



1 **A long-term dataset of simulated epilimnion and hypolimnion**
2 **temperatures in 401 French lakes (1959-2020)**

3 Najwa Sharaf^{1,2}, Jordi Prats³, Nathalie Reynaud^{1,2}, Thierry Tormos^{1,4}, Tiphaine Peroux^{1,2},
4 Pierre-Alain Danis^{1,4}

5
6 ¹Pôle R&D Ecosystèmes Lacustres (ECLA), OFB-INRAE-USMB, Aix-en-Provence, France

7 ²INRAE, Aix Marseille Univ, RECOVER, Team FRESHCO, 3275 Route Cézanne, 13182 Aix-en-Provence,
8 France

9 ³Segula Technologies, C. Calàbria 169, 08015 Barcelona, Spain

10 ⁴OFB, Service ECOAQUA, DRAS, 3275 Route Cézanne, 13100 Aix-en-Provence, France

11
12 *Correspondence to:* Sharaf Najwa (najwa.sharaf@inrae.fr), Tormos Thierry (thierry.tormos@ofb.gouv.fr),
13 Reynaud Nathalie (nathalie.reynaud@inrae.fr)

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54 **1. Abstract**

55 Understanding the thermal behavior of lakes is crucial for water quality management. Under climate change,
56 lakes are warming and undergoing alterations in their thermal structure, including surface and deep-water
57 temperatures. These changes require continuous monitoring due to the possible major ecological implications on
58 water quality and lake processes. With the scarcity of long-term in situ water temperature datasets, we present a
59 regional long-term water temperature dataset (LakeTSim: Lake Temperature Simulations) produced over 401
60 French lakes by combining numerical modelling and satellite thermal data. The dataset consists of daily
61 epilimnion and hypolimnion temperatures for the period 1959-2020 simulated with the semi-empirical OKPLM
62 (Ottozon-Kettle-Prats Lake Model). We also describe this model and its performance. We present the
63 uncertainty analysis of simulations with default (parametrized with satellite thermal data over all lakes and in
64 situ measurements) and calibrated (with in situ temperature measurements for each lake) model parameters as
65 well as the sensitivity analysis of the latter. Overall, the 90% confidence uncertainty range is largest for
66 hypolimnion temperature simulations with a median of 8.5 °C and 2.32 °C respectively with default and
67 calibrated parameter values. There is less uncertainty associated with epilimnion temperature simulations with a
68 median of 5.42 °C and 1.85 °C before and after parameter calibration. This dataset will help provide insight into
69 the thermal functioning of French lakes. It provides over six decades of epilimnion and hypolimnion temperature
70 data, crucial for climate change studies at a regional scale. The dataset will also be of great advantage for
71 decision making by stakeholders.

72 **2. Introduction**

73 Lakes, both natural and artificial (i.e., reservoirs and gravel pits) are sentinels of environmental change and
74 provide important services such as access to drinking water, hydropower production, recreation and fisheries
75 (Adrian et al., 2009). Under climate change and anthropogenic pressures, many lakes are warming and
76 consequently experiencing changes to their biophysicochemical structure and function that are leading to
77 services being compromised (Janssen et al., 2021).

78 In lakes, water temperature is an essential parameter regulating processes such as the functioning of trophic
79 webs, oxygen conditions, the physical structure of the water column as well as the biogeochemistry (Yang et al.,
80 2018). Under warming, historical records and future projections demonstrate that for lakes, alterations in the
81 thermodynamic functioning including warmer temperatures and shifts in mixing regimes already took place and
82 are expected to persist in the future (Shatwell et al., 2019; Woolway and Merchant, 2019). In this context, they
83 are undergoing shorter periods of ice cover and longer, more stable periods of thermal stratification (Woolway et
84 al., 2022). These alterations could have considerable ecological implications for the biological communities
85 (Lind et al., 2022; Havens and Jeppesen, 2018). For instance, worldwide studies have shown that the expansion
86 of toxic cyanobacterial blooms is linked to warming (Griffith and Gobler, 2020). Other responses include species
87 reduced body size (Daufresne et al., 2009), changes in thermal habitat and shifts in species seasonality
88 (Kharouba et al., 2018).

89 For assessing the impact of climate change on lake ecosystems it is thus crucial to closely evaluate water
90 temperature trajectories over the entire water column in space and time. However, long-term datasets of in situ
91 temperatures are usually scarce and mostly limited to large lakes (Layden et al., 2015). Moreover, the sampling



92 of water temperature differs in terms of approach and frequency, from decades (Piccolroaz et al., 2020) to a few
93 years (Sharma et al., 2015), thus rendering it challenging to investigate warming trends.

94 Due to the difficulties in conventional in situ monitoring, which is often expensive, the coupling of modelling
95 and satellite remote sensing data has become fundamental in the field of limnology (Nouchi et al., 2019).
96 Modelling provides means to interpolate both temporal and spatial gaps. It thereby allows us to acquire
97 information about surface water temperatures, which are globally the focus of lake climate change studies, and
98 deep-water temperatures which are as critical though often disregarded in this context. Several numerical models
99 that vary in complexity exist for conducting water temperature simulations, the most accurate being deterministic
100 or process-based models. Nevertheless, regional or global deterministic modelling efforts over long periods are
101 usually hindered by the lack of sufficiently detailed input data (e.g., meteorological and field data) to run the
102 models (Kim et al., 2021). For practical and operational purposes, simpler models (semi-empirical, statistical or
103 hybrid physical-statistical based models) with less requirements for forcing data, have been mostly applied to
104 assess the impact of climate change on lake ecosystems and study them (Piccolroaz et al., 2020; Toffolon et al.,
105 2014; Sharma et al., 2008). For conducting long-term simulations over a considerable number of lakes, this type
106 of models is especially useful for detecting trends in time series, which with short datasets is not accurately
107 achievable (Gray et al., 2018).

108 The performance of numerical models depends highly on the calibration of their parameters as well as on the
109 quality of the input data. Satellite remote sensing is an effective way to monitor surface water temperature on a
110 synoptic scale (Schaeffer et al., 2018; Sharaf et al., 2019) and provide a complementary source of data to in situ
111 measurements for model calibration or validation purposes (Allan et al., 2016; Babbar-Sebens et al., 2013). In
112 particular, thermal infrared sensors onboard the Landsat satellites are very adequate for retrospective analysis of
113 surface water temperature with a spatial resolution adapted for small to medium size lakes and reservoirs at a
114 bimonthly acquisition frequency. Landsat 4 and 5 TM (Thematic Mapper), 7 ETM+ (Enhanced Thematic
115 Mapper) and 8 TIRS (Thermal InfraRed Sensor) provide surface temperature data at spatial resolutions of 120,
116 60 and 100 m respectively. Landsat series records of surface water temperature can be used to validate 3D
117 hydrodynamic models when in situ measurements are scarce (Sharaf et al., 2021) and to spatially assess the
118 quality and suitability of aquatic habitat for biological communities (Halverson et al., 2022). Although, satellite
119 thermal data is limited to the surface, its integration into model calibration could improve the accuracy of
120 simulations over the surface layer and the water column (Javaheri et al., 2016).

121 Here we present on a regional scale, a long-term dataset, LakeTSim (Lake Temperature Simulations), of daily
122 epilimnion and hypolimnion temperature simulations for the period 1959-2020 over 401 French lakes monitored
123 under the Water Framework Directive (WFD) including natural and artificial lakes, reservoirs and gravel pits.
124 We present the OKPLM (Ottosson-Kettle-Prats Lake Model) used to produce water temperature simulations and
125 its performance. Further, we provide the uncertainty analysis of simulations with default (parametrized with
126 satellite thermal data over an entire set of lakes) and calibrated (with in situ temperature measurements for each
127 lake) model parameter values as well as the sensitivity analysis for the latter. The goal of publishing this dataset
128 is to provide new insight about surface and deep-water temperatures of lakes in France especially for those that
129 are not monitored regularly through conventional methods. This long-term dataset is valuable for developing
130 temperature indicators for identifying warming trends, extreme events and possible changes in the mixing regime



131 among others. These indicators will contribute to assess the impact of climate change on lakes thermal
132 functioning and its influence on the biological community structure and trophic webs.

133 3. Data and methodology

134 3.1. The OKP Lake Model description

135 The OKPLM (Ottosson-Kettle-Prats Lake Model) is a two-layer semi-empirical data model adapted from Kettle
136 et al (2004) for the epilimnion module and Ottosson & Abrahamsson (1998) for the hypolimnion module. It was
137 further modified in Prats & Danis (2019) and used to simulate daily epilimnion and hypolimnion temperatures of
138 401 French lakes. These modifications consisted mainly of simplifying the mixing algorithm used in Ottosson &
139 Abrahamsson (1998) using a basic stability condition whereas for the epilimnion module a sinusoidal fit to
140 average daily solar radiation was used instead of the theoretical clear-sky radiation. The OKPLM also runs on
141 weekly and monthly frequencies. The regionalization of the parameters of the model mainly depends on the
142 geographical and morphological properties of the lake (maximum depth, volume, surface area, latitude and
143 altitude). The model requires few meteorological forcing data: solar radiation and air temperature.

144 The model calculates water temperature as follows:

$$145 T_{e,i} = A + Bf(T_{a,i}^*) + CS_i \quad (1)$$

146 where T_e is the epilimnion temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), i is the day number, A, B and C are calibration parameters, S is the
147 solar radiation (W m^{-2}) and $f(*)$ is an exponential smoothing function with $T_{a,i}^*$ defined as:

$$148 T_{a,i}^* = T_{a,i} - MAAT \quad (2)$$

149 where $T_{a,i}$ is air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and $MAAT$ is the annual mean air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

$$150 T_{h,i} = A \cdot D + E \cdot g(T_{e,i}) \quad (3)$$

151 where T_h is the hypolimnion temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), D and E are calibration parameters and $g(T_{e,i})$ is an exponential
152 smoothing of T_e .

153 The OKPLM is integrated into a Python 3 package, “ALAPROD” (A LAke MODElling project-PRODUCTION)
154 which for the present study was used to simulate epilimnion and hypolimnion water temperatures (Danis, 2020).
155 ALAPROD is part of a software environment called ALAMODE. In addition to lake water temperature, this
156 package can also be used to make simulations of stream water temperature, hydrodynamics and stream flow
157 rates. In this package OKPLM can be run in two modes: the “default” mode where model parameters use the
158 parameterization presented in Prats & Danis (2019), and the “calibrated” mode where model parameters are
159 calibrated individually for each lake by using in situ temperature measurements. The “default” parameterization
160 provides expressions of the model parameters as a function of lake characteristics (latitude, altitude, surface,
161 volume, depth). The expressions for epilimnion module parameters were derived using surface temperatures
162 estimated from Landsat infrared data acquired between 1999 and 2016 over French lakes (Prats et al., 2018),
163 while the parameterization of hypolimnion parameters was derived from temperature profile data of 357 lakes.



164 **3.2. Input data**

165 The OKPLM was forced with two sources of meteorological data extracted from the SAFRAN (Système
166 d'Analyse Fournissant des Renseignements Adaptés à la Nivologie) analysis system (Durand et al., 1993) and
167 the S2M (SAFRAN–SURFEX/ISBA–Crocus–MEPRA) meteorological reanalysis (Vernay et al., 2015, 2022).

168 The SAFRAN system provides meteorological variables at an hourly time step estimated through interpolation
169 and assimilation processes with an 8 km square grid. Average daily data from the nearest grid cell was selected
170 for each study site. The difference in altitude between the study site and the grid cell was accounted for by
171 applying an adiabatic elevation correction on air temperature.

172 The S2M model chain combines the SAFRAN meteorological analysis and the SURFEX/ISBA–Crocus snow
173 cover model including MEPRA (Modèle Expert d'Aide à la Prévision du Risque d'Avalanche). It is more
174 adapted to mountainous regions as it has a spatial definition where spatial heterogeneity is taken into
175 consideration. The S2M reanalysis uses a vertical resolution of 300 m and is the result of simulations performed
176 over mountainous zones called “massifs” each corresponding approximately to an average surface of 1000 km².
177 These massifs represent the spatial variability of processes in mountainous regions. Average daily data was used
178 for each study site.

179 In situ temperature profiles, geographical and morphological data of the study sites were extracted from the
180 PLAN_DEAU database managed by INRAE (l'Institut National de Recherche pour l'Agriculture, l'Alimentation
181 et l'Environnement) and R&D consortium ECLA (ECosystèmes LAcustres) at Aix-en-Provence, France.

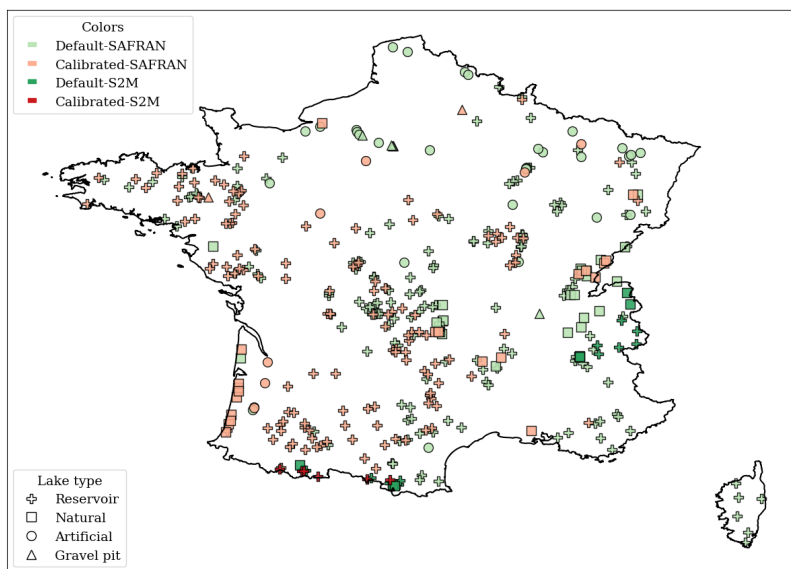
182 **3.3. Lake simulations**

183 For this study, we considered 401 lakes (Figure 1) located in Metropolitan France monitored according to the
184 Water Framework Directive (WFD). Here we refer to lakes as natural lakes, reservoirs, artificial lakes and gravel
185 pits. The present lake dataset includes 54 natural lakes, 302 reservoirs, 38 artificial lakes and 7 gravel pits that
186 have characteristics ranging between 0 and 2279.7 m for altitude, 0.8 and 309.7 m for maximum depth, 0.08 and
187 577.12 km² for surface area and 5×10^4 and 8.9×10^{10} m³ for volume.

188 The OKPLM was run using “default” and “calibrated” parameters with two sources of meteorological data
189 “SAFRAN” and “S2M” over specific sets of lakes. Among the total number of study sites ($n=401$), the model
190 was forced using SAFRAN and S2M meteorological data respectively for 210 and 21 lakes with “default” model
191 parameters, and for 164 and 6 lakes with “calibrated” model parameters. The geomorphological characteristics
192 of the simulated lakes with each of the abovementioned configurations are shown in Table 1. “Calibrated” model
193 parameters are adopted when in situ temperature measurements are available; conversely, “default” parameters
194 are used. S2M data are more representative of mountainous meteorological conditions than SAFRAN data and
195 were thus used for simulating the water temperature in lakes situated at altitudes higher than 900 m.

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Figure 1 : Location and lake type of the 401 French lakes simulated with the OKPLM in “default” and “calibrated” modes, with SAFRAN and S2M meteorological data for the period 1959-2020.

Table 1: Characteristics of the lakes simulated with the OKPLM in “default” and “calibrated” modes with SAFRAN and S2M meteorological data for the period 1959-2020; *n* represents the number of lakes.

Variables	Minimal - Maximal range			
	Default		Calibrated	
Model parameters	SAFRAN	S2M	SAFRAN	S2M
Meteorological data	SAFRAN	S2M	SAFRAN	S2M
<i>n</i>	210	21	164	6
Altitude (m)	1 - 1753	916 - 2213	0 - 2279.7	1577.5 - 2172.5
Latitude (°N)	41.47 - 50.87	42.55 - 46.21	42.88 - 49.87	42.65 - 42.86
Longitude (°E)	-3.90 - 9.48	0.08 - 6.94	-4.24 - 6.96	-0.33 - 1.92
Maximal depth (m)	0.8 - 309.7	10.3 - 180	1.2 - 124	49 - 112
Surface area (km ²)	0.08 - 577.12	0.11 - 6.52	0.29 - 57.57	0.45 - 1.21
Volume (m ³)	5×10 ⁴ - 8.9×10 ¹⁰	51.4×10 ⁴ - 33.32×10 ⁷	12.9×10 ⁴ - 49.88×10 ⁷	72.7×10 ⁵ - 68.6×10 ⁶

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200 3.4. Calibration, uncertainty and sensitivity analysis

201 The initial assessment of the quality of OKPLM simulations described in the previous section has been
 202 completed with a sensitivity and uncertainty analysis. For calibration and uncertainty analysis we used the



203 package “CUSPY” (Calibration, Uncertainty analysis and Sensitivity analysis in PYthon), which is part of the
 204 software environment “ALAMODE” (Danis, 2020) and acts as an interface to the package “pyemu” (White et
 205 al., 2016).

206 Parameter values were calibrated for lakes with enough available in situ data (temperature profiles and
 207 bathymetry). Parameter values were calibrated using the Gauss-Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm and Tikhonov
 208 regularization (White et al., 2020). In addition to the calibrated parameter values, the calibration process also
 209 provided posterior parameter uncertainty and composite scaled sensitivities. Composite scaled sensitivities
 210 (CSS) indicate the quantity of information provided by each parameter and the sensitivity of the model to them
 211 (Ely, 2006).

212 The uncertainty of the simulations (calibrated and default) was analyzed using Monte Carlo simulations. For
 213 each lake, 100 Monte Carlo simulations were carried by randomly selecting the value of the model parameters.
 214 Two parameters, *at_factor* and *sw_factor*, multiplying the meteorological input, were added to account for
 215 possible uncertainties in input data. For default simulations, the a priori distribution of the parameters was
 216 assumed to follow a normal distribution with the average value and lower and upper bounds shown in Table 2.
 217 The ranges for parameters *A*, *B* and *C* were estimated as four times the standard deviation of the residuals of the
 218 formulas used to estimate them according to Prats & Danis (2019). For *D*, *E* and β , given their higher
 219 uncertainty, the full 0-1 range was explored. For *MAAT*, *at_factor* and *sw_factor*, reasonable ranges ($\pm 10\%$)
 220 were chosen to account for meteorological data uncertainty (measurement error, errors in regionalization, etc.).
 221 For calibrated simulations, the distribution of the parameters was obtained from the calibration results.

Table 2: Characteristics of the a priori distributions of the model parameters. Parameters with tilde indicate parameter values estimated for a particular lake according to the regionalization formulas by Prats & Danis (2019).

Parameter	Average value	Lower bound	Upper bound
<i>A</i>	\hat{A}	$\hat{A} - 2 \cdot 0.74$	$\hat{A} + 2 \cdot 0.74$
<i>B</i>	\hat{B}	$\hat{B} - 2 \cdot 0.08$	$\hat{B} + 2 \cdot 0.08$
<i>C</i>	\hat{C}	$\hat{C} - 2 \cdot 0.004$	$\hat{C} + 2 \cdot 0.004$
<i>D</i>	\hat{D}	0	1
<i>E</i>	\hat{E}	0	1
α	$\hat{\alpha}$	0	$\hat{\alpha} + 2 \cdot 0.08$
β	$\hat{\beta}$	0	1
<i>MAAT</i>	$M\hat{A}AT$	$M\hat{A}AT - 2 \cdot 0.5$	$M\hat{A}AT + 2 \cdot 0.5$
<i>at_factor</i>	1	0.9	1.1
<i>sw_factor</i>	1	0.9	1.1

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223 4. Model performance

224 The performance of the OKPLM was assessed in Prats & Danis (2019) by comparing its performance to two
225 other often-applied models in lake studies, air2water and FLake. The air2water model is a semi-empirical model
226 used to calculate the epilimnion temperature of temperate lakes (Toffolon et al., 2014). Flake is a one-
227 dimensional (1D) hydrodynamic lake model for simulating temperature vertical profiles and mixing conditions
228 in lakes (Mironov, 2008). To assess their performances, both models were run with default parameter values
229 between 1999 and 2016 over a set of 409 French lakes of different types (reservoirs, natural lakes, artificial lakes
230 and gravel pits) with temperature measurements including five lakes with continuous profile measurements.
231 Meteorological forcing (SAFRAN) consisted of air temperature for the air2water model in addition to solar
232 radiation, vapor pressure, cloud cover and wind speed for Flake.

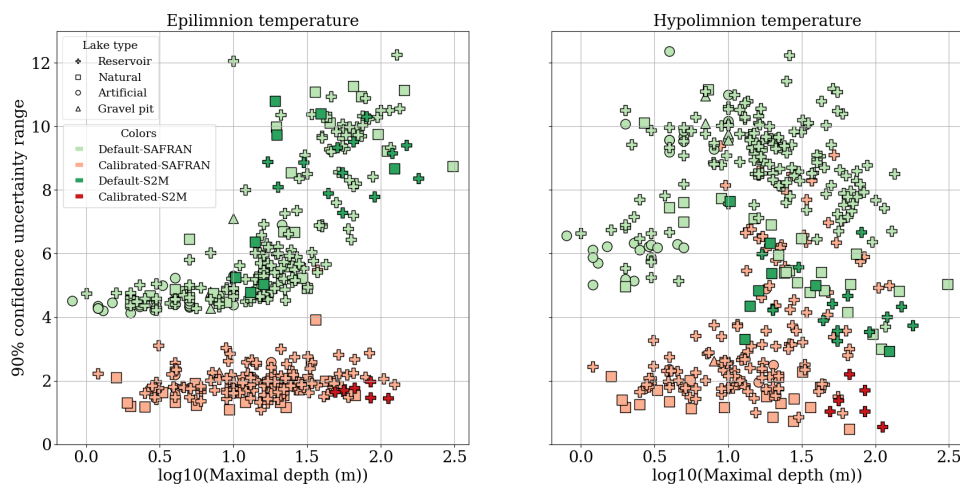
233 The OKPLM, air2water and FLake simulations were assessed through comparison to in situ measurements. For
234 epilimnion temperatures, the average discrepancies calculated between OKPLM simulations and observations
235 remained below 2 °C in most cases, in contrast to the air2water and Flake models. The performance comparison
236 between the OKPLM, air2water and FLake yielded respectively median RMSE's (Root Mean Square Error) of
237 1.7, 2.3 and 2.6 °C calculated between simulations and observations of epilimnion water temperature. For
238 hypolimnion temperatures, the median RMSEs by lake type obtained with OKPLM simulations remained below
239 2 °C, except for gravel pits (RMSE = 2.7 °C) and reservoirs (RMSE = 2.3 °C), whereas FLake yielded a median
240 RMSE of 3.3 °C. For the epilimnion, the differences between the RMSE of lake types were not significant. In
241 terms of depth, discrepancies between epilimnion temperature simulations with the OKPLM and measurements
242 were highest for lakes with a depth > 10 m and for ponds around 1 m deep. The OKPLM simulations were also
243 evaluated seasonally, in particular during summer and winter. The model simulated temperatures well with a
244 median RMSE of 1.4 and 1.6 °C in summer and winter respectively.

245 5. Uncertainty analysis

246 The uncertainty analysis revealed that, overall, for both simulations with default and calibrated model
247 parameters; uncertainty was higher and recurrent for hypolimnion temperature compared to epilimnion
248 temperature especially in reservoirs (Figure 2). In default simulations, the uncertainty of simulated values
249 showed a clear relation with lake maximal depth (Figure 2). For epilimnion temperature, uncertainty increased
250 with maximal depth in particular for lakes with depths greater than 10 m. For hypolimnion temperature,
251 uncertainty was maximal for lakes with depths around 10 m.

252 After calibration, there was an important reduction in simulation uncertainty. For default simulations of
253 epilimnion temperature the median of the 90% confidence uncertainty range was 5.42 °C, while after calibration
254 it was 1.85 °C. For hypolimnion temperature, the median of the 90% confidence uncertainty range of default
255 simulations was 8.5 °C, while it was 2.32 °C after calibration. However, many reservoirs with depths greater than
256 8 m still had a much greater uncertainty (uncertainty range > 4 °C) than the rest of lakes after calibration.

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Figure 2: Average 90% confidence uncertainty range for epilimnion and hypolimnion temperatures in calibrated ($n = 170$) and default ($n = 231$) simulations for the period 1959-2020.

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6. Sensitivity analysis

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The parameter to which the model was most sensitive was the parameter C (Figure 3), which multiplies solar radiation in Eq. (1). The CSS for C were an order of magnitude greater than for the next parameters with highest CSS, the parameter α and at_factor , both influencing the effect of air temperature on simulated water temperature. Other parameters to which the model was somewhat sensitive were E , B and β . The model was quite insensitive to sw_factor , MAT and A . The parameter D , with CSS several orders of magnitude smaller than the other parameters, was unidentifiable.

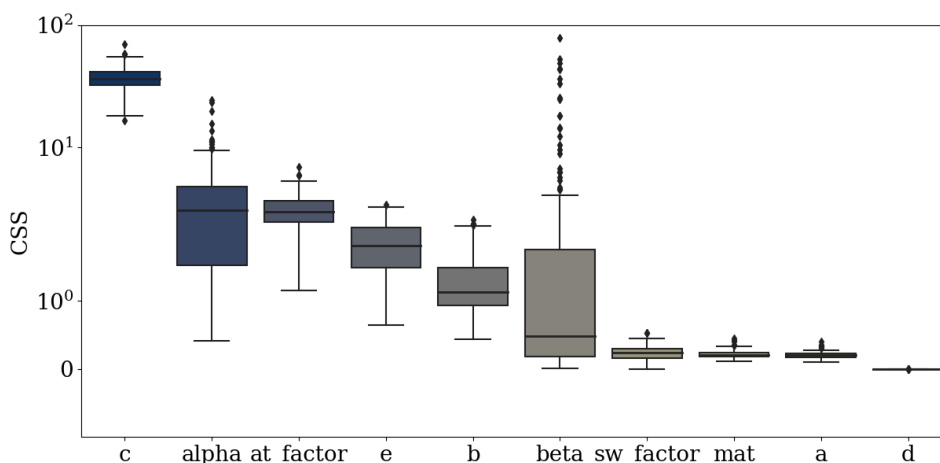
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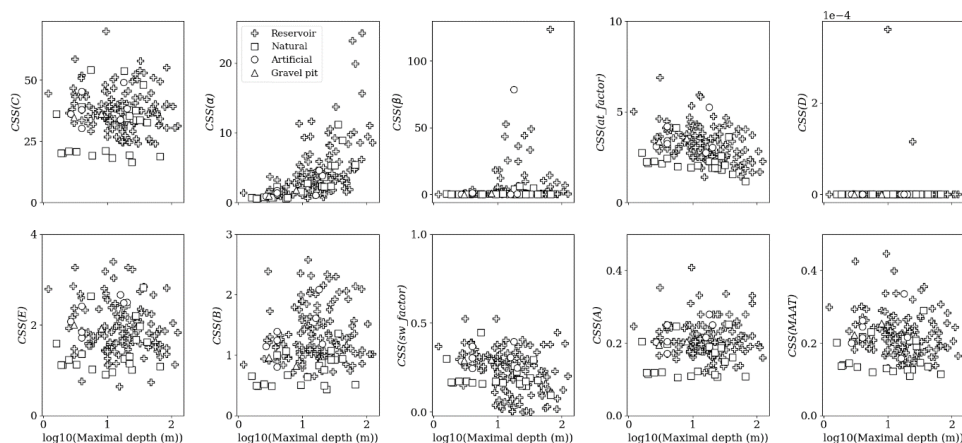
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Figure 3: Composite scaled sensitivities (CSS) for each parameter. The boxplots indicate the distribution of CSS between the simulations calibrated for different lakes. The y-axis is in logarithmic form.



268 The model tended to be more sensitive to the parameter values in the case of reservoirs than in the case of natural
269 lakes (Figure 4). Some parameters (α , β) also showed a dependency on lake depth. The increase of model
270 sensitivity to the parameter α with depth can be related with the increase in uncertainty with depth in the default
271 simulations. In the case of the parameter β , CSS were mostly low, with a median value of 0.49. However, for
272 some reservoirs and artificial water bodies CSS could attain very high values.

273 Although the model in general was not very sensitive to the values of the parameters most directly related with
274 hypolimnion temperatures (D , E , β), the quality of hypolimnion temperature was greatly improved through
275 calibration. This would seem to indicate that the quality of simulated hypolimnion temperature was improved
276 through the improvement of epilimnion temperature simulations.



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Figure 4 : Composite scaled sensitivities (CSS) for each model parameter as a function of maximal depth.

278 7. Discussion and implications

279 Lakes are undeniably changing under climate change and long-term future projections show that the shifts in
280 ecosystem functioning will continue with aggravated alterations. In particular, given the key role of warming
281 lake water temperature in regulating ecosystem processes, its warming has become a response that is crucial to
282 monitor, explore and understand. Hence, the importance of developing or adopting approaches, such as
283 numerical models, that will provide long-term information about water temperature and allow us to understand
284 the thermal response of lakes to climate change.

285 Here we used a semi-empirical model, the OKPLM, to simulate six decades of epilimnion and hypolimnion
286 water temperatures in French lakes. In comparison to similar models, overall, the OKPLM provides acceptable
287 estimations of water temperatures, with better results for epilimnion temperatures. The values of the RMSEs
288 provided in Prats & Danis (2019) and obtained between OKPLM simulations and observations are comparable to
289 values found in studies applying complex hydrodynamic lake models (Read et al., 2014; Fang et al., 2012). The
290 analysis revealed that the uncertainty associated with both epilimnion and hypolimnion temperature simulations
291 was highly related to maximal lake depth. The uncertainty in hypolimnion simulations is more important and
292 especially associated with reservoirs having maximal depths > 8 m. The calibration of model parameters



293 significantly reduced the uncertainties yet, for hypolimnion temperatures, they remained considerably high and
294 increased with depth especially in reservoirs.

295 The high levels of uncertainty found in reservoirs could be somewhat attributed to the lack of consideration of
296 water level fluctuations in the model. In contrast to other waterbodies (e.g., natural lakes, artificial lakes and
297 gravel pits) reservoirs experience significant variations in their water level, which influences the heat budget and
298 hence their thermal regime. Therefore, even under similar meteorological conditions lakes and reservoirs could
299 have different thermal behaviors (Nowlin et al., 2004). In reservoirs, the discharge depth is a driver of thermal
300 structure. Deep discharges could contribute to warmer bottom waters (Carr et al., 2020) whereas in some cases if
301 the reservoir is shallow or if the discharge depth is not deep, it could demonstrate lake-like thermal behavior.
302 This does not necessarily mean that, in this case, the entire functioning of the reservoir resembles one of a
303 natural lake; there are still differences to consider (Detmer et al., 2022).

304 The application of the OKPLM should be made with caution given its performance and depending on the
305 objective of the study. The model does not take into account a complete set of meteorological forcing (e.g., with
306 cloud cover, relative humidity and wind speed and direction) or other variables (e.g., inflow and outflow rates or
307 water level fluctuations, inflow discharge depth and inflow temperature) that could influence the thermal
308 structure of the ecosystem (Yang et al., 2020; Carr et al., 2020). Furthermore, the OKPLM was parametrized for
309 a specific set of lakes with particular geomorphological characteristics. Thus, it would be advisable to apply the
310 model over lakes with similar characteristics. If the aim is to conduct a long-term regional or global study for
311 studying general patterns of climate change impacts over a large number of study sites, the utilization of semi-
312 empirical models such as the OKPLM is the most suitable choice. Although complex, deterministic or process-
313 based models provide a more accurate representation of thermal conditions, applying these models over several
314 study sites and for long periods is usually hindered by the scarcity of the required input data. The increased
315 complexity of these models (with reference to an increased number of model parameters) is beneficial for
316 representing additional ecosystem processes. Yet the greater number of model parameters, increases the
317 sensitivity of models and demands more calibration efforts (Lindenschmidt, 2006). Furthermore, a reduction in
318 model errors is sometimes associated with an increased complexity in model structure; however, this is not
319 always consistent since a complex model does not necessarily provide better estimations and thus lower errors
320 than a simple model (Snowling and Kramer, 2001).

321 Our goal in publishing the present dataset is to expand knowledge about the water temperature of French lakes
322 and provide data, with enough details and reliability, that it could be implemented in different studies where
323 water temperature is implicated for understanding specific processes or interactions, in particular under climate
324 change. Hence the significance of the present findings. The present study, making use of a semi-empirical model
325 to provide long-term data about water temperature, was necessary for several reasons. Equipping a large number
326 of lakes with thermal sensors is challenging and labor-intensive, it comes with a high financial cost that is often
327 not available. Consequently, historical and even current water temperature datasets are often scarce, which can
328 be problematic for studying the impact of climate change, as it requires high frequency data over a long duration
329 of time for accurate analysis. In general, the higher the sampling frequency and duration, the better the data is
330 suited to estimate or analyze specific processes or warming trends. The sampling frequency and length of a
331 dataset have been shown to play a role in determining the accuracy of estimating warming trends where time



332 series longer than 30 years seem to be the most appropriate (Gray et al., 2018). Although, the duration and
333 frequency of a dataset have a major role in reflecting accurate representations, their influence is scarcely
334 addressed when it comes to climate change studies related to warming trends in water temperature.

335 This dataset is very useful for climate change studies; it could be used for developing and analyzing several
336 temperature indicators (e.g., annual or seasonal maximal and minimal temperature values, temperature exceeding
337 certain thresholds with biological implications, etc.). Further, mixing and stratification dynamics are important to
338 characterize as they drive lake biogeochemistry. Among other processes, they influence the distribution of
339 nutrients, primary productivity and the composition of phytoplankton and zooplankton communities along the
340 water column (Judd et al., 2005). With the LakeTSim dataset, it is possible to classify the mixing regime of lakes
341 and investigate possible triggers of regime shifts.

342 **8. Code availability**

343 The respective codes for the “CUSPY” (Prats-Rodríguez and Danis, 2023a) and “OKPLM” (Prats-Rodríguez
344 and Danis, 2023b) packages, which can be used to conduct sensitivity and uncertainty analysis and to run the
345 OKP Lake Model, are available at <https://github.com/inrae/ALAMODE-cuspy> and
346 <https://github.com/inrae/ALAMODE-okp> as well as ZENODO.

347 **9. Data availability**

348 The LakeTSim dataset (Sharaf et al., 2023) for epilimnion and hypolimnion water temperature simulations and
349 supporting information are available at [doi:10.57745/OF9WXR](https://doi.org/10.57745/OF9WXR). The file “00_Data_description.txt” contains a
350 description of the dataset. The geographical (longitude and latitude) and morphological (surface area, volume
351 and maximum depth) data for the 401 lakes are presented in the file “01_Lake_data.txt” in addition to the name,
352 type, altitude and the identification code for each lake. The data for daily epilimnion (tepi) and hypolimnion
353 (thyp) temperatures simulated with the OKPLM are presented in text files available in the folders
354 “02_LakeTSim_SAFRAN_OKPdefault_data”, “03_LakeTSim_SAFRAN_OKPcalibrated_data”,
355 “04_LakeTSim_S2M_OKPdefault_data” and “05_LakeTSim_S2M_OKPcalibrated_data”. Each file within these
356 folders is named according to the identification code of the lake.

357 **10. Conclusions**

358 We present the LakeTSim dataset and the semi-empirical OKP Lake Model for simulating water temperature in
359 Lakes. We applied the model over a set of 401 French lakes for the period 1959-2020 to derive daily simulations
360 of epilimnion and hypolimnion water temperatures, here referred to as the LakeTSim dataset. Previous efforts to
361 assess the model’s performance show an overall acceptable representation of epilimnion and hypolimnion
362 temperatures when compared to in situ measurements. The uncertainty analysis of simulations demonstrates that
363 more uncertainty is associated firstly with default simulations, secondly hypolimnion compared to epilimnion
364 temperatures and, thirdly deep lakes in particular reservoirs (maximal depth > 8 m). Although the calibration
365 significantly decreases the uncertainties related to both the epilimnion and hypolimnion, in some cases they are
366 still considerable for the latter. Based on these results and if enough observation data are available, optimally we
367 recommend the use of the OKPLM over shallow lakes with calibrated model parameters. However, if applied in
368 its default or even calibrated configuration over deep lakes, one should be aware of the presented limitations and
369 address them in the analysis. The LakeTSim dataset is valuable for assessing the impact of climate change on



370 lakes thermal functioning, which is often hindered by the lack of water temperature observations. The present
371 dataset will provide new insights about the thermal behavior of French lakes. This will be of great advantage for
372 stakeholders, as it should allow them to take better management strategies under climate change.

373 **11. Author contributions**

374 NS wrote the original manuscript with input from JP and PAD. NS, JP and PAD discussed the results. JP
375 developed and carried out the implementation of the OKP Lake Model and the uncertainties computation in
376 ALAMODE. JP and NS performed the simulations and provided uncertainty analysis results with SAFRAN and
377 S2M data respectively. JP and NS implemented respectively the integration of SAFRAN and S2M data in
378 ALAMODE. NS prepared the LakeTSim dataset. JP provided the uncertainty and sensitivity analysis. PAD
379 designed, contributed and supervised the implementation of S2M data in ALAMODE for forcing the OKPLM
380 when simulating high altitude lakes. PAD supervised the findings of this work. NR and TT supervised and
381 contributed to the implementation of simulation results in the database. NR processed S2M data. NR and TT
382 prepared the doi for the LakeTSim dataset. TP conducted the fieldwork for the monitoring, acquisition and
383 verification of in situ temperature data. All authors reviewed, edited and approved the final paper.

384 **12. Competing interests**

385 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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393 **15. References**

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