

Elsevier Editorial System(tm) for Journal of Geodynamics
Manuscript Draft

Manuscript Number: GEOD-D-10-00106R2

Title: Impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water on continental water storage variations

Article Type: Special issue: Mass Transport

Keywords: water withdrawals; groundwater; surface water; global hydrological model; water storage; High Plains aquifer; Mississippi basin

Corresponding Author: Prof. Dr. Petra Doell,

Corresponding Author's Institution:

First Author: Petra Doell

Order of Authors: Petra Doell; Heike Hoffmann-Dobrev; Felix T Portmann; Stefan Siebert; Annette Eicker; Matthew Rodell; Gil Strassberg

Abstract: Humans have strongly impacted the global water cycle, not only water flows but also water storage. We have performed a first global-scale analysis of the impact of water withdrawals on water storage variations, using the global water resources and use model WaterGAP. This required estimation of fractions of total water withdrawals from groundwater, considering five water use sectors. According to our assessment, the source of 35% of the water withdrawn worldwide (4300 km³/yr during 1998-2002) is groundwater. Groundwater contributes 42%, 36% and 27% of water used for irrigation, households and manufacturing, respectively, while we assume that only surface water is used for livestock and for cooling of thermal power plants. Consumptive water use was 1400 km³/yr during 1998-2002. It is the sum of the net abstraction of 250 km³/yr of groundwater (taking into account evapotranspiration and return flows of withdrawn surface water and groundwater) and the net abstraction of 1150 km³/yr of surface water. Computed net abstractions indicate, for the first time at the global scale, where and when human water withdrawals decrease or increase groundwater or surface water storage. In regions with extensive surface water irrigation, such as Southern China, net abstractions from groundwater are negative, i.e. groundwater is recharged by irrigation. The opposite is true for areas dominated by groundwater irrigation, such as in the High Plains aquifer of the central USA, where net abstraction of surface water is negative because return flow of withdrawn groundwater recharges the surface water compartments. In intensively irrigated areas, the amplitude of seasonal total water storage variations is generally increased due to human water use; however, in some areas, it is decreased. For the High Plains aquifer and the whole Mississippi basin, modeled groundwater and total water storage variations were compared with estimates of groundwater storage variations based on groundwater table observations, and with estimates of total water storage variations from the GRACE satellites mission. Due to the difficulty in estimating area-averaged seasonal groundwater storage variations from point observations of groundwater levels, it is uncertain whether WaterGAP underestimates actual variations or not. We conclude that WaterGAP possibly overestimates water withdrawals in the High Plains aquifer where impact of human water use on water storage is readily discernible based on WaterGAP calculations and groundwater observations. No final conclusion can be drawn regarding the possibility of monitoring water withdrawals in the High Plains aquifer using GRACE. For the less intensively irrigated Mississippi basin, observed and modeled seasonal groundwater storage reveals a discernible impact of water withdrawals in the basin,

but this is not the case for total water storage such that water withdrawals at the scale of the whole Mississippi basin cannot be monitored by GRACE.

Ms. Ref. No.: GEOD-D-10-00106

Title: Impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water on continental water storage variations

Journal of Geodynamics

Dear Editor, dear Guest Editor,

We have addressed the minor points listed by the Guest Editor, and uploaded a newly revised version of the manuscript file. As indicated by the Guest Editor we did not write a new rebuttal letter.

We hope that the manuscript is now acceptable for publication.

Best regards,

Petra Döll

Ms. Ref. No.: GEOD-D-10-00106

Title: Impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water on continental water storage variations

Journal of Geodynamics

Response to Guest Editor and reviewer comments

Guest Editor

As identified by both reviewers to which I agree, the manuscript is well written and does not need improvements with respect to structure and formal aspects. With respect to the distinct suggestions, I advise the authors especially to consider the aspects stated by Reviewer 1 (R1), and lay down in a rebuttal letter, how you considered the recommendations. You should discuss in more detail how the percentages in Table 1 are estimated.

Response: The paragraph on computing water use (total from surface waters and groundwater) has been extended and placed earlier in section 2.1. It now reads:

“ Modeling of water use refers to the computation of water withdrawals and consumptive water uses (the part of the withdrawn water that evapotranspires during use) in each grid cell. The modeling approaches differ appreciably among the five water use sectors. Consumptive irrigation water use is computed by the Global Irrigation Model GIM as a function of irrigated area (Siebert et al., 2005; Siebert et al., 2006) and climate in each grid cell. Regarding crops, only rice and non-rice-crops are distinguished, and crop growth periods are not prescribed but modeled. Water withdrawals are calculated by dividing consumptive use by a country-specific irrigation water use efficiency (Döll and Siebert, 2002). The compilation of a time series of irrigated area per country during the last century (Freydank and Siebert, 2008, updated) allows considering the changing impact of irrigation. Livestock water use is calculated as a function of the numbers and water requirements of different livestock types. Cooling water use takes into account the location of more than 60,000 power plants, their cooling type and their electricity production (Vassolo and Döll, 2005). Grid cell values of domestic and manufacturing water use are based on national values that are downscaled to the grid cells using population density. The temporal development of household water use since 1960 is modeled as a function of technological and structural change (the latter as a function of GDP), taking into population change (Voß et al., 2009). The temporal development of manufacturing and thermal power water use since 1900 is modeled also as a function of structural and technological change, with national manufacturing output (for manufacturing water use) and national electricity output (for thermal power plant use) being the drivers of water use (Voß and Flörke, 2010). Time series of monthly values of irrigation water use are computed, while all other uses are assumed to be constant throughout the year and to only vary from year to year.“

The caption of Table 1 which just read „Global water use during the period 1998-2002“ has been extended in the revised version:

“Table 1. Global water use during the period 1998-2002. Total water withdrawals and consumptive water use were computed by the five sectoral water use models of WGHM

(section 2.1). The new groundwater fractions were derived as described in section 2.2., the Appendix and Siebert et al. (2010).”

We think the Appendix (for domestic and manufacturing water use) and Siebert et al. (2010) (for irrigation) provides detailed information on the derivation of the groundwater fractions.

Reviewer #1

This paper attempts to study the impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water on continental water storage. To this goal, the WaterGAP model represents empirically both the irrigation and the groundwater processes. The model is also evaluated against GRACE total water storage (TWS) variations. This study has certainly required an important effort and I congratulate the authors for that. The paper is interesting, well written, and could be potentially attractive for land surface climatologist community with some important improvement. Indeed, the model evaluation remains superficial and then the conclusions may appear non-robust. I therefore recommend some major reviews.

The first is very minor. In the manuscript, "validation" should be "evaluation". There is no validation of some physical processes but only the evaluation of an empirical hydrological model.

Response: The term „validation“ was replaced by „evaluation“ (also the verb „validate“)

The second concern the section 3. The model must be evaluated more in depth (see next recommendation) and this evaluation must be shown before the global results. The most important is linked to the evaluation procedure of WaterGAP. The only comparison of the model results to GRACE TWS estimations does not constitute a strong and sufficient constraint. GRACE can only give a superficial evaluation given its original very low resolution and its intrinsic uncertainties that some authors of this paper know very well. In the introduction authors say that "hydrological models can be calibrated (Werth and Güntner, 2010; Lo et al., 2010) and validated using GRACE data (Alkama et al., 2010)." But the conclusion of Alkama et al (2010) is that GRACE can consolidate a former evaluation based on river discharge observations but the low-resolution, limited accuracy, and river contamination of the GRACE-derived TWS variations can limit a clear detection and attribution of model deficiencies. In other words, without a clear comparison with river discharge observations, a model evaluation only performed against GRACE data is not required. In this paper the reader can believe in the presented results and conclusions ("According to our assessment, the source of 35% of the water withdrawn worldwide (4300 km³34 /yr during 1998-2000) is groundwater .") or not. Without a clear model evaluation, the presented results remain suspicious. So, I recommend to perform an additional evaluation of these results by using the comparison of simulated to observed river discharges, both over the Mississippi basin and at the global scale. A global comparison with GRACE data could be interesting. This recommendation will be not difficult to do in regards of the study of Alcamo et al. (2003). Only 3 or 4 additional figures are then required. The goal is to show if the presented modeling is robust or not. To sum up, without a more in depth model evaluation, the presented conclusions may appear nonrobust. The original paper is not very long and then can be improved without difficulties.

Response: We disagree with the reviewer that modeling results were only evaluated against GRACE total water storage. We also evaluated modeled groundwater storage against estimates of groundwater storage derived from measured groundwater table elevations. This is

innovative, and it is adequate for this paper that has the title “Impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water on continental water storage variations” (and not on river discharge). However, Comparison to observed groundwater level can only be done for very few regions due to data availability.

That this comparison to observed groundwater levels really is at the center of our evaluation is reflected by the fact that three of the coauthors are authors of these observation-based estimates (Gil Strassberg, Bridget Scanlon and Matthew Rodell). As the goal of the validation is to test the new ability of WGHM to 1) estimate groundwater and surface water withdrawals separately, and 2) to then simulate the impact of these differentiated withdrawals on water flows and storages, the most appropriate comparison is against groundwater storage in areas with significant groundwater withdrawals. Groundwater storage shows the impact of withdrawals in a more direct way than river discharge. River discharge is the results of more processes than groundwater storage and more difficult to interpret with respect to withdrawals as it integrates over the whole upstream basin and is, for example, affected by the not well known management of surface reservoirs.

We cannot currently perform a thorough evaluation of the impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water on river discharge. This would be very complex and time consuming. Previous versions of WGHM in which it was assumed that all water withdrawals are taken from surface water have been extensively evaluated against observed river discharge (Döll et al., 2003, Hunger and Döll, 2008). In the revised version, this is now more clearly indicated by adding to the second paragraph of section 2.1 the following sentence:

“WaterGAP was evaluated mainly by comparing simulated river discharge to observed flow regime characteristics like seasonality and statistical monthly low and high flows (Döll et al., 2003; Hunger and Döll, 2008; Döll et al., 2009).”

Besides, there do not exist any measurement data to compare our global scale estimates of groundwater and surface water withdrawals and of net abstractions from groundwater and surface water (Table 1). An evaluation of the quality of our work can just be done by critically assessing the approach we have chosen to combine the highly uncertain statistical data that do exist with our modeling in particular of irrigation water requirements. In the future, we hope to further evaluate the capabilities of WGHM by a comparison of modeled groundwater depletion against GRACE estimates (as already mentioned in the conclusions of the original version of the manuscript), and we added ~~at~~ as the last sentence of the text:

“Furthermore, analyses of the impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water on river discharge are planned for the future.”

Reviewer #2

This manuscript deals with the estimation and impact of water withdrawals (from both groundwater and surface water) on the terrestrial water storage variations at the global scale. The authors concluded that during 1998-2002, 35% of the water withdrawn worldwide was from groundwater. Groundwater contributes 42%, 36% and 27% of the water used for irrigation, households and manufacturing, respectively. Although the authors also reported that the validation via the comparison with groundwater depth measurements and satellite GRACE data in the High Plains aquifer as well as in the Mississippi basins are not satisfactorily, I believe this will not reduce the value of this paper at all since as the Authors

correctly pointed out, there are other complicating factors (e.g. scale: point vs. grid-based, location and quality of measurements, or some unrepresented mechanisms in the model, etc) involved which make a fair comparison rather difficult.

I am familiar with recent and earlier publications on the global-scale water resources models. To my knowledge, there is no any work published before which attempted to deal with the representation of groundwater pumping and estimate its usage in both land surface models and water resources model. Indeed, as advertised, this manuscript “presents innovative research regarding the distribution of freshwater on the continents. It provides the first global-scale estimation of surface water and groundwater withdrawals and shows, for the first time, where human water use leads to positive or negative net abstractions from groundwater and surface water”. I am fully convinced after careful review of their manuscript.

In conclusion, I found this manuscript is excellent; and it has made multiple novel contributions with great scientific significance, particularly given its originality of research ideas and results. I recommend the publication of this manuscript after minor revisions.

Just out of my curiosity, one question for the authors –

This study concluded that “Consumptive water use (the part of the withdraw water that evapotranspires during use) ~ groundwater withdrawals ~ 1400 km³/year”

Would it be any possibility that this (coincidence?) was due to the model’s water balance constraint?

Response: No, it cannot be related to a water balance constraint, as both estimates are derived independently of the water balance done in WGHM, i.e. before the water balance is computed.

Minor Comments:

The quality of this manuscript is very good, bit the following comments may deserve to be consider by the Authors:

1. P.2, Line 16, change “...quantification not only of continental freshwater” into “..quantification of not only continental freshwater..”.

Response: done

2. P. 2 , line 20, delete “of”.

Response: done

3. P. 2, line 27, Authors can consider to cite the following early reference:

Swenson, S. C., Yeh P. J. –F., Wahr J. and Famiglietti J. S. (2006). A comparison of terrestrial water storage variations from GRACE with in situ measurements from Illinois, Geophys. Res. Lett., 33, L16401, doi:10.1029/2006GL026962

Response: not included as rather similar to the next reference that is more informative.

4. P. 2, line 29, Authors can consider to cite the following early reference:

Yeh, P. J.-F., Famiglietti J. S., Swenson S. and Rodell M. (2006). Remote sensing of groundwater storage changes using Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE), Water Resour. Res., 42, W12203, doi:10.1029/2006WR005374.

Response: done

5. *P. 4, lines 12-13, how important is the focused recharge? Can the Authors give a brief comment on this?*

Reponse: The sentence has been extended to give a judgement of the importance. It now reads:

“Focused groundwater recharge from rivers, lakes and wetlands is not taken into account even though these flows may be important in particular in semi-arid and arid regions.”

6. *P. 4, lines 21-23, here the explanation is very difficult to understand, need to elaborate here.*

Response: The wording

“If surface water storage was insufficient on any day, water demand could be satisfied up to one year later. This implicitly mimicked water withdrawals from shallow groundwater that can be withdrawn even if surface waters have run dry.”

has been replaced by

“If surface water storage in a grid cell, on any day, was less than consumptive use (or rather requirement), the unsatisfied use was taken out of storage of the neighboring cell (but not the upstream cells) with the largest river, reservoir and lake storage. If, after the subtraction of the water stored in the neighboring cell, still not the full consumptive water use was satisfied, the remaining consumptive water requirement was remembered by the model, and it was tested whether the remaining consumptive water use could be taken out of surface storage the next day (in addition to the consumptive use of the next day). Any non-satisfied consumptive water use was remembered for one year, and then neglected. Allowing such delayed satisfaction of consumptive water use (or rather requirement) implicitly mimicked water withdrawals from shallow groundwater that can be withdrawn even if surface water has run dry, and also was intended to account for the fact that WGHM cannot model reservoir operation perfectly.”

7. *P. 5, line 51, what is “AEI”, seems like not explained.*

Response: Replaced by “area equipped for irrigation“.

8. *P. 6, line 35, here the Authors can consider to cite the following early reference (see their Figure 12b as an observational basis for this assumption):
Eltahir, E.A.B, and , P. J.-F. Yeh, 1999: On the asymmetric response of aquifer water level to droughts and floods in Illinois. Water Resources Research, 35 (4), 1199-1217*

Response: done, we added to the first paragraph of section 2.1

“(for observational evidence of the resulting exponential relation between groundwater outflow and storage, see Fig. 12 b of Eltahir and Yeh, 1999).”

9. P. 7, line 17-20, here the explanations are very unclear, suggest to re-write.

Response: The sentence

“To compute NU_s , we assume that return flows of groundwater withdrawals for the domestic and manufacturing sectors immediately reach the surface water bodies, while only part of the return flow of irrigation water taken from either surface or groundwater reaches the surface water immediately, while the other part (f_{rgi}) first recharges the groundwater.”

was replaced by

“Water withdrawals for all sectors and sources result in return flow ($WU - CU$) to surface water. In the case of all sectors except irrigation, the total return flow is assumed to directly flow into surface water even if the water source is groundwater. In the case of irrigation, a part of the return flow of the irrigation water withdrawn from either surface or groundwater flow directly back to the surface water, while the other part (f_{rgi}) recharges the groundwater (Fig. 1).”

10. P. 8, line 47, is it reasonable to interpolate GRACE data into a 0.5 degree grid? are GRACE data still valid at this grid scale? This is exactly why there are no grid-based global GRACE data existent as far as I know.

Response: These 0.5° values are only intermediate values that were then aggregated to basin averages. To explain this, we now write

“To allow a consistent comparison to WGHM results, the filtered results were interpolated to the WGHM 0.5° grid such that basin averages of TWS could be computed as averages over the respective WGHM grid cells.”

1 Impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water on continental water
2 storage variations

3
4 Döll, P.^{a*}, Hoffmann-Dobrev, H.^a, Portmann, F.T.^a, Siebert, S.^b, Eicker, A.^c, Rodell, M.^d,
5 Strassberg, G.^e, Scanlon, B.R.^e

6
7 * Corresponding author, Tel. +49-69-798-40219, Fax +49-69-798-40347

8
9 ^a Institute of Physical Geography, University of Frankfurt, Altenhöferallee 1, 60438 Frankfurt
10 am Main, Germany, p.doell@em.uni-frankfurt.de, hoffmann-dobrev@em.uni-frankfurt.de,
11 portmann@em.uni-frankfurt.de

12
13 ^b Institute of Crop Science and Resource Conservation, University of Bonn, Katzenburgweg
14 5, 53115 Bonn, Germany, s.siebert@uni-bonn.de

15
16 ^c Institute of Geodesy and Geoinformation, University of Bonn, Nussallee 17, 53115 Bonn,
17 Germany, annette@geod.uni-bonn.de

18
19 ^d Hydrological Science Branch, NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, 8800 Greenbelt Road,
20 Greenbelt, Maryland 20771, USA, matthew.rodell@nasa.gov

21
22 ^e Bureau of Economic Geology, Jackson School of Geosciences, University of Texas at
23 Austin, 10100 Burnet Road, Building 130, Austin, Texas 78758-4445, USA,
24 gstras@gmail.com, bridget.scanlon@beg.utexas.edu

25
26
27 Abstract

28
29 Humans have strongly impacted the global water cycle, not only water flows but also water
30 storage. We have performed a first global-scale analysis of the impact of water withdrawals
31 on water storage variations, using the global water resources and use model WaterGAP. This
32 required estimation of fractions of total water withdrawals from groundwater, considering five
33 water use sectors. According to our assessment, the source of 35% of the water withdrawn
34 worldwide (4300 km³/yr during 1998-2002) is groundwater. Groundwater contributes 42%,
35 36% and 27% of water used for irrigation, households and manufacturing, respectively, while
36 we assume that only surface water is used for livestock and for cooling of thermal power
37 plants. Consumptive water use was 1400 km³/yr during 1998-2002. It is the sum of the net
38 abstraction of 250 km³/yr of groundwater (taking into account evapotranspiration and return
39 flows of withdrawn surface water and groundwater) and the net abstraction of 1150 km³/yr of
40 surface water. Computed net abstractions indicate, for the first time at the global scale, where
41 and when human water withdrawals decrease or increase groundwater or surface water
42 storage. In regions with extensive surface water irrigation, such as Southern China, net
43 abstractions from groundwater are negative, i.e. groundwater is recharged by irrigation. The
44 opposite is true for areas dominated by groundwater irrigation, such as in the High Plains
45 aquifer of the central USA, where net abstraction of surface water is negative because return
46 flow of withdrawn groundwater recharges the surface water compartments. In intensively
47 irrigated areas, the amplitude of seasonal total water storage variations is generally increased
48 due to human water use; however, in some areas, it is decreased. For the High Plains aquifer
49 and the whole Mississippi basin, modeled groundwater and total water storage variations were
50 compared with estimates of groundwater storage variations based on groundwater table
51 observations, and with estimates of total water storage variations from the GRACE satellites

1 mission. Due to the difficulty in estimating area-averaged seasonal groundwater storage
2 variations from point observations of groundwater levels, it is uncertain whether WaterGAP
3 underestimates actual variations or not. We conclude that WaterGAP possibly overestimates
4 water withdrawals in the High Plains aquifer where impact of human water use on water
5 storage is readily discernible based on WaterGAP calculations and groundwater observations.
6 No final conclusion can be drawn regarding the possibility of monitoring water withdrawals
7 in the High Plains aquifer using GRACE. For the less intensively irrigated Mississippi basin,
8 observed and modeled seasonal groundwater storage reveals a discernible impact of water
9 withdrawals in the basin, but this is not the case for total water storage such that water
10 withdrawals at the scale of the whole Mississippi basin cannot be monitored by GRACE.

11
12 Keywords: water withdrawals; groundwater; surface water; global hydrological model; water
13 storage; High Plains aquifer; Mississippi basin
14

15 16 1. Introduction 17

18 Improved quantification of not only continental freshwater flows but also freshwater storage
19 in different compartments (snow and ice, canopy, soil, groundwater, and surface water
20 including lakes and wetlands) enables a better understanding of the global water cycle and the
21 overall Earth system. It allows a better assessment of freshwater resources and how they are
22 impacted by global change. Temporal freshwater storage variations cause significant
23 variations in Earth's gravity field and lead to load-induced deformations of the Earth's crust.
24 Measured gravity variations and derived total continental water storage variations, most
25 notably those of the GRACE (Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment) mission
26 (<http://www.csr.utexas.edu/grace/>), can be interpreted in detail only by relating them to
27 independent estimates of compartmental water storage variations. Compartmental storage
28 variations can be derived from hydrological models (Güntner et al., 2007), ground
29 observations (e.g. of soil moisture and groundwater levels, e.g. Yeh et al., 2006; Swenson et
30 al., 2008), or by subtracting model-based estimates of storage variations in all but one storage
31 compartment from GRACE estimates of total water storage variations (Rodell et al., 2007;
32 Rodell et al., 2009; Strassberg et al., 2009). Alternatively, hydrological models can be
33 calibrated (Werth and Güntner, 2010; Lo et al., 2010) and evaluated using GRACE data
34 (Alkama et al., 2010), or GRACE-based water storage variations can be integrated into
35 models via data assimilation (Zaitchik et al., 2008). The same is true for geodetic
36 measurements such as GPS which are impacted by deformations caused by large-scale
37 continental water mass variations (Fritsche et al., 2011).
38

39 Continental water storage variations depend on characteristics of the storage compartments
40 (e.g. soil texture and rooting depth in the case of soil water storage or existence of surface
41 water bodies in the case of surface water storage) and are strongly driven by climate, in
42 particular precipitation. For more than a century now, human water use has become another
43 strong driver of water storage variations, in particular, in densely populated areas and semi-
44 arid and arid areas with significant irrigation. About 70% of global water withdrawals and
45 about 90% of global consumptive water use (the part of the withdrawn water that
46 evapotranspires during use) is for irrigation purposes (Döll, 2009). Dam construction and,
47 more importantly, water withdrawals from groundwater and surface water have altered not
48 only freshwater flow dynamics (Döll et al., 2009) but also water storage variations in surface
49 water bodies and aquifers.
50

1 In global-scale assessments, natural freshwater flows and storages are modeled by global
2 hydrological models or land surface models. These models generally combine climate data
3 with physiographic data (including soil and vegetation) to compute time series of freshwater
4 flows (in particular runoff and river discharge). Some of the models do not include all
5 relevant storage compartments such as surface water bodies and groundwater. Very few
6 models take into account the impact of human action, in particular of dams and water
7 withdrawals. These include VIC (Haddeland et al., 2006), H08 (Hanasaki et al., 2008), LPJ
8 (Gerten et al., 2004), WBM_{plus} (Wisser et al., 2010) and WaterGAP (Alcamo et al., 2003; Döll
9 et al., 2009). While these models were used to study the impact of dams and water
10 withdrawals on freshwater flows, the impact on water storage has not yet been analyzed. Up
11 to now, impacts of human water use on water storage could not be evaluated appropriately
12 because no estimates of water withdrawals according to source, i.e. no estimates that
13 differentiate between water withdrawals from groundwater and water withdrawals from
14 surface water, existed at the global scale. Therefore, in all these models water withdrawals
15 were assumed to be taken from surface water only, and not from groundwater. An exception
16 is WBM_{plus} where total irrigation requirements (other sectoral water uses are neglected and no
17 distinction of requirements by source is made) are satisfied first by local reservoirs, then by
18 groundwater and then by river water (Wisser et al., 2010). A further exception is the recent
19 study on global groundwater depletion by Wada et al. (2010), where total groundwater
20 withdrawals were roughly estimated based on country-scale data from only one information
21 source (International Groundwater Resources Assessment Centre IGRAC, www.igrac.net),
22 the impact of irrigation return flow was neglected, and groundwater depletion was computed
23 simply as the difference between groundwater withdrawals and groundwater recharge.

24
25 In order to properly estimate the impact of surface water and groundwater withdrawals on
26 water storage variations in the different continental water storage compartments, we
27 estimated, for each 0.5° grid cell, the fractions of total water withdrawals and consumptive
28 water use that are taken from groundwater in the following sectors: irrigation, household
29 (domestic sector) and manufacturing. We assumed that water for cooling of thermal power
30 plants and water for livestock (a generally small amount) is taken only from surface water.
31 Using the estimates of total sectoral (groundwater and surface water) water use and taking
32 into account the different compartments to which return flow occurs, we then estimated, with
33 the new version 2.1h of WaterGAP (Water – Global Assessment and Prognosis), net water
34 abstractions from groundwater (*NA_g*) and and from surface water (*NA_s*). Net abstraction is
35 equal to the difference between all abstractions due to human water withdrawals from either
36 groundwater or surface water and all return flows into the respective compartment. These net
37 abstractions were then subtracted from groundwater storage and surface water storages
38 (rivers, lakes, reservoirs), respectively, and the impact of water withdrawals from
39 groundwater and surface water on continental water storage variations (total and
40 compartmental) was determined. For this paper we concentrated on the impact of water use
41 on seasonal variations in water storage, and did not evaluate trends in our global-scale
42 analysis. Modeled groundwater storage (*GWS*) variations were compared with estimates
43 derived from measured groundwater level variations in the High Plains aquifer (Strassberg et
44 al., 2009) and the Mississippi river basin (Rodell et al., 2007), while computed total water
45 storage (*TWS*) variations were compared with *TWS* variations derived from GRACE satellite
46 data. The High Plains aquifer is an area with intensive groundwater-fed irrigation and an
47 estimated area-weighted average groundwater level decline from predevelopment (about
48 1950) to 2007 of 4.27 m, with a relatively constant decline rate since the mid 1980s
49 (McGuire, 2009). The much larger Mississippi basin, to which most of the High Plains
50 Aquifer belongs, also includes other areas of intensive irrigation but is on average less
51 affected by water withdrawals than the High Plains aquifer.

2. Methods

2.1. Modeling water flows, storage variations and water use with the global water model WaterGAP

WaterGAP (Alcamo et al., 2003) consists of both the WaterGAP Global Hydrology Model (WGHM; Döll et al., 2003) and five water use models for the sectors irrigation (Döll and Siebert, 2002), livestock, households (Voß et al., 2009), manufacturing and cooling of thermal power plants (Voß and Flörke, 2010; Vassolo and Döll, 2005). With a spatial resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$, WaterGAP covers all land masses of the Earth except Antarctica.

Modeling of water use refers to computation of water withdrawals and consumptive water uses (the part of the withdrawn water that evapotranspires during use) in each grid cell. Consumptive irrigation water use is computed by the Global Irrigation Model (GIM) as a function of irrigated area (Siebert et al., 2005, 2006) and climate in each grid cell. Regarding crops, only rice and non-rice-crops are distinguished, and crop growth periods are not prescribed but modeled. Water withdrawals are calculated by dividing consumptive use by a country-specific irrigation water use efficiency (Döll and Siebert, 2002). The compilation of a time series of irrigated area per country from 1901 to 2010 (Freydank and Siebert, 2008, updated) allows consideration of the changing impact of irrigation. Livestock water use is calculated as a function of the animal numbers and water requirements of different livestock types. Grid cell values of domestic and manufacturing water use are based on national values that are downscaled to the grid cells using population density. Cooling water use takes into account the location of more than 60,000 power plants, their cooling type and their electricity production (Vassolo and Döll, 2005). Temporal development of household water use since 1960 is modeled as a function of technological and structural change (the latter as a function of gross domestic product; GDP), taking into account population change (Voß et al., 2009). The temporal development of manufacturing and thermal power water use since 1900 is modeled also as a function of structural and technological change, with national manufacturing output (for manufacturing water use) and national electricity output (for thermal power plant use) as the drivers of water use (Voß and Flörke, 2010). Time series of monthly values of irrigation water use are computed, while all other uses are assumed to be constant throughout the year and to only vary from year to year.

WGHM computes time-series of fast-surface and subsurface runoff, groundwater recharge and river discharge as well as storage variations of water in canopy, snow, soil, groundwater, lakes, wetlands and rivers as a function of climate, soil, land cover, relief and observed river discharge. Location and size of lakes, reservoirs and wetlands is defined by the Global Lakes and Wetland Database GLWD (Lehner and Döll, 2004), with a recent addition of more than 6000 man-made reservoirs (Döll et al., 2009). Groundwater storage is affected by diffuse groundwater recharge via the soil, which is modeled as a function of total runoff, relief, soil texture, hydrogeology and the existence of permafrost or glaciers. For semi-arid areas, a comparison with independent estimates of diffuse groundwater recharge led to a modification of this groundwater recharge algorithm (Döll and Fiedler, 2008). Focused groundwater recharge from rivers, lakes and wetlands is not taken into account in WGHM. This type of recharge may be important, in particular in semi-arid and arid regions, but is difficult to quantify.

1 In former versions of WGHM, the impact of water use on the water cycle was taken into
2 account by subtracting total consumptive water use from river, reservoir and lake storage (in
3 this order of preference). The impact of groundwater withdrawals was not taken into account
4 due to lack of data on withdrawals differentiated by source. If surface water storage in a grid
5 cell, on any day, was less than consumptive use (or rather requirement), the unsatisfied use
6 was taken out of storage of the neighboring cell with the largest river, reservoir and lake
7 storage (but not the upstream cells). If, after the subtraction of the water stored in the
8 neighboring cell, the full consumptive water use was still not satisfied, the remaining
9 consumptive water requirement was carried forward in the model, and it was determined
10 whether it could be taken out of surface storage the next day (in addition to the consumptive
11 use of the next day). Any non-satisfied consumptive water use was carried forward in the
12 model for one year, and then dropped. Allowing such delayed satisfaction of consumptive
13 water use requirement) implicitly mimicked water withdrawals from shallow (renewable)
14 groundwater. Groundwater can be withdrawn even if surface water has run dry. Delayed
15 satisfaction was also intended to account for the fact that WGHM cannot model reservoir
16 operations accurately.

17
18 WGHM, in the standard approach, is calibrated against long-term average river discharge at
19 1235 stations world-wide, adjusting 1-3 model parameters individually in each of the 1235
20 upstream basins (Hunger and Döll, 2008). WGHM was evaluated mainly by comparing
21 simulated river discharge to observed flow regime characteristics such as seasonality and
22 statistical monthly low and high flows (Döll et al., 2003; Hunger and Döll, 2008; Döll et al.,
23 2009).

24 25 26 2.2. Quantification of water withdrawals and consumptive uses from groundwater and surface 27 water

28
29 The water use models of WaterGAP compute time series of consumptive water use in the
30 irrigation sector, for temporally invariant irrigated areas, and consumptive (*CU*) and
31 withdrawal water uses (*WU*) for each of the four sectors households, manufacturing, cooling
32 of thermal power plants and livestock. *CU* and *WU* of livestock are assumed to be equal. In
33 the water use models, no distinction is made regarding the source of water. To model water
34 use according to source of water, a new submodel of WaterGAP called GWSWUSE was
35 developed. GWSWUSE computes, based on the nine water use data sets from the water use
36 models, the sector-specific consumptive and withdrawals water uses from groundwater and
37 surface waters (rivers, lakes and reservoirs) separately. GWSWUSE also computes net
38 abstractions from surface water (*NAs*) and from groundwater (*NA_g*) (see section 2.3).

39
40 As a first step within GWSWUSE, the time series of irrigation *CU*, which is computed by
41 GIM for temporally constant irrigation areas but changing climate variables, is scaled by
42 using an annual time series of irrigated area by country (Freydank and Siebert, 2008,
43 updated). Then, irrigation *WU* is computed by dividing irrigation *CU* by irrigation water use
44 efficiencies at the scale of individual irrigation projects (so-called project efficiencies).
45 Irrigation water use efficiencies were estimated for each country by combining information
46 from three sources (Kulkarni et al., 2006; Rohwer et al., 2007; Aus der Beek, personal
47 communication, 2010). To obtain sectoral groundwater uses in the sectors irrigation,
48 households and manufacturing, total sectoral *WUs* and *CU*s in each grid cell are then
49 multiplied by sector- and cell-specific temporally constant groundwater use fractions f_g which
50 are assumed to be the same for *WU* and *CU*. Surface water use was computed as the
51 difference between total and groundwater use.

1
2 We assumed that water for cooling of thermal power plants and water for livestock are only
3 abstracted from surface water. In order to obtain groundwater fractions for irrigation water
4 use, we estimated the area equipped for irrigation with groundwater as a fraction of total
5 irrigated area (f_{a_irr}). We derived these for 15,038 spatial statistical units SSU, i.e. national and
6 sub-national administrative units (Siebert et al., 2010). Statistics on area equipped for
7 irrigation were collected from national census reports or online data bases and complemented
8 with country information available from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United
9 Nations (FAO) AQUASTAT library, data collected by other international organizations or
10 statistical services (e.g. EUROSTAT) or data taken from the literature. Statistics on area
11 equipped for irrigation by either surface water or groundwater were available for only about
12 12% of all SSUs. However, about 75% of the global area equipped for irrigation is located in
13 these SSUs. In this study, we used the estimates of f_{a_irr} of Siebert et al. (2010), except in
14 Russia where Siebert et al. (2010) only estimated a constant value for the whole country.
15 Here, we used subnational data on total groundwater withdrawals as a fraction of total water
16 withdrawals for 11 large river basins, assuming that f_{a_irr} is equal to this fraction.

17
18 Groundwater fractions of domestic and manufacturing water use were estimated for 5938
19 SSUs, mainly based on information from the International Groundwater Resources
20 Assessment Center (IGRAC, www.igrac.net), international reports and national sources. No
21 information at all was available for 55 out of 196 countries or territorial units. For 10
22 countries, subnational data (mostly at the level of federal states/provinces, with a total of 5752
23 SSUs) could be evaluated. Subnational data on both domestic and manufacturing groundwater
24 fractions were available for only 3 of the 10 countries: USA (for counties), Mexico (for
25 counties) and Germany (for federal states). For the other countries with subnational data, only
26 data on total groundwater withdrawals as a fraction of total withdrawals were available, or
27 only data for either the domestic or the manufacturing sector. Regarding national-scale data,
28 groundwater use fractions f_g for both domestic and manufacturing sectors could be derived
29 directly from data on sectoral groundwater and total water withdrawals for only 20 countries.
30 In most countries, inconsistencies of total sectoral water uses and sectoral groundwater uses
31 that are mostly due to different data sources, or simple lack of data, made reliable estimation
32 of specific domestic and manufacturing groundwater fractions impossible. In the Appendix,
33 generation of the datasets of cell-specific groundwater use fractions of domestic and
34 manufacturing water withdrawals is described in more detail.

35
36 Sectoral groundwater fractions for the SSUs were interpolated to the 0.5° grid cells by
37 weighting with intersection area. At the grid cell level, f_{a_irr} is assumed to be equivalent to the
38 fraction of irrigation water withdrawal and consumptive use that stems from groundwater.

39 40 41 2.3. Modeling the impact of groundwater and surface water use on groundwater and surface 42 water storages

43
44 Fig. 1 shows the water flows and storages that are modeled in WGHM 2.1h within each 0.5°
45 grid cell. Groundwater receives input from groundwater recharge and loses water to outflow
46 to surface water (the river, or lakes, reservoirs and wetlands if they exist in the cell), the
47 outflow being a linear function of groundwater storage (for observational evidence of the
48 resulting exponential relation between groundwater outflow and storage, see Fig. 12b of
49 Eltahir and Yeh, 1999). Unlike in former versions of WGHM, in the new model version 2.1h,
50 groundwater storage is decreased (or increased) by the so-called net abstraction of
51 groundwater NA_g , i.e. the difference between water withdrawals from groundwater and return

1 flows to groundwater. Return flows to groundwater are assumed to only occur in irrigated
 2 areas, due to irrigation water that was either taken from groundwater or surface water (Fig. 1).
 3 A fraction f_{rgi} of the return flows from irrigation recharges groundwater, while the rest
 4 directly flows to surface water bodies. NA_g is computed as

$$5 \quad NA_g = [WU_{gi} + WU_{gd} + WU_{gm}] - [f_{rgi} (WU_{gi} - CU_{gi} + WU_{si} - CU_{si})] \quad (1)$$

7
 8 with WU : withdrawal use, in km^3/month , CU : consumptive use, in km^3/month , NA : net
 9 abstraction, in km^3/month , f_{rgi} : fraction of return flow ($WU-CU$) from irrigation to
 10 groundwater, and subscripts g: groundwater, s: surface water, i: irrigation, d: domestic, m:
 11 manufacturing. The term that is subtracted at the right-hand side of Eq. (1) can be regarded as
 12 artificial groundwater recharge.

13
 14 Temporal development of groundwater storage is computed as follows:

$$15 \quad GWS(t) = GWS(t-1) + GWR(t) - k_g \cdot GWS(t-1) - NA_g(t) \quad (2)$$

17
 18 with GWS : groundwater storage, in km^3 , GWR : groundwater recharge, in km^3/day , k_g : outflow
 19 coefficient from groundwater to surface water, set globally to = 0.01/day, t : time step (1 day).

20
 21 Insert Fig. 1 about here

22
 23 The different surface water bodies receive water from precipitation, from the soil by fast
 24 surface or subsurface runoff or from the groundwater compartment by baseflow, or from other
 25 surface water bodies. They lose water by evaporation and outflow to the next surface water
 26 body (Fig. 1). Surface water storage is affected by NA_s , the difference between withdrawals
 27 from surface water and the return flows to surface water. This is different from the previous
 28 WGHM versions, where total consumptive use was taken out of surface water storage.

29
 30 Water withdrawals for all sectors and sources result in return flow ($WU - CU$) to surface
 31 water. In the case of all sectors except irrigation, the total return flow is assumed to directly
 32 flow into surface water even if the water source is groundwater. In the case of irrigation, a
 33 part of the return flow of the irrigation water withdrawn from either surface water or
 34 groundwater flows directly back to surface water, while the other part (f_{rgi}) recharges
 35 groundwater (Fig. 1). For water uses where the source of water and the sink for the return
 36 flow are the surface water bodies, only consumptive use needs to be included in the
 37 computation of NA_s . This is the case for water use for cooling of thermal power plants and for
 38 livestock as well as for surface water use in the domestic and manufacturing sectors. Thus, net
 39 abstraction from surface water NA_s , i.e. from rivers, lakes and reservoirs, is defined as

$$40 \quad NA_s = [CU_l + CU_t + CU_{sd} + CU_{sm} + WU_{si}] - [(1 - f_{rgi}) \cdot (WU_{gi} - CU_{gi} + WU_{si} - CU_{si}) + (WU_{gd} - CU_{gd} + WU_{gm} - CU_{gm})] \quad (3)$$

41
 42 with subscripts l : livestock, t : thermal power plants. The temporal development of the rivers,
 43 lakes and reservoirs as impacted by NA_s is modeled using a water balance similar to Eq. (2).
 44 The sum of NA_s and NA_g is equal to consumptive water use.

45
 46
 47
 48 NA_s is taken preferentially from river storage (full line in Fig. 1). Only if no river water is
 49 available, water will be taken from 1) global reservoirs (if actual reservoir storage exceeds
 50 10% of total storage capacity, 2) global lakes (if storage is greater than zero), or 3) local lakes
 51 (Fig. 1). So-called local lakes and wetlands are recharged only from runoff generated within

1 the grid cells, while so-called global lakes, reservoirs and wetlands also get water from the
2 upstream cell (Fig. 1). If, on any day, not enough surface water is available in a grid cell to
3 allow subtraction of NAs from that particular grid cell, NAs is taken from the neighboring grid
4 cell as described in section 2.1.

5
6 Return flow of irrigation will partly recharge groundwater, and partly run off directly to
7 surface water bodies. Return flows to surface water will be high in the case of artificial
8 drainage when pipes or drainage canals cause water to bypass the groundwater store. We
9 estimated the groundwater fraction of return flow f_{rgi} as a function of the irrigated area that is
10 artificially drained as a fraction of total area equipped for irrigation f_{d_irr} as

$$12 \quad f_{rgi} = 0.8 - 0.6 \cdot f_{d_irr} \quad (4)$$

13
14 f_{d_irr} was derived from global-scale information on drainage in rainfed and irrigated
15 agriculture as compiled by Feick et al. (2005). Due to a lack of data on drainage in irrigated
16 areas in many countries, we had to combine data on drained irrigated area with data on
17 drained area (without distinction of rainfed and irrigated agriculture). Values of f_{rgi} between
18 0.2 and 0.4 occur in regions where irrigated areas are strongly drained: the Nile in Egypt, the
19 southern part of the Indus, Japan, Philippines, Indonesia and parts of Australia. The northern
20 part of the Indus as well as Northeastern China show values between 0.4 and 0.6. In most of
21 the USA, f_{rgi} is between 0.6 and 0.7, in India, the value is about 0.75. In the rest of the world,
22 irrigated areas are not drained much and f_{rgi} is close to 0.8.

24 2.4. Model runs with WaterGAP 2.1h

25
26 For the period 1901-2002, WGHM and GIM were driven by monthly climate data from the
27 Climate Research Unit (CRU) with a spatial resolution of 0.5° (covering the global land
28 surface). The CRU TS 2.1 data set includes gridded data for the climate variables temperature,
29 cloudiness and number of rain days from 1901-2002. This dataset is based on station
30 observations and uses anomaly analysis for spatial interpolation (Mitchell and Jones, 2005).
31 To run the model for the GRACE period 2002-2009, monthly data on temperature, cloudiness
32 and number of rain days for 2003-2009 from the European Centre for Medium-Range
33 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) operational forecast system were used. For precipitation, the
34 Global Precipitation Climatology Centre (GPCC) full data product v3 provided gridded
35 monthly values for 1951-2004 (Rudolf and Schneider, 2005), also with a spatial resolution of
36 0.5° , except that for GIM the GPCC full data product v4 was used until 2002. For the years
37 2005 through 2009, the so-called GPCC Monitoring Product with a spatial resolution of 1°
38 was used, which is based on a smaller number of station observations. In WGHM, monthly
39 precipitation is distributed equally over the number of rain days within one month. The
40 monthly precipitation data are not corrected for measurement errors, but precipitation, in
41 particular snow, is generally underestimated by measurements mainly due to wind induced
42 undercatch. As this has a strong influence on simulated snow water storage, precipitation was
43 corrected in WGHM using mean monthly catch ratios and taking actual monthly temperatures
44 into account (Döll and Fiedler, 2008). Water use in the three sectors households,
45 manufacturing, and cooling of thermal power plants was computed for 1901-2005, and
46 assumed to be equal to the values for 2005 from 2006-2009. For livestock, the year with the
47 last statistics available was 2002, and livestock use in 2003-2009 was assumed to be the same
48 as in 2002. For the runs with WaterGAP 2.1h, the calibration parameter values of version 2.1g
49 were used.

2.5. GWS variations developed from measured groundwater levels

For the High Plains aquifer, which covers about 450,000 km², Strassberg et al. (2009) developed a time series of GWS variations for the aquifer as a whole from measured groundwater levels in 1989 wells. Four seasonal values were developed per year (January-March, April-June, July-September, October-December), covering the years 2003 through 2006, based on an average of 983 wells per season. To convert water level variations to GWS variations, the former were multiplied by a constant specific yield of 0.15, which represent the area-weighted specific yield (McGuire, 2009).. For the entire Mississippi basin (approx. 3,248,000 km²), Rodell et al. (2007) developed a monthly time series of GWS from water level observations in 58 wells in unconfined aquifers. These wells were distributed almost evenly over the basin. To convert water level variations to GWS variations, the former were multiplied by specific yield values determined individually for each well, ranging from 0.02 to 0.32, with a mean of 0.14. For our comparison, we used an updated data set covering the period January 2002 to June 2006.

2.6. Total water storage variations from GRACE satellite observations

We compared monthly TWS variations simulated with WaterGAP to values derived from GRACE satellite observations. To better understand the uncertainty in GRACE data, solutions computed by three different GRACE processing groups were used. To compute ITG-GRACE2010 monthly solutions (<http://www.igg.uni-bonn.de/apmg/index.php?id=itg-grace2010>), a set of spherical harmonic coefficients for degrees $n = 1 \dots 120$ was estimated for each month from August 2002 to August 2009 without applying any regularization. More detailed information on this GRACE solution can be found in Mayer-Gürr et al. (2010). To determine continental water storage variation from the total GRACE signal, the following background models were taken into account: ocean, earth and pole tides, atmospheric and oceanic mass variations as well as glacial isostatic adjustment (as described in Eicker et al., 2010). Degree $n = 1$ (geo-center variations) was set to zero as GRACE does not deliver realistic estimates of these coefficients. This is justifiable as a comparison using GPS geo-center estimates has revealed that there is no significant contribution of degree 1 in the two investigation areas. In addition, GFZ release 4 monthly solutions (Flechtner et al., 2010) and CSR monthly solutions (Bettadpur, 2007) were considered.

All three GRACE solutions were smoothed using the non-isotropic filter DDK3 (Kusche et al., 2009). To allow a consistent comparison to WGHM results, the filtered results were interpolated to the WGHM 0.5° grid such that basin averages of TWS could be computed as averages over the respective WGHM grid cells. In order to compare TWS modeled with WGHM to GRACE-derived TWS, WGHM model output was smoothed using the same procedure.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Global-scale results

According to WaterGAP, global water withdrawals have increased from 1615 km³/yr in 1951 to 4090 km³/yr in 1998 and 4436 km³/yr in 2002. Water withdrawals for irrigation may vary appreciably from year to year due to climate variability. Therefore, to provide a global characterization of water withdrawals, we focus on average values for the period 1998-2002.

1 Most data that informed the computation of water withdrawals are from this period.
2 Knowledge of temporal development of water withdrawals before and especially after this
3 period is limited. Average water withdrawals for 1998-2002 sum to a global average of 4340
4 km³/yr (Fig. 2a, Table 1). In many semi-arid and arid regions, irrigation is the dominant water
5 use sector, with irrigation water withdrawals often accounting for more than 95% of total
6 withdrawals (Fig. 2b). This contrasts with the situation in most of Europe (except southern
7 Europe) and eastern North America, where less than 10% of total water withdrawals are for
8 irrigation. Globally, irrigation accounts for 73% of total water withdrawals but for 86% of
9 total consumptive use (Table 1). During crop growing periods, seasonally variable irrigation
10 water withdrawals account for an even higher percentage of total water withdrawals.
11 Consumptive use is 33% of water withdrawals and is concentrated in semi-arid and arid
12 regions with extensive irrigation even more strongly than water withdrawals (not shown).

13
14 Insert Fig. 2 about here

15 Insert Table 1 about here

16
17 The fraction of sectoral and total water withdrawals that stems from groundwater varies
18 strongly across the globe (Fig. 3). Please note, however, that we underestimate spatial
19 variability as data were not available at the grid cell scale. The highest fractions for domestic
20 water use occur in countries such as Mongolia, Iran, Saudi Arabia, Austria and Morocco, and
21 large parts of the USA and Mexico (Fig. 3a). Groundwater fractions of manufacturing water
22 withdrawals are similar to those of domestic water use, either because this really is the case or
23 because no specific data were available for groundwater use in the domestic and
24 manufacturing sectors (Fig. 3b). Please note that in the WaterGAP manufacturing water use
25 model, country values are downscaled to the grid scale by density of urban population, which
26 leads to many cells without any manufacturing water use. This is different from domestic
27 water use, where downscaling is done by total urban and rural population. The resolution of
28 the groundwater fractions in irrigation is much higher than in the domestic and manufacturing
29 water use sectors (Fig. 3c). Groundwater fractions of water withdrawals for irrigation exceed
30 80% in Central USA and Mexico, western India and parts of Pakistan, West Asia including
31 Iran, large parts of Northern Africa and North America (in particular the High Plains aquifer
32 and the lower part of the Mississippi) and in Argentina. Groundwater fractions of less than
33 10% occur, for example, along the Nile in Egypt, in South Africa, in the lower Euphrates-
34 Tigris basin, in Southeast Asia and in Japan. Groundwater fractions of total water withdrawals
35 (Fig. 3d) are rather similar to the groundwater fractions in irrigation, because irrigation is the
36 largest water use sector.

37
38 According to our assessment, 42% and 43% of global irrigation water withdrawals and
39 consumptive use, respectively, are from groundwater. This fraction is the highest of all water
40 use sectors (Table 1). As the dominant water use sector irrigation accounts for a larger
41 fraction of consumptive use than of water withdrawals, the groundwater fraction of
42 consumptive water use (global average of 40%) is higher than the groundwater fraction of
43 water withdrawals (global average of 35%, Table 1).

44
45 Insert Fig. 3 about here

46
47 Net abstractions from groundwater NA_g and net abstractions from surface waters NA_s can be
48 positive or negative (Fig. 4). Positive values indicate groundwater or surface water storage
49 losses whereas negative values indicate storage gains. Groundwater storage can only increase
50 (i.e. NA_g is negative) if there is irrigation in the cell for which water is withdrawn from
51 surface water, as the return flow partly leaches to the groundwater after application (Fig. 1

1 and Eq. (1)). Surface water storage can only increase (i.e. NAs is negative) if there are
2 groundwater withdrawals for the domestic, manufacturing or irrigation sectors, because then
3 return flow to surface water is generated (Fig. 1 and Eq. (3)). In this case, however, baseflow
4 from groundwater to surface water is reduced due to decreased groundwater storage. In many
5 areas with high positive NAg , NAs is negative, and vice versa. Where significant water
6 withdrawals from both surface water and groundwater occur, NAg and NAs are both negative,
7 and groundwater and surface water storage decrease. Examples of regions with high positive
8 NAs (decreased surface water storage) and negative NAg (increased groundwater storage) are
9 the Nile in Egypt, the Ganges-Euphrates basin, the lower Indus basin in Pakistan and
10 Southeastern China, where irrigation water use from surface water is dominant (Fig. 4).
11 Examples of areas with high positive NAg (decreased groundwater storage) and negative NAs
12 (increased surface water storage) are the High Plains of the central USA, the westernmost part
13 of India (among others the states of Gujarat and Rajasthan) and the North China Plain in
14 northeastern China, where return flows of irrigation water pumped from groundwater may
15 increase surface water flows and storages. Both NAg and NAs show high positive values in
16 most of the Ganges basin, Southern India the Central Valley (California, USA) and in most
17 of Spain, but NAg dominates.

18
19 Insert Fig. 4 about here

20
21 Globally, NAg is calculated to be $257 \text{ km}^3/\text{yr}$ while NAs is $1179 \text{ km}^3/\text{yr}$, which sum to total
22 CU of $1436 \text{ km}^3/\text{yr}$ (Table 1). NAg is less than half of total CU from groundwater (571
23 km^3/yr), i.e. the part of the withdrawn groundwater that does not evapotranspire during use,
24 because a large fraction of surface water withdrawals for irrigation recharges the groundwater
25 and thus decreases NAg (Eq. (1)). In areas without artificial drainage, 80% of return flows in
26 the irrigation sector are assumed to recharge groundwater (Eqs. (1) and (4)).

27
28 Continental water storage is affected by water withdrawals at seasonal and longer time scales.
29 The seasonal amplitude of TWS , taking into account human water use (average 1998-2002), is
30 calculated as the difference between the highest and lowest mean monthly value (Fig. 5a).
31 According to WaterGAP, seasonal storage amplitudes of more than 1000 mm occur in the
32 downstream stretches of large rivers such as the Amazon and Lena, and some other grid cells
33 e.g. in western Canada with very high precipitation. Amplitudes between 250 and 1000 mm
34 occur in regions with high precipitation (e.g. Bangladesh, Amazon basin), and/or with high
35 snow storage in winter (Alps, parts of Siberia and Canada), but also in large rivers like the
36 Yangtze. Seasonal amplitudes of less than 50 mm are found in semi-arid and arid regions.
37 Human water use mostly increases seasonal amplitudes of TWS (Fig. 5b). However,
38 significant increases of more than 10% only occur, according to WaterGAP, in a few semi-
39 arid regions with intensive irrigation, in the High Plains aquifer (USA), the Indus (Pakistan)
40 and upper Ganges (India) basins, in Iran, on the Arabian Peninsula and in Northern China
41 (e.g. Haihe and Tarim River basins).

42
43 Insert Fig. 5 about here

44
45 The reasons for a seasonal amplitude increase are manifold. If irrigation water is withdrawn
46 from surface water during a period with high water storage, an additional return flow to the
47 groundwater due to irrigation by surface water increases water storage in the following
48 months (because water is stored longer in groundwater than in rivers), e.g. in the lower Indus
49 or Nile basins (Fig. 5b). If irrigation water is mainly derived from groundwater, seasonal
50 withdrawals during dry periods lead to lower storage minima and thus to increased TWS
51 amplitudes, e.g. in the lower Mississippi basin. Finally, if groundwater depletion occurs, and

1 groundwater storage is constantly decreasing, the difference between the highest and lowest
2 mean monthly values increases, too, just because of impressing a trend on a seasonal
3 variation. This is the case, for example, in the North China Plains and the High Plains aquifer.

4
5 In Asia, in particular, there are also some areas where the seasonal amplitude of *TWS*
6 decreased due to human water use (Fig. 5b). This occurs in particular along large rivers such
7 as the Amu Darya and the Yellow River where surface water use is dominant, and water
8 withdrawals occur during periods of low water storage. Then groundwater storage is
9 increased due to groundwater recharge by irrigation return flow, and thus the seasonal
10 amplitude is decreased.

11 12 13 3.2. Evaluation for two selected basins

14
15 In this section, we compare modeled groundwater storage (*GWS*) variations to *GWS*
16 variations derived from groundwater well observations and modeled total water storage
17 (*TWS*) variations to *TWS* variations derived from GRACE observations, both for the High
18 Plains aquifer, with very intensive irrigation, and for the entire Mississippi basin (Fig. 4c).

19
20 Alkama et al. (2010) compared *TWS* as modeled by the ISBA land surface model with
21 GRACE *TWS* for the western and eastern part of the Mississippi basin (separated at longitude
22 95°W). The largest fraction of the western part is covered by the High Plains aquifer (Fig. 4c).
23 Alkama et al. (2010) found that ISBA, which shows a seasonal *TWS* amplitude of only 20 mm
24 (smoothed) in the western part, strongly underestimates the GRACE amplitude, while the fit
25 for the eastern part was good. As a possible reason, they indicated that ISBA does not take
26 into account the impact of water withdrawals and dams on *TWS*.

27 28 29 3.2.1. *GWS* variations in the High Plains aquifer and the Mississippi basin

30
31 Three variants of *GWS* as simulated by WGHM as well as observed *GWS* (Strassberg et al.,
32 2009) are shown in Fig. 6. Observed *GWS* averaged over the whole High Plains aquifer varies
33 seasonally, with the lowest values in July-September and the highest values in January-March
34 (Fig. 6 top). Observed decreases from the January-March period to the April-June period are
35 only small. Regarding the quality of the *GWS* variations that were developed from well
36 observations, Strassberg et al. (2009) noted that “comparison of annual *GWS* changes with the
37 storage changes published by the USGS provides confidence in our analysis of *GWS* changes
38 on interannual time scales. However, seasonal *GWS* anomalies may be overestimated in our
39 analysis, especially summer drawdown. This overestimation could result from bias in
40 sampling locations because many of the wells monitored during the summer season are close
41 to irrigated areas where drawdown is expected.” If temporal variations of water table
42 variations close to wells, with fast reactions to temporal dynamics of groundwater
43 withdrawals, are interpolated to the area between the wells, seasonal amplitude of the
44 spatially averaged *GWS* may be overestimated.

45
46 The seasonality of *GWS* as measured by well observations fits to the modeled seasonality of
47 net water abstractions from groundwater, *NA_g*, which has a maximum in July, with slightly
48 lower values in June and September (Fig. 6 top). About two thirds of the approximately 55
49 mm of annual *NA_g* are abstracted during July-September (looking at the four years 2003-
50 2006).. *NAs* is negative throughout the year due to return flow of withdrawn groundwater to
51 surface water, summing up to about -8 mm per year. A comparison of the consumptive use of

1 about 48 mm/yr computed for the High Plains aquifer to estimates of groundwater
2 withdrawals of Maupin and Barber (2005) (53 mm in the year 2000) and McGuire (2009) (50
3 mm in 2005) suggests that we may overestimate NA_g in the High Plains aquifer. The
4 interannual variability of water use appears to fit well to observed GWS . NA_g was relatively
5 low in 2004 due to high precipitation, and different from other years, groundwater storage in
6 the following winter reached the value of the previous winter and does not decline.

7
8 Regarding the trend of observed GWS , a downward trend can be seen for the four observation
9 years. While GWS in July-September decreased from -31 mm in 2003 to -104 mm in 2006,
10 GWS in January-March decreased from 82 mm in 2003 to 15 mm in 2006. This is equivalent
11 to an observed decrease of GWS of about 23 mm/yr. GWS computed by WGHM under the
12 assumption that no water withdrawals took place (blue line in Fig. 6) only varies slightly, and
13 not with a seasonal regularity, and there is no decreasing trend during the observation period.
14 This is completely different from observed GWS . When WGHM simulates the impact of
15 groundwater and surface water use on GWS , the resulting GWS time series shows a
16 decreasing trend and stronger seasonality (green line in Fig. 6). However, with -42 mm/yr, the
17 modeled trend is almost equal to twice the observed trend, and the observed storage recovery
18 during the fall and winter is not simulated by the model.

19
20 Insert Fig. 6 about here

21
22 Considering the water balance of the groundwater store (Eq. (2)), overestimation of GWS loss
23 may be due not only to overestimation of NA_g (which is likely the case here) but also to
24 underestimation of groundwater recharge. In the semi-arid High Plains aquifer, modeled
25 average diffuse groundwater recharge for 2003-2006 is 17 mm/yr. According to WGHM, 6%
26 of the High Plains aquifer is covered by surface water bodies, almost all of them local
27 wetlands (wetlands only fed by water generated within the 0.5° grid cell, not by an upstream
28 grid cell). No groundwater recharge is assumed to occur beneath wetlands in WGHM. We
29 tested the effect of additional groundwater recharge under local wetlands by assuming that
30 every day 1% of total water storage in local wetlands recharges the groundwater. With this
31 additional groundwater recharge, the trend decreases to -29 mm/yr, closer to the observed
32 trend of -23 mm/yr (red line in Fig. 6). However, the observed recovery of GWS in fall and
33 winter can be simulated only slightly better with the additional groundwater recharge from
34 local wetlands. The small impact may be due to the fact that in WGHM local wetlands do not
35 always store less water in summer than in fall and winter such that focused groundwater
36 recharge is similar throughout the year.

37
38 Regarding the Mississippi basin, area-specific NA_g is 14 mm/yr, only about one fourth of the
39 value in the High Plains aquifer, but shows a similar seasonality (Fig. 6 bottom). NA_g is
40 positive from June to September, but is small (1 mm/yr). Observed average GWS is lowest
41 around October and highest around May. This is very well simulated by WGHM (Fig. 6
42 bottom). Overall, GWS shows a decreasing trend in the first two years, with a minimum
43 seasonal maximum in June 2004. Afterwards, GWS recovers slightly in the first half of 2005
44 (due to the relatively wet year 2004 as reflected by the low NA_g) before decreasing strongly
45 until October 2005 and then not recovering well in the fall and winter of 2006. The overall
46 decreasing trend of observed GWS is not mimicked by the WGHM run without water use, but
47 is mimicked by both simulations with water use (Fig. 6 bottom). The simulation with water
48 use and additional focused groundwater recharge from local wetlands (covering about 8% of
49 the Mississippi basin according to WGHM) appears to better represent both the observed
50 interannual variation and seasonality than the simulation with water use but without
51 groundwater recharge from wetlands. Seasonal variations are stronger, while the negative

1 trend is smaller. However, observed seasonality of *GWS* is still 2-3 times larger than the
2 modeled *GWS* (with additional focused recharge).

3
4 Thus, for both the High Plains aquifer and the Mississippi basin, WGHM is not capable of
5 reproducing the large seasonal variations even though seasonality is increased appreciably by
6 considering human water use as compared to not taking into account groundwater and surface
7 water withdrawals in the model. In the case of the Mississippi basin, one might argue, that the
8 amplitude of the observed *GWS* would become similar to the modeled amplitude if specific
9 yield of the observation wells were overestimated by a factor of 2-3. Such an overestimation
10 appears to be possible though not very likely. Besides, each observation well represents an
11 average area of 56,400 km² (circular area with radius of 134 km) such that very large
12 interpolation errors are expected. In the case of the High Plains aquifer, the many wells
13 considered are unevenly distributed, and they are likely to be located, in many cases, close to
14 pumping wells, which may lead to an overestimation of the seasonal amplitude of *GWS*
15 derived from water table variations (Strassberg et al., 2009).

16 17 18 3.2.2. *TWS* variations in the High Plains aquifer and the Mississippi basin

19
20 Time series of *TWS* as observed by GRACE were compared with modeled *TWS* for the period
21 August 2002 through August 2009, for which GRACE data were available (Fig. 7). GRACE
22 data for the High Plains aquifer show a very high month-to-month variability because the
23 High Plains aquifer is relatively small and the relatively weak filter may not remove all noise
24 (Fig. 7 top). Further, the narrow, north-south orientation of the aquifer is not conducive to
25 observations by the polar orbiting GRACE satellites. Comparison of the ITG, GFZ and CSR
26 GRACE solutions indicates that monthly values are highly uncertain as the three solutions
27 differ strongly, often by more than 50 mm water storage (Fig. 7 top). GRACE data shown by
28 Strassberg et al. (2009) for 2003-2006 who used an isotropic filter with a filter radius of 500
29 km are smoother but show the same overall behavior. Strassberg et al. (2009) estimated that
30 GRACE *TWS* values for the High Plains aquifer have an error of 21 mm from March 2003
31 onward, and of 35 mm before. During 2003-2006 when observed *GWS* had a downward
32 trend, GRACE *TWS* shows no trend according to Strassberg et al. (2009). Longuevergne et al.
33 (2010), investigating estimation bias and leakage error of GRACE for the High Plains aquifer,
34 determined an overall error of 25 mm. Using data from two GRACE processing centers, they
35 determined a decreasing trend of *TWS* during 2003-2006.

36
37 *TWS* in the High Plains aquifer as modeled by taking into account water withdrawals and
38 groundwater recharge from local wetlands fits quite well to GRACE *TWS* until mid/end of
39 2006 when both GRACE *TWS* and modeled *TWS* reach a minimum (Fig. 7 top). Afterwards,
40 *TWS* increases in both cases until January 2007 but the ensuing further increase until mid
41 2007 seen by GRACE is not mimicked by WGHM. The years 2007 and 2008 appear to be
42 wet years as reflected both by WGHM (Figs. 6 and 7) and GRACE *TWS*. While all three
43 GRACE solutions show no trend after mid 2007, modeled *TWS* shows a declining trend. This
44 could indicate that our model overestimates water withdrawals, in particular after 2006, but
45 independent support for this is lacking. Unfortunately, *GWS* storage changes based on
46 groundwater level measurements have not yet been computed for the period after 2006.

47
48 Any negative trend of *TWS* in the High Plains aquifer due to water withdrawals is strongly
49 decreased by filtering, because water withdrawals outside of the aquifer are very small. For
50 the period August 2002 through August 2009, the linear trend of -32 mm/yr for the unfiltered
51 WGHM *TWS* decreases by a factor of five to only -6 mm/yr for the filtered data. The

1 simulation without taking into account any water use leads to the best overall correspondence
2 because GRACE solutions do not show this decreasing trend (Fig. 7 top).

3
4 Due to the high uncertainty of the monthly GRACE solutions, it is not clear whether seasonal
5 variability of *TWS* is computed well by WGHM. Compared to monthly soil water anomalies
6 derived from a large number of in-situ measurements of soil moisture integrated over the
7 uppermost 2-4 m as provided in Strassberg et al. (2009), seasonal soil moisture variation is
8 strongly underestimated by WGHM (not shown). The difference between modeled minimum
9 and maximum soil moisture (averaged over the High Plains aquifer) is 35 mm during 2003-
10 2006, compared to an observed difference of 100 mm. Besides, the timing of peaks does not
11 fit, and there is higher month-to-month variability of soil moisture in WGHM. One reason for
12 the lower storage variations may be the rooting depth used in WGHM in the High Plains
13 aquifer, which is mostly 1 m (for agricultural land use). The Noah land surface model used in
14 Strassberg et al. (2009) simulated soil moisture in the top 2 m of the soil column. It is unlikely
15 that uncertain precipitation data is the reason for the different estimates of soil moisture
16 variations, as precipitation over the High Plains aquifer that is used in WGHM is similar to
17 the precipitation data shown in Strassberg et al. (2009). The variation of modeled surface
18 water storage (mostly in local wetlands) is about 10 mm during 2003-2006, while snow
19 storage from November to March adds less than 10 mm.

20
21 Insert Fig. 7 about here

22
23 In the much larger Mississippi basin, the difference between the ITG, GFZ and CSR GRACE
24 solutions are rather small (Fig. 7 bottom), and filtering does not affect much both GRACE
25 data or modeled *TWS* very much. In the Mississippi basin, with less intensive water use than
26 in the High Plains aquifer, *TWS* simulated both with and without water use fits well to
27 GRACE *TWS* (Fig. 7 bottom). It is not possible to determine whether simulated water storage
28 with or without water use fits GRACE data better. Net abstractions, with about 3-5 mm/month
29 at the seasonal maximum (Fig. 6 bottom) lead to a slightly increased seasonal amplitude not
30 simulated *TWS* (Fig. 7 bottom) but the impact of water use is less than the discrepancies
31 between GRACE data and model results. Large parts of the Mississippi basin have relatively
32 low human water use (Fig. 4) and are essentially unaffected by changes in seasonal *TWS*
33 amplitudes due to human water use (Figs. 5b), which explains, why averaged over the whole
34 basin, only a small effect of water use was computed.

35
36 While WGHM strongly underestimates seasonal *GWS* amplitudes as derived from
37 groundwater table observations, it models seasonal amplitudes of *TWS* as derived from
38 GRACE very well. According to WGHM, seasonal surface water variations are 20-30 mm,
39 comparable to *GWS* variations. Soil water variations account for 40-50 mm. While
40 groundwater and surface water storage peak in March-April, soil water peaks in January-
41 February. Snow storage contributes about 30-40 mm, with a peak in February. In contrast to
42 the behavior of the seasonal amplitudes, the timing of peak *GWS* fits well between modeled
43 and observed data, but there appears to be a shift between modeled and GRACE *TWS*, with
44 later observed peak storage. This may indicate that snowmelt occurs too early in the WGHM
45 simulation.

46 47 48 3.3. Uncertainties

49
50 When estimating the impact of groundwater and surface water withdrawals on continental
51 water storage variations, major uncertainties stem from quantification of water withdrawals,

1 in particular irrigation water withdrawals. Data on irrigation water use in census publications
2 are mostly modeled or estimated values, as water withdrawals for irrigation are almost never
3 measured. Even in the USA, with a high level of water-related information as compared to
4 other countries, only 16% of wells used for irrigation in 2003 were equipped with meters
5 (Veneman et al., 2004). Thus, to estimate irrigation water withdrawals, we first computed
6 consumptive use as a function of uncertain information on irrigated areas and climatic
7 variables. In particular, in our global approach, temporal changes of irrigated area are only
8 taken into account by changing irrigated area in each grid cell within a country by the same
9 percentage from year to year. Water withdrawals are then determined by dividing computed
10 consumptive use by estimates of irrigation water use efficiency. We assumed that water use
11 efficiencies of groundwater use are the same as those of surface water use. However, we
12 expect higher irrigation efficiencies in the case of groundwater use, as conveyance losses
13 should be less. This would decrease our withdrawal estimates.

14
15 Data on water withdrawals by source, i.e. of water withdrawals from groundwater or from
16 surface water, are even scarcer than data on total water withdrawals. In our assessment, we
17 could include subnational data from only three countries that provided sector-specific
18 information on groundwater and surface water withdrawals for domestic and manufacturing
19 use. For seven countries, we had subnational information only on non-sector-specific total
20 groundwater withdrawals, or the domestic and manufacturing sectors were not differentiated.
21 For many countries, IGRAC provides estimates for groundwater withdrawals for the sectors
22 agriculture (includes irrigation and livestock), industry (includes manufacturing and cooling
23 of thermal power plants) and households. However, no data are provided for total sectoral
24 water withdrawals (sum of surface and groundwater withdrawals) by IGRAC. Data on total
25 sectoral water withdrawals from other sources such as FAO AQUASTAT
26 (<http://www.fao.org/nr/water/aquastat/main/index.stm>), which are required to compute
27 sectoral groundwater fractions, often show values that are clearly inconsistent with
28 withdrawals from IGRAC and may be even larger than total withdrawals from AQUASTAT.

29
30 We tested a number of approaches for downscaling groundwater fractions of SSUs to the 0.5°
31 grid cells. Potential predictors tested were 1) aquifer type according to WHYMAP
32 (www.whymap.org), 2) a water scarcity indicator, the mean monthly value of river discharge
33 minus consumptive water use in the month of the year where this difference is at its
34 minimum, 3) percent reservoir or lake area, 4) slope and 5) elevation. The success was mixed.
35 Reasons for groundwater vs. surface water use differ among regions and sectors such that we
36 could not identify a globally applicable approach. Therefore, we think that downscaling with
37 such predictors currently would not lead to meaningful results.

38
39 Net water abstractions NA_g and NA_s additionally depend on the storage compartment that
40 receives the return flows of irrigation. Here, we could only make rough assumptions based on
41 the existence of artificial drainage because no data were available. Furthermore, the impact of
42 water withdrawals on water storage variations depends on the other modelled and thus
43 uncertain flows from and to groundwater and surface water, including groundwater recharge.
44 Please note that in WGHM return flows to groundwater are assumed to occur instantaneously,
45 while in reality, the transport of irrigation return flows to groundwater may take a long time,
46 and water storage in the unsaturated zone is increased instead by the return flows (not
47 represented in WGHM).

48
49 We estimated the 35% of total global water withdrawals are from groundwater, which is
50 equivalent to about 1500 km³/yr during the period 1998-2000. This is twice the amount that
51 was estimated by Wada et al. (2010). However, Wada et al. (2010) used more limited

1 information than we did to determine groundwater withdrawals. They relied exclusively on
2 estimates of total, i.e. not-sector-specific groundwater withdrawals by country as collected by
3 IGRAC. No groundwater withdrawals were taken into account for North Korea, Afghanistan,
4 Sri Lanka, Colombia and for several central African countries due to lack of data in the
5 IGRAC data base (Wada et al., 2010), but this alone cannot explain the large underestimation
6 as compared to our estimate.

9 4. Conclusions

11 We developed a first time series of sector-specific groundwater and surface water withdrawals
12 and consumptive uses at the global scale (spatial resolution 0.5°), assuming temporally
13 invariant fractions of total withdrawals. Based on this, we computed, for each grid cell, net
14 abstractions from groundwater and from surface water. These net abstractions indicate, for the
15 first time at the global scale, where and when human water withdrawals decrease or increase
16 groundwater or surface water storage. With 35% of total water withdrawals, groundwater
17 withdrawals world-wide were estimated to reach approx. 1500 km³/yr during the period 1998-
18 2000, which is twice the amount of Wada et al. (2010) who used more limited statistical
19 information than we did in this study. Net abstraction from groundwater is computed to be
20 only 250 km³/yr, because not only part of the withdrawn groundwater but also part of the
21 withdrawn surface water recharges groundwater due to irrigation return flow. To assess
22 groundwater depletion, net abstractions of groundwater (and not groundwater withdrawals)
23 have to be compared to groundwater recharge. While global surface water withdrawals (2800
24 km³/yr) are almost twice as high as groundwater withdrawals, net abstraction of surface water
25 (1200 km³/yr) is almost five times as high as net abstraction of groundwater.

27 The impact of water withdrawals on continental storage variations is significant in semi-arid
28 and arid regions with intensive irrigation. There, seasonal amplitudes of total water storage
29 (*TWS*) mainly increase due to irrigation, in particular if the dominant water source is
30 groundwater. A long-term decline of groundwater storage is modeled in some regions.
31 Seasonal amplitudes of *TWS* were shown to decrease in a few areas where surface water use is
32 dominant and water withdrawals during periods of low water storage result in increased
33 groundwater storage due to return flows of irrigation water.

35 WaterGAP possibly overestimates withdrawals and net abstraction of groundwater for
36 irrigation in the High Plains aquifer. For the time period 2003-2006, modeled groundwater
37 storage (*GWS*) shows a trend of -42 mm/yr (model variant without recharge beneath
38 wetlands) or -29 mm/yr (model variant with focused recharge beneath wetlands), while -23
39 mm/yr are derived from groundwater well observations. The timing of modeled net
40 abstractions of groundwater fits well to observed *GWS* variations. It is not possible to judge
41 the quality of modeled seasonal amplitudes of *GWS* variations because *GWS* estimates based
42 on well observations may overestimate spatially averaged *GWS* variations, e.g. due to
43 observation wells being close to pumping wells. Modeled *TWS* fits to GRACE *TWS* from
44 2002 through 2007, but the model underestimates *TWS* in 2008-2009. Based on GRACE
45 *TWS* only, we would not be able to conclude that significant water withdrawals that affect
46 water storage occurred in the High Plains aquifer. This was only possible on the basis of
47 observed groundwater levels. Whether the GRACE data for the High Plains aquifer indicate a
48 recent decrease in groundwater withdrawals remains to be seen.

50 For the entire Mississippi basin, WaterGAP *TWS* variations are similar to GRACE *TWS*
51 variations and show approximately the same seasonal amplitudes. As in the High Plains

1 aquifer, WaterGAP appears to underestimate *GWS* variations, at least compared to *GWS*
2 variations that were derived from groundwater levels measured in only 58 monitoring wells.
3 While water withdrawals strongly affect *GWS* and *TWS* in the High Plains aquifer, only *GWS*
4 is affected appreciably in the less intensively irrigated Mississippi basin. Therefore, water
5 withdrawals at the scale of the entire Mississippi basin could not be monitored by GRACE.

6
7 Currently, it does not seem possible to quantify the historic development of the fractions of
8 groundwater and surface water withdrawals. Assessment of the impact of groundwater and
9 surface water withdrawals on continental water storage variations will be continued. We will
10 analyze long-term developments including groundwater depletion globally, and we aim to
11 determine under what conditions GRACE can be used for monitoring water withdrawals. To
12 significantly reduce the uncertainties of such a global assessment, improved data on
13 groundwater and surface water use would be needed. This requires national agencies to
14 collect water use data by sector and source in a consistent manner, with subnational
15 resolution. In addition, improved accuracy of GRACE data would be very helpful.
16 Furthermore, analyses of the impact of water withdrawals from groundwater and surface
17 water on river discharge are planned for the future.

18 19 20 Acknowledgements

21
22 We thank Martina Flörke and Frank Voß for providing the most recent WaterGAP water use
23 results, Andreas Güntner for providing climate data for the period 2002-2009, and Linda
24 Adam and Jing Zhang for helping with postprocessing and preparation of figures. In addition,
25 we thank the International Groundwater Resources Assessment Center and other providers of
26 groundwater data for their data and Dr. Jeremy Wilkinson for testing downscaling approaches
27 of groundwater fractions. Research presented in this paper was partially funded by the
28 European Union (EU project “Water and Global Change WATCH”, contract number 036946)
29 and the German Research Foundation (project REGHYDRO within priority program 1257
30 “Mass transport and mass distribution in the system Earth”). We also thank the two
31 anonymous reviewers and the guest editor Volker Klemann for their helpful comments.

32 33 34 Appendix

35 36 Estimation of groundwater fractions of domestic and manufacturing water withdrawals

37
38 To generate the global data set of groundwater fractions of domestic and manufacturing water
39 withdrawals, data on the national level and the subnational level were combined for a total of
40 196 countries or territorial units used in the WaterGAP model. We first describe the
41 procedure for countries with subnational data.

42 43 1. Estimation for countries with subnational data on groundwater withdrawals

44
45 For 10 countries, subnational data were available on groundwater and total water
46 withdrawals: Australia (8 states and capital territory, for the year 2004, from Australian
47 Bureau of Statistics), Canada (13 provinces, domestic for 1996 and manufacturing between
48 1999 and 2002, various sources), China (including Hong Kong and Taiwan, in total 33
49 provinces or Special Administrative Regions, for 2005, National Bureau of Statistics of
50 China), Germany (16 federal states, domestic for 2004 and manufacturing for 2007,
51 Statistisches Bundesamt), India (30 states or Union Territories, for 2004, Ministry of Water

1 Resources of India/Central Ground Water Board), Mexico (2463 units on the level of
2 “municipios”, averages 2005-2007, Comisión Nacional del Agua), New Zealand (14 regions,
3 for 2000, Statistics New Zealand), Russian Federation (11 river basins, for 2005, ROSSTAT),
4 Ukraine (25 oblasts, averages 2000-2006), USA (3139 units on the level of counties, for 2000,
5 United States Geological Survey).

6
7 For 3 of the 10 countries (USA, Mexico, and Germany), information on sector-specific
8 withdrawals by source were available, while for the other countries, only data on total
9 groundwater withdrawals and total withdrawals were available for the subnational units. For
10 the other 7 countries with subnational data, the procedure was as follows. For Australia, data
11 on non-sector-specific groundwater and total water withdrawals were available. For Canada,
12 groundwater withdrawal fractions for domestic use were available from the Municipal Use
13 Database (MUD) for 1996, based on data of communities above 1000 inhabitants. The
14 fractions for manufacturing were calculated based on percentages of withdrawal with respect
15 to total groundwater withdrawal, available for different industries for each province between
16 1999 and 2005, from sources mentioned in a national report of 2004, combined with total
17 groundwater withdrawal from another source and manufacturing withdrawal from WaterGAP.
18 For China, provincial non-sector-specific groundwater and total water withdrawal were used.
19 As no withdrawal data were available for the units Hong Kong and Taiwan Province of
20 China, their fractions were estimated from the neighboring provinces Guangdong (Hong
21 Kong) and Fujian (Taiwan), leading to eventually 33 considered units. For India, groundwater
22 withdrawals for domestic and industry were not distinguished, such that only data on total
23 groundwater withdrawals could be taken into account. We assumed that the groundwater
24 fractions for domestic and manufacturing uses were the same, and used total (surface and
25 groundwater) withdrawals in the domestic and manufacturing sectors as computed by
26 WaterGAP. For New Zealand, for domestic uses, groundwater and total water were available.
27 For manufacturing, national-level data on IGRAC sectoral percentage share of groundwater
28 use and total groundwater withdrawal, and WaterGAP sectoral water withdrawal were used.
29 For the Russian Federation, non-sector-specific groundwater withdrawals and total water
30 withdrawals for 11 hydrographic basins were available. For two of these basins that are
31 included in WaterGAP but not in the publication, the average groundwater withdrawal
32 fraction was applied. For the Ukraine, for 25 oblasts, average 2000-2006 values on non-
33 sector-specific groundwater withdrawal and total water withdrawal of a tabular statistical
34 source were used to calculate the groundwater withdrawal fraction. As no irrigation water
35 withdrawal from groundwater exists according to Siebert et al. (2010), the sectoral total water
36 withdrawals from the same source was used to calculate a common groundwater withdrawal
37 fraction valid for both domestic use and manufacturing.

38
39 The subnational withdrawal values were then upscaled or downscaled through area-averaged
40 polygon shares to WaterGAP 0.5° grid cells belonging to the considered country. Final
41 groundwater fractions were then calculated for each grid cell. When due to differences in
42 geometry no intersection occurred, grid cells with missing values obtained the values of the
43 nearest Euclidean distance neighbor cell.

44 45 2. Estimation for countries with national data only

46
47 For 20 out of the 186 national units, directly usable data of domestic and
48 manufacturing/industrial groundwater and total water withdrawals were available either from
49 international reports, national reports, or from estimates by experts (personal communication).
50 In some of these cases the f_g -values were set to zero because of zero sectoral water withdrawal
51 or zero total groundwater withdrawal.

1
2 For 66 countries, groundwater use fractions for domestic use f_{g_dom} were calculated from
3 IGRAC data as follows. IGRAC domestic fraction of total groundwater withdrawals fgw_{dom}
4 was applied to IGRAC total groundwater withdrawal WU_{g_tot} to get absolute domestic
5 groundwater withdrawal. This sum was then divided by the domestic water withdrawal as
6 computed by WaterGAP, such that

$$7 \quad f_{g_dom} = fgw_{dom} \cdot WU_{g_tot} / WU_{dom} \quad (A1)$$

9
10 with fgw : fraction of (sectoral) groundwater withdrawal use with respect to total groundwater
11 use from IGRAC, WU : water withdrawals, and subscripts g : groundwater, dom : domestic use.

12
13 The calculation of groundwater use fractions for manufacturing f_{g_man} could not follow the
14 same procedure for these countries, as the IGRAC industrial fraction of groundwater
15 withdrawal fgw_{ind} includes use for cooling of thermal power plants. First, the groundwater
16 fraction for industrial use f_{g_ind} was calculated from the fraction of total groundwater
17 withdrawals for industry as follows:

$$18 \quad f_{g_ind} = fgw_{ind} \cdot WU_{g_tot} / (WU_t + WU_{man}) \quad (A2)$$

19
20
21 with subscripts ind : industry, tot : total water withdrawal over all sectors (irrigation, domestic,
22 manufacturing, livestock, thermal power plants, manufacturing), t : thermal power plants,
23 man : manufacturing. Then, the groundwater use fraction of manufacturing f_{g_man} was
24 calculated using the assumption that only surface water is used for cooling of thermal power
25 plants:

$$26 \quad WU_{g_man} = f_{g_ind} \cdot (WU_t + WU_{man}) \quad (A3)$$

27
28
29 Substituting $f_{g_man} = WU_{g_man} / WU_{man}$ in Eq. (A3) results in

$$30 \quad f_{g_man} = f_{g_ind} \cdot (WU_t + WU_{man}) / WU_{man} \quad (A4)$$

31
32
33 This procedure was successfully applied to 53 countries. In 13 countries, the inconsistencies
34 in data sources of sectoral groundwater and sectoral total water withdrawals would have led to
35 groundwater fractions larger than 1, and the groundwater fraction for manufacturing f_{g_man}
36 was set to that of domestic use f_{g_dom} .

37
38 When no sectoral fractions of total groundwater withdrawal were available from IGRAC, then
39 a common groundwater use fraction f_g for both domestic and manufacturing uses was
40 calculated if a non-sector-specific total groundwater use fraction f_{g_tot} or total groundwater
41 withdrawals were available. Using water withdrawals from groundwater from irrigation
42 (WU_{g_i}) as computed by multiplying total WaterGAP irrigation water withdrawals by
43 groundwater fractions for irrigation according to Siebert et al. (2010), f_{g_man} was computed as

$$44 \quad f_{g_man} = f_{g_dom} = (f_{g_tot} \cdot WU_{tot} + WU_{g_i}) / (WU_m + WU_d) \quad (A5)$$

45
46
47 This procedure was successfully applied to another 19 countries.

48
49 In further 26 countries, the above estimation procedures failed, e.g. when calculated
50 groundwater withdrawal for irrigation was larger than reported total groundwater withdrawal.

1 Then, the groundwater use fractions f_g for both domestic and manufacturing uses were set to
2 f_{g_tot} . In the special sub-case of Barbados, f_{g_man} was set to zero because f_{g_ind} was zero.

3
4 For the final 55 countries without any information on groundwater withdrawals, both
5 groundwater use fractions were drawn from neighboring countries with reliable information.
6 Most estimates were made in Africa (16 units), America (13), and Asia (8), but only two in
7 Europe (Faeroe Islands and Luxembourg). For 14 small islands, census data of US Virgin
8 Islands (10 units) or American Samoa (4) were regionally applied. We assumed that there are
9 no groundwater withdrawals in Greenland (due to permafrost) and the Falkland Islands. The
10 national groundwater fractions were attributed without any downscaling to WaterGAP grid
11 cells belonging to the considered country.

12 13 14 References

- 15
16 Alcamo, J., Döll, P., Henrichs, T., Kaspar, F., Lehner, B., Rösch, T., Siebert, S., 2003.
17 Development and testing of the WaterGAP 2 global model of water use and availability.
18 Hydrol. Sci. J. 48, 317-338, doi:10.1623/hysj.48.3.317.45290.
- 19 Alkama, R., Decharme, B., Douville, H., Becker, M., Cazenave, A., Sheffield, J., Voldoire,
20 A., Tyteca, S., Le Moigne, P., 2010. Global evaluation of the ISBA-TRIP continental
21 hydrologic system. Part I: Comparison to GRACE terrestrial water storage estimates and
22 in-situ river discharges. J. Hydrometeorol. 11, 583-600, doi:10.1175/2010JHM1211.1.
- 23 Bettadpur, S., 2007. UTCSR Level-2 Processing Standards Document For Level-2 Product
24 Release 0004. CSR Publ. GR-03-03.
- 25 Döll, P., 2009. Vulnerability to the impact of climate change on renewable groundwater
26 resources: a global-scale assessment. Environ. Res. Lett. 4, 036006, doi:10.1088/1748-
27 9326/4/3/035006.
- 28 Döll, P., Fiedler, K., Zhang, J., 2009. Global-scale analysis of river flow alterations due to
29 water withdrawals and reservoirs. Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. 13, 2413-2432,
30 doi:10.5194/hess-13-2413-2009.
- 31 Döll, P., Fiedler, K., 2008. Global-scale modeling of groundwater recharge. Hydrol. Earth
32 Syst. Sci. 12, 863-885, doi:10.5194/hess-12-863-2008.
- 33 Döll, P., Siebert, S., 2002. Global modeling of irrigation water requirements. Water Resour.
34 Res. 38, 8.1-8.10, doi:10.1029/2001WR000355.
- 35 Eicker, A., Mayer-Gürr, T., Kurtenbach, E., 2010. Challenges in deriving trends from
36 GRACE. Proceedings of the IAG Scientific Meeting in Buenos Aires (accepted).
- 37 Eltahir, E.A.B., Yeh, P.J.-F., 1999. On the asymmetric response of aquifer water level to
38 droughts and floods in Illinois. Water Resour. Res., 35, 1199-1217.
- 39 Feick, S., Siebert, S., Döll, P., 2005. A Digital Global Map of Artificially Drained
40 Agricultural Areas. Frankfurt Hydrology Paper 04. Institute of Physical Geography,
41 University of Frankfurt, Frankfurt am Main, 57 pp., available at: [http://www.geo.uni-
42 frankfurt.de/ipg/ag/dl/publikationen/index.html](http://www.geo.uni-frankfurt.de/ipg/ag/dl/publikationen/index.html).
- 43 Flechtner, F., Dahle, Ch., Neumayer, K.H., König, R., Förste, Ch., 2010. The release 04
44 CHAMP and GRACE EIGEN gravity field models, in: Flechtner, F., Mandean M.,
45 Gruber, T., Rothacher, M., Wickert, J., Güntner, A. (eds.): System Earth via Geodetic-
46 Geophysical Space Techniques, Springer, Berlin, pp. 41-58.
- 47 Freydanck, K., Siebert, S., 2008. Towards mapping the extent of irrigation in the last century:
48 time series of irrigated area per country. Frankfurt Hydrology Paper 08. Institute of
49 Physical Geography, University of Frankfurt, Frankfurt am Main, Germany, 46 pp.,
50 available at: <http://www.geo.uni-frankfurt.de/ipg/ag/dl/publikationen/index.html>.

- 1 Fritsche, M., Döll, P., Dietrich, R., 2011. Global-scale validation of model-based load
2 deformations from water mass and atmospheric pressure variations using GPS. *J.*
3 *Geodyn.* (submitted).
- 4 Gerten, D., Schaphoff, S., Haberlandt, U., Lucht, W., Sitch, S., 2004. Terrestrial vegetation
5 and water balance: hydrological evaluation of a dynamic global vegetation model. *J.*
6 *Hydrol.* 286, 249–270, doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2003.09.029.
- 7 Güntner, A., Stuck, J., Werth, S., Döll, P., Verzano, K., Merz, B., 2007. A global analysis of
8 temporal and spatial variations in continental water storage. *Water Resour. Res.* 43,
9 W05416, doi:10.1029/2006WR005247.
- 10 Haddeland, I., Skaugen, T., Lettenmaier, D.P., 2006. Anthropogenic impacts on continental
11 surface water fluxes. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 33, L08406, doi:10.1029/2006GL026047.
- 12 Hanasaki, N., Kanae, S., Oki, T., Masuda, K., Motoya, K., Shirakawa, N., Shen, Y., Tanaka,
13 K., 2008. An integrated model for the assessment of global water resources – Part 2:
14 Applications and assessments, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 12, 1027-1037, doi:10.5194/hess-
15 12-1027-2008.
- 16 Hunger, M., Döll, P., 2008. Value of river discharge data for global-scale hydrological
17 modeling. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 12, 841-861, doi:10.5194/hess-12-841-2008.
- 18 Kulkarni, S.A., Reinders, F.B., Ligetvári, F., 2006. Global scenario of sprinkler and micro
19 irrigated areas, in: 7th International Micro Irrigation Congress: Advances in Micro
20 Irrigation for Optimum Crop Production and Resource Conservation, ICID - International
21 Commission on Irrigation and Drainage. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
- 22 Kusche, J., Schmidt, R., Petrovic, S., Rietbroek, R., 2009. Decorrelated GRACE time-variable
23 gravity solutions by GFZ, and their validation using a hydrological model. *J. Geodesy* 83,
24 903-913, doi:10.1007/s00190-009-0308-3.
- 25 Lehner, B., Döll, P., 2004. Development and validation of a database of lakes, reservoirs and
26 wetlands. *J. Hydrol.* 296, 1-22, doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2004.03.028.
- 27 Lo, M.H., Famiglietti, J.S., Yeh, P.J.-F., Syed, T. H., 2010. Improving parameter estimation
28 and water table depth simulation in a land surface model using GRACE water storage and
29 estimated base flow data. *Water Resour. Res.* 46, W05517, doi:10.1029/2009WR007855.
- 30 Longuevergne, L., Scanlon, B.R., Wilson, C.R., 2010. GRACE hydrological estimates for
31 small basins: evaluating processing approaches on the High Plains Aquifer. *Water*
32 *Resour. Res.*, 46, doi:10.1029/2009WR008564, in press.
- 33 Maupin, M.A., Barber, N.L., 2005. Estimated withdrawals from principal aquifers in the
34 United States, 2000. *U.S. Geol. Surv. Circl.* 1279, 46 pp.
- 35 Mayer-Gürr, T., Eicker, A., Kurtenbach, E., Ilk, K.-H., 2010. ITG-GRACE: Global Static and
36 Temporal Gravity Field Models from GRACE Data, in: Flechtner, F., Gruber, T.,
37 Güntner, A., Manda, M., Rothacher, M., Schöne, T., Wickert, J. (Eds), *System Earth via*
38 *Geodetic-Geophysical Space Techniques.* Springer, Heidelberg, pp. 159-168,
39 doi:10.1007/978-3-642-10228-8_13.
- 40 McGuire, V.L., 2009. Water-level changes in the High Plains aquifer, predevelopment to
41 2007, 2005–06, and 2006–07: U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report
42 2009–5019, 9 pp., available at: <http://pubs.usgs.gov/sir/2009/5019/>
- 43 Mitchell, T.D., Jones, P.D., 2005. An improved method of constructing a database of monthly
44 cli-mate observations and associated high-resolution grids. *Int. J. Climatol.* 25, 693-712,
45 doi: 10.1002/joc.1181.
- 46 Rodell, M., Chen, J., Kato, H., Famiglietti, J.S., Nigro, J., Wilson, C.R., 2007. Estimating
47 groundwater storage changes in the Mississippi River basin (USA) using GRACE.
48 *Hydrogeol. J.* 15, 159-166, doi:10.1007/s10040-006-0103-7.
- 49 Rodell, M., Velicogna, I., Famiglietti, J.S., 2009. Satellite-based estimates of groundwater
50 depletion in India. *Nature* 460, 999–1002, doi: doi:10.1038/nature08238.

- 1 Rohwer, J., Gerten, D., Lucht, W., 2007. Development of functional irrigation types for
2 improved global crop modelling. PIK Report 104, Potsdam, 61 pp.
- 3 Rudolf, B., Schneider, U., 2005. Calculation of gridded precipitation data for the global land-
4 surface using in-situ gauge observations. Proceedings of the 2nd Workshop of the
5 International Precipitation Working Group IPWG, Monterey, October 2004.
- 6 Siebert, S., Burke, J., Faures, J.-M., Frenken, K., Hoogeveen, J., Döll, P., Portmann, F.T.,
7 2010. Groundwater use for irrigation – a global inventory. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 14,
8 1863-1880, doi:10.5194/hess-14-1863-2010.
- 9 Siebert, S., Hoogeveen, J. and Frenken, K. (2006): Irrigation in Africa, Europe and Latin
10 America. Update of the Digital Global Map of Irrigation Areas to Version 4. Frankfurt
11 Hydrology Paper 05. Institute of Physical Geography, University of Frankfurt, Frankfurt
12 am Main & Land and Water Development Division of the Food and Agriculture
13 Organization of the United Nations, Rome, Italy, 134 pp., available at:
14 <http://www.geo.uni-frankfurt.de/ipg/ag/dl/publikationen/index.html>.
- 15 Siebert, S., Döll, P., Hoogeveen, J., Faures, J.-M., Frenken, K., Feick, S., 2005. Development
16 and validation of the global map of irrigation areas. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 9, 535-547,
17 doi:10.5194/hess-9-535-2005.
- 18 Strassberg, G., Scanlon, B.R., Chambers, D., 2009. Evaluation of groundwater storage
19 monitoring with the GRACE satellite: Case study of the High Plains aquifer, central
20 United States. *Water Resour. Res.* 45, W05410, doi:10.1029/2008WR006892.
- 21 Swenson, S., Famiglietti, J.S., Basara, J., Wahr, J., 2008. Estimating profile soil moisture and
22 groundwater variations using GRACE and Oklahoma Mesonet soil moisture data, *Water*
23 *Resour. Res.* 44, W01413, doi:10.1029/2007WR006057.
- 24 Vassolo, S., Döll, P., 2005. Global-scale gridded estimates of thermoelectric power and
25 manufacturing water use. *Water Resour. Res.* 41(4), W04010,
26 doi:10.1029/2004WR003360.
- 27 Veneman, A.M., Jen, J.J., Bosecker, R.R., 2004. Farm and Ranch Irrigation Survey (2003).
28 2002 Census of Agriculture, Volume 3, Special Studies, Part 1, AC-02-SS-1, National
29 Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS), U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA),
30 <http://www.agcensus.usda.gov/Publications/2002/FRIS/fris03.pdf>, accessed: 09 April
31 2010.
- 32 Voß, F., Flörke, M., 2010. Spatially explicit estimates of past and present manufacturing and
33 energy water use. WATCH Technical Report 23, Kassel, 17 pp., available at:
34 <http://www.eu-watch.org/publications/technical-reports>.
- 35 Voß, F., Flörke, M., Alcamo, J., 2009. Preliminary spatially explicit estimates of past and
36 present domestic water use. WATCH Technical Report 17, Kassel, 16 pp., available at:
37 <http://www.eu-watch.org/publications/technical-reports>.
- 38 Wada, Y., van Beek, L.P.H., van Kempen, C.M., Reckman, J.W.T.M., Vasak, S., Bierkens,
39 M.F.P., 2010. Global depletion of groundwater resources. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 27,
40 L20402, doi:10.1029/2010GL044571.
- 41 Werth, S., Güntner, A., 2010. Calibration analysis for water storage variability of the global
42 hydrological model WGHM. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 14, 59–78, doi:10.5194/hess-14-59-
43 2010.
- 44 Wisser, D., Fekete, B.M., Vörösmarty, C.J., Schumann, A.H., 2010. Reconstructing 20th
45 century global hydrography: a contribution to the Global Terrestrial Network- Hydrology
46 (GTN-H). *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 14, 1-24, doi:10.5194/hess-14-1-2010.
- 47 Yeh, P.J.-F., Famiglietti J.S., Swenson, S., Rodell, M., 2006. Remote sensing of groundwater
48 storage changes using Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE). *Water*
49 *Resour. Res.* 42, W12203, doi:10.1029/2006WR005374.

1 Zaitchik, B.F., Rodell, M., Reichle, R., 2008. Assimilation of GRACE terrestrial water
2 storage data into a land surface model: Results for the Mississippi River basin. *J.*
3 *Hydrometeorol.* 9, 535–548, doi:10.1175/2007JHM951.1.
4

1 **Figures**

2

3 Fig. 1. Schematic of water storage compartments (boxes) and flows (arrows) within each 0.5°
4 grid cell of WGHM, including the simulation of water use impacts on water storage in
5 groundwater and surface water based on estimates of groundwater and surface water use. The
6 water use estimates are computed by the water use models of WaterGAP (including
7 GWSWUSE that quantifies water use by source for each grid cell). Local lakes and wetlands
8 are those lakes and wetlands that only receive inflow originating from precipitation within the
9 cell.

10

11 Fig. 2. (a) Total water withdrawals, in mm/yr, and (b) irrigation water withdrawals in percent
12 of total water withdrawals, for 1998-2002. The irrigation percentage is only shown if total
13 water withdrawals are at least 0.2 mm/yr.

14

15 Fig. 3. Importance of groundwater withdrawals in the different water use sectors as estimated
16 in this study. (a) Groundwater withdrawals for domestic purposes in percent of total surface
17 and groundwater withdrawals for domestic purposes, (b) groundwater withdrawals for
18 manufacturing in percent of total surface and groundwater withdrawals for manufacturing, (c)
19 groundwater withdrawals for irrigation in percent of total surface and groundwater
20 withdrawals for irrigation (equivalent to area equipped for irrigation by groundwater in
21 percent of irrigated area), and (d) total groundwater withdrawals in percent of total
22 withdrawals. Mean values for 1998-2002, spatial resolution 0.5° . $D = 0$ means that the
23 denominator is zero.

24

25 Fig. 4. (a) Net abstraction of groundwater NA_g and (b) of surface water NA_s , and (c)
26 consumptive water use CU (sum of NA_g and NA_s), in mm/yr, for 1998-2002. If net
27 abstraction is negative, water is added to storage. In the lower panel, the outlines of the High
28 Plains aquifer and the Mississippi river basin are shown.

29

30 Fig. 5. Impact of human water use on seasonal amplitude (SA) of TWS . SA computed as the
31 grid-cell specific value of maximum mean monthly TWS minus minimum mean monthly
32 TWS , averaged over 1998-2002, taking into account water withdrawals, in mm (a), and
33 change of SA with water withdrawals relative to SA without water withdrawals, in percent of
34 SA without water withdrawals (b). Positive values indicate that water withdrawals increase
35 SAs of TWS .

36

37 Fig. 6. Modeled monthly groundwater storage (GWS) variations as compared with
38 groundwater storage variations derived from well observations, for High Plains aquifer
39 between January 2003 and August 2009, (top), and for the Mississippi basin between January
40 2002 and August 2009 (bottom). Modeled groundwater storage variations include WaterGAP
41 2.1h results with and without taking into account human water use, and results with human
42 water use and additional groundwater recharge below local wetlands. All time series were
43 normalized to the average values for the respective periods of GWS observation. In addition,
44 basin-average net water abstractions from groundwater (NA_g) and from surface water (NA_s)
45 are shown.

46

47 Fig. 7. Modeled monthly total water storage (TWS) variations as compared to GRACE
48 satellite observations (ITG, GFZ and CSR solutions) from August 2002 to August 2009, for
49 High Plains aquifer (top), and for the whole Mississippi basin (bottom). Modeled groundwater
50 storage variations include WaterGAP 2.1h results with and without taking into account human

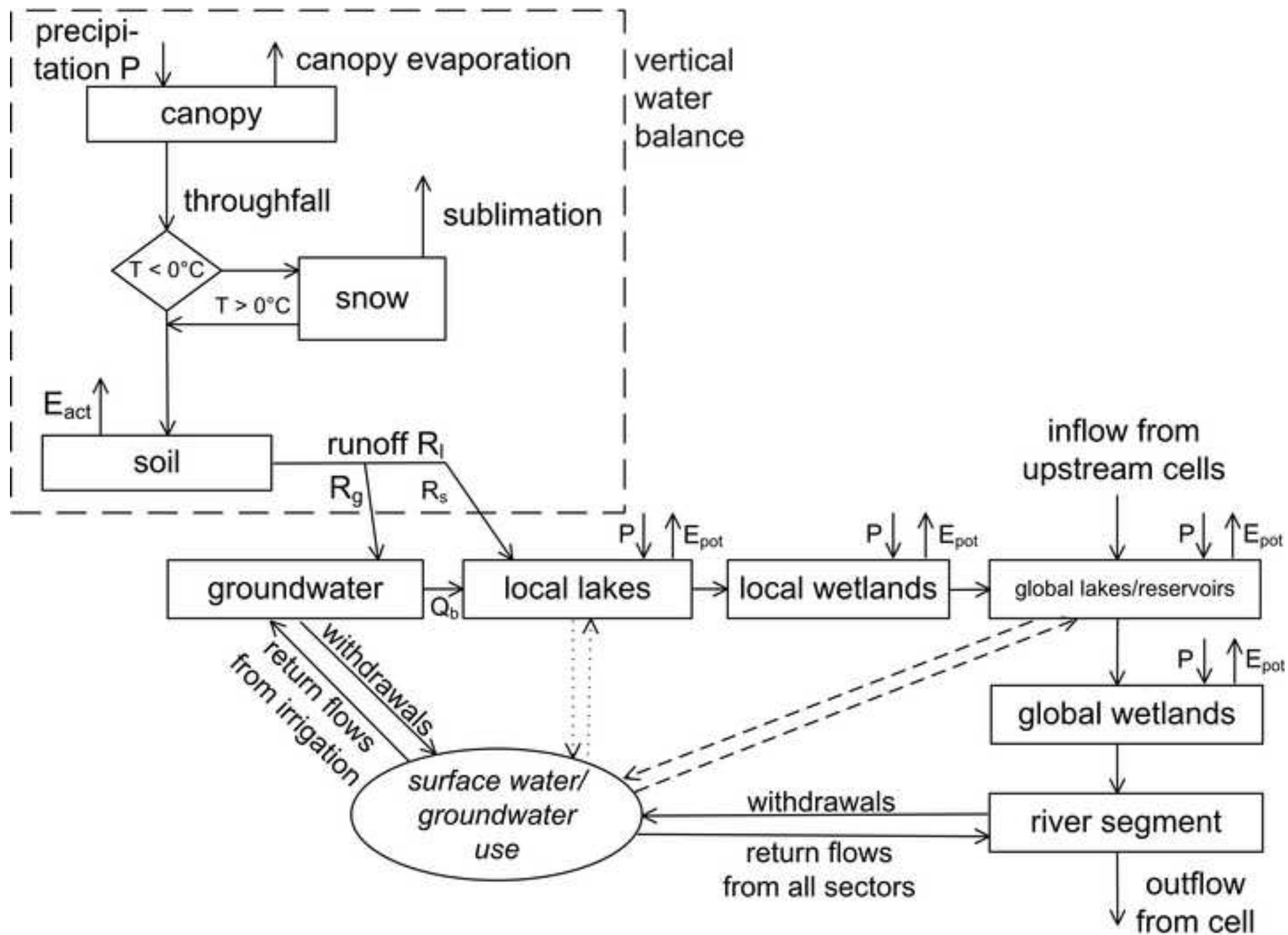
1 water use. All data were smoothed using the non-isotropic DDK3 filter, and normalized to the
2 average values for August 2002 to August 2009.
3

Tables

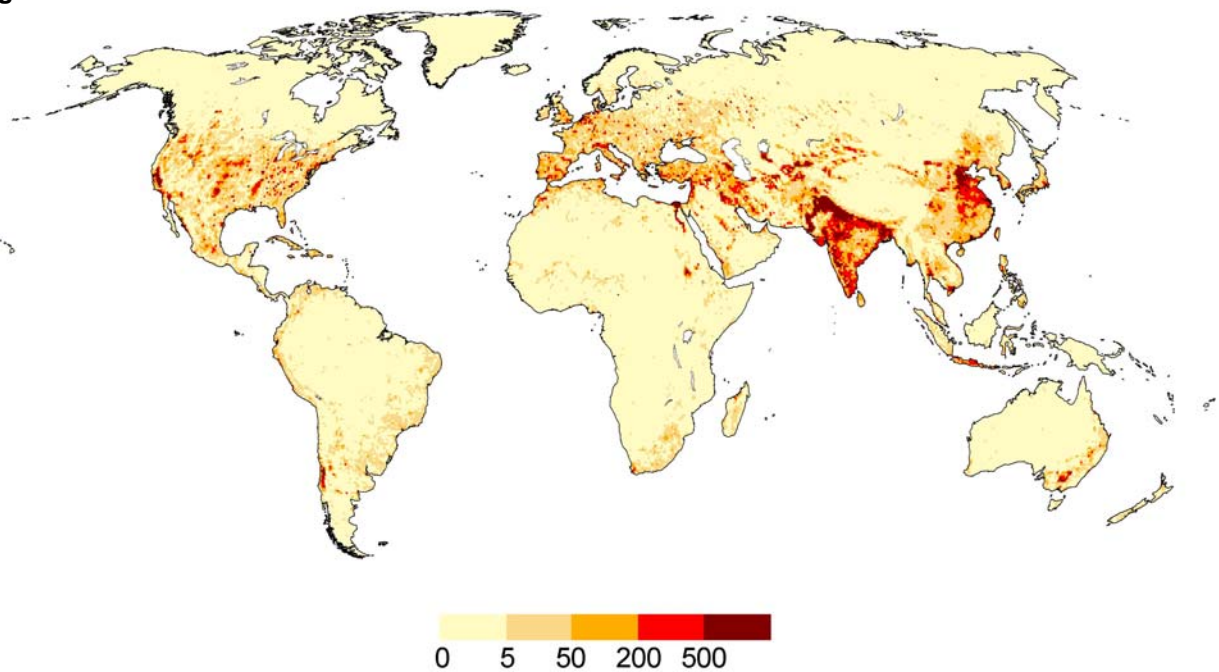
Table 1. Global water use during the period 1998-2002. Total water withdrawals and consumptive water use were computed by the five sectoral water use models of WGHM (section 2.1). The new groundwater fractions were derived as described in section 2.2., the Appendix and Siebert et al. (2010).

water use sector	withdrawals <i>WU</i> [km ³ /yr]	groundwater fraction of <i>WU</i> [%]	consumptive use <i>CU</i> [km ³ /yr]	groundwater fraction of <i>CU</i> [%]
irrigation	3185	42	1231	43
thermal power	534	0	13	0
domestic	330	36	53	37
manufacturing	264	27	110	24
livestock	27	0	27	0
all sectors	4340	35	1436	40

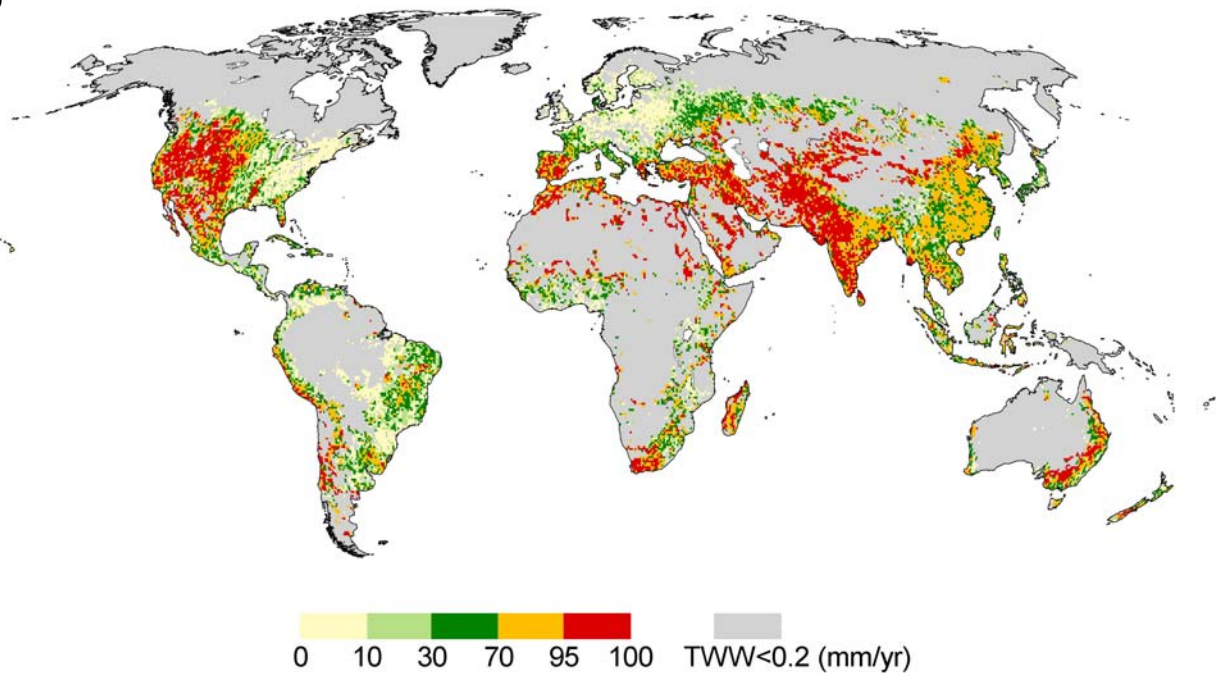
Figure
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)



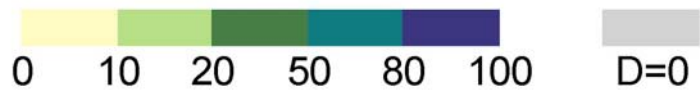
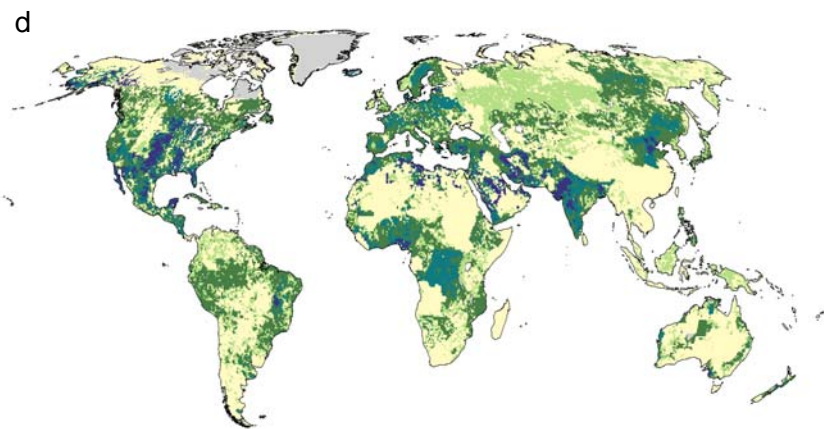
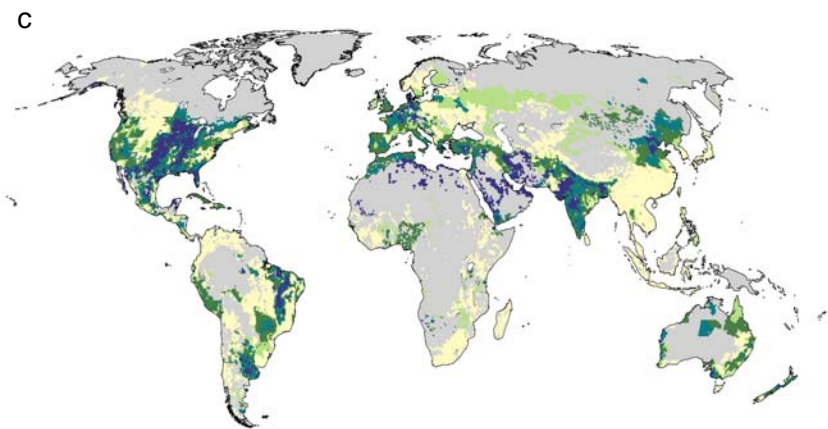
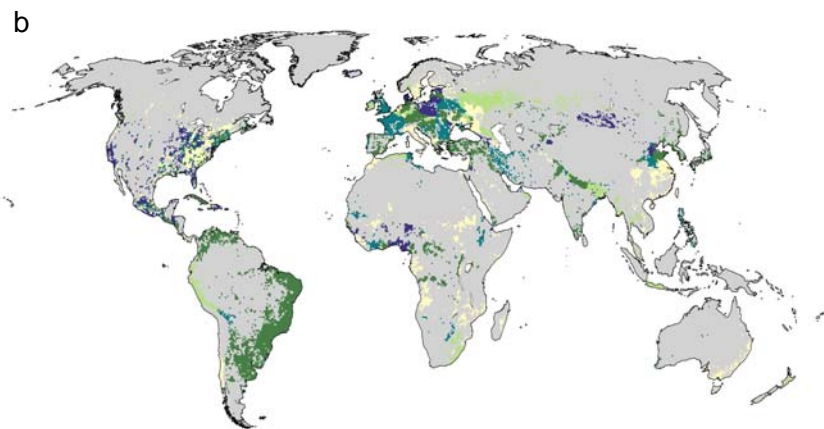
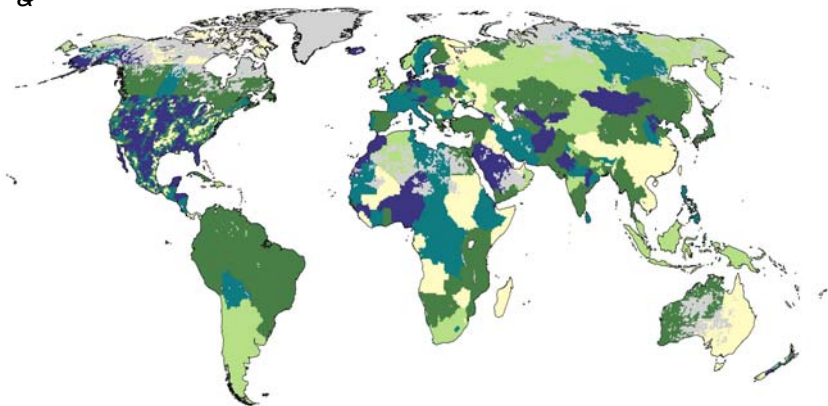
Figure



b

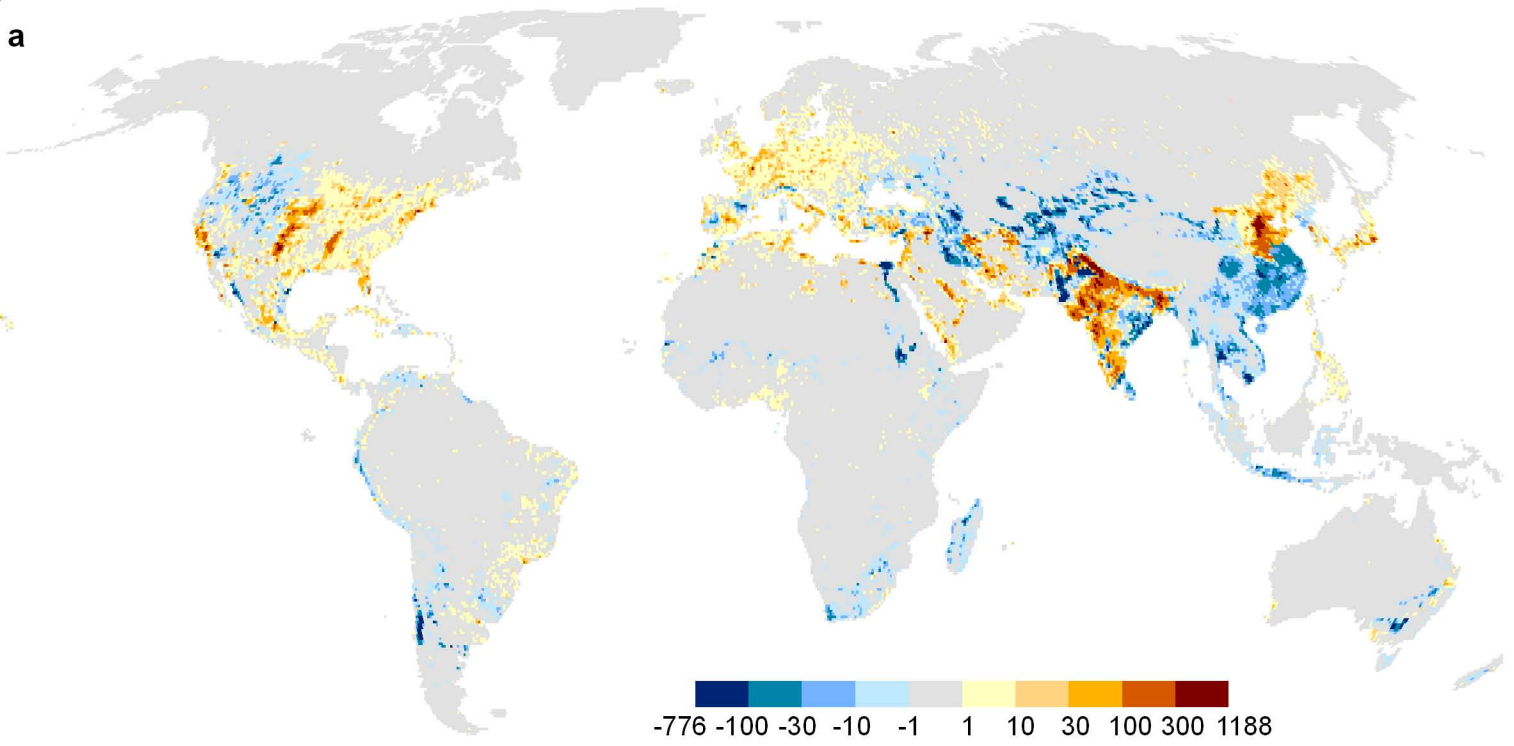


Figure

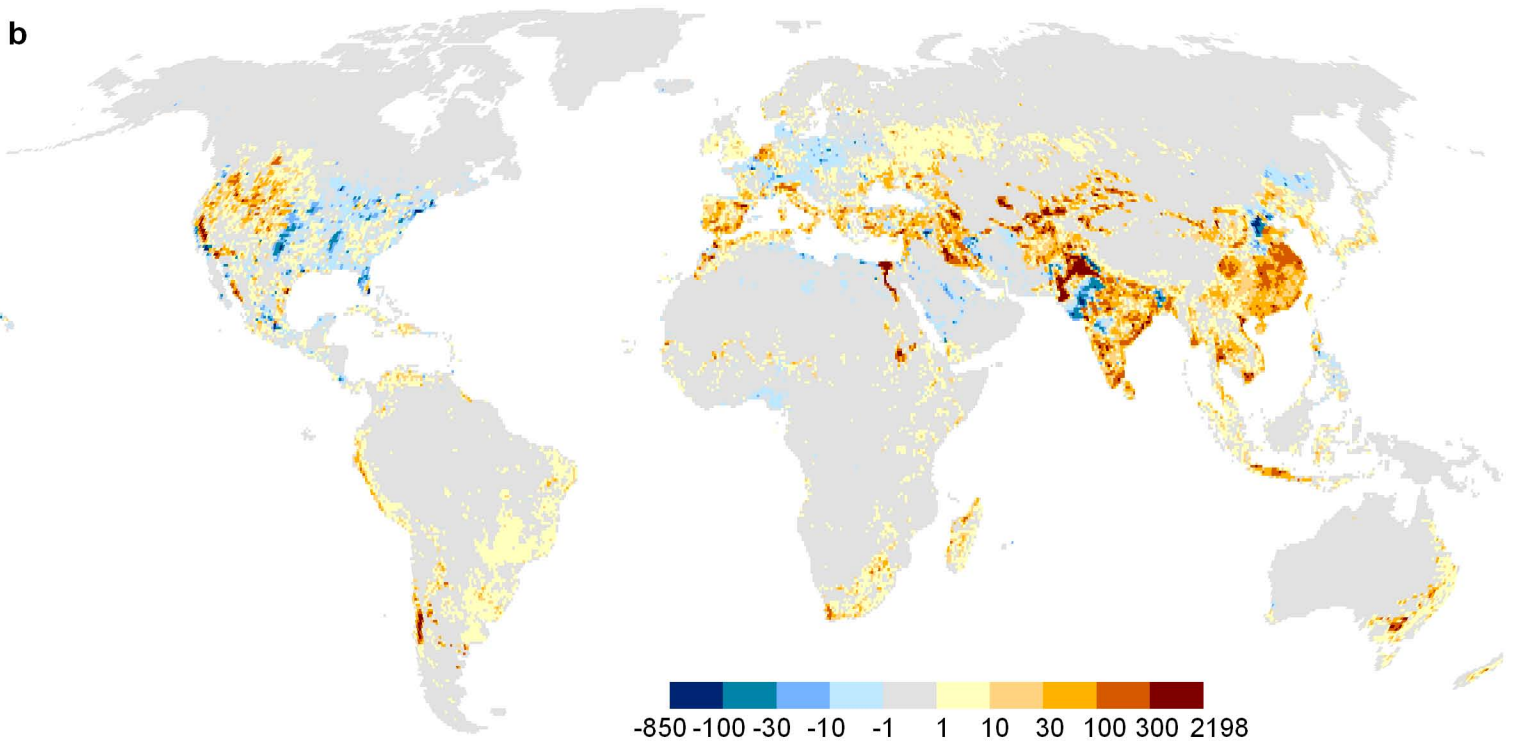


Figure

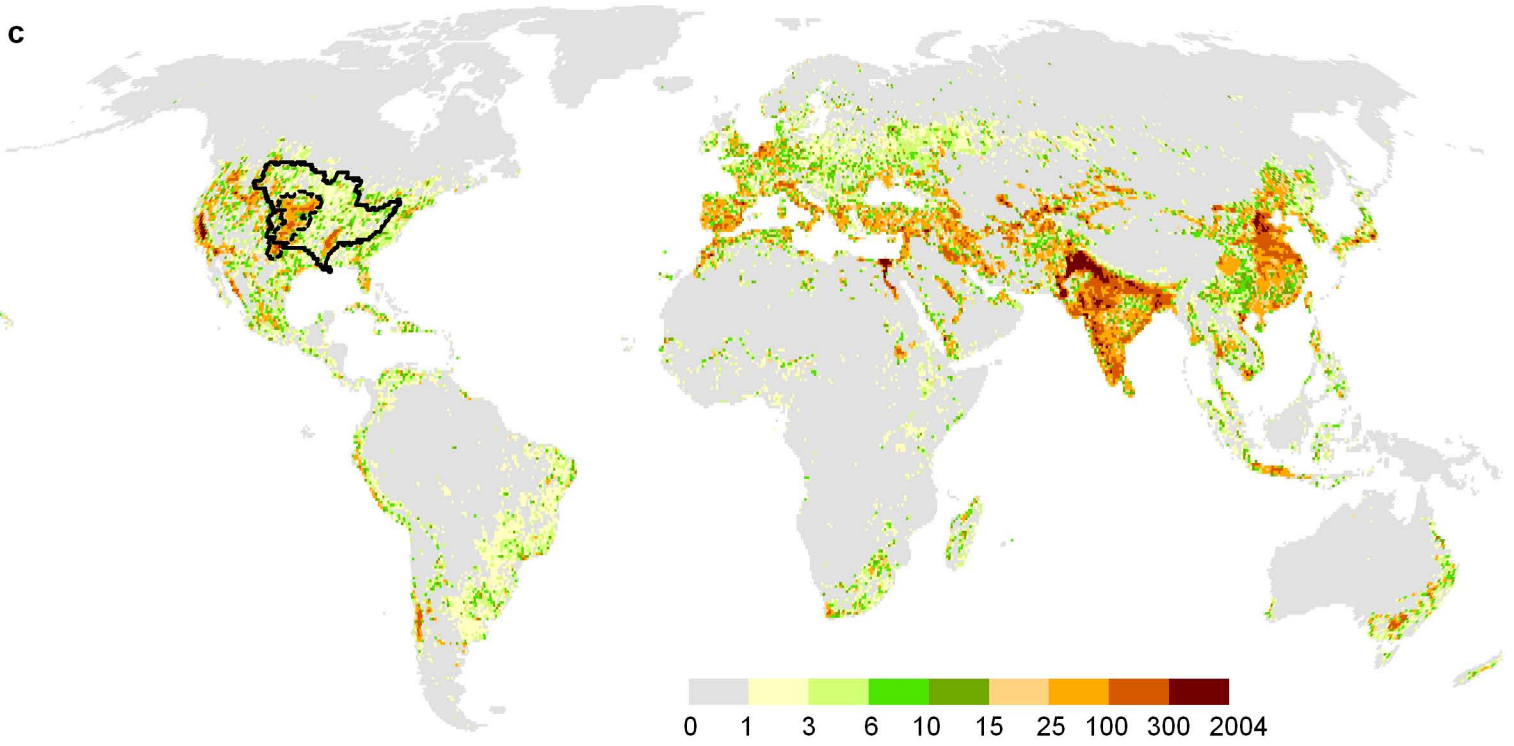
a



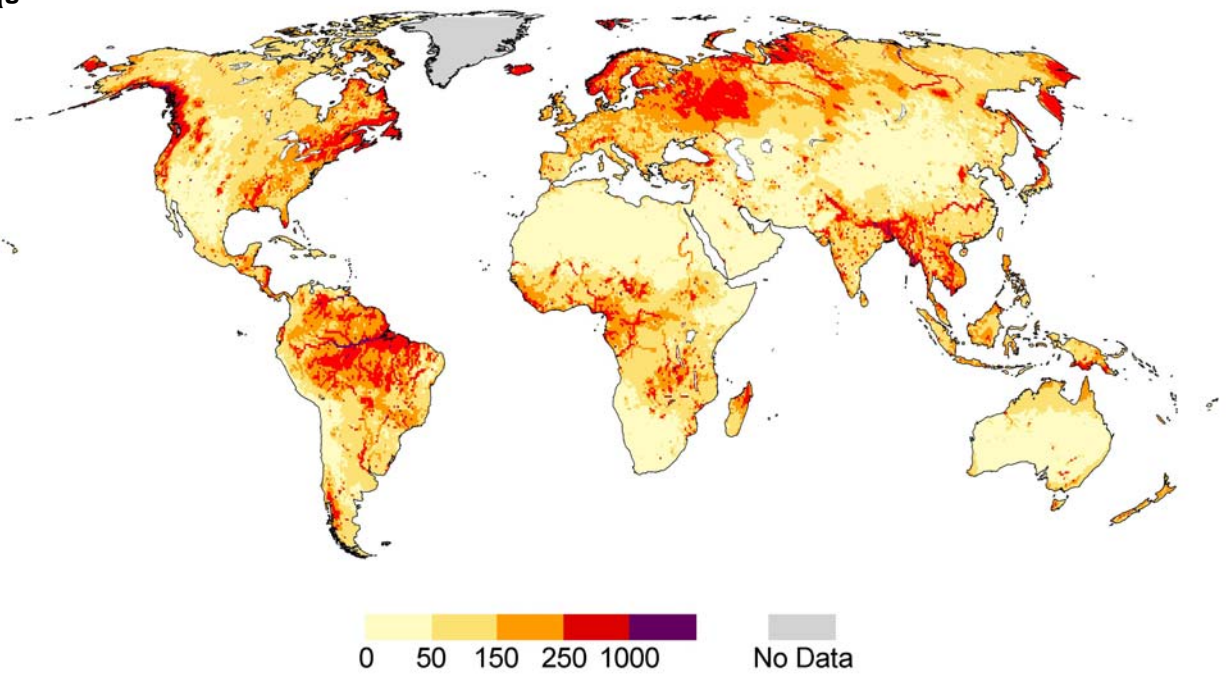
b



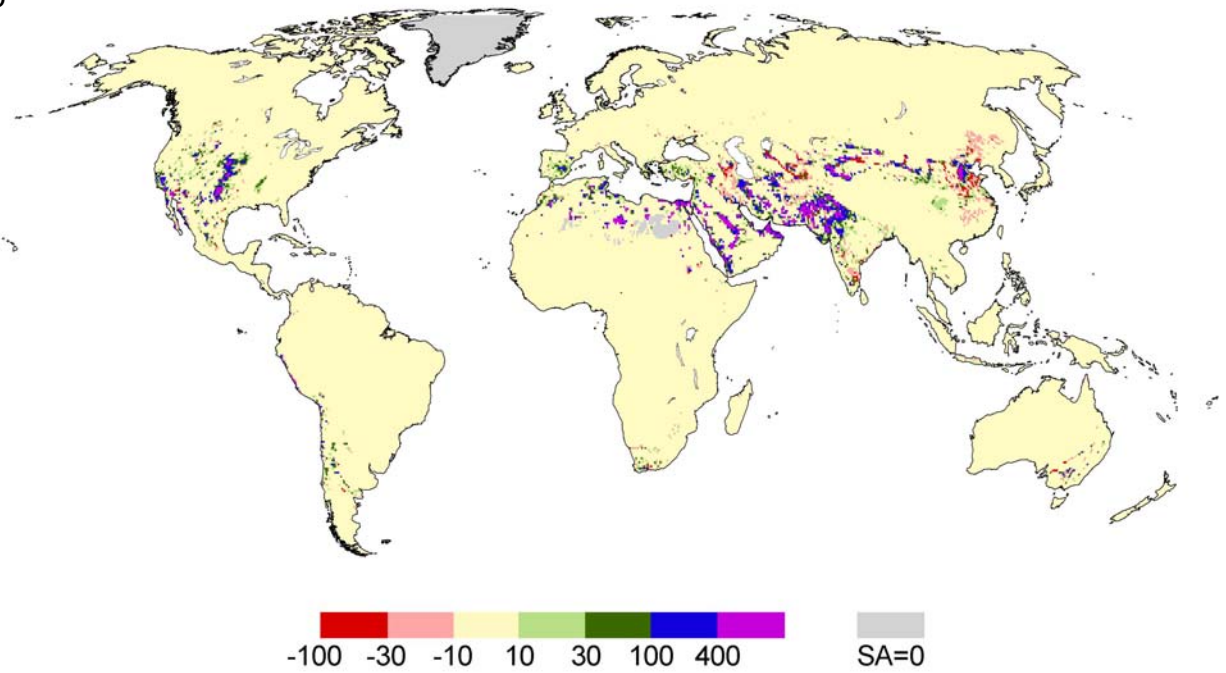
c



Figure



b



Figure

