

1 **Title:** Rethinking discretization to advance limnology in a rapidly changing world

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6

7 **Abstract:**

8 Limnologists often adhere to a discretized view of waterbodies—they classify them,  
9 divide them into zones, promote discrete management targets, and use research tools,  
10 experimental designs, and statistical analyses focused on discretization. This approach  
11 to limnology has profoundly benefited the way we understand, manage, and  
12 communicate about waterbodies. But the research questions and the research tools in  
13 limnology are changing rapidly with consequences for the relevance of our current  
14 discretization schemes. Here, I examine how and why we discretize and argue that  
15 selectively rethinking the extent to which we must discretize gives us an exceptional  
16 chance to advance limnology in new ways.

17

18 **Keywords:** Classification, management, big data, computing, statistics, trophic state,  
19 zonation

20

21 **Main Text:**

22

23 **1 Rethinking discretization can elicit limnological progress**

24

25 Limnology was founded on the premise that lake ecosystems are distinct from the  
26 terrestrial ecosystems around them. Lake ecosystems were considered superb habitats  
27 for ecological experiments because their biological, chemical, and physical processes  
28 were considered discrete. In 1887, Stephen Forbes, a founder of limnology, went so far

29 as to doubt whether annihilating all terrestrial animals would have any important effect  
30 on lake ecosystems at all (Forbes, 1925).

31  
32 But, we know today that lake ecosystems are intricately connected to surrounding  
33 ecosystems and vice versa. The boundary where lake ecosystems end and the next  
34 ecosystem begins has become increasingly blurred in recent decades. During the  
35 research boom on “ecosystem subsidies” beginning in the 2000’s, it was shown that a  
36 large proportion of lake ecosystem carbon can be derived from terrestrial production  
37 (Pace et al., 2004). And it is recognized today that lakes emit greenhouse gases that  
38 have widespread effects beyond their boundaries (Raymond et al., 2013). In recognition  
39 that lakes are not discrete ecosystems, we have substantially advanced our  
40 understanding of their role in global biogeochemical cycles (Tranvik et al., 2018). The  
41 emergent recognition that lake ecosystems are not discrete has been a substantial  
42 limnological advance (Tranvik et al., 2018).

43  
44 Limnologists have begun to critically reflect on many other aspects of discretization,  
45 leading to a variety of other limnological advances. For example, in recognition of the  
46 subjectivity of defining discrete mixed layers, some recently argued that an idealised  
47 concept of a well-defined mixed layer does not necessarily reflect the reality of aquatic  
48 physics (Gray et al., 2019). In recognition of the substantial amount of subsurface flow  
49 across catchments, “discrete” hydrogeological units are increasingly recognized as  
50 having no real boundaries to water movement (Fan, 2019). By moving beyond research  
51 focused on single, discrete waterbody types, we have also begun to find the remarkable

52 commonalities among seemingly disparate aquatic ecosystem types leading to more  
53 general theories for how waterbodies function. For instance, waterbodies across size  
54 and flow gradients have been shown to have similar controls on their nutrient limitation  
55 (Elser et al., 2007), metabolism (Yvon-Durocher et al., 2012), trophic cascades (Shurin  
56 et al., 2002), and responses to human activity (King et al., 2019).

57

58 The benefits of rethinking discretization are also demonstrated by major scientific  
59 advances in fields outside limnology. In biology, Charles Darwin and Alfred Russel  
60 Wallace challenged the discretized worldview that all organisms belong to discrete,  
61 unrelated species. In his famous “theory of relativity,” Albert Einstein powerfully  
62 demonstrated that time and space are not discrete, further arguing that “physical reality  
63 must be described in terms of continuous functions” (Einstein 1979). In social  
64 psychology, Judith Butler radically disrupted the binary view of sex, gender, and  
65 sexuality (Butler, 1990). Over the course of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and especially since the  
66 rapid growth of human genome sequencing, it has become clear that standard racial  
67 categories do not reflect actual genetic structure in humans (Yudell et al., 2016). These  
68 key advances show how rethinking our discretization systems can promote inspiring  
69 scientific progress.

70

71 In limnology, opportunities for rethinking discretizations are as widespread as the  
72 discretizations themselves. We classify waterbodies based on their size (pond, lake,  
73 Great Lake, or Ocean), flow rates (creek, stream, river, or large river), trophic status  
74 (oligotrophic, mesotrophic, or eutrophic), mixing (stratified or unstratified), salinity

75 (freshwater or saline), latitude (tropical, temperate, or arctic), and human hydrological  
76 influence (lake or reservoir). We also divide waterbodies into different zones according  
77 to their mixing (epilimnion, metalimnion, or hypolimnion), light climate (photic or  
78 aphotic), distance from shore (littoral or limnetic), and distance from the bottom (benthic  
79 or pelagic). The publications which codify these waterbody discretizations are often very  
80 well-cited (e.g. Lewis Jr. 1983).

81  
82 But any calls for casting aside specific waterbody discretizations are likely to be met  
83 with fierce resistance because limnological progress to date has relied heavily on them.  
84 For instance, early in limnology's history, lakes were divided into low, medium, and high  
85 trophic classes based on their productivity (Carlson, 1977). So-called "trophic state  
86 classifications" expanded rapidly following this early work, with new limnologists  
87 frequently reinventing the scale. But in the 1970's, limnologists began to find the  
88 contradictions among trophic state classification systems problematic because the class  
89 boundaries were scientifically un-testable, preventing the development of a single  
90 general classification system (Carlson, 1977). Robert E. Carlson argued for replacing a  
91 classification-based system with a less arbitrary continuous gradient from 0 to 100  
92 called the "trophic state index" (Carlson, 1977). While Carlson's paper receives many  
93 citations, the discretized, classification-based systems are still widely-used in limnology  
94 today. Similar calls for replacing other waterbody classifications or zonations are likely  
95 to be met with similar resistance, and often with good reason.

96

97 Limnologists rely on trophic state classifications and other waterbody discretizations  
98 because they offer extraordinarily useful shortcuts that can facilitate limnological  
99 progress, management, and communication. In a hypothetical research context, high-  
100 resolution sampling for total phosphorus might be unnecessary if a discrete, 3-sample  
101 approximation from the epilimnion, metalimnion, and hypolimnion would suffice to  
102 answer the research question at hand. In a management context, the ecological  
103 integrity of a waterbody could be painstakingly described using the complete nucleotide  
104 sequences for all organisms that occupy it. But, simply classifying the waterbody's  
105 ecological integrity as "good" or "bad" based on the presence of a few indicator species  
106 may be adequate, depending on the management goal. Discretization can also simplify  
107 communicating with the public. In the case of public swimming advisories, a  
108 dichotomous "safe" or "not safe" advisory may facilitate swimmer decisions about  
109 whether or not to get in the water. But an advisory stating the exact quantitative  
110 probabilities that swimmers will be exposed to all toxins may complicate rather than  
111 facilitate swimmer decision-making. Thus, the appropriateness of any specific  
112 discretization system depends on the objectives and the tools at hand to meet them.  
113  
114 But our objectives and our tools in limnology are changing rapidly. Recently deployed  
115 remote sensing platforms have higher resolutions that capture more waterbodies at  
116 higher frequencies. Continuously profiling cameras can collect underwater images of  
117 microscopic organisms, process those images using artificial intelligence, and generate  
118 real-time biodiversity profiles. Automated sensors for measuring dissolved nutrients are  
119 being improved every day, inspiring new questions about the drivers of high-frequency

120 variability. Numerous computing resources are putting advanced statistical tools at our  
121 finger tips for free. National, international, and global databases containing data from  
122 many thousands of waterbodies are inspiring new questions and becoming an  
123 increasingly important tool to understand aquatic ecosystems (King et al., 2019). And  
124 mobile technologies, social media, and open access philosophies are reshaping the  
125 ways limnologists communicate with each other and with the public.

126

127 These rapid changes could have consequences for how and when limnologists find  
128 certain discretizations appropriate. Just as modern genomics has strengthened calls to  
129 move beyond the biological concept of race as a scientific categorization (Yudell et al.,  
130 2016), changes in limnology may also require rethinking limnological discretizations.

131 Arguments about the appropriateness of any specific discretization scheme in limnology  
132 may seem trivial. But in aggregate, resolving these arguments could substantially  
133 influence how the ongoing information deluge improves our science. Fully casting aside  
134 any specific discretization system may be reckless and extremely impractical, but  
135 questioning the extent to which we must rely on them is an appropriate and timely  
136 pursuit given the ongoing changes to the field. Importantly, the process of selectively  
137 rethinking discretization should be informed by a keen awareness of discretization's  
138 advantages and disadvantages discussed here.

139

## 140 **2. Advantages and disadvantages of discretization**

141

142 Waterbody discretization is widespread, in part, because it can facilitate communication  
143 among experts by offering useful linguistic shortcuts—jargon. Single words of  
144 limnological jargon can stand for whole paragraphs of text in plain English, so jargon  
145 can save time and lead to the development of a unifying scholarly identity. But just as  
146 the jargon associated with discretization can facilitate communication among experts, it  
147 can also hamper communication with non-experts. Jargon is widely denounced in the  
148 public sphere by scientific communication specialists who view it as a key boundary to  
149 public understanding of science. Jargon associated with waterbody discretization can  
150 even hamper communication among experts from closely related fields as different  
151 fields can have different definitions for the same jargon (e.g. the ‘littoral zone’ refers to  
152 the ‘shallow illuminated zone’ in freshwater ecology but to the “intertidal zone” in marine  
153 ecology). Thus, waterbody discretization and its associated jargon can be profoundly  
154 useful by expediting communication among experts, but it can hamper communication  
155 with non-experts and experts from closely related fields.

156  
157 Discretizing waterbodies can benefit limnology by guiding expectations for how  
158 waterbodies function leading to important research and collaborations. For instance,  
159 many limnologists inherently expect “discrete” classes and zones to behave in distinct  
160 ways. Reservoirs are thought to function in fundamentally different ways compared to  
161 lakes (Hayes et al., 2017). Some limnologists encourage developing a unique limnology  
162 for very small ponds (Hoverman and Johnson, 2012). And large rivers, it is argued,  
163 should be modelled separately from other rivers (Puckridge et al., 1998). These  
164 expectations can lead limnologists to form discrete, collaborative teams focused on



165 illuminating exceptionally important research topics even if they are predominantly  
166 relevant only for specific waterbody types and zones. As a result, ponds, lakes,  
167 wetlands, streams, rivers, and oceans are typically studied in isolation at both fine and  
168 broad scales due to their perceived differences (Chaloner and Wotton 2011; King et al.  
169 2019).

170  
171 But expectations that waterbody classes and zones represent real structure in nature  
172 can also be a disadvantage. The compartmentalization of limnology is problematic  
173 because it counteracts the formulation of general ecological theory and hypotheses  
174 founded on waterbody relatedness. It has been argued that this isolation has slowed the  
175 development of a common mechanistic understanding of the drivers of carbon  
176 (Hotchkiss et al. 2018), nutrient (Elser et al. 2007) and energy (Chaloner and Wotton  
177 2011) dynamics in aquatic ecosystems. When limnologists study different waterbody  
178 types and zones concurrently along continuous gradients, the basic commonalities  
179 among all waterbodies can be more apparent, which promotes synthesis and general  
180 theory formulation (Chaloner and Wotton 2011; Hotchkiss et al. 2018). Trans-  
181 disciplinary is widely touted in the scientific literature (Chaloner and Wotton 2011), and  
182 may be key to merging the understanding generated from studying specific waterbody  
183 types.

184  
185 Like pixelating an image, waterbody discretization also partially masks variability within  
186 groups, causing a loss of signal in the gradient (Gray et al., 2019). For example,  
187 limnologists often divide the continuous gradient of human influence on waterbody

188 hydrology into the categories, “lake” and “reservoir.” But these terms mask the wide  
189 variety of waterbodies that fall along the continuous gradient that underlies them. The  
190 term, “reservoir” can be used to describe waterbodies ranging from those that have  
191 been created by humans de novo outside a water network to those that are pre-existing  
192 with slight modifications in their water levels due to a dam. Discretization errors  
193 associated with the term “reservoir” are partly reduced by adding more classes (e.g.  
194 “run-of-river” reservoir). Adding enough classes to sufficiently reduce discretization  
195 errors can take the limnological lexicon down a path toward overbearing complexity that  
196 impedes communication rather than enhancing it (e.g. semi-lacustrine-oligotrophic-  
197 tropical-run-of-river reservoir).

198  
199 Discretization in limnology goes far beyond waterbody classification and zonation—  
200 discretization is also widely relied on by limnologists when promoting certain resource  
201 management targets. For example, discrete pollution limits are promoted as a  
202 waterbody management tool which allows polluters to pollute up to a specific threshold  
203 without having to pay. Threshold-based management is widely encouraged in the  
204 scientific literature (Liu et al., 2015) and adopted by local, national, and international  
205 management authorities with considerable resource benefits (e.g. Total Maximum Daily  
206 Loads). Discrete management targets have been relied on for decades to control  
207 waterbody stressors with some success.

208  
209 But in some contexts, management approaches based on discrete management targets  
210 can be suboptimal. The effectiveness of discrete management targets partially depends

211 on whether waterbodies have a predictable, well-defined, discrete capacity to withstand  
212 stress. There is an abundant limnological literature on thresholds in stressor-response  
213 relationships, but this literature shows that strong thresholds in these relationships are  
214 rare, uncertain, and difficult to predict (Groffman et al., 2006; Gsell et al., 2016).

215 Furthermore, potential thresholds may be dynamic through time, making them an  
216 unrealistic management target even with multitudinous data from a specific system.

217 Discrete stressor targets can also cause defeatism—the thinking that stressor  
218 reductions are valuable only if they take stressors below a threshold. Defeatism may  
219 prevent incremental stressor reductions which are beneficial but don't meet the  
220 threshold. Conversely, discrete stressor targets can cause complacency—the thinking  
221 that stressor reductions that occur below a threshold are worthless, when further  
222 reductions would still elicit resource benefits.

223  
224 Limnologists' discretized approach to collecting and analysing data has been the core of  
225 limnological progress for decades. Limnologists sample waterbodies at discrete depths  
226 and sampling locations; design experiments using discrete, replicated treatments  
227 (Johnson et al., 2009); test for statistical significance using discrete p-values; cluster  
228 data using k-means and other clustering approaches (Savoy et al., 2019); and use  
229 classification trees to explain variability in data by dividing it into classes based on  
230 discrete cut-offs in predictor variables (O'Reilly et al., 2015). These discretizations can  
231 save time, resources, and can simplify the interpretation of statistical findings.

232

233 Despite the widespread dependence of limnological progress on data collection and  
234 analysis using discretization, overdependence on the practice can lead limnologists to  
235 design limnological studies with less statistical power that are more difficult to  
236 incorporate into ecological theory. For instance, analysis of variance (ANOVA)—a  
237 widely used statistical technique in limnology—has less statistical power than linear  
238 regressions when both tests' assumptions are met, yet we often design experiments  
239 with a discrete, replicated ANOVA design (Cottingham et al., 2005). Furthermore, linear  
240 regression can provide quantitative output with fewer parameters that can be more  
241 effectively incorporated into ecological models than ANOVA output (Cottingham et al.,  
242 2005). Simple classification tree analysis is also commonly used in limnology, but its  
243 discretized simplicity belies its many disadvantages. Simple classification trees make  
244 highly approximated representations of continuous functions, their output can be  
245 extremely unstable when fit with new data, and other methods vastly outperform them  
246 according to widely ranging performance metrics (Prasad et al., 2006). Limnologists  
247 also use discrete thresholds in p-values to test for statistical significance. Yet  
248 statisticians have made widespread calls to end dichotomous significance testing  
249 because the practice often leads to misunderstandings and misinterpretation of results  
250 (Amrhein et al., 2019; Johnson, 2007). Just as dichotomous significance testing has  
251 been widely criticized, so too have the various statistical clustering approaches  
252 commonly used in limnology for easily finding structure in un-structured data (Cormack,  
253 1971).

254

255 **3. The big picture, recommendations, and the future of discretization**

256  
257 Regardless of the advantages and disadvantages, discretization is partially unassailable  
258 because it is essential to science, language, and modern computing. After all, science  
259 itself advances through discrete datasets, analyses, and publications. Publications are  
260 written using language which is constructed with discrete letters and words. As you read  
261 this, your brain needs discretization to group the individual letters that make up this  
262 sentence into something understandable. Moreover, computers are essentially  
263 discretization machines—turning precise information into 1's and 0's so that it can be  
264 represented by on-off transistors in the computer's hardware. Casting aside  
265 discretization as a whole would mean casting aside all of modern science, language,  
266 and computing. Thus, discretization is perpetually engrained in limnology as it is in  
267 virtually all human pursuits.

268  
269 As humans, the tendency to discretize has a potent evolutionary basis. We often  
270 discretize to make decisions on how to react (e.g. was that snake that just bit me  
271 poisonous, or not?). When facing threats or challenges, we also discretize ourselves  
272 into cooperative groups that may be better positioned to overcome them. This  
273 evolutionary human tendency to discretize spills over into many aspects of our research  
274 leading to the plethora of ways in which we discretize, for better and worse. Aside from  
275 our general human reliance on discretization for science, language, and computing,  
276 discretization may simply be unavoidable in specific contexts. Our data may have been  
277 pre-discretized, we may lack sufficient funds, sampling power, or computational power  
278 to fully capture continuous gradients, or implement regression-based experimental

279 designs. Or, we may be temporarily required by law to discretize (e.g. section 314 of the  
280 United States Clean Water Act requires that lakes be classified according to their  
281 "eutrophic" character). In these cases where discretization is the only option, the best  
282 we can do is to avoid discretization's disadvantages.

283  
284 But when limnologists do have a choice, I suggest that we carefully examine the value  
285 of our discretizations and rigorously compare them to the alternatives. The value of any  
286 discretization system should be judged based on the extent to which it satisfies three  
287 criteria: objectivity (independent researchers make the same conclusion about the  
288 number and definitions of discrete boundaries), stability (doesn't change when new  
289 observations contribute to the system), and predictivity (performs well when predicting  
290 independent variables). The objectivity, stability, and predictivity of discretizations  
291 should always be compared to alternatives such as analogous continuous gradients  
292 when they are available. For example, the HydroLakes database, containing information  
293 on 1.4 million lakes worldwide, now includes data on the proportion of the waterbody's  
294 volume which has been impounded (continuous gradient) in addition to the discretized  
295 categories, "lake" and "reservoir" (Messenger et al., 2016). Tests of the relative predictive  
296 power of these two variables could be illuminating. Similarly, discrete pollution targets  
297 should be rigorously compared against pollution taxes or pollution trading that affect all  
298 levels of pollution regardless of whether it is above or below a discrete threshold.  
299 Pollution taxes and trading may lead to more optimal outcomes in resource  
300 management in some contexts (Muller and Mendelsohn, 2009), but the relative  
301 effectiveness of these two management approaches needs to be tested for waterbodies

302 at broad scales. Rigorous testing of discretization schemes according to their objectivity,  
303 stability, and predictivity may even lead us toward scientifically testable discretizations  
304 that avoid potentially unproductive arguments about the appropriate number and  
305 definitions of boundaries between groups.

306  
307 Discretization is inevitable in limnology because it is at the core of science, language,  
308 and computing. Discretization primarily supports limnological progress by providing  
309 shortcuts and tools to meet research and management objectives. But the numerous  
310 advantages and disadvantages call for careful consideration of the ways we discretize.  
311 More than 100 years since Stephen Forbes' publication of "The Lake as a Microcosm,"  
312 we have moved beyond the idea that lake ecosystems are discrete. Limnologists may  
313 be poised to further transform their reliance on discretization in the next 100 years.  
314 Radical innovations in sensing technology could largely supplant the need for discrete  
315 water samples. Unforeseen statistical and data visualization approaches could allow us  
316 to better capture and communicate the full signal in continuous gradients. And quantum  
317 computing could even move us one big step past binary computing's limitations (Arute  
318 et al., 2019). The extent to which we benefit from these future changes will depend on  
319 our mindfulness of discretization and the role it plays in our research. Selectively  
320 rethinking discretization could open up new interactions, new questions, and could even  
321 lead to the next major advance. So for now, let's carefully weigh the advantages against  
322 the disadvantages and compare to the alternatives when they are available. Doing so  
323 will improve our science.

324

325 **4. Conclusions:**

326 Discretization has profoundly benefitted the way we study, understand, manage, and  
327 communicate about aquatic ecosystems. But, limnologists sometimes have a choice  
328 over the extent to which they rely on discretization. In these cases, discretization's  
329 advantages should be carefully weighed against their disadvantages.

330  
331 The core advantage of discretization is that it can provide extraordinarily useful  
332 shortcuts, especially when faced with limited resources. These shortcuts can facilitate  
333 data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, communication, decision-making,  
334 management, and can be used to guide expectations for how ecosystems function. But,  
335 discretization also has several key disadvantages in specific contexts which are  
336 sometimes overlooked. Discretization can inhibit communication, distract from general  
337 theory formation, introduce unnecessary subjectivity, mask the relatedness between  
338 discrete groups, mask the variability within discrete groups, lead to suboptimal  
339 management approaches, and lead to suboptimal research designs.

340  
341 Discretization is partially unassailable because it is the foundation of modern science,  
342 language, and computing. But recent changes to the field of limnology including big data  
343 and high resolution sensors have challenged specific aspects of the way we discretize,  
344 leading to substantial limnological advances. In light of the rapid and ongoing changes  
345 to the field of limnology, we encourage the careful and selective examination of various  
346 aspects of limnological discretization. This examination may help limnology stay  
347 relevant in a rapidly changing world.



348

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357

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