 zero with regards to lake surface temperature, lake bottom temperature, lake thermal stability, 243 and the number of stratified days, respectively.

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3.4. Lake characteristics influence their sensitivity to atmospheric stilling - Multiple
linear regression models were used to determine how lake location and different lake
attributes, influence the response of lake thermal dynamics to atmospheric stilling. We find
that, for both lake surface temperature and the number of stratified days, lake depth as well as

249 the trend in near-surface wind speed are statistically significant predictors in the model 250 (Table S5). In addition, our results demonstrate that while many of the lakes studied 251 experienced an increase in surface temperature and the number of stratified days as a result of 252 atmospheric stilling, shallow lakes were most affected. Latitude was also a statistically 253 significant predictor in the model with regards to lake surface temperature, demonstrating 254 that surface temperatures in low-latitude lakes experienced a greater increase as a result of 255 atmospheric stilling (Table S5). None of the predictor variables tested were statistically 256 significant with regards to their influence on the role of atmospheric stilling on lake bottom 257 temperature and thermal stability. The magnitude of atmospheric stilling was the only 258 statistically significant predictor in the model (Table S6). This illustrates that lake bottom 259 temperature and thermal stability of the lakes studied are sensitive to the influence of 260 atmospheric stilling, if a sufficient decline in near-surface wind speed occurs, but none of the 261 tested lake specific characteristics had an influence on this response.

262

263 **4. Discussion**

264 Previous studies have discussed the effects of climatic warming on lake temperature and 265 stratification dynamics [Kraemer et al., 2015; Woolway et al., 2017b]. The focus on air 266 temperature change has drawn attention away from the possible influences of other aspects of 267 climate change, such as atmospheric stilling. A few studies that have investigated the 268 response of lake thermal dynamics to changes in wind speed have demonstrated the important 269 effect of this long-term change on the physical environment of lakes [Magee et al., 2016; 270 Magee et al., 2017; Woolway et al., 2017a; Deng et al., 2018]. However, the majority of these 271 previous studies have focussed on local and/or regional changes and, in particular, the 272 influence of a decrease in wind speed on individual systems. Prior to this investigation, no 273 known previous studies have investigated the influence of atmospheric stilling on 274 temperature and stratification dynamics in lakes situated across the Northern Hemisphere. In 275 this study, we demonstrate that the decrease in wind speed has resulted in less heat being 276 mixed from the lake surface to greater depths and, consequently, resulted in a warming of 277 surface waters and a cooling of bottom water temperature. In turn, the thermal stability and 278 the number of stratified days in the lakes studied has increased, on average, as a result of 279 atmospheric stilling.

280 While atmospheric stilling influenced lake thermal dynamics in many of the studied 281 sites, our investigation demonstrated that shallow lakes and those situated at low-latitude 282 experienced the greatest response. We found mean depth and latitude to be important 283 predictors of the sensitivity of the studied lakes to atmospheric stilling in terms of lake 284 surface temperature. A decline in wind speed can influence lake surface temperature in many 285 ways [Edinger et al., 1968]. The most important is, arguably, through its influence on the 286 mixing depth and, in turn, the volume of water that is influenced directly by atmospheric 287 forcing. A shoaling of the upper mixed layer over time (e.g. due to less wind mixing), can 288 lead to a stronger trend in lake surface temperature than would be expected from changes in 289 air temperature alone. Atmospheric stilling can also influence lake surface temperature via its 290 effect on the turbulent fluxes at the air-water interface, where a decrease in wind speed will 291 result in less latent and sensible heat loss, and thus a warming at the lake surface. This is 292 particularly important for low-latitude lakes. The latent heat flux is a greater contributor of 293 total turbulent heat loss in the tropics, compared to lakes situated in other climate zones as a 294 result of the increase in the air-water humidity difference, to which the latent heat flux is 295 proportional, with decreasing latitude [Woolway et al., 2018a]. Fractional reductions in wind 296 speed as a result of atmospheric stilling can therefore have a greater influence on the surface 297 energy budget, and thus surface temperature, at low latitudes.

298 Mean depth was also an important predictor of the sensitivity of the studied lakes to 299 atmospheric stilling with regards to the number of stratified days per year. The number of 300 stratified days per year was influenced most by atmospheric stilling in shallow lakes. Unlike 301 deep lakes, which are often either monomictic (experiencing one mixing event in most years) 302 or dimictic (mixing twice per year), thus experiencing prolonged periods of stratification, 303 shallow lakes often mix frequently (i.e. polymictic), stratifying only during periods of calm 304 and/or warm weather. Previous studies have shown that atmospheric stilling can bring 305 shallow lakes towards a tipping point between never stratifying (i.e. continuous polymictic) 306 to experiencing prolonged periods of stratification (i.e. discontinuous polymictic) [Woolway 307 et al., 2017a]. Although mixing regime shifts were not the focus of this study, and have been 308 investigated elsewhere [Woolway and Merchant, 2019], we found a prolonging effect of 309 atmospheric stilling on the duration of stratification across Northern Hemisphere lakes, which 310 was most apparent in shallow and, thus, more easily stratified systems. The ecological 311 implications of an increase in stratification duration, such as an increase in hypoxia [North et 312 al., 2014] and the occurrence of algal blooms [Paerl and Huisman, 2009], and/or a decrease 313 in lake productivity [O'Reilly et al., 2003; Verburg et al., 2003], will differ between lake 314 mixing types, and should be considered when interpreting our results. Specifically, the 315 ecological implications will be different between, for example, a dimictic lake where 316 stratification is lengthening, and a polymictic lake where a mixing regime alteration occurs.

317 The main limitation of our lake simulations is the one-dimensional assumption, as 318 lake temperature and stratification can often vary spatially within lakes [Woolway and 319 Merchant, 2018]. While these within-lake spatial variations were not captured in this 320 investigation, and can be extremely important for some large lakes, the modelling approach 321 used in this study is appropriate for a large-scale survey of lake responses, and likely captures 322 the dominant drivers of atmospheric stilling across the study sites. Other factors that were not 323 considered in this study can also influence the response of thermal dynamics to atmospheric 324 stilling or can complicate these relationships in some lakes. These include the influence of 325 groundwater inputs [Rosenberry et al., 2015], the volume and temperature of influent water 326 [Vinnå et al., 2018], and changes in lake transparency [Shatwell et al., 2016]. Given the lack 327 of light attenuation data available, we applied a single light attenuation for all lakes, which is 328 common in global lake simulations [Balsamo et al., 2012; Le Moigne et al., 2016]. The value 329 chosen (i.e. 1m⁻¹) worked well for the multiple simulations (i.e. the simulated temperatures 330 reasonably well-matched temperature for lakes with validation data). While we expect the 331 light attenuation coefficient to influence the sensitivity of a given lake to atmospheric stilling, 332 for a study of multiple lakes the average response should be relatively insensitive to using a 333 single attenuation value.

334 Our results demonstrate that atmospheric stilling is an important driver of lake 335 thermal responses to climatic warming. However, the average rate of change in near-surface wind speed among the lakes investigated is considerably less than the worldwide average (-336 0.14 ms⁻¹ decade⁻¹) [*McVicar et al.*, 2012]. Therefore, at a global scale we anticipate the 337 338 influence of atmospheric stilling on lake thermal dynamics to be even greater. Future trends 339 in atmospheric stilling are unclear. If wind speeds continue to decrease, then atmospheric 340 stilling will exacerbate the impacts of climate warming on lakes through further increases in 341 lake surface temperature and thermal stability. The repercussions of changes to these 342 important thermal properties of lakes is fundamental as they influence not only physical, but 343 also chemical and biological processes. However, it is yet unclear if the atmospheric stilling 344 patterns observed in recent decades will continue. Some recent studies have suggested a 345 break in the negative tendency of near-surface wind speeds, with a recovering/strengthening 346 after the year ~2013 [Azorin-Molina et al., 2018b]. An increase in near-surface wind speed, 347 which could be expected as a result of the projected increase in the frequency of extreme

348 weather [*Woolway et al.*, 2018b], could act to dampen lake thermal responses to climatic

- 349 warming, even resulting in a decrease in lake surface temperature and thermal stability in
- 350 lakes if large enough. It is as yet unclear if the physical environment of lakes will return to a

351 'pre-stilling' state given recent changes. Either way, this study demonstrates that the

influence of long-term changes in near-surface wind speed needs to be taken into

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³⁵³ consideration when assessing climate change impacts on lake ecosystems.

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506 Figures and legends

507

Figure 1. Observed mean wind speed changes across the Northern Hemisphere from 1980-2016. Shown are (a) the July-September averaged wind speed trends in locations of the lakes studied (n = 650), and (b) the frequency distribution of the calculated trends. Statistically significant (p < 0.05) trends are shown with circles and non-significant trends (p > 0.05) are shown with squares.

513

514 Figure 2. Thermal response of lakes to climate change. Shown are the changes in (a) surface 515 water temperature, (b) bottom water temperature, and (c) thermal stability across Northern 516 Hemisphere lakes from 1980-2016 (n = 422). Shown also are (d) the Northern Hemisphere 517 average anomalies, relative to 1981-2010, and (e) the frequency distribution of the calculated 518 trends in lake thermal metrics (as shown in panels a-c). Results are presented as July-519 September averages. A linear fit to the average anomalies is also shown in panel d. 520 Statistically significant (p < 0.05) trends are shown with circles and non-significant trends (p 521 > 0.05) are shown with squares.

522

Figure 3. Changes in the number of stratified days per year across Northern Hemisphere lakes from 1980-2016 (n = 422). Shown are (a) the trends in the duration of thermal stratification per year, (b) the Northern Hemisphere average anomalies relative to 1981-2010, and (c) the frequency distribution of the calculated trends in the number of stratified days per year (as shown in panel a). A linear fit to the average anomalies is also shown in panel b. Statistically significant (p < 0.05) trends are shown with circles and non-significant trends (p > 0.05) are shown with squares.

530

Figure 4. The influence of atmospheric stilling on the thermal response of lakes to climate change. Shown are the contributions (demonstrated via the rate of change) of atmospheric stilling to long-term changes in (a) lake surface temperature, (b) lake bottom temperature, (c) thermal stability, and (d) the duration of thermal stratification. Also shown are (e) changes in the Northern Hemisphere average anomalies (relative to 1981-2010) of the lake thermal metrics as a result of atmospheric stilling. A linear fit to the data is also shown. The influence

536 metrics as a result of atmospheric stilling. A linear fit to the data is also shown. The influence 537 of atmospheric stilling on each thermal metric was evaluated by calculating the trend in the

time series of 'stilling' minus 'no-stilling' model outputs (see Methods). Statistically

539 significant trends are shown with circles and non-significant trends are shown with squares.

Figure 1.



Figure 2.



Figure 3.



Figure 4.

