Twenty years of spatially coherent deepwater warming in lakes across Europe related to the North Atlantic Oscillation

Martin T. Dokulil

Institute for Limnology, Austrian Academy of Sciences, Mondseestrasse 9, A-5310 Mondsee, Austria

Albert Jagsch

Institute for Freshwater Ecology, Fish Biology and Lake Research, Federal Bureau for Water Management, Scharfling 18, A-5310 Mondsee, Austria

Glen D. George

Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Library Avenue, Bailrigg, Lancaster LA1 4AP, United Kingdom

Orlane Anneville

INRA - UMR CARRTEL, 75 avenue de Corzent BP 511 - Cedex 74203 Thonon les Bains, France

Thomas Jankowski

Swiss Federal Institute for Environmental Science and Technology (EAWAG), W & T, Ueberlandstrasse 133, CH-8600 Duebendorf, Switzerland

Bernd Wahl

GKSS Forschungszentrum Geesthacht c/o Institut für Seenforschung (ISF), Argenweg 50/1, D 88085 Langenargen, Germany

Brigitte Lenhart

Wasserwirtschaftsamt Weilheim, Pütrichstrasse 15, D-82362 Weilheim, Germany

Thorsten Blenckner

Department of Earth Sciences, University Uppsala, Villav. 16, S-752 36 Uppsala, Sweden

Katrin Teubner

Institute for Limnology, Austrian Academy of Sciences, Mondseestrasse 9, A-5310 Mondsee, Austria

Abstract

Twenty to fifty years of annual mean deepwater (hypolimnetic) temperature data from twelve deep lakes spaced across Europe (2°95′W to 14°0′E, 46°27′ to 59°00′N) show a high degree of coherence among lakes, particularly within geographic regions. Hypolimnetic temperatures vary between years but increased consistently in all lakes by about 0.1 0.2°C per decade. The observed increase was related to the weather generated by large scale climatic processes over the Atlantic. To be effective, the climatic signal from the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) must affect deep lakes in spring before the onset of thermal stratification. The most consistent predictor of hypolimnetic temperature is the mean NAO index for January May (NAO_{J M}), which explains 22 63% of the interannual variation in deepwater temperature in 10 of the 12 lakes. The two exceptions are remote, less wind exposed alpine valley lakes. In four of the deepest lakes, the climate signal fades with depth. The projected hypolimnetic temperature increase of approximately 1°C in 100 yr, obtained using a conservative approach, seems small. Effects on mixing conditions, thermal stability, or the replenishment of oxygen to deep waters result in accumulation of nutrients, which in turn will affect the trophic status and the food web.

Acknowledgments

Historical water temperature data from Switzerland were kindly provided by the Dept. of Water Protection of the Canton of Zurich Office of Waste, Water, Energy and Air (AWEL) and by the City of Zurich Water Supply (WVZ). Data for Lake Constance come from Internationale Gewässerschutzkommission für den Bodensee (IGKB) and were made available through cooperation with KLIWA (www.kliwa.de). In Lake Geneva water temperatures were recorded within the framework of a monitoring program funded by the Commission Internationale pour la Protection des Eaux du Léman (CIPEL).

This work was partly funded by the Swiss Federal Office of Education and Science within the framework of the European Commission Environmental and Sustainable Development and by the European Union projects REFLECT, CLIME (http://clime.tkk.fi/), and EURO LIMPACS (www.eurolimpacs.ucl.ac.uk/).

2788 Dokulil et al.

Deep lakes are widely regarded as sensitive monitors of the changing climate (George et al. 1998). Analyses are typically based on long-term studies of ice cover, surface temperature, and mixing regimes (Robertson 1989; Livingstone and Dokulil 2001; Salmaso et al. 2003) in temperate lakes, glacial, and high-latitude systems (Magnuson et al. 2000; Quayle et al. 2002). More recently, temperature increase in deep, hypolimnetic water has been detected as an indicator for climate warming in both freshwaters (Ambrosetti and Barbanti 1999; Straile et al. 2003a) and oceanic systems (Fukasawa et al. 2004) with strong ecological consequences.

Lakes in the Northern Hemisphere, particularly in Europe, are strongly influenced by the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) (Blenckner and Chen 2003). The NAO is an index describing patterns of atmospheric pressure gradients that develop over the North Atlantic, especially during boreal winter (Hurrell et al. 2001). Effects of weather conditions generated by the NAO are well established for surface water temperature and mixing (Gerten and Adrian 2003). Effects on hypolimnetic temperatures have been reported from Switzerland, Italy, France (Livingstone 1993; Guilbaud 2003; Salmaso et al. 2003), and Africa (Verburg et al. 2003). Deep, hypolimnetic lake waters are particularly good places to look for effects of climate signals because the deep strata are homogenous and should maintain a more or less constant temperature. It can be hypothesized that positive deviations of deepwater temperature (DWT) are likely to be the result of influences by the NAO. Testing this hypothesis requires long-term data from DWT measurements.

Study lakes, data, and statistics

The analyses are based on deepwater, hypolimnetic temperatures acquired over the last two to five decades from twelve deep lakes distributed throughout Europe from 2°95′W to 14°0′E and 46°27′ to 59°00′N (Fig. 1). Nine of the twelve lakes are located in the perialpine region. The lakes cover a wide range of size, depth, and water volume (Table 1). Temperature observations dating back

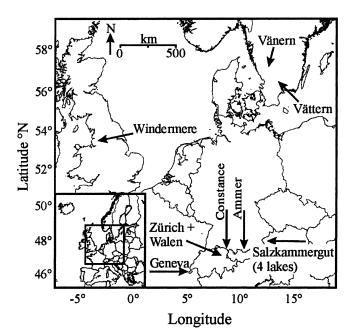


Fig. 1. Map of Europe with the geographical position of the lakes investigated.

to 1848 are analyzed for three lakes in Austria by Dokulil et al. (2006).

Data are extracted from temperature profiles taken either by conventional sampling strategies using water samplers with built-in thermometers calibrated in °C or from thermistor readings. Information for the Swedish lakes Vänern and Vättern originates from http://www.ma. slu.se. All other data were supplied by the authors. Data sets differ in observational length, the longest beginning in 1947 (Windermere, UK), the shortest starting in 1984 (Ammersee, Germany). Sampling intervals among the 12 lakes varied between weekly (Windermere, UK) and monthly (Swedish lakes), but were in general biweekly. All data were quality controlled by calculating first the annual average plus standard deviation from the raw data and then removing values outside two standard deviations.

Table 1. Name, abbreviation, country, position, and morphometry of the 12 European deep lakes arranged by their geographical position from west to east keeping countries together. $z_{\text{max}} = \text{maximum depth}$, $z_{\text{avg}} = \text{average depth}$, $T_{\text{w}} = \text{retention time}$.

Lake	Country	Geographical position	Altitude (m)	Area (km²)	z _{max} (m)	z _{avg} (m)	Volume (106 m ³)	T _w (yr)	Catchement area (km²)
Windermere, WNB	GB	54°35′ N 02°95′ W	39.0	14.76	64.0	21.3	315	0.8	230.50
L. Geneva, LL	CH/F	46°27′ N 06°32′ E	372.0	582.0	309.0	152	89,000	1.4	7395.00
Zürichsee, LZ	CH/F	47°20′ N 08°35′ E	406.0	67.0	140.0	49	29	1.2	1740.00
Walensee, WS	CH/F	47°10′ N 09°15′ E	419.0	24.0	151.0	105	25	1.4	1061.00
L. Constance, LC	A/CH/D	47°39′ N 09°18′ E	395.0	472.0	253.0	101	47,600	4.2	11890.00
Ammersee; AM	D	48°00′ N 11°20′ E	523.9	46.61	81.1	37.6	1,750	2.7	993.90
Vänern, LVN	S	59°00′ N 13°00′ E	44.55	5,650.00	106.0	27	153,000	9.0	46830.00
Vättern, LVT	S	58°50′ N 14°00′ E	88.51	1,890.00	120.0	40	77,600	8.0	6359.00
Mondsee, MO	A	47°48′ N 13°24′ E	481.0	14.21	68.3	36	510	1.7	247.00
Attersee, AS	A	47°48′ N 13°30′ E	469.2	45.9	170.6	84.2	3,945	7.0	463.50
Hallstättersee, HS	A	47°36′ N 13°42′ E	508.0	8.58	125.2	64.9	557	0.5	646.50
Traunsee, TS	A	47°53′ N 13°48′ E	422.0	25.6	191.0	89.7	2,302	1.0	1417.00

Annual volume-weighted averages were then calculated depthwise from the corrected data sets. To show and test that trends in DWT are consistent within each lake, three depths are analyzed, except for Lake Vänern and Windermere, where measurements from only one depth (60 m) were available.

Weekly data for Windermere were grouped into five 10-week periods that provided the best measures of seasonal change. Trend analysis of these five periods indicates the greatest slope of data regression versus time for period one (Q1), the first 10 weeks of the year.

All data are tested for normality (Kolmogorov Smirnov), constant variance, and power when performing regression analysis of DWT against time. Robustness is tested using Mann Kendall's tau (SPSS 10) and calculation of median trend lines. Slopes and intercepts thus obtained did not significantly deviate from conventional analysis. Following suggestions by Yue and Wang (2002), prewhitening to eliminate influences of serial correlation on the Mann Kendall test has not been applied.

Coherence (synchrony) between lakes (Baines et al. 2000) is calculated from the corrected data sets for the period 1980 2003 using Pearson product moment correlation as suggested by Magnuson (SigmaStat 3.1). Calculation of coherence and correlation to the NAO is based on data from 100 m or the greatest depth available when lakes are less than 100 m deep.

Values for the simple NAO index are obtained from http://www.cru.uea.ac.uk. This index is based on the difference of normalized sea level pressure between Ponta Delgada, Azores and Stykkisholmur/Reykjavik, Iceland. Besides the traditional NAO winter index (December February), several monthly indices and combinations of them were tested including November, December of the previous year, and January to June. DWT correlates with the winter index in a few lakes only (e.g., Lake Geneva). The most consistent and robust relation was obtained using an averaged index for January to May NAO_{J-M}, which was therefore applied to all lakes. Repeated calculations using multistation NAO indices based on principal component analysis (PC-based NAO, http://www.cgd.ucar.edu/cas/ jhurrell/indices.info.html) gave identical results with smaller r^2 values. As a further test, temperature data were standardized, linearly detrended over time, and the residuals related to the detrended NAO residuals. Results deviate marginally from those obtained with the raw data.

Time sequence

Annual mean DWT data for the 12 lakes are plotted against time in Fig. 2, covering periods between 20 and 55 yr. Considerable interannual and site-specific variability is observed in these time series. Regression lines show a consistent trend of increasing DWT at all sites, which is significant in lakes deeper than 120 m (Table 2). Slopes vary from 0.004 to 0.044, indicating differences in magnitude of warming. In Windermere, the slope is 0.015 and significant during Q1, showing the importance of the winter period for the temperature increase (Table 2). A rise of 0.1°C to 0.2°C per decade can be deduced from the

majority of the temperature gradients, closely resembling the warming rate of 0.15°C per decade in Lake Tahoe and 0.2°C per decade in Lake Washington in North America (Arhonditsis et al. 2004; Coats et al. 2006).

Regional coherence

Correlation between sites (Table 3) indicates considerable coherence among time series with a higher degree of synchrony within geographic regions such as the two lakes in Sweden, the lakes in the Austrian Salzkammergut district, and the Alpine lakes in Germany and Switzerland (Table 3). The prealpine Ammersee (AM) is more closely related to lakes in the western Alps than to lakes elsewhere. Lakes with maximum depth greater than 100 m (Table 1) are spatially coherent over longer distances (Table 3), e.g., Zürichsee (LZ) with the two lakes in Sweden (LVN, LVT) and the two deepest lakes in Austria, Attersee (AS) and Traunsee (TS). Similarly, the moderately deep Windermere (WNB) is synchronized across Europe among other lakes with Mondsee (MO), a lake similar in size and depth.

Influence of the NAO

Macroscale atmospheric phenomena such as the NAO, the Pacific Decadal Oscillation, or the El Nino Southern Oscillation are increasingly recognized as regulating forces in aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems (Marshall et al. 2001; Arhonditsis et al. 2004). The spatial coherence of DWT across Europe suggests teleconnection to large-scale climatic processes that seem to be more important than regional weather conditions (Hallett et al. 2004). To affect DWT, the climate signal must penetrate into deeper layers before the onset of temperature stratification in summer. This aspect is supported by the significant increase in DWT for the first 10-week period in Windermere (WNB Q1, Fig. 2 and Table 2). The optimal time window obviously is then the phase of spring overturn when lakes mix completely, but the timing of the influential signal might vary depending on the geographic location, size, depth, and presence or absence of ice cover. Applying a number of different NAO indices to the 12 European lakes for the time window 1984 2003, the mean NAO index for January to May (NAO_{J-M}) proved as the best and most robust signal for the entire data set. As indicated by the coefficient of determination (Fig. 3; Table 4), the NAO_{J-M} explains 22 63% of the interannual variation of DWT in 10 of the 12 lakes. Exceptions are Walensee and Hallstättersee, which show no statistically significant relation. The timing and the mixing conditions are different in these two remote, less wind-exposed alpine valley lakes. Hallstättersee, a N-Sorientated fjord-type lake, receives on average 5 h less sunshine than other lakes in the region. Water temperatures, mixing conditions, and ice duration vary because of the short, erratic retention time (Dokulil 2004). These conditions are also reflected in the weak relation of lake surface temperature to winter NAO (Livingstone and Dokulil 2001) and a low inter-regional coherence (Table 3). Other factors such as oligotrophication seem to override

2790 Dokulil et al.

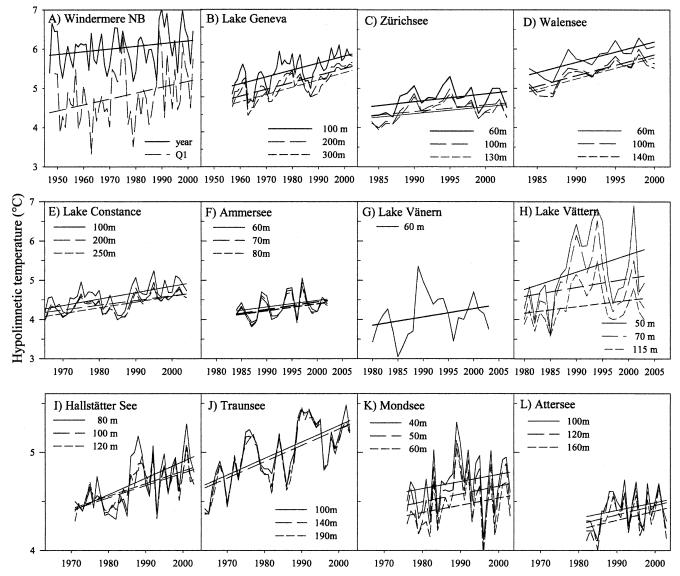


Fig. 2. Time series and regression lines for annual average deepwater temperatures. (A) Windermere North Basin 60 m and the first 10 week period (Q1), (B) Lake Geneva, (C) Zürichsee, (D) Walensee, (E) Lake Constance, (F) Ammersee, (G) Lake Vänern, (H) Lake Vättern, (I) Hallstättersee, (J) Traunsee, (K) Mondsee, and (L) Attersee for the depths indicated.

climate signals in Walensee, similar to what has been concluded in a phytoplankton study (Anneville et al. 2004).

All available information supports the conclusion that climate variability has a statistically significant effect on DWT and can explain the observed increase over the time window analyzed. Milder and warmer-than-usual spring periods associated with positive NAO_{J-M} increase DWT, whereas cold weather during spring expressed as negative NAO_{J-M} index depresses temperatures in the hypolimnion. The primary mechanism transmitting the signal of spring NAO to DWT are the conditions during spring turnover. Mixing of the water column during this period is of paramount importance for the hypolimnetic temperatures during the rest of the year. Atmospheric coupling of the lake heat content via air temperature to the mesoscale climate (Livingstone 1993) is largely responsible for the correlation of DWT to the NAO. Mixing conditions,

landscape topography, and lake morphometry determine the persistence of the climate signal with time and depth. As a result, the strength of the signal decreases with depth in several of the lakes investigated, especially in the two deepest lakes, Lake Geneva and Lake Constance, but it is also noticeable in Traunsee and Mondsee (Fig. 4). Similar observations have been made in the oceans (Barnett et al. 2005). Parts of the structure of the deepwater time series, however, remains specific to the particular lake under consideration and can not be directly related to atmospheric forcing. Changes in trophic status influencing stability or time lag in reaction deserve mentioning (Livingstone 1993; Straile et al. 2003*a*,*b*).

In 12 lakes across Europe, we have shown that DWT increased by 0.1 0.2°C per decade mediated by mesoscale atmospheric forcing. Although the temperature increase might be considered small (approx. 1°C in 100 yr using

Table 2. Regression parameters, coefficient of variance, *F* and *p* statistics for the trend lines in Fig. 2. Bold letters indicate significant positive trends versus time. All data are tested for normality (Kolmogorov Smirnov), constant variance, and power.

Lake	Period	Depth (m)	Intercept	Slope	R^2	F	P	n
WNB Ann	1947 2002	60	7.57	0.007	0.06	3.308	0.075	56
WNB Q1		60	24.84	0.015	0.12	7.157	0.010	
LL	1960 2003	100	33.34	0.020	0.43	33.267	< 0.001	47
		200	33.63	0.020	0.54	53.372	< 0.001	
		300	36.13	0.021	0.58	61.063	< 0.001	
LZ	1944 2002	60	8.92	0.007	0.19	13.030	< 0.001	59
		100	5.64	0.005	0.17	11.825	0.001	
		130	4.27	0.004	0.16	10.419	0.002	
WS	1974 2002	60	18.72	0.017	0.19	5.771	0.024	27
		100	29.98	0.018	0.22	7.037	0.014	
		140	34.00	0.020	0.23	6.784	0.016	
LC	1963 2002	100	28.18	0.017	0.39	25.587	< 0.001	42
		200	19.44	0.012	0.34	20.837	< 0.001	
		250	24.49	0.014	0.49	39.096	< 0.001	
AM	1984 2002	60	28.90	0.017	0.09	1.622	0.220	19
		70	34.24	0.019	0.13	2.432	0.137	
		80	30.87	0.017	0.12	2.330	0.145	
LVN	1980 2003	30	24.57	0.016	0.02	0.390	0.539	24
		70	24.13	0.015	0.02	0.476	0.497	
LVT	1980 2004	50	83.00	0.044	0.12	3.043	0.095	24
		70	40.938	0.023	0.05	1.175	0.290	
		115	28.420	0.017	0.06	1.376	0.253	
MO	1978 2003	40	9.99	0.007	0.07	1.289	0.267	28
		50	11.41	0.008	0.06	1.617	0.215	
		60	10.23	0.007	0.06	0.888	0.355	
AS	1968 2003	100	20.63	0.013	0.37	14.168	< 0.001	26
		120	15.86	0.010	0.29	9.774	0.005	
		160	17.73	0.011	0.37	14.066	< 0.001	
HS	1971 2003	80	28.91	0.017	0.35	16.945	< 0.001	33
		100	20.46	0.013	0.38	18.994	< 0.001	
		120	20.79	0.013	0.41	21.924	< 0.001	
TS	1964 2003	100	28.44	0.017	0.47	28.025	< 0.001	39
		140	28.15	0.017	0.47	27.970	< 0.001	
		190	28.64	0.017	0.44	24.824	< 0.001	

a conservative approach), mixing conditions, thermal stability, or oxygen concentration will be affected. Reduced winter cooling in Lake Constance during high NAO winters resulted in incomplete mixing, lack of oxygen

replenishment, and accumulation of nutrients in the hypolimnion (Straile et al. 2003). Similar effects were observed in Zürichsee and Lake Bourget (Livingstone 1993; Guilbaud 2003). Sharper density gradients and slowed

Table 3. Coherence (synchrony) between deepwater lake temperatures expressed as Pearson product moment correlation. Lakes abbreviated as in Table 1. Bold numbers indicate significant correlation at p < 0.05, underlined numbers are significant at p < 0.10. All data (n = 24, 1980 2003) were tested for normality (Kolmogorov Smirnov) and robustness (Mann Kendall Test).

	LL	LZ	WS	LC	AM	LVN	LVT	MO	AS	HS	TS
WNB	0.21	0.38	0.31	0.27	0.35	0.63	0.44	0.44	0.36	0.24	0.45
LL		<u>0.60</u> *	0.85*	0.79*	0.58*	0.31	0.21	0.01	0.33	0.15	0.35
LZ			0.79*	0.86*	0.56*	0.52	0.54	0.29	0.58	0.38	$\overline{0.72}$
WS				0.89*	0.49*	0.45	0.23	0.07	0.50	0.28	0.54
LC					0.51*	0.53	0.46	0.12	0.49	0.30	0.71
AM						0.38†	0.28	0.30	0.35	0.17	0.38
LVN							0.66†	0.44	0.49	0.29	0.69
LVT								0.37	0.64	0.14	0.50
MO									0.74‡	0.67‡	0.42‡
AS									•	0.85‡	0.55‡
HS										•	0.44‡

Coherent lake regions are: * Switzerland/Germany, † Sweden, ‡ Austria.

2792 Dokulil et al.

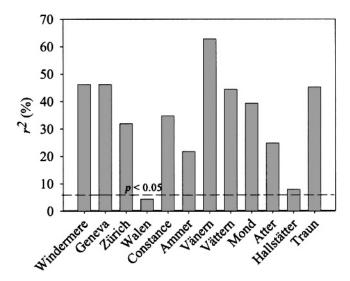


Fig. 3. Coefficients of determination (r^2) between the mean NAO index for January May (NAO_{J M}) and the deepwater temperatures of the 12 European lakes, depths, and the period given in Table 4.

Table 4. Dependence of annual average deepwater temperatures (°C) on the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) as mean index for January to May (NAO_{J M}) of each year for the period 1984 2003 (n=20). Significant correlation is indicated in bold.

Lake	Depth (m)	r^2	F	p
WNB	60	0.46	15.458	< 0.001
LL	100	0.46	15.458	< 0.001
LZ	100	0.32	8.428	0.009
WS	100	0.04	0.830	0.374
LC	100	0.35	9.551	0.006
AM	80	0.22	5.003	0.038
LVN	70	0.63	30.334	< 0.001
LVT	115	0.44	14.389	0.001
MO	60	0.39	11.649	0.003
AS	100	0.25	5.922	0.026
HS	100	0.08	1.552	0.229
TS	100	0.45	14.829	0.001

vertical mixing influenced the trophic status and the food web in two Italian prealpine lakes south of the Alps (Salmaso et al. 2003). In Lake Tanganijka reduced primary productivity was observed as a consequence of reduced mixing (Verburg et al. 2003). In North America, greater resistance against mixing and increased stability during stratification including biological responses was reported from Lake Washington and Lake Tahoe (Arhonditsis et al. 2004; Coats et al. 2006). The extent to which lakes are affected largely depends on the lake type. Frequently circulating polymictic lakes are least influenced, whereas deep dimictic lakes with stable summer stratification preserve the NAO signal (Gerten and Adrian 2003). The implication of this study suggests that society has seriously to consider warming of freshwater ecosystems and must develop strategies against water quality impairment.

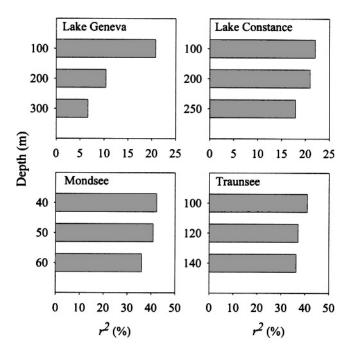


Fig. 4. Coefficient of determination (r^2) between NAO_{J M} and deepwater temperatures at different depths for four European lakes.

References

Ambrosetti, W., and L. Barbanti. 1999. Deep water warming in lakes: An indicator of climatic change. J. Limnol. 58: 1 9.

Anneville, O., S. Souissi, S. Gammeter, and D. Straile. 2004. Seasonal and interannual scales of variability in phytoplank ton assemblages: Comparison of phytoplankton dynamics in three perialpine lakes over a period of 28 years. Freshwat. Biol. 49: 98 118.

Arhonditsis, G. B., M. T. Brett, C. L. Degasperi, and D. E. Schindler. 2004. Effects of climatic variability on the thermal properties of Lake Washington. Limnol. Oceanogr. 49: 256 270.

Baines, S. B., K. E. Webster, T. K. Kratz, S. R. Carpenter, and J. J. Magnuson. 2000. Synchronous behavior of temperature, calcium, and chlorophyll in lakes of Northern Wisconsin. Ecology 81: 815–825.

Barnett, T. P., D. W. Pierce, K. M. Achutarao, P. J. Gleckler, B. D. Santer, J. M. Gregory, and W. M. Washington. 2005. Penetration of human induced warming into the world's oceans. Science 309: 284–287.

BLENCKNER, T., AND C. CHEN. 2003. Comparison of the impact of regional and North Atlantic atmospheric circulation on a aquatic ecosystem. Climate Res. 23: 131–136.

Coats, R. N., J. Perez Losada, G. Schladow, R. Richards, and C. R. Goldman. 2006. The warming of Lake Tahoe. Clim. Change 76: 121–148.

DOKULIL, M. T. 2004. European alpine lakes, p. 159 178. *In P. E. O'Sullivan and C. S. Reynolds* [eds.], The lakes handbook, V. 2. Blackwell.

, K. Teubner, and A. Jagsch. 2006. Climate change affecting hypolimnetic water temperatures in deep alpine lakes. Verh. Internat. Verein. Limnol. 29: 1285–1288.

Fukasawa, M., H. Freeland, R. Perkin, T. Watanabe, H. Uchida, and A. Nishina. 2004. Bottom water warming in the North Pacific Ocean. Nature **427**: 825–827.

- George, D. G., J. G. Jones, P. Puncochár, C. S. Reynolds, and D. W. Sutcliffe. 1998. Management of lakes and reservoirs during global climatic change. Kluwer.
- GERTEN, D., AND R. ADRIAN. 2003. Differences in the persistency of the North Atlantic Oscillation signal among lakes. Limnol. Oceanogr. 46: 448–455.
- Guilbaud, C. 2003. Deep water temperature and oxygen concentration in Bourget Lake. Contr. EU project 'Eurolakes', Report D25: Lake stratification studies. www.eurolakes.org.
- HALLETT, T. B., T. COULSON, J. G. PILKINGTON, T. H. CLUTTON BROCK, J. M. PEMBERTON, AND B. T. GRENFELL. 2004. Why large scale climate indices seem to predict ecological processes better than local weather. Nature **430**: 71–75.
- HURRELL, J. W., Y. KUSHNIR, AND M. VISBECK. 2001. The North Atlantic Oscillation. Science 291: 603 605.
- LIVINGSTONE, D. M. 1993. Temporal structure in the deep water temperature of four Swiss lakes: A short term climatic change indicator? Verh. Internat. Verein. Limnol. 22: 75 81.
 - , AND M. T. DOKULIL. 2001. Eighty years of spatially coherent Austrian lake surface temperatures and their relationship to regional air temperature and the North Atlantic Oscillation. Limnol. Oceanogr. **46:** 1220 1227.
- Magnuson, J. J., and others. 2000. Historical trends in lake and river ice cover in the northern hemisphere. Science **289**: 1743–1746.
- Marshall, J., and others. 2001. North Atlantic Climate variability: Phenomena, impacts and mechanisms. Int. J. Climatol. 21: 1863–1898.
- Quayle, W. C., L. S. Peck, H. Peat, J. C. Ellis Evans, and P. R. Harrigan. 2002. Extreme response to climate change in Antarctic lakes. Science 295: 645.

- ROBERTSON, D. M. 1989. The use of lake water temperature and ice cover as climatic indicators. Ph.D. thesis, Univ. of Wisconsin.
- Salmaso, N., R. Mosello, L. Garibaldi, F. Decet, M. C. Brizzio, and P. Cordella. 2003. Vertical mixing as a de terminant of trophic status in deep lakes: A case study from two lakes south of the Alps (Lake Garda and Lake Iseo). J. Limnol. 62: 33 41.
- Straile, D., K. Johnk, and H. Rossknecht. 2003a. Complex effects of winter warming on the physicochemical characteristics of a deep lake. Limnol. Oceanogr. 48: 1432
 - , D. LIVINGSTONE, G. A. WEYHENMEYER, AND D. G. GEORGE. 2003b. The response of freshwater ecosystems to climate variability associated with the North Atlantic Oscillation, p. 263–279. *In J. W. Hurrell, Y. Kushnir, G. Ottersen and M. Visbeck* [eds.], The North Atlantic Oscillation. Climatic significance and environmental impact. American Geophysical Union.
- Verburg, P., R. E. Hecky, and H. Kling. 2003. Ecological consequences of a century of warming in Lake Tanganyika. Science **301**: 505–507.
- Yue, S., and C. Y. Wang. 2002. Applicability of prewhitening to eliminate the influence of serial correlation on the Mann Kendall test. Water Resour. Res. 38: 4 1 4 7.

Received: 22 March 2006 Accepted: 4 July 2006 Amended: 14 July 2006