

# Bioclimatological mapping tackling uncertainty propagation: application to mainland Portugal

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**ABSTRACT:** We present a bioclimatological diagnosis of mainland Portugal, namely the thermotype and ombrotype maps following Rivas-Martínez's worldwide bioclimatic classification system. In order to obtain this diagnosis, we produced maps of bioclimatological indices using, as base data, geostatistical interpolations of air temperature and precipitation. We performed uncertainty propagation obtaining uncertainty measures for the produced maps: mean absolute errors and root mean squared errors. For the non-linear indices, besides the usual approximation using Taylor expansion, we devised error formulae, for which we showed that the propagated uncertainties are upper bounds on the true uncertainty measures. We compared the obtained uncertainty measures to those reported on a previously published work, which used a different methodological framework to obtain the same diagnosis. Although the approach we used here implies a great number of interpolations and subsequent calculation steps, it permitted the use of a large amount of data relative to precipitation. An *F*-test showed that the estimated mean squared errors for the maps of ombrothermic indices were significantly lower than those produced by the former methodological framework.

KEY WORDS bioclimatology; bioclimatological mapping; error propagation; mean absolute error; root mean squared error; map algebra; Portugal

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# 1. Introduction

Rivas-Martínez's worldwide bioclimatic classification system (RMWBCS) has been developed and improved by Rivas-Martínez *et al.* in successive attempts since 1982 (Rivas-Martínez, 1996), being the last version having been published by Rivas-Martínez *et al.* (2011). The different versions attempt to show better relationships with vegetation patterns known throughout the world, classifying the Earth in five major macrobioclimates (tropical, Mediterranean, temperate, boreal and polar), with several subdivisions.

The most relevant bioclimatological indices used in the RMWBCS, which are undoubtedly related to species and vegetation distribution (del-Arco *et al.*, 2002; Gavilán, 2005), are very simple algebraic expressions of temperature and precipitation data. RMWBCS has been particularly useful in studies including bioclimatological characterization of plant communities (Costa *et al.*, 2012), bioclimatological description of regions (Cano *et al.*, 2012),

2012), potential vegetation mapping (del-Arco *et al.*, 2006; Capelo *et al.*, 2007; Peinado *et al.*, 2011), vegetation surveys (Loidi *et al.*, 2007) and even in the establishment of knowledge-transfer paths between botanical gardens under climate change scenarios (Monteiro-Henriques and Espírito-Santo, 2011).

Climatological and bioclimatological maps have long been proposed by several authors and were usually based on expert-knowledge accumulated over several years of research and analyses (Thornthwaite, 1948; Font Tullot, 2000; Rivas-Martínez et al., 2011). Nowadays, interpolation techniques side by side with computational power allow the production of high-resolution maps of climatological variables (e.g. Hijmans et al., 2005; Ninyerola et al., 2007a, 2007b), climatological indices (e.g. Peel et al., 2007), as well as of bioclimatological indices (e.g. Mesquita and Sousa, 2009). Therefore, modern approaches obtain (bio)climatological diagnosis of a certain territory applying conditional clauses over maps of (bio)climatological indices, on geographical information systems (GIS); examples can be found in Peel et al. (2007) and Mesquita and Sousa (2009).

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On the basis of RMWBCS, Mesquita and Sousa (2009) published maps of bioclimatological indices and a bioclimatological diagnosis for mainland Portugal using geostatistical techniques. The authors used air temperature and precipitation data from 128 climatological stations (corresponding to 96 Portuguese and 32 Spanish ones), referring to the 1961-1990 period, having rejected data series with less than 18 years of measurements. For each of the 128 data points, 13 bioclimatological indices were calculated. Six of them are indispensable to produce the final diagnosis maps, specifically: annual positive temperature (Tp), compensated thermicity index (Itc), annual ombrothermic index (Io), ombrothermic index of the warmest bimonth of the summer quarter (Ios2), ombrothermic index of the summer quarter (Ios3) and ombrothermic index of the summer quarter plus the previous month (Ios4). The other seven are auxiliary indices necessary to obtain the former. The six indispensable indices were then interpolated (mapped) for mainland Portugal using four different mathematical techniques. Using cross validation (leave one out) the authors produced six evaluation measures for each interpolation (see also Mesquita, 2005). The authors considered as best performing techniques: (i) kriging with external drift of a multiple linear regression for indices Itc, Io, Ios4 and Tp; and (ii) multiple linear regression followed by ordinary kriging of the residuals for Ios2 and Ios3. The six maps (with  $1 \times 1$  km spatial resolution) obtained with the best techniques were used to construct the final diagnosis maps of thermotypes and ombrotypes, for the territory of Portuguese mainland. The first column of Table 1 presents a résumé on Mesquita and Sousa's work.

Our aim was equally to produce a bioclimatological diagnosis for mainland Portugal according to RMWBCS, although using a different methodological framework and keeping track of the uncertainties associated with the produced maps of bioclimatological indices.

# 2. Methodology

In this work, in spite of using the data of each climatological station to firstly calculate the bioclimatological indices and, subsequently, execute the geostatistical interpolation of the obtained indices (as e.g. in Mesquita and Sousa, 2009), we collected, as base data, geostatistical interpolations of precipitation and air temperature for mainland Portugal and, afterwards, calculated RMWBCS indices. The uncertainties associated with the base data were propagated using appropriated techniques. The indices maps were then used to obtain the bioclimatological diagnosis of mainland Portugal according to RMWBCS. The following subchapters present a detailed description of the methodology used.

#### 2.1. Base data

The base data employed in this work come from the spatial interpolations of the precipitation and air temperature of

mainland Portugal, achieved by means of geostatistical methodologies obtained by Nicolau (2002), for precipitation, and Silva (2005) for air temperature (see also Silva *et al.*, 2007).

Nicolau (2002) aimed at discussing the performance of different mathematical techniques used for the spatial interpolation of point-associated information, in the construction of precipitation maps. As a result, for the territory of the Portuguese mainland, she carried out and produced a remarkable set of different analysis and precipitation maps, testing 10 different interpolation methods. The precipitation series used were previously treated by, namely: pre-selection (rejecting precipitation series with less than 19 years of measurements); adjustment; and no-data filling (among other tests and corrections). The result was a total of 439 series (corresponding to Portuguese climatological and udometric stations), used for the production of the final maps, covering the period between 1959/1960 and 1990/1991. A final set of 17 precipitation maps with  $1 \times 1$  km spatial resolution was produced, using kriging interpolation and altitude as external drift. Five evaluating measures were applied to each of the produced maps, obtained with cross validation (leave one out); Table 2 shows two of them used in this work: the mean absolute errors (MAE) and the root mean squared errors (RMSE). The MAE of an estimator T of a parameter  $\theta$  (here  $\theta$  is a precipitation or a temperature value in a location and Tis the geostatistical interpolator) is defined as the expected value of  $|T - \theta|$ , and, similarly for the RMSE, as the square root of the expected value of  $(T - \theta)^2$ . These error evaluation measures can thus be estimated averaging the absolute differences (or its squares) between the geostatistical estimates and the registered values, across all the used data points. The geostatistical estimate for each station's location is obtained after removing that location from the data set.

As to the air temperature data, Silva (2005), after a pre-selection of the temperature series covering the 1961-1990 period (rejecting series presenting less then 20 years of measurements), used 98 sampled points (corresponding to 88 Portuguese and 10 Spanish climatological stations) to produce temperature maps, comparing eight different interpolation methods. To evaluate the methods performance, Silva opted for an external validation keeping 15% of the points apart for a subsequent evaluation and producing four evaluation measures (see Table 3 for MAE and RMSE). After selecting the best interpolation technique (multiple linear regression using altitude and distance from the coastline, with residuals kriging), 13 final maps were constructed employing the whole set of points, similarly with a  $1 \times 1$  km spatial resolution. Subsequently to his work, Á. Silva (2006; pers. comm.) interpolated the mean minimum and maximum monthly air temperatures using the same methodology, as some of them are needed for the calculation of Itc; however MAE and RMSE are not available (consequently we could not calculate uncertainty propagation for Itc). Table 1 shows a comparative résumé of the three works referred in this article.

#### BIOCLIMATOLOGICAL MAPPING TACKLING UNCERTAINTY PROPAGATION

	Mesquita and Sousa (2009)	Nicolau (2002)	Silva (2005)
No. of input data points (Portuguese + Spanish)	96+32	439	88+10
Data pre-treatments			
Pre-selection	Х	Х	Х
Adjustment		Х	
No-data filling		Х	
Interpolation techniques			
Polynomial interpolation		Х	
Thiessen polygons		Х	
Triangulation		Х	
Inverse distance weighting		Х	Х
Splines		Х	Х
Simple linear regression		Х	Х
Multiple linear regression	Х	Х	
Ordinary kriging	Х	Х	Х
Kriging with external drift	X <sup>a</sup>	X <sup>a</sup>	
Simple linear regression with residuals kriging			Х
Multiple linear regression with residuals kriging	X <sup>a</sup>		X <sup>a</sup>
Co-kriging		Х	Х
Neuronal networks			Х
Evaluation methodology			
Cross validation (leave one out)	Х	Х	
External validation (leave 15% out)			Х
Evaluation measures			
Mean error	Х	Х	Х
Maximum error	Х		
Mean absolute error	Х	Х	Х
Root mean squared error	Х	Х	Х
Percentage mean absolute error	Х	Х	
Pearson correlation	Х	Х	Х

Table 1. Comparative résumé of the	work of Mesquita and Sousa (2009),	Nicolau (2002) and Silva (2005).
I	1	

<sup>a</sup>Selected technique by the authors for the production of final maps.

Table 2.	Evaluation	measures	for	the	estimated	precipitation,
obtair	ned with cro	ss validatio	on; d	rawr	n from Nico	olau (2002).

Table 3.	Evaluation	measure	s for the	estimate	ed air	tempe	ratures,
obtaine	d through e	xternal v	alidation	; drawn	from	Silva (	(2005).

Symbols	Precipitation	MAE (mm)	RMSE (mm)
Р	Annual (total)	101.42	150.80
P1	January mean	16.78	25.01
P2	February mean	16.00	23.18
P3	March mean	10.40	16.04
P4	April mean	8.19	12.16
P5	May mean	6.84	10.36
P6	June mean	4.28	6.33
P7	July mean	1.97	2.88
P8	August mean	1.88	2.95
P9	September mean	4.61	7.31
P10	October mean	10.97	15.91
P11	November mean	13.02	18.77
P12	December mean	16.40	23.99

# 2.2. Base data adjustments

Because the base data came from different sources, some previous adjustments were made in order to allow their concurrent use.

As to the air temperature, Silva (2005) treated 30 years of data, whereas, Nicolau precipitation data (2002) covers a period longer by 2 years, since she treated hydrological, and not civil year series. However, this difference is not expected to be relevant, because only mean values are concerned. Both authors used the same projection and

Symbols	Temperature	MAE (°C)	RMSE (°C)
Т	Annual mean	0.381	0.444
T1	January mean	0.520	0.602
T2	February mean	0.601	0.743
T3	March mean	0.414	0.522
T4	April mean	0.378	0.449
T5	May mean	0.299	0.370
T6	June mean	0.347	0.439
T7	July mean	0.520	0.657
T8	August mean	0.485	0.647
T9	September mean	0.519	0.624
T10	October mean	0.393	0.475
T11	November mean	0.536	0.646
T12	December mean	0.541	0.653
Tmin12	December mean minimum	N/Av	N/Av
Tmin1	January mean minimum	N/Av	N/Av
Tmin2	February mean minimum	N/Av	N/Av
Tmax12	December mean maximum	N/Av	N/Av
Tmax1	January mean maximum	N/Av	N/Av
Tmax2	February mean maximum	N/Av	N/Av

N/Av, not available.

georeferencing system, obsolete now: datum Lisbon; Hayford ellipsoid (or International 1924) and Mercator Transverse projection, with mainland Portugal parameters and coordinates origin in the Fictitious Point west of the S. Vicente Cape (Instituto Geográfico Português, 2009). Therefore, no projection adjustments were needed for the indices calculation. However, the bioclimatological data here produced have been transformed to the updated coordinate system PT-TM06-ETRS89, using the Bursa-Wolf transformation parameters provided by the IGP (Instituto Geográfico Português, 2009).

Even if the maps produced by Silva and Nicolau have the same  $1 \times 1$  km spatial resolution and coordinate system, a 570 m displacement exists between the two grids of interpolated points (or pixels). Given that the original surfaces resulting from the interpolations were not accessible, a possible solution would be interpolating the values from one of the grids to the locations of the other grid points, using GIS simple interpolation techniques (e.g. bilinear or cubic convolution). However, given the displacement and spatial resolution of the data, this procedure would result in a set of smoothed values, particularly in mountainous areas. Thus, the interpolation of new values between the original ones, while keeping the latter, was the chosen option. The *Resample* tool of ArcMap<sup>™</sup> 9.2 SP5 (the used GIS software) was employed, selecting the cubic convolution technique and choosing a spatial resolution which allowed the maintaining of the original values [in this case: 111.(1) m]. As a result, points were added to the original grids, thus achieving final grids with a spatial resolution of  $111.(1) \times 111.(1)$  m. Consequently, the initial displacement was reduced to approximately 60 m, that can be considered negligible in view of the magnitude of other errors associated with the base data.

Silva and Nicolau did not use the same Portuguese borderline to cut out the final maps (estuaries and lagoons were treated differently by the authors: Silva (2005) excluded the air temperature data relative to these areas). Similarly, a number of locations next to the frontier lost cartographical representation (because the corresponding pixel centre fell out of the chosen mask). Given the unavailability of the original interpolated surfaces, as previously referred, these data absences were filled up with the nearest neighbour values, employing the *Nibble* tool from the same GIS software. For both reasons, the use and interpretation of values associated to the borderline, as well as to estuaries and lagoons, must be considered with caution.

#### 2.3. Maps of bioclimatological indices

In order to obtain the maps of bioclimatological indices, the *Map Algebra* tool (from the used GIS software), which allows point-to-point operations between superposed grids, was used to perform algebraic calculations with the collected base data, following the formulas proposed by RMWBCS (Rivas-Martínez *et al.*, 2011).

Table 4 contains the list of the 13 maps of bioclimatological indices produced for mainland Portugal (needed to construct RMWBCS diagnosis maps). The abbreviations were kept as close as possible to those of Rivas-Martínez *et al.* (2011). For the *Map Algebra* instructions please refer to Monteiro-Henriques (2010).

Table 4. Bioclimatological indices computed for mainland Portugal.

Symbols	
Tmax	Mean temperature of the warmest month of the
	year
Tmin	Mean temperature of the coldest month of the
	year
Тр	Annual positive temperature (sum of the positive
	monthly mean temperatures, in Celsius degree $\times 10$
Pn	A10) Positive precipitation (sum of the monthly
rp	precipitation relative to months with positive
	precipitation, relative to months with positive
M	Mean requirement of the coldect
M_maiuse	Mean maximum temperature of the coldest
N .	month (M parameter, in the RMWBCS)
M_minusc	Mean minimum temperature of the coldest
_	month (m parameter, in the RMWBCS)
Ic	Simple continentality index, or annual thermal
	amplitude
It	Thermicity index
Itc	Compensated thermicity index
Io	Annual ombrothermic index
Ios2	Ombrothermic index of the warmest bimonth of
	the summer quarter
Ios3	Ombrothermic index of the summer quarter
Ios4	Ombrothermic index of the summer quarter plus
	the previous month

# 2.4. Uncertainty propagation and significance tests

Error and uncertainty propagation, especially when related to GIS operations and data processing, is a well-known and relatively studied problem (Heuvelink, 1998; Heuvelink and Burrough, 2002; Zhang and Goodchild, 2002). Nonetheless, its execution is complex, and implementations capable of automatic and seamless propagation in current GIS are not yet known. Still, it is important to quantify uncertainty and assess how gravely can the output of models be affected by the use of input information that contains it (Bachmann and Allgöwer, 2002; Canters *et al.*, 2002; Oksanen and Sarjakoski, 2005; Van Niel and Austin, 2007). Thus, uncertainty propagation for the maps of bioclimatological indices here produced results pertinent for possible future analysis using this data.

In this subchapter we present the formulae used in the propagation of the uncertainty measures (MAE and RMSE) associated to the base data. The propagation of uncertainties is a consequence of the algebraic calculations carried out for the construction of the maps of bioclimatological indices, and is usually analytically deduced, or simulated using the Monte Carlo method (Heuvelink, 1998). Coupled with geostatistical approaches, the Monte Carlo method allows the spatial analysis of uncertainties (see e.g. Temme *et al.*, 2009; Hengl *et al.*, 2010). In this work we focused on global measures of uncertainty (MAE and RMSE), which would allow the statistical comparison of our results to previous works. Our approach is particularly useful in the following common situation: the researcher has access to the variables maps and global error measures,

Ombrotypes	Ombrotypes horizons	Io
Ultrahyperarid	Lower	0.0-0.1
	Upper	0.1 - 0.2
Hyperarid	Lower	0.2-0.3
•	Upper	0.3-0.4
Arid	Lower	0.4 - 0.6
	Upper	0.6 - 1.0
Semiarid	Lower	1.0 - 1.4
	Upper	1.4 - 2.0
Dry	Lower	2.0 - 2.7
•	Upper	2.7 - 3.6
Subhumid	Lower	3.6-4.6
	Upper	4.6-6.0
Humid	Lower	6.0 - 8.5
	Upper	8.5-12.0
Hyperhumid	Lower	12.0-17.0
•	Upper	17.0 - 24.0
Ultrahyperhumid	Lower	24.0-33.9
	Upper	>33.9

Table 5. Ombrotype and respective lower and upper horizons and thresholds.

but not to the original data (e.g. meteorological stations data), nor to maps depicting error variation in space.

For maps with the spatial representation of uncertainties associated with the variables maps used as base data in our work, please refer to the original works of Silva (2005) and Nicolau (2002).

As said before, the bioclimatological indices of RMW-BCS are of very simple calculation, and can be written linearly as x + k,  $k \cdot x$ ,  $x \pm y$  or non-linearly as x/y, or combinations of these four expressions, where x and y are climatological variables (Tables 2 and 3) or bioclimatological indices (Table 4) and k is a constant. We propagated the uncertainties in x and y, aiming to state the MAE and RMSE of the bioclimatological indices in terms of the known MAE and RMSE of x and y.

Assuming that the geostatistical interpolator is unbiased and that the errors of the estimated temperature and precipitation are independent in each location, as well as between different locations, it is straightforward to show that:

$$MAE_{x+k} = MAE_x$$
;  $RMSE_{x+k} = RMSE_x$ 

$$MAE_{kx} = |k| MAE_x$$
;  $RMSE_{kx} = |k| RMSE_x$ 

$$MAE_{x\pm y} \le MAE_x + MAE_y;$$
  
$$RMSE_{x\pm y} = \sqrt{RMSE_x^2 + RMSE_y^2}$$

Taylor expansion is frequently used to approximate errors coming from a non-linear expression (Heuvelink, 1998; Zhang, 2006). Consider  $\hat{x}$  an estimate of *x*, and  $\varepsilon_x = x - \hat{x}$  the error associated to that estimate. Using the first order expansion of *x*/*y* around  $\hat{x}/\hat{y}$  we have:

$$\frac{x}{y} \approx \frac{\widehat{x}}{\widehat{y}} + \frac{1}{\widehat{y}} \left( x - \widehat{x} \right) - \frac{\widehat{x}}{\widehat{y}^2} \left( y - \widehat{y} \right)$$

$$\epsilon_{x/y} \approx \frac{1}{\hat{y}}\epsilon_x - \frac{\hat{x}}{\hat{y}^2}\epsilon_y$$

thus, the uncertainty measures may be estimated as MAE-T and RMSE-T:

$$MAE - T_{\frac{x}{y}} \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{1}{\hat{y}_{i}} MAE_{x} + \frac{|\hat{x}_{i}|}{\hat{y}_{i}^{2}} MAE_{y} \right)$$
$$RMSE - T_{\frac{x}{y}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{1}{\hat{y}_{i}^{2}} RMSE_{x}^{2} + \frac{\hat{x}_{i}^{2}}{\hat{y}_{i}^{4}} RMSE_{y}^{2} \right)}$$

where *n* is the number of sites for which *x* and *y* have been estimated.

As these expressions are only approximate, we also deemed the error propagation under the following pessimistic perspective:

$$\left|\varepsilon_{x/y}\right| = \left|\frac{\widehat{x} + \varepsilon_x}{\widehat{y} + \varepsilon_y} - \frac{\widehat{x}}{\widehat{y}}\right| \le \left|\frac{\widehat{x} + |\varepsilon_x|}{\widehat{y} - |\varepsilon_y|} - \frac{\widehat{x}}{\widehat{y}}\right|$$

This perspective is similar to combining the error signs in x and y in the most unfavourable way to produce the maximum propagated uncertainty for the values coming from  $\hat{x}/\hat{y}$ .

We considered replacing  $|\epsilon_x|$  and  $|\epsilon_y|$  by MAE<sub>x</sub> and MAE<sub>y</sub>, respectively:

$$MAE_{\frac{x}{y}}^{*} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| \frac{\widehat{x}_{i} + MAE_{x}}{\widehat{y}_{i} - MAE_{y}} - \frac{\widehat{x}_{i}}{\widehat{y}_{i}} \right|$$

Similarly, we considered replacing  $|\epsilon_x|$  and  $|\epsilon_y|$  with RMSE<sub>x</sub> and RMSE<sub>y</sub>, thus obtaining (recall that  $|\epsilon|^2 = \epsilon^2$ ):

$$\text{RMSE}_{\frac{x}{y}}^{*} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{\hat{x}_{i} + \text{RMSE}_{x}}{\hat{y}_{i} - \text{RMSE}_{y}} - \frac{\hat{x}_{i}}{\hat{y}_{i}}\right)^{2}}$$

For the case of Io, we found through a Monte Carlo study that  $MAE_{\frac{x}{y}} \leq MAE_{\frac{x}{y}}^{*}$  and  $RMSE_{\frac{x}{y}} \leq RMSE_{\frac{x}{y}}^{*}$ . We generated 1000 samples with size *n* from the normal distribution for the errors in temperature and in precipitation, and compared the 'true' (MAE and RMSE) and approximate (MAE\* and RMSE\*) uncertainty measures for Io. These unfavourable uncertainty measures (worst-case analysis) will be denoted by MAE-W and RMSE-W.

Some indices imply the use of conditional clauses, e.g. Ios2 is calculated from the mean temperatures and precipitations of the warmest bimonth of the summer quarter. We neglected errors coming from the use of conditional clauses (e.g. the error in deciding which is the warmest bimonth of the summer quarter).

Assuming that  $\varepsilon_{x/y}$  are normally distributed with mean zero (as in the simulation study), we also checked for statistically significant differences between our results and those obtained by Mesquita and Sousa (2009) using an *F*-test, where the alternative hypothesis was that RMSE<sup>2</sup> were different. The *p*-values of the test were computed using the function *pf*() of the R statistical software, version 3.0.1 (R Core Team, 2013).

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Figure 1. Methodological frameworks used in Mesquita and Sousa (2009) and in this work.

#### 2.5. Bioclimatological diagnosis

Finally, we constructed the bioclimatological diagnosis for mainland Portugal, presenting two of the most important bioclimatological maps producible from RMWBCS: the thermotype and ombrotype maps.

A thermotype map is obtained with conditional clauses over three maps: macrobioclimates, Itc and Tp; thus an intermediate layer of macrobioclimates was constructed according to the RMWBCS, using conditional clauses of the ombrothermic indices (Io, Ios2, Ios3 and Ios4). In Portugal, only Mediterranean and temperate macrobioclimates are present. The ombrotype map is also obtained with conditional clauses over Io (corresponding to a simple classification of Io in predefined intervals). Yet, we did minor adjustments to the subdivision of ombrotypes (the limits between each ombrotype upper and lower horizons), given that the ombrotypes limits suggested by RMWBCS have exponential adjustment ( $R^2 = 0.9961$ ). The new subdivisions (see Table 5) were computed after the logarithmic transformation of the Io scale, thus avoiding the systematic spatial under-representation of the upper horizons. The major divisions (between each ombrotype) were kept as in the RMWBCS.

The conditional clauses used were implemented using the referred *Map Algebra* tool of the mentioned GIS software, following the thresholds proposed by Rivas-Martínez *et al.* (2011).

Figure 1 shows the methodological frameworks followed by Mesquita and Sousa (2009) and in this work.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Maps of bioclimatological indices

Figures 2 and 3 show the maps produced for each bioclimatological index (It index is omitted as practically undistinguishable from Itc at the presented scale). Each raster map has  $111.(1) \times 111.(1)$  m resolution and is projected according to the parameters of PT-TM06-ETRS89 coordinate



Figure 2. Bioclimatological indices maps produced for mainland Portugal (Tmax, Tmin, Tp, Pp, M\_maiusc and M\_minusc).

system (Instituto Geográfico Português, 2009), nevertheless users of this information should recall that the used base data has  $1 \times 1$  km resolution. This information can be downloaded both in coloured JPG and ESRI GRID formats from http://home.isa.utl.pt/~tmh/.

# 3.2. Uncertainty propagation and significance tests

As to the uncertainty propagation, Table 6 resumes all the calculated uncertainty measures and compares them with the results of Mesquita and Sousa (2009). MAE come from Mesquita (2005).

For the simulation study, 1000 samples of size n = 7251544 were generated as normal variates with zero mean and standard deviation equal to 53.262 for Tp and 150.794 for Pp (the RMSE for Tp and Pp, respectively, in Table 6). The maximum (across the 1000 values) 'true'

MAE for Io was 0.7256 while the minimum MAE-W was 0.8784. Concerning the RMSE, the maximum 'true' RMSE for Io was 0.9265, while the minimum RMSE-W was greater than 1.14.

As the produced RMSE-W proved (in the simulation test) to be higher than the real (unknown) RMSE, we ran the significance F-tests using the squared RMSE-W. Table 7 shows the results of those tests, comparing the squared RMSE propagated for the worst case with those obtained by Mesquita and Sousa (2009).

# 3.3. Bioclimatological diagnosis

Finally, Figure 4 presents the obtained thermotype and ombrotype maps for mainland Portugal according to the last version of RMWBCS (Rivas-Martínez *et al.*, 2011).

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Figure 3. Bioclimatological indices maps produced for mainland Portugal (Ic, Itc, Io, Ios2, Ios3 and Ios4).

These maps can also be downloaded from http://home.isa. utl.pt/~tmh/.

# 4. Discussion

The produced maps of bioclimatological indices presented quite satisfactory MAE and RMSE. Comparing with the previous work of Mesquita and Sousa (2009), all the propagated uncertainties presented lower values, either using Taylor's formula or the worst-case analysis. The methodological framework we used implies a large number of geostatistical interpolations: 32 (corresponding to precipitation and temperature variables). Note that Mesquita and Sousa's (2009) needed only six to achieve the same

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diagnosis maps. From these 32 interpolations we ought to additionally compute 13 indices maps (seven auxiliary and six indispensable to produce the final diagnosis). The fact that our approach uses a high number of geostatistical interpolations and subsequent algebraic calculations could have lead to inflated final estimated errors, as error accumulates and amplifies in each consecutive calculation. However, our approach permits the use of much more precipitation data as an input: Nicolau (2002) used not only data from climatological stations, but also data coming from the much more numerous udometric stations (where only data relative to precipitation is collected). The methodological framework followed by Mesquita and Sousa (2009) does not allow the use of data from udometric stations, as temperature data is lacking from

	This work					1 Sousa (2009)
Indices	М	AE	RM	RMSE		RMSE
Tmax Tmin Tp Pp Ic Itc	0 (4 10] N	0.502 0.520 45.720 101.419 1.023 N/Av		0.652 0.602 53.262 150.794 0.887 N/Ay		N/Ap N/Ap 74.378 N/Ap N/Ap 15.601
	MAE-T	MAE-W	RMSE-T	RMSE-W		
Io Ios2 Ios3 Ios4	0.075 0.102 0.153 0.229	0.773 0.104 0.157 0.235	0.089 0.095 0.122 0.170	1.139 0.110 0.141 0.195	1.005 0.115 0.176 0.268	$     \begin{array}{r}       1.751 \\       0.160 \\       0.255 \\       0.445     \end{array} $

Table 6. MAE and RMSE estimated in this work and those estimated by Mesquita and Sousa (2009).

MAE-T, mean absolute errors propagated using Taylor's formula; MAE-W, mean absolute errors propagated for the worst case; RMSE-T, root mean squared errors propagated using Taylor's formula; RMSE-W, root mean squared errors propagated for the worst case. N/Av, not available, as the error of maximum and minimum temperatures where also not available. N/Ap: not applicable, as the index interpolation is not needed in the respective approach.

Table 7. *F*-tests checking for significant differences between RMSE<sup>2</sup> associated with bioclimatological indices.

Indices	F statistic	df1	df2	<i>p</i> -value
Тр	1.8251	127	13	0.2198
Io	2.3751	127	453	5.303e-11
Ios2	2.1538	127	453	7.328e-09
Ios3	3.2583	127	453	<2.2e-16
Ios4	5.2347	127	453	<2.2e-16

df1, degrees of freedom of  $\rm RMSE^2$  from Mesquita and Sousa (2009); df2, degrees of freedom of  $\rm RMSE^2$  propagated for the worst case, from our work.

those sites and indices cannot be computed beforehand. Therefore, concerning precipitation data, the density of 1.2 input data points per  $1000 \text{ km}^2$  referred in Mesquita and Sousa (2009), is increased to 4.9 per  $1000 \text{ km}^2$  in our approach, which certainly contributes to lower estimation errors.

Comparing to Mesquita and Sousa (2009), RMSE for Tp reduced 28% in our approach, although this difference did not result significant in the *F*-test. The magnitude of the differences in RMSE for the ombrothermic indices (Io, Ios2, Ios3 and Ios4) was higher (from 35% to 56%) and all resulted significantly different in the *F*-test.

Taking into account that Nicolau (2002); Silva (2005) and Mesquita and Sousa (2009) used similar interpolation techniques, analyzing mostly the same period of time over the same region, and used similar criteria to pre-select data series, we conjecture that the magnitude of the differences between RMSE for the ombrothermic indices is probably mostly related to the fact that Nicolau (2002) used a much greater number of input data points (accounting also for quality issues such as no-data filling and series adjustment), permitting to improve significantly the quality of the precipitation estimations. In fact, Mesquita and Sousa (2009) referred that the obtained predictions for Io were too low in areas lacking climatological stations. Some residual areas of the centre east of Portugal presented very low and even negative values of Io, which produced

some unexpected areas of ultrahyperarid, hyperarid and arid ombrotypes (their absence from Portugal is widely accepted by experts). Such ombrotypes did not arise from our approach.

The produced bioclimatological maps and diagnosis were very satisfactory. A first assessment of their usefulness and relationship with vegetation patterns at a local scale can be found in Monteiro-Henriques (2010); they were also revealed to be useful in other vegetation studies, at a regional scale, as can be attested in Pinto-Cruz *et al.* (2011).

Nevertheless, the belts found in the thermotype and ombrotype maps must be interpreted as climatologically similar zones, potentially containing characteristic flora and vegetation and not be assumed beforehand as the exact limits of flora and vegetation actually occurring in such areas. In the RMWBCS these thresholds are defined within a global perspective, consequently, they inevitably need to be adjusted to the local limits/ecotones (Gavilán, 2005). As RMWBCS proposes a finer subdivision of ombrotype and thermotype intervals (in upper and lower horizons), the adjustments up to the closest threshold can never be too large, and are frequently regarded as just negligible by the researcher, in view of the uncertainty normally associated to such limits. For this reason, the RMWBCS can be applied even at the local scale satisfying the researcher in his vegetation studies, allowing the potential comparison with other distant regions.

As our main conclusion, we showed that, at least in the Portuguese case, it is preferable to perform more geostatistical interpolations and calculation steps in the implementation of RMWBCS (as it allows the use of udometric stations data), than performing less geostatistical interpolations (as it implies the discharge of data from udometric stations and use only data from climatological stations).

Finally it is worth mentioning that the uncertainty propagation procedure is rather time-consuming (the process was much longer than the construction of the correspondent indices maps).



Figure 4. Maps of thermotypes and ombrotypes for mainland Portugal.

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