

1 Increasing seasonal variation in the extent of rivers and lakes

2 from 1984 to 2022

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10 Abstract

12 Knowledge of the spatial and temporal distribution of surface water is important for water resource management,
13 flood risk assessment, monitoring ecosystem health, constraining estimates of biogeochemical cycles and
14 understanding our climate. While global scale spatial-temporal change detection of surface water has significantly
15 improved in recent years with planetary scale remote sensing and computing, it has remained challenging to
16 distinguish the changing characteristics of rivers and lakes. Here we analyze the spatial extent of permanent and
17 seasonal rivers and lakes globally over the past 38-years based on new data of river system extents and surface
18 water trends. Results show that while the total permanent surface area of both rivers and lakes has remained
19 relatively constant, the area with intermittent seasonal coverage has increased by 12% and 27% for rivers and
20 lakes, respectively. The increase is statistically significant in over 84% of global water catchments based on
21 Spearman rank correlations (ρ) above 0.05 and p values less than 0.05. The [results](#) seasonal river extent is nearly
22 [32% larger than previously observed annual mean river extent, suggesting large seasonal variations that impact](#)
23 [not only ecosystem health but also estimations of terrestrial biogeochemical cycles of carbon. The outcomes](#) of
24 our analysis are shared as the Surface Area of Rivers and Lakes (SARL) database, [which contributes to improved](#)
25 [understanding of the serving as a valuable resource for monitoring and research of hydrological cycles,](#)
26 [ecosystem accounting and water management of water resources.](#)

29 1. Introduction

31 Climate change and population growth have placed considerable stress on our natural freshwater resources. Water
32 demand has increased nearly 8-fold over the past century with an estimated 70% of the total used to meet irrigation
33 needs (Siebert et al., 2010; Wada et al., 2016). To meet the increasing water demand, an estimated 16.7 million
34 reservoirs have been built ([Lehner et al., 2016](#)) with the largest 24783 dams holding a predicted ~~80707384~~ km³ of
35 freshwater ([Lehner Wang et al., 2016](#)). Current water demand represents only 10% of our approximate annual
36 renewable freshwater resources (Oki and Kanae, 2006). Nonetheless, water scarcity remains a significant problem
37 around the world due to the variability of water in time and space (Oki and Kanae, 2006; Mekonnen et al., 2016).
38 The hydrological cycle is also crucial to the health of our ecosystems and biodiversity that depend on the recurrence

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39 and seasonality of water to support life (Gleeson et al., 2020). Furthermore, inland waters are also an important
40 component in biogeochemical cycles of CO₂ and methane that, by size, disproportionately contribute a significant
41 portion to our total greenhouse emissions annually (Bastviken et al., 2004; Allen and Pavelsky, 2018; Matthews
42 et al., 2020).

43
44 While the surface area of water is only one part of the hydrological cycle, it is the most accessible portion
45 influencing human and ecosystem behavior and an important component in groundwater recharge (Oki and Kanae,
46 2006; Sibert et al., 2010; Gleeson et al., 2020). Knowledge of the type of waterbody, i.e. whether it is permanent,
47 intermittent, or ~~seasonal~~seasonal and whether it is part of a river system or a lake, is important to understand the
48 role of water bodies in different hydrological processes, ecosystem support and biogeochemical cycles. The
49 changing physical environment and its waterbody type due to droughts, floods or direct human alteration also
50 alters migration patterns of humans, ecosystems, and ~~their~~ biodiversity (Neumann et al., 2015; Van Loon et al.,
51 2016). In addition, the perennial and seasonal state of both rivers and lakes has important implications for
52 ecosystem health (Messenger et al., 2021) and carbon cycles (Keller et al., 2020). The type, extent and seasonality
53 of waterbodies at a global basin scale is needed for improved water resource management and sustained delivery
54 of ecosystem services (Sheffield et al., 2018).

55
56 Planetary scale computing and analysis of remotely sensed imagery have led to a number of studies revealing the
57 unprecedented impact of human resource management and climate change stress on the extent of water (Van Dijk
58 et al., 2011; Wada et al., 2016; Pekel et al., 2016, Donchyts, et al., 2016). In particular, significant advancements
59 have been made in identifying and quantifying the historical change in global reservoirs at a 0.01 to 100 km²
60 resolution (Donchyts et al., 2022). In addition, the temporal analysis of lakes extents has been analyzed up to 50
61 degrees North at a 0.1 km² resolution (Khandelwal et al., 2022). The identification of natural lakes in high latitude
62 regions has not been analyzed within a global water surface change context.

63
64 Far fewer studies have analyzed the change of river extents. Allen and Pavelsky (2018) mapped the observed
65 global surface area of rivers but only for a specific year and at mean annual water discharge. More recently, Feng
66 et al., (2022) quantified the temporal variability in global river widths over the past 37 years based on 30 m Landsat
67 imagery. However, this study does not map the changing surface area of rivers nor ~~provides~~provide measurements
68 at the confluence and divergence of rivers common in anabranching and braided systems that comprise an
69 estimated 52% of global rivers (Nyberg et al., 2023). As a result, there remains a significant knowledge gap in the
70 temporal variability of river surface area and its interaction with lakes and reservoirs. The aim of this paper is to
71 compile existing information to map assess the utility of a new, global river extent dataset (Nyberg et al., 2023) in
72 mapping the historical change in water surface area for rivers and lakes over the past 38-years, and to examine the
73 implications for water resource management, ecosystem health and biogeochemical cycles.

74 75 76 2. Materials and Methods

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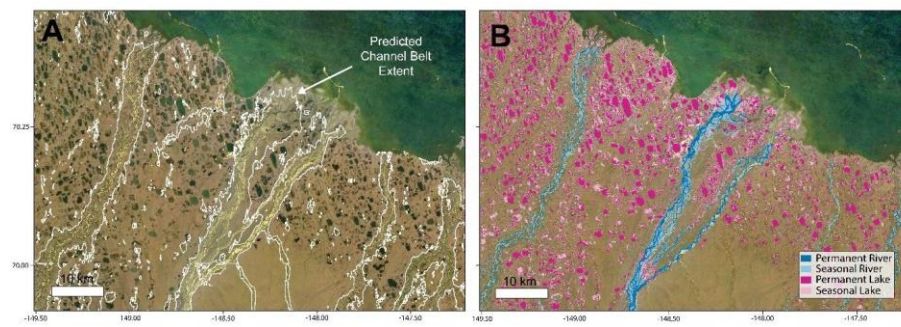
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2.1 Water Surface Area Classification

To classify the permanent and seasonal extent of lakes and rivers, we utilize existing datasets describing the surface area of water combined with a new and improved definition of river extents on a global scale. Our analysis is based on the Global Surface Water (GSW) [model version 1.4](#) by Pekel et al. (2016) that describes the permanent and seasonal extent of open water from 1984 to [2023](#) based on 30 m Landsat imagery. Permanent surface area of water is defined as locations where open water is detected for all twelve months of a given year (or 100% of valid pixels). Seasonal surface water was defined as any pixel location with at least one month during which water was detected. The authors report less than 1% false positive open water classifications and less than 5% missed open water classifications based on 40,000 randomly selected points.

To define the spatial extent of rivers is challenging given the dynamic nature of rivers, varying morphology; and perennial versus non-perennial character of rivers. [We used a dataset produced by Nyberg et al. \(2023\) that quantified the global extent of river channel belts \(GCB\) based on GCBs at a 30 m resolution-Landsat imagery resolution](#) using a machine learning method that spatially delineates channel belt areas based on geomorphological [properties. The features. In this dataset, the](#) river channel belt extents show the riverine landforms of the river channel and its associated levees, bars and overbank deposits that therefore capture the evolution of the riverine environment over time (Figure 1). The model reports a confidence value ranging from 0 to 100%, where a 0% confidence value indicates a non-riverine environment whereas a 100% confidence indicates a riverine environment for a given pixel location. [An evaluation of this-The model reported used by Nyberg et al. \(2023\) reports](#) a 94% accuracy to the validation dataset for channel belts wider than a 1 km.



[Figure 1: Example permanent and seasonal water extent in rivers and lakes - A\) Example Landsat 8 imagery for 2020 with overlain delineations of the maximum channel belt extent in white based on the GCB dataset \(Nyberg et al., 2023\). Any pixel outside the channel belt is defined as lacustrine/wetland or floodplain. B\) Permanent and seasonal extent of rivers and lakes for the year 2020 based on the new Surface Area of Rivers and Lakes \(SARL\) database. Landsat 8 imagery courtesy of the US Geological Survey.](#)

[To improve delineations of river channel belt extent we refine the classification of Nyberg et al. \(2023\) by using GCB pixels with a reported confidence of 10% or higher and a 50% confidence above 60 degrees North. This step](#)

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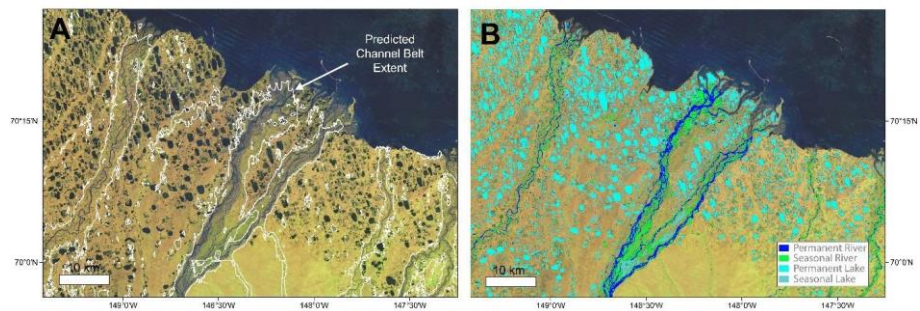
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108 was chosen to constrain rivers without distinct channel belts in high latitude regions (e.g., Canadian Shield or
109 Siberian Plateau) given most sedimentary basins with clearly defined channel belts occur around mid to low
110 latitude regions (Nyberg and Howell, 2016). In addition, previous databases of large lakes and reservoirs (~ > 10
111 km²) defined by the HydroLakes (Messenger et al., 2016) and OpenStreetMap (2022) datasets are included to further
112 improve delineations. This step was achieved by converting the vector lacustrine databases to rasters at the same
113 30 m resolution of the GCB delineation to remove the misclassified pixels. The inclusion of the lacustrine databases
114 reduced the global channel belt extent by 1.86% or 13.4 x 10⁴ km².

115
116 Finally, the seaward extent of the SARL database is based on the Global Shoreline Vector (GSV) dataset by Sayre
117 et al. (2019). This classification represents an image-derived instantaneous shoreline position for the year 2014
118 capturing between a low- and high-tide classification. This step is necessary to remove classification of sea pixels
119 from the resulting lacustrine/riverine classification. Depending on the tidal range for a particular region and
120 available Landsat images, this may result in a lower or higher riverine and lacustrine extent, which may impact
121 our subsequent statistical analyses. However, the GSV dataset provides a global, 30 m resolution shoreline
122 classification, creating a consistent definition of the shoreline that is needed for the SARL database.

123
124 By combining the GCB and GSW datasets, we produce a new global dataset mapping the historical change of the
125 seasonal and permanent water surface area of lakes and rivers (SARL) from 1984 to 2023. The seasonal extent
126 of water within the channel belt shows rivers at bankfull or larger flood events with inundation persisting for at
127 least one month. ~~Waterbodies~~Water Bodies outside the channel belt are defined as a lakes or wetland regions ~~that~~
128 ~~represent a body of water outside the delineated river channel belt extents~~ (Figure 1).



129
130 **Figure 1: Example permanent and seasonal water extent in rivers and lakes – A) Example Landsat 8 imagery for 2020**
131 **with overlain delineations of the maximum channel belt extent in white based on the GCB model (Nyberg et al., 2023).**
132 **Any pixel outside the channel belt**The processing is defined as lacustrine/wetland or floodplain. **B) Change in**
133 **permanent water extent from 1984 to 2020 based on the GSW model (Pekel et al., 2016). Combined the two datasets**
134 **provide a definition of the seasonal and permanent change of water in riverine and lacustrine environments. Landsat**
135 **imagery courtesy of the USGS. See interactive map for further detail.**
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To improve delineations of river channel belt extent we refine the classification of Nyberg et al., (2023) by utilizing a 10% confidence on the GCB prediction below 60 degrees North and a 50% confidence above 60 degrees North. This step was chosen to constrain rivers without distinct channel belts in high latitude regions (e.g., Canadian Shield or Siberian Plateau) given most sedimentary basins with clearly defined channel belts occur around mid to low latitude regions (Nyberg and Howell, 2016). In addition, previous databases of large lakes and reservoirs (> 10 km²) defined by the HydroLakes (Messenger et al., 2016) and OpenStreetMap (2022) datasets were included to further improve delineations. The inclusion of the lacustrine databases reduced the global channel belt extent by 1.86% or 13.4 x 10⁴ km². These steps were processed on the Google Earth Engine platform (Gorelick et al., 2017) resulting in a global database of the seasonal and permanent surface area of rivers and lakes from 1984 to 2022 at a 30 m Landsat resolution.

2.2 Temporal Water Surface Area Analysis

Following the mapping of the SARL database, we analyze the data by aggregating results on drainage catchments derived from the HydroSHEDS level 5 catchment dataset (Lehner et al., 2008). Considering that satellite imagery is not available for certain years due to non-acquisition or excessive cloud cover, it is important to consider missing values in the time series of surface water observations. Pekel et al., 2016 define the location of missing values for each year in the GSW database but do not identify the waterbody type or seasonality of those missing values. To rectify this omission, we take the averaged ratio between seasonal to permanent waterbody extent and waterbody type (lake, river and no water) ratio between 2015 to 2017 for each catchment as a baseline given there are no reported missing values during those years. While this approach does not account for the changing seasonal to permanent water ratios or waterbody type over time, it does provide an approximation that allows for the analysis of water trends in situations where a few missing values (< 5%) are reported in a much larger catchment region. This method was preferred over a long-term pixel average and interpolation given that earlier landsat acquisitions have a lower temporal resolution, and therefore seasonal changes can be interpreted less reliably, which may result in skewed ratios of seasonal to permanent rivers and lakes.

Subsequently, for each catchment the permanent and seasonal water extent for each time period without satellite data is calculated proportional to the number of missing values and known ratio of seasonal to permanent extent in equation 1.

$$pArea = pO + (nD * (1 - k)) \quad \text{if } nD * \frac{(1-k)}{p} < 0.05 \quad (1a)$$

$$sArea = sO + (nD * k) \quad \text{if } nD * k < 0.05 \quad (1b)$$

where pArea is the permanent surface area, sArea is the seasonal surface area, pO is the observed permanent surface area, sO is the observed seasonal surface area, nD is the number of no data values for the entire

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175 catchment, and k is the seasonal:permanent surface area ratio, and p is the total number of water pixels (e.g. observed + missing values).

178 Equation 1 is processed separately for rivers and lakes and only assigned to catchments where less than 5% of the
179 data is missing for any given year, waterbody type and seasonality. For years with more than 5% missing values,
180 the first year with valid observations for any given catchment is used. This creates an accompanying dataset
181 showing the absolute change, percentage change and annual percentage change in surface area of waterbodies
182 [waterbodies](#) for each catchment from 1984 to 2022 (see Data Statement section for interactive map and supplementary
183 figure S1). ~~While this approach does not account for the changing seasonal to permanent water ratios, it does~~
184 ~~provide an approximation that allows for the analysis of water trends in situations where a few missing values are~~
185 ~~reported in a much larger catchment region.~~

186
187 To statistically analyze trends in the surface area of rivers and lakes by catchment, we perform Spearman rank
188 correlations (Spearman, 1987). This correlation measures the monotonicity of the relationship between two
189 parameters, in this case the surface area of the waterbody extent versus time. This measure is ideal considering
190 waterbody extent is often not a linear relationship with time given the interannual variability. To perform this
191 analysis, we limit our analyses to catchments with more than 10 years of results, at least 1km² of detected water
192 surface area, and 95% data coverage for each year. Statistically significant trends are defined by p value less than
193 0.05 or 5%. [In total, the analysis captures between 1172 to 1493 watersheds \(or 34 to 41% of the global watersheds](#)
194 [with water occurrence\), depending on the seasonal versus permanent and river versus lake analysis performed.](#)

196 2.3 Validation

197
198 To validate and assess the accuracy of the SARL dataset over the 38-years of available water surface [change](#) data,
199 we compare the results to [the](#) manually interpreted extent of river channel belt and lake environments for the year
200 2022. In total, 50 locations (see supplementary material Figure S2) measuring 50 km² were randomly selected
201 (excluding Greenland and Antarctica) to manually map the river channel belt extent using 30 m Landsat 8 imagery.
202 The Landsat imagery corresponds to the same spatial resolution and year of acquisition as the GCB dataset defined
203 by Nyberg et al. (2023) which is used in the current model to define the global channel belt extent (section 2.1).
204 The manual delineation of the channel belt is defined as the encompassing region of the active river and its
205 associated bars, over bank deposits and abandoned channels (Nyberg et al., 2023) to show the maximum
206 geomorphologically-observed extent of the river system through time.

207
208 Following the proposed automated method to classify the current SARL database (e.g., Figure 1), [waterbodies](#)
209 [rbodies](#) defined within the manually defined [2020](#) channel belt extent are classified as riverine whereas all other
210 surface water bodies are defined as lacustrine. Seasonal and permanent waterbody extent for both rivers and lakes
211 are then extracted based on the GSW model (Pekel et al., 2016). The manual river channel belt delineation is
212 subsequently used to compare the accuracy of the automated delineation in capturing the permanent and seasonal
213 water extent of the GSW dataset from 1984 to ~~2023~~2022 (see supplementary Table S2). While the GCB [dataset](#)
214 [and manual](#) delineation [for validation](#) is ~~currently~~ only available for the year 2022, [the channel belt represents the](#)

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lateral migration of a rivers course through time (Nyberg et al., 2023), thus capturing the extent of the river system through multiple years. Hence, the method provides a baseline assessment for the accuracy of the automated method in capturing the natural variability in seasonal and permanent water extent through time.

3. Results

3.1 Total Water Surface Extent

The permanent surface area of rivers has remained relatively steady over the past 38 years, increasing slightly by 1.1% to a total area of $2.9 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$ (Figure 2A2). In contrast, the observed seasonal extent of rivers has increased more significantly by 12% with a total area of $3.2 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$ by 2022. The yearly percentage of seasonal to permanent river water extent ranges from 88 to 119%, increasing towards the end of 2022. Similarly, the spatial extent of permanent lake surface area has increased by less than 1% since 1984 to a total area of $24.2 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$ (Figure 2B2). The seasonal extent of lakes has however increased significantly, by as much as 27% since 1984 to a total area of $7.2 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$. The ratio of seasonal to permanent water [changeextent](#) in lakes is considerably lower than that of rivers, and ranges between 23-31% over the same period.

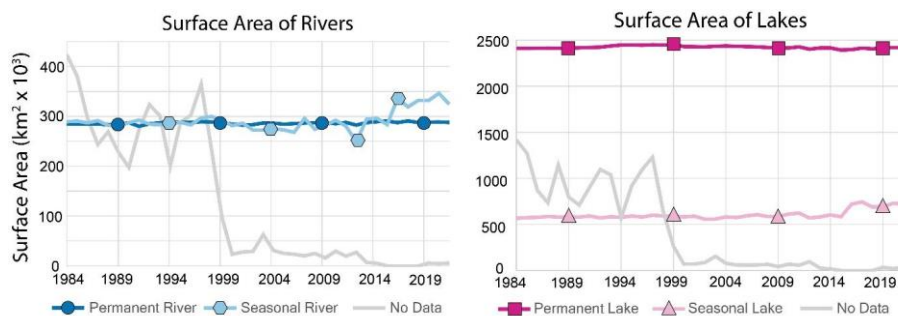


Figure 2: Global Water Surface Area Change—The global surface water area of rivers (A) and lakes (B) based on the difference between the first recorded observation to 2022. Summary - Graphs show the temporal variability in permanent and seasonal water extent of rivers and lakes by year. See supplementary Figure S3 for percentage change by permanent and seasonal river and lake levels.

The spatial trends in the total water surface area change since the first observation until the year 2022 are often similar for rivers and lakes. Here we see that regions of the Basin and Range in the United States, southern South America and Patagonia, southern Africa, Central Asia and Central Australia, show a decrease in water body extent. In contrast, significant regions around the equator show increased waterbody extent including Brazil, central Africa and oceania. In addition, the northern latitude Canadian Shield and Siberian plateau, as well as the Himalayas, Europe, China, Southeast Asia and India show increasing water trends to name a few. Lastly, no water observations are most commonly found in desert regions of Northern African Sahara, Southwestern Africa, Western Australia and the Arabian peninsula, as well as glacial covered northern regions of Nunavut and Greenland. It is crucial to emphasize that Figure 3 presents a comparison between only two time periods, and may be skewed by variation over time with a shorter interval than the two time periods. We address this point later in section 3.2 through spearman correlations analyses of water surface area trends over time.

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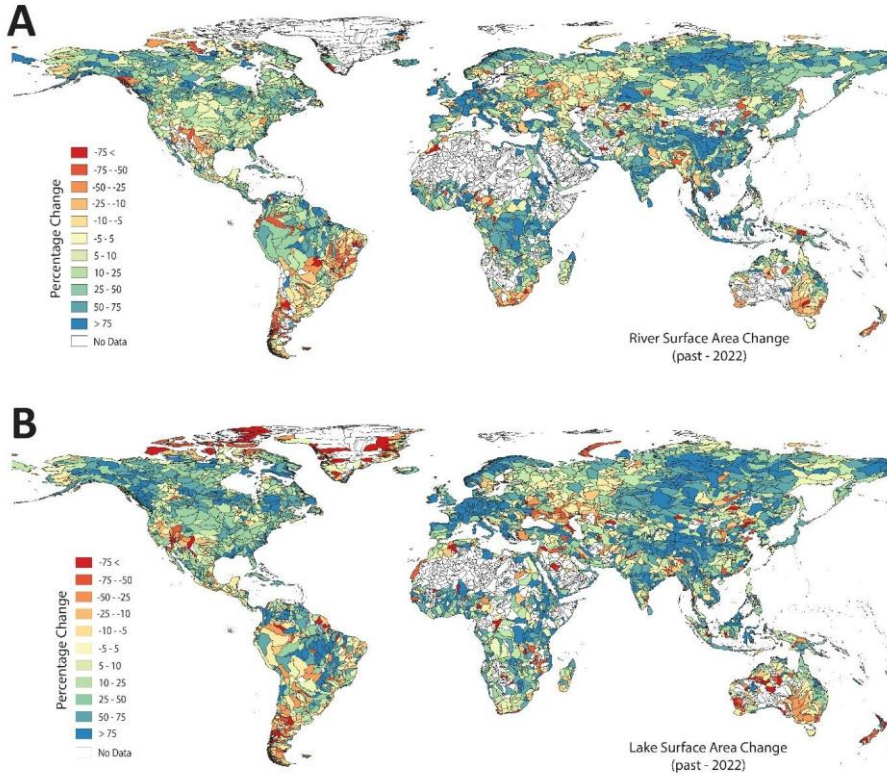
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250 [Figure 3: Global Total Water Surface Area Change - The global total surface water area of permanent and seasonal extent of](#)
 251 [rivers \(A\) and lakes \(B\) based on the difference between the first recorded observation to 2022. See supplementary Figure S3](#)
 252 [for percentage change by permanent and seasonal river and lake levels.](#)

255 **3.2 Annual Water Surface Area Trends**

257 Figure 3 shows trends in permanent versus seasonal water surface area of rivers and lakes from 1984 to
 258 2022 based on the Spearman rank correlations. Rivers (rho) Permanent river and lakeslake extents show a relative
 259 normal distribution in spearman correlations indicating the permanent extent of rivers and lakes have experienced
 260 both decrease and increase in surface water area. In total, 47% and 54% of catchments show the permanent surface
 261 area of rivers (Figure 3A4A) and lakes (Figure 3C4C) have statistically changed. Out of all catchments with
 262 statistically significant changes, 60.62% and 54.55% of catchments have a positive increase in permanent water
 263 surface area for rivers and lakes, respectively. In comparison, the seasonal extent of rivers and lakes is strongly
 264 positive indicating an overall increased seasonality with 42% and 49% of catchments showing a significant change
 265 for rivers and lakes, respectively (Figure 3B4B and 3D4D). Out of all catchments with statistically significant

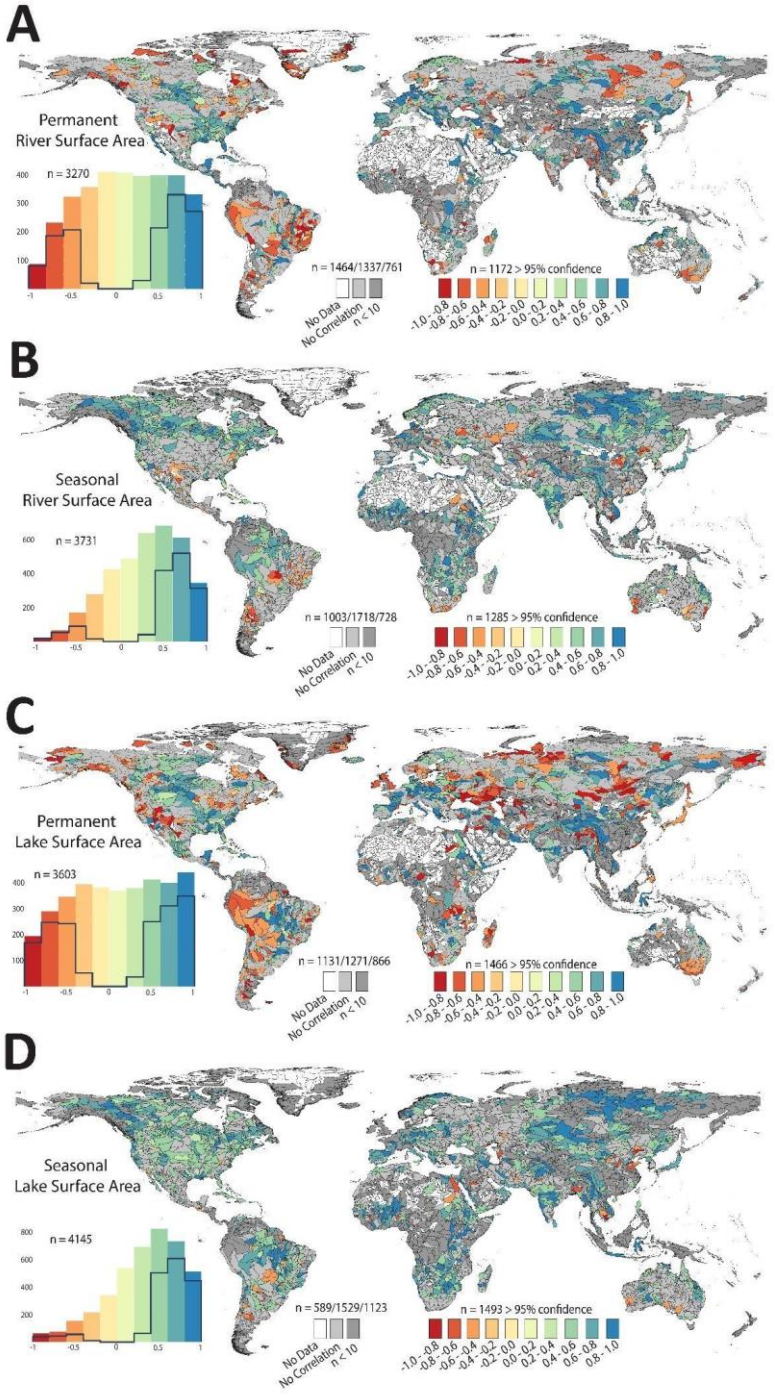
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266 changes, 84% and 90% of catchments have a positive increase in seasonal water surface area extent for rivers and
267 lakes, respectively.
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269
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272 [213](#) Figure 34: Spearman Rank Correlations: Catchments with statistically significant change in permanent (A,C) and
 273 seasonal (B,D) water surface area since 1984 to 2020 for rivers and lakes. Spearman rank correlations (ρ) are shown
 274 ranging from -1 (red) to 1 (blue) where no correlation (light gray) indicate indicates no statistically significant change. The
 275 histogram for each map shows the spearman correlations with the line indicating the distribution of the statistically significant
 276 samples ($n > 9$). See supplementary Figure S4 for the entire spearman correlation dataset.

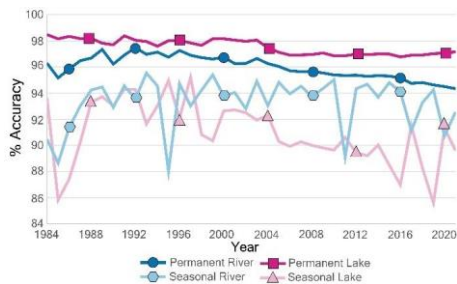
278 3.3 Accuracy

279 ~~221~~

280 [222](#) Overall, the SARL dataset showed a 93.8% accuracy to independent estimates the manual delineation of
 281 the channel belt extents for the calculation of permanent and seasonal lake

282 [223](#) coverage over the 38-year period as summarized in Figure 5. The permanent extent of lakes is the most
 283 consistent

284 [224](#) and has the highest accuracy ranging between 96.7 and 98 percent. 5%. The accuracy of the permanent
 285 river extent is lower and ranges from 84.94.3 to 91.97.5%. Finally, both the seasonal river and seasonal lakes
 286 waterbodies water bodies show on average [226](#) an accuracy over 90% but are also the most variable reflecting the
 287 variability in yearly water extent. The accuracy of the seasonal river is slightly higher ranging from 87 to 95%
 288 whereas seasonal lake has the lowest reported accuracy between 85 and 95%.



289 [228](#)

290 [229](#) Figure 5: Temporal Accuracy of the SARL Database - Overall accuracy of the SARL database for seasonal and
 291 [230](#) permanent water extent of lakes and rivers.

294 4. Discussion

296 4.1 Global Surface Water Trends

297 Global observations of surface water extent are important to regulate and manage water at a basin scale for a range
 298 of different sectors including agriculture, ecosystems, forestry, energy, water supply, environment protection,
 299 flood and drought control, irrigation, wastewater treatment, governance and policy to name a few (Garcia et al.,
 300 2016; Sheffield et al., 2018). In particular, the data is important to understand the impacts of hydrological extremes
 301 of droughts and floods on the short and long-term trends on water allocation and management. The distinction of
 302 rivers and lakes is important to understand the storage and transfer of water that impact different sectors and to
 303 predict the future impacts of human and climate change stressors.

304 The permanent versus seasonal extent of water is also important to quantify pressures on water resources. In many
 305 circumstances, the permanent extent of rivers and lakes has decreased over the past ~4 decades of observations
 306 (38 and 45% of watersheds, respectively) and replaced by an increased seasonality (60 and 77%, respectively).

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307 [Figure 4, Pekel et al., 2016; Donchyts, et al., 2016](#). A change from perennial to seasonal surface water of rivers
308 directly impacts groundwater recharge and the resulting water table level (Gleeson et al., 2020). For instance,
309 regions of central Australia, Caspian Sea, Aral Sea, western United States and southern Africa have seen a
310 statistical decrease in permanent waters of both rivers and lakes (Figure 4) that are related to well documented
311 droughts and anthropogenic stresses (Micklin et al., 2007, Van Loon et al., 2016; Mekonnen et al., 2016). There
312 are also rivers that have experienced relatively stable permanent river water levels while also showing a decrease
313 in annual seasonal flooding, e.g., the Ob River in Siberia (Zemtsov, 2019).

314 On the other extreme, the Brahmaputra River in Bangladesh and India show stable permanent water levels with an
315 increased seasonal extent (Figures 2 and 4) that correlates to increased intensity of river discharge during
316 monsoonal seasons due to increasing Southern Oscillation Index extremes (Mirza, 2011). In other natural river
317 systems, like the lower Amazon basin, we see a slight, statistically significant, increase in water surface area of
318 rivers over past three decades (Figure 4). The Amazon water catchment as one of the least human-modified river
319 systems globally (Grill et al., 2019), has increased water levels due to a strengthening Walker circulation
320 (Barichivich et al., 2023). An increase in permanent water surface area for both rivers and lakes is particularly
321 noticeable in central Asia and the Tibetan Plateau as well, which has been associated with the acceleration of
322 glacial melting and precipitation (Bo Huang, 2014). Furthermore, seasonal water expansion in Siberia can be
323 related to increased thawing of permafrost lakes in summer months (Matthews et al., 2020). Lastly, reservoir
324 expansion, particularly around the Indian subcontinent, eastern Brazil and China, contribute to the increased water
325 surface area of lakes (Donchyts et al., 2022). In summary, statistically increasing permanent extent in rivers and
326 lakes account for 62% and 55% of watersheds, respectively (Figure 4), and often show a constant or increasing
327 seasonal extent as well ($\rho > -0.05$; 78 and 88%, respectively), to suggest larger water bodies through time.

331 4.2 Ecosystem Health

332 Understanding temporal and spatial changes in rivers and lakes is key to the study of animal migrations and
333 community dynamics in and around lotic and lentic environments (Ngor et al., 2018). The availability of spawning
334 pathways from ocean to permanent mainstem rivers and lakes to permanent or seasonal tributary streams and lakes
335 [240](#) is obviously a function of water presence and quality (Briggs et al., 2018). Site selection by aquatic
336 organisms of preferred habitat for feeding and nutrients will also depend on whether or not water is present at
337 candidate locations
338 (Power et al., 2008). In general, riverine and lacustrine animals move in response to changing water extents, so the
339 ability to determine or predict the occurrence of water in global rivers and lakes is a powerful capability.

340 The ability to couple the area of river and stream surface water with adjacent, in-channel terrestrial area supports
341 increased understanding of freshwater microhabitats and freshwater biotic interactions. For example, while fish
342 are obviously restricted to in-water lotic microhabitats like riffles, pools, and runs (whose locations also change
343 spatially and temporally with changing surface water extent), amphibians and certain terrestrial invertebrates
344 regularly move between water and adjacent in-channel dry land (Lowe, 2009). Conceptualizing and delineating
345 freshwater ecosystems as only containing water is therefore under-representative of the area of occupancy and use
346 by many freshwater aquatic organisms.

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347 Certain areas in the aqueous stream channel are utilized as flow refugia (Lancaster and Hildrew, 1993; Sakai et
348 al., 2021) or refugia from adverse stream acidification episodes (Baker et al., 1996) during discharge events. The
349 availability of flow refugia is a function of riverine surface water seasonality (Lancaster and Hildrew, 1993).
350 Clearly, the ability to bound the riverine environment as not just the water but the larger area within the channel
351 belt; and then to be able to distinguish between water and adjacent dryland spatially and temporally within that
352 riverine ecosystem, will advance understanding of the distribution and behavior of aquatic organisms in seasonally
353 changing environments. Moreover, current biodiversity models often overlook the importance of terrestrial and
354 aquatic ecosystems in non-perennial systems (Messenger et al., 2021). The current datasets may help to narrow this
355 knowledge gap.

356 The delineation of channel belt areas as geomorphologically-derived riverine environments also has potential for
357 addressing the 'linearity' challenge when delineating global freshwater ecosystems and habitats. For certain
358 applications like ecosystem conservation status reporting (e.g. such as is required by the UN Convention on
359 Biological Diversity) and ecosystem accounting (such as is characterized in the guidance from the UN's System
360 for Environmental and Economic Accounting), area-based measures of ecosystem extent are needed. Except for
361 very large rivers, however, river features are nearly always represented spatially as vector networks where the
362 spatial entity for a river reach is a line segment. The segments may have an attribute for river width, but regardless,
363 the spatial entities representing river reaches are generally not area-based; and including freshwater ecosystems in
364 area-based assessments is challenging. As such, there may be utility in using the Global Channel Belt resource for
365 the spatial delineation of global freshwater ecosystems which would permit area-based assessments of their
366 condition.

367

368 4.2.3 Biogeochemical cycles

369 Existing observations of river surface area at a 30 m global resolution suggest an area of 4.6×10^5 km² at mean
370 annual water [dischargelevel](#) (Allen and Pavelsky, 2018). However, our current study at the same 30 m resolution
371 suggests that the permanent extent of rivers is considerably lower at 2.9×10^5 km² or 37% less (Figure 2). On the
372 other hand, the seasonal extent of rivers may contribute another 3.2×10^5 km² for a total area of 6.1×10^5 km² or
373 an area approximately 32% larger than the previous observed estimate. Given rivers are known as a significant
374 source of carbon emissions through water-atmosphere controls, our observations suggest a strong seasonal
375 influence on biogeochemical cycles. Indeed, current estimates based on modelled monthly river surface area
376 suggest that rivers emit 2.0 ± 0.2 Pg C y⁻¹ and that it is strongly based on seasonal river extents, particularly in
377 temperate and arctic rivers (Liu et al., 2022). The current study furthermore suggests that rivers have, over the past
378 38 years, increased in seasonality by as much as 12%. This [entailsindicates](#) that carbon emissions from rivers have
379 significantly increased in recent years, especially from high latitude Arctic rivers and high mountainous regions,
380 of for instance, the Tibetan Plateau that experience longer summer months.

381
382 The type of river system is also important in the carbon cycle with high discharge braided rivers recognized to
383 actively erode carbon rich floodplain material to reduce carbon oxidation into the atmosphere (Repasch et al.,
384 2021). The current SARL database show locations of laterally active river systems versus human-controlled river

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385 systems. It is also important to recognize the perennial versus non-perennial nature of rivers and lakes which
386 suggests that CO₂ emissions from dry inland waters is overlooked in global calculations contributing an additional
387 6% (~0.12 Pg C y⁻¹; Keller et al., 2020; Messenger et al., 2021). ~~The~~Because we found many rivers and lakes have
388 decreasing permanent ~~extent of many lakes~~extents (40 and rivers (46%, respectively; Figure 2)4), our results
389 suggest that previously buried sediments with a disproportionately high amount of organic carbon will be
390 increasingly released to the atmosphere (Keller et al., 2020; Hao et al., 2021). Lastly, the damming of rivers and
391 its impact on flow and sedimentation patterns have been shown to eliminate another 48±11 Tg C y⁻¹ (Maavara et
392 al., 2017), although there remain significant knowledge gaps at the local to regional level. The current study and
393 recent reservoir maps (Donchyts et al., 2022; Khandelwal et al., 2022) highlight that rivers and reservoirs have
394 undergone significant historical changes, which ~~may~~ help to further constrain these estimates.

395

396 4.3 Water Resource Management

397 Global observations of surface water extent are important to regulate and manage water at a basin scale for a range
398 of different sectors including agriculture, ecosystems, forestry, energy, water supply, environment protection,
399 flood and drought control, irrigation, wastewater treatment, governance and policy to name a few (Garcia et al.,
400 2016; Sheffield et al., 2018). In particular, the data is important to understand the impacts of hydrological extremes
401 of droughts and floods on the short and long-term trends on water allocation and management. The distinction of
402 rivers and lakes is important to understand the storage and transfer of water that impact different sectors and to
403 predict the future impacts of human and climate change stressors.

404 The permanent versus seasonal extent of water is also important to quantify pressures on water resources. ~~In many~~
405 ~~circumstances, the permanent extent of rivers and lakes has decreased over the past ~4 decades of observations~~
406 ~~and replaced by an increased seasonality (Figure 3; Pekel et al., 2016; Donchyts, et al., 2016). A change from~~
407 ~~perennial to seasonal surface water of river directly impacts groundwater recharge and the resulting water table~~
408 ~~level (Gleeson et al., 2020). For instance, regions of central Australia, Caspian Sea, Aral Sea, western United~~
409 ~~States, and southern Africa have seen a statistical decrease in permanent waters of both rivers and lakes (Figure 2)~~
410 ~~that are related to well documented droughts and anthropogenic stresses (Micklin et al., 2007; Van Loon et al.,~~
411 ~~2016; Mekonnen et al., 2016). There are also rivers that while have experienced relatively stable permanent river~~
412 ~~water levels, also show decreased annual seasonal flooding, of for example, the Ob River in Siberia (Zemtsov,~~
413 ~~2019).~~

414 ~~On the other extreme, the Brahmaputra River in Bangladesh and India show an increase in the seasonal extent~~
415 ~~(Figure 2) that is attributed to increased intensity of river discharge during monsoonal seasons due to increasing~~
416 ~~Southern Oscillation Index extremes (Mirza, 2011). In other natural river systems, like the lower Amazon basin,~~
417 ~~we see a slight, statistically significant increase in water surface area of rivers over past three decades (Figure 3).~~
418 ~~The Amazon water catchment as one of the least human-modified river systems globally (Grill et al., 2019), has~~
419 ~~increased water levels due to a strengthening Walker circulation (Barichivich et al., 2023). An increase in~~
420 ~~permanent water surface area for both rivers and lakes is particularly noticeable in central Asia and the Tibetan~~
421 ~~Plateau as well which has been associated with the acceleration of glacial melting and precipitation (Bo Huang,~~
422 ~~2019).~~

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423 ~~2014). Furthermore, seasonal water expansion in Siberia can be related to increased thawing of permafrost lakes~~
424 ~~in summer months (Matthews et al., 2020). Lastly, reservoir expansion, particularly around the Indian~~
425 ~~subcontinent, eastern Brazil and China, attribute to the increased water surface area of lakes (Donchyts et al.,~~
426 ~~2022).~~

429 5. Conclusions

430
431 Here we have presented a new classification on the long-term change in permanent and seasonal extents of both
432 rivers and lakes from 1984 to 2022. Our results show that while the global area of permanent rivers and lakes has
433 remained relatively steady over the past 4 decades (~1% change), the regional variability is considerably higher.
434 The global extent of seasonal rivers and lakes present a different trend, increasing in surface area by 12% and 27%,
435 respectively. For catchments with a statistically significant change, 84% ~~of rivers and lakes~~ are positively skewed
436 showing an increased seasonality in surface water coverage over the same period. ~~The decreasing perennial extent~~
437 ~~of many rivers and lakes is often reflected in an increased seasonality of those same water bodies. Decreasing~~
438 ~~perennial extent of many rivers and lakes (38 to 45%, respectively) is often reflected in an increased seasonality~~
439 ~~of those same water bodies (60 and 77%, respectively). However, an increasing perennial extent of rivers and lakes~~
440 ~~(62% and 55%, respectively) also show a constant or increased seasonal coverage of the same water bodies (78~~
441 ~~and 88%, respectively) to create an overall expanding maximum surface area extent annually. Quantifying~~
442 ~~perennial and seasonal change of rivers and lakes is crucial for measuring and tracking the health of aquatic~~
443 ~~ecosystems and the impact of climate change and human pressures. The strong increase in seasonal maximum~~
444 ~~extent of rivers suggests atmospheric-carbon interactions in rivers may have been larger than expected from~~
445 ~~permanent river coverage alone, and may also have increased over the last few decades.~~ The results of our analysis
446 are shared as the SARL database, which includes waterbody type, seasonality and spatio-temporal change for
447 global rivers and lakes. This database is a valuable resource and framework for water resource monitoring and
448 assessment of ecosystem health and conservation ~~infor~~ different waterbody types.

450 Data Availability

451 The SARL database developed in this study ~~havehas~~ been deposited in the Zenodo database under accession
452 code <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6895820>. An interactive map is available at
453 <https://bjornburnyberg.users.earthengine.app/view/waterchange>.

455 Author Contribution

456 BN conceived the original idea, designed the methodology and created the database. BN and EL analyzed the
457 original data and created the figures. BN, RS and EL wrote the manuscript.

458 Competing interests

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

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