

**The regional climate model REMO (v2015) coupled with the 1-D freshwater model FLake (v1):  
Fenno-Scandinavian climate and lakes Author's Response**

Dear Executive Editor Gross,

thank you for your comment. FLake model is freely available from FLake's web-page and it is under the MIT license. The model source code as well as the input data can be freely downloaded from the web, although the developers ask all user to contact them so they know who is using the model. We have stated in the manuscript which version of the model code and input data we are using and these can be downloaded from the FLake web-page (keeping in mind that the license should be read and users are asked to contact the developers).

REMO-FLake has some minor code changed also to FLake part (interface coupling). REMO(-FLake) itself is available from the Climate Service Centre Germany, but all users have to sign a license agreement.

We will modify the Code availability sections to be more clear on these aspects.

Best Regards,  
Joni-Pekka Pietikäinen

**The regional climate model REMO (v2015) coupled with the 1-D freshwater model FLake (v1):  
Fenno-Scandinavian climate and lakes**

**Author's Response**

**General comments:**

This paper describes how the regional climate model REMO was coupled with the 1D lake model FLake, and what were the impacts on regional climate over the Fenno-Scandinavian region. For that purpose, a specific tile was added to the existing ones to represent lakes, and several experiments were conducted first to assess the impact of using FLake coupled to REMO and then to study the sensitivity of the coupled REMO-FL model to the snow albedo parameterization. These simulations were evaluated against in situ measurements for lakes and regional datasets for the coupled system. The main conclusions are that the coupled system improves the realism of simulations but enhances an already existing cold bias. There's a high interest in understanding lakes behaviors for their coupling to the atmosphere, especially in a context of climate change and the effort made to couple REMO to FLake is very valuable. Moreover, regional climate models tend to increase their horizontal resolution where surface is better defined. In regions with a high lake density, more and more small lakes will be resolved and potentially will have an impact on the local and regional climate. The paper is well written and structured, and a substantial effort was performed in the evaluation of the coupled model. I found it very interesting and easy to follow. Although the subject is of interest, I have noticed several aspects that needed to be more documented. Therefore, before accepting the manuscript for publication, minor modifications are required. These are listed below.

We thank the reviewer for valuable comments for improving the manuscript. Throughout the text reviewers comments are marked with boldface and after each comment follows our reply. We also provide the page and line number(s) of the revised manuscript where the modification(s) can be found.

**Specific comments**

**Coupling: This is not clear how the coupling between the surface and the atmosphere is performed. I understand that there are tiles over which calculations are performed at each time step of the model. Then what are the quantities that are aggregated in the gridbox? Are surface fluxes or surface variables aggregated and then transferred as boundary conditions to the radiation and turbulence schemes?**

We will improve this part of the manuscript. The lake related variables (temperature, albedo, roughness length, latent and sensible heat flux, specific humidity etc.) are calculate tile-wise while the model physics mostly uses mean values over the grid cells (weighted by tile area fractions). Tile-wise variables are included in the diagnostic output of the model. Revised manuscript: P3L22 and forward.

**How many layers are used to represent the PBL? It may be important to well capture the PBL representation especially in such a work where surface is a key component and can affect processes like lake breeze, evaporation, low clouds formation, etc.**

It varies slightly during the simulations, depending on the PBL depth, but on average for this domain there are 6 layers describing the PBL. Overall, the vertical resolution is higher in the lower troposphere than higher up. Using more vertical levels should improve the results, but for our simulations we are confident that this would not change the results substantially. The choice in number of the vertical levels (and spatial resolution) has to be always balanced with the computational resources. We have added the information about the number of levels within PBL in the manuscript. Revised manuscript: P7L21-23

**Is there an implicit coupling between the atmosphere and each surface tile?**

The calculations are as following: during a time step all tile-related variables are calculated separately and later on grid box variables (2-meter temperature, humidity etc.) are calculated as a mean value weighted by the tile area fractions. Naturally, many physical routines (radiation, cloud scheme etc.) use these grid box variables and thus, during the next time step all tiles will get updated information (like radiation fluxes) that was based on tile averaged values. We will improve the description of this part. Revised manuscript: P5L11-14

**FLake:**

**The choice of using the REMO module to computed surface fluxes was not explained. This is not said if the SfcFlx module was tested in REMO and what were the results as compared to the REMO module. Was it**

**at least tried and surface fluxes compared to some in situ measurements?**

We will improve this part. Shortly, we did not implement nor test the SfcFlx module, because we wanted the lake tile surface fluxes to be in equilibrium/consistent with the other tiles. A similar approach has been used in previous FLake-RCM/GCM coupling works. Revised manuscript: P5L15-16

**The authors decided to activate the bottom sediment for lakes having a real depth smaller than 50m. There are however no measurements available (or only a few) within the bottom sediment layer to validate this module and I'm not convinced that a 35-yr spin-up is enough to correctly initialize sediment characteristics. A drawback of the activation of this module could be an enhancement of a temperature bias at the lake bottom that could affect the whole temperature profile. What was the strategy to decide to use or not the sediment bottom module? What is the impact on the simulated temperature profiles?**

The original paragraph has some missing information and is not clearly written. We will improve this part and add the missing information. In short, the FLake webpage says "Apart from shallow lakes, the bottom heat flux can be set to zero... Experience suggests that for lakes deeper than about 5 m the heat flux through the bottom can safely be neglected." This was also the case with our implementation. Also, when FLake is used for deeper lakes, a 50 m "false bottom" is used for temperature profile and the bottom sediment is switched off. Naturally, already the first 5 m cut-off limit switched off the bottom sediment module, but we left the possibility to use it also for deeper depths than 5 m (as is the case with default FLake as well).

So the impact was negligible, because in Fig. 1 there were only few grid boxes with depths less than 5 m. Revised manuscript: P5L20-27

**Nothing is said on the light extinction coefficient which is another important FLake parameter. Which value was chosen for REMO-FL? Does it vary in space, in time? Depending on its setup it may have a non-negligible impact on surface temperature and consequently on surface fluxes during the ice-free periods, but also on lake temperature profiles.**

We are using the default configuration. There has been some papers about this and indeed they suggest using different values, depending on the locations. Overall, it seems that a global map for the light extinction coefficient(s) is needed and perhaps even a time-dependent approach could be utilized (Zolfaghari et al. (2017)). In this work, we have not tried to solve issues with this part of the FLake model. In terms of the manuscript, we will add information about using the default values for the light extinction coefficient. Revised manuscript: P6L9-10

Citation: Zolfaghari, K., Duguay, C. R., and Kheyrollah Pour, H.: Satellite-derived light extinction coefficient and its impact on thermal structure simulations in a 1-D lake model, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 21, 377-391, <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-21-377-2017>, 2017.

**REMO:**

**In the Semmler approach for snow conductivity, the C coefficient is an empirical constant. It was setup for Bear Lake in Alaska. Is the formulation adapted for snow over lakes in the Fenno-Scandinavian region?**

We did not make any changes to Semmler's approach. It is an improvement to the default setup already as it is (others have done the same, also on the NWP side). It is very probable that this approach could be improved with more local information.

**The snow albedo is limited to 0.25 in case the gridbox is forest-covered. However, in Kolarski et al. 2007 (reference of Gao et al. 2014 in the manuscript that refers to it), the figure 3.6 shows that the lower limit is 0.3 and not 0.25. What has motivated the choice of using 0.25 instead of 0.3? Are there simulations showing that this particular value performs better in terms of snow thickness, temperature?**

The motivation was the literature based values (Roesch et al., 2001) which showed that the limits could be decreased. In this work we followed the Gao et al. 2014 approach as was shown to work better for the domain used in this work (e.g. temperature was closer with measurements). We did also make a test simulations with the default REMO values and got similar results as Gao et al. 2014.

**Evaluation:**

**E-OBS was chosen as the truth for the evaluation of the coupled system. It's clearly mentioned that E-OBS relies on the observation density network, which is true. However, how is the comparison between observations and simulations for 2m-temperature performed: is the difference of orography accounted for in E-OBS and in the model? This can have a very strong impact in mountainous regions. On the other hand, climatology of CRU is usually used (this is not the only one) to evaluate screen variables in climate models. Even if the resolution is coarser than what E-OBS can provide as interpolator, it would have been worthwhile comparing the simulations to another dataset. Particularly, it would be interesting to know if E-OBS is able to well capture convective events since there is a large difference with the simulations.**

Orography influence should be always taken into account and we have also done it. This information was missing from

the text and we have added it. CRU data would have been another source (we have used it before), but in this work we concentrated on E-OBS. We also checked for Finland if using FMI's 10×10 km<sup>2</sup> resolution dataset would bring some more insight to the analysis, but the differences to E-OBS were small (even during summer when there are a lot of convective events over Finland). This, and the knowledge that the E-OBS observation network density is quite high over the Nordic countries, convinced us that using only E-OBS is more than sufficient for our study. Revised manuscript: P9L8-9

**As a complement, it would help the readers to know the impact of using REMO-FL on other near-surface fields like 2m-relative humidity or 10m-wind speed by comparing with REMOST. Because for example differences in humidity will have a direct influence on evaporation. Could you add a figure showing how lakes modulate these fields and add a discussion on this point?**

A good suggestion. We have added the requested figure and discussion to the analysis. Revised manuscript: Fig. 4, Sec. 3.1

#### Discussion:

**The authors mention page 8 that LWTs are usually close to T2M. This is not really true because it assumes near-neutral conditions which are unlikely to occur especially in winter when the lake is ice or snow-covered. In that case there is a decoupling between the surface and the air just above leading to very cold temperatures at surface. This decoupling may be responsible for the model cold bias. Can you add a comment on that?**

The original formulation was misleading. The aim was to say that during open-lake season (no ice) the LWT's can act as a proxy for the 2-m temperature and we will analyze these later. Here, the compared temperatures are the real 2-m temperatures from the model and there is no artificial bias coming from the method. We will improve the text to avoid any further misunderstandings. Revised manuscript: P9L19-20

**In page 9, figure 2 shows only relative differences for precipitation between model and observations. The absolute value is lacking (a difference of 50% for a 100mm rainfall will not have the same impact than on a 10mm one). Same for temperature, the reference is lacking. Please add the figure S1 (E-OBS reference data) from your supplementary material in the manuscript. On top of this remark, are the differences significant (for instance, was a Student test performed)? If not it would be worth examining if all differences experienced in the domain are significant or not.**

We have added S1 to the main text and improved the figure a bit. Statistical tests were not done before, but we have now added this analysis and all the figures showing differences against E-OBS (also in the supplementary material) show now the statistical significance with p-values < 0.05 with black dots. Overall, it can be said that the differences are statistically significant. Revised manuscript: Figs. 2 and 3 + Sec. 3.1

#### Technical comments

**Regions 126, 130 and 132 are not explicit, please explain what they correspond to?**

This information was too detailed and we have changed the ending of the paragraph to: "For points where Choulga et al. (2014) has no data, a default value is used and it can be set beforehand within the surface pre-processor. In this work, a default value of 7 m was used, which is a typical mean depth for our domain based on the data by Choulga et al. (2014)."

**Page 6, there seems to have a redundant paragraph. The radiation 2014 should be removed.**

This is true → paragraph was removed.

**Page 6, line 17, repetition of grain growth effect**

Corrected to "the first represents the effect on snow grain growth due to vapor diffusion"

**Page 10, typo: tot he → to the**

Corrected as suggested.

**Page 12, line17: means is used three times in the same sentence. You could replace for instance, the second one by indicates.**

Corrected as suggested.

**Page 12, line15: data have → data to have**

Corrected as suggested.

**Page 14, line14: only → on**

Corrected as suggested.

**Figure 3 refers to CLARA-A1 whereas manuscript refers to CLARA-A2**

The figure title had old information (at an earlier stage of manuscript preparation, we used CLARA-A1 data). Changed to CLARA-A2.

**The regional climate model REMO (v2015) coupled with the 1-D freshwater model FLake (v1):  
Fenno-Scandinavian climate and lakes**

**Author's Response**

**General comments:**

The manuscript presents a study of the impact of a lake model, FLake, in the regional weather model REMO over several decades. Results are presented of mean seasonal biases over the study area, together with mean annual and seasonal evolution at a number of selected lake sites.

The main finding of the study is that FLake produces good lake surface properties, perhaps despite the characteristics of the model within which it is embedded. However, its inclusion exacerbates the worst existing model biases, and the modelled internal lake temperature structure may not be a good representation of the measured lake temperature profiles.

In terms of its significance, it adds to a number of studies (not all cited here) validating the use of FLake in global or regional weather or climate models. Previous examples may be seen in the special issue of Boreal Environment Research (vol.15(2), 2010), and the Tellus thematic cluster Parameterization of lakes in numerical weather prediction and climate models.

We thank the reviewer for valuable comments for improving the manuscript. Throughout the text reviewers comments are marked with boldface and after each comment follows our reply. We also provide the page and line number(s) of the revised manuscript where the modification(s) can be found.

**Specific comments**

**Section 2.1**

Given the apparent model biases, and later error attribution, the description of the boundary-layer and surface-exchange representation of REMO is inadequate. Of the references given (p3, line 22), Kotlarski (2007) is a PhD thesis and Rechid (2009) is no longer available at the URL cited. In any case some description of the main points should be given here rather than relying solely on references.

We have removed the citation to the old link and improved the description part. Revised manuscript: Sec 2.1

The description of tile structure is also confusing. It is stated that there are 3 tiles: land, ice and water (p3, line 23), but then that the standard land-surface scheme does not have a tile for lakes (p3, line 25). So does water mean sea water, as on p4, line 15?

The original water tile included all water, including sea, lakes and rivers. We changed this part to "REMO's surface pre-processor, which creates the surface related parameters including the fractions of different tiles (land, water and ice), was modified in this work to include also the lake fraction as an output variable. Thus, while the standard version of REMO lumps sea, lakes and rivers together in the water tile, here a separate tile is created for lakes and rivers." Revised manuscript: P4L23-27

**Section 2.3**

**P4, line 19: The GLCC lake fractions were used instead of those from Choulga et al (2014), although the latter are consistent with the depths taken from the same dataset. How do the two lake-fraction datasets compare?**

There are some small differences, but they don't make a big impact overall (the GLCC also sets Black Sea and Caspian Sea as lakes, so for larger European domains we use slightly modified GLCC data, where these areas are classified as seas). We could not use the Choulga et al. (2014) lake fractions, because this would have led to situations where the sum of tile fractions would have not been exactly one. Thus, the only way was to use the original GLCC fractions and use Choulga et al. (2014) for depths when available.

**P4, lines 2526: The fractional ice-cover in the original model is replaced with binary ice cover when FLake is implemented. It is possible that this change on its own may affect the model results. Its impact should have been estimated.**

It is true that this will have some impact on the results, but we think impact is most likely small. First of all, the resolution of the driving data (here ERA-Interim, the resolution approximately 80 km) is coarser than the resolution used

in the simulations. This means that when taking the sea-ice fraction from ERA-Interim, the values are basically either 0 or between 0.9 and 1. Thus, in practice, the ice fraction values are close to binary already in the standard version of the model.

Second, in reality, freezing is fairly fast during autumn and the biggest effect comes during spring, when the shores can be ice free and the rest of a lake is frozen (eventually ice breaks up and there is a mixture of open water and melting ice sheets). The albedo of water is smaller than the albedo of ice and therefore, the assumption of binary ice cover (i.e., ice fraction of 1 when there is any ice left) might delay the warming of lakes in spring in our simulations. However, the water temperature rise is still restricted by the ice in the lake (energy is used to melt the ice) so we don't consider this as a major issue. Also, in reality, there are some moisture fluxes from the open lake areas, but since the LWT is still quite low, these are also small. In terms of the manuscript, we have added more text and discussion about this issue. Revised manuscript: P5L7-14

**P5, lines 815: There is some discussion of heat conductivity for lake ice and snow on lakes, but no discussion of how snow on land is modelled. Snow heat conductivity is taken as a single number (0.14 W/(mK), p5, line 14) despite the fact that snow density is apparently not fixed (p5, line 9). Studies such as Calonne et al. (GRL 2011) show that conductivity varies greatly with snow density, and the weighted sum of equation (1) presumably acts partly as a substitute model for this variation. It may be speculated that over-simplistic representation of snow conductivity generally may contribute to the winter cold bias even in the control run.** Eq. 1 is for snowy surfaces on ice. As described in the text, it is a mixture of snow and ice heat conductivity. The snow heat conductivity on land in the model depends on the snow temperature, so does the snow density. We have added more description of the model's surface scheme to section 2.1. Revised manuscript: P4L1-4

#### Section 2.4

**Snow albedo gets a subsection here, although the rest of the snow scheme is not described. As stated later (e.g. p10, line 33), albedo changes may have little effect in winter given the lack of solar radiation in these regions then, so the emphasis on this aspect needs more justification.**

The albedo was a natural step for further development as we had to add a snow albedo scheme for lakes anyways. As stated, these changes may have little effect, but it was one model development step that needed to be checked and document (similar albedo changes done for ECHAM6/JSBACH also motivated us). Unfortunately this did not fix the cold bias issue, but now we can rule it out from the list of the possible causes for the bias. We have improved this section in terms of justification. Revised manuscript: P6L11-16

**P5, line 29: The forest fraction mentioned here should have been described earlier in section 2.1.**

Yes, it could have been also discussed also in section 2.1. Section 2.1 describes REMO overall and here we wanted to show more details about the albedo calculations. Thus, REMO's snow albedo part is in section 2.4.

**P6, lines 311 seem to be a repeat of the previous paragraph.**

This paragraph has been removed.

#### Section 2.5

**P6, line 32 p7, line 2: The model end-state (in March?) is used as the model initial state (in August?). Would it not have been more suitable to use an initial state from the same season, say from August of the penultimate year?**

This part of the original text was misleading. Yes, we did match the months and we make it clearer in the text. Revised manuscript: P7L15-20

**P7, lines 56: Given that one comparison is with 2 m temperature, the height of the lowest model level should be stated, as also the surface interpolation scheme should earlier have been described.**

The height varies from place to place, but is overall in 60 m height. We have also added missing information to section 3 explaining that we have done orographic correction to the model data (the temperatures have been corrected based on the height difference in each gridbox). We have also improved the description of the surface scheme. Revised manuscript: P3L29-31 and P7L21-23

#### Section 2.6

**P7, line 31 p8, line 1: Apparently 7 out of the 18 chosen study lakes may have unrepresentative mean depths in the model dataset. However, lake depth is often described as the parameter to which FLake is most sensitive. Is the study intended to test, or contradict, this assertion?**

We use the default value of 7 meter when there is no data. This value, as explained in the text, is also from Choulga et al. (2014) and is representative for our domain. If we look the values in Table 2, where the mean depths are shown, we see that although some lakes do not have exact mean depth information, they do not differ much from the measured ones even with the default value. Indeed, some lakes have more a large error in their depth and this has been discussed as an error source

when the LWT's are analyzed.

## Section 2.6

**P 8, line 32.** The reason for the [control-run] cold bias is still unknown. Given that on p2 (lines 79) it is anticipated that a better lake representation will reduce wintertime heat fluxes, it seems odd to prioritise implementation of a lake model into a weather model with an existing, unexplained winter cold bias. Not least, it undermines the ice thickness/duration comparison. (As an aside, does the cold bias correlate with snow depth, as hinted by p9, lines 45?). The neglect of the cold-bias problem is acknowledged, but not really explained, in the last Conclusion paragraph. As a related point, the discussion on p11, lines 37 seems to say that the snow conductivity has been adjusted over lakes only, but acknowledges that snow thermodynamics may be a large factor in the cold bias. So why not try and improve land snow behaviour before applying FLake?

In any climate model, including REMO, there are many sources of error that could influence the simulated temperature, and often these errors partially compensate each other. For us, the treatment of lakes in REMO was an obvious part to start with, as the treatment of lake physics was known to be inadequate and to give rise to artificial heat and moisture sources. It is only after the lake physics was improved that the winter/spring cold bias in REMO became patently obvious (for the standard version, the underestimate was limited to the eastern part of the simulation domain, see the first two panels of Fig. 3). Thus our experiments demonstrate that the relatively good temperature simulation for standard REMO is a result of compensating errors, which is important to know.

This is not to say that the treatment of snow on land, including snow heat conductivity, should not be studied and improved. Indeed, our results for REMO-FL make this need more obvious. But, had we started with land snow physics, without improving the lakes, we would have had largely the same dilemma as we have now: the results could be compromised by the errors in the other parts of the model (in this case, the lake description). For example, hypothesizing that the cold bias is related to snow heat conductivity, tuning the land snow heat conductivity in a model with artificial heat sources from lakes could lead to misleading results. Overall, model development is done step by step, and including a lake model was one step that was needed for REMO.

We did check the correlation between snow depth and the cold bias, but no obvious correlation was found (in fact, they seemed to anticorrelate at many locations).

## Section 4.1

**P11, lines 2732:** The underestimations in the model during spring can be mostly explained by these factors. The factors are discussed in a rather vague and unquantitative way, hence the proposed explanations are not very convincing.

We added more discussion in this paragraph and changed the ending. Revised manuscript: P12L28-P13L8

**P12, lines 16:** Errors are attributed to having the wrong mean lake depth, or to river input/output. It might have been better to adjust the depths of the study lakes, at least, to try and differentiate between these possibilities. Not least, it would be interesting to definitely attribute errors to river flow (or not), since this has a bearing on the general usefulness of 1-D models with no hydrological connections.

It is possible to change the depths, but we have not tried this in this work. Perhaps in a research with shorter simulations this would be a nice approach to see the model's sensitivity. The last point about the rivers is indeed interesting and should be investigated more. This would require higher spatial resolution and more detailed input information (or a module for rivers).

**P12, lines 2324:** Naturally, there are no thickness measurements for the beginning or end of the ice season as the ice is too shallow to make these manual measurements. Does this mean the thickness measurements are biased high?

Yes, if there is a lot of variation on the seasons start and end times this can have a small effect to the near freezing and melting periods of the lakes. We will improve the text. Revised manuscript: P13L33-34

**P12, line 30 p13, line 18;** Again, the reasons for discrepancies are discussed in a qualitative way, with no quantitative testing or discrimination between the possible causes of error advanced.

With our current setup the reasons discussed cannot be the separately tested. This is why we brought extra information from the snow depths over land nearby the lakes (supplementary). Also, the processes affecting snow depth vary from year to year, which can be seen from the variation of the measurements.

## Section 4.2

**Figure 5:** It appears that the surface temperature at Vörtsjärv is above freezing during some or all of the ice-covered period?



Lake Vörtsjärv is located so south that it has a lot of year-to-year variation in ice cover. The measured ice period in Fig. 5 shows the average time when lake Vörtsjärv can be frozen. There are also years when the lake is open throughout or part of the winter, which explains why the average LWTs are above the freezing point.

**P13, line 28: the main problem is the cold bias [of] the model. I believe this supports my earlier point about priorities.**

We agree that improving the cold bias in the model is an important research topic. However, see our response regarding step-wise model development above.

And now we know more about this since lakes are much more realistic in the model which brings us back to the point-by-point model development. The next important step would indeed be to look into the cold bias issue, using knowledge gained in this study.

### Section 4.3

**Figure 6: I do not find the different (arbitrarily chosen?) depth scales for model and measurement profiles to be a useful way of making this comparison. Instead, profiles with a common depth scale should be shown. Then the authors can discuss (or the reader can decide) whether FLake gets the correct surface behaviour despite, or because of, its internal lake-structure model.**

This is the only way as the model uses mean depths and measurements are from the deepest point. We did test of using the same scales, but this approach did not really tell anything about the vertical profiles. FLake's vertical profile is based on assumed-shape representation for the whole lake depth. If it is matched with real measurement from the deepest point using the modelled mean depth, we are not comparing the same things and as said, the figure has no informative value. Our approach is not perfect either, but it gives information about the profiles and how well the model captures them.

### Technical points

**Title: Should it be freshwater lake model FLake**

Corrected as suggested.

**p1, line 10: are in realistic. ?**

Removed "in".

**p3, line 8: use NWP as defined on p1.**

Corrected as suggested.

**p4, line 11: Remove on**

Corrected as suggested.

**p5 line 1: Does It refer to FLake?**

No, it refers to the sediment module. Corrected to "This module..."

**Equation (1): hs does not seem to be defined.**

It is the snow depth in m. This information is now in the manuscript.

**p5, line 19: tp → to**

Corrected as suggested.

**p10, line 27: tot he → to the**

Corrected as suggested.

**The regional climate model REMO (v2015) coupled with the 1-D freshwater lake model FLake (v1):  
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**list of all relevant changes**

The title has been changed to “The regional climate model REMO (v2015) coupled with the 1-D freshwater lake model FLake (v1): Fenno-Scandinavian climate and lakes” (added lake after freshwater).

Supplementary Fig. S1 is moved to manuscript and now is Fig. 2.

A new figure (Fig. 4).

Otherwise changes are text changes around the manuscript.

# The regional climate model REMO (v2015) coupled with the 1-D freshwater lake model FLake (v1): Fenno-Scandinavian climate and lakes

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**Abstract.** The regional climate model REMO was coupled with the FLake lake model to include an interactive treatment of lakes. Using this new version, the Fenno-Scandinavian climate and lake characteristics were studied in a set of 35-year hindcast simulations. Additionally, sensitivity tests related to the parameterization of snow albedo were conducted. Our results show that overall the new model version improves the representation of the Fenno-Scandinavian climate in terms of 2-m temperature and precipitation, but the downside is that an existing wintertime cold bias in the model is enhanced. The lake surface water temperature, ice depth and ice season length were analyzed in detail for ten Finnish, four Swedish, two Russian and one Estonian lakes. The results show that the model can reproduce these characteristic with reasonably high accuracy. The cold bias during winter causes e.g. overestimation of ice layer thickness at several of the studied lakes, but overall the values from the model are realistic and represent well the lake physics in a long-term simulation. We also analyzed the snow depth on ice from ten Finnish lakes and vertical temperature profiles from five Finnish lakes and the model results are ~~in realistic~~.realistic.

## 1 Introduction

The interactions between the atmosphere and the underlying surface are among the most important factors in climate and numerical weather prediction (NWP) modelling (Mironov, 2008; Samuelsson et al., 2010). Land and sea surfaces are dominant globally, but regionally, lake surfaces can play a significant role. Locations like northern Europe, Asia and North America have rather high lake area densities, and the interactions between the atmosphere and lake surface can be a major driver in regional and local climate. Thus, in order to make reliable climate simulations, models should include lake modules that have reasonable complexity to simulate interactions between the atmosphere and lakes (Kirillin et al., 2012).

In regional climate models (RCM), lakes have been historically taken into account by setting the related variables (e.g. surface temperature and ice conditions) to follow external data, which often has been derived from the same data source as the lateral boundary data for the atmospheric variables. This approach can be applied in regions with a low fractional area of lakes whereas regions with a large fractional area of lakes suffer from the limited interactions between lakes and the

atmosphere. Deficiencies or missing representation of lake processes can cause artificial features in climate model results. For example, Kotlarski et al. (2014) showed that over Fenno-Scandinavia many EURO-CORDEX (Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment for European domain) RCMs have artificial heat sources during winter. These can be directly linked to the large fractional area of lakes, whose prescribed surface temperatures violate surface-atmosphere interactions. Some of the models still use a simple approach where the lake temperatures and ice conditions are linked to the closest sea point. In reality, Fenno-Scandinavian lakes usually freeze before the nearest sea area, because there the lakes are more shallow and consist of freshwater (Kirillin et al., 2012). This means that with the nearest sea point approach, lakes continue to emit heat and moisture to the surrounding atmosphere for far too long during early winter, thus causing artificial heat and moisture fluxes to the atmosphere.

To overcome the deficiencies in lake representation, lake models have been implemented in some RCMs (e.g. Martynov et al., 2010; Samuelsson et al., 2010; Gula and Peltier, 2012; Mironov et al., 2012; Bennington et al., 2014) and NWP models (e.g. Mironov et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2013). In most cases these models resolve the vertical profiles of lake variables in 1-D without any direct horizontal influence. This approach is widely used, because it is computationally efficient and has been shown to reproduce realistic lake and climate related variables (Kourzeneva et al., 2012; Stepanenko et al., 2013; Mallard et al., 2014). There are also 2-D and 3-D lake models (e.g. León et al., 2007), but these models are usually much more computationally demanding than 1-D models. Furthermore, 3-D lake models require a higher resolution computational grid (~2 km) and lake specific inflow and outflow information (Martynov et al., 2010). In principle, a high resolution 3-D lake model could be coupled with a RCM of lower resolution by various down-scaling approaches, but this would further increase the computational costs.

One widely used 1-D freshwater lake model is FLake (Mironov, 2008), which has been coupled into several climate and weather models (Stepanenko et al., 2013). For example, Mironov et al. (2010) introduced FLake into the numerical weather prediction model COSMO and showed that the coupling improved the prediction of lake surface temperatures, the freeze-up of lakes and the ice break-up across Europe. The COSMO-FLake system eliminated the significant overestimation of the lake surface temperatures during winter. Samuelsson et al. (2010) showed that the implementation of FLake to the Rossby Centre regional climate model RCA reduces known biases by increasing the 2m temperature over Europe by up to 1 °C and the precipitation by 20-40% when compared to a simulation without lakes. Martynov et al. (2012) simulated North American climate with the Canadian Regional Climate Model (CRCM) using two different lake models: FLake and Hostetler (Hostetler and Bartlein, 1990). The authors showed that FLake performed very well over their domain giving better results than the Hostetler model while the large and deep lakes caused some problems for both models. Finally, Mallard et al. (2014) showed that in the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model, FLake significantly improved the timing and extent of ice coverage and reduced errors in lake temperatures.

In this study, FLake has been interactively coupled with the regional climate model REMO. With the new model version called REMO-FLake, we have simulated over 35 years of the Fenno-Scandinavian climate and compared the results against the default model version and measurement data. Moreover, the lake related variables (e.g. surface temperature, ice thickness and snow depth on ice) have been compared to observations for ten Finnish, four Swedish, two Russian and one Estonian lakes. Additionally, some analysis has been made for vertical temperature profiles in five Finnish lakes.

The article is structured as follows: first, REMO, FLake and the implementation structure are described in Section 2; in Sections 3 and 4 a detailed analysis of the results is given; finally, in Section 5, the main conclusions are discussed.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 REMO

5 In this work, the hydrostatic version of the REgional MOdel REMO (version REMO2015) has been used (Jacob and Podzun, 1997; Jacob, 2001). REMO is a three-dimensional atmosphere model developed at the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology in Hamburg, Germany, and currently maintained at the Climate Service Center Germany (GERICS) in Hamburg. The model is based on the Europa Model, the former ~~numerical weather prediction~~-NWP model of the German Weather Service. The prognostic variables in REMO are horizontal wind components, surface pressure, air temperature, specific humidity, cloud liquid  
10 water and ice. The physical packages originate from the global circulation model ECHAM4 (Roeckner et al., 1996), although many updates have been introduced (e.g. Hagemann (2002); Semmler et al. (2004); Pfeifer (2006); Kotlarski (2007); ree; Teichmann (2010)

REMO uses a leap-frog scheme with time filtering by Asselin (1972) for the temporal discretization. To allow for longer time steps a semi-implicit correction is used. REMO's vertical atmospheric levels are represented in a hybrid sigma-pressure coordinate system, which follows the surface orography in the lower levels and is independent of it at higher atmospheric  
15 model levels. Horizontally, REMO has a spherical Arakawa-C grid (Arakawa and Lamb, 1977), where all prognostic variables, except winds, are calculated at the center of a grid box. The wind components are calculated at the edges of the grid boxes.

At the lateral boundaries of the model domain, REMO uses the relaxation scheme developed by Davies (1976). In this scheme, the prognostic variables of REMO are adjusted towards large-scale forcing at the 8 outermost grid boxes. The outside forcing decreases exponentially in this zone towards the inner model domain. At the surface, the sea surface temperature (SST)  
20 and sea ice distribution are prescribed by the lateral boundary forcing data-set. At land points, a fractional land surface scheme is used and details can be found, for example, in Kotlarski (2007) and reeRechid (2009). Shortly, the scheme uses a tile approach with 3 tiles: land, water and ice (Semmler et al., 2004). The biogeophysical characteristic of the land tile are described through surface parameters. The leaf area index, fractional green vegetation cover and background surface albedo are prescribed with monthly values accounting for the seasonality of the vegetation characteristics (Hagemann, 2002; Rechid and Jacob, 2006).  
25 The background albedo has some further developments in terms of pure soil and pure vegetation albedo (Rechid, 2009; Rechid et al., 2009). Soil temperature profile is resolved using 5 soil layers of increasing thicknesses reaching 10 m depth. The soil hydrology is based on a simple bucket scheme by Manabe (1969) with an improved accounting of the subgrid scale heterogeneity of the field capacities within a climate model gridbox (Hagemann and Gates, 2003). The vertical diffusion fluxes due to sub grid scale turbulence are calculated for the lowest layer (surface layer) according to Louis (1979). The 2-meter temperature calculation is  
30 based on these fluxes (Roeckner et al., 1996). The snow parameterization is based on the ECHAM4 approach, which was later improved by Semmler (2002) for better performance in high-latitude regions. The snow layer is divided into two parts for the heat conductivity calculations. A top layer (0.1 m thickness) is used for defining the surface temperature of the snow pack and serves as an interface to the atmosphere. The temperature in the rest of the snow pack is calculated using the top snow layer

temperature and the top soil layer temperature. If the temperature of these two snow layers reach melting point, any further energy input is used for snow melt. The density of the snow and the heat conductivity are parameterized as a function of the snow layer temperature (Roeckner et al., 1996; Kotlarski, 2007).

Lakes are included in REMO through the default land cover map: Global Land Cover Characteristics Database (GLCCD; Loveland et al., 2000; US Geological Survey, 2001). However, the standard land surface scheme does not have a tile for lakes and thus does not allow for their explicit treatment. Instead, the model uses the nearest sea-point approach for all non-sea water fractions to determine the water temperature and ice conditions. As indicated above, the nearest sea-point approach can lead to a significant distortion of the simulated climate, which suggests that REMO would benefit from a coupling with a physical/process based lake model.

## 10 2.2 FLake lake model

FLake is a thermodynamic freshwater lake model, which predicts the mixing conditions and vertical temperature structure of lakes on time scales from a few hours to several years (Mironov, 2008; Mironov et al., 2010). FLake's water module calculates the heat and kinetic energy budget for the upper mixed-layer and the basin bottom. The model can be used for various basin depths and even though it has been intended for use in NWP and climate models, it can be used as a standalone model as well. FLake uses a bulk-approach and is based on a self-similarity (assumed-shape) representation of the temperature profile in the mixed-layer and thermocline. In addition, it calculates the mixed-layer depth as well as the temperature and thickness of both ice and snow on ice. Optionally, FLake can calculate the flux between the bottom sediment and the lake bottom. In this case, thickness and temperature of the thermally active upper sediment layer are calculated. A more detailed description of FLake can be found in Mironov et al. (2010), where the authors give a detailed list of FLake parameters and more information about ~~on~~ the numerical core.

## 2.3 Implementation of the FLake model

REMO's surface fractions are based on the Global Land Cover Characteristics (GLCC) database (US Geological Survey, 2001). This database has a nominal 1-km spatial resolution and includes lakes as one variable. REMO's surface pre-processor, which creates the surface related parameters including the fractions of different tiles (~~previously only land, (sea) land,~~ water and ice), was modified in this work to include also the lake fraction as an output variable. Thus, while the standard version of REMO lumps sea, lakes and rivers together in the water tile, here a separate tile is created for lakes and rivers. The lake depth data were taken from the detailed dataset developed by Choulga et al. (2014), which gives the mean depths of lakes in a global grid (version v3). Using a dataset with realistic lake depths is important, as shown by Samuelsson et al. (2010). Additionally, the dataset by Choulga et al. (2014) includes lake fractions, but to be consistent with the rest of the model, the GLCC lake fractions were used. In practice, this means that whenever there is a lake in the GLCC dataset, the lake depth is taken from the Choulga et al. (2014) dataset. For points where Choulga et al. (2014) has no data, a default value is used ~~-.The default value and it can be set beforehand within the surface pre-processor and for example, was set to-. In this work, a default value of 7 m in this work.~~

~~The value is based on  $m$  was used, which is a typical mean depth for our domain based on the~~ data by Choulga et al. (2014)~~for the regions 126, 130 and 132 that fall within the present calculation domain used in this work.~~

FLake is directly implemented to REMO so that in every time step all the lake-related parameters are calculated online. The lake tile is assumed to be either completely open (ice fraction 0) or completely frozen (ice fraction 1). This differs from the original water area approach, which is separated into water and ice tiles. This is due to the 1-D approach of FLake, which does not distinguish between different lakes within one gridbox. In practice, this means that the lake tile has three possible states: open water, ice-covered without snow, or ice-covered with snow on the ice. This differs from the original approach, where the fraction of sea and ice was taken from the driving data. However, as there is a resolution difference between our simulations (roughly 18 km resolution) and the driving data (ERA-Interim, approximately 80 km (Dee et al., 2011)), the fractional ice-cover values for lakes from the driving data are either 0 or mostly between 0.9 and 1. Thus, in practice, the ice fraction values are close to binary already in the standard version of the model. All the tile-specific variables (e.g. specific humidity, surface temperature, surface fluxes and albedo) are now calculated for the lake tile by taking into account the tile's state. The tile-related variables are averaged based on their fraction in a gridbox and the host model uses these averaged values in the physics calculations.

The FLake model also includes a surface-flux parameterization (SfcFlx). However, as REMO ~~can produce all the necessary surface-related variables and fluxes, SfcFlx has not been implemented~~ resolves the state of the surface and related fluxes for other tiles, for consistency we let it calculate those for lake tile as well. Below the land surface, REMO uses a diffusion equation solver in a 5-layer model with zero heat flux at the bottom (10m). For the lake tile, this has not been used; instead, FLake's own lake bottom sediment module has been implemented to REMO. ~~It~~ This module calculates the heat flux at the water-bottom sediment interface by using the depth of the upper layer of bottom sediments that is penetrated by the thermal wave, and the temperature at that depth. However, the bottom sediment module is important only for shallow lakes and thus, we use a 5 meter cut-off limit: for lakes deeper than this the bottom sediment module has been switched off (FLake webpage, <http://www.flake.igb-berlin.de>). Moreover, as FLake is not suitable for deep lakes (Mironov et al., 2010), a “false bottom” approach has been used. In this approach, the maximum lake depth has been set to 50 ~~and~~. As a security check, the bottom sediment module has been switched off for lakes deeper than ~~this~~ 50 m. This has a negligible impact on the results, because typically there are no significant ~~temperatures~~ temperature changes in such depths for fresh-water lakes (Samuelsson et al., 2010). Although the 5 meter cut-off limit already switches off the bottom sediment for lakes deeper than 50 m, we have kept both of these options for future testing purposes.

Even though the snow module of FLake has not been thoroughly tested, there is some evidence that especially in climate simulations the snow module gives realistic results (D. Mironov, personal communications, 2015). We have also updated the coefficients used to calculate snow density and heat conductivity as suggested by Mironov et al. (2012). These changes are needed as the original approach yielded too low snow density and too high snow temperature conductivity. Moreover, we have implemented an alternative approach for snow heat conductivity, with an effective snow heat conductivity  $k_{\text{seff}}$  as proposed by Semmler et al. (2012):

$$k_{\text{seff}} = k_s + (k_i - k_s) \times e^{-\frac{h_s \times c - h_s \times c}{\dots}}, \quad (1)$$

where  $k_s$  is the heat conductivity of snow (0.14 W/(mK)),  $k_i$  is the heat conductivity of lake ice (2.29 W/(mK)),  $h_s$  is the snow depth (m) and  $c$  is an empirical constant ( $5 \text{ m}^{-1}$ ). In practice, this approach increases the heat conductivity for thin snow, because it is highly probable that there is also bare ice in the vicinity of thin snow due to snow redistribution by wind drift; thus, the  $k_{\text{seff}}$  is actually a mixture of snow and ice conductivity. Due to stability issues, we start to accumulate snow over ice only when the ice layer is at least 3 cm thick. In addition, the ice albedo limits from Semmler et al. (2012) have been implemented (similar changes were also made by Yang et al. (2013)). The default albedos in FLake is from 0.1 to 0.6 for ice and snow, respectively, while the ice albedo range applied in Semmler et al. (2012) is from 0.3 to 0.5. Moreover, we have changed the snow albedo limits and these changes will be shown in details in the next section.

For all other FLake model related variables and parameters the default FLake configuration has been used (Mironov, 2008; Mironov et al.

10

## 2.4 The snow albedo

Snow albedo is an important part of the energy cycle and at least in global climate models, the simulated temperature can be quite sensitive to relatively small changes in snow albedo (e.g. Räisänen et al., 2017). Lakes in the Nordic countries are usually always covered with snow during winter. The snow module of FLake does not calculate snow albedo separately and uses the same albedo for snow as for ice. Thus, as a snow albedo scheme had to be implemented for the lake tile, we have also looked into the details of the current snow albedo scheme in REMO as well as studied a possible alternative approach for it.

Three treatments of snow albedo  $\alpha_{sn}$  are considered in this work: a temperature-dependent scheme, a snow albedo scheme originating from the Biosphere-Atmosphere Transfer Scheme (BATS; Dickinson et al., 1993), and their combination. By default, REMO employs a temperature-dependent snow albedo scheme. The shortwave radiation module for REMO separates visible and near-infrared spectral regions (VIS and NIR, respectively) for surface albedo, but in the default treatment, a broadband approach (the same albedo for the VIS and NIR regions) is used for snow albedo. The snow albedo over land is temperature dependent and gets its maximum value  $\alpha_{sn_{max}} = 0.8$  when the snow temperature is below  $-10^\circ\text{C}$ . At higher temperatures  $\alpha_{sn}$  decreases linearly until it reaches the snow albedo minimum  $\alpha_{sn} = 0.4$  at the freezing point. Moreover, the forest fraction of the grid cell influences linearly the albedo maximum and minimum values so that they reach values of  $\alpha_{sn_{max}} = 0.4$  and  $\alpha_{sn_{min}} = 0.3$  at a forest fraction of unity (details in Kotlarski (2007)). However, these values of forested  $\alpha_{sn_{max}}$  and  $\alpha_{sn_{min}}$  are slightly higher than those shown in the literature (e.g. Roesch et al., 2001, and references therein), and therefore, in the present work we have reduced both  $\alpha_{sn_{max}}$  and  $\alpha_{sn_{min}}$  to 0.25 for completely forest-covered gridboxes, following Gao et al. (2014).

~~The radiation module of REMO separates visible and near-infrared light regions (VIS and NIR, respectively) for the albedo. However, the snow albedo does not change between these regions which means that the albedo is a so-called broadband albedo. In REMO, the snow albedo over land is temperature dependent and gets its maximum value  $\alpha_{sn_{max}} = 0.8$  when the snow temperature is below  $-10^\circ\text{C}$ . At higher temperatures the  $\alpha_{sn}$  linearly decreases until it reaches the snow albedo minimum  $\alpha_{sn} = 0.4$  at the freezing point. Moreover, the forest fraction of the grid cell influences linearly the albedo minimum and maximum values so that they reach values  $\alpha_{sn_{max}} = 0.4$  and  $\alpha_{sn_{min}} = 0.3$  at a forest fraction of unity (details in Kotlarski (2007)).~~



However, the values of forested  $\alpha_{sn_{max}}$  and  $\alpha_{sn_{min}}$  are slightly higher than those shown in literature (e.g. Roesch et al., 2001, and references therein) and therefore, in the present work we have reduced both  $\alpha_{sn_{max}}$  and  $\alpha_{sn_{min}}$  to 0.25 for gridboxes covered with forest only, following Gao et al. (2014).

The temperature-dependent  $\alpha_{sn}$  takes into account that the snow albedo is lower when snow is wet, i.e. is near the freezing point. However, this approach does not take into account the aging of snow, soot loading, grain size or the influence of solar zenith angle. As these play a role in  $\alpha_{sn}$ , in this work, we have implemented the snow albedo scheme from the Biosphere-Atmosphere Transfer Scheme (BATS; Dickinson et al., 1993). In this scheme,  $\alpha_{sn}$  takes into account the aging of snow and solar zenith angle, and is calculated separately for VIS and NIR. The aging of snow is based on three terms: the first represents the grain growth effect due to vapor diffusion and it reflects the effect of effect on snow grain growth due to vapor diffusion, the second represents the additional effect near and at freezing of melt water, and finally the third one introduces the influence of soot and dirt through a global time-independent constant (details in Dickinson et al. (1993)). The VIS  $\alpha_{sn}$  is allowed to get values between 0.9 and 0.5 and the NIR  $\alpha_{sn}$  between 0.65 and 0.25, where the highest values are employed for new snow. The forest fraction decreases these values as with the temperature-dependent broadband approach so that a fully forested gridbox has a VIS snow albedo of 0.25 and a NIR albedo of 0.2.

The temperature-dependent scheme aims to describe the reversible changes in the crystal structure of snow when the temperatures approach the melting point. On the other hand, the BATS scheme describes the irreversible crusting of a snow layer and the accumulation of aerosols and other impurities in the snow through the aging factor. As these both are important in reality, we modified the source code so that one can choose either the original scheme, the new BATS scheme, or a combined approach similar to that employed in the JSBACH model (Raddatz et al., 2007; Brovkin et al., 2013; Reick et al., 2013). In the JSBACH approach, the schemes are weighted and in this work we have used equal weights.

The albedo reduction due to forests only occurs over land areas. Therefore, snow albedo (and for the BATS scheme, snow aging) is calculated separately for land and lake tiles as one gridbox can have snow on both tiles. The gridpoint snow albedo is then calculated as an area-weighted mean value of the tile albedos.

## 2.5 Simulations

We have made simulations for the Northern Europe for the period of August-July 1979 – March 2015. The simulations employed a warm-start method, which means that at the start of the simulation soil temperature, soil moisture and lake variables were obtained from existing simulation data. In the warm-start method, the model was run for the whole time period with default initial values (for REMO and REMO-FLake separately) and then using the model's final-state-state in July 2014 was used as the initial state for the actual and analyzed simulations (starting in July). More details about the method for the same domain can be found in Gao et al. (2014) and Gao et al. (2015).

The horizontal resolution of the simulations was  $18\text{ km} \times 18\text{ km}$  ( $0.167^\circ$ ) with 27 vertical layers (the model top reaching 25 km altitude while 6 lowest levels are on average within the planetary boundary layer in our domain) and 90 s time step. The lowest levels is at a height of about 60 m above the surface. The lateral meteorological boundary forcing was obtained from ERA-Interim data with a 6-hourly update frequency (Dee et al., 2011). The simulation domain can be seen in Fig. 1, where the

used lake fraction, mean depth, surface elevation, and locations and names of the analyzed Finnish lakes are shown. We have conducted a total of 5 simulations: 1 without FLake and 4 with FLake (Table 1). The simulation without FLake (REMO-ST) was conducted using the default configuration of the model. The simulations with FLake included a baseline run (REMO-FL) with the temperature-dependent snow albedo scheme, a run with the BATS snow albedo scheme (REMO-FLB), and a run with the combined temperature-BATS albedo scheme (REMO-FLTB). The fourth simulation (REMO-FLOS) was otherwise similar to REMO-FL but used FLake's original snow heat conductivity approach instead of the Semmler et al. (2012) approach. For all temperature-dependent snow albedo simulations (REMO's default configuration) the broadband albedo has been used, but for all simulations including the BATS scheme, the VIS and NIR separation approach has been used (details in Section 2.4).

## 2.6 Lake data

The modelled lake variables are evaluated against three different measurement data. Firstly, the main data source covering all analyzed lakes in Finland is the measurement data from the Finnish Environment Institute (SYKE). Measurement data of SYKE includes lake surface water temperatures (LWT), ice cover periods and ice thickness with snow on ice for all studied lakes. Vertical water temperature profiles are available for five lakes. Secondly, the International Lake Environmental Committee (ILEC) data is used for lake surface temperatures and ice cover period outside Finland (ILEC, 1988-1993). Lastly, for some lakes in Sweden, Russia and Estonia the ice cover period is taken from the National Snow and Ice Data Center's (NSIDC) Global Lake and River Ice Phenology data (Benson and Magnuson, 2000, updated 2012).

The Great Saimaa Lake is the largest lake by area in Finland (see Table 2 and Fig. 1). However, its areal definition is not unambiguous, because it is a combination of several open lake areas connected by straits. In our study, we have divided the Great Saimaa Lake into two parts. Lake Haukivesi is a lake in between Varkaus and Savonlinna cities and represents the north-western part of the Great Saimaa Lake. Another focus area in our study is the southern part, where the open lake area is actually called Saimaa, i.e. in our study, the name Lake Saimaa points to the southern area of the Great Saimaa Lake.

Table 2 shows the mean lake depths and the means calculated from the data by Choulga et al. (2014). It also shows the longitudinal and latitudinal boundaries that are used to define the lake area in the analysis of the model results. As can be seen, the average depths are reasonably similar between the literature and model data, except at Lappajärvi, where the dataset by Choulga et al. (2014) gives a 16 m depth for the whole lake while in reality it is closer to 7 m, and at Kallavesi, Haukivesi and Näsijärvi, where the FLake database does not have information about the depth and the default value of 7 m is used, at Mälaren, where the overall shape of the lake is not well represented in the database and causes underestimation of the mean depth, and at Vättern, where the difference is slightly over 10 m. There is also over 10 m difference at northern part of lake Ladoga, but there the literature based average depth for the whole lake has been also used for the northern part and this causes error.

Table S1 (supplementary) introduces the measurement locations from the SYKE database (the locations can be seen from Fig. 1). It defines the actual locations (lake name is used if the measurement is done at the open lake or if it represents the whole lake area) and shows how many measurements sites are used in the actual analysis. If an analyzed variable has more than one source for some time period, a mean value has been used. Different sources give more information about the spatial

differences of the analyzed area, which reduces the error when comparing point measurements against larger model grids. The LWTs are measured at 8 o'clock in the morning (local time) and all modelled LWTs are also taken from this same time of the day. Ice thickness and the snow depth on ice have been measured at different times of the day and thus the modelled daily mean value is used. The SYKE measurements for LWT, ice depth and snow on ice are done close to the lake shore, which causes  
5 some error when compared to lake's average modelled values. This will be discussed in more details in the following sections.

### 3 Climate impacts

We have compared the modelled 2-m air temperature and precipitation fields against the E-OBS version 16 gridded dataset (Haylock et al., 2008). For this comparison, the modelled values were remapped to the E-OBS grid, which is slightly coarser (0.25°) than the REMO grid. The accuracy of the E-OBS data depends on the density of the underlying measurement network  
10 and naturally this introduces some error (e.g. Kotlarski et al., 2014, and references therein). We do not explicitly consider the observational uncertainties like undercatch of precipitation, but they should be kept in mind (Prein and Gobiet, 2017). Moreover, the relaxation zone, i.e. the area where the lateral forcing directly influences the results, has been removed from the analysis. All shown 2-m air temperatures values have been corrected with the lapse rate  $\gamma = 0.0064$  °C/m to compensate for the effect of orography difference on temperature.

15 In the analysis part (Section 3.1) we will show only the differences between the E-OBS measurement data and model results. The absolute values from E-OBS for 2-m air temperature and precipitation are shown in Fig. 2. The values are multi-year seasonal means for 2-m temperature and multi-year mean seasonal sums for precipitation.

#### 3.1 Influence of the lake model FLake

The comparison of the model results against the E-OBS 2-m air temperature and surface precipitation for the standard REMO run (REMO-ST) and for the REMO-FLake (REMO-FL; details in Tab. 1) is shown in Fig. 3. The areas marked with dots indicate their statistical significance, with p-values  $< 0.05$ . As the E-OBS data is based on measurements over land and the values given over lakes are an interpolation of these measurements, a direct comparison against the model's results causes artificial biases over gridboxes with a high lake fraction. To reduce these biases, we have excluded all grid points where the lake fraction is equal or larger than 0.5. While we have no direct measurements of 2-m temperatures over lakes, we will analyze  
25 in Sections 4.1 and 4.2 the LWTs, which are generally close to the 2-m temperatures over lakes. ~~Here, we only show the biases of the model versions against the E-OBS data, while the absolute E-OBS values for  $T_{2m}$  and precipitation are shown in the supplementary Fig. S1 when they are not frozen.~~

During the winter season, REMO-ST shows an overall temperature bias of -0.9 K for the domain while REMO-FL has a -2.4 K bias, as can be seen from Fig. 3. The spatial distribution of  $T_{2m}$  in REMO-ST shows that the model has a cold bias in the east  
30 and warm biases in northern Finland and throughout Sweden. The reason for the cold bias is still unknown, but the warm biases originate from the treatment of lakes. While in reality the lakes should be frozen, in the model they are open due to the nearest sea point treatment. This causes artificial heating and shows as warm biases in the spatial maps. With REMO-FLake, the warm

bias is gone as the model now interactively calculates the LWTs and ice periods. This, on the other hand, leads to a very strong cold bias throughout the domain. The bias is statistically significant nearly throughout the whole domain. Our analysis (not shown here) indicates that the bias only occurs when there is snow on the ground, which strongly suggests that the cause of the bias is linked to the surface treatment of the model rather than, for example, missing low-level clouds (without totally ruling out this possibility). Figure 4 shows the surface specific humidity and 10-m wind speed from REMO-ST and the difference between REMO-FL and REMO-ST. We can clearly see that when FLake is included, the humidity decreases at the surface during winter time as the artificial moisture sources are not anymore available. There are, however, some increased values over lakes Ladoga and Onega, which tells that with FLake these lake have more open lake periods during winter than what was originally simulated based on the nearest neighbor approach. The 10-m wind speeds are also influenced by the roughness length (larger wind speeds when the roughness length is smaller). Following the humidity, the winter-time 10-m wind speeds are decreased in REMO-FL as the heating of the atmosphere is reduced and boundary layer stability is increased.

The spring season biases follow qualitatively the winter results in Fig. 3. REMO-ST has a smaller cold bias due to warmer temperatures over lakes (-0.7 K). REMO-FL increases the cold bias to -1.4 K as the lakes stay frozen longer than in REMO-ST and do not artificially pump heat to the atmosphere (Fig. 4). The cold bias is weaker than in winter as the fraction of snow covered surfaces decreases. Statistically, the differences in spring are significant. During summer, REMO-ST has a small cold bias over the domain and REMO-FL a slight warm bias. Overall, the summer temperatures are captured very well in both model versions. Autumn temperatures are warm biased in REMO-ST, but much better captured by REMO-FL. The REMO-ST biases primary occur near lakes ~~,-which-~~ and are statistically significant. This indicates that the original approach for lakes starts to heat the atmosphere unrealistically while in reality lakes cool faster.

Figure 3 also shows the precipitation biases of REMO-ST and REMO-FL against E-OBS observational data. These differences are statistically significant in all seasons. REMO-ST has a winter bias of 22.7% over the whole domain while REMO-FL has a 13.5% bias. The difference between the model versions is coming from the areas with high lake density. Although the biggest lake areas have been masked out, due to transport processes the excess in moisture that triggers precipitation will show up also near the masked areas. This is visible especially in northern Finland, where Lake Inari is located. ~~It~~ Also, from Fig. 4 we can see how REMO-FL reduces the winter moisture and decreases the wind speeds. Thus, it is clear that the use of FLake removes the artificial heat and moisture sources and thus decreases the wet bias. The precipitation biases during spring are also smaller with FLake (REMO-ST 54.5% and REMO-FL 47.3%) and the largest biases occur in northern Finland and the surrounding areas. The difference to winter is that a wet bias occurs throughout the domain indicating that REMO captures better the snow precipitation rates than warm precipitation rates, i.e. rain.

The use of FLake increases significantly the precipitation bias in summer. REMO-ST has a 28.4% bias, but REMO-FL yields a 46.6% bias with largest excess in precipitation in central-eastern Finland. Some overestimation can be also seen over Sweden. The increased wet bias seems to be connected to the fraction of lakes (Fig. 1) and is caused by the increased convective precipitation (analysis not shown here). Fig. 4 shows that the surface specific humidity and 10-m wind speeds increase in these areas. With the current horizontal resolution (18km×18km), the model uses a convective parameterization to calculate the convection processes and it is based on the mass-flux scheme from Tiedtke (1989) with modifications by Nordeng (1994).

With REMO-FL, the lake surfaces are warmer and thus there is more evaporation and humidity, which tends to trigger the convection. Although not shown here, we analyzed the lake surface temperatures also from the lateral boundary data, which are the ones standard REMO uses. Our analysis showed that the LWTs in REMO-FL are 3-7 °C higher on average during summer than those in REMO-ST. This explains why there is more heat available for triggering the convection over lakes in REMO-FL. [Moreover, the increased 10-m wind speeds in REMO-FL enhance the evaporation, which can be seen as increased near-lake surface humidity in REMO-FL.](#) Nevertheless, we have not investigated in detail why there is excess in convective precipitation and only suggest possible reasons. The convection scheme works during a single time step, i.e. convective clouds form and precipitate during one time step, which causes precipitation to be too localized over lakes and there is not sufficient transport of moisture. Another factor might be that the cloud cover is too small in the model, because convective clouds are not radiatively active (i.e. the radiation scheme does not “see” convective clouds directly, but the model accounts for their transport of moisture in the large-scale cloud scheme). Naturally, the LWTs in REMO-FL could be too high, but this does not seem to be the reason, as will be seen in the later analysis.

The precipitation bias for REMO-ST during autumn (22.6%) is higher than for REMO-FL (17.8%). Like in winter, the wet bias in REMO-ST originates from lake areas: in reality, lakes cool faster than with the nearest sea point approach and this leads to excess in heat and moisture near lakes in the nearest sea point approach. [This can be also seen from Fig. 4 where REMO-FL shows decreased surface humidity values when compared to REMO-ST.](#) When FLake is used, temperature and moisture are more realistic leading to smaller biases during autumn.

### 3.2 Snow analysis

We have compared the model’s albedo to the CLARA-A2 dataset (Karlsson et al., 2017), which contains a global dataset of surface radiation products based on the measurements of the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) on-board the polar orbiting National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and MetOP satellites (Schulz et al., 2009; Karlsson et al., 2012; Riihelä et al., 2013). Since the satellite dataset does not cover mid-winter months due to too low solar elevations, we have compared the monthly mean albedos for March and April. During these months, our domain still has snow and additionally, we can see the impacts of the snow melting period. Moreover, as the purpose of the comparison is to show how much the different snow albedo methods influence the results, we limit the comparison to land and lake surfaces.

Figure 5 shows the multi-year monthly measured albedos and the model bias (model-measurements) for the time period of 1982 to 2014. We compare three model versions, which are the default REMO-FLake (REMO-FL), REMO-FLake with the BATS albedo scheme (REMO-FLB) and REMO-FLake with the combined BATS and temperature albedo scheme (REMO-FLTB). Based on the albedo values, there is quite a lot of snow in our domain during March, whereas during April, the southern part of the domain is snow-free. The different model versions show some differences in March; for example, over the central-eastern part of the domain, REMO-FLB gives higher albedos than the simulations using the original (REMO-FL) or the combined albedo parameterization (REMO-FLTB). Overall over land, REMO-FL tends to underestimate the albedo when there is snow, but it is quite close to the measurements otherwise. The albedo over lakes in March is fairly well captured, although slightly overestimated with REMO-FLTB and especially in REMO-FLB. In March, the lake albedos seem to be overestimated

in all model versions, although with REMO-FL only slightly. The overestimation is due to the cold bias in the model, which delays the melting of snow and ice. The same features can be seen as in April: the albedo in regions with snow is slightly underestimated. We also analyzed how much the changes made ~~to the~~ to the snow albedo in forested regions impact the results (see Sec. 2.4), but the difference is insignificant and cannot explain the overestimation (details not shown here).

- 5 The impact of the different snow albedo parameterizations on simulated 2-m temperature and precipitation can be seen by comparing REMO-FL in Fig. 3 with REMO-FLB and REMO-FLT in Fig. [S2S1](#). Overall, the impact is small. In the experiment with the temperature-based snow albedo scheme (REMO-FL), snow melts somewhat faster than in the other two experiments, but the domain-mean differences in seasonal-mean  $T_{2m}$  bias are quite small, within  $\approx 0.2$  K. A partial explanation for this is that as the model domain is quite northerly, the intensity of solar radiation is relatively low especially during winter.
- 10 This suggests that the cause of the bias is more linked to the thermodynamics of the snowy surface or boundary layer treatment in the model, although the possibility of missing low-level clouds cannot be excluded.

We have also made some sensitivity experiments to see the impact of the snow heat conductivity. The changes by Semmler et al. (2004), applied only over lakes, give better results than the original approach in REMO-FLOS (see Supplementary Fig. [S2S1](#)). The mean over the domain during winter does not differ significantly (REMO-FL -2.4 K vs. REMO-FLOS -2.7 K),

15 but from supplementary Fig. [S2S1](#) we can see that the spatial pattern in the bias changes quite a lot. This also indicates that thermodynamics of the snow layer can play a big role in the cold-bias problem. The differences in precipitation are also small throughout the whole year. Overall, REMO-FLOS tends to precipitate slightly more than REMO-FL. Based on the results in this and previous sections, we chose to use REMO-FL as the main source for analysis in the following sections, thus skipping the other versions.

## 20 4 Lake analysis

We have chosen to analyze only big lakes due to the resolution of the simulations. This means that all lakes analyzed extend to at least 2 gridboxes (limits for the analyzed areas are shown in Table 2). When computing mean values for a specific lake, values for the gridboxes covering this lake were weighted by the lake fraction in these gridboxes (weighted arithmetic mean). This way, the whole lake could be accounted for, even if the lake only covers a fraction of a specific gridbox. This approach

25 causes some error to our analysis as parts of other lakes in the analyzed gridbox might influence the results, but since the model's resolution is relatively high and the number of these cases is small, we consider this to be a realistic approach for the lake analysis. If the resolution were to be increased, this method could eventually be replaced by direct analysis of the gridboxes covering a lake. We also analyzed the variance from the 35-year averaged results for all variables and it was found to be so small that we have excluded it from the shown results.

### 30 4.1 Finnish lakes

We have analyzed the measured and modelled LWTs, ice thicknesses and snow depths on ice from 10 lakes in Finland. The measured snow layer thickness is calculated from the snow water equivalent (SWE) using the same density formulation as is

used in the FLake (Mironov, 2008). This way, the results are more comparable and the actual thicknesses can be used instead of water-equivalents. More detailed information about the measurement locations can be found from Table S1 (supplementary) and Fig. 1.

Figure 6 shows the results for all Finnish lakes included in this study. Overall, the main features are captured, but spring/early-  
5 summer LWTs are 3-10 °C lower in the model than what is measured and the modelled summer time maximum are overestimated by 2-3 °C at eastern lakes. Spring ~~underestimations~~underestimation can be linked to the model's overestimation in the ice ~~sheet~~ thickness due to the cold temperature bias shown in Sec. 3. ~~It should be noted that the~~A factor that may also contribute is that the modelled lakes always have an ice cover of either 0 or 1. This is probably reasonable in autumn, as lakes overall freeze quite fast in the Nordic countries. In spring, however, lakes are known to have a time period with mixed open  
10 and frozen lake areas. The assumption of an ice cover of 1 in such conditions can reduce the absorption of solar radiation in lakes (even though ice albedo is then generally rather low), and thereby lead to underestimated LWTs. It can also cause the modelled ice season to be a bit longer than in reality, and the moisture flux to be underestimated in spring. However, due to the cold LWTs, the moisture flux is small also in reality. We anticipate that the impact of using binary ice cover (0 or 1) on LWTs is small, but this would be worth checking in future work. Finally, the spring underestimation of LWTs could be partly  
15 artificial. The LWT measurements are done close to the lake's shore, ~~which means that~~where ice disappears first, and therefore, the measured LWTs are warmer during spring than ~~the~~ open-lake mean surface water temperature (which the modelled values correspond to). ~~The underestimations in the model during spring can be mostly explained by these factors.~~

Summer time maxima are overestimated at lakes Pielinen, Kallavesi and Haukivesi. One explanation can be that these lakes are shallower in the model than in reality (Table 2) and they heat up too fast. This would also explain why the spring LWTs are  
20 first underestimated, but later on overestimated: the cold bias delays the ice break-up in the model, but as soon as the open-lake season starts, these shallower lakes start to heat up faster than in reality. Another reason for the overestimation can be that these lakes have quite significant incoming and outgoing river discharge. This will cause some error when comparing LWT measurements with a lake model without river discharge. Otherwise the summer maxima are well captured, which indicates that although the annual open-lake time period is overall not as long as in the measurements, the summer is long enough for  
25 the lakes to warm to near-observed maximum temperatures. Autumn temperatures and features are well captured at all lakes by the model, although a small underestimation (1-3 °C) can be seen. The near-shore measurement location means that the measured autumn LWTs are actually colder than the mean lake mean surface water temperature, because shallower shores cool faster than the open lake areas. This indicates that the measured autumn temperatures are actually a bit more underestimated in the model than shown in Fig. 6.

30 The ice thickness is reasonably well captured at most of the analyzed places, although the modelled values tend to be on the upper end of the measured ones. The measured values have wider spread, because multi-year daily means are shown and the measurement day varies from year to year. This causes the measurement data to have the wider spread, but it also gives some information about the variation in the measured thicknesses. As was discussed earlier, the model has a very small variance in the means, which ~~means~~indicates that the means shown in Fig. 6 are very representative for the whole period. Thus, it becomes  
35 clear that the model has a tendency to overestimate the ice thickness. The areas with biggest cold bias in Fig. 3 can be linked to

the lakes with the highest ice thickness overestimation (up to 20 cm) in Fig. 6 (Haukivesi, Saimaa, Näsijärvi and Päijänne; in the south and east part of Finland). The overestimation is evident also in the Table A1 values (appendix), where the measured mean ice-freeze-up and break-up times and ice period lengths are compared with the modelled values. Table A1 shows that the model tends to form ice 2-3 weeks too early, captures the ice-break up period reasonably well (1-2 weeks too late) and as a sum of these, overestimates the ice period length typically by three weeks. Naturally, there are no thickness measurements for the beginning or end of the ice season as the ice is too shallow to make these manual measurements. [This explains why yearly ice depth distribution is missing values from the tails. Also, as there are missing measurements, the values near freezing and melting of lakes can be slightly biased high.](#) The measurement location also influences the measured ice thickness. One example is Saimaa, where the measurements are done close to the Saimaa Canal. This shortens the measured ice season by delaying the start and advancing the end of it. Moreover, the definition of the actual date when a lake freezes or ice cover breaks-up is not straightforward. For example, during spring the shores can be ice free, but the open areas are still covered with ice. In the model, the ice season ends when there is no ice left in the whole analyzed area.

The amount of snow on ice seems to accumulate slightly too fast in the model, leading to an overestimation in the winter maximum values. [The overestimation varies from lake to lake and is roughly 5-20 cm.](#) As with ice thickness, the model mean values are closer to the measured [mean](#) maxima. Besides the model precipitation biases, which are small during winter (Fig. 3), there are a few physical reasons for the overestimation. Like with the ice thickness, measurements have more variability, whereas the modelled means are representative for the whole period (small variance). Wind is one factor that influences the snow layer thickness and its natural variability at all lakes. As FLake is a 1-D model, there is no wind-driven transport of snow between the gridboxes and transport of snow is not accounted in REMO either. This missing process can increase the modelled snow layer thickness quite significantly. This is especially important for more windy locations, such as lakes Lappajärvi and Pyhäjärvi. Both of these lakes are located in the western part of Finland, which is very flat and due to the proximity of Gulf of Bothnia also windy (see the orography in Fig. 1). Another factor influencing snow thickness is the lake size. While in FLake all snow, even if falling on a thin ice layer, will accumulate over ice, in reality, the precipitated snow usually first forms a porous snow-ice layer before it starts to accumulate as pure snow. This happens especially over big lakes and thus, the modelled overestimation in the snow thickness can be partly explained by this process. On the other hand, this implies that the model overestimates the ice thickness even more than discussed above in connection to Fig. 6, because the measured ice thicknesses include both black ice and porous ice. Moreover, if we look at the Fig. [S3-S2](#) in the supplementary material where the measured and modelled snow amount on ice as well as the amount over land near lakes are shown, we can see that the modelled snow thicknesses over lakes are roughly between the measured thicknesses over ice and land. Lakes Lappajärvi and Pyhäjärvi make an exception as at these lakes the modelled snow thicknesses are close to the ones measured over land. This suggests that the main reason for the overestimated snow thickness at these lakes is the missing snow transport due to wind. Naturally, there is some transport also over land areas, but it is not as efficient as over lakes, because the land surfaces are usually not as flat as the lake surfaces leading to less efficient snow transport over land. Nevertheless, supplementary Fig. [S3-S2](#) shows that the modelled snow thicknesses on ice are not unrealistically high as they are within the measured snow thicknesses over lakes



and land. In summary, we have identified three factors contributing to the overestimated snow thickness on lakes: the missing porous ice and snow transport processes, and the too early ice season, which allows snow to accumulate longer.

## 4.2 Swedish, Russian and Estonian lakes

Lake temperatures in Sweden, Russia and Estonia are well captured by the model, as can be seen from Fig. 7. The model shows a small tendency to overestimate the lake temperatures, especially during spring. On the other hand, the autumn temperatures are well captured. The annual cycle is reproduced at all locations, although at lake Onega the summer peak is roughly 5 °C too high. Overall, the model gives realistic LWTs at all analyzed locations.

Figure 7 shows that the model overestimates the ice period length on all locations, except at Vörtsjärvi, where it is captured very well. At other locations, the start of the ice period is 1-2 months too early and the ice cover lasts roughly one month too long. The ice period definition issues are one part of the problem, but if we look at how much there is still modelled ice when the measurements show the end of the ice period, we can see that the values are still reasonably high (10-40 cm). This tends to indicate that the main problem is the cold bias in by the model, especially when taking into account the too early start of the ice season.

The ice period length analysis includes some error due to the definitions problems already discussed in the previous section (how to define when a lake is ice free). In addition, the cold temperature bias over the large area of the domain increases the length of the modelled ice periods. The bias has an impact especially over the lakes in Russia. Some of the error is also coming from the measurements. For example, for the lake Vättern, the ice period start time was calculated by using the mean of only two years (1981 and 1984; there were no other data for the years 1981-1985) and the start time differed in these two years by a month. In addition, the timing of the ice period can be quite difficult and this difference could be an explaining factor for differences in spring LWTs. One would expect that due to the earlier end of the ice season in the measurements, the LWTs would be higher in the measurements than in the model results, but this is generally not the case; rather, REMO-FLake even tends to overestimate the LWTs. Also, the measurement location can also play a role here; if it is close to the lake's shore, the modelled spring values will be underestimated and autumn time overestimated. However, there is no clear signal like this, which would indicate that the measurement location is not a crucial factor here.

## 4.3 Vertical profiles from specific lakes

We have also compared the vertical profiles of LWTs. The analysis has been done only for 5 Finnish lakes, because measurement data were not available for all the locations analyzed in Sec. 4.1 (see Table S1 from the supplementary material). Measurements are done during summer from a boat and winter through ice. The frequency of measurement data is usually 3 times per month and has some gaps during thin ice periods. This makes the measurement data frequency quite coarse compared to model data output frequency. Thus, we have filtered the model results to match the same dates as when the measurements were made. Additionally, as the measurements have some gaps, we have excluded from the analysis all mean values which are based only on 1 or 2 measurement data points, to avoid the artificial inflation of the weight of sparse data points.

The calculation of the modelled vertical profiles is done by using the shape factor, mixing layer depth, mixing layer temperature and bottom temperature (details of these variable and the calculation method can be found from Mironov (2008)). During the ice period, FLake does not change the mixing layer depth; instead the last value before the ice period is used for the whole ice season. In the analysis, we have set the mixing layer depth to zero during the ice season and otherwise used the modelled depth. The mean depths of the lakes are similar in the model as in reality (see Table 2), but the maximum depths are not available from Choulga et al. (2014). Thus, in Fig. 8 the measurement depth and model lake depth are on separate y-axes. In this way, we can compare the shapes of the temperature profiles while also looking into the actual temperatures. However, as the depths differ quite significantly, the profiles only tell how well the model captures the measured values in the current depth setup. With more realistic depths, the profiles could change and this error source should be kept in mind.

The vertical profiles in Fig. 8 have been averaged seasonally. The overall shapes of the temperature profile during winter is captured by the model, but there is some underestimation of the deeper temperatures. In this respect, lake Päijänne makes an exception as there REMO-FL shows higher temperatures close to the lake bottom than the measurements. The use of deep soil temperature for lake bottom sediment temperatures can cause error, which could explain the differences near lake bottoms. Nevertheless, the overall difference in temperature during winter is only up to 2 °C in any of the lakes. During spring the profiles differ more than during winter. The near-surface temperatures show a larger discrepancy, which probably results again from the model's cold bias: it prolongs the ice season during spring, thus lowering the near surface temperatures. The temperature profile at lake Päijänne is influenced quite a lot by the cold bias impacts and they shift the profile from the measured warmer top and colder bottom to the modelled colder top and warmer bottom. The spring difference in near-surface temperatures can be seen also from Fig. 6. At other locations, the modelled profiles are closer to the measured ones and overall the temperature difference stays within a few degrees.

During summer the profiles are fairly well captured. The measured and modelled surface temperatures are within 1-2 °C at all locations, but the near-surface temperatures differ at all locations. This is most probably caused by the assumed-shape representation of the temperature profile in the model combined with different depths between the model and measurements. Also, the near-bottom temperatures have a cold bias, especially at lake Pyhäjärvi, where it is almost 10 °C. This indicates that the bottom sediment temperature has some error, a 35-year long spin-up run was performed. The bottom temperatures are mainly lower in the model than in measurements at all locations and all seasons. This is somewhat surprising as the lakes are shallower in the model than in reality and thus, one could expect higher heat transfer from the atmosphere to the lake bottom in the model during open-lake seasons. It is possible that the initial bottom temperatures, i.e. the deep soil temperature taken from the ERA-Interim data, were too cold and the spin-up time was too short to correct this. However, we see no drift in the lake bottom temperatures which would suggest that this is not the reason.

The shapes of the temperature profiles during autumn are in reasonable accord with the measurements. The measured values are higher than the modelled ones at all locations. The near-surface values are within a couple of degrees, but the near-bottom temperatures differ by up to 5 °C. However, despite the differences and uncertainties related to analysis coming from the different lake depths, the seasonally averaged vertical profiles are realistic and show that the REMO-FLake has the capability to reproduce the vertical profiles of the lake temperatures.

## 5 Conclusions

In this work, the regional climate model REMO was interactively coupled with the lake model FLake (REMO-FLake). With the new version we have simulated the Fenno-Scandinavian climate over 35 years and evaluated the model in terms of climate and lake-related variables. Fenno-Scandinavia has a large number of lakes of various sizes, making it a very suitable domain for a coupled regional-lake model. In addition, we have tested how sensitive the model is to different lake parameters and how much the snow albedo scheme influences the winter time climate.

REMO-FLake can reproduce the Fenno-Scandinavian climate realistically. However, the REMO model tends to have an overall cold bias over northern areas when there is snow on the ground. This is also visible in REMO-FLake, which in fact enhances the cold bias in winter. The reason for this is that the standard model version gets the lake temperature and ice cover from the nearest sea-point, leading to unrealistic heat and moisture sources, and thus decreasing the underlying bias problem. Excluding the snowy seasons, REMO-FLake captures the Fenno-Scandinavian temperatures better than the original version. In terms of precipitation, REMO-FLake outperforms standard REMO in all other seasons than summer. During summer, the convective precipitation is too active in REMO-FLake leading to a wet bias over areas with a high lake density.

We analyzed in detail the lake water temperatures (LWT), ice thicknesses and snow amounts over ice from 10 different Finnish lakes. The results show that the model can capture the LWTs well, although there are some differences during spring due to the longer modelled ice period associated with the cold bias. The ice thicknesses tend to be overestimated, especially in areas where the cold bias is strongest. The snow thickness on ice also shows slight overestimation, which is caused either by the missing porous ice formation in FLake or the missing horizontal snow transport due to wind. Overall, the model performs well in terms of the variables analyzed. We also did some LWT and ice depth analysis for lakes outside Finland. This analysis showed that the model performs very well throughout the Fenno-Scandinavian domain. Ice depth and ice season length had some overestimations due to the cold bias in the model, but overall, the differences to measurements were small. The vertical lake temperature profiles were also analyzed and they showed that the modelled profiles have very similar features as the measured ones, while the modelled near-bottom temperatures are generally underestimated.

We did not analyze in detail the reasons for the cold bias in this work. However, we did test how sensitive the model is to the snow albedo scheme, which is originally based on a snow temperature approach. We implemented another scheme originating from the Biosphere-Atmosphere Transfer Scheme (BATS), which takes into account the aging of snow, soot loading, grain size and the influence of solar zenith angle. Our test simulations show that the snow albedo has only a minor impact on the cold bias. Although the snow albedos had differences between the two schemes, the impact on simulated climate is reduced by the rather low intensity of solar radiation during the snow season in Fenno-Scandinavia. A detailed analysis of the cold bias problems and causes behind it will be left for forthcoming [publications: model development steps and publications. In particular, it would be worth looking at the representation of snow physics at land, including snow heat conductivity.](#) From a technical point of view, the computational costs of the implemented lake model are insignificant, thus further suggesting the use of the new model version.

## 6 Code availability

The source code for FLake is publicly available (<http://www.flake.igb-berlin.de/>). The sources for REMO(-FLake) are available on request from the Climate Service Center Germany ([contact@remo-rcm.de](mailto:contact@remo-rcm.de)).

## 7 Data availability

- 5 Due to the very large size of the data files, the data are not publicly available, but they can be requested from the first author.

*Author contributions.* J.-P. Pietikäinen did the lake model coupling based on earlier work by J. Kaurola and the coding work for lake tiles and snow albedo. J.-P. Pietikäinen also planned the simulations, did major parts of the analysis and wrote the manuscript. T. Markkanen and Y. Gao helped with the connections between the main model and the lake model/tiles (in terms of soil and snow). K. Sieck and D. Jacob assisted with the main model structure (tiles) and physical processes. Johanna Korhonen gave her expertise on water temperature and ice and snow thickness measurement data. P. Räisänen gave his expertise on the snow albedo part and J. Ahola assisted with the lake temperature analysis. H. Korhonen and A. Laaksonen assisted in the analysis and manuscript writing phases and A. Laaksonen also initiated the work. The coauthors also helped with the manuscript by giving valuable comments.

*Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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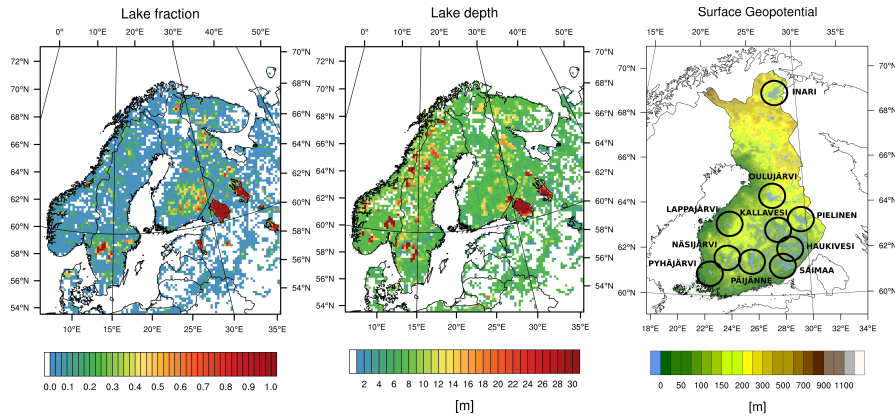
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**Table 1.** Simulation names with the configurations showing whether FLake is used or not, which snow albedo scheme ( $\alpha_{sn}$ ) is used and which snow heat conductivity ( $k_s$ ) method is used.

Simulation	FLake	$\alpha_{sn}$	$k_s$ (lakes)
REMO-ST	No	T-scheme	-
REMO-FL	Yes	T-scheme	Semmler et al. (2012)
REMO-FLB	Yes	BATS	Semmler et al. (2012)
REMO-FLTB	Yes	T-scheme + BATS	Semmler et al. (2012)
REMO-FLOS	Yes	T-scheme	FLake original



**Figure 1.** Lake fraction (left, based on GLCC data) and lake depth (center, based on Choulga et al. (2014) data) of the calculation domain. Additionally, the surface geopotential height of Finland and the locations and names of the analyzed Finnish lakes (right, based on Aalto et al. (2016) data).

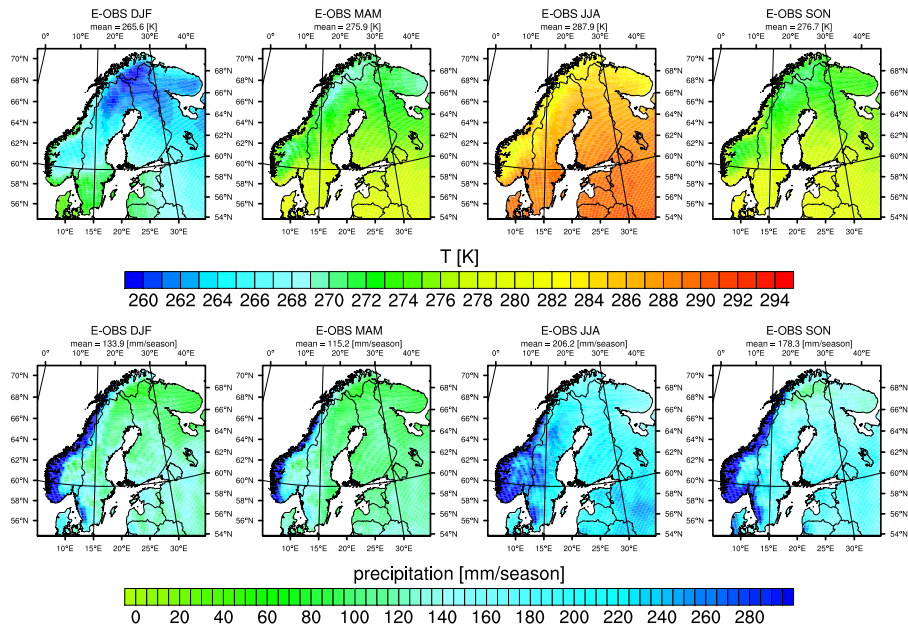
## Appendix A: Ice cover period analysis

**Table 2.** Analyzed lakes with their mean depth, mean depths applied in REMO and the lake area information for the REMO analysis (SYKE refers to the Finnish Environment Institute).

Lake	Data source	Mean depth [m]	REMO area mean depth [m]	REMO area longitudes	REMO area latitudes
Haukivesi (Fin)	SYKE	9.1	7.0	27.9 ↔ 28.9	61.9 ↔ 62.3
Inari (Fin)	SYKE	14.3	13.3	27.0 ↔ 28.6	68.7 ↔ 69.2
Kallavesi (Fin)	SYKE	9.7	7.0	27.4 ↔ 28.0	62.5 ↔ 63.0
Lappajärvi (Fin)	SYKE	6.9	16.0	23.4 ↔ 23.9	63.1 ↔ 63.3
Näsijärvi (Fin)	SYKE	13.7	7.0	23.5 ↔ 23.9	61.5 ↔ 61.9
Oulujärvi (Fin)	SYKE	7.0	6.8	26.7 ↔ 28.0	64.1 ↔ 64.6
Pielinen (Fin)	SYKE	10.1	9.8	29.0 ↔ 30.2	62.9 ↔ 63.6
Pyhäjärvi (Fin)	SYKE	5.5	5.4	22.1 ↔ 22.4	60.9 ↔ 61.1
Päijänne (Fin)	SYKE	14.2	14.5	25.1 ↔ 25.9	61.2 ↔ 62.2
Saimaa (Fin)	SYKE	10.8	13.6	27.7 ↔ 28.8	61.1 ↔ 61.6
Hjälmaren (Swe)	ILEC (1988-1993)	6.2	5.9	15.3 ↔ 16.3	59.1 ↔ 59.3
Mälaren (Swe)	ILEC (1988-1993)	13.0	6.1	16.1 ↔ 17.1	59.2 ↔ 59.6
Vänern (Swe)	ILEC (1988-1993)	27.0	22.0	12.3 ↔ 14.1	58.4 ↔ 59.4
Vättern <sup>1</sup> (Swe)	ILEC (1988-1993)	41.0	29.0	14.1 ↔ 15.0	57.8 ↔ 58.8
	Benson and Magnuson (2000, updated 2012)				
Ladoga <sup>1</sup> (Rus) northern part	ILEC (1988-1993)	51.0	62.4	29.8 ↔ 33.0	60.8 ↔ 61.8
Ladoga <sup>1</sup> (Rus) whole lake	Benson and Magnuson (2000, updated 2012)	51.0	47.3	29.8 ↔ 33.0	59.9 ↔ 61.8
Onega <sup>1</sup> (Rus)	ILEC (1988-1993)	30.0	25.7	34.3 ↔ 36.5	60.9 ↔ 62.9
	Benson and Magnuson (2000, updated 2012)				
Võrtsjärv <sup>2</sup> (Est)	ILEC (1988-1993)	2.7	3.0	25.9 ↔ 26.2	58.1 ↔ 58.4

<sup>1</sup> lake temperature from ILEC (1988-1993) and ice cover period from Benson and Magnuson (2000, updated 2012)

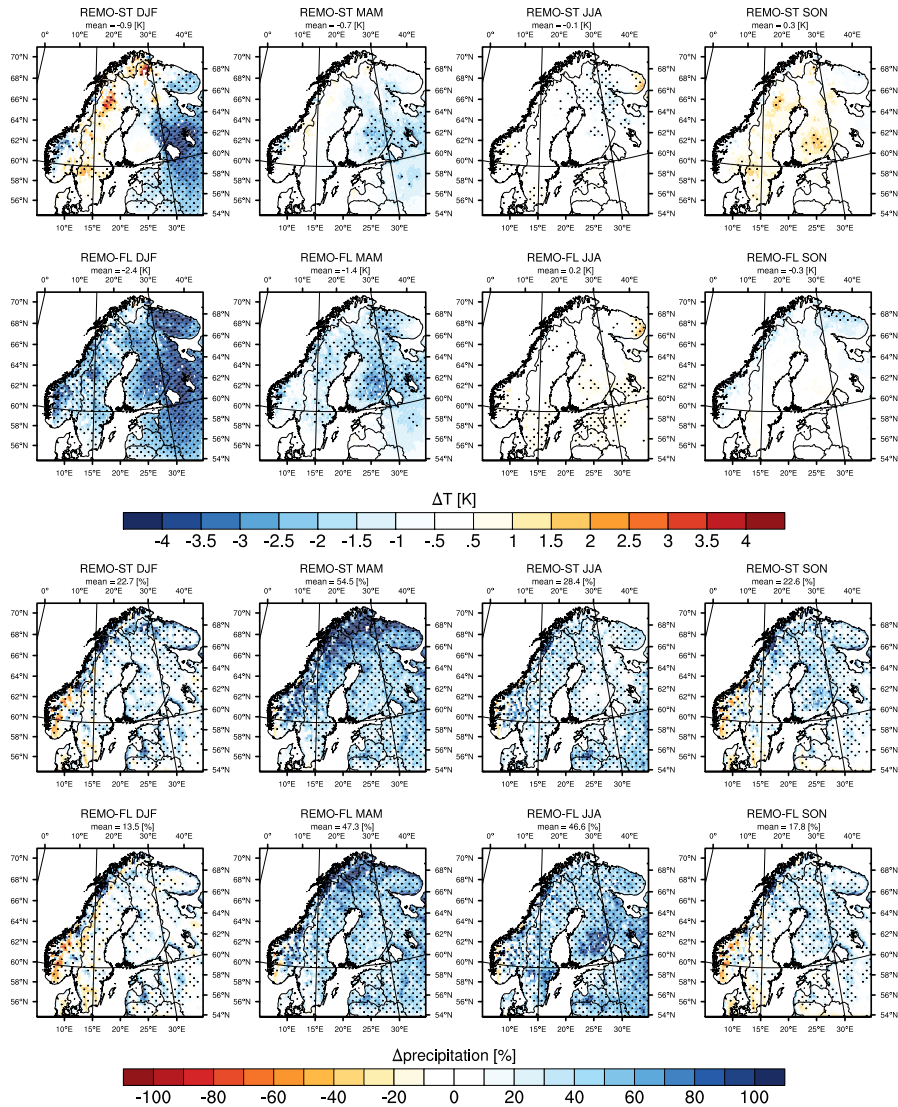
<sup>2</sup> lake temperature and ice cover period from ILEC (1988-1993)



**Figure 2.** The reference values of 2-m temperature and precipitation biases of standard-REMO (REMO-ST) and REMO with the FLake module (REMO-FL) compared to from E-OBS data. The seasonally averaged results are for the time period of October 1979 - March 2015.

**Table A1.** Measured ice-period start and end days (as the day of the year) and the length of the ice period in days. The differences to modelled values are also shown (model—measurements, i.e. when the values are negative, the model is too early in its prediction and when the values are positive, the model is late in its prediction). If the difference between measured and modelled ice-period start, end or length is less than two weeks, the values are boldfaced. The values have been averaged for the time period of 1979-2015.

	measured ice-period start	model difference	measured ice-period end	model difference	measured ice-period length	model difference
Haukivesi	339	-15	127	<b>7</b>	154	22
Inari	313	<b>-13</b>	151	<b>6</b>	204	19
Kallavesi	340	-17	130	<b>5</b>	156	22
Lappajärvi	330	<b>3</b>	126	<b>7</b>	<b>162</b>	<b>4</b>
Näsijärvi	350	-22	123	<b>3</b>	139	25
Oulujärvi	326	-17	138	<b>5</b>	178	22
Pielinen	330	<b>-14</b>	134	<b>8</b>	170	22
Pyhäjärvi	342	<b>-9</b>	116	<b>5</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>14</b>
Päijänne	347	<b>-13</b>	123	<b>12</b>	142	25
Saimaa	344	-17	119	<b>11</b>	141	28



**Figure 3.** 2-m temperature and precipitation biases of standard REMO (REMO-ST) and REMO with the FLake module (REMO-FL) compared to E-OBS data. The seasonally averaged results are for the time period of October 1979 - March 2015. Dots indicate statistically significant differences with  $p$ -values  $< 0.05$ .

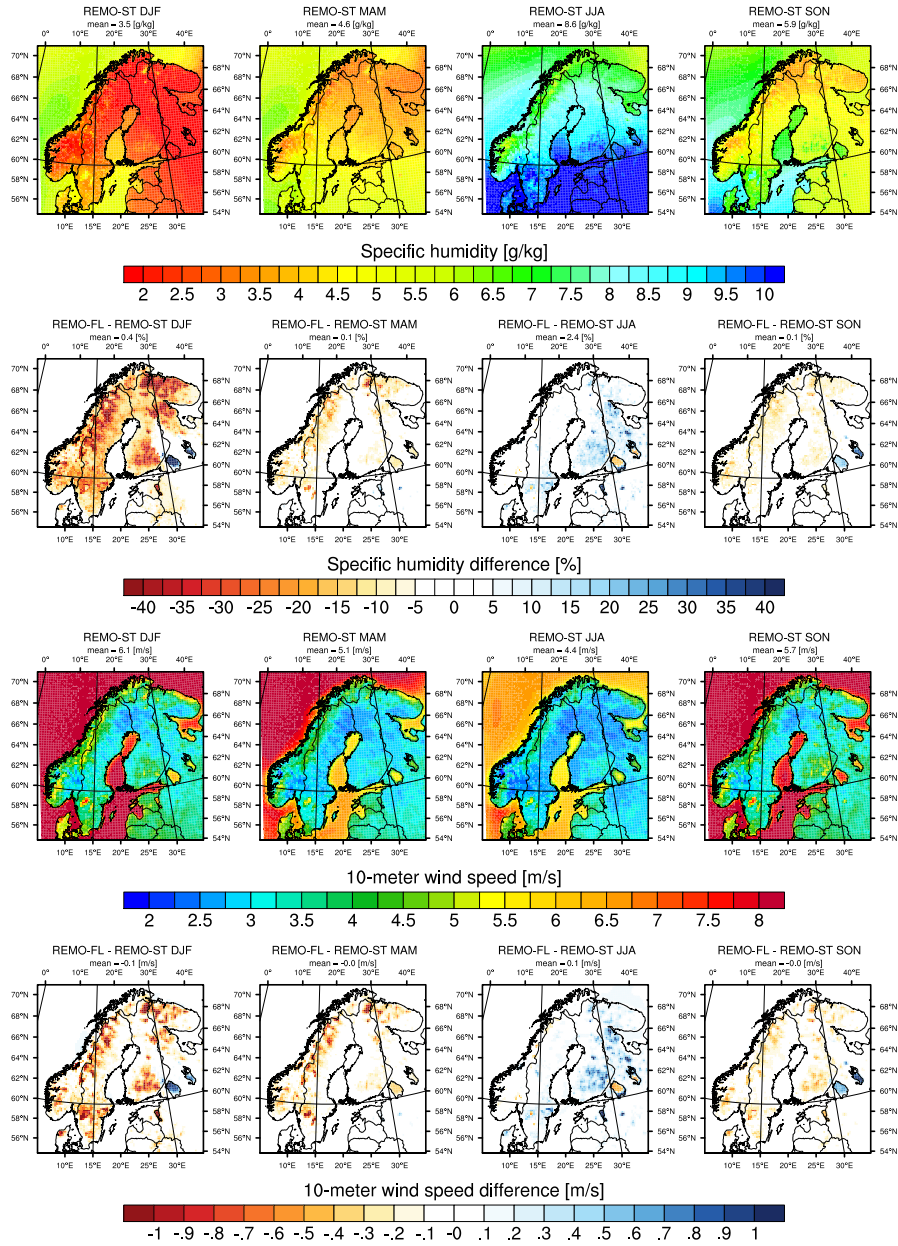
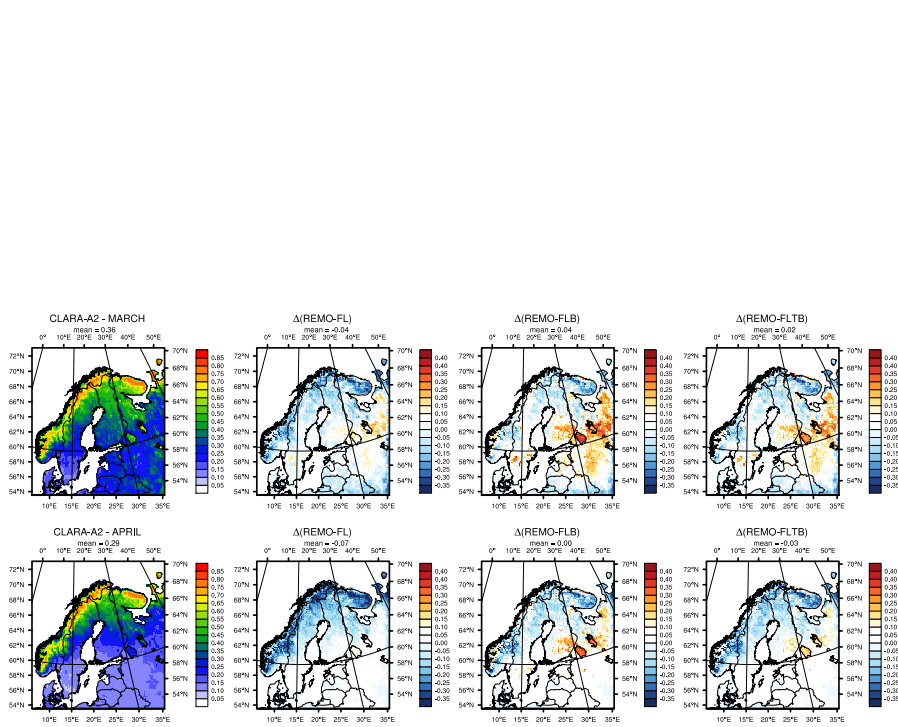
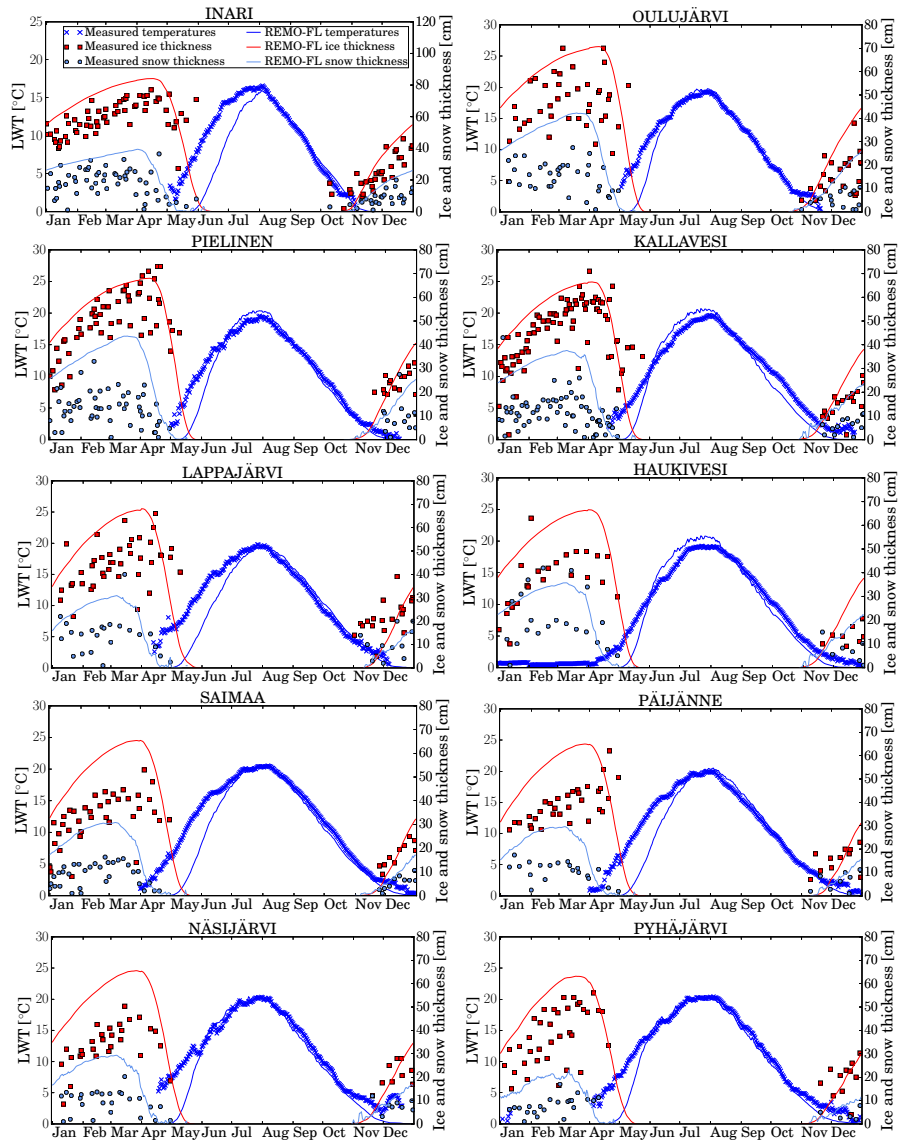


Figure 4. Specific humidity at the surface and 10-m wind speeds from standard REMO (REMO-ST) and the difference between REMO with the FLake module (REMO-FL) and REMO-ST. The seasonally averaged results are for the time period of October 1979 - March 2015.

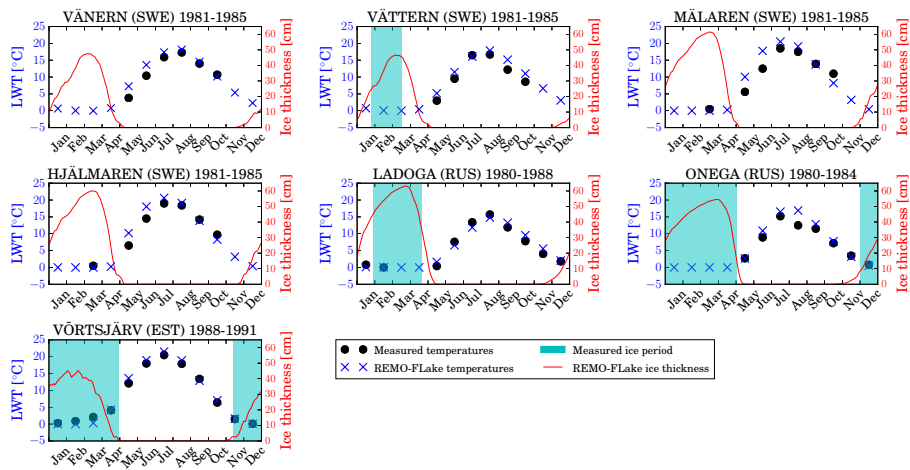


**Figure 5.** Monthly mean albedos for March and April from satellite data (CLARA-A2; Karlsson et al., 2017) and the corresponding bias (model-measurements) in the REMO-FL, REMO-FLB and REMO-FLTB runs. The monthly means are for the time period of 1982-2014 and only for land and lake surfaces.

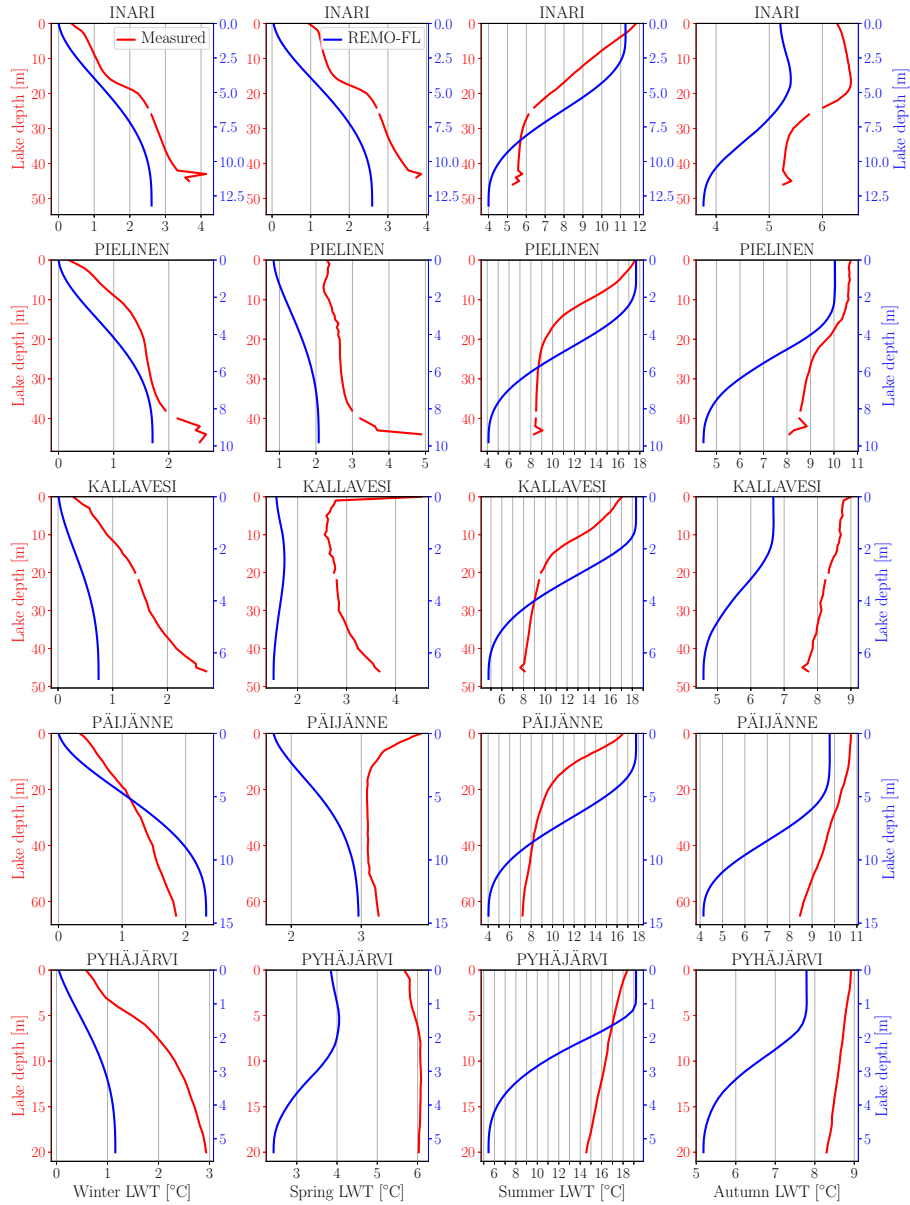


**Figure 6.** The measured and modelled daily averaged lake water temperatures (LWTs), ice thicknesses and the amount of snow on ice. The values have been averaged for the time period of October 1979 - March 2015.





**Figure 7.** Measured and modelled lake water temperatures (LWTs) and ice periods from Sweden, Russia and Estonia. The lake temperatures for Lake Ladoga are calculated only for the northern part (following the measurement approach), but the ice period and depth are for the whole lake.



**Figure 8.** Vertical profiles of the measured and modelled seasonally averaged lake water temperatures (LWTs) in different lake depths. The values have been averaged for the time period of 1979-2015. The lake depth is shown for measurements (red color) and model results separately (blue color). Also, we have averaged the model results only over those days when measurements were available, because the measurement frequency was low (a few times per month).