

# 1 **Increasing seasonal variation in the extent of rivers and lakes** 2 **from 1984 to 2022**

3 Björn Nyberg<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>, Roger Sayre<sup>4</sup>, Elco Luijendijk<sup>1</sup>

4 Department of Earth Sciences, University of Bergen, Allegaten 41, 5020, Bergen, Norway.<sup>1</sup>

5 Bjerknes Centre for Climate Research, Allegaten 70, 5020, Bergen, Norway.<sup>2</sup>

6 7Analytics, Innovation District Solheimsviken 7c, 5054, Bergen, Norway<sup>3</sup> U.S.

7 Geological Survey, 516 National Center, Reston, VA, 20192, USA.<sup>4</sup>

8 Correspondence: bn@7analytics.no

9

## 10 **Abstract**

11

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 ( $\rho$ ) above 0.05 and p values less than 0.05. The seasonal river extent is nearly 32%  
22 larger than previously observed annual mean river extent, suggesting large seasonal variations that impact not only  
23 ecosystem health but also estimations of terrestrial biogeochemical cycles of carbon. The outcomes of our analysis  
24 are shared as the Surface Area of Rivers and Lakes (SARL) database, serving as a valuable resource for monitoring  
25 and research of hydrological cycles, ecosystem accounting and water management.

26

27

## 28 **1. Introduction**

29

30 Climate change and population growth have placed considerable stress on our natural freshwater resources. Water  
31 demand has increased nearly 8-fold over the past century with an estimated 70% of the total used to meet irrigation  
32 needs (Siebert et al., 2010; Wada et al., 2016). To meet the increasing water demand, an estimated 16.7 million  
33 reservoirs have been built (Lehner et al., 2016) with the largest 24783 dams holding a predicted 7384 km<sup>3</sup> of  
34 freshwater (Wang et al., 2023). Current water demand represents only 10% of our approximate annual renewable  
35 freshwater resources (Oki and Kanae, 2006). Nonetheless, water scarcity remains a significant problem around the

36 world due to the variability of water in time and space (Oki and Kanae, 2006; Mekonnen et al., 2016). The  
37 hydrological cycle is also crucial to the health of our ecosystems and biodiversity that depend on the recurrence  
38 and seasonality of water to support life (Gleeson et al., 2020). Furthermore, inland waters are also an important  
39 component in biogeochemical cycles of CO<sub>2</sub> and methane that, by size, disproportionately contribute a significant  
40 portion to our total greenhouse emissions annually (Bastviken et al., 2004; Allen and Pavelsky, 2018; Matthews  
41 et al., 2020).

42

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

54

55 Planetary scale computing and analysis of remotely sensed imagery have led to a number of studies revealing the  
56 unprecedented impact of human resource management and climate change stress on the extent of water (Van Dijk  
57 et al., 2011; Wada et al., 2016; Pekel et al., 2016, Donchyts, et al., 2016). In particular, significant advancements  
58 have been made in identifying and quantifying the historical change in global reservoirs at a 0.01 to 100 km<sup>2</sup>  
59 resolution (Donchyts et al., 2022). In addition, the temporal analysis of lakes extents has been analyzed up to 50  
60 degrees North at a 0.1 km<sup>2</sup> resolution (Khandelwal et al., 2022). The identification of natural lakes in high latitude  
61 regions has not been analyzed within a global water surface change context.

62

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

73

74

75 **2. Materials and Methods**

76

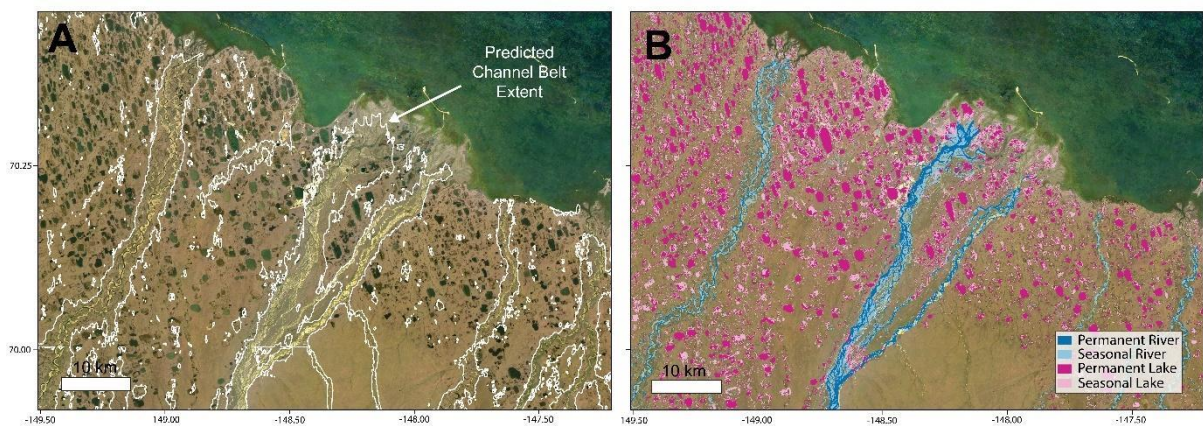
77 **2.1 Water Surface Area Classification**

78

79 To classify the permanent and seasonal extent of lakes and rivers, we utilize existing datasets describing the surface  
80 area of water combined with a new and improved definition of river extents on a global scale. Our analysis is based  
81 on the Global Surface Water (GSW) version 1.4 by Pekel et al. (2016) that describes the permanent and seasonal  
82 extent of open water from 1984 to 2022 based on 30 m Landsat imagery. Permanent surface area of water is defined  
83 as locations where open water is detected for all twelve months of a given year (or 100% of valid pixels). Seasonal  
84 surface water was defined as any pixel location with at least one month during which water was detected. The  
85 authors report less than 1% false positive open water classifications and less than 5% missed open water  
86 classifications based on 40,000 randomly selected points.

87

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



97

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

103

104 To improve delineations of river channel belt extent we refine the classification of Nyberg et al. (2023) by using  
105 GCB pixels with a reported confidence of 10% or higher and a 50% confidence above 60 degrees North. This step  
106 was chosen to constrain rivers without distinct channel belts in high latitude regions (e.g., Canadian Shield or  
107 Siberian Plateau) given most sedimentary basins with clearly defined channel belts occur around mid to low  
108 latitude regions (Nyberg and Howell, 2016). In addition, previous databases of large lakes and reservoirs ( $\sim > 10$   
109  $\text{km}^2$ ) defined by the HydroLakes (Messenger et al., 2016) and OpenStreetMap (2022) datasets are included to further  
110 improve delineations. This step was achieved by converting the vector lacustrine databases to rasters at the same  
111 30 m resolution of the GCB delineation to remove the misclassified pixels. The inclusion of the lacustrine databases  
112 reduced the global channel belt extent by 1.86% or  $13.4 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$ .

113  
114 Finally, the seaward extent of the SARL database is based on the Global Shoreline Vector (GSV) dataset by Sayre  
115 et al. (2019). This classification represents an image-derived instantaneous shoreline position for the year 2014  
116 capturing between a low- and high-tide classification. This step is necessary to remove classification of sea pixels  
117 from the resulting lacustrine/riverine classification. Depending on the tidal range for a particular region and  
118 available Landsat images, this may result in a lower or higher riverine and lacustrine extent, which may impact  
119 our subsequent statistical analyses. However, the GSV dataset provides a global, 30 m resolution shoreline  
120 classification, creating a consistent definition of the shoreline that is needed for the SARL database.

121  
122 By combining the GCB and GSW datasets, we produce a new global dataset mapping the historical change of the  
123 seasonal and permanent water surface area of lakes and rivers (SARL) from 1984 to 2022. The seasonal extent of  
124 water within the channel belt shows rivers at bankfull or larger flood events with inundation persisting for at least  
125 one month. Water Bodies outside the channel belt are defined as a lakes or wetland regions (Figure 1). The  
126 processing is completed on the Google Earth Engine platform (Gorelick et al., 2017) resulting in a global database  
127 of the seasonal and permanent surface area of rivers and lakes from 1984 to 2022 at a 30 m Landsat resolution.

128

## 129 **2.2 Temporal Water Surface Area Analysis**

130  
131 Following the mapping of the SARL database, we analyze the data by aggregating results on drainage catchments  
132 derived from the HydroSHEDS level 5 catchment dataset (Lehner et al., 2008). Considering that satellite imagery  
133 is not available for certain years due to non-acquisition or excessive cloud cover, it is important to consider missing  
134 values in the time series of surface water observations. Pekel et al., 2016 define the location of missing values for  
135 each year in the GSW database but do not identify the waterbody type or seasonality of those missing values. To  
136 rectify this omission, we take the averaged ratio between seasonal to permanent waterbody extent and waterbody  
137 type (lake, river and no water) ratio between 2015 to 2017 for each catchment as a baseline given there are no  
138 reported missing values during those years. While this approach does not account for the changing seasonal to  
139 permanent water ratios or waterbody type over time, it does provide an approximation that allows for the analysis  
140 of water trends in situations where a few missing values ( $< 5\%$ ) are reported in a much larger catchment region.  
141 This method was preferred over a long-term pixel average and interpolation given that earlier landsat acquisitions

142 have a lower temporal resolution, and therefore seasonal changes can be interpreted less reliably, which may result  
143 in skewed ratios of seasonal to permanent rivers and lakes.

144

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

148

$$149 \quad pArea = pO + (nD * (1 - k)) \quad \text{if } nD * (1-k) < 0.05 \quad (1a)$$

150

$$151 \quad sArea = sO + (nD * k) \quad \text{if } nD * k < 0.05 \quad (1b)$$

152

153 where pArea is the permanent surface area, sArea is the seasonal surface area, pO is the observed permanent  
154 surface area, sO is the observed seasonal surface area, nD is the area of no data values for the entire catchment, k  
155 is the seasonal:permanent surface area ratio and p is the total area of water pixels (e.g. observed + missing values).

156

157 Equation 1 is processed separately for rivers and lakes and only assigned to catchments where less than 5% of the  
158 data is missing for any given year, waterbody type and seasonality. For years with more than 5% missing values,  
159 the first year with valid observations for any given catchment is used. This creates an accompanying dataset  
160 showing the absolute change, percentage change and annual percentage change in surface area of water bodies for  
161 each catchment from 1984 to 2022 (see Data Statement section for interactive map and supplementary figure S1).

162

163 To statistically analyze trends in the surface area of rivers and lakes by catchment, we perform Spearman rank  
164 correlations (Spearman, 1987). This correlation measures the monotonicity of the relationship between two  
165 parameters, in this case the surface area of the waterbody extent versus time. This measure is ideal considering  
166 waterbody extent is often not a linear relationship with time given the interannual variability. To perform this  
167 analysis, we limit our analyses to catchments with more than 10 years of results, at least 1km<sup>2</sup> of detected water  
168 surface area and 95% data coverage for each year. Statistically significant trends are defined by p value less than  
169 0.05 or 5%. In total, the analysis captures between 1172 to 1493 watersheds (or 34 to 41% of the global watersheds  
170 with water occurrence), depending on the seasonal versus permanent and river versus lake analysis performed.

171

## 172 **2.3 Validation**

173

174 To validate and assess the accuracy of the SARL dataset over the 38-years of available water surface data, we  
175 compare the results to the manually interpreted extent of river channel belt and lake environments for the year  
176 2022. In total, 50 locations (see supplementary material Figure S2) measuring 50 km<sup>2</sup> were randomly selected  
177 (excluding Greenland and Antarctica) to manually map the river channel belt extent using 30 m Landsat 8 imagery.  
178 The Landsat imagery corresponds to the same spatial resolution and year of acquisition as the GCB dataset defined

179 by Nyberg et al. (2023) which is used in the current model to define the global channel belt extent (section 2.1).  
 180 The manual delineation of the channel belt is defined as the encompassing region of the active river and its  
 181 associated bars, over bank deposits and abandoned channels (Nyberg et al., 2023) to show the maximum  
 182 geomorphologically-observed extent of the river system through time.

183

184 Following the proposed automated method to classify the current SARL database (e.g., Figure 1), water bodies  
 185 defined within the manually defined 2020 channel belt extent are classified as riverine whereas all other surface  
 186 water bodies are defined as lacustrine. Seasonal and permanent waterbody extent for both rivers and lakes are then  
 187 extracted based on the GSW model (Pekel et al., 2016). The manual river channel belt delineation is subsequently  
 188 used to compare the accuracy of the automated delineation in capturing the permanent and seasonal water extent  
 189 of the GSW dataset from 1984 to 2022 (see supplementary Table S2). While the GCB dataset and manual  
 190 delineation for validation is only available for the year 2022, the channel belt represents the lateral migration of a  
 191 rivers course through time (Nyberg et al., 2023), thus capturing the extent of the river system through multiple  
 192 years. Hence, the method provides a baseline assessment for the accuracy of the automated method in capturing  
 193 the natural variability in seasonal and permanent water extent through time.

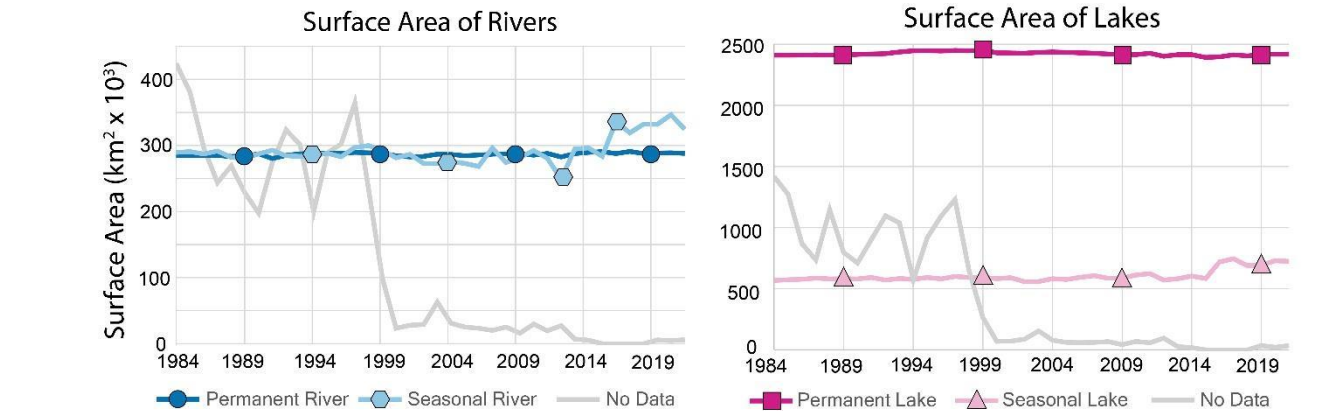
194

195 **3. Results**

196

197 **3.1 Total Water Surface Extent**

198 The permanent surface area of rivers has remained relatively steady over the past 38 years, increasing slightly by  
 199 1.1% to a total area of  $2.9 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$  (Figure 2). In contrast, the observed seasonal extent of rivers has increased  
 200 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  
 201 permanent river water extent ranges from 88 to 119%, increasing towards the end of 2022. Similarly, the spatial  
 202 extent of permanent lake surface area has increased by less than 1% since 1984 to a total area of  $24.2 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$   
 203 (Figure 2). The seasonal extent of lakes has however increased significantly, by as much as 27% since 1984 to a  
 204 total area of  $7.2 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$ . The ratio of seasonal to permanent water extent in lakes is considerably lower than that  
 205 of rivers and ranges between 23-31% over the same period.



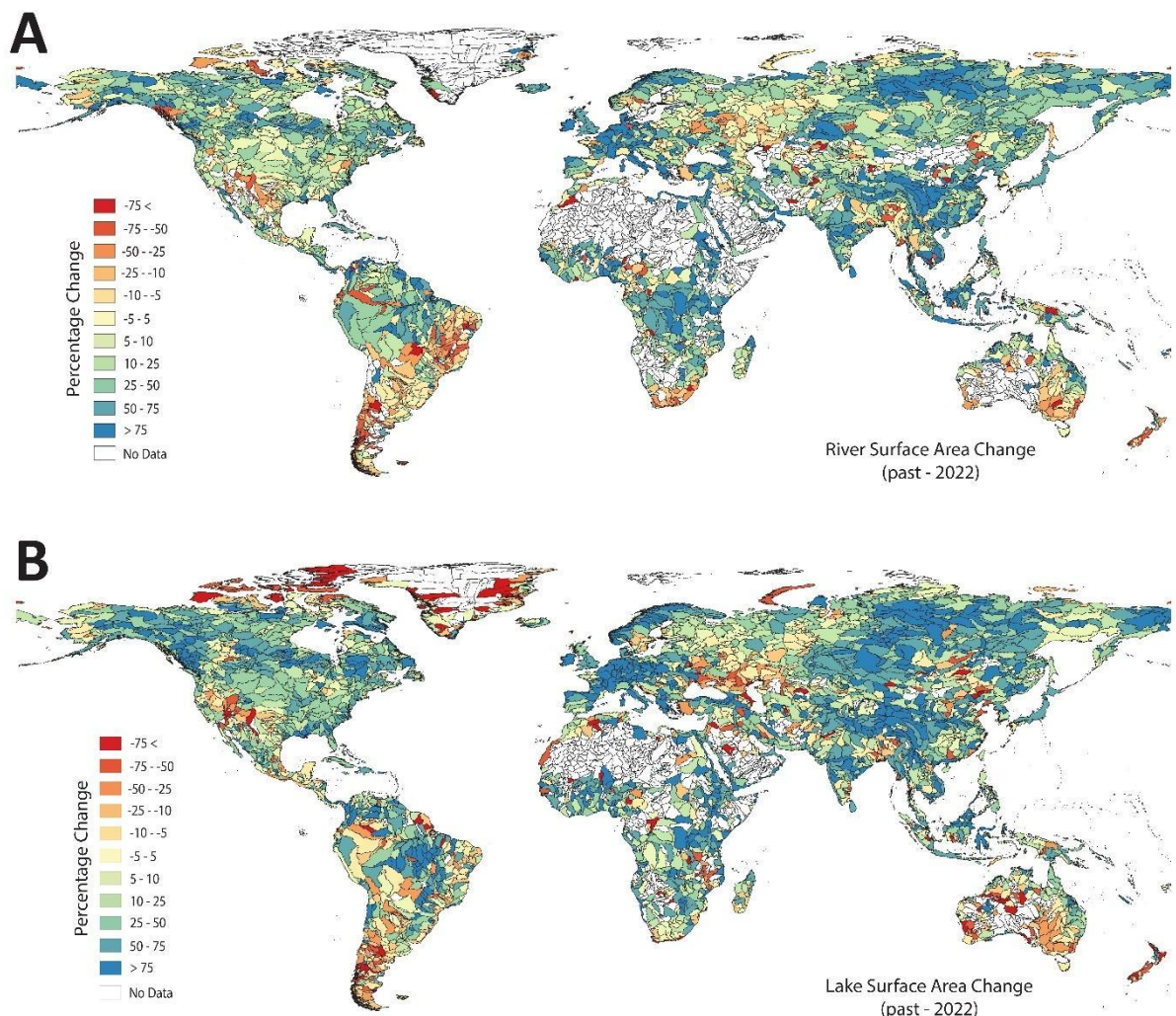
206

207 Figure 2: Global Water Surface Area Summary - Graphs show the temporal variability in permanent and seasonal water extent  
 208 of rivers and lakes by year.

209

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

221



222

223

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

227

### 228 **3.2 Annual Water Surface Area Trends**

229

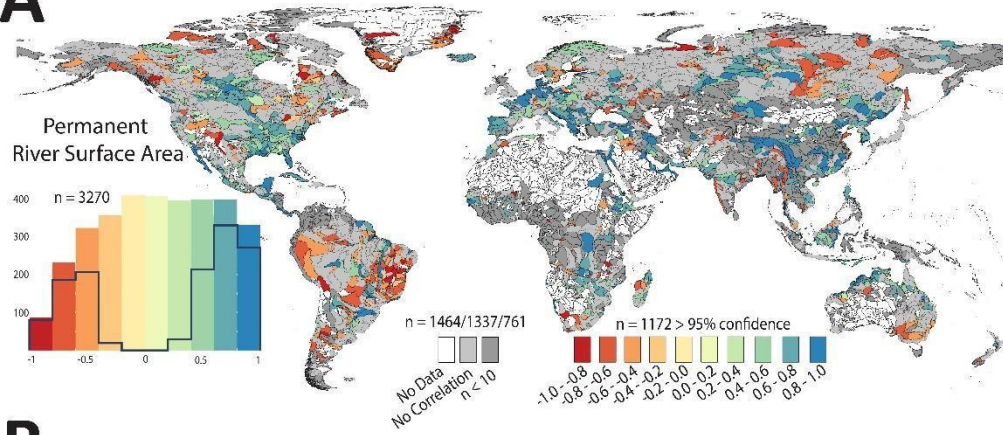
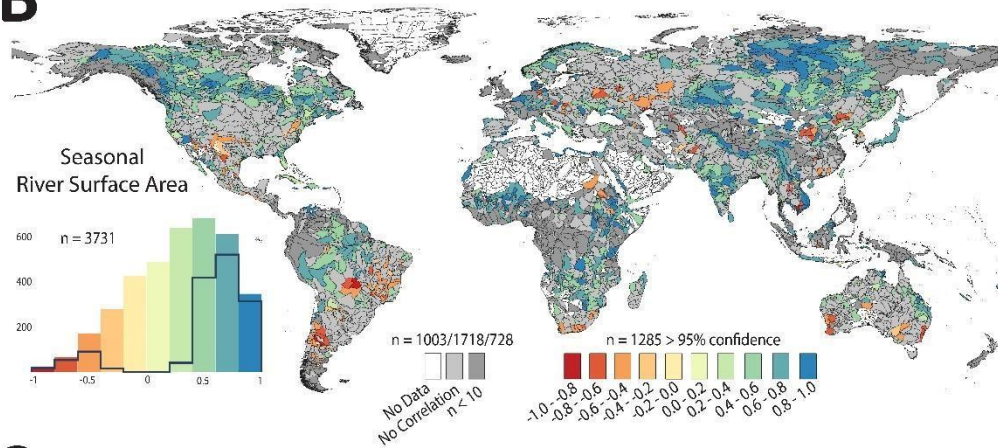
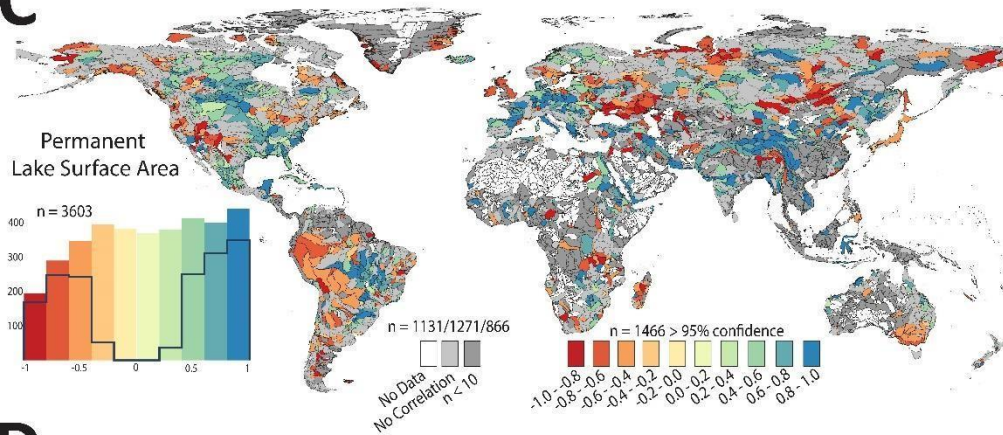
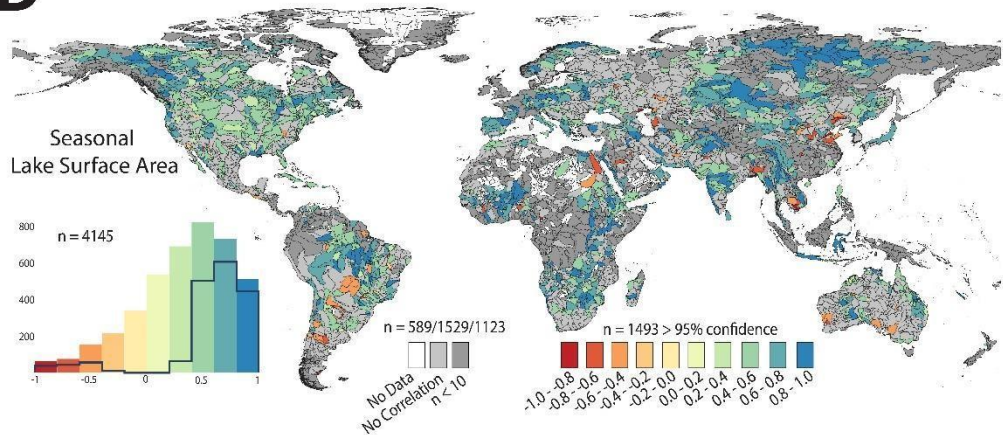
230 Figure 4 shows trends in permanent versus seasonal water surface area of rivers and lakes from 1984 to 2022 based  
231 on the Spearman rank correlations ( $\rho$ ). Permanent river and lake extents show a relative normal distribution in  
232 spearman correlations indicating the permanent extent of rivers and lakes have experienced both decrease and  
233 increase in surface water area. In total, 47% and 54% of catchments show the permanent surface area of rivers  
234 (Figure 4A) and lakes (Figure 4C) have statistically changed. Out of all catchments with statistically significant  
235 changes, 62% and 55% of catchments have a positive increase in permanent water surface area for rivers and lakes,  
236 respectively. In comparison, the seasonal extent of rivers and lakes is strongly positive indicating an overall  
237 increased seasonality with 42% and 49% of catchments showing a significant change for rivers and lakes,  
238 respectively (Figure 4B and 4D). Out of all catchments with statistically significant changes, 84% and 90% of  
239 catchments have a positive increase in seasonal water surface area extent for rivers and lakes, respectively.

240

241

242



**A****B****C****D**

244 Figure 4: Spearman Rank Correlations: Catchments with statistically significant change in permanent (A,C) and seasonal  
 245 (B,D) water surface area since 1984 to 2020 for rivers and lakes. Spearman rank correlations ( $\rho$ ) are shown ranging from -1  
 246 (red) to 1 (blue) where no correlation (light gray) indicates no statistically significant change. The histogram for each map  
 247 shows the spearman correlations with the line indicating the distribution of the statistically significant samples ( $n > 9$ ). See  
 248 supplementary Figure S4 for the entire spearman correlation dataset.

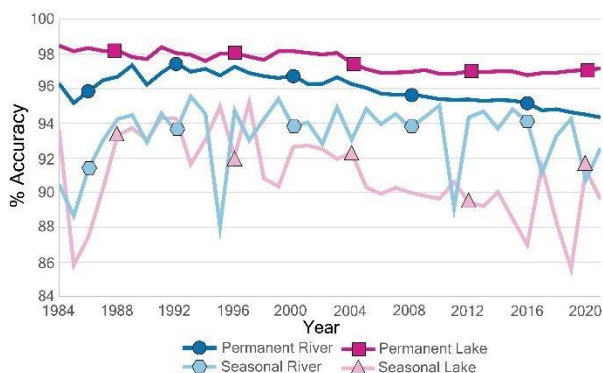
249

### 250 3.3 Accuracy

251

252 Overall, the SARL dataset showed a 93.8% accuracy to the manual delineation of the channel belt extents for the  
 253 calculation of permanent and seasonal lake coverage over the 38-year period as summarized in Figure 5. The  
 254 permanent extent of lakes is the most consistent and has the highest accuracy ranging between 96.7 and 98.5%.  
 255 The accuracy of the permanent river extent is lower and ranges from 94.3 to 97.5%. Finally, both the seasonal  
 256 river and seasonal lakes water bodies show on average an accuracy over 90% but are also the most variable  
 257 reflecting the variability in yearly water extent. The accuracy of the seasonal river is slightly higher ranging from  
 258 87 to 95% whereas seasonal lake has the lowest reported accuracy between 85 and 95%.

259



260

261 Figure 5: Temporal Accuracy of the SARL Database - Overall accuracy of the SARL database for seasonal and permanent  
 262 water extent of lakes and rivers.

263

## 264 4. Discussion

265

### 266 4.1 Global Surface Water Trends

267 Global observations of surface water extent are important to regulate and manage water at a basin scale for a range  
 268 of different sectors including agriculture, ecosystems, forestry, energy, water supply, environment protection,  
 269 flood and drought control, irrigation, wastewater treatment, governance and policy to name a few (Garcia et al.,  
 270 2016; Sheffield et al., 2018). In particular, the data is important to understand the impacts of hydrological extremes  
 271 of droughts and floods on the short and long-term trends on water allocation and management. The distinction of  
 272 rivers and lakes is important to understand the storage and transfer of water that impact different sectors and to  
 273 predict the future impacts of human and climate change stressors.

274 The permanent versus seasonal extent of water is also important to quantify pressures on water resources. In many  
275 circumstances, the permanent extent of rivers and lakes has decreased over the past ~4 decades of observations  
276 (38 and 45% of watersheds, respectively) and replaced by an increased seasonality (60 and 77%, respectively;  
277 Figure 4, Pekel et al., 2016; Donchyts, et al., 2016). A change from perennial to seasonal surface water of rivers  
278 directly impacts groundwater recharge and the resulting water table level (Gleeson et al., 2020). For instance,  
279 regions of central Australia, Caspian Sea, Aral Sea, western United States and southern Africa have seen a  
280 statistical decrease in permanent waters of both rivers and lakes (Figure 4) that are related to well documented  
281 droughts and anthropogenic stresses (Micklin et al., 2007, Van Loon et al., 2016; Mekonnen et al., 2016). There  
282 are also rivers that have experienced relatively stable permanent river water levels while also showing a decrease  
283 in annual seasonal flooding, e.g., the Ob River in Siberia (Zemtsov, 2019).

284  
285 On the other extreme, the Brahmaputra River in Bangladesh and India show stable permanent water levels with an  
286 increased seasonal extent (Figures 2 and 4) that correlates to increased intensity of river discharge during  
287 monsoonal seasons due to increasing Southern Oscillation Index extremes (Mirza, 2011). In other natural river  
288 systems, like the lower Amazon basin, we see a slight, statistically significant, increase in water surface area of  
289 rivers over past three decades (Figure 4). The Amazon water catchment as one of the least human-modified river  
290 systems globally (Grill et al., 2019), has increased water levels due to a strengthening Walker circulation  
291 (Barichivich et al., 2023). An increase in permanent water surface area for both rivers and lakes is particularly  
292 noticeable in central Asia and the Tibetan Plateau as well, which has been associated with the acceleration of  
293 glacial melting and precipitation (Bo Huang, 2014). Furthermore, seasonal water expansion in Siberia can be  
294 related to increased thawing of permafrost lakes in summer months (Matthews et al., 2020). Lastly, reservoir  
295 expansion, particularly around the Indian subcontinent, eastern Brazil and China, contribute to the increased water  
296 surface area of lakes (Donchyts et al., 2022). In summary, statistically increasing permanent extent in rivers and  
297 lakes account for 62% and 55% of watersheds, respectively (Figure 4), and often show a constant or increasing  
298 seasonal extent as well ( $\rho > -0.05$ ; 78 and 88%, respectively), to suggest larger water bodies through time.

299

300

## 301 **4.2 Ecosystem Health**

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

309 The ability to couple the area of river and stream surface water with adjacent, in-channel terrestrial area supports  
310 increased understanding of freshwater microhabitats and freshwater biotic interactions. For example, while fish  
311 are obviously restricted to in-water lotic microhabitats like riffles, pools and runs (whose locations also change

312 spatially and temporally with changing surface water extent), amphibians and certain terrestrial invertebrates  
313 regularly move between water and adjacent in-channel dry land (Lowe, 2009). Conceptualizing and delineating  
314 freshwater ecosystems as only containing water is therefore under-representative of the area of occupancy and use  
315 by many freshwater aquatic organisms.

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

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

335

### 336 **4.3 Biogeochemical cycles**

337 Existing observations of river surface area at a 30 m global resolution suggest an area of  $4.6 \times 10^5$  km<sup>2</sup> at mean  
338 annual water level (Allen and Pavelsky, 2018). However, our current study at the same 30 m resolution suggests  
339 that the permanent extent of rivers is considerably lower at  $2.9 \times 10^5$  km<sup>2</sup> or 37% less (Figure 2). On the other  
340 hand, the seasonal extent of rivers may contribute another  $3.2 \times 10^5$  km<sup>2</sup> for a total area of  $6.1 \times 10^5$  km<sup>2</sup> or an area  
341 approximately 32% larger than the previous observed estimate. Given rivers are known as a significant source of  
342 carbon emissions through water-atmosphere controls, our observations suggest a strong seasonal influence on  
343 biogeochemical cycles. Indeed, current estimates based on modelled monthly river surface area suggest that rivers  
344 emit  $2.0 \pm 0.2$  Pg C y<sup>-1</sup> and that it is strongly based on seasonal river extents, particularly in temperate and arctic  
345 rivers (Liu et al., 2022). The current study furthermore suggests that rivers have, over the past 38 years, increased  
346 in seasonality by as much as 12%. This indicates that carbon emissions from rivers have significantly increased in  
347 recent years, especially from high latitude Arctic rivers and high mountainous regions, of for instance, the Tibetan  
348 Plateau that experience longer summer months.

349

350 The type of river system is also important in the carbon cycle with high discharge braided rivers recognized to  
351 actively erode carbon rich floodplain material to reduce carbon oxidation into the atmosphere (Repasch et al.,  
352 2021). The current SARL database show locations of laterally active river systems versus human-controlled river  
353 systems. It is also important to recognize the perennial versus non-perennial nature of rivers and lakes which  
354 suggests that CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from dry inland waters is overlooked in global calculations contributing an additional  
355 6% (~0.12 Pg C y<sup>-1</sup>; Keller et al., 2020; Messenger et al., 2021). Because we found many rivers and lakes have  
356 decreasing permanent extents (40 and 46%, respectively; Figure 4), our results suggest that previously buried  
357 sediments with a disproportionately high amount of organic carbon will be increasingly released to the atmosphere  
358 (Keller et al., 2020; Hao et al., 2021). Lastly, the damming of rivers and its impact on flow and sedimentation  
359 patterns have been shown to eliminate another 48±11 Tg C y<sup>-1</sup> (Maavara et al., 2017), although there remain  
360 significant knowledge gaps at the local to regional level. The current study and recent reservoir maps (Donchyts  
361 et al., 2022; Khandelwal et al., 2022) highlight that rivers and reservoirs have undergone significant historical  
362 changes, which may help to further constrain these estimates.

363

## 364 5. Conclusions

365

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

383

384 **Data Availability**

385 The SARL database developed in this study has been deposited in the Zenodo database under accession code  
386 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6895820>. An interactive map is available at  
387 <https://bjornburryberg.users.earthengine.app/view/waterchange>

388

389 **Author Contribution**

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

392

393 **Competing interests**

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

395

396 **Acknowledgements**

397 Any use of trade, product, or firm names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the  
398 U.S. Government. The authors are grateful for the journal-provided reviews and for helpful comments from John  
399 W. Jones of the U.S. Geological Survey. Nyberg was funded by the Architectural Element Characterization of  
400 Fluvial Systems project by AkerBP ASA and the Sea Level Projections and Reconstructions (SeaPR) project at  
401 the Bjerknes Centre for Climate Research. The University of Bergen is thanked for APC support.

402

403 **References**

404

405 Allen, G., & Pavelsky, T. (2018) Global extent of rivers and streams. *Science* 361, 585-588.  
406 DOI:10.1126/science.aat0636

407 Barichivich, J., Gloor, E., Peylin, P., Brienen, R. J. W., Schöngart, J., Espinoza, J. C., & Pattanyak, K. C. (2023).  
408 Recent intensification of Amazon flooding extremes driven by strengthened Walker circulation. *Science*  
409 *Advances*, 4(9), 8785. <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aat8785>

410 Bastviken, D., Cole, J., Pace, M., & Tranvik, L. (2004). Methane emissions from lakes: Dependence of lake  
411 characteristics, two regional assessments, and a global estimate. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 18(4).  
412 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1029/2004GB002238>

413 Dottori, F., Szewczyk, W., Ciscar, J.-C., Zhao, F., Alfieri, L., Hirabayashi, Y., Bianchi, A., Mongelli, I., Frieler,  
414 K., Betts, R. A., & Feyen, L. (2018). Increased human and economic losses from river flooding with  
415 anthropogenic warming. *Nature Climate Change*, 8(9), 781–786. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0257z)  
416 [0257z](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0257z)

417 Donchyts, G., Winsemius, H., Baart, F., Dahm, R., Schellekens, J., Gorelick, N., Iceland, C., Schmeier, S., 2022.  
418 High-resolution surface water dynamics in Earth's small and medium-sized reservoirs. *Sci. Rep.* 12,  
419 13776. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-17074-6>

420 Gleeson, T., Wang-Erlandsson, L., Porkka, M., Zipper, S. C., Jaramillo, F., Gerten, D., et al (2020). Illuminating  
421 water cycle modifications and Earth system resilience in the Anthropocene. *Water Resources Research*,  
422 56, e2019WR024957. [https://doi.org/ 10.1029/2019WR024957](https://doi.org/10.1029/2019WR024957)

423 Gorelick, N., Hancher, M., Dixon, M., Ilyushchenko, S., Thau, D., & Moore, R. (2017). Google Earth Engine:  
424 Planetary-scale geospatial analysis for everyone. *Remote Sensing of Environment*.  
425 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2017.06.031>

426 Grill, G., Lehner, B., Thieme, M., Geenen, B., Tickner, D., Antonelli, F., Babu, S., Borrelli, P., Cheng, L.,  
427 Crochetiere, H., Ehalt Macedo, H., Filgueiras, R., Goichot, M., Higgins, J., Hogan, Z., Lip, B., McClain,  
428 M.E., Meng, J., Mulligan, M., Nilsson, C., Olden, J.D., Opperman, J.J., Petry, P., Reidy Liermann, C.,  
429 Sáenz, L., Salinas-Rodríguez, S., Schelle, P., Schmitt, R.J.P., Snider, J., Tan, F., Tockner, K., Valdujo,  
430 P.H., van Soesbergen, A., Zarfl, C., 2019. Mapping the world's free-flowing rivers. *Nature* 569, 215–221.  
431 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1111-9>

432 Keller, P.S., Catalán, N., von Schiller, D., Grossart, H.-P., Koschorreck, M., Obrador, B., Frassl, M.A., Karakaya,  
433 N., Barros, N., Howitt, J.A., Mendoza-Lera, C., Pastor, A., Flaim, G., Aben, R., Riis, T., Arce, M.I.,  
434 Onandia, G., Paranaíba, J.R., Linkhorst, A., del Campo, R., Amado, A.M., Cauvy-Fraunié, S., Brothers,  
435 S., Condon, J., Mendonça, R.F., Revere, F., Rõöm, E.-I., Datry, T., Roland, F., Laas, A., Obertegger,  
436 U., Park, J.-H., Wang, H., Kosten, S., Gómez, R., Feijoó, C., Elozegi, A., Sánchez-Montoya, M.M.,  
437 Finlayson, C.M., Melita, M., Oliveira Junior, E.S., Muniz, C.C., Gómez-Gener, L., Leigh, C., Zhang, Q.,  
438 Marcé, R., 2020. Global CO2 emissions from dry inland waters share common drivers across ecosystems.  
439 *Nat. Commun.* 11, 2126. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-15929-y>

440 Lehner, B., Liermann, C. R., Revenga, C., Vörösmarty, C., Fekete, B., Crouzet, P., Döll, P., Endejan, M., Frenken,  
441 K., Magome, J., Nilsson, C., Robertson, J. C., Rödel, R., Sindorf, N., & Wisser, D. (2011). High-  
442 resolution mapping of the world's reservoirs and dams for sustainable river-flow management. *Frontiers*  
443 *in Ecology and the Environment*, 9(9), 494–502. <https://doi.org/10.1890/100125>

444 Lehner, B., Verdin, K., & Jarvis, A. (2008). New Global Hydrography Derived From Spaceborne Elevation Data.  
445 *Eos, Transactions American Geophysical Union*, 89(10), 93–94.  
446 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1029/2008EO100001>

447 Matthews, E., Johnson, M. S., Genovese, V., Du, J., & Bastviken, D. (2020). Methane emission from high latitude  
448 lakes: methane-centric lake classification and satellite-driven annual cycle of emissions. *Scientific*  
449 *Reports*, 10(1), 12465. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-68246-1>

450 Mekonnen, M. M., & Hoekstra, A. Y. (2016). Four billion people facing severe water scarcity. *Science Advances*,  
451 2(2), e1500323.

452 Messenger, M.L., Lehner, B., Cockburn, C., Lamouroux, N., Pella, H., Snelder, T., Tockner, K., Trautmann, T.,  
453 Watt, C., Datry, T., 2021. Global prevalence of non-perennial rivers and streams. *Nature* 594, 391–397.  
454 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-03565-5>

455 Messenger, M.L., Lehner, B., Grill, G., Nedeva, I., Schmitt, O., 2016. Estimating the volume and age of water stored  
456 in global lakes using a geo-statistical approach. *Nat. Commun.* 7, 13603.  
457 <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms13603>

458 Micklin, P. (2007). The Aral Sea Disaster. *Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences*, 35(1), 47–72.  
459 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.earth.35.031306.140120>

460 Mirza, M. M. Q. (2011). Climate change, flooding in South Asia and implications. *Regional Environmental*  
461 *Change*, 11(1), 95–107. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10113-010-0184-7>

462 Neumann, K., Sietz, D., Hilderink, H., Janssen, P., Kok, M., & van Dijk, H. (2015). Environmental drivers of  
463 human migration in drylands – A spatial picture. *Applied Geography*, 56, 116–126.  
464 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2014.11.021>

465 Nyberg, B., Howell, J. (2015). Is the present the key to the past? A global characterization of modern sedimentary  
466 basins. *Geology* 43 (7): 643–646.

467 Nyberg, B., Henstra, G., Gawthorpe, R.L. Rodmar, R., Ahokas, J. (2023) Global scale analysis on the extent of  
468 river channel belts. *Nat Commun* 14, 2163.

469 Oki, T., & Kanae, S. (2006). Global Hydrological Cycles and World Water Resources. *Science*, 313(5790), 1068  
470 LP – 1072. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1128845>

471 Pekel, J.-F., Cottam, A., Gorelick, N., & Belward, A. S. (2016). High-resolution mapping of global surface water  
472 and its long-term changes. *Nature*, 540(7633), 418–422. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature20584>

473 Sheffield, J., Wood, E.F., Pan, M., Beck, H., Coccia, G., Serrat-Capdevila, A., Verbist, K., 2018. Satellite Remote  
474 Sensing for Water Resources Management: Potential for Supporting Sustainable Development in Data-  
475 Poor Regions. *Water Resour. Res.* 54, 9724–9758.  
476 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1029/2017WR022437>

477 Siebert, S., Burke, J., Faures, J. M., Frenken, K., Hoogeveen, J., Döll, P., & Portmann, F. T. (2010). Groundwater  
478 use for irrigation – a global inventory. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 14(10), 1863–1880.  
479 <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-14-1863-2010>.

480 Song, C., Huang, B., Richards, K., Ke, L., & Hien Phan, V. (2014). Accelerated lake expansion on the Tibetan  
481 Plateau in the 2000s: Induced by glacial melting or other processes? *Water Resources Research*, 50(4),  
482 3170–3186. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/2013WR014724>.

483 van Dijk, A. I. J. M., & Renzullo, L. J. (2011). Water resource monitoring systems and the role of satellite  
484 observations. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 15(1), 39–55. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-15-39-2011>

485 Van Loon, A. F., Gleeson, T., Clark, J., Van Dijk, A. I. J. M., Stahl, K., Hannaford, J., Di Baldassarre, G., Teuling,  
486 A. J., Tallaksen, L. M., Uijlenhoet, R., Hannah, D. M., Sheffield, J., Svoboda, M., Verbeiren, B.,  
487 Wagener, T., Rangecroft, S., Wanders, N., & Van Lanen, H. A. J. (2016). Drought in the Anthropocene.  
488 *Nature Geoscience*, 9(2), 89–91. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo2646>

489 Wada, Y., de Graaf, I. E. M., & van Beek, L. P. H. (2016). High-resolution modeling of human and climate impacts  
490 on global water resources. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, 8(2), 735–763.  
491 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/2015MS000618>

492 Wang, J., Walter, B. A., Yao, F., Song, C., Ding, M., Maroof, A. S., Zhu, J., Fan, C., McAlister, J. M., Sikder, S.,  
493 Sheng, Y., Allen, G. H., Crétaux, J.-F., and Wada, Y.: GeoDAR: georeferenced global dams and  
494 reservoirs dataset for bridging attributes and geolocations, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 14, 1869–1899,  
495 <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-14-1869-2022>, 2022.

496 Zemtsov, V. A., Vershinin, D. A., Khromykh, V. V., & Khromykh, O. V. (2019). Long-term dynamics of maximum  
497 flood water levels in the middle course of the Ob River. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental*  
498 *Science*, 400(1), 12004. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/400/1/012004>