### **Supplementary information**

# Global mapping reveals increase in lacustrine algal blooms over the past decade

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# Global mapping reveals increase in lacustrine algal blooms over the past decade

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#### **1** Supplementary Notes:

### **1.1 Supplementary Note 1: Rationale of the CIE color space-based algal bloom detection algorithm**

Since the 1970s, satellite remote sensing techniques have been effectively used to monitor algal blooms and to examine their distributions, onsets, and durations, among many other properties <sup>1-8</sup>. Particularly, some species of phytoplankton can regulate their buoyancy and form subsurface accumulations and surface scums in calm weather, allowing them to be easily detected by remotely sensed observations <sup>1</sup>. Satellite-delineated bloom extents are generally considered more reliable than those determined from field surveys due to the significant heterogeneity of phytoplankton cells both spatially and temporally <sup>9</sup>. The separation of bloom-containing and bloom-free pixels is straightforward for a limited number of satellite images, as accumulated colonies can substantially modulate satellite signals in terms of both magnitudes and spectral shapes <sup>1,10</sup>. However, the application of a bloom detection algorithm to global Landsat data spanning more than 38 years is not trivial. This is because the satellite signals of lacustrine waters change not only with the concentrations of three optically

sensitive components in water (including chlorophyll, suspended sediments, and colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM))<sup>11</sup> but also with aquatic vegetation, shallow water bottoms and satellite observation conditions <sup>12-14</sup>. All of these factors can be encountered at sometime or location during global long-term monitoring research.

Various spectral wavelengths or indices have been introduced to detect algal blooms in inland and coastal waters, such as a single red band <sup>15</sup>, normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) <sup>16</sup>, maximum chlorophyll index (MCI) <sup>10</sup>, maximum peak height (MPH) <sup>17</sup>, cyanobacteria index (CI) <sup>18</sup>, floating algal index (FAI) <sup>12</sup> and false-colored red-green-blue (FRGB) index <sup>19</sup>. The use of the MCI, MPH and CI requires narrow bands at red to NIR spectral ranges, which are applicable to only a few satellite sensors (such as MERIS (2002-2011) and the Ocean Land Color Instrument (OLCI, 2017-now)). Among the above, the FAI algorithm is currently the most commonly used method for broadband instruments (such as the Moderate Resolution Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and Landsat) <sup>20,21</sup>, and FAI values can be calculated using three bands in the red, NIR and SWIR spectral regions. The baseline subtraction designation of the FAI makes it insensitive to changes in satellite/solar geometries, sunglint, and aerosol contamination <sup>12</sup>.

A predefined threshold, which is typically determined manually, is required before using the FAI or any other spectral wavelength/index to discriminate phytoplankton blooms within remote sensing images. However, the optimal threshold can vary considerably across space and time according to different lacustrine

environments and satellite observation conditions (Supplementary Fig. S2). Thus, determining the best image-specific thresholds for the 2.91 million images used in our study is practically impossible. Therefore, we developed an automatic algal bloom detection algorithm by introducing the color space created by the Commission Internationale del' calirage (CIE, or International Commission on Illumination in English) in 1931<sup>22</sup>.

The CIE color space quantitatively defines linkages between the distributions of the visible spectrum and all colors perceptible by human eyes  $^{22}$ . The CIE color space allows us to numerically specify colors using a two-dimensional CIE xy chromaticity diagram (Extended Data Fig. 1a) instead of the traditional three red-green-blue (RGB) tristimulus values. In contrast, it is often challenging to characterize color similarities within the RGB color space, prohibiting a threshold-based approach to distinguish two colors. The three tristimulus values from the RGB color space can be converted into CIE chromaticity coordinates (x, y) using the following equations  $^{23}$ :

x=X/(X+Y+Z) y=Y/(X+Y+Z) X=2.7689R+1.7517G+1.1302B Y=1.0000R+4.5907G+0.0601B Z=0.0000R+0.0565G+5.5943B

where R, G and B represent the reflectances at red, green and blue wavelengths, respectively. The white point (1/3, 1/3) in the diagram represents equal energy from all three bands, and any point located along the horseshoe-shaped border corresponds to

monochromatic light (or the spectral locus) (Extended Data Fig. 1a). With decreasing distance to the spectral locus from the white point, more energy is expected from the associated monochromatic light. After transforming the Landsat RGB surface reflectance data into CIE xy chromaticity coordinates (x, y), the colors of water bodies can be easily visualized.

The CIE color space has been used previously by several groups to examine changes in water color through the combination of a Forel-Ule (FUI) color scheme <sup>24,25</sup>, while no efforts have been made to use this scheme for the automatic detection of algal blooms. A transformation from the RGB color space to the hue-saturationvalue (HSV) space has also been successfully applied to classify water bodies and other land cover types <sup>26</sup>. We conducted a comparison, the results of which demonstrated the poorer separability of bloom pixels in the HSV color space than in the CIE color space (results not shown here).

# **1.2 Supplementary Note 2: Validations of the algal bloom detection algorithm**

Three types of validations were performed to ensure the reliability of the algal blooms discriminated using the CIE-based algorithm: comparisons with visually selected samples from both Landsat images and high resolution Planet Dove images, high spectral solution datasets from MERIS, and a literature review.

First, we evaluated the uncertainty of the algorithm through comparisons between the CIE algorithm-classified results and visually interpreted bloomcontaining and bloom-free pixels from the same images. All the validation samples (41,045 bloom-containing pixels and 47,182 bloom-free pixels) were manually selected from Landsat images covering 22 lakes across different regions and times (Supplementary Table 3a). Although the data from several lakes were also used to develop the algorithm, we employed different images to select the validation samples. The bloom-containing pixels were delineated using the same method for the selection of training samples, and these sampled pixels were used to determine if the algorithm can accurately exclude false negatives (blooms detected as non-blooms); the bloomfree pixels were selected within the same images when no greenish slicks or low FAI values were present, and the samples were used to evaluate whether the algorithm could accurately exclude false positives (non-blooms classified as blooms). The confusion matrix<sup>27</sup> in Extended Data Table 1 shows that the producer and user accuracies of the algorithm for bloom area detection are 98.8% and 92.3%, respectively. Likewise, we used visually interpreted validation samples from 3-m resolution Planet Dove images to conduct quantitative accuracy assessments for bloom areas classified by Landsat-8 OLI images. Since Dove images are not available until December 2015, similar evaluations for preceding Landsat instruments are not possible. We visualized the RGB true color composite of Dove images and the corresponding NDVI images; greenish features with high NDVI values were manually delineated as bloom-containing pixels, whereas pixels with other colors and low NDVI values were determined as bloom-free. We randomly selected 16,564 validation sample points (9,585 for bloom-containing and 6,979 for bloom-free, respectively) from 21 lakes distributed globally (Supplementary Table 3b). To

consider the differences in spatial resolutions between Landsat (30-m) and Dove (3m), we assured that the neighboring pixels around each sample point in Dove images are dominated by the same class as the sample (bloom-containing or bloom-free). These samples were then compared with the classified results from concurrent Landsat 8 images (i.e., images acquired within the same days as Dove), which resulted in high producer and user accuracies of 98.6% and 94.6% for bloom detection, respectively (Extended Data Table 1). In addition to these quantitative evaluations of the uncertainty levels, we also exported the classification results from the Google Earth Engine for at least 10,000 images across six continents. We exported both the RGB true color image and the associated bloom map to verify whether the bloom patterns are consistent with the features in the RGB image (see examples in Extended Data Fig. 1c and Supplementary Fig. S3). Such a qualitative verification further confirmed the fidelity of our algorithm in discriminating greenish bloom

Second, we used high spectral resolution MERIS images to assess the Landsatdetected bloom areas. MERIS has narrow bands (up to 10 nm) configured within the visible to NIR spectral range, making it possible to detect several diagnostic signals from algal blooms <sup>3,18</sup>. One of the pronounced signals is the reflectance peak at 709 nm, caused by high phytoplankton absorption at 675 nm and high water absorption for wavelengths longer than ~720 nm <sup>10</sup>. The MCI, developed via this reflectance peak, can be used to highlight the bloom areas in MERIS images <sup>10</sup>. The MCI is estimated as:

$$MCI = \mathbf{R}_{\lambda 2} - [\mathbf{R}_{\lambda 1} + (\mathbf{R}_{\lambda 3} - \mathbf{R}_{\lambda 1}) \times (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)/(\lambda_3 - \lambda_1)]$$

where  $\lambda_1$  to  $\lambda_3$  are the MERIS bands centered at 665, 709, and 754 nm, respectively. A modified version of the MCI (denoted as the MCIT, MCIT= MCI/(1+0.1 × (R<sub> $\lambda$ 3</sub> - R<sub> $\lambda$ 4</sub>)),  $\lambda_4$ =865 nm) recommended by Qi et al. <sup>28</sup> was used here to reduce some impacts from water turbidity.

MERIS images acquired concurrently with the Landsat data (i.e., with the same acquisition dates) were obtained, and the data cover 28 lakes across different regions and times (Supplementary Fig. 2). For each Landsat image, we first identified the bloom-containing and bloom-free pixels within the examined lake using our CIEbased algorithm. Then, we estimated the MCIT for the corresponding MERIS image and compared the histograms of the MCIT for the Landsat-classified bloomcontaining and bloom-free pixels. The MCIT values for the bloom-containing pixels were systematically higher than those for the bloom-free pixels in all 28 examined lakes.

Third, we compared the Landsat-derived bloom patterns to previously reported bloom outbreaks through a review of both published journal papers and gray literature. Bloom occurrences (BO, defined as the ratio between the number of detected algal blooms to the number of valid satellite observations) were estimated using Landsat observations spanning 38 years were carefully examined. For example, in the Great Lakes of North America, we found high BO in western Lake Erie, Saginaw Bay in Lake Huron, and Green Bay in Lake Michigan (Fig. 3); these lake sections have attracted widespread concern from both the general public and the scientific community <sup>29-31</sup>. Extensive studies have revealed higher risks of cyanobacterial blooms in northern and western Taihu Lake in China (Fig. 3), which agrees well with the high BO we found in these regions <sup>4,32</sup>. In addition, vast areas of cyanobacterial blooms have been detected in northern Lake Winnipeg in Canada using satellite imagery by other groups <sup>33,34</sup>; our results also revealed high BO (>10%) in most of this region (Fig. 3). In total, we carefully inspected more than 100 lakes, including all the lakes we used to select the training and validation samples and many other lakes. The results confirm that the Landsat-delineated blooms are consistent with either peer-reviewed literature or online news reports. We acknowledge that an exhaustive check of the >20,000 lakes in our study is impossible; this is also the reason why the results provided here represent the first comprehensive understanding of global lake blooms.

We acknowledge that ideally real ground truth data should be used to ascertain the reliability of the Landsat-detected algal blooms using the novel CIE-based algorithm. However, *in situ* validations for satellite-delineated phytoplankton blooms are challenging due to the remarkable nonuniformities of algal blooms in both vertical and horizontal directions in the water column <sup>35,36</sup>, strongly related to the migration capability of phytoplankton cells <sup>35</sup>. The complex responses of phytoplankton cells/colonies to wind stress, sunlight and other lake environmental properties (such as water depth and temperature) make it difficult to predict their transport trajectory in the water column. Indeed, previous field surveys demonstrated that algal blooms often

<sup>8</sup> 

show extremely patchy features. For example, concentrations of phytoplankton cell counts or chlorophyll a (a key indicator for phytoplankton biomass) varied by up to an order of magnitude between water samples collected on different sides of a research vessel <sup>9</sup>. Therefore, in situ samples collected from such patchy areas are not suitable for validating Landsat-delineated blooms, which represent mean conditions within  $30 \times 30$ -m<sup>2</sup> boxes. The considerable diurnal changes in bloom features also add complexity to this task <sup>37,38</sup>. Therefore, we believe that the methods used herein represent the best practices for global-scale algal bloom validation.

The bloom detection algorithm in this study was developed by training samples with outbreaks of greenish algal blooms (see Extended Data Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 2). As such, our algorithm may not be useful to determine algal blooms either without densely aggregated surface/subsurface phytoplankton biomass or appearing non-greenish in color. Indeed, other than the most problematic and widely reported summer blooms, our algorithm is capable of detecting the spring blooms in periodical frozen lakes when greenish bloom slicks are distinct on water surface <sup>39</sup>. It is also noted that although blooms with non-greenish colors exist in marine (often called "red tides") and saline lacustrine systems <sup>40,41</sup>, they have rarely been found in freshwater lakes and the exclusion of such blooms is not expected to strongly impact the global statistics of our study.

Algal blooms are harmful only when they produce toxins or of extremely high biomass <sup>41,42</sup>; and the contents of toxins from phytoplankton blooms can vary substantially in both space and time, even within the same genera <sup>43</sup>. Therefore, the

discrimination between harmful and non-harmful phytoplankton blooms is currently challenging with only satellite observations. Moreover, the determination of the phytoplankton species is also not possible by using their colors, and therefore knowledge of the phytoplankton ecology (i.e., latitudinal and seasonal distributions) is required to interpret what phytoplankton can be expected from the satellite-based algal bloom maps.

Subsurface accumulation and surface scums of phytoplankton occur under weak wind conditions  $^{18,34}$ , where the bloom signal can be easily detected by satellite remote sensing. However, high wind stress tends to mix the cells/colonies from the surface to deeper waters, making it difficult to be detected with remotely sensed observations <sup>18</sup>. Indeed, such dynamic nature of phytoplankton (e.g., cyanobacteria), as well as their ability to change buoyancy, are also the exact reasons why bloom extents detected from satellite remote sensing are currently considered more reliable than field measurements<sup>1</sup>. More importantly, remote sensing appears to be the only technique that can be used for monitoring algal blooms at continental to global scales. In fact, numerous environmental programs worldwide have incorporated satellite products into the decision-making process, including the US Environmental Protection Agency, NOAA, NASA, the European Environment Agency, Chinese environmental protection agencies, aquaculture industry of southern Africa, etc. <sup>2,5,44,45</sup>. Further, satellite observations are also the only source of historical data for the majority of the global lakes across the planet that were not monitored in the field.

Satellite missions (such as MODIS, the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS), Geostationary Ocean Color Imager (GOCI), and OLCI) with more frequent (daily or hourly) observations could potentially address the wind-induced issues by tracking short-term variability of lacustrine algal blooms. However, Landsat datasets provide a much finer spatial resolution, which is particularly important for the detection of bloom features in small lakes (as small as  $0.1 \text{ km}^2$ ). Moreover, the Landsat data archive is longer than any of the other available archives, making it possible to examine the changes in lacustrine environments over the past four decades; in contrast, the other satellites with more frequent observations are not available until circa 2000. In fact, we minimized the impacts of wind and other environmental factors on the global statistics by two procedures when establishing the GBD database: 1) we excluded the areas with insufficient valid observations from the decadal comparisons; and 2) we normalized the number of bloom images over the number of valid Landsat observations for BO to further minimize the associated shortterm impacts from wind (see details above). Nevertheless, satellite images with spatial resolutions of tens of meters are currently available from a number of satellite missions, such as the Sentinel series of sensors launched by the European Space Agency and the Gaofen series of satellites launched by China. In particular, daily observations with a resolution of a few meters are being acquired by commercial satellite systems (such as Planet Dove). We expect that the use of multiple satellite missions in the future can provide both high frequency (daily or even hourly) and high spatial-resolution to help with ongoing monitoring of algal blooms, as well as other environmental monitoring programs.

### **Supplementary Figures**

**Supplementary Figure S1** 

**Supplementary Figure S1 | Examples to show two types of disturbances affecting bloom detection.** (a) Percentage of positive FAI occurrence (from 1982 to 2019) in the Danjiangkou Reservoir in China, where the water has been reported to be of high quality. The signals reflected from adjacent green vegetation (in either a specular or diffuse manner) off the water surface can lead to misclassification with the CIE-based algorithm; (b) RGB composite of a clear greenish karst lake (Ebinur Lake in China), which is located in an endorheic basin. The locations of Danjiangkou Reservoir and Ebinur Lake are shown on the left.



#### **Supplementary Figure S2**













































**Supplementary Figure S2 | Validation of the Landsat-delineated bloom areas using MERIS observations in 28 lakes.** The RGB composites, FAI and bloom areas (classified using the CIE-based algorithm) were generated using Landsat images, and the MCIT was calculated using concurrent (i.e., on the same acquisition date) MERIS images (see Supplementary Note 2). The MCIT histograms of the bloom-containing (red curves) and bloom-free (black curves) pixels are shown for each image group (left panels).

#### **Supplementary Figure S3**



Supplementary Figure S3 | The RGB and corresponding bloom classification maps for 12 selected lakes distributed globally, showing the performance of the algorithm and the severity of algal blooms (represented as green in the right panels).

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