

# Detection of permanent open water surfaces in central Siberia with ENVISAT ASAR wide swath data with special emphasis on the estimation of methane fluxes from tundra wetlands

Annett Bartsch, Carsten Pathe, Klaus Scipal and Wolfgang Wagner

## ABSTRACT

Permanent water bodies not only store dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> but are essential for the maintenance of wetlands in their proximity. From the viewpoint of greenhouse gas (GHG) accounting wetland functions comprise sequestration of carbon under anaerobic conditions and methane release. The investigated area in central Siberia covers boreal and sub-arctic environments. Small inundated basins are abundant on the sub-arctic Taymir lowlands but also in parts of severe boreal climate where permafrost ice content is high and feature important freshwater ecosystems. Satellite radar imagery (ENVISAT ScanSAR), acquired in summer 2003 and 2004, has been used to derive open water surfaces with 150 m resolution, covering an area of approximately 3 Mkm<sup>2</sup>. The open water surface maps were derived using a simple threshold-based classification method. The results were assessed with Russian forest inventory data, which includes detailed information about water bodies. The resulting classification has been further used to estimate the extent of tundra wetlands and to determine their importance for methane emissions. Tundra wetlands cover 7% (400 000 km<sup>2</sup>) of the study region and methane emissions from hydromorphic soils are estimated to be 45 000 t d<sup>-1</sup> for the Taymir peninsula.

**Key words** | remote sensing, ScanSAR, Siberia, Taymir, tundra, wetland

**Annett Bartsch** (corresponding author)

**Carsten Pathe**

**Wolfgang Wagner**

Institute of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing,  
Vienna University of Technology,  
Gusshausstraße 27–29, A-1040, Vienna,  
Austria

E-mail: ab@ipf.tuwien.ac.at

**Klaus Scipal**

Now at The European Centre for Medium-Range  
Weather Forecasts,  
Shinfield Park,  
Reading RG2 9AX,  
UK

## INTRODUCTION

Freshwater ecosystems constitute wetlands, which play an important role as sink or source of greenhouse gases (GHGs). Wetlands are dynamic and are affected by climate change, as are albedo and fresh water fluxes in the arctic system (Callaghan *et al.* 2004). Their exact role as sink or source is still uncertain, especially over Siberia (Friborg *et al.* 2003).

There have been several attempts to map freshwater ecosystems globally. One recent effort was the creation of the Global Lakes and Wetlands Database (Lehner & Döll 2004). It is based on a collection of databases ranging from digital maps to text records on a local, regional and global scale. Therefore the accuracy varies considerably between different locations and the minimum feature size is 10 ha.

Another useful source for deriving information about water bodies is satellite data, which provides global coverage and a fair spatial resolution. Additionally satellite data can provide up-to-date information on permanent inundation. Products with 300 m resolution were created using multi-spectral data within initiatives such as GLOBCOVER (<http://dup.esrin.esa.int/news/news58.asp>, July 2004). This information is recent, but fairly coarse, with a minimum detectable feature size of 15 ha. McCallum *et al.* (2006) have compared various globally available land cover maps derived from satellite data, identifying an extremely low agreement of the different products over Russia. Frey & Smith (2007) exemplify the poor performance of those

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datasets for wetlands and water bodies within the West Siberian Lowlands. More accurate data is therefore needed, especially for vast and remote regions such as Siberia.

Wetlands act as important sinks and sources of CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and other GHGs in northern latitudes. Current ecosystem models concentrate on CO<sub>2</sub>. Methane, which is the second most important GHG, is still scarcely considered. Approximately 20% of global methane emissions originate from natural wetlands (Mitra *et al.* 2005). Emissions are temperature-sensitive and have increased between 22–66% between 1970 and 2000 over some sub-arctic wetlands in Scandinavia (Christensen *et al.* 2003). Russian methane emissions account for more than half of the global emissions (Stolbovoi *et al.* 2004). Emissions occur especially in fens but also from shallow lakes of the Siberian tundra biome. The sediments which act as source originate from the Pleistocene and emission from them accounts for half of the annual methanogenesis in this region (Zimov *et al.* 1997). Apart from the incomplete account of greenhouse gases, global climate models consider open water surfaces and wetlands in their function for humidification of the atmosphere and thus indirectly impact the carbon cycle only on continental scale (Krinner 2003).

The present work has been carried out within the framework of the SIBERIA II project, which deals with multi-sensor concepts for greenhouse gas accounting in northern Eurasia (Schmullius *et al.* 2003). The study area comprises about 3 Mkm<sup>2</sup> and stretches south–north from Lake Baikal to the Taymir peninsula (Figure 1). Satellite radar images acquired by the European ENVIRONMENTAL SATellite (ENVISAT) are used to derive permanently inundated basins. The density of those lakes is used for the delineation of the Tundra wetland area.

The aim of this study is to:

1. test a radar-image-based approach for inundation mapping over large areas,
2. update and improve the existing land cover database in central Siberia,
3. derive wetland information important for GHG accounting, especially for estimating methane emissions in the subarctic environment,
4. estimate methane fluxes for tundra wetlands within the SIBERIA II project area, and
5. provide a base for monitoring fresh water ecosystems.

## STUDY AREA AND FRESHWATER ECOSYSTEMS

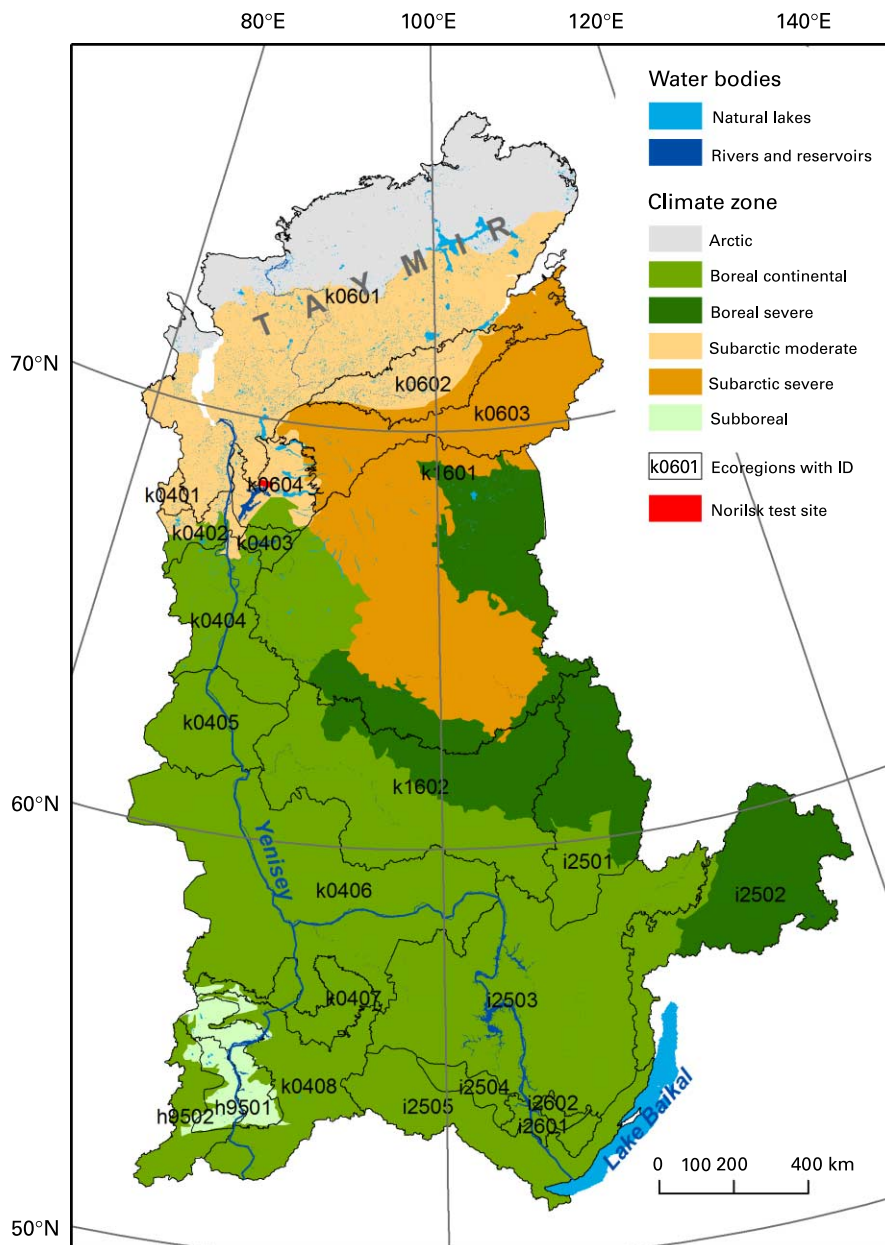
The SIBERIA II study area is located in central Siberia and covers tundra, boreal and steppe environment (Figure 1). It includes the transition zone from continuous to non-permafrost and maritime to continental climate. The southern Taymir Peninsula features a very important and extensive tundra fresh water ecosystem. Three Ramsar wetlands of international importance can be found in this moderate sub-arctic environment. The largest is Pura/Gorbitta covering 26 000 km<sup>2</sup>. Most of the bigger lakes on the Taymir Peninsula have been formed by thermokarst processes related to high ground ice content (Tumel 2002), e.g. Lake Labaz (Andreev *et al.* 2002) and Lake Middendorf (Laing & Smol 2003). Permafrost depth ranges from 300–600 m. During summer, water tables are less than 10 cm below the ground surface in the valleys (Schmidt and Bölter 2002). The active layer depth increased in this region during the last 20 years, when anthropogenic impacts on the terrain had a greater effect on the thermal regime of permafrost than climate change (Pavlov & Moskalenko 2002). Surface disturbances are accompanied by a considerable increase in the depth of seasonal thawing and surface subsidence. Waterlogged sites in permafrost areas show varying diurnal methane fluxes, which are related to the specific thermal regime (Nakano *et al.* 2000).

A high number of lakes also exist in lowlands of the boreal severe climate of the middle east of the SIBERIA II area where ground ice contents are comparably high, similar to the Taymir lowlands (Stolbovoi & McCallum 2002). These features do not occur in the remaining parts, but several large water reservoirs are located in the boreal continental zone. Salt lakes occur in the steppe of the south west. The Yenisei river basin makes up 60% of the SIBERIA II region. Other watersheds are tributaries to the Kolyma and Lena Rivers and there are some smaller catchments on the Taymir Peninsula.

## METHODOLOGY

### Validation data

Information on water surfaces is included in a forest inventory database provided by Russian forest enterprises. They are based on ground surveys and aerial photo



**Figure 1** | Natural lakes, reservoirs and rivers of the SIBERIA II region – final result; with GHG accounting ecoregions and climate zones.

interpretations, and are available as GIS layers. This database constitutes the most accurate and detailed ground data currently available. However, the inventoried sites only form a small proportion of the area covered in this study (1.5%) and are mostly confined to features finer than the resolution (150 m) of the satellite images used.

Therefore additional data has been used for validation, specifically these are (1) a MODIS land cover map; (2) a water

body map derived from topographic maps; (3) a digital chart of the world and (4) a global lakes and wetlands database. All validation data are summarized in [Table 1](#). The MODIS land cover map derived within the SIBERIA II project ([Schmullius \*et al.\* 2003](#)) is used for comparison. The water bodies map which is based on topographic maps was provided by IIASA (International Institute of Applied System Analysis). These maps date back to the 1970s and therefore do not show recent

**Table 1** | Available digital validation data which contains a water class distributed by the WWF or available to the project through IIASA, Laxenburg and University of Wales, Swansea (UWS)

Database	Availability	Source	Resolution/scale
Forest inventory	Selected sites	Aerial photographs, field surveys, IIASA	< 1:10 000
Vector water layer	National	Topographic maps, IIASA	1:200 000 Features > 10 ha
MODIS land cover	SIBERIA II area	MODIS classification, UWS	500 m
GLWD	Global	Diverse, <a href="#">Lehner &amp; Döll (2004)</a>	Features > 10 ha

changes due to human impact and natural dynamics. The digital chart of the world (DCW) is a global vector dataset, which is provided by the Environmental Systems Research Institute, Inc. (ESRI). The Global Lakes and Wetlands Database (GLWD) by [Lehner & Döll \(2004\)](#), distributed by the World Wildlife Fund, is a recent compilation of a range of datasets, including the DCW. Within the SIBERIA II area, the water classes (lakes, reservoirs and rivers) are mostly based on the DCW. However, recent information on the extent of new reservoirs has been included in the form of circular features, which represent the same surface area as reported in national digital databases (see [Figure 2](#)). This allows for the accounting of water on a general level such as ecoregion summaries. Additionally, georeferenced Landsat 7-ETM + data, provided by the Global Land Cover Facility of the University of Maryland, is used for a visual, qualitative assessment. A further dataset with water bodies of sufficient resolution is the Version 2 SRTM Water Body Dataset (SWBD, 90 m). It is, however, limited to regions south of 60°N.

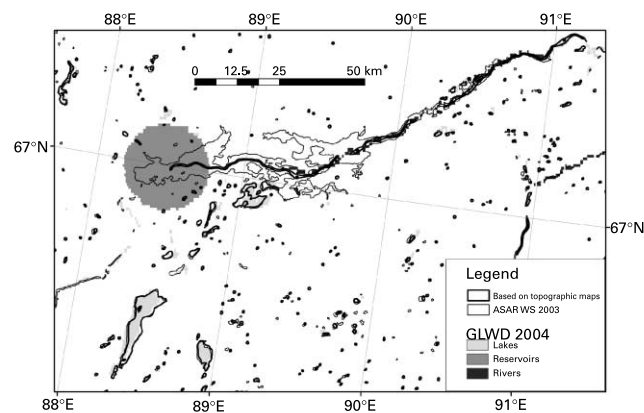
### Sensor and satellite data

ENVISAT was launched by ESA (European Space Agency) in February 2002, into a sun synchronous orbit, at about 800 km altitude and an inclination of 98.55°. The ASAR (Advanced Synthetic Aperture Radar) instrument is one of the instruments installed aboard. It provides radar data in different modes with varying spatial resolution and alternating polarizations in C-band (~5.6 cm wavelength). This study utilizes the ASAR data acquired in Wide Swath (WS) mode at VV polarization. The acquired images have a pixel spacing of 75 m, which corresponds to an approximate spatial resolution of 150 m. Each swath covers an area of 405 km width. All available images were acquired on

ascending orbits. More than 500 scenes are available for central Siberia for the years 2003 and 2004, most of them acquired during the winter period. Therefore only about 100 scenes each were processed for the summer periods (July and August) 2003 and 2004. Together, they provide an almost complete coverage (95%), enabling mapping of open water surfaces for the whole study area.

### Pre-processing

The ASAR WS images are swath partitions of approximately 405 km in length ([Desnos et al. 2000](#)). For further processing this data has to be georeferenced with respect to earth curvature and the topography ([Meier et al. 1993](#)). Digital elevation data of sufficient resolution is only available below 60°N from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM, 100 m × 100 m). However, since wetlands occupy mostly flat regions, and the topography in the study area is moderate in higher latitudes, the earth curvature based



**Figure 2** | The new Kureika River reservoir. Comparison of ASAR WS water bodies with global (GLWD, [Lehner & Döll 2004](#)) and national (based on topographic maps) digital databases.

correction is sufficient. Additionally, the effects due to varying incidence angle and distance from sensor (near and far range) have been removed from the backscatter measurements (Roth *et al.* 1993; van Zyl *et al.* 1993).

### Classification of open water surface areas

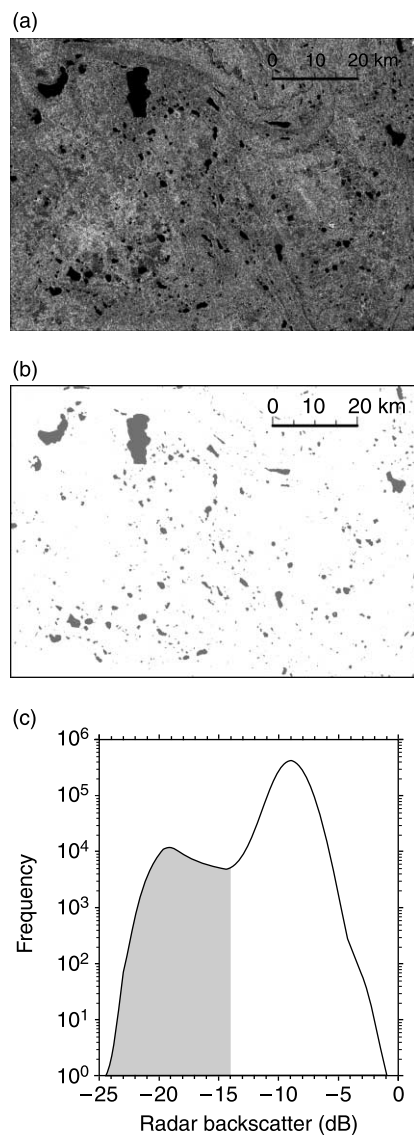
Open water surfaces larger than 2 ha can readily be identified using a simple threshold-based classification applied to the normalized image data (Figure 3). Specular

reflection (away from the sensor) from calm water surfaces results in low backscatter. This phenomenon enables a straightforward identification of inundation in areas with limited vegetation coverage. Inundation patterns, in turn, are the key to wetland detection when using radar data.

Thresholds are set to separate areas of low, medium and high backscatter. The threshold values are chosen independently from acquisition date or location. It should be noted that this approach limits the detection of large water bodies at some dates due to wind action, but enables efficient processing of the large amount of data. Low values, similar to specular reflection from water, can occur in regions of radar shadow. As this effect only occurs in terrain where lakes are not expected, these regions are excluded from further analysis. The regions affected are derived from SRTM and GTOPO30 digital elevation data and cover 20% of the SIBERIA II area.

### Post-processing for wetland detection and methane accounting

Permanent open water bodies play an important role in wetland identification where they are shallow. This is often related to abundance. This means not simply abundance of water, but a high density of single (small) features. Permanently inundated basins, below a size of 8 ha, in the sub-arctic regions, indicate tundra wetlands according to the Ramsar classification scheme (Frazier 1999). To perform a density analysis, these features were separated from the complete classification result. Based on information from topographic maps a density threshold has been set to  $5000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ km}^{-2}$  of water surface area from ASAR WS-derived features between 2 and 8 ha for the delineation of Ramsar wetland type Vt. It is referred to as 'Method 1' below. Since no full ASAR WS coverage was available to provide this information with respect to the Ramsar classification scheme (lakes  $< 8$  ha) for the entire sub-arctic zone of the study area, an alternative approach has been developed. This approach (Method 2) makes use of the differing spatial scale of the MODIS land cover and the ASAR WS water bodies map. In a first step, all lakes are selected with a size below approximately 30 ha from the ASAR WS water bodies layer. Then all lakes which overlap with the tundra area as classified with MODIS (500 m pixel



**Figure 3** | Threshold classification example of a tundra site: (a) grayscale normalized image, (b) classified image with lakes in gray and (c) histogram of normalized backscatter in dB.

spacing) have been extracted. The same density analysis as described above for the tundra ponds (Method 1) was carried out for the selected features.

One major requirement for use in GHG accounting based on the GIS approach as pursued by IIASA is complete coverage over the study region. Since ASAR WS data is only available for 95% of the region, gaps need to be filled with other data. Most appropriate is the Russian base data, although this is generalized and only contains features larger than 10 ha. Therefore, the ASAR WS water layer was post-processed in order to provide spatial continuity over the entire area. Morphology operations were used for eliminating noise components in the binary image (erode followed by dilate using a  $3 \times 3$  window). The resulting image contained features larger than approximately 5 ha and was then converted to vector format (polygons), which allowed the selection of features with a minimum size of 10 ha, as available from the Russian base data. Gaps were identified and the corresponding information was selected from the Russian base data. Finally both layers were merged.

Grid-based ecosystem models require input on coarser resolution (e.g.  $0.5^\circ$  by LPJ-DGVM, e.g. Beer et al. 2006). Other land cover products by SIBERIA II contain information on 500 m pixel spacing. Therefore a layer of fraction of inundation has been produced on this level of detail ( $500 \text{ m} \times 500 \text{ m}$ ).

## RESULTS

Table 2 lists the percentage and proportion of lakes found in each landscape group resembling different climatic

zones. The statistics are based on the combined layer with features  $> 10$  ha. The northern region, with an arctic and sub-arctic tundra environment, has a high percentage of water coverage, and more than 39 000 water bodies, as identified by ASAR WS. If smaller detectable lakes (2–8 ha) are taken into account the number of lakes in the sub-arctic moderate zone rises to more than 150 000, which totals to  $2500 \text{ km}^2$  of additional water surface for natural lakes.

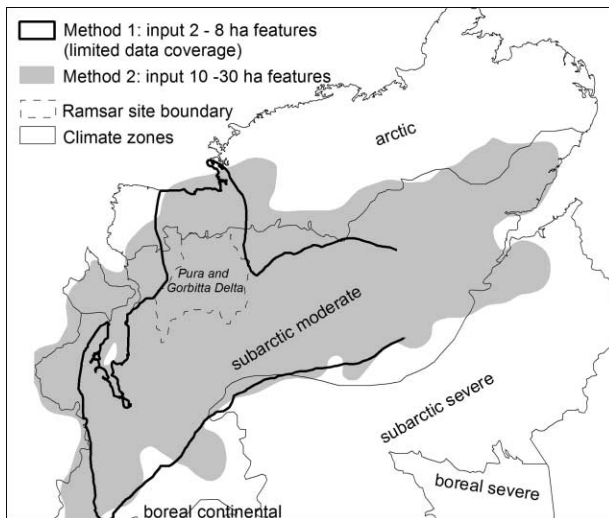
Regions where surface water from small lakes (2–8 ha) adds up to more than  $5000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ km}^{-2}$  are shown in Figure 4. The tundra wetlands, as defined by Method 2 (use of ASAR WS water bodies within MODIS tundra class), cover approximately  $400\,000 \text{ km}^2$ , which corresponds to more than 7% of the entire SIBERIA II study region. All Ramsar wetlands of international importance on south-western Taymir are located within the ASAR WS-derived tundra wetland zone (Bartsch et al. 2007). The mean density for the Pura/Gorbitta site is approximately  $5800 \text{ m}^2 \text{ km}^{-2}$  by lakes between 2 and 8 ha in size. The mean density for larger lakes, up to 30 ha, derived by Method 2 (10–30 ha within MODIS tundra class) within Pura/Gorbitta is ca.  $7000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ km}^{-2}$  (Table 3). This information can serve as input for waterfowl habit identification (Bartsch et al. 2007).

### Qualitative assessment

Topographic maps were used for visual evaluation of the classification result. There are some discrepancies since these maps date back to the 1970s and therefore do not show recent changes due to human impact and natural dynamics. The ASAR WS water bodies map provides an update on these

**Table 2** | Land coverage of water bodies  $> 10$  ha for each landscape group for (a) all water bodies and (b) natural inundated basins only, excluding large rivers and reservoirs

Landscape group (climatic zone)	(a) All water bodies in % of Siberia II area	(b) Natural lakes in % of SIBERIA II area	Sum area $\text{km}^2$	Number
Arctic	3.95	2.33	5254	3921
Sub-arctic moderate	8.44	5.16	20 383	35 900
Sub-arctic severe	1.05	0.44	1989	2376
Boreal continental	1.37	0.16	2469	4383
Boreal severe	0.37	0.22	1010	1901
Sub-boreal (steppe)	4.30	0.71	413	437
Sum for SIBERIA II area	19.00	9.00	31 518	48 918



**Figure 4** | Tundra wetland zone derived from ASAR open water features. Method 1: combination Russian base data density analyses of lakes 10–30 ha which are classified as tundra in the MODIS land cover layer. Method 2: density analysis of lakes 2–8 ha where ASAR WS is available in accordance with the Ramsar wetland classification scheme.

changes. One example is shown in [Figure 2](#). The area of the reservoir created on the Kureika River mapped by the GLWD ([Lehner and Döll 2004](#)) only shows up as a circular feature since its exact boundaries were not known but only its size of 511 km<sup>2</sup>. In comparison, ASAR WS identifies 517 km<sup>2</sup> for the reservoir surface in summer 2003.

### Quantitative assessment and cross comparison

80% of all water areas mapped in the inventory could be identified with ASAR WS compared to the Russian forest inventory data. Features not identified are rivers, which are below ASAR WS resolution, and water bodies which lack sufficiently smooth surface conditions during the acquisition of the ASAR WS images. A detailed assessment has been carried out for the Norilsk test site, where a sufficient number of lakes and rivers can be found ([Santoro \*et al.\* 2004](#)). The test site has a size of ca. 640 km<sup>2</sup>. The extent of water surfaces as classified from ASAR WS is approxi-

mately 100 km<sup>2</sup> ([Figure 5](#)). The result is assessed using the Kappa coefficient (e.g. [Congalton & Green 1999](#)) as a measure of reliability of the classification accuracy. The Kappa coefficient is 0.82 with an overall classification accuracy of 95%.

The opposite effect (as found with the detailed forest inventory data) occurs when comparing the results with the MODIS-derived land cover data since their spatial resolution is coarser. Only 50% (relative to ASAR WS) of water surface area is identified at the MODIS 500 m resolution. This agrees with assessments within the northern parts of the adjacent West Siberian Lowlands ([Frey & Smith 2007](#)).

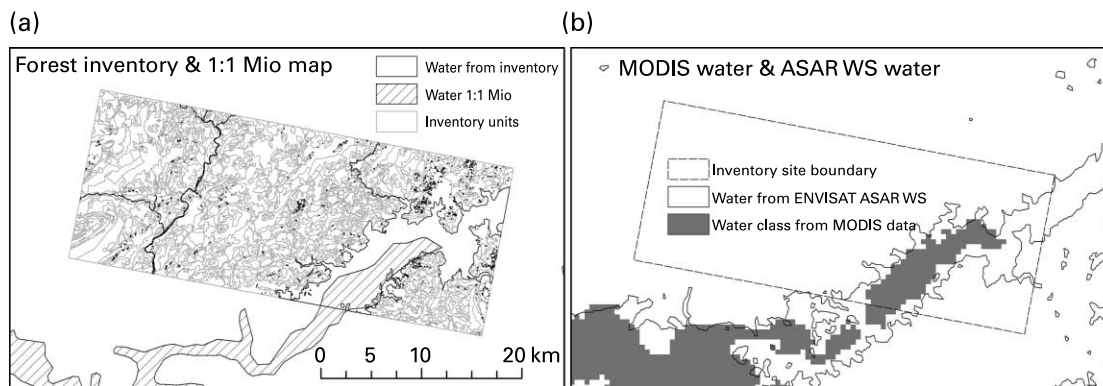
[Figure 6](#) shows the result of a comparison with MODIS level 2 land cover classes. The area in km<sup>2</sup> of open water derived from ASAR WS within each MODIS land cover class is shown. Less than 1000 km<sup>2</sup> coincide with the MODIS water class. It can be clearly seen that most confusion occurs in the Tundra area (9500 km<sup>2</sup> of open water surfaces), where small features below the MODIS resolution are dominant ([Bartsch \*et al.\* 2004](#)). The largest absolute differences occur within ecoregion 'k601' which is located in the sub-arctic and arctic biome (see [Figure 1](#)). Within this region and the adjacent k401 and k1602, less than 10% of ASAR water bodies are detected by MODIS. More detail and additional information is gained in comparison to the GLWD (see [Figures 2 and 7](#)). Tundra wetlands themselves are not considered by the MODIS classification scheme.

### Methane emissions from tundra and boreal lakes in regions of high ice content in permafrost

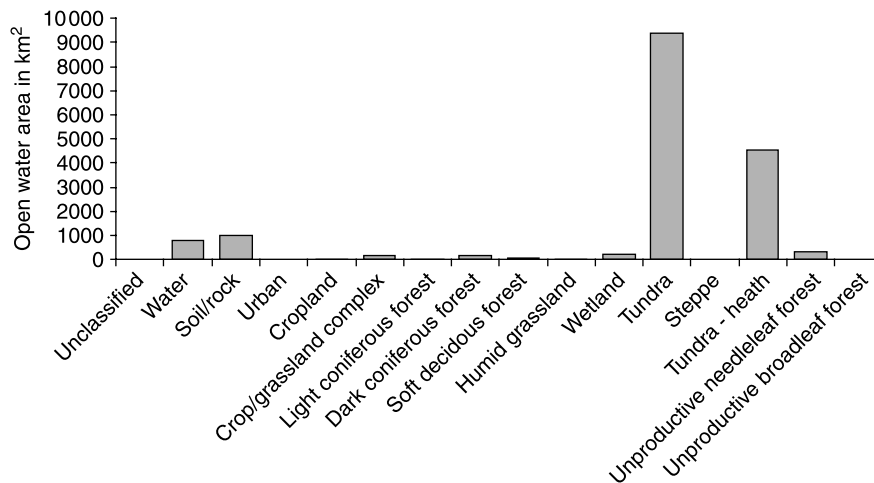
A mean methane emission from tundra lakes of 3.5 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> has been measured near Tarko-Sale, Western Siberia, ([Gal'chenko \*et al.\* 2001](#)) and 7.6 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in the Kolyma Lowlands, Yakutia, North-eastern Siberia ([Zimov \*et al.\* 1997](#)). Applying these numbers to the results of the ASAR WS classification, this would add up to an emission of ca. 9 t d<sup>-1</sup> and 19 t d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, for permanent

**Table 3** | Interpolated water density (within a circle with radius of 10 km) in m<sup>2</sup> km<sup>-2</sup> for the Pura/Gorbitta wetland area of international importance

Source for density analysis	Mean	Min.	Max.	Standard deviation
2–8 ha tundra ponds	5786	269	41 003	4947
< 30 ha and MODIS tundra	7121	1830	15 270	2077



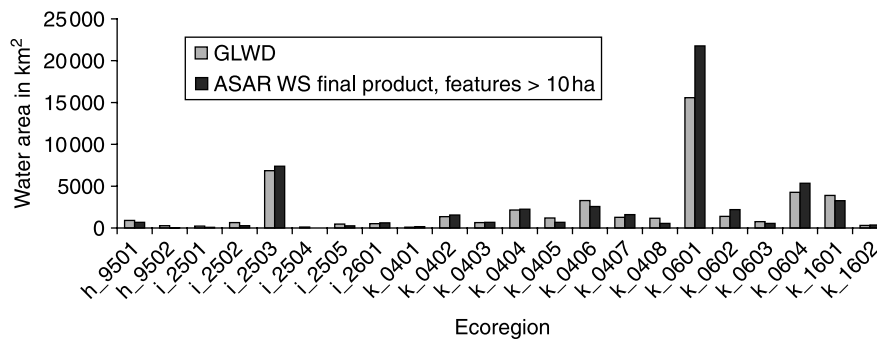
**Figure 5** | Norilsk validation site. (a) Forest Inventory units and water class plus water bodies from a 1:1 Mkm<sup>2</sup> map (both provided by IIASA). (b) Comparison of water bodies between ASAR WS and MODIS land cover (from UWS).



**Figure 6** | Area (in km<sup>2</sup>) of water bodies per MODIS level 2 land cover class for final water layer (natural lakes only).

lakes within the moderate subarctic zone of the SIBERIA II area. According to Zelenev (1996), approximately 120 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> of methane is emitted on average from hydromorphic tundra soils (Gleysols in permafrost) found

in this region (Stolbovoi & McCallum 2002). This adds up to about 45 000 t d<sup>-1</sup> of methane emission from the Taymir wetlands during the growing season. Although the contribution of methane from lakes is much lower than that of



**Figure 7** | Comparison of water surface area in ASAR WS (final product, including added information from topographic maps) and the GLWD 2004 by ecoregion (for location, see Figure 1).



the surrounding wetland area in summer, emissions from lakes continue during winter and the quantification of their spatial extent is therefore of importance. If seen in relation to the estimate by *Zhuang et al. (2004)* of  $51 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$  for the arctic environments, the Taymir contribution equals approximately a quarter of the total high latitude methane emissions and 40% of Russia's arctic net methane emissions, respectively. The extent of tundra wetlands in general, however, is underestimated in the database used by *Zhuang et al. (2004)*: therefore, the overall emissions might be higher and thus the contribution from the Taymir lowlands lower.

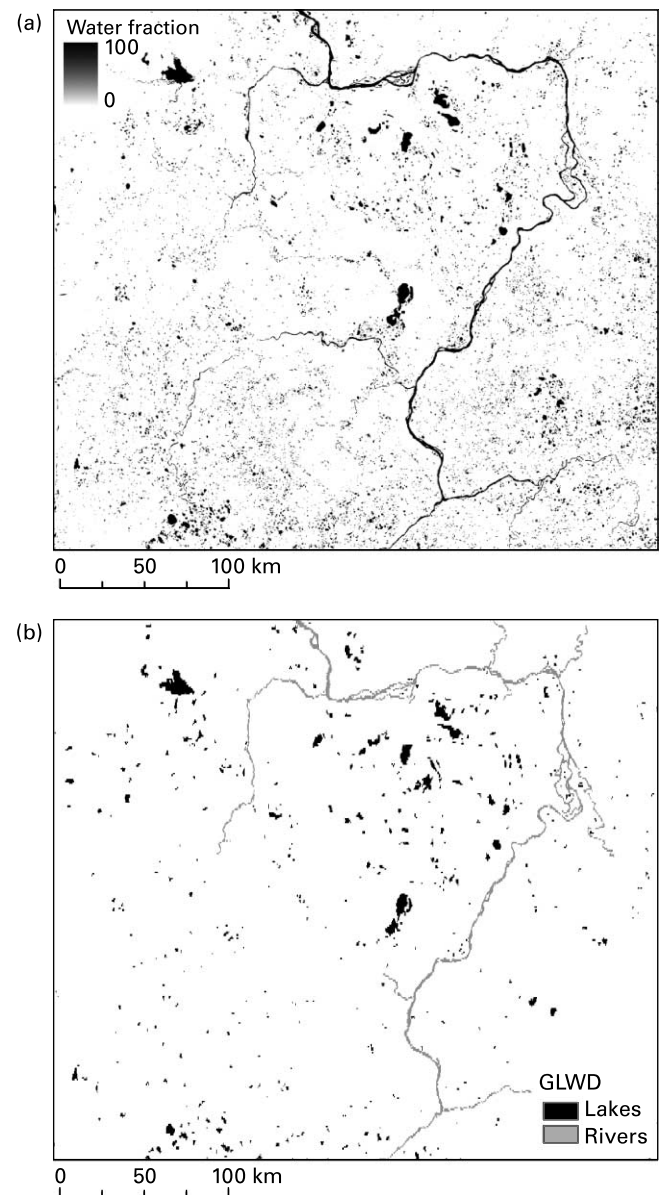
## DISCUSSION

ASAR WS data provide detailed and precise information on permanent inundation over large areas. For applicability on a global scale, however, data availability is crucial. The observation frequency would theoretically allow the investigation of dynamics related to hydrological changes on a global scale. In practice the application of the technique is, however, limited to regional scale analysis by the competing acquisition modes of the ASAR instrument. Only one of the modes, Image, Alternate Polarisation, Wide Swath or Global Mode can be requested at any one time from ENVISAT. Using Global Mode data might be a solution for this problem. The repetition rate of Global Mode is comparably high over central Siberia as it is operated permanently as background mode whenever there is no specific acquisition requested (*Bartsch et al. 2008*). The spatial resolution of 1 km also allows operational processing on global scale at reasonable cost (*Wagner et al. 2007*). However, the coarse resolution may constrain the applicability of the data for hydrological purposes to the level of detail required for tundra wetlands monitoring as presented in this paper.

Inter-annual variability could not be assessed since there is insufficient spatial overlap between data from 2003 and 2004 in the thermokarst-affected regions. Changes might occur due to thermokarst dynamics and permafrost degradation as identified with Landsat-TM data by *Frohn et al. (2005)* and *Stow et al. (2004)*, respectively, for Alaska.

Land cover data, which is used for ecosystem models, is based on comparably coarse resolution satellite data such as

from MODIS or MERIS data (GLCC, GLOBCOVER, etc.). In order to enhance their level of detail, the ASAR WS classification results can be provided on the same pixel spacing using water fraction instead of binary information (water or non-water, see *Figure 8*). This can then be used for global dynamic vegetation models such as LPJ-DGVM (*Beer et al. 2006*). Although data in wide swath mode are sufficient to map small tundra ponds, polygon mire systems



**Figure 8** | Permanent water bodies of the Taymir lowlands. (a) Water fraction map derived from ASAR WS water bodies classification. (b) Rivers and lakes as available from the global lakes and wetlands database (*Lehner & Döll, 2004*).

cannot be captured directly. This requires finer resolution as low as 2.5 m (Grosse *et al.* 2005, data source CORONA) which is beneficial for local studies but not feasible on a regional or global scale. In addition to the density of lakes and water fraction, information for carbon accounting can be derived from lake size itself (Kortelainen *et al.* 2004), as demonstrated for a SAR (JERS-1)-based analysis over Canada by Telmer & Costa (2007).

Compared to methane emissions from wet tundra soil the daily contribution from shallow lakes seems to play a minor role, but methane is also emitted during winter time from these small tundra lakes. Zimov *et al.* (1997) estimated that 75% of fluxes from Siberian lakes occur during winter time, which roughly corresponds to its length throughout the tundra biome. This underlines the importance to quantify the winter fluxes. The required ground measurements, however, are scarce. Climate change impacts especially the length of the growing season. With that, the weight of shallow lakes and moist tundra soils with respect to greenhouse gas accounting is shifted. Apart from such seasonal changes, the spatial distribution of these water bodies underlies variation. Thermokarst formation may be intensified by the increasing length of the growing season (Ostercamp & Romanovsky 1999), which supports the formation of lakes in the first moment when water becomes available from thawing permafrost where topography permits this development (Callaghan *et al.* 2004). This supports carbon sequestration under anaerobic conditions. If this water supply ceases and water tables are lowered, however, this process might be reversed and CO<sub>2</sub> will be released whilst CH<sub>4</sub> emissions will be reduced (Gorham 1991). Diverse patterns of peat accumulation in relationship to local topography and ground ice contents make predictions of climate change difficult. A high level of detail concerning hydrological dynamics could be provided by ASAR WS on a global scale which may enhance such assessments.

## CONCLUSIONS

Although there is only limited data for a quantitative assessment available, it can be concluded that the ASAR WS water bodies map provides sufficiently accurate ( $Kappa > 0.8$ ) and especially up-to-date information.

Additional information is gained for sub-arctic environments when compared to MODIS-derived land cover. Regions which have been so far classified as tundra (or included in 'grasslands and shrubs' on MODIS level 1) are characterized by numerous small shallow inundated basins, which coincide with a specific wetland type in this environment.

The chosen approach has been proven applicable over a large area and can be expanded in order to derive information for the entire circumpolar region. Data fusion allows the integration of this data into GHG accounting databases in the form of measurements of (1) water fraction as considered in dynamic global vegetation models (such as LPJ or SDGVM) or (2) vector-based as required by the IIASA GIS landscape ecosystem approach (Bartsch *et al.* 2004).

The extent of freshwater ecosystems in the tundra zone can be derived from either solely ENVISAT ASAR WS or in combination with MODIS land cover maps. Tundra wetlands account for 7% of the central Siberian region. The derived layers (wetlands and water bodies) form a valuable base for monitoring these habitats and determination of carbon cycle components.

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