1 2	water balance of the Arctic drainage system using GRACE gravimetry products
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Abstract: Land water and snow mass anomalies versus time were computed from the inversion of 50 GRACE geoids (08/2002 - 02/2007) from the RL04 GFZ release and used to characterize the hydrology of the Arctic drainage system. GRACE-based time series have been compared to Snow Water Equivalent and snow depth climatologies, and snowfall for validation purpose. Time series of regional averages of water volume were estimated for the eleven largest Peri-Arctic basins. Strong correlations were found between the snow estimates and river discharges in the Arctic basins (0.49 to 0.8). Then changes in land waters storage have been compared to precipitation minus evapotranspiration fluxes to determine which flux of the hydrological budget controls the Arctic hydrology. Results are very contrasted according to the basin. Trends of snow and land water masses were also computed over the 2003-2006 period. Eurasian basins loose snow mass whereas North American basins are gaining mass.

1. Introduction

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The Arctic region is a major component of the global climate system and is expected to be importantly affected by global warming (Peterson et al., 2002). Although the Arctic Ocean holds only 1% of global volume of seawater, it receives 11% of the world's freshwater input (Lammers et al., 2001). The Arctic rivers discharges contribute 50% to the net flux of freshwater into the Arctic Ocean (Barry and Serreze, 2000). Arctic hydrological systems exhibit large temporal variability caused by large-scale changes in atmospheric circulation (Proshutinsky et al., 1999). Discharge observations indicate a significant increase in Arctic discharge since the mid-1930's, with an acceleration in the recent decades (Peterson et al., 2002; Serreze et al., 2003; McClelland et al., 2004; Stocker and Raible, 2005). Timing and magnitude of northern river streamflow are mostly influenced by winter snow mass storage and its subsequent melt (Rango, 1997; Cao et al., 2002; Yang et al., 2003; 2007; Déry et al., 2005; Dyer, 2008; Yang et al., 2009). The snow melt and associated floods during the spring/summer period are the most important hydrologic event of the year in the northern river basins (Cao et al., 2002; Yang et al., 2003). Changes in pattern of snow cover at high latitudes, such as the earlier start of snowmelt associated with warming in winter and spring seasons (Lammers et al., 2001; Kitaev et al., 2005; Groisman et al., 2006; Bulygina et al., 2007), may accentuate the variability of hydrologic regime at high latitudes in the context of global warming (Barnett et al., 2005).

The launch of the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) space mission in March 2002 enables, for the first time, detection of tiny temporal variations in Earth's gravity field (Tapley et al., 2004 a, b), which over land are mainly due to the vertically-integrated water mass changes inside aquifers, soil, surface reservoirs and snow pack, if effects of noise and residual errors from correcting models for atmosphere and ocean masses are neglected (Wahr et al., 1998; Rodell and Famiglietti, 1999; Swenson et al., 2003). Wahr et al., 2006 have shown that GRACE data over the continents provide information on the total land water storage with an accuracy of 15 - 20 mm of water thickness equivalent a spatial Gaussian average with a radius of 400 km. Ramillien et al. (2005) used an iterative inverse approach to estimate variations in continental water storage (i.e. all of the groundwater, soil water, surface water, snow and ice) and separate land waters and snow components from the GRACE RL02 data. Comparisons with model outputs and microwave observations have already demonstrated the quality of RL03 and RL02 land water and snow solutions derived by inverse method (Ramillien et al. 2005, 2006; Frappart et al., 2006). In a recent study, Niu et al. (2007) showed that the spatial pattern of snow derived from GRACE has a better agreement with climatologies than passive microwave estimates.

Our goal is to study the consistency of the snow mass variations derived from GRACE in terms spatial and temporal patterns. In this study, we will be able, for the first time, to compare direct measurements of total land water and snow storages with river discharges in the Arctic drainage system. Previously, Syed *et al.* (2007) estimated river discharge from several Arctic basins, and compared GRACE-derived land water storage (but not separate out snow storage) to observed and estimated discharge. In the present work we more directly characterize the relationship between total land water, snow storage and river discharge. We use the RL04 GRACE land water and snow solutions

computed using the method developed by Ramillien et al. (2005, 2006) to estimate time series of basin-scale land water and snow volume anomalies. We present estimates of Snow Water Equivalent (SWE) and Terrestrial Water Storage (TWS) anomalies from August 2002 to February 2007 for the eleven largest Arctic drainage basins, i.e., Yukon, Mackenzie, Nelson, Severnyy Dvina, Pechora, Ob, Yenisey, Kotya, Lena, Indigirka, Kolyma (figure 1). We validated the GRACE-derived snow solutions by comparing them with pan-Arctic snow depth climatologies from USAF/ETAC and the Arctic Climatology Project, a SWE climatology over North America and snowfall. While previous work has focused on the relationship between snow extent or depth and river runoff (Yang et al., 2003; Déry et al., 2005; Grippa et al., 2005), we compare continental water storage and snow volume variations derived from the inversion of GRACE geoids to in situ discharge for the largest Arctic river basins.

2. Datasets

2.1 GRACE-derived land water and snow mass solutions

We use the monthly land water and snow solutions derived from the inversion of 50 GRACE geoids from the fourth data release by GeoForschungZentrum (GFZ-RL04), as presented in Ramillien *et al.* (2005, 2006). These solutions range from August 2002 to February 2007, with a few missing months (September and December 2002, January, June and July 2003, January 2004). They represent anomaly of mass expressed in terms of equivalent water thickness.

The GRACE-based land water and snow solutions separately computed in Ramillien *et al.* (2005) are spherical harmonics of a surface density function $F(\theta, \lambda, k)$ that represents the global map of either land waters or snow mass:

$$F(\theta,\lambda,k) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=0}^{n} \left[C_{nm}^{F}(k) \cos(m\lambda) + S_{nm}^{F}(k) \sin(m\lambda) \right] \widetilde{P}_{nm} (\cos \theta)$$
 (1)

In Equation 1, θ and λ are co-latitude and longitude, k is the number of a given monthly solution. n and m are degree and order, \tilde{P}_{nm} is the associated Legendre function, and $C_{nm}^{\ F}(t)$ and $S_{nm}^{\ F}(t)$ are the normalized water (or snow) mass coefficients (units: mm of equivalent water height) which were estimated by inversion (Ramillien $et\ al.$, 2005). In practice, the spherical harmonic development cutoff N used for the land water solutions is limited to degree N=50. This corresponds to a spatial resolution of ~400 km at the surface of the Earth. The GRACE-based land water and snow maps were interpolated on 1° x 1° regular grids.

2.2 Snow depth climatologies

2.2.1 Global snow depth multi-year average

USAF/ETAC (United States Air Force/Environmental Technical Applications Center USAF/ETAC) climatology is a 1°x1° monthly gridded dataset composed of snow depths averaged over an approximately 30-year window ending in the 1980s. The data

comes from various sources with varying degrees of accuracy, and was manually edited and interpolated using relatively simple methods (Foster and Davy, 1988).

2.2.2 American-Russian snow depth climatology

The Environmental Working Group (EWG) Climatology Project compiled data on Arctic regions to expand scientific understanding of the Arctic and edited a set of complementary atlases for Arctic oceanography, sea-ice, and meteorology, under the framework of the U.S.-Russian Joint Commission on Economics and Technological Cooperation (Arctic Climatology Project, 2000). The snow climatology is a gridded dataset in ASCII EASE Grid format with a cell size of 250 km of monthly mean snow depth fields over the period 1966-1982.

2.2.3 Gridded Monthly SWE climatology over North America

The Canadian Meteorological Service developed an operational snow depth analysis scheme which uses extensive daily snow depth observations from Canada and the USA to generate grids of snow depths and SWE at a resolution of 0.25° (Brassnet, 1999). The monthly climatology grids were derived from daily snow depth and SWE grids covering the hydrological years 1979/80 to 1996/97. The gridded output is dominated by observations South of about 55° N. North of 55° N, the output is dominated by the snow model. SWE was estimated using the density values simulated by the snow model (Brown *et al.*, 2003).

2.3 Snowfall derived from GPCP rainfall

The Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP), established in 1986 by the World Climate Research Program, provides data that quantify the distribution of precipitation over the whole globe (Adler *et al.*, 2003). We use here the Satellite-Gauge Combined Precipitation Data product of GPCP Version 2 data for evaluating our estimates of monthly SWE variations in the pan-Arctic region. The GPCP products we are using are monthly means with a spatial resolution of 1° of latitude and longitude and are available from January 1979 to present. Over land surfaces, the uncertainty in the rate estimates from GPCP is generally lower than over the oceans due to the *in situ* gauge input (in addition to satellite) from the GPCC (Global Precipitation Climatology Center). Over land, validation experiments have been conducted in a variety of location worldwide and suggest that while there are known problems in regions of persistent convective precipitation, non precipitating cirrus or regions of complex terrain, the estimates uncertainties range between 10%–30% (Adler *et al.*, 2003).

Monthly snowfall is estimated from GPCP rainfall using the NCEP air temperature topographically adjusted (available from the Arctic Rims website: http://rims.unh.edu/) according to the following equation:

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$$P_{snow} = P_{tot}\theta(T_0 - T) \text{ with } \theta = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ if } T > T_0 = 2 \text{ °C} \\ \frac{T_0 - T}{2} \text{ if } 0 < T < T_0 \\ 1 \text{ if } T > 0 \end{cases}$$
 (2)

where P_{snow} is the estimated snowfall, P_{tot} is the GPCP rainfall, θ is a threshold function of air temperature, T the air temperature and T_0 the threshold air temperature (0°C).

2.4 Snow outputs from WGHM model

The Water GAP Global Hydrology Model (WGHM) computes 0.5° x 0.5° gridded time series of monthly runoff and river discharge and is tuned against time series of annual river discharges measured at 724 globally-distributed stations (Döll *et al.*, 2003). It also provides monthly grids of snow and soil water. The effect of snow is simulated by a simple degree-day algorithm. Below 0° C, precipitation falls as snow and is added to snow storage. Above 0° C, snow melts with a rate of 2 mm/day per degree in forests and of 4 mm/day in case of other land cover types. These monthly gridded data are available from January 2002 to June 2006.

2.5 River discharge measurements

The monthly river discharge measurements at the closest station to the mouth of each basin were obtained at the Arctic RIMS (Rapid Integrated Monitoring System) website (ArcticRIMS, 2003) for the eleven largest Peri-Arctic drainage basins which has developed a near-real time monitoring of pan- Arctic water budgets and river discharge to the Arctic Ocean. The availability of the data for each basin is reported in table 1.

2.6 Precipitation minus evapotranspiration dataset

 This dataset provides estimates of monthly precipitation minus evapotranspiration (P-ET) parameter using wind and humidity data from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis with the "aerological method" developed by Kalnay *et al.* (1996). The P-ET parameter is equivalent to the vertically-integrated vapor flux convergence adjusted by the time change in precipitable water. On monthly timescales, P-ET is dominated by the flux convergence term. NCEP/NCAR archives of vertical integrals of the monthly-mean zonal and meridional fluxes and precipitable water (based on 6-hourly values at sigma levels), are used to compute the flux differences. The P-ET fields are interpolated to the 25 km EASE grid. Details of the P-ET calculations and some climate applications are provided by Cullather *et al.* (2000) and Serreze *et al.* (2003).

2.7 Post-glacial rebound model

The Post-Glacial Rebound (PGR) designates the rise of land masses that were depressed by the huge weight of ice sheets during the last glacial period that ended between 10,000 and 15,000 years ago. It corresponds to a vertical elevation of the crust

which happens especially in Scandinavia, the Hudson Bay in Canada (and maybe Antarctica) and affects the long wavelength components of the gravity field.

The PGR model used in this study is made available by the GRACE Tellus website (http://grace.jpl.nasa.gov). This model is based on Paulson *et al.* (2007) study and uses the global ICE-5G deglaciation model of Peltier (2004). It assumes an incompressible, self-gravitating Earth. The mantle is a Maxwell solid, and overlies an inviscid core. More details on ICE-5G can be found in Peltier (2004). Effects of a dynamic ocean response through the sea level equation were included using the formulation of polar wander described by Mitrovica *et al.* (2005). Uncertainty on its estimates is supposed to be around 20% (Paulson *et al.*, 2007).

The GRACE Tellus website provides estimates of the rate of change of surface mass, expressed in mm.yr⁻¹ of equivalent water thickness. Degree-one terms were omitted when computing the mass, because they are not included in the GRACE solutions. The results were smoothed using a Gaussian averaging function of 500 km radius. The mass estimates are provided on a 1 x 1 degree grid, spaced a half-degree apart.

3. Validation of the GRACE-based Snow Water Equivalent

3.1 Annual cycle of GRACE-based SWE and comparisons with climatologies and GPCP-derived snowfall

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From the series of SWE anomaly grids derived from GRACE (using equation 1), the temporal trend, seasonal and semi-annual amplitude were simultaneously fitted by least-square adjustment at each grid point. We assumed that, at 1^{st} order, the changes of SWE $\delta q(t)$ at each grid point are the sum of a linear trend, an annual sinusoid (which

pulsation is $\omega_{ann} = \frac{2\pi}{T_{ann}}$, with $T_{ann} \sim 1$ year), a semi-annual sinusoid (which pulsation is

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$$\omega_{semi-ann} = \frac{2\pi}{T_{coming nm}}$$
, with $T_{semi-ann} \sim 6$ months) and water mass residuals $\delta q^{RES}(t)$:

$$\delta q(t) = At + B + C\cos(\omega_{ann}t + \varphi_{ann}) + D\cos(\omega_{semi-ann}t + \varphi_{semi-ann}) + \delta q^{RES}$$
(3)

The parameters which we adjusted for each grid point (θ, λ) are the linear trend (i.e. slope A and y-intercept B), the annual cycle (i.e. amplitude C and phase φ_{ann}) and the semi-annual cycle (i.e. amplitude D and phase $\varphi_{semi-ann}$). For this purpose, we used a least-squares fitting to solve the system:

$$\delta O = \Phi . X \tag{4}$$

where the vector δQ is the list of the SWE values, Φ and X are the configuration matrix and the parameter vector, respectively. The latter two terms are:

$$\{\Phi_{j}\} = \begin{bmatrix} t_{j} & 1 & \cos(\omega_{ann}t_{j}) & \sin(\omega_{ann}t_{j}) & \cos(\omega_{semi-ann}t_{j}) & \sin(\omega_{semi-ann}t_{j}) \end{bmatrix}$$
(5a)

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \beta & \xi_{ann} & \cos(\varphi_{ann}) & -\xi_{ann} & \sin(\varphi_{ann}) & \xi_{semi-ann} & \cos(\varphi_{semi-ann}) & -\xi_{semi-ann} & \sin(\varphi_{semi-ann}) \end{bmatrix}$$
(5b)

for adjusting the temporal trend and for fitting the annual and semi-annual amplitude and phase.

According to the least-squares criteria, the solution vector of the system is:

$$X^{SOL} = (\boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \boldsymbol{\Phi})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \delta Q \tag{6}$$

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To locate the regions of snow accumulation, we focused on the annual cycle of SWE at high latitudes. Figure 2a presents the map of amplitude of annual cycle of SWE derived from the inversion of 4 years (2003-2006) of GRACE geoids. The two largest maxima of annual amplitude (~100 mm) are located over North America in the northern part of the Rocky Mountains and the Western part of Canada. Over Eurasia, maximal amplitudes (70-90 mm) are observed in the easten part of the Ob, Yenisey basins and the Kolyma basins. Secondary maxima, reaching 60 mm of SWE, are present in the Western part of the Eurasian continent (Scandinavia, Severnyy Dvina, Pechora and the Western part of the Ob basins).

Due to the coarse spatial and temporal resolutions (respectively 400 km and one month) of the GRACE-derived snow mass estimates, an indirect validation have been made using climatologies of snow depth from USAF/ETAC and EWG and snowfall-derived from GPCP rainfall products over North America and Eurasia, and a climatology of SWE over North America.

Figure 2 also presents the mean map of annual of snow depth from USAF/ETAC (b) and EWG (c) climatologies, and the total annual snowfall derived from GPCP rainfall over the 2003-2006 period (d). The characteristics of these datasets are summarized in table 2. For comparison purpose, all the datasets have been resampled to a spatial resolution of 1°. The amplitude of annual cycles of GRACE-derived SWE, snow depth from both climatologies and snowfall derived from GPCP show similar patterns. The linear correlation coefficients between the GRACE amplitude of annual cycle and the mean annual snow depths from USAF/ETAC, EWG, and the total snowfall derived from GPCP are respectively 0.53, 0.42, and 0.37. A strong signal can be observed on Eastern Canada (Newfound Land, Labrador and Baffin Island), Scandinavia, river basins in the European part of Russia (Severnyy Dvina and Pechora) and the Yenisey basin on all the datasets. On the contrary, locations of snow accumulation are quite different between GRACE-derived SWE and snow depth climatologies on North-West Canada and East Siberia. Over North America, snow depth climatologies present a strong signal on Alaska and Yukon, Mackenzie and Nelson basins whereas GRACE-derived SWE has a strong maximum on the Rocky Mountains. Over Eurasia, USAF/ETAC snow climatology presents large snow depths on East Siberia (Kotia, Lena, Indigirka and Kolyma basins), EWG has the same pattern except for Indigirka basin, whereas GRACE-derived SWE presents lower snow accumulations over these regions. Two factors can explain these differences: the time periods considered (1950-1980 for USAF/ETAC climatology, 1966-1982 for EWG climatology, and 2003-2006 for both GRACE-derived SWE and GPCPderived snowfall) in regions which have a strong response to climate variability and the quantities compared related by the snow density which exhibits strong variability both in space and time.

Figure 3 displays the timing in months when occurs the maximum of the GRACE-derived SWE and snow depth from climatologies. Similar patterns can be observed on the three maps, especially a North-South gradient with maximum of snow occurring later in the North than in the South. The major difference lies in maxima occurring sooner in most of Siberia, Alaska and the North of the Rocky Mountains in the GRACE-derived SWE than in the snow depth climatologies. This is in accordance with

the decrease of snow cover observed over Siberia between 1956 and 2004. This decrease was especially strong over central Siberia in late spring (April-May) for the period 1956-1991 (Groisman et al., 2006).

A comparison between GRACE-derived SWE and a monthly mean climatology over North America was achieved. Figure 4 exhibits the amplitude of annual cycle of GRACE-derived SWE and the mean annual of the SWE climatology. pattern and intensity are very similar between the two products with a correlation coefficient of 0.58. The major difference is the strong signal over Alaska present in the climatology and lacking in the GRACE product. This difference can be explained by the sparse coverage of stations in this region (Brown et al., 2003) and the time period considered as an increase of 0.4°C for the mean winter temperature has been observed between 1977 and 2004 (Molnia et al., 2007) which caused a decrease in the depth of the snow cover in Alaska (Osterkamp, 2005).

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3.2 Basin scale SWE time-series

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For a given month t, regional average of land water or snow volume (or height) $\delta V(t)$ ($\delta h(t)$ respectively) over a given river basin of area A is simply computed from the water height δh_i , with j=1, 2, ... (expressed in terms of mm of equivalent-water height) inside A, and the elementary surface $R_e^2 \delta \lambda \delta \theta \sin \theta_i$:

$$\delta V(t) = R_e^2 \sum_{j \in A} \delta h_j(\theta, \lambda, t) \sin \theta_j \delta \lambda \delta \theta$$
 (7a)

$$\delta V(t) = R_e^2 \sum_{j \in A} \delta h_j(\theta, \lambda, t) \sin \theta_j \delta \lambda \delta \theta$$
 (7a)

$$\delta h(t) = \frac{R_e^2}{A} \sum_{j \in A} \delta h_j(\theta, \lambda, t) \sin \theta_j \delta \lambda \delta \theta$$
 (7b)

where θ and λ are co-latitude and longitude, $\delta\lambda$ and $\delta\theta$ are the grid steps in longitude and latitude respectively (generally $\delta\lambda = \delta\theta$). In practice, all points of A used in (equation 7a and equation 7b) are extracted for the eleven drainage basins masks at a 0.5° resolution provided by Oki and Sud (1998).

Figure 5 presents GRACE-based SWE time series for the 4 largest Arctic river basins (Ob, Yenisey, Lena, Mackenzie). In view of the short time span considered here, the signal is dominated by the seasonal component with maxima of snow observed in February or March for all the basins. We estimated correlation between the time series of GRACE-derived SWE and the time series of GPCP-derived snowfall for each basin, using the cross-correlation function:

$$\Gamma(t) = (S * D)(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S^*(\tau) D(\tau - t) d\tau$$
 (8)

where Γ is the cross-correlation of the SWE S and the snowfall D at month t, τ is the time and Δt is the considered period of integration.

The time lag between snow and discharge peaks corresponds to the month to that maximizes the cross-correlation function Γ :

$$\Gamma_{\text{max}} = \Gamma(t_0) = \max_{t \in \Lambda t} (\Gamma(t))$$
 (9)

where Γ_{max} is the maximum of Γ over the period Δt .

The results obtained are presented in table 3 for the maximum of correlation and the time lag between the peak of snowfall and the peak of SWE. For most of the basins, an agreement better than 40% is generally observed between snowfall and SWE (except for the Nelson basin). The time lags between snowfall and SWE never exceed 2 months. Due to the spatial resolution of GRACE products, the bigger is the basin, the higher is the correlation (greater than 0.6, except for Lena). The exceptions are the Nelson and Indigirka basins where little or no SWE winter peak is observed in the GRACE-derived product. We compared the SWE derived from GRACE measurements with the SWE estimated by the WGHM model used as initial guess in the inverse method to extract the different hydrological components from GRACE data. For the Nelson and Indigirka basins, the amplitude of the snow signal from WGHM is also low (figure 6). Wahr *et al.* (2006) estimated that the accuracy of GRACE geoids is 15-20 mm water equivalent height for a spatial Gaussian average with a radius of 400 km. In these two cases, the monthly amplitude of the SWE signal is most of the time lower than 20 mm which represents the limit of detectability of a hydrological signal in the GRACE products.

4. Analysis of water storage changes in the Arctic drainage system

4.1 Basin scale TWS, snow and river discharge time series

Figure 7 compares the monthly time series of SWE anomalies and TWS anomalies derived from GRACE measurements with the total water volume transferred to the Arctic Ocean for six Arctic drainage basins where river discharges measurements are available, i.e., Ob, Yenisey, Lena, Mackenzie, Severnaia Dvina and Kolyma. The total volume of water that flows from a basin to the Arctic Ocean each month is simply computed as the time integrated river discharge during the month.

Maxima of snow are observed in February or March for all the basins whereas maxima of land waters occurred generally one month later. These results tallied with those obtained by Dyer *et al.*, 2008 over the Yukon and Mackenzie basin with maximum of snow depth respectively occurring around day (55 ± 25) and (65 ± 15) over the period 1975-2000 and 1972-2000. They are also in accordance with peak of SWE estimated using passive microwave observations for the Yukon (week 8 to 12), Ob (week 8), Lena and Yenisey (week 7) basins between 1988 and 2000 (Yang *et al.*, 2007; 2009). We observe that snow mass represents the major part of the TWS. The discharge peak is observed in June except for the Severnaya Dvina basin where the discharge is maximum in May.

4.2 Estimation of the correlation and time lag between SWE, TWS and river discharge

To determine which reservoir, snow or total water, has the most significant effect on river discharge, we computed the cross-correlation function between the time series of TWS and snow component and the time series of integrated discharge for each drainage basin when river discharges are available. We estimated correlation between the time series of snow volume and the time series of integrated discharge for each basin, using the cross-correlation function (equation 8) and the time lag between snow and discharge peaks corresponds to the month t₀ that maximizes the cross-correlation function (equation 9).

The results obtained are presented in table 4 for the maximum of correlation and the time lag between the peak of land waters or snow and the peak of discharge. A good

agreement between snow storage derived from GRACE and discharge is observed for all the basins with correlation coefficients generally greater than 0.5 (table 4). For some basins, such as Lena, Mackenzie and Ob, the correlation is greater than 0.7. The correlation between TWS based on GRACE observations and discharge is lower whatever the basin you consider. For all the basins except Lena, correlations between snow mass and discharges and TWS and discharges are very close (the ratio between the correlation coefficients is greater than 0.75). In the case of the Lena basin, the correlation between snow storage from GRACE and river discharge is almost twice greater than the correlation between land water storage from GRACE and river discharge. These results are in accordance with the strong correlation observed between runoff and P-ET in the Lena watershed and the low correlation in the Mackenzie, Ob and Yenisey basins (Serreze *et al.*, 2003).

The time lag between snow mass, TWS and river discharge is an important variable for describing the snow-runoff relationship as the snow stored during winter is not a direct indicator of the river flow during summer. Different hydrological can affect snow: after melting, the snow can be evaporated, released as discharge, integrated to the interannual storage in ponds and wetlands (Bowling *et al.*, 2003).

The results obtained seem to be consistent with rivers morphology: long time lags (greater than 3 months) are obtained for large drainage basins such as Lena, Mackenzie, Ob and Yenisey, shorter time lags for smaller basins as Kolyma, Pechora and Severnaia Dvina. Some differences on the estimated time lags can be seen among the different datasets. They never exceed 1 month and can be caused by the monthly time sampling of the datasets. The results are in accordance with those obtained using SSM/I by Grippa et al. (2005) over the 1989-2001 period which found a strong correlation between snow depth in February and runoff in June, for the Ob basin, consistent with the time lag of (19 \pm 7) pentads between peak of snow volume and maximum discharge for the Mackenzie basin over 1972-2000 (Dyer et al., 2008), of 15 or 16 weeks for the Ob basin and of 16 to 17 weeks for the Yenisey and Lena basins, between peaks of SWE derived from passive microwave observations and discharges over 1988-2000(Yang et al., 2007).

4.3 Interannual variability of GRACE-derived SWE

The GRACE-derived SWE interannual variability has been analyzed at basin scale. Maximum SWE has been estimated and compared to total annual discharge when the data are available. The results are presented on figure 8 for the Ob, Yenisey, Lena and Severnyy Dvina basins where data are available between 2003 and 2006. On the Western part of the Eurasian continent, *i.e.*, Severnyy Dvina, Pechora and Ob basins, a decline of both maximum SWE and total annual discharge. On the Eastern part of Eurasia, the increase of SWE during winter 2004 is followed by a decrease in 2005. If a good agreement with river discharge is observed for the Lena basin, the increase of the total discharge increases one year before the increase of SWE in the Yenisey basin. This difference of behaviour is probably caused by the effect of melt of permafrost (which covers 90% of the surface of the Yenisey basin) and the influence of the dams on the seasonality of the discharge is strongest in this basin than in other Eurasian basins (McClelland et al., 2004). In the Mackenzie basin (not shown), the mean winter SWE and annual river discharge present a similar time evolution: a decrease between 2003 and

2004 followed by an increase in 2005. The maximum SWE is decreasing between 2005 and 2006. In the Yukon basin (not shown), the maximum SWE remains constant between 2003 and 2004, before increasing in 2005 and decreasing in 2006.

4.4 Basin-scale comparisons between GRACE-derived TWS and P-E

The GRACE-derived TWS estimates can be compared to E-P through the instantaneous equation of the water mass balance applied to a watershed (see Hirschi *et al.*, 2006, for instance):

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t} = P - ET - R \qquad (10)$$

where $\frac{\partial W}{\partial t}$, P, ET, R are water mass storage, precipitation rate, evapotranspiration rate

and runoff respectively. Time integration of equation 10 between times t_1 and t_2 (the starting and the ending dates of the considered period, with $\Delta t = t_2 - t_1$, assumed to be ~30 day, the average time span over which the GRACE geoids are provided) gives:

$$\Delta W = \Delta P - \Delta ET - \Delta R \tag{11}$$

where ΔW , ΔP , ΔET , ΔR are the monthly changes of the parameters of equation 10.

As no gridded runoff data were available for the Arctic region for the study period, we directly compare TWS changes with P-E for the 11 largest Arctic basins and cannot determine if the water budget is closed (*i.e.*, Equation 10 fully verified). Time series of monthly changes of TWS and P-E are presented in figure 9. They generally present a similar evolution and range with respect to time, peaking during Northern Hemisphere autumn and reaching minima in May or June, in good accordance with climatologies (Serreze et al., 2003), except for Nelson where P-E is lower than TWS change. The strong negative P-E anomaly of summer 2004, seen in most of the basins is well-observed in GRACE-derived TWS change.

Correlations between TWS change and P-E were computed and are reported in table 5. They allow us to determinate which fluxes influence the most the TWS change. Three types of Arctic basins can be distinguished: (1) a strong influence of P-E on TWS change (i.e., correlation between TWS and P-E greater than 0.55) for the Ob, Yenisey and Mackenzie basins, (2) similar effect of P-E and runoff on TWS change (i.e., correlation between TWS and P-E greater than 0.5) for the Yukon, Severnaia Dvina and Pechora basins, and (3) runoff dominates TWS change (i.e., correlation between TWS and P-E lower than 0.3) for the Nelson, Kotya, Lena, Indigirka and Kolyma basins. Similar results were also found by Serreze et al. (2003) for the Ob, Yenisey, Lena and Mackenzie basins, comparing climatologies of P-ET and runoff.

4.6 Trends of SWE, TWS and river discharges

Basin-scale trends of SWE, TWS, river discharges and PGR were estimated over 2003-2006 using equation 5b. As the hydrological signals are not stationary, these trends are valid over the 2003-2006 period. The results are presented in table 6. PGR represents a possible source in our SWE and TWS trend estimates as GRACE, which measures vertically-integrated gravity, cannot distinguish between snow/water and other solid

Earth signals. We used the global ICE-5G deglaciation model of Peltier (2004), modified by Paulson et al. (2007), to compute PGR trends in each watershed (cf. table 6). PGR has a very important effect over Canada (18.8 and 25.6 km³.yr⁻¹ for Nelson and Mackenzie basins respectively) and also, but not such importantly and with the opposite sign, the large Siberian basins (-0.96, -0.77 and -0.59 km³.yr⁻¹ for Ob, Yenisey and Lena basins respectively. For the other basins, the effect of PGR is lower than 0.3 km³.yr⁻¹ in absolute value). In case of error-free PGR modelling, the PGR effect should be substracted from SWE and TWS trends. Unfortunately, PGR effects remain not so well modelled since there are still large uncertainties on the of the Earth's interior (i.e., constant of viscosity between upper and lower mantles for instance). So, we decided to present the results without PGR correction that suffers from important error itself (table 6). We notice that all the large Eurasian basins (except Indigirka where the inverse method gives unreliable results) considered in this study are loosing snow mass, even in large amount as for Lena $(-8.6 \pm 0.9 \text{ km}^3 \text{.yr}^{-1})$, Ob $(-5.7 \pm 1.4 \text{ km}^3 \text{.yr}^{-1})$ and Severnaia Dvina $(-4 \pm 0.4 \text{ km}^3 \text{.yr}^{-1})$. On the contrary, all the large North American basins are gaining snow mass (even Nelson where the inverse method gives unreliable results), except if we consider the effect of the PGR. Even if complex hydrological mechanisms occurred after the snow melt (Bowling et al., 2003), increase (decrease) in snow mass could be explained by a decrease (respectively increase) of snow melt, and as a consequence by a decrease (respectively increase) of river discharges in North America (Eurasia respectively). This will be in accordance with the large increase of the Eurasian river discharges and the small decrease of the North American river discharges (Mc Clelland et al., 2005). Nevertheless, comparisons with in-situ discharges data does not validate this assumption as Mackenzie discharge is increasing of (0.5 ± 0.5) km³.yr⁻¹ and, Ob and Severnaia Dvina discharges are respectively decreasing of (0.8 ± 0.5) km³.yr⁻¹ and (1.6 ± 0.2) km³.yr⁻¹ over the same period. For the Mackenzie basin, due to the effect of the PGR, the SWE trend should be negative and so, the assumption be verified. Trends of river discharges appear to be more correlated to trends in TWS. Moreover, Eurasia can be divided in two parts: the Western part with negative trends for SWE, TWS and river discharges and the Eastern part with negative trends for SWE but positive trends for TWS and river discharges. In the Northern Hemisphere, Siberia was one of the region the most affected by the recent warming (Jones and Moberg, 2003; NEESPI, 2004; Groisman et al., 2006; http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/gcag/gcag,html). This warming is responsible for both a melt of the snow and of the permafrost. On Western Eurasia where the permafrost only represents a small area and is discontinuous, TWS is mainly affected by decrease of SWE. On the contrary, on Eastern Eurasia where the permafrost is important, TWS could be recharged by a melt of the permafrost and TWS can increase whereas SWE decreases.

5. Conclusion

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For the first time, GRACE-derived hydrological products are used to provide a description of several hydrological processes related to snow in the Arctic drainage system. Comparisons between GRACE-derived SWE, and snow depth and SWE climatologies show a relatively good agreement between the different products. Besides, comparisons between GRACE-derived SWE product and snowfall derived from GPCP rainfall over the same time period exhibit very similar spatial patterns (correlations of

0.75 have been reached for Yukon and Mackenzie basins) and interannual variations well correlated time variations at basin-scale. The direct comparison at basin scales between snow mass variations, land water variations and river discharge time evolution shows that the snow component has a more significant impact on river discharge at high latitudes than TWS, corroborating the results found earlier by Yang *et al.* (2003), and suggests a strong linkage between snow cover extent and streamflow. Time lags between snow mass maxima and discharge peaks, consistent with the size of drainage basins were also estimated. Interannual variability of SWE derived from GRACE is accordance with interannual variability of river discharges for most of the drainage basins. These results contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between snow and discharge and for hydrological models parameterization.

This study also provides a characterization of the respective influence of P-E and R on the TWS change at high latitudes. Time correlation between TWS and P-E allows to distinguish the drainage basins where TWS is dominated by P-ET, equally influenced by P-ET and runoff and the ones that remain mostly influenced by runoff.

The estimates of SWE and TWS trends over the 2003-2006 period showed that all the Eurasian basins loose snow mass whereas North American basins are gaining mass. Nevertheless, if we consider the effect of PGR, Mackenzie and Nelson basins also loose snow mass. Besides, Eurasia can be divided into two parts: the Western part where both SWE and TWS are decreasing and the Eastern part where SWE is decreasing whereas TWS is increasing. This different behavior could be related to melt of the permafrost mostly present in Eastern Eurasia.

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Table 1: Surface of the largest Arctic drainage basins (ArcticRIMS, 2003), mean annual discharges (CAFF, 2001), and availability of the discharges data at the closest station to the mouth. (source: ArcticRIMS, 2003). Table 2: Spatial and temporal resolutions, and period acquisition of the GRACE-derived SWE and of the datasets used for comparisons. Table 3: Correlation and time lag between GRACE-derived SWE and snowfall derived from GPCP by river basin. Table 4: Correlation and time lag between fresh water volume and snow stored for the different remote sensing datasets by river basin. Table 5: Correlation between TWS and P-E by river basin. Table 6: Trends of snow volume, TWS volume and water volume to the Arctic Ocean (when data are available) estimated between 2003 and 2006 by river basin.

Table caption

Figure caption

- Figure 1: Location of the main Arctic drainage basins and their annual discharge (km³yr⁻
- 731 1). Source: Major River Systems in the Arctic. UNEP/GRID-Arendal Maps and Graphics
- 732 Library. 2002. Available at:
- http://maps.grida.no/go/graphic/major_river_systems_in_the_arctic.
- Figure 2: Maps of SWE amplitude of annual cycle derived from GRACE over the 2003-
- 735 2006 period (a), mean annual snow depth from the ETAC monthly snow climatology (b),
- mean annual snow depth from the EWG monthly snow climatology (c) and total annual
- snowfall derived from GPCP rainfall over the 2003-2006 period (d).
- Figure 3: Month where is maximum the GRACE-derived SWE (a), the snow depth from
- USAF/ETAC climatology (b), and the snow depth from EWG climatology (c). Figure 4:
- 740 Time series of SWE (mm) derived from GRACE (continuous black) and snowfall (mm)
- derived from GPCP (dashed black) for the four largest Arctic drainage basins: Ob,
- 742 Yenisey, Lena, Mackenzie.
- Figure 4: Maps of SWE annual cycle derived from GRACE during the 2003-2006 period
- 744 (a), mean annual SWE snow climatology (b) over North America. Corr=0.58.
- 745 Figure 5: Time series of SWE (mm) derived from GRACE (continuous black) and
- snowfall (mm) derived from GPCP (dashed black) for the four largest Arctic drainage
- basins: Ob (a), Yenisey (b), Lena (c), Mackenzie (d).
- Figure 6: Time series of SWE (mm) derived from GRACE (black) and WGHM (dotted
- black) for the Nelson (a) and Indigirka (b) basins.
- 750 Figure 7: Time series of SWE (mm) derived from GRACE (red), of TWS derived from
- 751 GRACE (black) and of river discharges (blue) for the six Arctic drainage basins: Ob (a),
- 752 Yenisey (b), Lena (c), Mackenzie (d), Kolyma (e) and Severnaya Dvina (f).
- Figure 8: Time series of annual maximum of SWE (mm) derived from GRACE (black)
- and total annual discharge (10³ m³.s⁻¹, dotted black) for the Ob (a), Yenisey (b), Lena (c)
- and Severnaia Dvina (d) basins.
- 756 Figure 9: Time series of monthly TWS change (mm/month) derived from GRACE
- 757 (black) and P-E (dotted black) for the Ob (a), Yenisey (b), Lena (c), Mackenzie (d),
- 758 Nelson (e) and Yukon (f) basins.