

# Hydrologic Implications of GRACE Satellite Data in the Colorado River Basin

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## Abstract

1 Use of GRACE (Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment) satellites for assessing global water resources  
2 is rapidly expanding. Here we advance application of GRACE satellites by reconstructing long-term total  
3 water storage (TWS) changes from ground-based monitoring and modeling data. We applied the approach  
4 to the Colorado River Basin which has experienced multiyear intense droughts at decadal intervals.  
5 Estimated TWS declined by 94 km<sup>3</sup> during 1986–1990 and by 102 km<sup>3</sup> during 1998–2004, similar to the  
6 TWS depletion recorded by GRACE (47 km<sup>3</sup>) during 2010–2013. Our analysis indicates that TWS  
7 depletion is dominated by reductions in surface reservoir and soil moisture storage in the upper Colorado  
8 basin with additional reductions in groundwater storage in the lower basin. Groundwater storage changes  
9 are controlled mostly by natural responses to wet and dry cycles and irrigation pumping outside of Colorado  
10 River delivery zones based on ground-based water level and gravity data. Water storage changes are  
11 controlled primarily by variable water inputs in response to wet and dry cycles rather than increasing water  
12 use. Surface reservoir storage buffers supply variability with current reservoir storage representing ~2.5  
13 years of available water use. This study can be used as a template showing how to extend short-term  
14 GRACE TWS records and using all available data on storage components of TWS to interpret GRACE  
15 data, especially within the context of droughts.

## 1.0 Introduction

16 The Colorado River Basin (CRB, area 657,000 km<sup>2</sup>) is a critical region providing water to ~40 million  
17 people in seven states (U.S. Bureau of Reclamation [USBR] 2012; Fig. 1). Though the Colorado River  
18 water serves large populations outside of the basin, particularly Los Angeles, population within the basin  
19 is concentrated in the Lower CRB (LCRB: 8.6 million), mostly in the cities of Phoenix and Tucson (Table  
20 S2). In contrast, only ~ 1 million people reside in the Upper CRB. Water from the basin is used to irrigate  
21 ~22,000 km<sup>2</sup> of land, within and outside the basin (USBR, 2012). There is a spatial disconnect between  
22 water supply, with ~90% of streamflow generated in the UCRB, and water use, which is much higher in  
23 the LCRB (USBR, 2012). Reservoir storage capacity is high (87 km<sup>3</sup>), mostly (71%) in Lakes Powell and  
24 Mead, and represents almost five times the annual naturalized flow of the Colorado River at Lee's Ferry  
25 gage (18.3 km<sup>3</sup>/yr; Figs. S1 and S2, Table S3). Water is over-allocated (20.3 km<sup>3</sup>) in the basin; this is due  
26 in part to allocation levels having been set in 1922 during a period of above average flow relative to the  
27 current ~100 yr average flow (SI, Section 1, Fig. S2). Dry conditions since 2000 have resulted in average  
28 (naturalized) flow of 15 km<sup>3</sup>/yr at Lee's Ferry and reservoir storage sharply declined from a peak of 69.2  
29 km<sup>3</sup> (2000) to 42.4 km<sup>3</sup> (2004). Reservoir storage in 2014 represented 44% of reservoir capacity and 69%  
30 of long-term average storage, raising concerns about water reliability (SI, Section 1).

31 The Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) satellites are increasingly being used to  
32 monitor changes in water storage in large basins globally. The area of the Colorado River Basin (CRB)  
33 makes it suitable for analysis using GRACE satellites, which requires a large footprint based on the  
34 elevation of the satellites above land surface (current altitude 400 km, footprint area ~ 200,000 km<sup>2</sup>).  
35 GRACE satellites monitor temporal changes in Earth's gravity, which result primarily from redistribution  
36 of water in the land atmosphere system (Wahr et al., 1998; Tapley et al., 2004). Changes in total water  
37 storage ( $\Delta$ TWS) monitored by the GRACE satellites include changes in snow water storage ( $\Delta$ SnWS),  
38 surface water reservoir storage ( $\Delta$ RESS), soil moisture storage ( $\Delta$ SMS), and groundwater storage ( $\Delta$ GWS):

$$39 \quad \Delta\text{TWS} = \Delta\text{SnWS} + \Delta\text{RESS} + \Delta\text{SMS} + \Delta\text{GWS} \quad (1)$$

40 These water storage changes are generally expressed in terms of water volume in a basin or as an equivalent  
41 water height (volume/area). Development of a new gridded GRACE product (Landerer and Swenson,  
42 2012), with  $\Delta$ TWS at 1×1 degree resolution (~90 km in the basin), has greatly increased access to and  
43 applications of GRACE data in hydrology. Another approach for processing GRACE data, the Mascons  
44 approach, is being developed by a number of groups, including the Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC)  
45 (Luthcke et al., 2013), Jet Propulsion Lab (JPL) (Watkins et al., 2015), and also the Univ. of Texas Center  
46 for Space Research (Save et al., 2012; 2015) to provide unparalleled spatial resolution with lower  
47 uncertainties.

48 GRACE satellite data are widely used to assess GWS depletion (Döll et al., 2014). A recent application  
49 of GRACE to the CRB indicated that TWS declined by  $\sim 65 \text{ km}^3$  from 2004–2013 (9 yr;  $7.2 \text{ km}^3/\text{yr}$ ) (Castle  
50 et al., 2014). Based on monitored SnWS, RESS changes, and simulated SMS from VIC, NOAH, and CLM  
51 land surface models (LSMs) in the Global Land Data Assimilation System (GLDAS), Castle et al. (2014)  
52 estimated the residual  $\Delta\text{GWS}$  (from equation 1) of  $\sim 50 \text{ km}^3$  ( $5.6 \text{ km}^3/\text{yr}$ ), which they attributed to  
53 groundwater depletion. The large GWS depletions from the GRACE analysis in the UCRB are not  
54 consistent with the limited groundwater withdrawals ( $\sim 0.5 \text{ km}^3/\text{yr}$  2000–2010; Maupin et al., 2014). In  
55 addition, Konikow (2013) showed GWS declines in the LCRB up to 1980 and then a general reversal in  
56 this trend since 1980 attributed to importing water from the Colorado River to agricultural and urban areas  
57 through the Central Arizona Project (CAP) aqueduct (Fig. 1, Tillman and Leake, 2010).

58 Water storage changes result from an imbalance between water inputs and outputs related to natural  
59 and anthropogenic effects:

$$60 \quad \text{Input} - \text{Output} = \text{Change in storage} \quad (2)$$

61 What is the main driver of water storage depletion? Is it decreasing water inputs or supplies, or increasing  
62 water outputs that may be natural or anthropogenic, or a combination of both? In some cases, depletion  
63 may result from natural climate cycles from wet to dry periods. Also groundwater may be depleted by  
64 evapotranspiration (ET) by phreatophytes, or from pumping by humans, or both; however, the cause of  
65 depletion should be identified to better manage water resources. Because various storage components  
66 contribute to TWS changes monitored by GRACE, we need to determine which storage components are  
67 depleting: SnWS, RESS, SMS, or GWS? Each storage component may have a different temporal pattern  
68 of depletion based on the evolution of droughts and how water moves through the system.

69 The GRACE monitoring period is relatively short (2002–present); therefore, it is informative to  
70 consider GRACE data within the context of longer-term hydroclimatic records. Recent studies indicate that  
71 there has been a hydroclimatic shift in the CRB with decadal-scale variability since the mid-1970s, which  
72 is absent in records prior to the 1970s (Nowak et al., 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate where the  
73 GRACE data fall within one of these wet–dry cycles when interpreting the hydrologic significance of the  
74 storage changes.

75 The objective of this study is to address the following questions:

- 76 • What is the hydrologic significance of GRACE water storage changes within the context of longer  
77 term hydroclimatic trends in the CRB?
- 78 • How can we use ground-based data to interpret GRACE TWS changes in terms of hydrologic  
79 components?

80 Details of the data sources and analyses conducted in this study are provided in SI, Section 2. The analysis  
81 included evaluation of the UCRB and LCRB and considers different GRACE products based on

82 fundamentally different processing approaches (spherical harmonics and Mascons) (SI, Section 4). Long-  
83 term records of hydroclimatic parameters considering wet and dry cycles were examined to provide context  
84 for the recent GRACE data. A comprehensive evaluation of ground-based data was conducted to interpret  
85 GRACE TWS changes in terms of component storage changes. Data on RESS includes the two primary  
86 reservoirs (Powell and Mead) and other smaller reservoirs. SMS data were evaluated from land surface  
87 models (LSMs), including the Global and National Land Data Assimilation Systems (GLDAS and  
88 NLDAS). GWS changes were assessed from data on groundwater pumpage, groundwater level trends from  
89 ~ 2,600 wells over the past three decades (SI, Section 3), and ground-based (GB) gravity data from ~200  
90 gravity stations over the past 15 years (SI, Section 5). The analysis highlights the importance of using all  
91 available sources of data and long timescales to constrain interpretation of GRACE data.

## 2.0 Methods

92 Websites for sources of data used in this study are provided in SI, Section 2. Additional details on GRACE  
93 data sources and processing are described in SI, Section 4. This study used GRACE data based on two main  
94 processing approaches: (1) spherical harmonics (SH) and (2) Mascons (Mass Concentrations). The most  
95 widely used GRACE data are based on spherical harmonic (SH) solutions. GRACE TWS data based on SH  
96 solutions include the gridded products provided by NASA JPL TELLUS website and based on the SH  
97 solutions provided by the three processing centers, CSR, JPL, and GFZ. The data include monthly GRACE  
98 TWS data (2002 – 2015) from the latest release (RL05) at a grid resolution of 1 degree (~90 km). We also  
99 processed the GRACE SH data at the basin scale using CSR RL05 data for the UCRB and LCRB separately  
100 to compare with the aggregated gridded products. Processing of these data included truncation at degree  
101 60, destriping according to Swenson and Wahr (2006), and application of a fan filter at 250 km resolution  
102 (Zhang et al., 2009). Uncertainties in the gridded and basin scale GRACE SH TWS data were estimated by  
103 applying GRACE processing (truncation and filtering) to simulated SMS from LSMs and comparing with  
104 the raw data. Variability in TWS estimates based on different GRACE solutions provides an indication of  
105 uncertainties.

106 An alternative to the GRACE SH solutions is the CSR Mascons solutions that are considered to have  
107 higher signal to noise ratio, higher spatial resolution, and reduced error relative to SH solutions (Watkins  
108 et al., 2015; Save et al., 2012; 215; Rowlands et al., 2010). In this study we used Mascons solutions based  
109 on CSR RL05 data up to 120 degrees and constrained using Tikhonov regularization to reduce systematic  
110 errors (e.g. errors manifested as N-S stripes in the SH solutions) without reducing signal (Save, 2012).  
111 Additional advantages of the Mascons solutions are analysis based entirely on GRACE data without the  
112 need for other hydrologic model estimates (to correct for leakage), and minimal signal loss based on post-  
113 fit residual analysis relative to GRACE K band range rate data; therefore, no requirement for signal  
114 restoration.

115 Development of GWS from groundwater level monitoring data is described in SI, Section 3. Details of  
116 ground-based gravity data processing are provided in SI, Section 5.

117

## 3.0 RESULTS and DISCUSSION

### 3.1 Spatial Variability in Mean Hydroclimatic Parameters

118 The UCRB and LCRB are climatically and hydrologically distinct. The CRB can be described in terms of  
119 water storages and connecting fluxes based on long-term mean annual data from 1980 to 2014 data (Fig.  
120 2). Precipitation is similar in the UCRB and LCRB (Fig. S5). Seasonal distribution of precipitation is more  
121 uniform in the UCRB relative to the LCRB where summer precipitation is dominant related to the North  
122 American Monsoon (Fig. S6). Snow is mostly restricted to the UCRB because of its higher elevation (Fig.  
123 S3). The UCRB is the primary source of runoff, accounting for ~80% of the runoff in the basin, derived  
124 primarily from spring snowmelt (Fig. S7). Reservoir storage (RESS) capacity is similar in the UCRB (43  
125 km<sup>3</sup>) and the LCRB (45 km<sup>3</sup>) (Table S3), but is supplied primarily by runoff in the UCRB. Average storage  
126 in UCRB reservoirs is 31 km<sup>3</sup>/yr, dominated by Lake Powell, with outflows from Lake Powell providing  
127 the primary input to Lake Mead in the LCRB (Fig. 2). The two reservoirs have been managed jointly since  
128 2007. Mean RESS in the CRB (61 km<sup>3</sup>) averages ~3 times long-term (1906–2012) mean annual naturalized  
129 flow at Lee’s Ferry gage (~18 km<sup>3</sup>/yr, Fig. S2). SMS, mostly in the upper 2 m, based on GLDAS and  
130 NLDAS LSMs averages ~129–154 km<sup>3</sup> in each basin. Recharge links SMS to GWS but quantitative  
131 recharge estimates are limited. The CRB is underlain by aquifers of sedimentary rocks in the UCRB and  
132 northern LCRB and mostly alluvial basin-fill aquifers (~80 mapped) in the lower LCRB (Fig. S8). Water  
133 withdrawals are mostly from surface water in the UCRB and about half surface water in the LCRB (Fig.  
134 2).

### 3.2 Long-Term Climatic and Anthropogenic Drivers of Water Storage Changes

136 Variations in inputs are related to wet and dry cycles, with one major, multi-year drought approximately  
137 each decade, in the late 1970s, around 1990, early 2000s, and 2010s and intervening wet periods, primarily  
138 in the 1980s and 1990s (Fig. 3, S9, S10, Table S4). The ranking of precipitation over the entire record in  
139 the UCRB highlights the three droughts, with 1977 ranked as the driest year on record (1<sup>st</sup>), 2002 2<sup>nd</sup> driest,  
140 and 2012 7<sup>th</sup> driest (Fig. S9a, Table S4). The wettest years are concentrated in the 1980s and 1990s (1997  
141 1<sup>st</sup>, 1995 2<sup>nd</sup>, 1986 4<sup>th</sup>, and 1984 6<sup>th</sup>). Precipitation trends in the LCRB are similar to those in the UCRB.  
142 Since 2000 there were only two anomalously wet years in the UCRB (2005 and 2011) and one in the LCRB  
143 (2005).

144 Drought indices are used to assess temporal variability in meteorological drought. The Palmer Drought  
145 Severity Index (PDSI) data in the UCRB show mostly drought conditions since 2000 preceded by wet  
146 conditions throughout much of the 1980s and 1990s (Figs. 3a, S10a and b). In the UCRB, large negative  
147 PDSIs mark decadal interval droughts, including 1977, 1989–1991, 2000–2004, and 2012–2013. Large  
148 positive values of PDSI reflect major wet periods, extending over much of the 1980s (1978 – 1988) and

149 1990s (1993 – 1999) but were restricted to 2005 and 2011 within the past 15 years. Results from analysis  
150 of the 12 month Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI12) are similar to those from PDSI (Fig. S10b, c).  
151 PDSI data for the LCRB show more continuous drought conditions since late 1995 with several short wet  
152 periods of a few months to a year (Fig. 3c). The LCRB also shows severe drought around 1990 (Oct 1988  
153 – June 1990), similar to the UCRB. Much of the 1980s and early 1990s have high values of PDSI, indicating  
154 wet periods.

155 It would be valuable to understand possible controls on these wet and dry periods. Previous studies  
156 indicate that climate teleconnections play an important role in controlling precipitation in the LCRB, with  
157 drought conditions associated with the cool phase of El Niño Southern Oscillation (negative ENSO, La  
158 Niña), cool phase of Pacific Decadal Oscillation (negative PDO), and warm phase of the Atlantic  
159 Multidecadal Oscillation (positive AMO), as seen in the drought during the early 2000s (Quiring and  
160 Goodrich, 2008) and during 2011–2012 (Figs. 3e, f, g, S10g, h, i, Tables S5-S7). These findings are  
161 consistent with those of McCabe et al. (2004) for the western U.S. with drought related to negative PDO  
162 and positive AMO that may modulate ENSO teleconnections. The opposite conditions result in wet periods  
163 (warm phases of ENSO, El Niño) and PDO (positive PDO, 1976 - 1999) and cool phase of AMO (negative  
164 AMO, 1964– 1994) resulting in wet winters throughout much of 1980s and early 1990s. Although there is  
165 no consistent relationship between wet and dry conditions and climate cycles in the UCRB (Hidalgo and  
166 Dracup, 2003), the severe drought in the early 2000s and also in 2012 correspond to cool phases of ENSO  
167 (La Niña) and PDO and warm phase of AMO, as in the LCRB. The phases of the long-term climate cycles  
168 (negative PDO and positive AMO) since ~2000 favor drought, as has been experienced in the CRB over  
169 this time with minimal wet years. Recent increases in ENSO and PDO suggest a warm phase for both  
170 indices in the near future that could result in increased winter precipitation.

171 Anthropogenic drivers of water storage change include water withdrawals, which are similar in the  
172 UCRB and LCRB (~10 km<sup>3</sup>/yr) (Figs. 2, S11, Table S2). However, water is derived mostly from surface  
173 water (97%) in the UCRB and about half surface water in the LCRB. Total water withdrawals have  
174 decreased by 13% in the UCRB gradually since mid-1980s and by 24% in the LCRB since 1995. Reductions  
175 in GW withdrawals in the LCRB are attributed in part to the Central Arizona Project (CAP) which delivers  
176 up to ~1.5 km<sup>3</sup>/yr to the Phoenix, Pinal, and Tucson Active Management Areas (Fig. S12). Consumptive  
177 use and losses (CULs) are calculated by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (USBR) by subtracting return  
178 flows from withdrawals. CULs in the UCRB average about half of the 1922 allocation (5.1 km<sup>3</sup>/yr out of  
179 9.2 km<sup>3</sup>/yr) whereas CULs in the LCRB Colorado River main stem approximately equal the allocation  
180 (~9.2 km<sup>3</sup>/yr, 2003– 2004); however, more than half of the LCRB withdrawal is exported to California (Fig.  
181 S13, Table S8b). Additional water is withdrawn from tributaries to the Colorado River (e.g. Gila and Virgin)  
182 and from groundwater in the LCRB (Table 8C). While the required allocations to the LCRB (9.2 km<sup>3</sup>/yr)

183 have been met each year by deliveries from Lake Powell, deliveries exceeded the allocated volumes in wet  
184 years, being much higher in the early 1980s, late 1990s, and 2011 amplifying water storage variations  
185 between wet and dry periods (Fig. S14). The dominant water use is irrigation, accounting for ~60% of CUL  
186 in each basin (Fig. S15). Evaporative losses average ~20% of the CUL in the UCRB and 13% in the LCRB  
187 (Fig. S16, Table S8).

### 3.3 Long-Term Trends in Water Storage

188 This section focuses primarily on droughts prior to GRACE monitoring. Long-term total water storage  
189 changes were estimated (TWSe) by summing monthly storage changes from ground-based monitoring  
190 (SnWS and RESS) and SMS modeling data for 1980–2014 (Fig. 4, Table S9). Changes in GWS were  
191 excluded in the UCRB because of minimal pumpage (~0.5 km<sup>3</sup>/yr) and relatively stable GW level trends in  
192 the basin (Fig. S17, S18). GWS changes were included in TWSe in the LCRB based on groundwater level  
193 monitoring data. The only estimates of SMS trends are from GLDAS (coarse resolution, 1 degree, ~90 km)  
194 and NLDAS (fine resolution, 1/8<sup>th</sup> degree, ~11 km) LSMs (Figs. S19 and S20). Differences in SMS between  
195 GLDAS and NLDAS LSMs are attributed in part to differences in precipitation input (Figs. S21) and  
196 provide an indication of uncertainty in SMS trends. The following descriptions are based on GLDAS output  
197 because NLDAS output has been found to overestimate TWS changes from GRACE as discussed in Section  
198 3.4; however, trends based on both GLDAS and NLDAS are also provided in SI (Table S9).

#### 3.3a Upper Colorado River Basin

199 Estimated TWS (TWSe) (SnWS + RESS + SMS) changes in the UCRB show decadal cycles with declines  
200 beginning prior to meteorological droughts around 1990, early 2000s, and in 2012-2013 (Fig. 4a). There  
201 was a net decrease in TWSe of 38 km<sup>3</sup> over the entire period (1980–2014) (Table S9a). Although this  
202 volume seems large, 38 km<sup>3</sup> corresponds to 43 mm equivalent water depth after dividing by the basin area  
203 (~657,000 km<sup>2</sup>). Rates of depletion of TWSe are similar for the 1990s drought (7.6 km<sup>3</sup>/yr) and the early  
204 2000s drought (7.1 km<sup>3</sup>/yr); however, differences in drought periods result in varying total depletions from  
205 31 km<sup>3</sup> for the 1986–1990 drought to 42 km<sup>3</sup> for the 1998–2004 drought (Tables 1, S9a). TWSe recovered  
206 by 86% between the 1990s and early 2000s droughts in response to above average precipitation in the  
207 1990s. There was little recovery after the 2000s drought with only two moderately wet years in 2005 and  
208 2011 (Fig. 3b).

209 SnWS was at the mean preceding and during the 1990s drought, but SnWS averaged 4.0 km<sup>3</sup> below the  
210 mean in 2000–2004 (Fig. 4c). Spring snowmelt is earlier during drier years amplifying water losses (Fig.  
211 S22). During wetter intervening periods, SnWS averaged ~3.8 km<sup>3</sup> (1983-1986) and 11.1 km<sup>3</sup> (1993-1999)  
212 above the mean.

213 SMS is the largest and most rapidly changing water storage component (Fig. 4b). The onsets of SMS  
214 declines in the UCRB coincide with precipitation declines but lag SnWS and TWSe declines by several

215 months to a year while SMS increases tend to coincide with precipitation and TWSe increases. Rates of  
216 SMS depletion vary from 5.2 km<sup>3</sup>/yr between 1986 and 1990 (total 21.1 km<sup>3</sup>) to 4.3 km<sup>3</sup>/yr between 1998  
217 and 2002 (total 16.7 km<sup>3</sup>) (Table 1, S9a). SMS partially recovered between 1993 and 1998 and between  
218 2002 and 2004, remaining stable until 2011. Large variability in SMS within GLDAS LSMs, with standard  
219 deviation ranging from ~50–70% of the mean provides an indication of uncertainties in SMS. This  
220 variability among LSMs exceeds the differences in mean SMS between GLDAS and NLDAS, e.g. 21 km<sup>3</sup>  
221 for GLDAS LSMs versus 25 km<sup>3</sup> for NLDAS LSMs for the 1990s drought (Table S9a).

222 Runoff links precipitation and snow pack to reservoir storage and is also impacted by SMS changes.  
223 Mean gaged runoff data in the UCRB follows similar decadal trends as precipitation, with minima during  
224 droughts (1989 – 1990, 2002, 2012 – 2013) and peaks in the intervening wet years (Fig. 4c).

225 Reservoir storage (RESS) in the UCRB tends to change more gradually than other components with  
226 both RESS decreases and increases lagging those in precipitation, TWSe, SnWS, and SMS by a few months  
227 to 2.5 years (Fig. 4b). Storage decreased rapidly by 8.7 km<sup>3</sup> between 1989 and 1992, almost three years  
228 after the onset of the TWSe decline (Table 1). RESS then partially recovered (~5.0 km<sup>3</sup> above the mean)  
229 by 1996 which persisted until late 1999. Between 2000 and late 2004, RESS declined by 19.8 km<sup>3</sup>.

230 It is difficult to estimate the relative contributions of component storage changes to TWSe because of  
231 differences in timing of changes; however, comparing total changes suggests that the 1990s drought is  
232 dominated by SMS declines (~21 km<sup>3</sup>) relative to RESS declines (~9 km<sup>3</sup>) (Table 1). RESS and SMS  
233 contribute almost equally to TWSe declines in the 2000s drought.

### 234 3.3b Lower Colorado River Basin

235 Trends in TWSe in LCRB are generally similar to those in the UCRB, though declines tend to start 6 to 12  
236 months earlier in the LCRB and recovery periods are more variable (Fig. 4d, Tables 1 and S9b). The net  
237 decrease in TWSe from 1980 – 2014 is ~103 km<sup>3</sup>, 2.7 times greater than that in the UCRB. Rates of  
238 depletion in TWSe vary over the multi-year droughts (10.0 – 13.9 km<sup>3</sup>/yr) resulting in similar total  
239 depletions of 63 km<sup>3</sup> in 1985-1989 and by 60 km<sup>3</sup> in 1998-2004 (Table 1). TWSe recovered substantially  
240 between these two droughts in response to high precipitation in 1992-93, 1995, and 1999. Rates of SMS  
241 depletion varied from ~5.6 km<sup>3</sup>/yr in the 1985–1989 drought to ~4.3 km<sup>3</sup>/yr in the 1998–2002 drought.  
242 Variability in SMS among GLDAS LSMs in the LCRB is similar to those in the UCRB. RESS declined by  
243 8.2 km<sup>3</sup> in the 1990s drought and ~14.0 km<sup>3</sup> in the 2000s drought.

244 Trends in GWS were estimated from GW level data in different regions in the LCRB, focusing on  
245 unconfined aquifers, and weighted according to the area represented by each region (Figs. 4e, 5, SI, Section  
246 3, S23, S24). A uniform storage coefficient of 0.10 was used to convert GW level changes to GWS volumes.  
247 This value is considered a composite of most wells in shallow unconfined aquifers with storage coefficients  
248 of 0.10 to 0.15 and some wells in semiconfined or confined aquifers with storage coefficients <0.001.

249 Uncertainties in storage coefficients should result in similar uncertainties in GWS because the two are  
250 linearly related. Future work will examine spatially distributed storage coefficients in the basin. The trends  
251 are dominated by GWS in minimally developed regions because they represent ~75% of the area. Area  
252 weighted GWS trends in the Active Management Areas (AMAs, Fig. S3) are minimal (Tucson, 3% of area)  
253 or increasing (other CAP AMAs, 7% of area) (Fig. 5) because of imports of Colorado River Water partially  
254 replacing GW pumpage and increased artificial recharge in spreading basins (Fig. S12). Declines in GWS  
255 are focused in irrigated agricultural areas (7% of area) that do not have access to Colorado River or other  
256 significant surface-water sources (Fig. 5). The composite GWS increases over the entire area in the early  
257 1980s and 1990s reflect mostly natural increases in GWS in minimally developed regions in response to  
258 anomalously high precipitation and natural recharge. The composite GWS declines during the 1986–1990  
259 drought (37.3 km<sup>3</sup>) reflect depletion caused by GW discharge to supply irrigated agricultural areas, streams  
260 (baseflow), and riparian areas (ET), and reduced recharge. GWS recovered from the ~1990s drought in  
261 1992 – 1993 (Fig. 4e). The effects of the water pulse from the wet period in the early to mid-1990s moved  
262 through the system, as shown by the decline in GWS from 1996–1998, followed by a period of relative  
263 stability through 2002. GWS depletion during 2002–2005 lags depletion in other water budget components  
264 in response to the drought in the early 2000sand totals 32.7 km<sup>3</sup>. The composite GWS trend primarily  
265 reflects responses to wet and dry climate cycles representing most of the area. Trends in GW levels in  
266 AMAs (Fig. S25) are generally consistent with the time series analysis.

267 Although the timing of water storage depletions varies among the components, GWS depletion exceeds  
268 SMS depletion by a factor of ~1.5 and exceeds RESS by a factor of ~4.5 in the 1990s drought (Table 1).  
269 GWS depletion in the 2000s drought exceeds RESS and SMS by about a factor of 2 in the 2000s drought.

### 3.4 GRACE Total Water Storage Changes

270 The GRACE monitoring period (2002–2015) begins towards the end of the extreme drought in the late  
271 1990s to early 2000s. This section focuses on CSR Mascons data because of it's higher spatial resolution,  
272 increased signal to noise ratio, reduced leakage, and processing based entirely on GRACE data (SI, Section  
273 4). Results from other processing approaches are tabulated in the SI and are discussed under uncertainties  
274 in TWS. Gridded output from JPL Tellus based on data from the three processing centers (CSR, JPL, and  
275 GFZ) provide generally similar results (Fig. S26). Basin scale analysis using CSR data also results in TWS  
276 similar to the gridded output (Fig. S27), and consistent with the findings of Landerer and Swenson (2012).  
277 Variations and trends in TWS from CSR Mascons and the gridded data are shown in Fig. S28.

278 In the UCRB, TWS increases in 2005, remains relatively stable with interannual fluctuations until it  
279 increases again in 2011 followed by a sharp decline in mid-2011 to early 2013 with a slight recovery  
280 thereafter (Figs. 4a, S28). The TWS increases in 2005 and 2011 reflect storage increases in response to  
281 elevated precipitation. TWS declined sharply by 27 km<sup>3</sup> (CSR Mascons) in the recent drought (May 2011–

282 Mar 2013) (Table 1). The TWS decline varies with different GRACE products and is lowest for CSR  
283 Mascons ( $27 \text{ km}^3$ ) and highest for TELLUS CSR and JPL gridded output ( $37 \text{ km}^3$ ) (Table S12). These  
284 differences in TWS may be related to lower leakage from surrounding areas for CSR Mascons relative to  
285 other products because of higher spatial resolution of CSR Mascons and potential leakage from the extreme  
286 drought in California to the west. This TWS decline in CSR Mascons is similar to the TWSe decline that  
287 excludes GWS changes ( $27 \text{ km}^3/\text{yr}$ ; Table 1), indicating that GWS changes should have a negligible impact  
288 on TWS in the UCRB.

289 SnWS in the UCRB increased in 2005 and 2011 and decreased in 2012 followed by slight recovery  
290 (Fig. 4c). RESS in the UCRB gradually increased from a minimum in 2004 ( $-11 \text{ km}^3$ ) to a peak in late 2011  
291 ( $2 \text{ km}^3$ ) (Fig. 4b). RESS declined by  $10.8 \text{ km}^3$  during the drought (Nov 2011 – Nov 2013) (Table 1) and is  
292 followed by a slight recovery. Trends in SMS are dominated by increases in response to elevated  
293 precipitation in 2005 and 2011 and relatively stable during the intervening period (Fig. 4b). SMS from  
294 GLDAS declined by  $12.3 \text{ km}^3$  between May 2011 and Mar 2013 followed by a slight recovery. Therefore,  
295 the TWS and TWSe declines in 2011–2013 can be explained by almost equal contributions from RESS and  
296 SMS. The residual water storage change, after subtraction of SnWS, RESS, and SMS, ( $0.48 \text{ km}^3$ ) may be  
297 related to deep SMS and/or GWS, most likely related to natural variations in response to climate variability  
298 (Table 1).

299 In the LCRB, the primary trends in TWS are an increase in 2005 followed by a gradual decrease to  
300 2009, a slight increase in 2010, and rapid decrease through 2014 (Figs. 4d, S28c). Increases in NLDAS  
301 SMS exceed those in TWS, indicating overestimation of SMS by NLDAS models whereas increases in  
302 average SMS from GLDAS LSMs are lower (Fig. S29). This is the primary reason we have focused on  
303 GLDAS output. Partial reduction in SMS after 2005 is attributed to losses related to ET (corresponding to  
304  $\sim 50\%$  of SMS in LSMs). The large depletion in 2010 in the LCRB occurs a year earlier than that in the  
305 UCRB because of high precipitation in the UCRB in 2011. Variations in TWS around 2005 are dominated  
306 by SMS changes. Differences in GLDAS and NLDAS SMS changes reflect uncertainties in simulated SMS  
307 changes.

308 The decline in GRACE TWS in the LCRB from Feb 2010–Mar 2013 totaled  $20.0 \text{ km}^3$  based on  
309 CSR Mascons solutions (Fig. 4d, Table 1). TWS declines were greater for other GRACE products, ranging  
310 from  $27.6 - 33.1 \text{ km}^3$  that again may be related to leakage from surrounding regions (Table S12). SMS  
311 depletion over this period totaled  $8.5 \text{ km}^3$  based on GLDAS. SMS declines based on NLDAS are again  
312 much greater ( $18 \text{ km}^3$ ) (Table S9b). Decline in RESS, mostly Lake Mead, totaled  $5.5 \text{ km}^3$ . The residual  
313 depletion could be attributed to deep SMS or GWS, totaling  $14.7 \text{ km}^3$ ; however, there are large uncertainties  
314 in this residual because of TWS differences among different GRACE products and variability in SMS  
315 among GLDAS and NLDAS LSMs. Estimated residuals range from minima of  $5 - 11 \text{ km}^3$  based on low

316 GRACE TWS (CSR Mascons) and high SMS (NLDAS and GLDAS NOAH) to maxima of 19 – 31 km<sup>3</sup>  
317 based on high GRACE TWS (Tellus CSR gridded) and low SMS (NLDAS VIC and GLDAS CLM)(Table  
318 S13b). The estimate of GWS changes from water level data is ~14 km<sup>3</sup> (Table 1, Fig. 5). About half of the  
319 GWS depletion is related to irrigation pumpage in areas outside of Colorado River deliveries and the  
320 remaining is in minimally developed areas with natural responses of GWS to drought. However, the  
321 number of wells used in the time series decreased sharply in recent years, reducing the reliability of the  
322 storage changes (Fig S24c). The time-series trends in storage change are also consistent with GW-level  
323 trends using data within the AMAs (Fig. S25).

### 3.5 Ground-based Gravity Data

324 Ground-based (GB) gravity also tracks changes in subsurface water storage, including SMS and GWS,  
325 similar to GRACE satellites. Synoptic surveys were conducted in the Phoenix and Tucson AMAs (Fig. S4).  
326 Details of the analysis of the GB gravity data are provided in SI, Section 5.

327 In the Phoenix AMA, results of synoptic surveys show a gradual increase in water storage, totaling ~2.4  
328 km<sup>3</sup> between 2002 and 2009 (0.34 km<sup>3</sup>/yr; Fig. 6, Table S14). This gradual trend is interrupted by a sharp  
329 increase and decrease around 2005, which is attributed to SMS, because the survey was completed in spring  
330 2005 immediately following a wet winter. The partial decline after 2005 is attributed to ET of soil moisture.  
331 Attribution of water storage changes around 2005 to SMS is supported by the GW level monitoring data,  
332 which do not show a rapid increase or decrease at this time (Fig. 5). Increases in GB gravity after this time  
333 are attributed to drainage below the root zone in response to wet conditions in 2005 plus managed aquifer  
334 recharge of Colorado River water in the Phoenix AMA. This trend is supported by GW level monitoring  
335 data (Fig. 5).

336 In the Pinal AMA, water storage from the GB-gravity surveys follow a similar trend to those in the  
337 Phoenix AMA between 2002 and 2008 without the increase related to SMS in 2005 because of the  
338 difference in timing of the synoptic surveys (Fig. 6). The long-term increase of ~2.4 km<sup>3</sup> over this time (0.3  
339 km<sup>3</sup>/yr) is likely derived from two sources, 1) incidental recharge of excess irrigation water imported from  
340 the Colorado River through the CAP aqueduct and 2) recovery of pre-existing regional cones of depression  
341 through redistribution of water stored in adjacent areas. The final survey in 2014 suggests a reduction in  
342 water storage of 1.7 km<sup>3</sup> (0.11 km<sup>3</sup>/yr) since the previous survey in 2008. The storage reduction is consistent  
343 with the increase in number of wells showing declining GW levels in 2010 – 2014 (Fig. S25, Table S11).

### 3.6 Implications for Water Resources

344 The primary advantages of GRACE satellite data for water resources assessment are the availability of  
345 monthly TWS changes over large basins globally providing regional estimates of the response of water  
346 storage to climate and anthropogenic drivers. GRACE satellite gravimetry is relatively young; therefore,  
347 processing GRACE data is continually improving. The CSR Mascons approach represents significant

348 improvements over traditional processing in terms of spatial resolution at the basin scale, reduced leakage  
349 effects, checking against raw data for signal losses, and reliance on GRACE data alone (SI, Section 4).  
350 While the various GRACE products show similar trends in TWS, the main difference is the magnitude of  
351 the trends. Variability in the outputs of the different products provide an estimate of the uncertainties in the  
352 magnitudes of TWS trends.

353 Disaggregating TWS data into the different water budget components, particularly subsurface storage  
354 into SMS and GWS changes, is problematic because of the general lack of ground-based monitoring of  
355 SMS in most regions and large uncertainties in simulated SMS in LSMs. This study emphasizes the  
356 differences in SMS in LSMs within and between GLDAS and NLDAS. Variations in SMS among the  
357 different LSMs within GLDAS are large, underscoring the problems with partitioning water at the land  
358 surface among ET, runoff, and drainage. These LSMs were originally designed to provide feedback to  
359 atmospheric processes, not focusing specifically on hydrologic processes. The new NASA SMAP (Soil  
360 Moisture Active Passive, <http://smap.jpl.nasa.gov/>) mission should help improve estimates of SMS in the  
361 future. In addition, we recommend ground-based monitoring networks be installed in more regions to  
362 increase *in situ* observations of SMS. Analysis of GW level data in the CRB suggests that trends in GWS  
363 may be dominated by responses in minimally developed regions to wet and dry climate cycles and GW  
364 pumpage in areas without access to Colorado River water. These trends highlight the importance of  
365 Colorado deliveries for conjunctive use of groundwater and surface water and managed aquifer recharge to  
366 enhance sustainable GW development. GWS estimates derived from evaluation of GW level data are  
367 subject to large (as much as an order of magnitude or more) uncertainties in storage coefficients and will  
368 be evaluated in more detail in future studies. Because of uncertainties in both satellite and ground-based  
369 data, it is critical to use all available data to constrain uncertainties in estimated water budget components.

370 The other issue with the GRACE data is the limited time series (2002 – 2015). Extrapolating the data  
371 backward in time using monitoring and modeling data provides longer-term context for the GRACE data.  
372 The estimated TWS data show that the CRB has been subjected to intense droughts, similar to the recent  
373 droughts, at approximately decadal intervals in the past. This study indicates that the dominant driver in the  
374 CRB system is natural variations in water inputs in response to climatic forcing, as shown by variations in  
375 naturalized discharge at Lee's Ferry gage (Fig. 7). In contrast, anthropogenic water use over the past few  
376 decades has changed gradually. However, past water use may not reflect true water demand because of lack  
377 of access to water in some regions. Comparing current RESS with water use indicates that there is an  
378 estimated 2.5 years of water storage remaining in the reservoirs. Variable water supplies related to wet and  
379 dry periods emphasize the heavy reliance on wet periods to replenish the system. Management of GWS is  
380 also heavily reliant on deliveries of Colorado River water to the AMAs. However, Arizona has junior water  
381 rights to Colorado River water relative to California and is therefore vulnerable to future potential shortages

382 in deliveries. While TWS depletion rates during droughts have been fairly similar over time, the big  
383 difference with the recent droughts is the general lack of recovery because of minimal anomalously wet  
384 years compared to the wet 1980s and 1990s. Teleconnections, particularly AMO and PDO, have not been  
385 favorably aligned to promote wet conditions since the late 1990s and may explain the long-term climate  
386 cycles. Precipitation and particularly snow in the UCRB is critical because 80% of runoff in the CRB is  
387 generated in the UCRB.

388 Variability in water supplies result in water use exceeding water supplies during droughts (Fig. 7). The  
389 primary approach for dealing with variability in water supplies is storing water to buffer the supply demand  
390 inequities. Exports to Mexico generally exceed the required allocation (1.8 km<sup>3</sup>), particularly in the early  
391 to mid-1980s, 12 – 21 km<sup>3</sup> (Table S8b) suggesting that additional water might be stored in the CRB if it  
392 had additional capacity. Reservoir storage in the CRB averaged ~55 km<sup>3</sup> (1970 – 2014), ~ 3 times average  
393 annual naturalized flow in the river. Another approach is storing water in aquifers, either directly through  
394 managed aquifer recharge using spreading basins or wells or indirectly by substituting Colorado River water  
395 for groundwater in active management areas in Phoenix and Tucson. The Central Arizona Project transports  
396 up to ~1.5 km<sup>3</sup>/yr from the Colorado River to south-central Arizona for irrigation and groundwater recharge.  
397 Supply and demand management plans for the basin forecast increasing storage in aquifers in the future  
398 (USBR, 2012). Other approaches to managing disconnects between supplies and demands include  
399 transferring water among different sectors, as seen in the reduction of irrigated agricultural water use and  
400 increase in urban water use in the LCRB in the past few decades (Fig. S33).

401 Comprehensive evaluation of water resources in the CRB by combining GRACE satellite data, LSMs,  
402 and ground based measurements, advances our understanding of spatiotemporal variability in water  
403 resources in response to hydroclimatic and anthropogenic drivers. The importance of wet and dry cycles in  
404 controlling water supplies underscores the need for additional research in the processes controlling these  
405 cycles, particularly in the UCRB which is the primary source of runoff in the basin. Water storage plays a  
406 key role in buffering imbalances between water supplies and demands during these climate extremes.  
407 GRACE data are valuable for monitoring changes in TWS; however, disaggregating TWS into component  
408 storages requires improved data on SMS, a major gap that needs to be filled.

## 4.0 Conclusions

409 The Upper and Lower Colorado River basins are hydrologically distinct with 80% of runoff generated in  
410 the UCRB supplying reservoir storage primarily in Lake Powell and much greater water use in the LCRB  
411 and exports to California. The Basin has been subjected to multiyear intense droughts at approximately  
412 decadal intervals in the late 1970s, around 1990, early 2000s, and 2010s with wet periods mostly in the  
413 1980s and 1990s as shown by PDSI. TWS was estimated (TWSe) back to 1980 by summing SnWS, RESS,

414 and SMS in the UCRB plus GWS in the LCRB. In the UCRB TWSe declined by 31 km<sup>3</sup> from 1986 – 1990  
415 and by 42 km<sup>3</sup> in 1998 – 2004 droughts. TWSe depletions are dominated by SMS and RESS. In the LCRB  
416 TWSe declined by ~60 km<sup>3</sup> for the 1990s and 2000s droughts and is dominated by GWS and SMS in the  
417 late 1980s and by GWS followed by RESS and SMS in the 2000s drought. GRACE data show variable  
418 trends in TWS throughout the 2000s followed by depletion of 27 km<sup>3</sup> in 2011–2013 in the UCRB and 20  
419 km<sup>3</sup> in 2010–2013 in the LCRB. Depletion in the UCRB can be explained mostly by RESS and SMS  
420 declines. In the LCRB subtraction of SMS and RESS components from TWS results in a residual of 15 km<sup>3</sup>  
421 that is attributed to GWS and is similar to GWS declines derived from GW level monitoring data (14 km<sup>3</sup>).  
422 Uncertainties in the residual are large, ranging from 5 to 31 km<sup>3</sup> based on different combinations of GRACE  
423 products and SMS from various LSMs. Ground-based gravity data show increases in water storage of 2.4  
424 km<sup>3</sup> in the LCRB (2002 – 2009) in the Phoenix Active Management Area and by 2.4 km<sup>3</sup> in the Pinal AMA  
425 further south consistent with GW level monitoring data and increases in TWS derived from GRACE data  
426 during this time. Regional analysis of GW level data indicate that GWS changes in the LCRB are dominated  
427 by variations in precipitation during wet and dry periods and irrigation pumpage in areas that do not receive  
428 water from the Colorado River. The CRB is dominated by variable water supplies in response to wet and  
429 dry periods whereas water use has been relatively stable. Reservoir storage is used to buffer variability in  
430 supplies with an estimated ~ 2.5 years of storage remaining based on current levels of water use. Water  
431 storage has expanded from surface reservoirs to aquifer storage through managed aquifer recharge within  
432 the past two decades. This study emphasizes the importance of placing GRACE TWS changes in context  
433 of longer term hydroclimatic records and using modeling and ground-based monitoring data to isolate  
434 different components of TWS from GRACE.

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439 Corps of Engineers, Jason Lee; and Arizona Dept. of Water Resources Central Arizona Project: Jason Lee.

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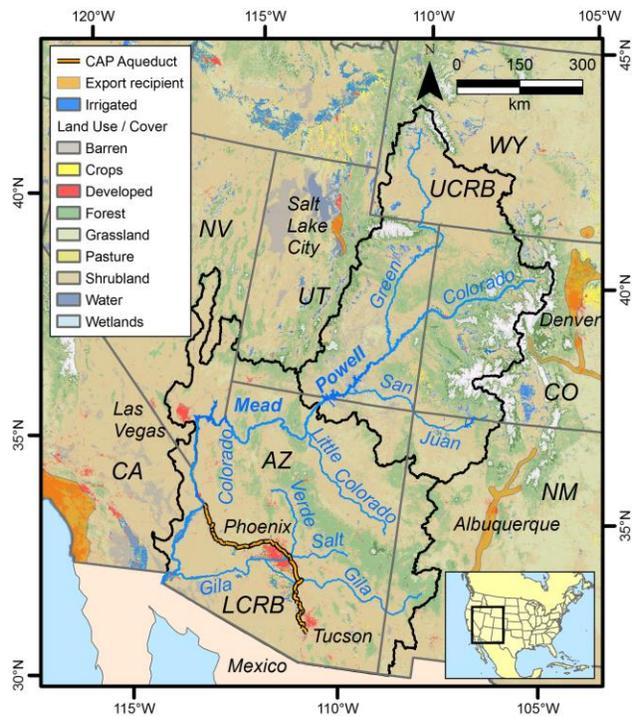
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488 gravity: Fan filter, *Geophysical Research Letters*, *36*: DOI: 10.1029/2009gl039459.  
489

490 Table 1. Period intervals, duration, rates of mean storage change, and total period volumetric changes for  
 491 different water storage components during three multi-year droughts in the Upper (UCRB) and Lower  
 492 (LCRB) Colorado River Basin. More details are provided in Tables S9 and S13.

Component	UCRB				LCRB			
	Interval (MM/YY)	Duration (yr)	Rate (km <sup>3</sup> /yr)	Volume (km <sup>3</sup> )	Interval (MM/YY)	Duration (yr)	Rate (km <sup>3</sup> /yr)	Volume (km <sup>3</sup> )
1990s								
TWSe	05/86-05/90	4.0	-7.6	-30.9	05/85-12/89	4.6	-13.8	-94.1
SMS	05/86-05/90	4.0	-5.2	-21.1	05/85-12/89	4.6	-5.6	-25.5
RESS	03/89-11/92	3.7	-2.3	-8.7	01/88-08/91	3.6	-2.3	-8.2
GWS(obs)					1986-1990	4.0	-9.3	-37.3
2000s								
TWSe	04/98-03/04	5.9	-7.1	-41.9	04/98-04/04	6.0	-10.0	-102.2
SMS	04/98-03/02	3.9	-4.3	-16.7	04/98-07/02	4.3	-4.3	-18.4
RESS	01/00-11/04	4.8	-4.1	-19.8	12/99-07/04	4.6	-3.1	-14.1
GWS(obs)					2002-2005	3.0	-10.9	-32.7
2010s								
TWSe	05/11-03/13	1.8	-14.5	-26.7	02/10-03/13	3.1	-3.0	-9.2
TWS (GRACE)	05/11-03/13	1.8	-14.8	-27.2	02/10-03/13	3.1	-6.5	-20.0
SMS	05/11-03/13	1.8	-6.7	-12.3	02/10-03/13	3.1	-2.8	-8.5
RESS	11/11-11/13	2.0	-5.4	-10.8	12/11-11/14	2.9	-1.9	-5.5
GWS(est)	05/11-03/13	1.8	-0.26	-0.48	02/10-03/13	3.1	-4.8	-14.7
GWS(obs)					2012-2014	2.0	-7.1	-14.1

493 TWSe: estimated Total Water Storage from sum of soil moisture storage (average SMS from GLDAS) and  
 494 reservoir storage (RESS) in the UCRB and plus groundwater storage (GWS) in the LCRB, TWS: GRACE Total  
 495 Water Storage, GWS(est): groundwater storage estimated as the residual from GRACE TWS minus SMS  
 496 and RESS, GWS(obs): observed groundwater storage. To convert volume to equivalent water depth, use  
 497 the area of the UCRB (293,900 km<sup>2</sup>) and that of the LCRB (362,800 km<sup>2</sup>).

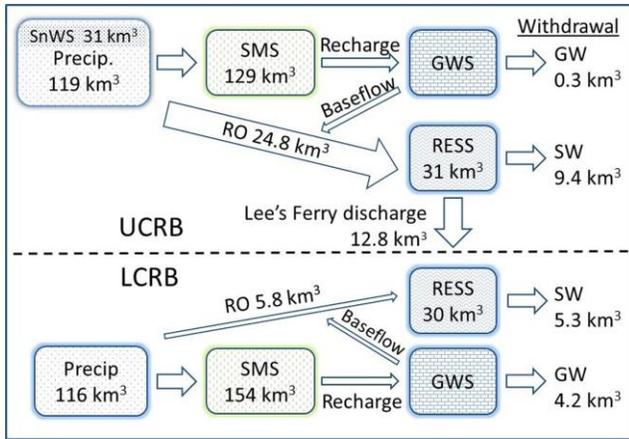
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499

500 Figure 1. The Upper and Lower Colorado River Basins (UCRB, LCRB) outlined in black, and land use based  
 501 on National Land Cover Data (2006). Land use percentages for each region are shown in Table S1. The  
 502 main reservoirs (Powell and Mead) are shown and elevations above 2,740 m (9,000 ft) areas that regularly  
 503 accumulate substantial snowpack are highlighted in light grey. Regions outside the CRB that receive  
 504 exported water are highlighted: 0.93 km<sup>3</sup> exported out of UCRB to parts of Colorado, New Mexico, Utah,  
 505 and Wyoming and 5.3 km<sup>3</sup> exported out of the LCRB to California

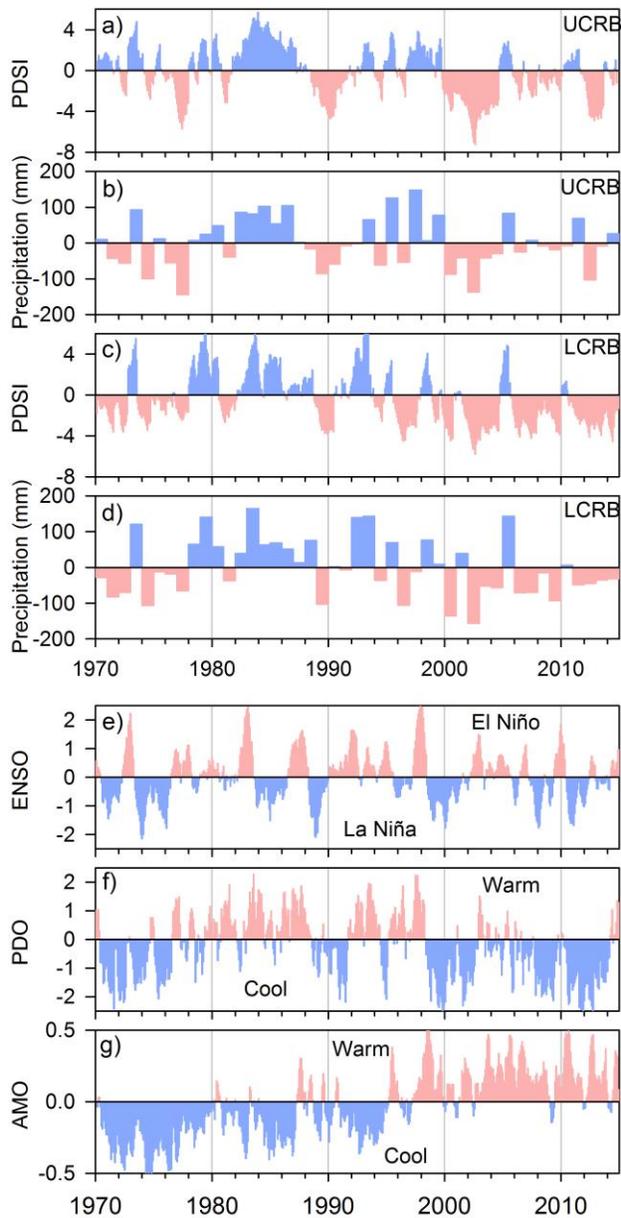
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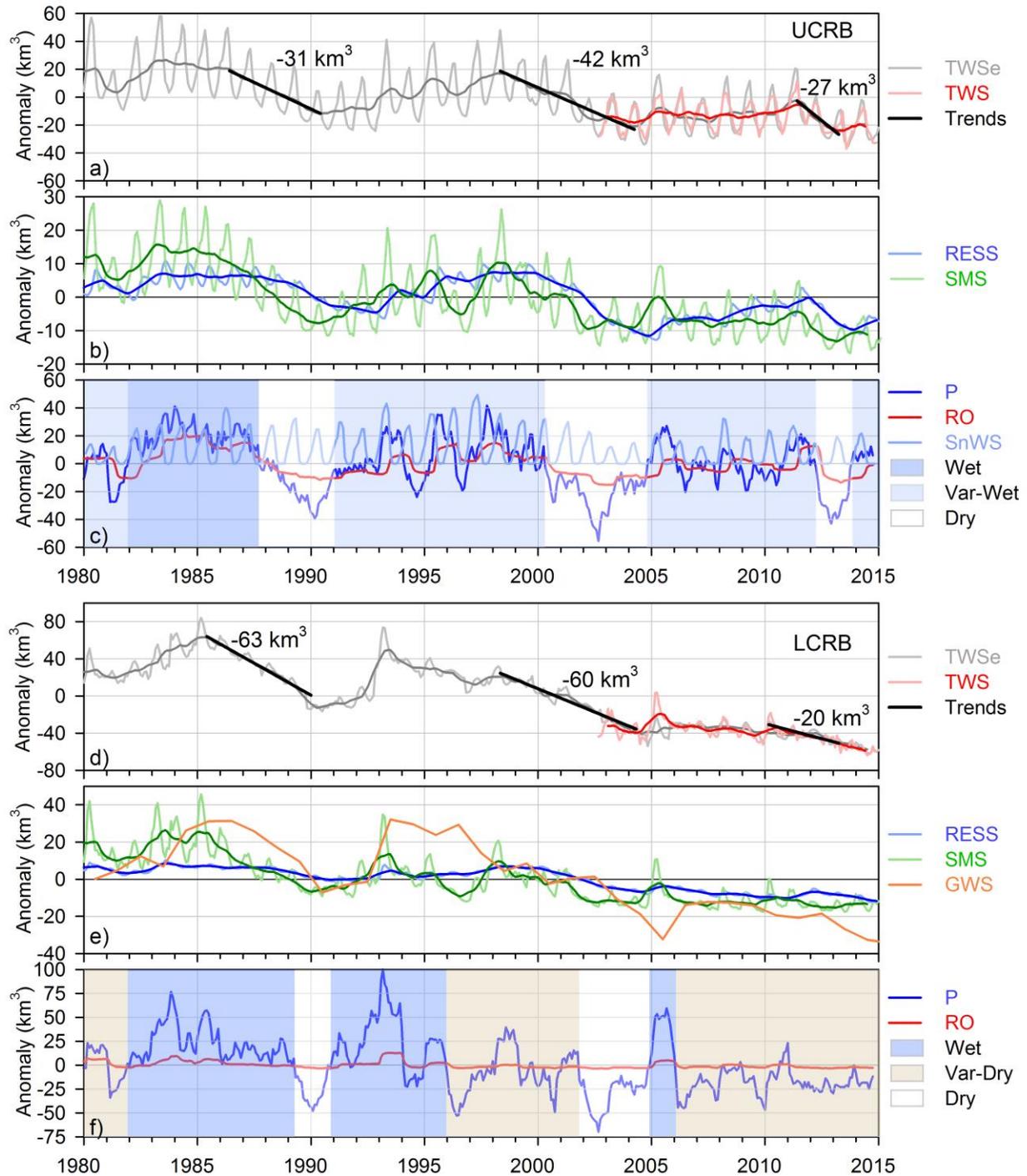
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508 Figure 2. Schematic diagram of interrelationships between different water balance components in the  
 509 Upper (UCRB) and Lower (LCRB) Colorado River Basin. Components include precipitation (Precip), which  
 510 also includes snow water storage (SnWS), soil moisture storage (SMS), groundwater storage (GWS),  
 511 reservoir storage (RESS), runoff (RO), and surface water discharge. Also shown are withdrawal volumes  
 512 from groundwater (GW) and surface water (SW). Values represent either mean total (Precip, RO,  
 513 discharge, and withdrawals), mean storage (SMS and RESS), or the mean maximum (SnWS) for 1980-2014  
 514 water years.

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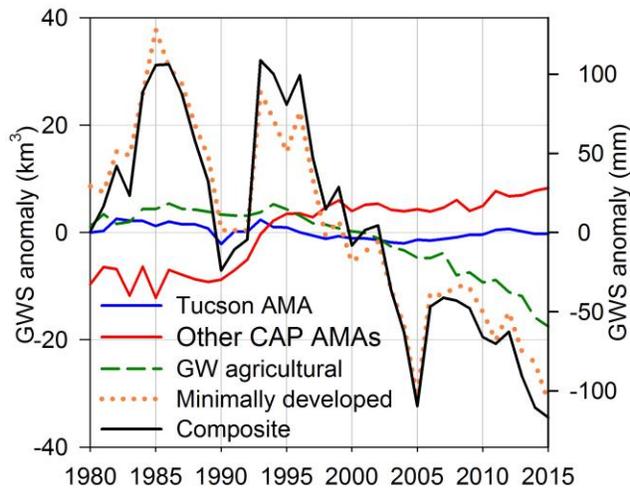


516 Figure 3. Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) and annual total precipitation for the (a, b) Upper and  
 517 (c, d) Lower Colorado River basins and global values for e) El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO), f) Pacific  
 518 Decadal Oscillation (PDO), and the g) Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) for the period 1970-2014.  
 519 All values represent anomalies relative to the period average. PDSI based on spatially weighting output  
 520 for climate divisions that comprise these basins. Data source is National Climatic Data Center (NCDC).  
 521 Precipitation based on Prism (Prism Climate Group, <http://www.prism.oregonstate.edu/>). Positive values  
 522 of PDSI correspond with wet periods and negative values with dry periods. The National Drought Monitor  
 523 indicates that PDSI ranges from -1.0 to -2.0 corresponds to abnormally dry, -2 to -3 moderate drought; -3  
 524 to -4 severe drought, -4 to -5 extreme drought, and < -5 exceptional drought  
 525 (<http://droughtmonitor.unl.edu/>).



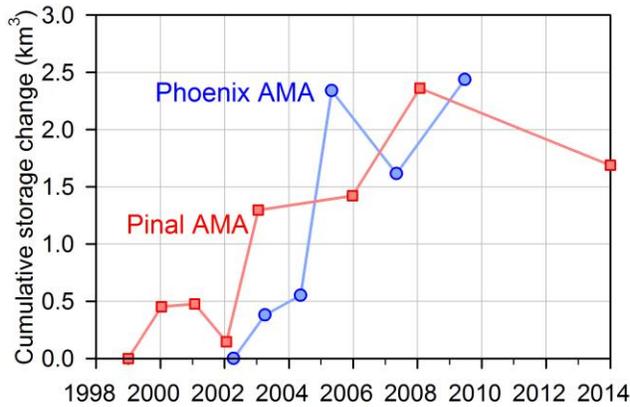
526 Figure 4. Time series of estimated total water storage (TWSe), GRACE total water storage (TWS), reservoir  
 527 storage (RESS), soil moisture storage, (SMS, from GLDAS), precipitation (P), runoff (RO), snow water  
 528 storage (SnWS), and groundwater storage (GWS) in the (a, b, c) Upper (UCRB) and (d, e, f) Lower (LCRB)  
 529 Colorado River Basin. Values represent anomalies relative to the 1980-2014 water year means. The  
 530 centered 12-month moving averages (darker shades) and monthly values (lighter shades) are shown for  
 531 TWSe, TWS, RESS, and SMS. The trailing 12-month sum anomaly is shown for P and RO. SnWS represents

532 mean monthly values (not shown as an anomaly) and is based on SNOTEL data from 1980-2001 and  
533 SNODAS data from 2002-2014. GWS based on monitored data in the LCRB is shown as the water year  
534 mean. Trends shown in a) and d) represent linear regressions of the monthly TWSe values for the periods  
535 shown. Shaded areas in c) and f) qualitatively characterize periods as wet, variable to wet (Var-Wet),  
536 variable to dry (Var-Dry), or dry with respect to 1980-2014 mean precipitation. The TWS declines are  
537 represented as volumes ( $\text{km}^3$ ) and can be converted to equivalent water depth by dividing by basin area  
538 (UCRB:  $293,000 \text{ km}^2$ ; LCRB:  $362,800 \text{ km}^2$ ). For example,  $31 \text{ km}^3$  is equivalent to 105 mm of water in the  
539 UCRB.  
540



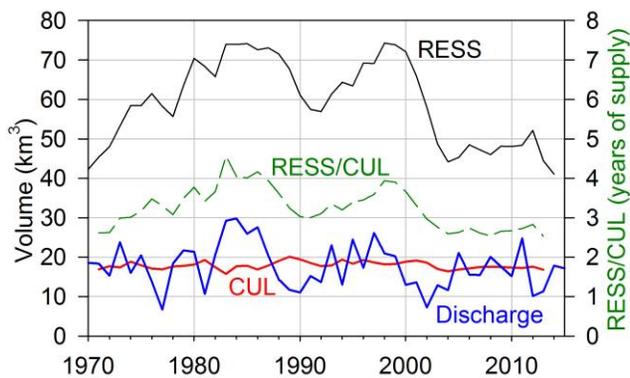
541 Figure 5. Arizona groundwater storage (GWS) anomalies for the contributing regions shown in Figure S23.  
 542 Regional GWS volume changes were estimated as average GW level changes in wells multiplied by the  
 543 unconfined aquifer areas in each region and by a 0.10 (uniform) storage coefficient. The right hand axis  
 544 represents the equivalent water depth with respect to the entire area of Arizona, which closely  
 545 approximates the LCRB area. The regions are the Active Management Area (AMAs) that receive Colorado  
 546 River water imported by the Central Arizona Project (CAP) aqueduct, including the Tucson AMA (3% of  
 547 area) and the Phoenix and Pinal AMAs combined (Other CAP AMAs, 7%), irrigated agricultural basins not  
 548 receiving imported water (GW agricultural, 7%), and minimally developed regions (75%). The composite  
 549 anomaly (Composite) thus represents the simple sum of these regional anomalies (92% of Arizona). Areas  
 550 adjacent to the Colorado and Gila rivers (8% of area) were excluded. The storage coefficient used is  
 551 considered reasonable because the composite trend is dominated by GW storage changes outside areas  
 552 of intensive pumping where shallow unconfined aquifers represent the dominant water source and  
 553 confined aquifer areas were not included in the analysis. Spatial variability in GW level trends at 5 year  
 554 increments in the AMAs are shown in Fig. S25 which are consistent with the composite trends. 2014 values  
 555 are: Tucson AMA =  $-0.2 \text{ km}^3$ , Other CAP AMA =  $+7.8 \text{ km}^3$ , GW agricultural =  $-15.9 \text{ km}^3$ , minimally developed  
 556 =  $-24.3 \text{ km}^3$ , Composite =  $-32.6 \text{ km}^3$ .

557



558 Figure 6. Cumulative changes in water storage based on synoptic gravity surveys in the Phoenix and Pinal  
 559 Active Management Areas (AMAs). For location of the AMAs, see Fig. S3.

560



561 Figure 7. Annual total water consumption (CUL), naturalized Colorado River discharge at Lee's Ferry,  
 562 reservoir storage (RESS) and RESS/CUL. Consumption is based on USBR Consumptive Uses and Losses  
 563 (CUL) reports for the Upper (1971-2013) and Lower (1971-2005) Colorado River Basins. LCRB annual total  
 564 water use values for 2006-2013 were estimated from the 2000-2005 mean (12.5 km³/yr). Total reservoir  
 565 storage in the Colorado River Basin was historically equal to 2.4 – 4.6 years of consumption (mean 3.2 yr).