

# A tug-of-war within the hydrologic cycle of a continental freshwater basin

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## Key Points:

- An intensifying tug-of-war between precipitation and evaporation is dominating water level variability on Earth's largest lake system
- Competing forces are increasing or becoming more variable, setting the stage for oscillations between record high and record low levels
- Conditions evolved through abundant precipitation, and an abrupt decline in evaporation coinciding with a change in the Arctic polar vortex

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## Abstract

The past decade was the wettest on record for much of central and eastern North America. Near the beginning of this period of regional water abundance, however, drought conditions reinforced concerns that high temperatures and evapotranspiration foreshadowed a persistent imbalance in the hydrologic cycle characterized by water loss. These fluctuating hydrologic conditions were manifest by water level variability on the Laurentian Great Lakes, the largest system of lakes on Earth. We show that, during this period, the two dominant hydrologic forces acting directly on the vast surfaces of the Lakes, over-lake precipitation and over-lake evaporation, have evolved differently. More specifically, we find that over-lake precipitation has risen to extraordinary levels, while over-lake evaporation diminished rapidly in 2014 (coinciding with a strong Arctic polar vortex deformation). Our findings offer a new perspective on the impacts of competing hydrologic forces on large freshwater systems in an era of climate change.

## 1 Introduction

Over the past decade, persistent, abundant precipitation has led to extremely high soil moisture and widespread flooding across central and eastern North America [Feng *et al.*, 2016; Carter and Steinschneider, 2018]. Previous studies characterizing historical fluctuations in the hydrologic cycle of this region document increasing trends in precipitation and in the likelihood of flood events [Groisman and Easterling, 1994; Hirabayashi *et al.*, 2013; Roque-Malo and Kumar, 2017]. These conditions are associated with changes in atmospheric moisture fluxes and increasing air temperatures; yet, in other parts of North America (and the globe) climate change is more commonly associated with aridification and drought [Lofgren *et al.*, 2013; Milly and Dunne, 2017]. Near the beginning of this period of regional water abundance, however, drought conditions reinforced concerns that high temperatures and evapotranspiration might foreshadow a persistent imbalance in the hydrologic cycle characterized by net water loss [Mallya *et al.*, 2013; Gronewold and Stow, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014]. The recent fluctuation between these hydrologic conditions has been manifest by water level variability on the Laurentian Great Lakes [Gronewold *et al.*, 2016; Gronewold and Rood, 2019], the largest system of lakes on Earth.

In the absence of anthropogenic control, the water balance of most fresh surface water systems involves a trade-off between atmospheric transfer of moisture onto and across land surfaces, storage in surface and subsurface lakes and aquifers, and water loss through

48 evapotranspiration [*Jasechko et al.*, 2013; *Munoz and Dee*, 2017]. The water balance of  
49 basins containing Earth's large lakes, however, is governed by additional hydrological pro-  
50 cesses, including those related to heat exchange and evaporation [*Blanken et al.*, 2003;  
51 *Gronewold and Stow*, 2014; *Xiao et al.*, 2018], over-lake precipitation [*Swenson and Wahr*,  
52 2009; *Holman et al.*, 2012; *Fujisaki-Manome et al.*, 2020], and enhanced intra-basin pre-  
53 cipitation recycling [*Notaro et al.*, 2013; *Fu and Steinschneider*, 2019]. These processes  
54 play a critical role in global water balance accounting and water management, given that  
55 Earth's ten largest lakes contain roughly 80% of all fresh, unfrozen surface water [*Mes-*  
56 *sager et al.*, 2016; *Cael et al.*, 2017]. On the Great Lakes, for example, an understand-  
57 ing of historical and potential future changes in the major components of the water bal-  
58 ance guides decisions related to flood risk (particularly along the shoreline of Lake On-  
59 tario), hydropower management, and commercial navigation [*Millerd*, 2011; *Gronewold*  
60 *and Rood*, 2019; *Labuhn et al.*, 2020].

61 Understanding the water balance of large lakes is important not only because it facil-  
62 itates water resources management by accounting for the majority of Earth's fresh surface  
63 water storage, but also because it provides insight into pathways through which climate  
64 change and other continental-scale phenomena are propagating into processes that are not  
65 addressed in conventional land surface hydrology [*Lofgren and Gronewold*, 2013; *Milly*  
66 *and Dunne*, 2017]. These processes include, for example, the subsidence of the Earth's  
67 surface beneath the lakes in response to the weight of the increased load of the recent wa-  
68 ter level rise [*Argus et al.*, 2020].

69 Here, we fill a gap in knowledge about the distinction between land and lake surface  
70 hydrological processes on the continental water balance through an analysis of the Upper  
71 St. Lawrence River Basin. The St. Lawrence River has the second highest annual average  
72 discharge from the North American continent (table 1; estimates of discharge are derived  
73 from *Nilsson et al.* [2005]), though the variability of that discharge is relatively low com-  
74 pared to other continental rivers because the water balance of the upper portion of the  
75 basin is dominated by the storage capacity of the Laurentian Great Lakes. It is informative  
76 to note that there are multiple potential delineations of the boundary of the St. Lawrence  
77 River basin, depending on the definition of the River's outlet. We extracted a basin bound-  
78 ary delineation from the HydroBASINS dataset [*Lehner and Grill*, 2013] where the Great  
79 Lakes and St. Lawrence River system outlet is defined as the point where it meets the

**Table 1.** Annual average discharge (in cubic meters per second, cms) of North America’s eight largest rivers (rounded to the nearest hundred).

River	Annual average discharge (cms)
Mississippi	18,400
St. Lawrence	10,800
Mackenzie	9,900
Columbia	7,500
Yukon	6,400
Fraser	3,600
Nelson	2,800
Koksoak	2,400

Saguenay River; our delineations are also consistent with definitions in the Global Lakes and Wetlands Database [Lehner and Döll, 2004].

We note that most historical studies of the water balance in North America are constrained to land surface processes either strictly within the United States or strictly within Canada because of the challenges associated with harmonizing hydrometeorological data across the international border [Gronewold *et al.*, 2018; Mason *et al.*, 2019]. Historical studies linking climate change to hydrology also commonly omit basins with large lakes because, we believe, of the challenge of representing them accurately in land surface and atmospheric models [Nijssen *et al.*, 2001; Maurer *et al.*, 2002; Gu *et al.*, 2013; Notaro *et al.*, 2013]. To address this limitation, we have synthesized the most reliable estimates for each component of the water balance of the Laurentian Great Lakes. Importantly, these estimates address components of the water balance not only over the land surface, but also over the lake surfaces of this massive freshwater system.

## 2 Datasets

### 2.1 Historical Great Lakes water levels.

We obtained monthly average Great Lakes water level data from the Coordinating Committee on Great Lakes Basic Hydraulic and Hydrologic Data (hereafter simply “Co-

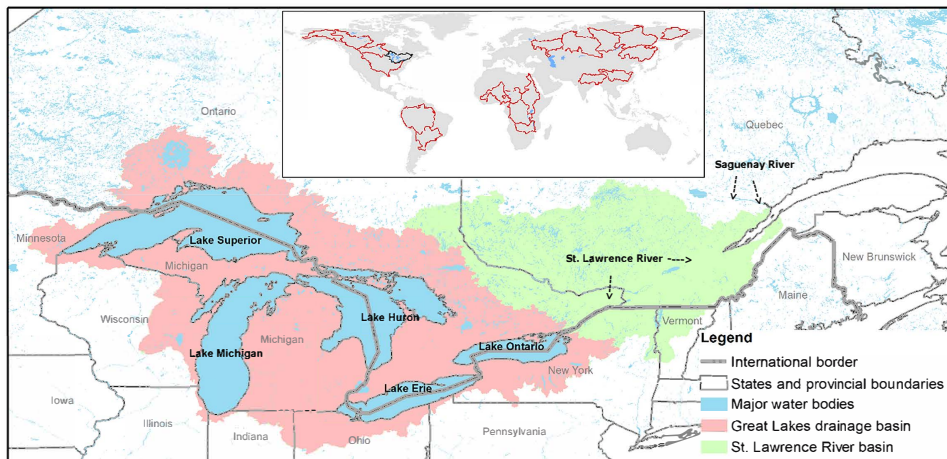
99 ordinating Committee”). This *ad hoc* group of federal scientists from the United States  
100 and Canada synthesizes, and distributes to the public, a comprehensive suite of climate  
101 and hydrological data for the Great Lakes and St. Lawrence River system [*Gronewold*  
102 *et al.*, 2018]. The Coordinating Committee calculates, and reports, monthly average wa-  
103 ter level values for each of the Great Lakes based on a network of shoreline-based water  
104 level monitoring stations maintained by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Adminis-  
105 tration (NOAA) and the Canadian Hydrographic Service. The data is distributed through  
106 multiple portals, including web sites hosted by the Coordinating Committee, the United  
107 States Army Corps of Engineers, and NOAA [*Smith et al.*, 2016].

## 108 **2.2 Components of the Great Lakes water balance.**

109 We developed multiple estimates of each component of the Great Lakes water bal-  
110 ance (see Supporting Information) and selected those that we believe to be the most accu-  
111 rate (see Supporting Information figure S2). It is informative to note that, given the sea-  
112 sonality of each component of the Great Lakes hydrologic cycle, we aggregated monthly  
113 water balance component estimates into a modified version of the conventional hydrologi-  
114 cal “water year”; our water year (for each lake) begins July 1, and ends on the last day of  
115 the following June.

119 Annual precipitation totals on the land surface surrounding the Great Lakes and St.  
120 Lawrence River (red and green areas in figure 1) are derived from areally-averaged gage  
121 measurements documented in the NOAA Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory  
122 (GLERL) Great Lakes Monthly Hydrometeorological Database, or GLM-HMD [*Hunter*  
123 *et al.*, 2015]. Land evapotranspiration estimates starting in 1950 and ending in 2013 are  
124 from what is commonly referred to as the “Livneh Gridded Precipitation and Other Mete-  
125 orological Variables product” [*Livneh et al.*, 2015]. Land evapotranspiration estimates from  
126 2014 onward are from ERA5 [*Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S)*, 2017].

127 Estimates of runoff, lake precipitation, lake evaporation, and net lake moisture flux  
128 are derived from the Large Lake Statistical Water Balance Model (L2SWBM). The L2SWBM  
129 includes a series of conventional lake water balance algorithms encoded within a Bayesian  
130 statistical framework [*Gronewold et al.*, 2020] that infers (with an expression of uncer-  
131 tainty) each component of the water balance for either a single lake, or for a connected  
132 system of lakes. We then aggregated these estimates, using the surface area of each lake,

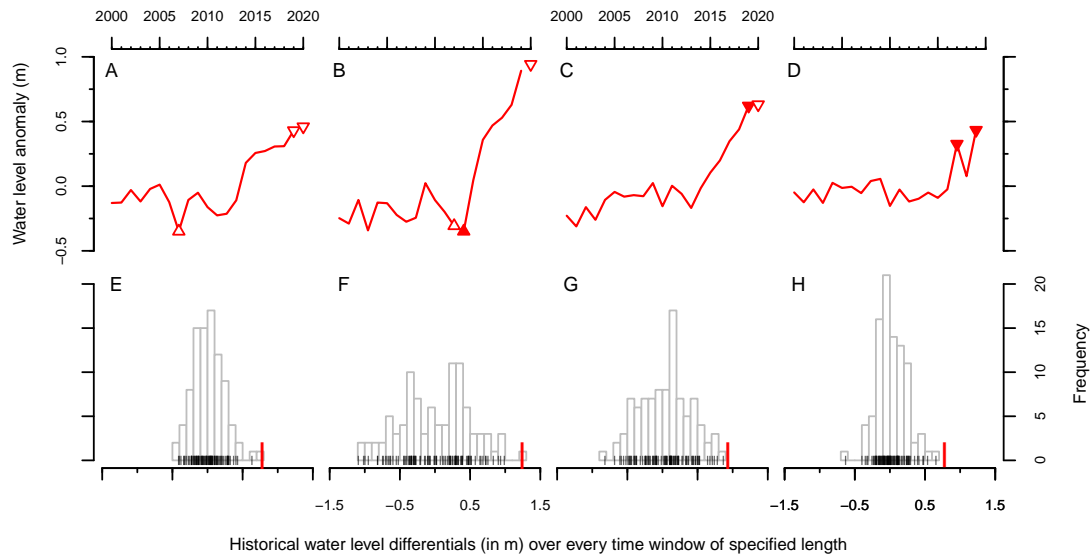


116 **Figure 1.** Map of the St. Lawrence River basin, including a delineation of the sub-basin of the Laurentian  
 117 Great Lakes (i.e. the upper portion of the St. Lawrence River basin). Inset figure delineates the 20 largest river  
 118 basins on Earth (St. Lawrence River basin is outlined in black in inset).

133 into a single value of total over-lake precipitation, total over-lake evaporation, and total  
 134 lake inflow through tributary runoff. Details of our parameterization of the L2SWBM for  
 135 this study, as well as the L2SWBM simulations and corresponding code, are available via  
 136 the University of Michigan's DeepBlue archive [Do et al., 2020].

### 137 3 Results and Discussion

138 Water levels across the Great Lakes system have risen sharply over the past five  
 139 years (figure 2) surpassing both monthly and all-time record highs. Lake Superior and  
 140 Lake Michigan-Huron, for example, set new monthly high water level records in 2019 and  
 141 2020. Lake Ontario set a new all-time high level in 2017, and both Lake Erie and Lake  
 142 Ontario set new all-time high level records 2019. These conditions are all-the-more pro-  
 143 found given that water level measurements on the Great Lakes date to 1860 (see Support-  
 144 ing Information, figure S1), and that water levels on Lakes Superior and Michigan-Huron  
 145 were at or near record low conditions for much of the period from 1999 through 2013  
 146 (figure 2). Lake Superior reached record monthly lows in both August and September of  
 147 2007, while Lake Michigan-Huron reached a record low for the month of December in  
 148 2012 and an all-time record low in January 2013 [Gronewold and Stow, 2014].



**Figure 2.** Annual water level anomalies from 2000 to 2019 for Lake Superior (A), Michigan-Huron (B), Erie (C), and Ontario (D). Upward-pointing hollow and solid triangles represent years with either a monthly or (respectively) all-time record low water level. Downward-pointing hollow and solid triangles represent years with either a monthly or (respectively) all-time record high water level. Histograms of historical water level differentials across every incremental window of 12 years for Lake Superior (E), 6 years for Michigan-Huron (F), 7 years for Erie (G), and 10 years for Ontario (G). Black tick marks represent the differential from each historical time window; red tick mark represents the most recent water level differential shown in panels (A), (B), (C), or (D), respectively.

Water level fluctuations across this massive lake system are driven by seasonal and interannual partitioning of precipitation and evapotranspiration across the lake and surrounding land surfaces. Water balance assessments of the Great Lakes, and other large lakes, commonly aggregate these processes into three discrete components: lake lateral tributary runoff (defined here as the summation of lake inflow from all lateral tributaries and streams, with the exception of inflow from a lake's upstream connecting channel), over-lake precipitation, and over-lake evaporation [Lenters, 2001; Pietroniro *et al.*, 2007; Fry *et al.*, 2013; Gaborit *et al.*, 2017]. Our analysis of changes in these water balance components across the upper portion of the St. Lawrence River basin dating to 1950 (figure 3) indicates that the recent (2013-2018) extreme water level fluctuations on the Great Lakes are a response to an increase in both the magnitude and variability of precipitation, land surface evapotranspiration, and lake evaporation. It is informative to note that while Great Lakes water level *in situ* measurements date to 1860, few data sets extend evapora-

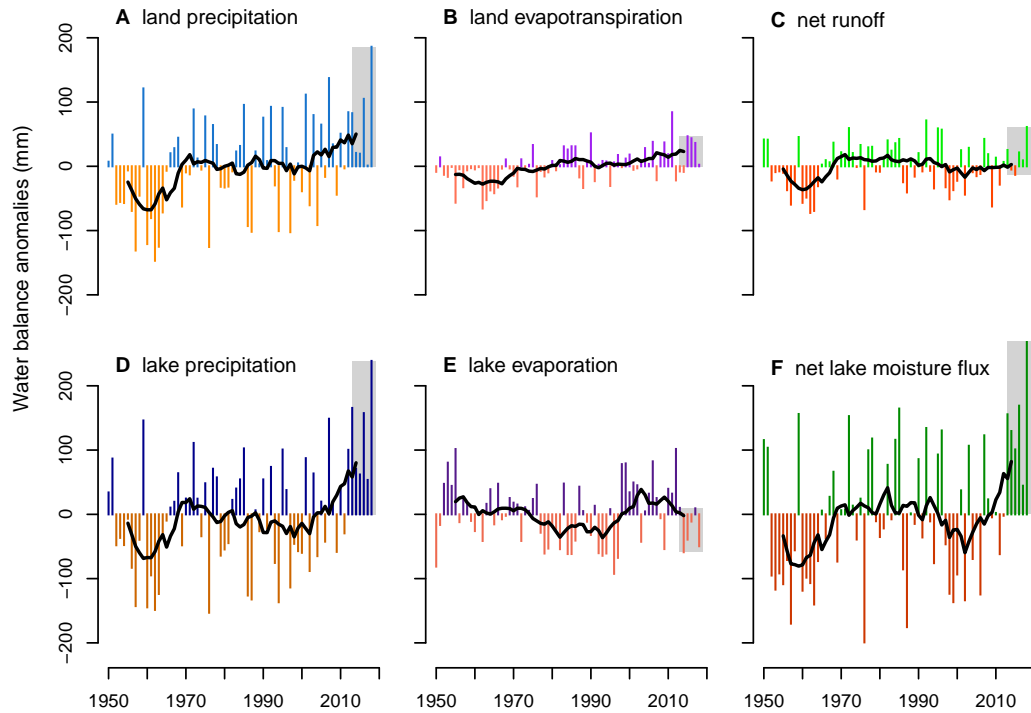
170 tion records prior to 1950 because of the limited extent of hydrometeorological monitoring  
171 networks prior to that year. As such, our historical context for the recent water level surge  
172 is based on a record dating to 1900, however our historical context for changes in the wa-  
173 ter balance dates only to 1950.

174 We find that precipitation over the land surfaces of the basin (figure 3A) has risen  
175 steadily over the past two decades and is now at extraordinary levels. The three highest  
176 years of precipitation between 1950 and 2020 were 2018 (highest), 2013 (second high-  
177 est), and 2016 (third highest). It very unlikely that this pattern is the result of natural vari-  
178 ability alone. In fact, this sequence aligns with climate change projections for the Great  
179 Lakes region, which generally indicate an expected increase in long-term regional precipi-  
180 tation [*Chao, 1999; Michalak et al., 2013; Lofgren and Gronewold, 2014; Milly and Dunne,*  
181 *2017*]. One study, for example [*Notaro et al., 2015*], showed that 33 general circulation  
182 models (GCMs) selected from the fifth Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5)  
183 projected virtually no change (3 GCMs) or a definitive increase (30 GCMs) in annual pre-  
184 cipitation across the Great Lakes by the mid-21st century (with an expected continued  
185 increase through the end of the 21st century). A related study [*Basile et al., 2017*] also  
186 found that most regional climate models (RCMs) driven by GCMs from CMIP5 indicate a  
187 10 to 20% increase in precipitation (specifically for Lake Erie) by mid-21st century.

195 Interestingly, between 1998 and 2013, when water levels on Lakes Superior, Michi-  
196 gan, and Huron were very low (figure 2), land evapotranspiration and lake evaporation  
197 dominated the water balance (figure 3B and E). Only when lake evaporation shifted abruptly  
198 from above- to below-average conditions in the winter of 2013-2014 (figure 3E) did abun-  
199 dant precipitation across the region propagate into a record-setting rate of water level rise  
200 [*Gronewold et al., 2016*] and the recent series of record-high monthly and annual average  
201 levels (figure 2).

202 It is informative to note that the rapid decline in over-lake evaporation in early 2014  
203 coincided with an extreme Arctic polar vortex deformation [*Clites et al., 2014; Zhang*  
204 *et al., 2016*] which resulted in an outburst of very cold air over central North America,  
205 and a decrease in Great Lakes surface water temperatures [*Gronewold et al., 2015*]. While  
206 there appears to be a strong association between the cold air outburst and the decrease in  
207 evaporation, the nature of connections between global climate change and the frequency,  
208 intensity, and orientation of Arctic polar vortex deformations is less clear [*Zhang et al.,*





**Figure 3.** Anomalies in the components of the Great Lakes water balance including over-land precipitation (A), evapotranspiration (B), lateral tributary (or the “net” difference between land precipitation and land evapotranspiration) runoff (C), over-lake precipitation (D), over-lake evaporation (E), and the difference (i.e. “net” moisture flux) between over-lake precipitation and over-lake evaporation (D) from 1950 to present. Values are expressed as annual water totals distributed over the collective surface area of the lakes (A-C) and the land portion (D-F) of the basin. Colors differentiate positive and negative anomalies. Black lines represent the (centered) ten-year rolling mean. Grey regions bound anomalies between 2013 and 2018.

2016; *Lee and Butler, 2020*]. It is also worth noting that evapotranspiration on the land surface of the Great Lakes basin, which had been increasing over the period of record (figure 3B), also abruptly declined in 2014 but, unlike lake evaporation, has since returned to high levels. Improving understanding of the mechanisms that initiated and continue to maintain low levels of evaporation after 2014, and whether those mechanisms might continue to be linked to Arctic polar vortex deformations in the future, is an area for future research.

We have found evidence of an increase in the variability of competing forces on the water balance across a large portion of central and eastern North America, suggesting a continental-scale hydrological tug-of-war. We also note that runoff into the lakes, despite

219 the rise in regional precipitation, has been relatively stable over much of the past 30 years,  
220 reflecting the offsetting effect of water loss through high evapotranspiration from the land  
221 surface. While water levels on the Great Lakes surged when lake evaporation slowed in  
222 2014, our research suggests that any comparable change in one of the region's water bal-  
223 ance components could lead to an extreme water level fluctuation. A decrease in regional  
224 precipitation, for example, given its current magnitude, could lead to sudden water level  
225 declines.

#### 226 **4 Conclusion**

227 In freshwater basins with large lakes, water balance accounting on land surfaces  
228 alone does not address the full suite of changes in the hydrologic cycle that can lead to  
229 flooding, coastal erosion, and threats to human health and safety. We have shown that  
230 changes in precipitation and lake evaporation across the surfaces of one of Earth's largest  
231 lake systems have profoundly influenced inland coastal water level variability and con-  
232 tinental discharge. These findings have provided insight into important hydroclimate re-  
233 lationships that are not reflected in commonly-used global data sets and models [*Notaro*  
234 *et al.*, 2013; *Wright et al.*, 2013; *Bryan et al.*, 2015; *Minallah and Steiner*, 2020]. This type  
235 of inconsistency in the representation of hydrologic conditions between models and data  
236 sets developed at different spatial scales further exacerbates challenges facing regional cli-  
237 mate science and water management. Reconciling and forecasting the water balance for  
238 managing human and environmental health and safety warrants adoption of data develop-  
239 ment and modeling protocols that explicitly propagate global climate dynamics into hy-  
240 drologic response at regional scales. In future research, we suggest implementing similar  
241 analyses for lake-dominated hydrologic systems to ensure an appropriate accounting of  
242 historical, and potential future variability in Earth's fresh surface water storage.

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247 our calculation of water level record highs and lows, and updated the historical water level  
248 plot in the Supplementary Information. This is NOAA-GLERL publication No. XXXX.

## Data Availability Statement

Data sets and model simulations for this project derived from the GLM-HMD [Hunter et al., 2015], L2SWBM [Gronewold et al., 2020; Do et al., 2020], WCPS [Deacu et al., 2012; Durnford et al., 2018], AHPS [Gronewold et al., 2011; Apps et al., 2020], WAT-FLOOD [Kouwen, 1988], CaPA [Mahfouf et al., 2007; Lespinas et al., 2015], MPE [Seo, 1998; Seo and Breidenbach, 2002], and the ‘Merged’ overlake precipitation data set [Gronewold et al., 2018] have been compiled and stored on the University of Michigan DeepBlue archive at [https://deepblue.lib.umich.edu/data/concern/data\\_sets/sb3978457](https://deepblue.lib.umich.edu/data/concern/data_sets/sb3978457).

Additionally, estimates of over-land precipitation are available directly from the NOAA-GLERL repository at [www.glerl.noaa.gov/data/dashboard/data/hydroIO/precip/](http://www.glerl.noaa.gov/data/dashboard/data/hydroIO/precip/). ERA5 data [Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S), 2017] is available at: <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>, and the data developed by Dr. Ben Livneh [Livneh et al., 2015] is available at: [www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/metadata/landing-page/bin/iso?id=gov.noaa.nodc:Livneh-Model](http://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/metadata/landing-page/bin/iso?id=gov.noaa.nodc:Livneh-Model).

Soil moisture data was obtained from the NOAA CPC at: <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.cpcsoil.html>.

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