

1 **Recent changes in terrestrial water storage in the Upper Nile Basin: an**
2 **evaluation of commonly used gridded GRACE products**

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15
16 **Abstract**

17 GRACE (Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment) satellite data monitor large-scale
18 changes in total terrestrial water storage (Δ TWS) providing an invaluable tool where in situ
19 observations are limited. Substantial uncertainty remains, however, in the amplitude of
20 GRACE gravity signals and the disaggregation of TWS into individual terrestrial water stores
21 (e.g. groundwater storage). Here, we test the phase and amplitude of three GRACE Δ TWS
22 signals from 5 commonly-used gridded products (i.e., NASA's *GRCTellus*: CSR, JPL GFZ;
23 JPL-Mascons; GRGS GRACE) using in situ data and modelled soil-moisture from the Global
24 Land Data Assimilation System (GLDAS) in two sub basins (LVB: Lake Victoria Basin,
25 LKB: Lake Kyoga Basin) of the Upper Nile Basin. The analysis extends from January 2003
26 to December 2012 but focuses on a large and accurately observed reduction in Δ TWS of 83
27 km³ from 2003 to 2006 in Lake Victoria Basin. We reveal substantial variability in current
28 GRACE products to quantify the reduction of Δ TWS in Lake Victoria that ranges from 80
29 km³ (JPL-Mascons) to 69 km³ and 31 km³ for GRGS and *GRCTellus*, respectively.

30 Representation of the phase in TWS in the Upper Nile Basin by GRACE products varies but
31 is generally robust with GRGS, JPL-Mascons and *GRCTellus* (ensemble mean of CSR, JPL
32 and GFZ time-series data) explaining 90 %, 84 %, and 75 % of the variance, respectively, in
33 ‘in-situ’ or ‘bottom-up’ Δ TWS in LVB. Resolution of changes in groundwater storage
34 (Δ GWS) from GRACE Δ TWS is greatly constrained by both uncertainty in changes in soil-
35 moisture storage (Δ SMS) modelled by GLDAS LSMs (CLM, NOAH, VIC) and the low
36 annual amplitudes in Δ GWS (e.g., 1.8 to 4.9 cm) observed in deeply weathered crystalline
37 rocks underlying the Upper Nile Basin. Our study highlights the substantial uncertainty in the
38 amplitude of Δ TWS that can result from different data-processing strategies in commonly
39 used, gridded GRACE products.

40

41 **Keywords:** GRACE products; terrestrial water storage; groundwater; hard-rock aquifers;
42 Lake Victoria; Lake Kyoga; Sub-Saharan Africa

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Satellite measurements under the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE)
46 mission have, since March 2002 (Tapley et al., 2004), enabled remote monitoring of large-
47 scale (i.e., GRACE footprint: $\sim 200\,000\text{ km}^2$), spatio-temporal changes in total terrestrial
48 water storage (Δ TWS) at 10-day to monthly timescales (Longuevergne et al., 2013;
49 Humphrey et al., 2016). Over the last 15 years, studies in basins around the world (Rodell and
50 Famiglietti, 2001; Strassberg et al., 2007; Leblanc et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010;
51 Longuevergne et al., 2010; Frappart et al., 2011; Jacob et al., 2012; Shamsudduha et al.,
52 2012; Arendt et al., 2013; Kusche et al., 2016) have demonstrated that GRACE satellites trace
53 natural (e.g., drought, floods, glaciers and ice melting, sea-level rise) and anthropogenic (e.g.,
54 abstraction-driven groundwater depletion) influences on Δ TWS. GRACE-derived TWS

55 provides vertically-integrated water storage changes in all water-bearing layers (Wahr et al.,
 56 2004; Strassberg et al., 2007; Ramillien et al., 2008) that include (Eq. 1) surface water storage
 57 in rivers, lakes, and wetlands (ΔSWS), soil moisture storage (ΔSMS), ice and snow water
 58 storage (ΔISS), and groundwater storage (ΔGWS). GRACE measurements have over the last
 59 decade become an important hydrological tool for quantifying basin-scale ΔTWS (Güntner,
 60 2008; Xie et al., 2012; Hu and Jiao, 2015) and are increasingly being used to assess spatio-
 61 temporal changes in specific water stores (Famiglietti et al., 2011; Shamsudduha et al., 2012;
 62 Jiang et al., 2014; Castellazzi et al., 2016; Long et al., 2016; Nanteza et al., 2016) where
 63 time-series records of other individual freshwater stores are available (Eq. 1).

64

$$65 \quad \Delta TWS_t = \Delta GWS_t + \Delta ISS_t + \Delta SWS_t + \Delta SMS_t \quad (1)$$

66

67 GRACE-derived ΔTWS derive from monthly gravitational fields which can be represented as
 68 spherical harmonic coefficients that are noisy as depicted in north-south elongated linear
 69 features or “stripes” on monthly global gravity maps (Swenson and Wahr, 2006; Wang et al.,
 70 2016). Post-processing of GRACE SH data is therefore required. The most popular GRACE
 71 products are NASA’s *GRCTellus* land gravity solutions (i.e., spherical harmonics based CSR,
 72 JPL and GFZ), which require scaling factors to recover spatially smoothed TWS signals
 73 (Swenson and Wahr, 2006; Landerer and Swenson, 2012). Additionally, NASA’s new
 74 monthly gridded GRACE product, Mass Concentration blocks (i.e., Mascons), estimate
 75 terrestrial mass changes directly from inter-satellite acceleration measurements and can be
 76 used without further post-processing (Rowlands et al., 2010; Watkins et al., 2015). GRGS
 77 GRACE are also spherical harmonic-based products available at a 10-day timestep and can
 78 also be used directly since gravity fields are stabilised during the processing of GRACE
 79 satellite data (Lemoine et al., 2007; Bruinsma et al., 2010).

80

81 Restoration of the amplitude of *GRCTellus* TWS data, dampened by spatial Gaussian filtering
82 with a large smoothing radius (e.g., 300 to 500 km), is commonly achieved using scaling
83 factors that derive from a priori model of freshwater stores, usually a global-scale Land-
84 Surface Model or LSM (Long et al., 2015). However, signal-restoration methods are
85 emerging that do not require hydrological model or LSM (Vishwakarma et al., 2016).
86 Substantial uncertainty nevertheless persists in the magnitude of applied scaling factors (e.g.,
87 *GRCTellus*) and corrections (Long et al., 2015). In situ observations provide a valuable and
88 necessary constraint to the scaling of TWS signals over a particular study area as no
89 consistent basis for ground-truthing these factors exists.

90

91 The disaggregation of GRACE-derived Δ TWS anomalies into individual water stores (Eq. 1)
92 is commonly constrained by the limited availability of observations of terrestrial freshwater
93 stores (i.e., Δ SWS, Δ SMS, Δ GWS, Δ ISS). Indeed, a major source of uncertainty in the
94 attribution of GRACE Δ TWS derives from the continued reliance on modelled Δ SMS
95 derived from LSMs (i.e., CLM, NOAH, VIC, MOSAIC) under the Global Land Data
96 Assimilation System or GLDAS (Rodell et al., 2004) and remote-sensing products
97 (Shamsudduha et al., 2012; Khandu et al., 2016). Further, analyses of GRACE-derived
98 Δ GWS often assume Δ SWS is limited (Kim et al., 2009) yet studies in the humid tropics and
99 engineered systems challenge this assumption showing that it can overestimate Δ GWS
100 (Shamsudduha et al., 2012; Longuevergne et al., 2013). Robust estimates of Δ GWS from
101 GRACE gravity signals have, to date, been developed in locations where Δ SWS is well
102 constrained by in situ observations and groundwater is used intensively for irrigation so that
103 Δ GWS comprises a significant (>10 %) proportion of Δ TWS (Leblanc et al., 2009;
104 Famiglietti et al., 2011; Shamsudduha et al., 2012; Scanlon et al., 2015). In Sub-Saharan

105 Africa, intensive groundwater withdrawals are restricted to a limited number of locations
106 (e.g., irrigation schemes, cities) and constrained by low-storage, low-transmissivity aquifers
107 in the deeply weathered crystalline rocks that underlie ~40 % of this region (MacDonald et
108 al., 2012) including the Upper Nile Basin (Fig. 1). Consequently, the ability of low-resolution
109 GRACE gravity signals to trace Δ GWS in these hard-rock environments is unclear. A recent
110 study (Nanteza et al., 2016) applies NASA's *GRCTellus* (CSR GRACE) data over large basin
111 areas ($>300\,000\text{ km}^2$) of East Africa and argues that Δ GWS can be estimated with sufficient
112 reliability to characterise regional groundwater systems after accounting for Δ SWS by
113 satellite altimetry and Δ SMS data from the GLDAS LSM ensemble (Rodell et al., 2004).
114
115 Here, we exploit a large-scale reduction and recovery in surface water storage that was
116 recorded within Lake Victoria (Fig. 1), the world's second largest lake by surface area (67
117 220 km^2) (UNEP, 2013) and eighth largest by volume ($2\,760\text{ km}^3$) (Awange et al., 2008).
118 This well-constrained reduction in Δ SWS comprises a decline in lake level of 1.2 m between
119 May 2004 and February 2006, equivalent to a lake-water volume (Δ SWS) loss of 81 km^3 that
120 resulted, in part, from excessive dam releases (Fig. 2). We test the ability of current GRACE
121 products to represent the amplitude and phase of this voluminous and well-constrained
122 change in freshwater storage. Our analysis focuses on both the Lake Victoria Basin (hereafter
123 LVB) ($256\,100\text{ km}^2$) and Lake Kyoga Basin (hereafter LKB) ($79\,270\text{ km}^2$) (Fig. 1). Applying
124 in situ observations of Δ SWS and Δ GWS combined with simulated Δ SMS by the GLDAS
125 LSMs, we assess: (1) the ability of current gridded GRACE products (i.e., *GRCTellus*, JPL-
126 Mascons, GRGS GRACE) to measure a well constrained Δ TWS in the Upper Nile Basin
127 from 2003 to 2012 focusing on the unintended experiment within the LVB from 2003 to
128 2006; and (2) the sensitivity of a disaggregated GRACE Δ TWS signals to trace Δ GWS in a
129 deeply weathered crystalline rock aquifer systems underlying the Upper Nile Basin.

130

131 **2. The Upper Nile Basin**

132 **2.1 Hydroclimatology**

133 The Upper Nile Basin, the headwater area of the ~3 400 000 km² Nile Basin (Awange et al.,
134 2014), includes both the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) and Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB). Mean
135 annual rainfall over the entire basin varies from 650 to 2900 mm (TRMM monthly rainfall;
136 2003–2012) with an average of 1300 mm and standard deviation of 354 mm (Fig. 3). Mean
137 annual gauged rainfall at different stations, Jinja, Bugondo and Entebbe measured is 1195,
138 1004 and 1541 mm, respectively (Owor et al., 2011). Rainfall over Lake Victoria is typically
139 25–30 % greater than that measured in the surrounding catchment (Fig. 3), which is partially
140 explained by the nocturnal ‘lake breeze’ effect (Yin and Nicholson, 1998; Nicholson et al.,
141 2000; Owor et al., 2011).

142

143 Estimates of mean annual evaporation from the surface of Lake Victoria vary from 1260 mm
144 (UNEP, 2013) to 1566 mm (Hoogeveen et al., 2015) whereas mean annual evaporation from
145 the surface of Lake Kyoga is estimated to vary from 1205 mm (Brown and Sutcliffe, 2013) to
146 1660 mm (Hoogeveen et al., 2015). Evapotranspirative fluxes from the surrounding swamps
147 in Lake Kyoga are estimated to be much higher and approximately 2230 mm yr⁻¹ (Brown and
148 Sutcliffe, 2013).

149

150 Annual rainfall is predominantly bimodal in distribution (Fig. 4) with two distinct rainy
151 seasons driven by the movement of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) (Awange et
152 al., 2013). Long rains (March to May) and short rains (September to November) account for
153 approximately 40% and 25% of annual rainfall respectively (Basalirwa, 1995; Indeje et al.,
154 2000). The latter rainfalls are particularly influenced by El-Niño Southern Oscillation

155 (ENSO) and Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD). GRACE-derived Δ TWS within the LVB shows a
156 statistical association (R^2) of 0.56 with ENSO and 0.48 with IOD (Awange et al., 2014).

157

158 **2.2 Lakes Victoria and Kyoga**

159 Located between 31°39' E and 34°53' E longitudes, and 0°20' N and 3°00' S latitudes, Lake
160 Victoria (Fig. 1) is located in Tanzania, Uganda and Kenya where each accounts for 51 %, 43
161 % and 6 % of lake surface area respectively (Kizza et al., 2012). Lake Victoria is relatively
162 shallow with a mean depth of ~40 m and a maximum depth of 84 m (UNEP, 2013) akin to
163 many shallow, open surface-water bodies as well as permanent and seasonal wetlands
164 occupying low relief plateau across the Great Lakes Region of Africa (Owor et al., 2011).
165 Moreover, the western and northwestern lake bathymetry is characterised by even shallower
166 depths of between 4 and 7 m (Owor, 2010). Hydrologically, lake input is dominated by direct
167 rainfall (84 % of total input); the remainder derives primarily from river inflows as direct
168 groundwater inflow (<1 %) is negligible (Owor et al., 2011). Approximately 25 major rivers
169 flow into Lake Victoria with a total catchment area of ~194 000 km²; the largest tributary,
170 River Kagera, contributes ~30 % of total river inflows (Sene and Plinston, 1994). Lake
171 Victoria outflow to Lake Kyoga occurs at Jinja (Fig. 1).

172

173 Lake Kyoga (Fig. 1), located between 32°10' E and 34°20' E longitudes, and 1°00' N and
174 2°00' N latitudes, has a mean area of 1 720 km² with an estimated mean volume of 12 km³
175 (Owor, 2010; UNEP, 2013). According to the recent global *HydroSHEDS* (Hydrological data
176 and maps based on shuttle elevation derivatives at multiple scales) database, the Lake Kyoga
177 has a total surface area of 2 729 km² (Lehner et al., 2008). Lake Kyoga comprises lake-zone
178 and flow-through conduit areas. The lake zone in Lake Kyoga is very shallow with a mean
179 depth of 3.5 to 4.5 m (Owor, 2010). Lake Kyoga has a through-flow channel (mean depth 7

180 to 9 m) where the main Victoria Nile River flows (Owor, 2010) and acts as a linear reservoir
181 with the annual water balance predominantly governed by the discharge of the Victoria Nile
182 from Lake Victoria. Lake Kyoga has a through-flow channel (mean depth 7–9 m) where the
183 main Victoria Nile River flows (Owor, 2010). Whilst numerous rivers flow into Lake Kyoga
184 (e.g. Rivers Mpologoma, Awoja, Omunyal, Abalang, Olweny, Sezibwa and Enget) (Owor,
185 2010), the majority contributes a fraction of their former volume upon reaching the lake
186 (Krishnamurthy and Ibrahim, 2013) due, in part, to evapotranspirative losses from fringe
187 swamp areas (4 510 km²) surrounding the lake (UNEP, 2013).

188

189 **2.3 Hydrogeological setting**

190 The Upper Nile Basin is underlain primarily by deeply weathered crystalline rock aquifer
191 systems that have evolved through long-term, tectonically-driven cycles of deep weathering
192 and erosion (Taylor and Howard, 2000). Groundwater occurs within unconsolidated regoliths
193 or ‘saprolite’ and, below this, in fractured bedrock, known as ‘saprock’. Bulk transmissivities
194 of the saprolite and saprock aquifers are generally low (1 to 20 m² d⁻¹) (Taylor and Howard,
195 2000; Owor, 2010) and field estimates of the specific yield of the saprolite, the primary
196 source of groundwater storage in these aquifer systems, are 2 % based on pumping-tests with
197 tracers (Taylor et al., 2010) and magnetic resonance sounding experiments (Vouillamoz et al.,
198 2014). Borehole yields are highly variable but generally low (0.5 to 20 m³ h⁻¹) yet are of
199 critical importance to the provision of safe drinking water.

200

201 **2.4 An observed reduction in TWS in the LVB**

202 In 1954, the construction of the Nalubaale Dam (formerly Owen Falls Dam) at the outlet of
203 Lake Victoria at Jinja transformed the lake into a controlled reservoir (Sene and Plinston,
204 1994). Operated as a run-of-river hydroelectric project to mimic pre-dam outflows, the

205 ‘Agreed Curve’ between Uganda and Egypt dictated dam releases that were controlled on a
206 10-day basis and generally adhered to, with compensatory discharge releases to minimise any
207 departures, until the construction of the Kiira dam at Jinja in 2002 (Sene and Plinston, 1994;
208 Owor et al., 2011).

209

210 The combined discharge of the Nalubaale and Kiira Dams enabled total dam releases (Fig. 2)
211 to substantially exceed the Agreed Curve (Sutcliffe and Petersen, 2007) and between May
212 2004 and February 2006 the lake level dropped by 1.2 m (equivalent Δ SWS loss of 81 km³)
213 (Owor et al., 2011). Mean annual releases were 1387 m³ s⁻¹ (+162 % of Agreed Curve) in
214 2004 and 1114 m³ s⁻¹ (+148 % of Agreed Curve) in 2005. Sharp reductions in dam releases in
215 2006 helped to arrest and reverse the lake-level decline with lake levels stabilising by early
216 2007.

217

218 **3. Data and Methods**

219 **3.1 Datasets**

220 We use publicly available time-series records of: (1) GRACE TWS solutions from a number
221 of data-processing strategies and dissemination centres including NASA’s *GRCTellus* land
222 solutions [RL05 for CSR, GFZ (version DSTvSCS1409), RL05.1 for JPL (version
223 DSTvSCS1411) and JPL-Mascons solution (version RL05M_1.MSCNv01)]as well as the
224 French National Centre for Space Studies (CNES) GRGS solution (version GRGS RL03-v1);
225 (2) NASA’s Global Land Data Assimilation System (GLDAS) simulated soil moisture data
226 from 3 global land surface models (LSMs) (CLM, NOAH, VIC); and (3) monthly
227 precipitation data from NASA’s Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) satellite
228 mission. We also employ in-situ observations of lake levels and groundwater levels from a

229 network of river gauges and monitoring boreholes operated by the Ministry of Water and
230 Environment in Entebbe (Uganda). Datasets are briefly described below.

231

232 **3.1.1 Delineation of basin study areas**

233 Delineation of the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) and Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB) was conducted
234 in Geographic Information System (GIS) environment under ArcGIS (v.10.3.1) environment
235 using the ‘Hydrological Basins in Africa’ datasets derived from *HydroSHEDS* database
236 (available at <http://www.hydrosheds.org/>) (Lehner et al., 2006, 2008). Regional water bodies
237 including Lakes Victoria and Kyoga (Fig. 1) were spatially defined by the Inland Water
238 dataset available globally at country scale from DIVA-GIS (Hijmans et al., 2012). Computed
239 areas of the basins and lake surface areas are summarised in Table 1 along with previously
240 estimated figures from other studies.

241

242 **3.1.2 GRACE-derived terrestrial water storage (TWS)**

243 Twin GRACE satellites provide monthly gravity variations interpretable as ΔTWS (Tapley
244 et al., 2004) with an accuracy of ~ 1.5 cm (Equivalent Water Thickness or Depth) when
245 spatially averaged (Wahr et al., 2006). In this study, we apply 5 different monthly GRACE
246 solutions for the period of January 2003 to December 2012: post-processed, gridded ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$)
247 GRACE-TWS time-series records from 3 *GRCTellus* land solutions from CSR, JPL and GFZ
248 processing centres (available at <http://grace.jpl.nasa.gov/data>) (Swenson and Wahr, 2006;
249 Landerer and Swenson, 2012), JPL-Mascons (Watkins et al., 2015; Wiese et al., 2015), and
250 GRGS GRACE products (CNES/GRGS release RL03-v1) (Biancale et al., 2006).

251

252 *GRCTellus* land solutions are post-processed from two versions, RL05 and RL05.1 of
253 spherical harmonics released by the University of Texas at Austin Centre for Space Research

254 (CSR) and the German Research Centre for Geosciences Potsdam (GFZ), and the NASA's
255 Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) respectively. *GRCTellus* gridded datasets are available at
256 monthly timestep at a spatial resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ (~111 km at equator) though the actual
257 spatial resolution of GRACE footprint is ~450 km or ~200,000 km² (Scanlon et al., 2012).
258 Post-processing of *GRCTellus* GRACE datasets primarily involve (i) removal of atmospheric
259 pressure or mass changes based on the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather
260 Forecasts (ECMWF) model; (ii) a glacial isostatic adjustment (GIA) correction based on a
261 viscoelastic 3-D model of the Earth (A et al., 2013); and (iii) an application a destriping filter
262 plus a 300-km Gaussian to minimise the effect of correlated errors (i.e., destriping)
263 manifested by N-S elongated stripes in GRACE monthly maps. However, the use of a large
264 spatial filter and truncation of spherical harmonics leads to energy removal so scaling
265 coefficients or factors are applied to the *GRCTellus* GRACE -derived TWS data in order to
266 restore attenuated signals (Landerer and Swenson, 2012). Dimensionless scaling factors are
267 provided as $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ bins (see supplementary Fig. S1) that derive from the Community Land
268 Model (CLM4.0) (Landerer and Swenson, 2012).
269
270 JPL-Mascons (version RL05M_1.MSCNv01) data processing also involves a glacial isostatic
271 adjustment (GIA) correction based on a viscoelastic 3-D model of the Earth (A et al., 2013).
272 JPL-Mascons applies no spatial filtering as JPL-RL05M directly relates inters-satellite range-
273 rate data to mass concentration blocks or Mascons to estimate global monthly gravity fields
274 in terms of equal area $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$ mass concentration functions to minimise measurement errors.
275 The use of Mascons and the special processing result in better signal-to-noise ratios of the
276 mascon fields compared to the conventional spherical harmonic solutions (Watkins et al.,
277 2015). For convenience, gridded Mascons fields are provided at a spatial sampling of 0.5° in
278 both latitude and longitude (~56 km at the equator). As with *GRCTellus* GRACE datasets the

279 neighbouring grid cells are not ‘independent’ of each other and cannot be interpreted
280 individually at the 1° or 0.5° grid scale (Watkins et al., 2015). Similar to *GRCTellus* GRACE
281 (CSR, JPL, GFZ) products, dimensionless scaling factors are provided as 0.5° × 0.5° bins
282 (see supplementary Fig. S2) that also derive from the Community Land Model (CLM4.0)
283 (Wiese et al., 2016). The gain factors or scaling coefficients are multiplicative factors that
284 minimize the difference between the smoothed and unfiltered monthly Δ TWS variations from
285 ‘actual’ land hydrology at a given geographical location (Wiese et al., 2016).

286

287 GRGS/CNES GRACE monthly products (version RL03-v1) are processed and made publicly
288 available (<http://grgs.obs-mip.fr/grace>) by the French Government space agency, National
289 Centre for Space Studies or Centre National d' Études Spatiales (CNES). The post-processing
290 of GRGS data involves taking into account of gravitational variations such as Earth tides,
291 ocean tides, and 3D gravitational potential of the atmosphere and ocean masses (Bruinsma et
292 al., 2010). The remaining signals for time-varying gravity fields therefore represent changes
293 in terrestrial hydrology including snow cover, baroclinic oceanic signals and effects of post-
294 glacial rebound (Biancale et al., 2006; Lemoine et al., 2007). Further details on the Earth's
295 mean gravity-field models can be found on the official website of GRGS/LAGEOS
296 (<http://grgs.obs-mip.fr/grace/>).

297

298 GRACE satellites were launched in 2002 to map the variations in Earth's gravity field over
299 its 5-year lifetime but both satellites are still in operation even after more than 14 years.
300 However, active battery management since 2011 has led the GRACE satellites to be switched
301 off every 5–6 months for 4–5 week durations in order to extend its total lifespan (Tapley et
302 al., 2015). As a result, GRACE Δ TWS time-series data have some missing records that are
303 linearly interpolated (Shamsudduha *et al.*, 2012). In this study, we derive Δ TWS time-series

304 data as equivalent water depth (cm of H₂O) using the basin boundaries (GIS shapefiles) for
305 masking the 1° × 1° grids.

306

307 **3.1.3 Rainfall data**

308 We apply Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) (Huffman et al., 2007) monthly
309 product (3B43 version 7) for the period of January 2003 to December 2012 at 0.25° × 0.25°
310 spatial resolution and aggregate to 1° × 1° grids over LVB and LKB. General climatology of
311 the Upper Nile Basin is represented by long-term (2003–2012) mean annual rainfall (Fig. 3)
312 and seasonal rainfall pattern (Fig. 4). TRMM rainfall measurements show a good agreement
313 with limited observational precipitation records (Awange et al., 2008; Awange et al., 2014).

314

315 **3.1.4 Soil moisture storage (SMS)**

316 NASA's Global Land Data Assimilation System (GLDAS) is an uncoupled land surface
317 modelling system that drives multiple land surface models (GLDAS LSMs: CLM, NOAH,
318 VIC and MOSAIC) globally at high spatial and temporal resolutions (3-hourly to monthly at
319 0.25° × 0.25° grid resolution) and produces model results in near-real time (Rodell et al.,
320 2004). These LSMs provide a number of output variables which include soil moisture storage
321 (SMS). Similar to the approach applied in the analysis of GRACE-derived Δ TWS analysis in
322 the Bengal Basin (Shamsudduha et al., 2012), we apply simulated monthly Δ SMS records at
323 a spatial resolution of 1° × 1° from 3 GLDAS LSMs: the Community Land Model (CLM,
324 version 2) (Dai et al., 2003), NOAH (version 2.7.1) (Ek et al., 2003) and the Variable
325 Infiltration Capacity (VIC) model (version 2.7.1) (Liang et al., 2003). The respective depths
326 of modelled soil profiles are 3.4 m, 2.0 m, and 1.9 m in CLM (10 vertical layers), NOAH (4
327 vertical layers), and VIC (version 1.0) (3 vertical layers). Because of the absence of in situ
328 soil moisture data in the study areas we apply an ensemble mean of the aforementioned 3

329 LSMs-derived simulated Δ SMS time-series records (see Figs. 5 and 6) in order to
330 disaggregate GRACE Δ TWS signals in LVB and LKB.

331

332 **3.1.5 Surface water storage (SWS)**

333 Daily time-series of Δ SWS are computed from in situ (gauged) lake-level observations at
334 Jinja for Lake Victoria and Bugondo for Lake Kyoga (Figs. 1 and 2) compiled by the
335 Ugandan Ministry of Water and Environment (Directorate of Water Resources Management).
336 Mean monthly anomalies for the period of January 2003 – December 2012 were computed as
337 an equivalent water depth using Eq. (2). Missing data in the time series (2003–2012) records
338 are linearly interpolated. For instance, in case of monthly Δ SWS derived from Lake Kyoga
339 water levels, there is one missing record (December 2005).

340

$$341 \quad \Delta SWS = \Delta Lake Level \times \left(\frac{Lake Area}{Total Basin Area} \right) \quad (2)$$

342

343 **3.1.6 Groundwater storage (GWS) from borehole observations**

344 Time series of Δ GWS are constructed from in situ piezometric records from 6 monitoring
345 wells located in LVB and LKB where near-continuous, daily observations exist from January
346 2003 to December 2012 and have been compiled by the Ugandan Ministry of Water and
347 Environment (Directorate of Water Resources Management) (Owor et al., 2009; Owor et al.,
348 2011). Monitoring boreholes were installed into weathered, crystalline rock aquifers that
349 underlie much of LVB and LKB, and are remote from local abstraction. As such, they
350 represent variations in groundwater storage influenced primarily by climate variability. Mean
351 monthly anomalies of Δ GWS, standardised to mean records from January 2003 to December
352 2012, were derived from near-continuous, daily observations at Entebbe, Rakai and
353 Nkokonjeru for LVB and at Apac, Pallisa and Soroti for LKB (Fig. 1; Table 2; see

354 supplementary Fig. S3). In the Lake Kyoga Basin, piezometric records from 3 sites show
355 consistency in the seasonality and amplitude of groundwater storage changes plotted as
356 monthly groundwater-level anomalies relative to the mean for the period from January 2003
357 to December 2012. In the Lake Victoria Basin, groundwater-level records from 2 sites
358 (Entebbe, Nkokonjeru) are similar in their phase and amplitude, and are influenced by
359 changes in the level of Lake Victoria as demonstrated by Owor et al. (2011). The
360 groundwater-level record from Rakai represents local semi-arid conditions that exist within
361 catchment areas (e.g., River Ruizi) draining to the western shore of Lake Victoria in Uganda.
362 Although there are differences in the phase of groundwater-level fluctuations between the
363 semi-arid site at Rakai and both Entebbe and Nkokonjeru (as well as the 3 sites in the Lake
364 Kyoga Basin), annual amplitudes are similar.

365

366 The groundwater-level time series data are a sub-set of the total number of available
367 monitoring-well records in the LVB and LKB and selected on the basis of (i) the
368 completeness and quality of the records from 2003 to 2012, and (ii) rigorous review of
369 groundwater-level records conducted at a dedicated workshop at the Ministry of Water &
370 Environment in January 2013. These records represent shallow groundwater-level
371 observations within the saprolite that is dynamically connected to surface waters (Owor et al.
372 2011). Long time-series records of groundwater levels over the period from 2003 to 2012
373 from western Kenya, northern Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi have not been identified
374 despite intensive investigations carried out by *The Chronicles Consortium*¹. The partial
375 spatial coverage in quality-controlled piezometry, especially for the LVB, represents an
376 important limitation in our analysis.

377

¹ The Chronicles Consortium: <https://www.un-igrac.org/special-project/chronicles-consortium>

378 Mean monthly anomalies were translated into an equivalent water depth (Eq. 3) by applying a
379 range of specific yield (S_y) values (1–6 % with an average of 3 %) although estimates of S_y in
380 hard-rock environments are observed to vary from < 2% to 8 % (Taylor et al., 2010; Taylor et
381 al., 2013; Vouillamoz et al., 2014) using Eq. (3). Missing data in the time series were linearly
382 interpolated. In case of monthly ΔGWS that derived from borehole (n=6) observations,
383 missing records range from 1–9 months (120 months in 2003–2012) with three boreholes
384 (Soroti, Rakai and Nkonkonjero) with time-series records ending in June–July 2010.

385

$$386 \quad \Delta GWS = \Delta h * S_y * \left(\frac{Land\ Area}{Total\ Basin\ Area} \right) \quad (3)$$

387

388 **3.2 Methodologies**

389 **3.2.1 GRACE ΔTWS estimation**

390 First, the $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ gridded monthly anomalies of GRACE-derived ΔTWS and GLDAS LSMs
391 derived ΔSMS are masked over the area of LVB and LKB. GRACE ΔTWS along with
392 GLDAS ΔSMS are extracted for the marked $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cells for LVB and LKB and the grid
393 values are spatially aggregated to form time-series of monthly anomalies ΔTWS and ΔSMS .

394

395 *GRCTellus* GRACE ΔTWS gridded data are scaled using dimensionless, gridded scaling
396 factors. Several GRACE studies (Rodell et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2010; Shamsudduha et al.,
397 2012) have applied scaling factors in three different ways: (1) single scaling factor based on
398 regionally averaged time series, (2) spatially distributed or gridded scaling factors based on
399 time-series at each grid point, and (3) gridded-gain factors estimated as a function time or of
400 temporal frequency (Landerer and Swenson, 2012; Long et al., 2015).. In this study, we apply
401 spatially-distributed scaling approach (method 2 above) to generate basin-averaged ΔTWS
402 time-series records for *GRCTellus* (CSR, JPL, GFZ) products. Scaling factors provided at 1°

403 $\times 1^\circ$ grids are applied to each corresponding GRACE Δ TWS grids for NASA's *GRCTellus*
 404 products in order to restore attenuated signals during the post-processing (Landerer and
 405 Swenson, 2012) using Eq. (4). Similarly, provided scaling factors are applied to JPL-
 406 Mascons Δ TWS time-series data but at $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ grid resolution. No scaling factors were
 407 applied to GRGS GRACE Δ TWS as the monthly gravity solutions have already been
 408 stabilised during their generation process.

409

$$410 \quad g^1(x, y, t) = g(x, y, t) \times s(x, y) \quad (4)$$

411

412 Here, $g^1(x, y, t)$ represents each un-scaled grid where x represents longitude, y represents
 413 latitude, and t represents time (month), and $s(x, y)$ is the corresponding scaling factor.

414

415 For the 3 *GRCTellus* gridded products (i.e., CSR, GFZ, and JPL solutions), we apply an
 416 ensemble mean of scaled GRACE Δ TWS as our exploratory analyses reveal that Δ TWS
 417 time-series records over the Lake Victoria Basin are highly correlated ($r > 0.95$, p -value
 418 < 0.001) to each other. Additionally, small (ranges from 1.3 to 1.9 cm) Root Mean Square
 419 Error (RMSE) among the GRACE Δ TWS datasets suggests substantial similarities in phase
 420 and amplitude.

421

422 **3.2.2 Estimation of Δ GWS from GRACE**

423 Estimation of groundwater storage changes (Δ GWS) from GRACE measurements is
 424 conducted using Eq. (5) in which Δ TWS $_t$ is derived from gridded GRACE products (spatially
 425 scaled Δ TWS for *GRCTellus* and JPL-Mascons but unscaled Δ TWS for GRGS), Δ SMS $_t$ is an
 426 ensemble mean of 3 GLDAS LSMs (CLM, NOAH, VIC), and Δ SWS $_t$ is area-weighted, in-
 427 situ surface water storage estimated from lake-level records using Eq. (2).

428

$$429 \quad \Delta GWS_t = \Delta TWS_t - (\Delta SWS_t + \Delta SMS_t) \quad (5)$$

430

431 **3.2.3 Reconciliation of GRACE ΔTWS disaggregation**

432 Reconciling GRACE-derived TWS with ground-based observations is limited by the paucity
433 of in situ observations of SMS, SWS and GWS in many environments. In addition, direct
434 comparisons between in situ observations of ΔSMS , ΔSWS and ΔGWS and gridded GRACE
435 ΔTWS anomalies are complicated by substantial differences in spatial scales, which need to
436 be considered prior to analysis (Becker et al., 2010). For example, individual groundwater-
437 level monitoring boreholes may represent, depending on borehole depth, a sensing area of
438 several 10s of km^2 (Burgess et al., 2017), whereas the typical GRACE footprint is $\sim 200\,000$
439 km^2 . The disaggregation of GRACE ΔTWS into individual water store can also propagate
440 errors to disaggregated components. Here, we construct ‘in situ’ or ‘bottom-up’ ΔTWS (i.e.,
441 combined signals of ΔSMS , ΔSWS and ΔGWS) for the Lake Victoria Basin and attempt to
442 reconcile with GRACE-derived ΔTWS . One feature of GRACE ΔTWS among the 3
443 solutions we apply in this study is the considerable variation in annual amplitudes that exist
444 over the period of 2003 to 2012.

445

446 In addition, for the *GRCTellus* products, we conduct unconventional scaling experiments,
447 outlined below in an attempt to reconcile satellite and in situ measures and to shed light on
448 the uncertainty in ΔTWS amplitudes of the *GRCTellus* GRACE products. The ΔTWS signals
449 in CSR, JPL and GFZ products is greatly attenuated due to spatial smoothing and the
450 amplitude is substantially smaller compared to JPL-Mascons and GRGS products. In the first
451 scaling experiment, we apply an additional, basin-averaged, multiplicative scaling factor to
452 ΔTWS ranging from 1.1 to 2.0 and employ RMSE to assess their relative performance. With

453 reference to *GRCTellus* GRACE Δ TWS and bottom-up Δ TWS relationship, the scaling factor
454 producing the lowest RMSE between the two time series is employed. Secondly, it is
455 observed that in the LVB, Δ SWS is the largest contributor, representing ~50% variance in the
456 in-situ or bottom-up Δ TWS time-series signal. GRACE Δ TWS analyses commonly apply the
457 same scaling factor as Δ TWS to all other individual components (Landerer and Swenson,
458 2012). Therefore, under the scaling experiment, we apply to in-situ Δ SWS spatially-averaged
459 scaling factors representative of (i) Lake Victoria and its surrounding grid cells (experiment
460 1: $s=0.71$; range 0.02–1.5), and (ii) the open-water surface of Lake Victoria without
461 surrounding grid cells (experiment 2: $s=0.11$; range 0.02–0.30). Furthermore, we find that the
462 amplitude of monthly anomalies of Δ SWS+ Δ SMS combined substantially exceed Δ TWS (see
463 supplementary Fig. S4), particularly for the *GRCTellus* GRACE Δ TWS signal that is greatly
464 smoothed due to filtering. This discrepancy is pronounced over the period of 2003–2006, and
465 when applied to estimate GRACE-derived Δ GWS, produces steep, rising trends in the
466 estimated Δ GWS (i.e., $\text{GRACE } \Delta\text{TWS} - (\Delta\text{SWS} + \Delta\text{SMS})$) whereas borehole observations of
467 groundwater levels show declining trend and of much lower amplitude over the same period.

468

469 **4. Results**

470 Monthly time-series records (January 2003 to December 2012) are presented in Figures 5 and
471 6 respectively for Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) and Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB) of (a) GRACE
472 Δ TWS from *GRCTellus* GRACE Δ TWS (ensemble mean of CSR, GFZ, and JPL solutions),
473 GRGS and JPL-Mascons, (b) GLDAS land surface models (LSMs) derived Δ SMS (ensemble
474 mean of 3 LSMs: NOAH, CLM, VIC), (c) in situ Δ SWS from lake levels records, and (d) in
475 situ Δ GWS borehole observations. Monthly rainfall derived from TRMM satellite
476 observations over the same period are shown on the bottom panel (d). Time-series records of
477 all Δ TWS components and rainfall are aggregated for LVB to represent the average seasonal

478 (monthly) pattern of each signal (Fig. 4) that shows an obvious lag (~1 month) between peak
479 rainfall (March–April) and Δ TWS and its individual components.

480

481 Mean annual (2003–2012) amplitudes of various GRACE-derived Δ TWS signals, bottom-up
482 Δ TWS, ensemble mean of simulated Δ SMS, in situ Δ SWS and Δ GWS time-series records
483 (Figs. 5 and 6) are presented (see supplementary Table S1) for both LVB and LKB. Mean
484 annual amplitude of GRACE Δ TWS ranges from 11 to 21 cm among *GRCTellus*, GRGS and
485 JPL-Mascons GRACE products in LVB, and from 8.4 to 16.4 respectively in LKB. Mean
486 annual amplitude of in situ Δ SWS is much greater (14.8 cm) in LVB than in LKB (3.8 cm).
487 GLDAS LSMs derived ensemble mean Δ SMS amplitude in LVB is 7.9 cm and 7.3 cm in
488 LKB. The standard deviation in Δ SMS varies substantially in LVB (1.2 cm, 4.2 cm, and 2.9
489 cm) LKB (1.3 cm, 4.7 cm, and 4.0 cm) for CLM, NOAH, and VIC models respectively.
490 Mean annual amplitude of in situ Δ GWS ranges from 4.4 cm (LVB) to 3.5 cm (LKB).

491

492 Time-series correlation (Pearson) analysis over various periods of interests (decadal: 2003–
493 2012; well-constrained SWS reduction or a period of unintended experiment: 2003–2006;
494 controlled dam operation: 2007–2012) reveals that GRACE-derived Δ TWS signals are
495 strongly correlated in both LVB and LKB (see supplementary Figs. S5–S10). For example, in
496 LVB, in situ Δ SWS shows a statistically significant (p -value <0.001) strong correlation
497 ($r=0.77$ – 0.92) with all GRACE- Δ TWS time-series (2003–2012) records. Similarly,
498 simulated Δ SMS shows statistically significant (p -value <0.001) strong correlation ($r=0.70$ –
499 0.78) with Δ TWS time-series records. In contrast, in situ Δ GWS shows statistically
500 significant (p -value <0.001) but moderate correlation ($r=0.63$ – 0.69) with Δ TWS time-series
501 records. Correlation among the variables shows similar statistically significant (p -value

502 <0.001) but wide-ranging associations for the periods of unintended experiment (2003–2006)
503 and controlled dam operation (2007–2012). In LKB, however, correlation among in situ
504 Δ SWS and GRACE Δ TWS time-series records is statistically significant (p -value <0.05) but
505 poor in correlation strength ($r=0.22$ – 0.34). In situ Δ GWS shows statistically significant (p -
506 value <0.001) strong correlation ($r=0.64$ – 0.69) with GRACE Δ TWS time-series records.

507

508 Time-series records of all 3 Δ TWS from 5 GRACE products and bottom-up Δ TWS time-
509 series records in both LVB and LKB are shown in Figure 7 and results of temporal trends are
510 summarised in Table 3. Statistically significant (p -value <0.05) declining trends (-4.1 to $-$
511 11.0 cm yr^{-1} in LVB; -2.1 to -4.6 cm yr^{-1} in LKB) are consistently observed during the
512 period of 2003 to 2006. Trends are all positive in GRACE Δ TWS and bottom-up Δ TWS
513 time-series records over the recent period of controlled dam operation (2007–2012) in both
514 LVB and LKB. Therefore, the overall, decadal (2003–2012) trends are slightly rising (0.04 to
515 1.00 cm yr^{-1}) in LVB but nearly stable (-0.01 cm yr^{-1}) in *GRCTellus* Δ TWS and slightly
516 declining (-0.56 cm yr^{-1}) bottom-up Δ TWS over LKB. In addition, short-term volumetric
517 trends (2003–2006) in GRACE and bottom-up Δ TWS as well as simulated Δ SMS and in situ
518 Δ SWS are declining whereas in situ Δ GWS and rainfall anomalies show slightly rising trends
519 over the same period in LVB (see supplementary Figs. S11–S12). Similar trends are reported
520 in various signals over LKB but magnitudes are much smaller compared to that of LVB,
521 which is 3 times larger in size than LKB. Volumetric declines in Δ TWS in the LVB for the
522 period 2003 to 2006 are: 83 km^3 (bottom-up), 80 km^3 (JPL-Mascons), 69 km^3 (GRGS) and
523 31 km^3 (*GRCTellus* ensemble mean of CSR, JPL and GFZ products).

524

525 Linear regression reveals that the association between GRACE-derived Δ TWS and bottom-up
526 Δ TWS is stronger in LVB ($R^2=0.75-0.90$) than in LKB ($R^2=0.56-0.62$) (see supplementary
527 Table S1). GRACE Δ TWS is unable to explain natural variability in bottom-up Δ TWS in
528 LKB though this may be explained by the fact that SWS in Lake Kyoga is influenced by dam
529 releases from LVB. Multiple linear regression and the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveal
530 that the relative proportion of variability in bottom-up Δ TWS time-series record can be
531 explained by Δ SWS (92.6 %), Δ SMS (6.5 %) and Δ GWS (0.66 %) in LVB; and by 47.9 %,
532 48.5 % and 3.6 % respectively in LKB. These results are indicative only as these percentages
533 can be biased by the presence of strong correlation among variables and the order of these
534 variables listed as predictors in the multiple linear regression models.

535

536 Disaggregation of Δ GWS from GRACE Δ TWS time-series record from each product has
537 been carefully considered and estimated following Eq. (5). No further additional scaling
538 factors, as described in the ‘scaling experiment’ section (see results of scaling experiment in
539 supplementary Fig. 13) are applied in the final disaggregation of Δ GWS from GRACE
540 Δ TWS signals. Results of Pearson correlation analysis of the time-series record (2003–2012)
541 of in situ Δ GWS in LVB show statistically insignificant and poor correlation ($r=0.11$, p -value
542 0.25) to JPL-Mascons and an inverse correlation with both the ensemble *GRCTellus*
543 ($r=-0.55$, p -value <0.001) and GRGS ($r=-0.27$, p -value $=0.003$) GRACE-derived estimates
544 of Δ GWS (Fig. 8). In contrast, in LKB, in situ Δ GWS time-series record shows statistically
545 significant but weak correlations to JPL-Mascons ($r=0.34$, p -value <0.001) and GRGS
546 ($r=0.39$, p -value <0.001) GRACE-derived Δ GWS but shows an inverse correlation ($r=-0.21$,
547 p -value $=0.02$) to *GRCTellus* Δ GWS (see supplementary Fig. S14). Furthermore, RMSE
548 among various GRACE-derived estimates of Δ GWS and in situ Δ GWS ranges from 7.2 cm

549 (GRACE ensemble), 3.8 cm (GRGS) to 8.2 cm (JPL-Mascons) in LVB, and from 3.2
550 (GRACE ensemble), 5.3 cm (GRGS) to 5.4 cm (JPL-Mascons) in LKB.

551

552 **5. Discussion**

553 We apply 5 different gridded GRACE products (*GRCTellus* – CSR, JPL and GFZ; GRGS
554 and JPL-Mascons) to test Δ TWS signals for in the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) comprising a
555 large and accurately observed reduction (83 km^3) in Δ TWS from 2003 to 2006. Our analysis
556 reveals that all GRACE products capture this substantial reduction in terrestrial water mass
557 but the magnitude of GRACE Δ TWS among GRACE products varies substantially. For
558 example, *GRCTellus* underrepresents greatly (63 %) the reduction of 83 km^3 in bottom-up
559 Δ TWS whereas GRGS and JPL-Mascons GRACE products underrepresent this by 17 % and
560 4 % respectively. Over a longer period (2003–2012) in the Upper Nile Basin, all GRACE
561 products correlate well with bottom-up Δ TWS but, similar to the unintended experiment,
562 variability in amplitude is considerable (Fig. 9). The average (2003–2012) annual amplitude
563 of Δ TWS is substantially dampened (i.e., 45 % less than bottom-up Δ TWS) in *GRCTellus*
564 GRACE products relative to GRGS (4 %) and JPL-Mascons (27 % more than bottom-up
565 Δ TWS) products in the LVB.

566

567 The ‘true’ amplitude in *GRCTellus* Δ TWS signal is generally reduced during the post-
568 processing of GRACE spherical harmonic fields, primarily due to spatial smoothing by a
569 large-scale (e.g., 300 km) Gaussian filter and truncation of gravity fields at a higher (degree
570 $60 = 300 \text{ km}$) spectral degree (Swenson and Wahr, 2006; Landerer and Swenson, 2012).

571 Despite the application of scaling factors based on CLM v.4.0 to amplify *GRCTellus* Δ TWS
572 amplitudes at individual grids, the basin-averaged (LVB) time-series record represents only

573 75 % variability in bottom-up Δ TWS. Scaling experiments conducted here reveal that
574 *GRCTellus* Δ TWS requires an additional multiplicative factor of 1.7 in order to match
575 bottom-up Δ TWS with a minimum RMSE (5.8 cm). On the other hand, NASA's new gridded
576 GRACE product, JPL-Mascons, that applies a priori constraint in space and time to derive
577 monthly gravity fields and undergoes some degree of spatial smoothing (Watkins et al.,
578 2015), represents nearly 83 % variability in bottom-up Δ TWS. In contrast, the GRGS
579 GRACE product, which applies truncation at degree 80 (~250 km) does not suffer from any
580 large-scale spatial smoothing, and is able to represent well (90 %) the variability in bottom-
581 up Δ TWS in the LVB.

582

583 A priori corrections of *GRCTellus* ensemble mean GRACE signals using a set of LSM-
584 derived scaling factors (i.e., amplitude gain) can lead to substantial uncertainty in Δ TWS
585 (Long et al., 2015). We show that the amplitude of simulated terrestrial water mass over the
586 Upper Nile Basins varies substantially among various LSMs (see supplementary Fig. S15).
587 Most of these LSMs (GLDAS models: CLM, NOAH, VIC) do not include surface water or
588 groundwater storage (Scanlon et al., 2012). Although CLM (v.4.0 and 4.5) includes a simple
589 representation (i.e., shallow unconfined aquifer) of groundwater (Niu et al., 2007; Oleson et
590 al., 2008), it does not consider recharge from irrigation return flows. In addition, many of
591 these LSMs do not consider lakes and reservoirs and, most critically, LSMs are not
592 reconciled with in situ observations.

593

594 The combined measurement and leakage errors, $\sqrt{(bias^2 + leak^2)}$ (Swenson and Wahr,
595 2006) for *GRCTellus* Δ TWS based on CLM4.0 model for LVB and LKB are 7.2 cm and 6.6
596 cm respectively. These values, however, do not represent mass leakage from the lake to the
597 surrounding area within the basin itself. A sensitivity analysis of *GRCTellus* and GRGS

598 signals reveal that signal leakage occurs from lake to its surrounding basin area as well as
599 between basins. For instance, GRACE signal leakage into LKB from LVB, which is 3 times
600 larger in area than LKB, is 3.4 times bigger for both GRCTellus GRACE and GRGS
601 products. Furthermore, the analysis shows that leakage from Lake Victoria to LVB for
602 *GRCTellus* is substantially greater than GRGS product by a factor of ~2.6. In other words, 1
603 mm change in the level of Lake Victoria represents an equivalent change of 0.12 mm in
604 Δ TWS in LVB for *GRCTellus* compared to 0.32 mm for GRGS. Consequently, changes in
605 the amplitude of GRGS Δ TWS are much greater (~38 %) than *GRCTellus*. During the
606 observed reduction in Δ TWS (83 km³) from 2003 to 2006, the computed volumetric
607 reduction for GRGS is found to be 69 km³ whereas it is 31 km³ for *GRCTellus*.

608

609 Another source of uncertainty that contributes toward Δ TWS anomalies in GRACE analysis
610 is the choice of simulated Δ SMS from various global-scale LSMs (e.g., Shamsudduha et al.,
611 2012; Scanlon et al., 2015). For example, the mean annual (2003–2012) amplitudes in
612 simulated Δ SMS in GLDAS LSMs (CLM, NOAH, VIC) vary substantially in LVB (3.5 cm,
613 10.2 cm, and 10.5 cm) and LKB (3.7 cm, 10.6 cm, and 7.7 cm) respectively. Due to an
614 absence of a dedicated monitoring network for soil moisture in the Upper Nile Basin, this
615 study like many other GRACE studies, is resigned to applying simulated Δ SMS from
616 multiple LSMs arguing that the use of an ensemble mean minimises the error associated with
617 Δ SMS (Rodell et al., 2009).

618

619 Computed contributions of Δ GWS to Δ TWS in the Upper Nile Basins are low (<10 %).
620 GRACE-derived estimates of Δ GWS from all three products (*GRCTellus*, GRGS and JPL-
621 Mascons) correlate very weakly with in situ Δ GWS in both LVB and LKB. One curious
622 observation in LVB during the unintended experiment (2003–2006) is that in situ Δ GWS

623 rises whereas in situ Δ SWS and simulated Δ SMS decline. The available evidence in
624 groundwater-level records (e.g., Entebbe, Uganda) suggests that rainfall-generated
625 groundwater recharge led to an increased in Δ GWS while dam releases exceeding the
626 “Agreed Curve” continued to reduce Δ SWS (Owor et al., 2011).

627

628 Uncertainties in the estimation of GRACE-derived Δ GWS remain in: (i) accurate
629 representation of the largest individual signal of in-situ Δ SWS in the disaggregation of
630 GRACE Δ TWS signal as it can limit the propagation of uncertainty in simulated Δ SMS, (ii)
631 simulated Δ SMS by GLDAS land surface models, (iii) the very limited spatial coverage in
632 piezometry to represent in situ Δ GWS, and (iv) applied S_y (3 % with range from 1 % to 6 %)
633 to convert in situ groundwater levels to Δ GWS. The lack of any strong correlation in
634 GRACE-derived Δ GWS and in situ Δ GWS time-series records indicates that the magnitude
635 of uncertainty is larger than the overall variability in Δ GWS in low-storage, low-
636 transmissivity weathered crystalline aquifers within the Upper Nile Basin. Furthermore,
637 statistically significant but negative correlations in both LVB and LKB arise from a positive
638 change in GRACE-derived Δ GWS when in situ Δ GWS is declining (e.g., 2003 to 2006 in
639 LVB; 2008 to 2010 in LKB). This inconsistency suggests that the ‘true’ GRACE Δ TWS
640 signal is weakened during processing and that the combined Δ SWS+ Δ SMS signal is greater
641 than Δ TWS, mathematically resulting to a positive estimate of Δ GWS. In contrast to the
642 assertions of Nanteza et al. (2016) applying the *GRCTellus* CSR solution, we find that this
643 uncertainty prevents robust resolution of Δ GWS from GRACE Δ TWS in these complex
644 hydrogeological environments of East Africa. Despite substantial efforts to improve
645 groundwater-level monitoring and to collate existing groundwater-level records across
646 Africa, we recognise that understanding of in situ Δ GWS remains greatly constrained by
647 limitations in current observational networks and records. Since present uncertainties and

648 limitations identified in the Upper Nile Basin occur in many of the weathered hard-rock
649 aquifer environments that underlie 40% of Sub-Saharan Africa (MacDonald et al., 2012),
650 tracing of Δ GWS using GRACE in these areas is unlikely to be robust until these
651 uncertainties and limitations are better constrained.

652

653 **6. Conclusions**

654 The analysis of a large, accurately recorded reduction of 1.2 m in the water level of Lake
655 Victoria, equivalent to Δ SWS decline of 81 km³ from 2004 to 2006 exposes substantial
656 variability among commonly-used 5 gridded GRACE products (*GRCTellus* CSR, JPL, GFZ;
657 GRGS; JPL-Mascons) to quantify the amplitude of changes in terrestrial water storage
658 (Δ TWS). Around this event, we estimate an overall decline in ‘in situ’ or ‘bottom-up’ Δ TWS
659 (i.e., in situ Δ SWS and Δ GWS; simulated Δ SMS) over the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) of 83
660 km³ from 2003 to 2006. This value compares favourably with JPL-Mascons GRACE Δ TWS
661 (80 km³), is underrepresented by GRGS GRACE Δ TWS (69 km³), and is substantially
662 underrepresented by the ensemble mean of *GRCTellus* GRACE Δ TWS (31 km³). Attempts to
663 better reconcile *GRCTellus* GRACE Δ TWS to bottom-up Δ TWS through scaling techniques
664 are unable to represent adequately the observed amplitude in Δ TWS but highlight the
665 uncertainty in the amplitude of gridded GRACE Δ TWS datasets generated by various
666 processing strategies.

667

668 From 2003 to 2012, GRGS, JPL-Mascons and *GRCTellus* GRACE products trace well the
669 phase in bottom-up Δ TWS in the Upper Nile Basin that comprises both the LVB and Lake
670 Kyoga Basin (LKB). In the LVB for example, each explains 90 % (GRGS), 83 % (JPL-
671 Mascons), and 75 % (*GRCTellus* ensemble mean of CSR, JPL and GFZ) of the variance,
672 respectively, in bottom-up Δ TWS. The relative proportion of variability in bottom-up Δ TWS

673 (variance 120 cm² LVB, 24 cm² LKB) is explained by in situ Δ SWS (93 % LVB; 49 %
674 LKB), GLDAS ensemble mean Δ SMS (6 % LVB; 48 % LKB) and in situ Δ GWS (~1 %
675 LVB; 4 % LKB); these percentages are indicative and can vary as individual TWS
676 components are strongly correlated and the order of explanatory variables in regression
677 equation can affect the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). In situ Δ GWS contributes minimally
678 to Δ TWS and is only moderately associated with GRACE Δ TWS (strongest correlation of
679 $r=0.39$, p -value <0.001). Resolution of Δ GWS from GRACE Δ TWS in the Upper Nile Basin
680 relies upon robust measures of Δ SWS and Δ SMS; the former is observed in situ whereas the
681 latter is limited by uncertainty in simulated Δ SMS, represented here and in many GRACE
682 studies by an ensemble mean of GLDAS LSMs. Mean annual amplitudes in observed Δ GWS
683 (2003–2012) from limited piezometry for the low-storage and low-transmissivity aquifers in
684 deeply weathered crystalline rocks that underlie the Upper Nile Basin are small (1.8 to 4.9 cm
685 for $S_y=0.03$) and, given the current uncertainty in simulated Δ SMS, are beyond the limit of
686 what can be reliably quantified using current GRACE satellite products.

687

688 Our examination of a large, mass-storage change (2003 to 2006) observed in the Lake
689 Victoria Basin highlights substantial variability in the measurement of Δ TWS using different
690 gridded GRACE products. Although the phase in Δ TWS is generally well recorded by all
691 tested GRACE products, substantial differences exist in the amplitude of Δ TWS that also
692 influence the disaggregation of individual terrestrial stores (e.g., groundwater storage) and
693 estimation of trends in TWS and individual, disaggregated freshwater stores. We note that the
694 stronger filtering of the large-scale (~300 km) gravity signal associated with *GRCTellus*
695 results in greater signal leakage relative to GRGS and JPL-Mascons. As a result, greater
696 rescaling is required to resurrect signal amplitudes in *GRCTellus* relative to GRGS and JPL-
697 Mascons and these scaling factors depend upon uncertain and incomplete a priori knowledge

698 of terrestrial water stores derived from large-scale land-surface or hydrological models,
699 which generally do not consider the existence of Lake Victoria, the second largest lake by
700 area in the world.

701

702

703 **Author contribution**

704 RT conceived this study for which preliminary analyses were carried out by DJ and MS. MS
705 and DJ have processed GRACE and all observational datasets and conducted statistical
706 analyses and GIS mapping. LL conducted the analysis of spatial leakage and bias in GRACE
707 signals. CT, RT and MO helped to establish, collate and analyse groundwater-level data; CT
708 provided dam release data. MS and RT wrote the manuscript and LL, DJ, MO and CT
709 commented on draft manuscripts.

710

711 **Competing interests**

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

713

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961

962 **Figure Captions**

963

964 **Figure 1.** Map of the study area encompassing the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) and Lake
965 Kyoga Basin (LKB), and location of the in situ monitoring stations. The Upper Nile Basin is
966 marked by a rectangle (red) within the entire Nile River Basin shown as a shaded relief index
967 map. Piezometric monitoring (red circles) and lake-level gauging (dark blue squares) stations
968 are shown on the map.

969

970 **Figure 2.** Observed daily total dam releases (blue line) and the agreed curve (red line) at the
971 outlet of Lake Victoria in Jinja from November 2007 to July 2009 (Owor et al., 2011).

972

973 **Figure 3.** Mean annual rainfall for the period of 2003–2012 derived from TRMM satellite
974 observations. Greater annual rainfall is observed over much of the Lake Victoria and
975 northeastern corner of the Lake Victoria Basin.

976

977 **Figure 4.** Seasonal pattern (monthly mean from January 2003 to December 2012) of TRMM-
978 derived monthly rainfall, various GRACE-derived Δ TWS signals [GRCTellus=ensemble
979 mean of CSR, JPL and GFZ; GRGS and JPL-Mascons (MSCN) products], the bottom-up
980 TWS; GLDAS LSMs ensemble mean Δ SMS, in situ Δ SWS and borehole-derived estimate of
981 Δ GWS over the Lake Victoria Basin.

982

983 **Figure 5.** Monthly time-series datasets for the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) from January 2003
984 to December 2012: (a) *GRCTellus* GRACE-derived Δ TWS (ensemble mean of CSR, GFZ,
985 and JPL), GRGS and JPL-Mascons Δ TWS time-series data; (b) GLDAS-derived Δ SMS
986 (individual signals as well as an ensemble mean of NOAH, CLM, and VIC); (c) lake-level-
987 derived Δ SWS; and (d) borehole-derived Δ GWS time-series data. Note that monthly rainfall
988 records derived from TRMM satellite are plotted on panel (d) where the dashed horizontal
989 line represents the mean monthly rainfall for the period of January 2003 to December 2012.

990

991 **Figure 6.** Monthly time-series datasets for the Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB) from January 2003
992 to December 2012: (a) *GRCTellus* GRACE-derived Δ TWS (ensemble mean of CSR, GFZ,
993 and JPL), GRGS and JPL-Mascons Δ TWS time-series data; (b) GLDAS-derived Δ SMS
994 (individual signals as well as an ensemble mean of NOAH, CLM, and VIC); (c) lake-level-

995 derived Δ SWS; and (d) borehole-derived Δ GWS time-series data. Note that monthly rainfall
996 records derived from TRMM satellite are plotted on panel (d) where the dashed horizontal
997 line represents the mean monthly rainfall for the period of January 2003 to December 2012.
998

999 **Figure 7.** Comparison among time-series records of Δ TWS from *GRCTellus* (ensemble mean
1000 of CSR, GFZ, and JPL), GRGS and JPL-Mascons GRACE products and bottom-up Δ TWS
1001 for the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) (a), and Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB) (b) for the period of
1002 January 2003 to December 2012. The vertical grey lines represent monthly rainfall anomalies
1003 in LVB and LKB.
1004

1005 **Figure 8.** Estimates of in situ Δ GWS and GRACE-derived Δ GWS time-series records
1006 (January 2003 to December 2012) in LVB show a substantial variations among themselves.
1007 An ensemble mean Δ SMS (GLDAS 3 LSMs: CLM, NOAH and VIC) and an unscaled Δ SWS
1008 are applied in the disaggregation of Δ GWS using *GRCTellus* GRACE (ensemble mean of
1009 CSR, GFZ, and JPL) and JPL-Mascons products.
1010

1011 **Figure 9.** Taylor diagram shows strength of statistical association, variability in amplitudes
1012 of time-series records and agreement among the reference data, bottom-up Δ TWS and
1013 *GRCTellus* GRACE-derived Δ TWS (ensemble mean of CSR, GFZ, and JPL, GRGS and JPL-
1014 Mascons Δ TWS time-series records), simulated Δ SMS (ensemble mean of NOAH, CLM and
1015 VIC), in situ Δ SWS, and in situ Δ GWS over the LVB. The solid arcs around the reference
1016 point (black square) indicate centred Root Mean Square (RMS) differences among bottom-up
1017 Δ TWS and other variables, and the dashed arcs from the origin of the diagram indicate
1018 variability in time-series records. Data for Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) are only shown in this
1019 diagram.
1020

1021 **Table 1.** Estimated areal extent (km²) of the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB), Lake Kyoga Basin
1022 (LKB), Lake Victoria and Lake Kyoga.

1023

Basin/Lake	This study [<i>HydroSHEDS</i> database]	UNEP (2013)	Awange et al. (2014)
Lake Victoria Basin	256 100	184 000	258 000
Lake Victoria	67 220	68 800	-
Lake Kyoga Basin	79 270	75 000	75 000
Lake Kyoga	2 730	1 720	-

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1028 **Table 2.** Details of groundwater and lake level monitoring stations located in Lake Victoria
 1029 Basin and Lake Kyoga Basin.

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Monitoring Station	Basin	Parameter	Longitude	Latitude	Depth (m bgl)
Apac	LKB	Groundwater level	32.50	1.99	15.0
Pallisa	LKB	Groundwater level	33.69	1.20	46.2
Soroti	LKB	Groundwater level	33.63	1.69	66.0
Bugondo	LKB	Lake level	33.20	0.45	-
Entebbe	LVB	Groundwater level	32.47	0.04	48.0
Rakai	LVB	Groundwater level	31.40	-0.69	53.0
Nkokonjeru	LVB	Groundwater level	32.91	0.24	30.0
Jinja	LVB	Lake level	33.23	1.59	-

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1032 **Table 3.** Linear trends (cm yr⁻¹) in GRACE Δ TWS and bottom-up Δ TWS in Lake Victoria
 1033 Basin and Lake Kyoga Basin over various time periods (statistically significant trends, *p*
 1034 values <0.05 are marked by an asterisk).

Period	GRACE Ensemble	GRGS	JPL-Mascons	Bottom-up TWS
Lake Victoria Basin (LVB)				
2003–2006	-4.10*	-9.00*	-10.0*	-11.00*
2007–2012	-0.31	1.50*	2.70*	1.10*
2003–2012	0.04	0.58	1.00*	0.54
Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB)				
2003–2006	-2.10*	-4.60*	-3.50*	-2.80*
2007–2012	0.22	2.00*	1.50*	0.48
2003–2012	-0.01	0.54*	0.54*	-0.56*

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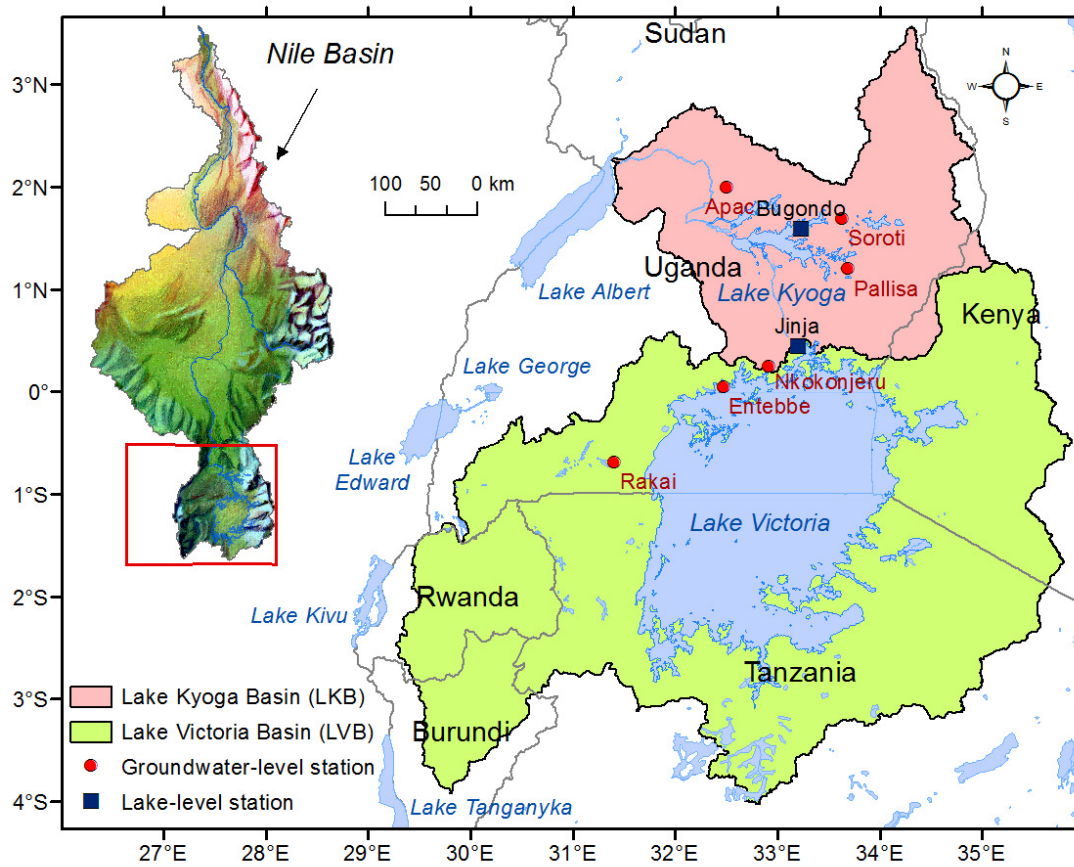
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Figure 1. Map of the study area encompassing the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) and Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB), and location of the in situ monitoring stations. The Upper Nile Basin is marked by a rectangle (red) within the entire Nile River Basin shown as a shaded relief index map. Piezometric monitoring (red circles) and lake-level gauging (dark blue squares) stations are shown on the map.

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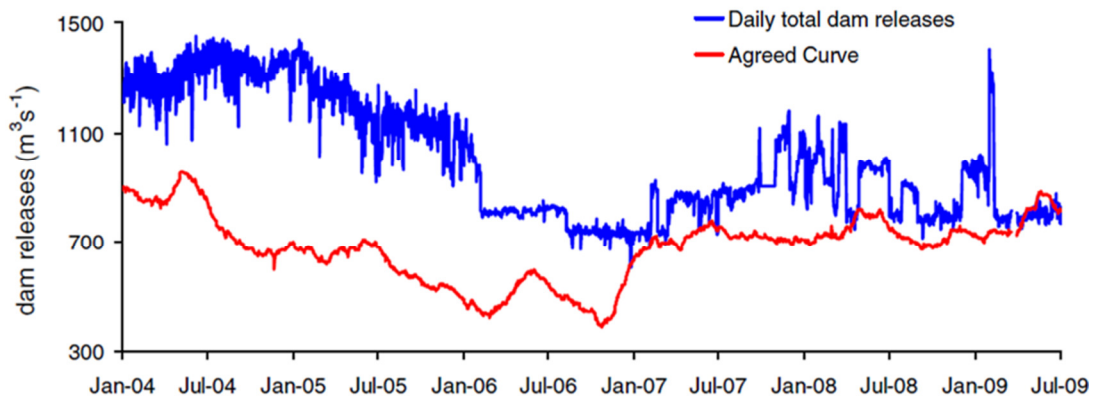


Figure 2. Observed daily total dam releases (blue line) and the agreed curve (red line) at the outlet of Lake Victoria in Jinja from November 2007 to July 2009 (Owor et al., 2011).

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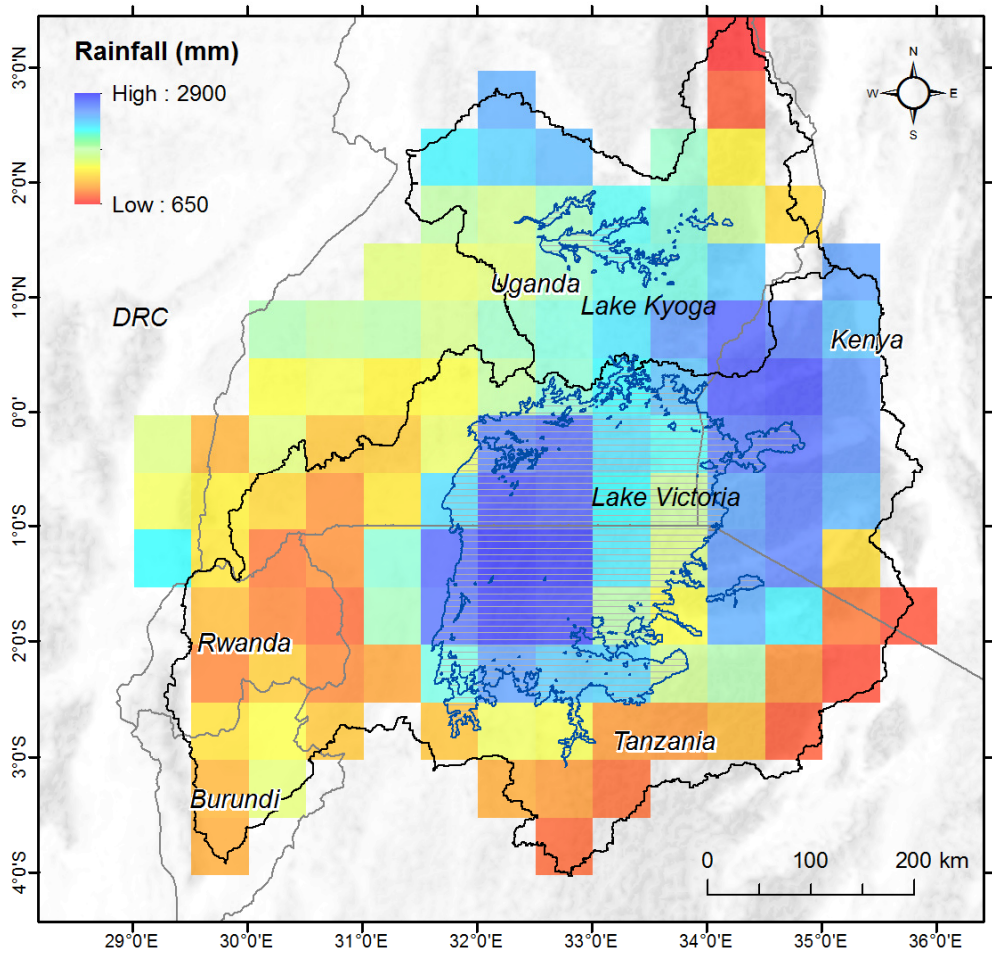


Figure 3. Mean annual rainfall for the period of 2003–2012 derived from TRMM satellite observations. Greater annual rainfall is observed over much of the Lake Victoria and northeastern corner of the Lake Victoria Basin.

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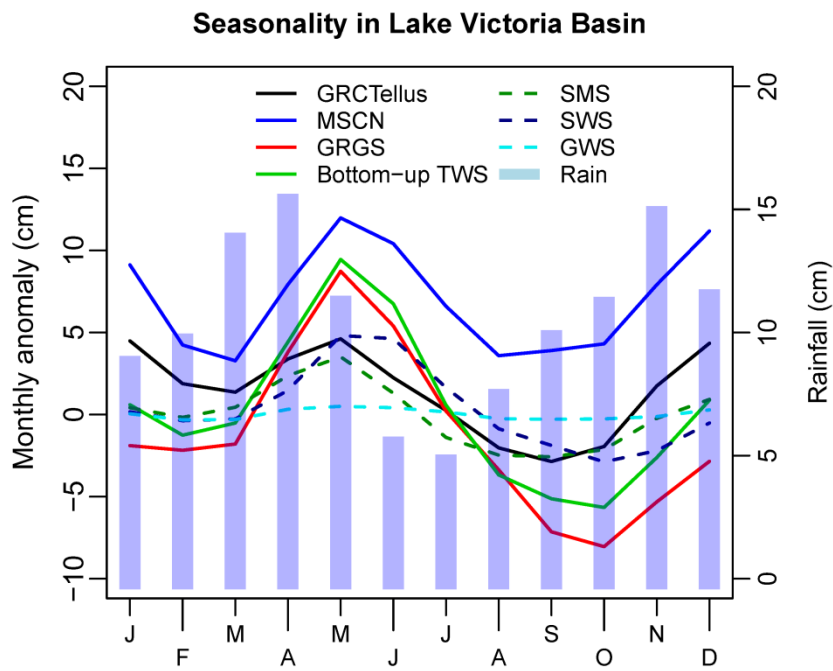


Figure 4. Seasonal pattern (monthly mean from January 2003 to December 2012) of TRMM-derived monthly rainfall, various GRACE-derived Δ TWS signals [GRCTellus=ensemble mean of CSR, JPL and GFZ; GRGS and JPL-Mascons (MSCN) products], the bottom-up TWS; GLDAS LSMs ensemble mean Δ SMS, in situ Δ SWS and borehole-derived estimate of Δ GWS over the Lake Victoria Basin.

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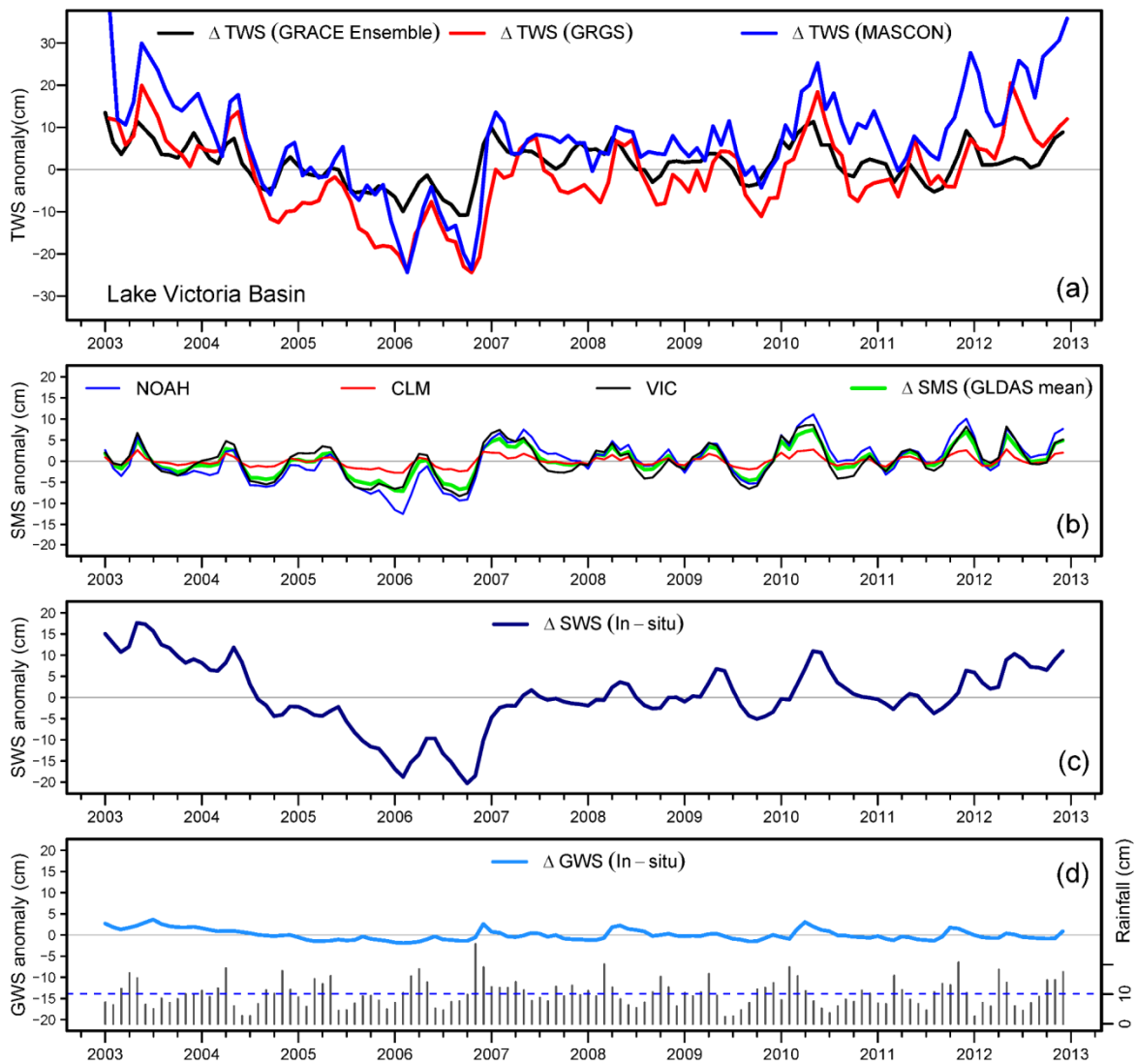


Figure 5. Monthly time-series datasets for the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) from January 2003 to December 2012: (a) *GRCTellus* GRACE-derived Δ TWS (ensemble mean of CSR, GFZ, and JPL), GRGS and JPL-Mascons Δ TWS time-series data; (b) GLDAS-derived Δ SMS (individual signals as well as an ensemble mean of NOAH, CLM, and VIC); (c) lake-level-derived Δ SWS; and (d) borehole-derived Δ GWS time-series data. Note that monthly rainfall records derived from TRMM satellite are plotted on panel (d) where the dashed horizontal line represents the mean monthly rainfall for the period of January 2003 to December 2012.

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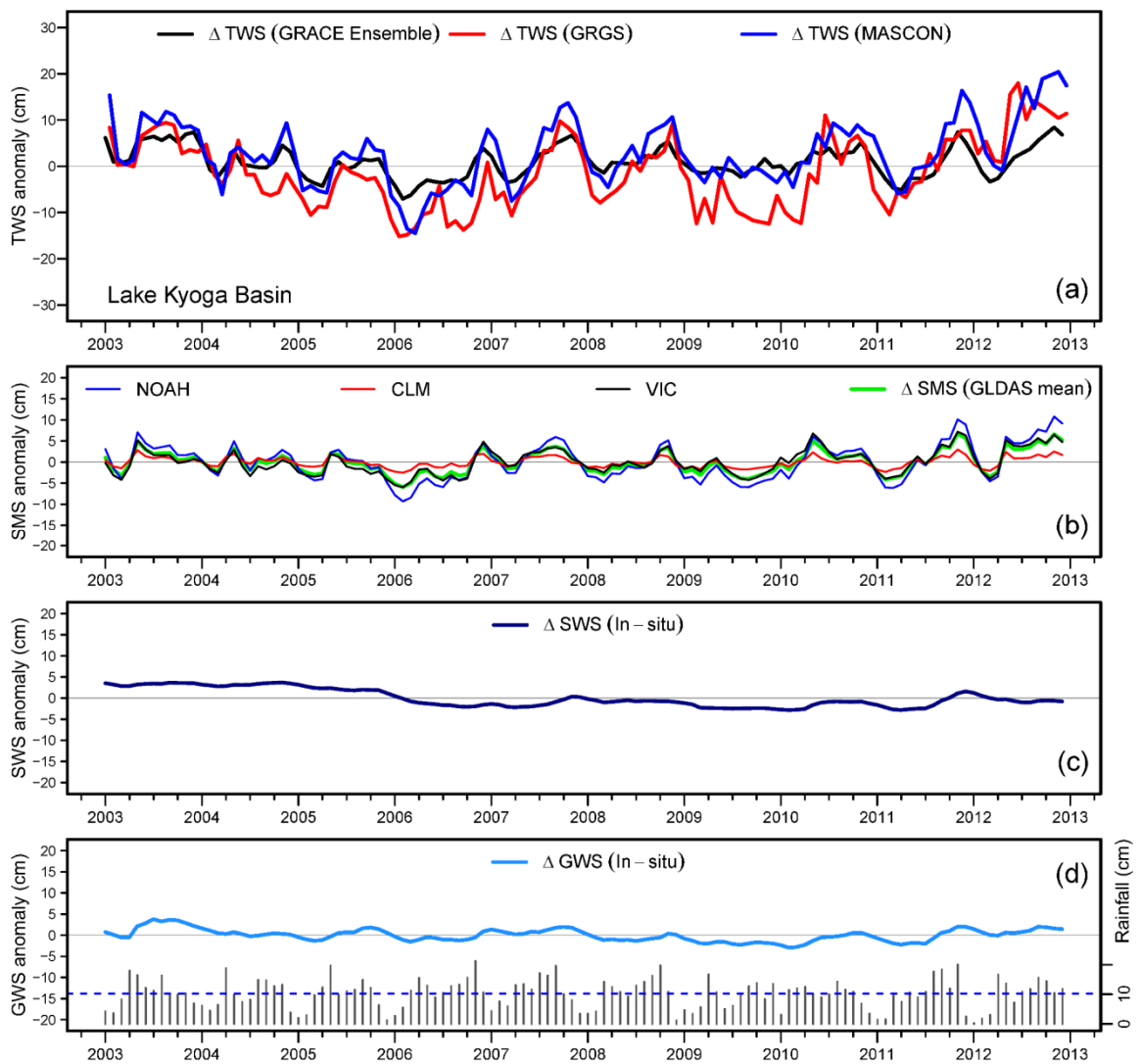


Figure 6. Monthly time-series datasets for the Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB) from January 2003 to December 2012: (a) *GRCTellus* GRACE-derived Δ TWS (ensemble mean of CSR, GFZ, and JPL), GRGS and JPL-Mascons Δ TWS time-series data; (b) GLDAS-derived Δ SMS (individual signals as well as an ensemble mean of NOAH, CLM, and VIC); (c) lake-level-derived Δ SWS; and (d) borehole-derived Δ GWS time-series data. Note that monthly rainfall records derived from TRMM satellite are plotted on panel (d) where the dashed horizontal line represents the mean monthly rainfall for the period of January 2003 to December 2012.

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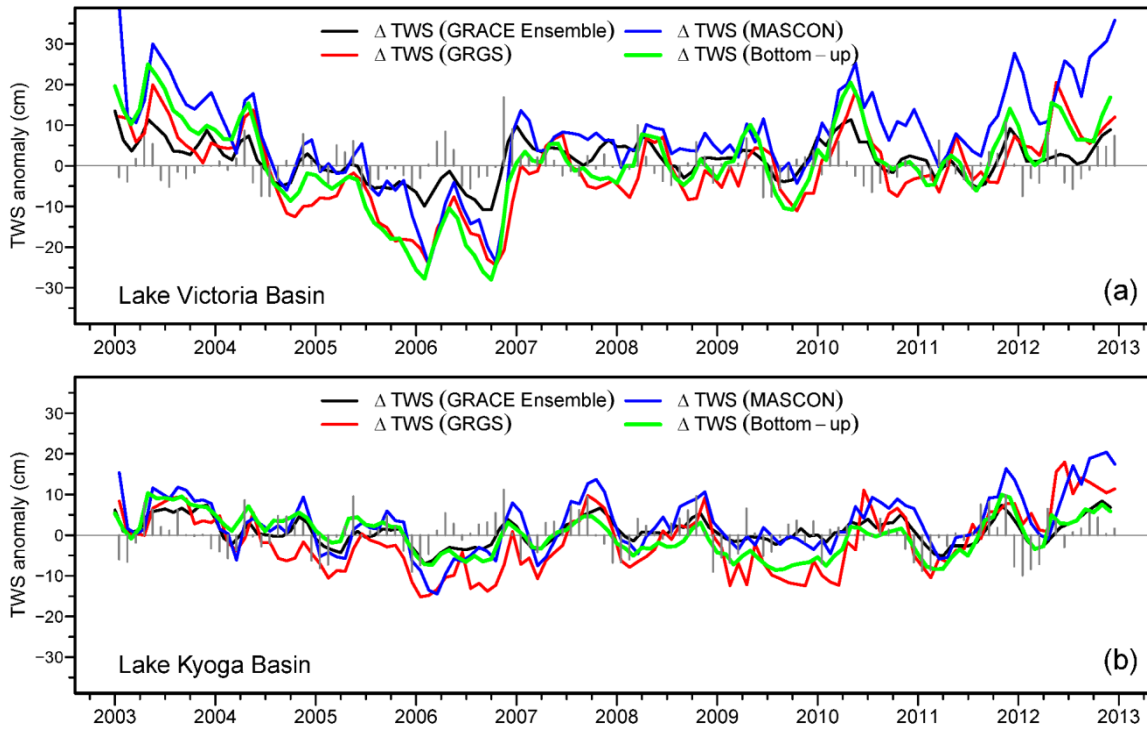


Figure 7. Comparison among time-series records of Δ TWS from *GRCTellus* (ensemble mean of CSR, GFZ, and JPL), GRGS and JPL-Mascons GRACE products and bottom-up Δ TWS for the Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) (a), and Lake Kyoga Basin (LKB) (b) for the period of January 2003 to December 2012. The vertical grey lines represent monthly rainfall anomalies in LVB and LKB.

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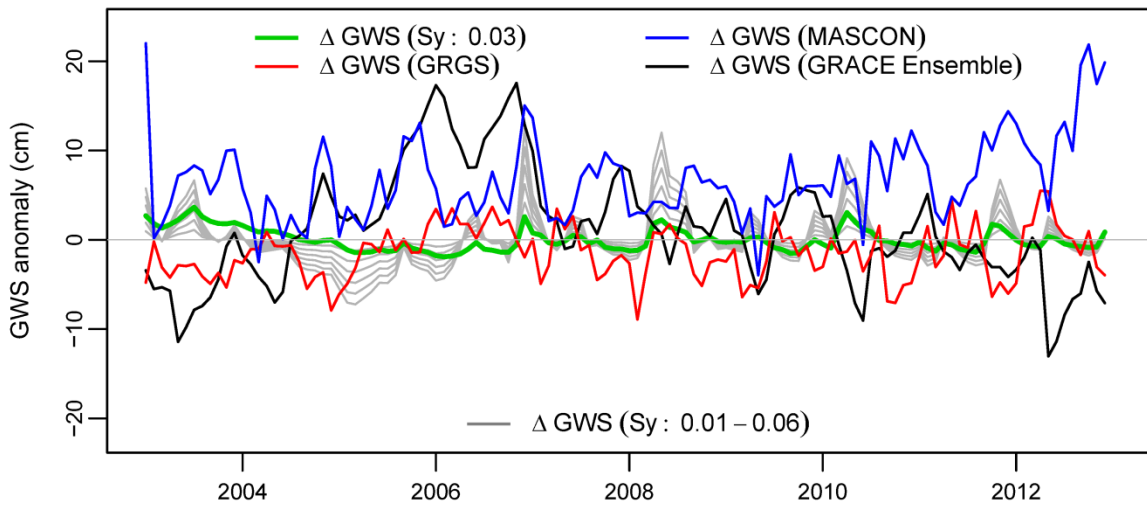
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1206 **Figure 8.** Estimates of in situ Δ GWS and GRACE-derived Δ GWS time-series records
1207 (January 2003 to December 2012) in LVB show a substantial variations among themselves.

1208 An ensemble mean Δ SMS (GLDAS 3 LSMs: CLM, NOAH and VIC) and an unscaled Δ SWS
1209 are applied in the disaggregation of Δ GWS using *GRCTellus* GRACE (ensemble mean of
1210 CSR, GFZ, and JPL)and JPL-Mascons products.

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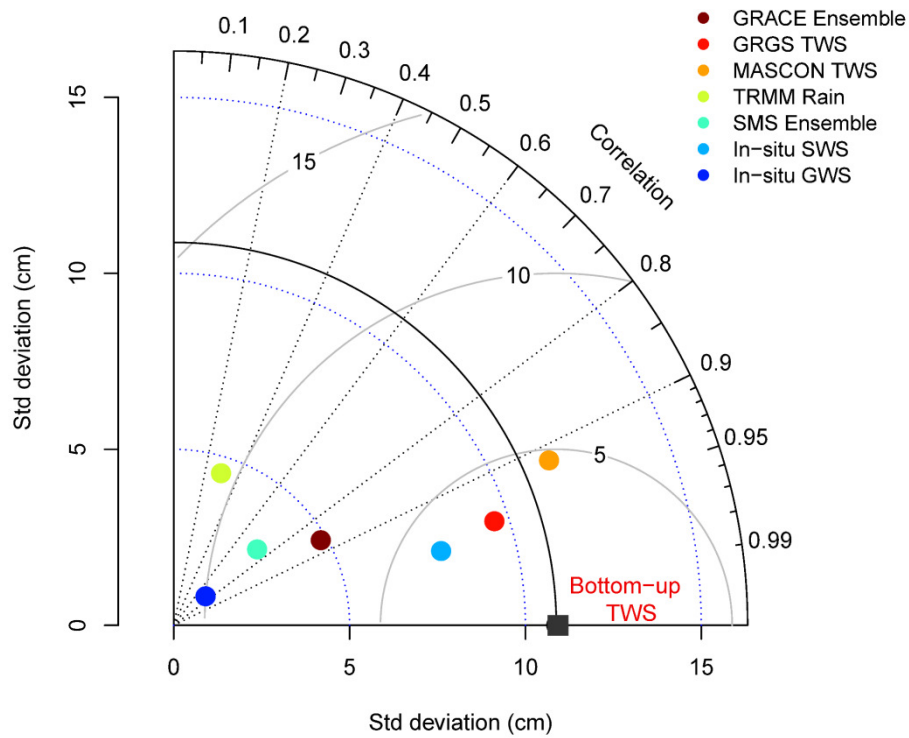


Figure 9. Taylor diagram shows strength of statistical association, variability in amplitudes of time-series records and agreement among the reference data, bottom-up Δ TWS and *GRCTellus* GRACE-derived Δ TWS (ensemble mean of CSR, GFZ, and JPL, GRGS and JPL-Mascons Δ TWS time-series records), simulated Δ SMS (ensemble mean of NOAH, CLM and VIC), in situ Δ SWS, and in situ Δ GWS over the LVB. The solid arcs around the reference point (black square) indicate centred Root Mean Square (RMS) differences among bottom-up Δ TWS and other variables, and the dashed arcs from the origin of the diagram indicate variability in time-series records. Data for Lake Victoria Basin (LVB) are only shown in this diagram.