

RECLAMATION

Managing Water in the West

Runoff Efficiency and Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest

**Research and Development Office
Science and Technology Program
(Final Report) ST-2015-8730-01**



**U.S. Department of the Interior
Bureau of Reclamation
Research and Development Office**

October 2018

Mission Statements

The U.S. Department of the Interior protects America's natural resources and heritage, honors our cultures and tribal communities, and supplies the energy to power our future.

The Department of the Interior protects and manages the Nation's natural resources and cultural heritage; provides scientific and other information about those resources; and honors its trust responsibilities or special commitments to American Indians, Alaska Natives, and affiliated island communities.

Disclaimer:

Information in this report may not be used for advertising or promotional purposes. The data and findings should not be construed as an endorsement of any product or firm by the Bureau of Reclamation, Department of Interior, or Federal Government. The products evaluated in the report were evaluated for purposes specific to the Bureau of Reclamation mission. Reclamation gives no warranties or guarantees, expressed or implied, for the products evaluated in this report, including merchantability or fitness for a particular purpose.

| | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|--|
| REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE | | <i>Form Approved</i> <i>OMB No. 0704-0188</i> |
| T1. REPORT DATE: OCTOBER 2018 | T2. REPORT TYPE: RESEARCH | T3. DATES COVERED |
| T4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE Runoff Efficiency and Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest | | 5a. CONTRACT NUMBER |
| | | 5b. GRANT NUMBER R15AC00049 |
| | | 5c. PROGRAM ELEMENT NUMBER 1541 (S&T) |
| 6. AUTHOR(S) Dagmar Llewellyn, 505-462-3594, dllewellyn@usbr.gov Andy Wood, 303-497-8257, andywood@ucar.edu Flavio Lehner, 303-497-8395, flehner@ucar.edu | | 5d. PROJECT NUMBER ST-2015-8730-01 |
| | | 5e. TASK NUMBER |
| | | 5f. WORK UNIT NUMBER ALB-402 |
| 7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Albuquerque Area Office 555 Broadway Blvd. NE, Suite 100 Albuquerque, NM 87102 Research Applications Laboratory National Center for Atmospheric Research P.O. Box 3000 Boulder, CO 80307-3000 | | 8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER |
| 9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Research and Development Office U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Reclamation, PO Box 25007, Denver CO 80225-0007 | | 10. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S ACRONYM(S) R&D: Research and Development Office BOR/USBR: Bureau of Reclamation DOI: Department of the Interior |
| | | 11. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S REPORT NUMBER(S) ST-2015-8730-01 |
| 12. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT Final report can be downloaded from Reclamation's website: https://www.usbr.gov/research/ | | |
| 13. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES | | |
| 14. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) This project involved two primary components: (1) evaluation of runoff efficacy changes using observed and paleo reconstructed flows and (2) exploration of the benefits of including available seasonal temperature forecasts into seasonal water supply forecast models to improve their skill. | | |
| 15. SUBJECT TERMS Rio Grande, Runoff, Water Supply Forecasting | | |

| | | | | | |
|--|-------------------------|--------------------------|--|----------------------------|--|
| 16. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF: | | | 17. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT U | 18. NUMBER OF PAGES | 19a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE PERSON Dagmar Llewellyn |
| a. REPORT U | b. ABSTRACT U | c. THIS PAGE U | | | 19b. TELEPHONE NUMBER 505-462-3594 |

S Standard Form 298 (Rev. 8/98)
P Prescribed by ANSI Std. Z39-18

BUREAU OF RECLAMATION

Research and Development Office Science and Technology Program

(Final Report) ST-2015-8730-01

Runoff Efficiency and Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest



Prepared by: Flavio Lehner
Project Scientist, NCAR



Checked by: Dagmar Llewellyn
Hydrologist, Albuquerque Area Office, UC Region



Peer Review: Kenneth Nowak
Water Availability Research Coordinator, Research and Development Office

For Reclamation disseminated reports, a disclaimer is required for final reports and other research products, this language can be found in the peer review policy:

“This information is distributed solely for the purpose of pre-dissemination peer review under applicable information quality guidelines. It has not been formally disseminated by the Bureau of Reclamation. It does not represent and should not be construed to represent Reclamation’s determination or policy.”

Executive Summary

This project involved two primary components: (1) evaluation of runoff efficacy changes using observed and paleo reconstructed flows and (2) exploration of the benefits of including available seasonal temperature forecasts into seasonal streamflow forecast models to improve their skill. In the first investigation, it was found that recent declines in runoff efficiency were in part attributable to anomalously warm temperatures. In the second part of the project, the aforementioned finding was tested for potential improve seasonal streamflow forecasts. Specifically, seasonal temperature forecasts were incorporated into the statistical water supply methodology employed by the Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS). The outcome was moderate improvement in seasonal water supply forecast skill. These two components of the project each resulted in a publication to the journal Geophysical Research Letters (GRL).

Contents

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Executive Summary | v |
| Main Report | 1 |
| References | 2 |

Appendices

Appendix A: Project Summary

Appendix B: Research Phase I Peer-Reviewed Publication

Appendix C: Research Phase II Peer-Reviewed Publication

Main Report

Appendix A to this report provides a project summary, including the project purpose and research formulation, research phases, peer-reviewed publications and news reports, and next steps.

The outcomes of this project are documented in two peer-reviewed publications, both to the journal *Geophysical Research Letters* (GRL), which are provided as Appendices B and C to this report. The first (Appendix B) is “Assessing recent declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a paleoclimate perspective” (Lehner, Wahl, Wood, Blatchford, & Llewellyn, 2017). The second (Appendix C) is “Mitigating the Impacts of Climate Nonstationarity on Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest” (Lehner, et al., 2017).

References

Lehner, F., Wahl, E. R., Wood, A., Blatchford, D., & Llewellyn, D. (2017). Assessing recent declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a paleoclimate perspective. *Geophysical Research Letters*. doi:10.1002/2017GL073253

Lehner, F., Wood, A., Llewellyn, D., Blatchford, D., Goodbody, A., & Pappenberger, F. (2017). Mitigating the Impacts of Climate Nonstationarity on Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest. *Geophysical Research Letters*. doi:10.1002/2017GL076043

Appendix A

Project Summary

Runoff Efficiency and Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U. S. Southwest

Appendix A: Project Summary

Bureau of Reclamation Fiscal Year 2015-2017 Science & Technology Program Project #8730

Postdocs Applying Climate Expertise (PACE) Fellowship for Improving Seasonal Forecasting to Support Operational Decision-Making within Reclamation Service Areas

March 30, 2018

PACE Fellow: Flavio Lehner – Postdoctoral Fellow, Research Applications Laboratory, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO; expertise in climate variability

PACE Mentors: The mentor team consisted of:

- Andy Wood – Project Scientist III and Scientific Supervisor, Research Applications Laboratory, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO; expertise in operational hydroclimate forecasting.
- Douglas Blatchford – Bureau of Reclamation, Lower Colorado Region, Boulder City, NV; expertise in Reclamation river and reservoir operations.
- Dagmar Llewellyn – Bureau of Reclamation, Upper Colorado Region, Albuquerque Area Office, Albuquerque, NM; expertise in Reclamation river and reservoir operations, and use of forecast information to support water management.

Duration: 1st April 2016 to 31st March 2018

Project Objective: To investigate potential methods to improve seasonal streamflow forecasting for Reclamation's service areas in the Upper Colorado and Lower Colorado Regions, including the Colorado River and Upper Rio Grande basins.

Content of this Report

- Research Formulation – Page 2
- Research, Phase I: Assessing recent declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a paleoclimate perspective – Page 2
- Research Phase II: Mitigating the Impacts of Climate Nonstationarity on Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest – Page 4
- Ongoing Research and Collaboration – Page 5
- Project Supervision and Interaction – Page 6
- Financial Reporting – Page 6
- Next Steps – Page 7
- Appendix A – Peer-reviewed publication from Research Phase I
- Appendix B – Peer-reviewed publication from Research Phase II

Research Formulation:

The original project proposal to Reclamation's Science & Technology Program (FY-2015 #8730), titled "*A web-based data assimilation framework for improving operational decision-making*", detailed a range of potential strategies for improving operational decision-making within Reclamation. The selected fellowship candidate, Flavio Lehner, has expertise in climatology and forecasting. Therefore, the project team elected to focus the work under this fellowship on improvements to forecasting of climate and hydrology, with a secondary goal of understanding trends in hydroclimate that might be relevant for Reclamation's management and planning challenges. The scope of the PACE project was designed to complement ongoing collaborative research toward advancing streamflow prediction practices between NCAR's Research Applications Lab and Reclamation (supported under the current and prior Cooperative Agreements between the two institutions, from 2013 to the present).

The Upper Rio Grande basin was selected as the initial focus area for project efforts to improve seasonal streamflow forecasts. This basin has less sophisticated forecasting tools available to it than many other basins in Reclamation's service area, including the Colorado Basin. Also, Reclamation water operations practitioners in this basin described poor forecast skill for this basin, with a tendency for over-forecasting biases during recent decades.

Reclamation's Research Office was notified of the selected fellow, and the intended direction for the fellowship research. Dagmar Llewellyn of the Upper Colorado Region, Albuquerque Area Office was added to the project as a co-Principal Investigator for Reclamation, along with Douglas Blatchford of the Lower Colorado Region.

Research, Phase I: Assessing recent declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a paleoclimate perspective.

Dr. Lehner undertook a detailed review of the recent seasonal streamflow forecast biases in the Upper Rio Grande basin, applying prior expertise with paleo-based and climate-model-based analyses. He hypothesized that the over-forecasting bias resulted from declining runoff efficiency (water year streamflow divided by water year precipitation), in part driven by warming trends.

To evaluate this hypothesis, Dr. Lehner turned to paleoclimate reconstructions, which allowed him to extend his analyses beyond the available instrumental record. The long paleoclimate reconstructions allowed Dr. Lehner to tease out the factors contributing to variations in runoff efficiency in a more robust fashion than would be possible from the short instrumental record. It also enabled him to put the recent downward trend in runoff efficiency in context of the long paleoclimate record and to evaluate the extent to which this recent trend has precedent. For this phase of the research, Dr. Lehner teamed up with Eugene Wahl from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Paleoclimatology Group, also in Boulder, CO.

The research found that runoff efficiency varies primarily in proportion to precipitation, but that there exists a clear secondary influence of temperature. In years of low precipitation, very low runoff efficiencies are made 2.5–3 times more likely by high temperatures. This temperature sensitivity appears to have strengthened in recent decades, implying future water management vulnerability should recent warming trends in the region continue.

The resulting paper (Lehner et al. 2017a) features a number of scientific novelties, such as the first successful reconstruction of runoff efficiency from prior to the instrumental record, and the first documentation of the influence of temperature on streamflow over such a long period for this region of the world. The paper consequently garnered the attention of a couple of newspapers and blogs, as well as decision makers and researchers in and outside Reclamation (see list below).

Peer-Reviewed Publication (Appendix B)

Lehner, F., E. R. Wahl, A. W. Wood, D. Blatchford, and D. Llewellyn, 2017a: *Assessing recent declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a paleoclimate perspective*. Geophys. Res. Lett., doi:10.1002/2017GL073253.

NCAR/UCAR AtmosNews Article:

<https://www2.ucar.edu/atmosnews/news/126957/warmer-temperatures-cause-decline-in-key-runoff-measure>

Conference Posters and Presentations

- AGU Fall Meeting 2016 in San Francisco (December 12 2016): “Declining runoff efficiency in the Southwestern US and implications for forecasting and water management” (Talk)
- Southern Nevada Water Authority conference on Colorado River Water Management (May 23 2017): “The influence of temperature on runoff efficiency: Implications for streamflow forecasting” (Talk)
- Community Earth System Model (CESM) Paleoclimate Working Group Meeting (March 2 2017): “Assessing recent declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a paleoclimate perspective” (Talk)

Field Tours

- Yuma Area Office operations, September 13-15 2016

Research Collaborations

- Eugene Wahl, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Paleoclimatology Group, Boulder, CO.

Outreach to Reclamation, the Water Management Community, and the Public

- Presentation to Reclamation Yuma Area Office, Yuma, AZ (September 15 2016)
- Presentation to Lower Colorado Region Water Operations Group, Boulder City, NV (February 8, 2017)
- Presentation to Southern Nevada Water Authority, Las Vegas, NV (February 9, 2017)
- Presentation to National Weather Service Interagency symposium of hydrology and climate, Albuquerque, NM (via webinar; April 18 2017)
- Newspapers and blogs:
 - “How does global warming affect flows in the Rio Grande?” (Summit County Citizen’s Voice and Coyote Gulch blog, May 11 2017; <https://coyotegulch.blog/2017/05/11/how-does-global-warming-affect-flows-in-the-rio-grande/>)
 - “Warmer temperatures drying the Rio Grande” (Climate Central, May 12 2017; <http://www.climatecentral.org/news/warmer-temperatures-drying-rio-grande-21446>)

- “*Boulder scientist leads study probing warming impact on runoff*” (Daily Camera – Boulder News, May 17 2017; http://www.dailycamera.com/news/boulder/ci_30994168/boulder-scientist-leads-study-probing-warming-impact-runoff)
- “*Calentamiento afecta río Bravo*” (El Manana Nuevo Laredo, May 21 2017; <http://elmanana.com.mx/noticia/136151/Calentamiento-afecta-rio-Bravo.html>)
- “*Warmer temperatures cause decline in key runoff measure*” (Geophysical Research Letters, Editor’s Highlight, May 22 2017; <https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/hub/article/10.1002/2017GL073253/editor-highlight/>)

Research Phase II: Mitigating the Impacts of Climate Nonstationarity on Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest.

The downward trend in runoff efficiency over the last 30 years was shown, in the first phase of this research, to be significant. This trend clearly poses a challenge for the current statistical forecasting models that assume a stationary background climate. While prior research has shown limitations in using seasonal precipitation forecasts for streamflow forecasting, the first paper published as part of this fellowship supported the idea that temperature forecasts could be beneficial in correcting for warming trends in regression-based forecasts. Therefore, the team focused the second phase of this research fellowship on an exploration of the benefits of including available seasonal temperature forecasts into seasonal streamflow forecast models to improve their skill. To that end, they used the publicly available seasonal climate forecasts from the North American Multi-Model Ensemble (NMME; 7 models) and later was able to add forecasts from the proprietary European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF; 1 model), leveraging an ongoing collaboration between the ECMWF Head of Forecasting (Florian Pappenberger) and Dr. Wood. Dr. Wood introduced Dr. Lehner to the methods, data and practice of statistical water supply forecasting and to colleagues in the operational forecast center (Natural Resources Conservation Service, NRCS) serving Reclamation in the Upper Rio Grande basin.

Dr. Lehner’s experience with climate model dynamics and datasets proved instrumental in analyzing and staging the large ensemble prediction dataset for application to streamflow forecasting. In the ensuing work, the team corroborated that they could indeed improve the streamflow forecast skill for key headwater gages in the Colorado and Rio Grande by around 10% in hindcasts over the period 1987-2016 by adding temperature information to the current operational forecasting approach by the Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS). Angus Goodbody, a hydrologic forecaster at NRCS, joined the co-author team, as well as Dr. Pappenberger. The resulting paper on the forecasting work was published in December 2017 (Lehner et al. 2017b) and presented on several occasions, such as the American Geophysical Union (AGU) Fall Meeting in New Orleans.

Peer-Reviewed Publication (Appendix C)

Lehner, F., A. W. Wood, D. Llewellyn, D. B. Blatchford, A. G. Goodbody, and F. Pappenberger, 2017b: Mitigating the Impacts of Climate Nonstationarity on Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, doi:10.1002/2017GL076043.

NCAR/UCAR AtmosNews Article:

<https://www2.ucar.edu/atmosnews/just-published/131553/taking-temperature-streamflow-forecasts>

Conference Posters and Presentations

- AGU Fall Meeting 2017, New Orleans, LA (December 11 2017): “Using temperature forecasts to improve seasonal streamflow forecasts in the Colorado and Rio Grande Basins” (Talk)
- AGU Fall Meeting 2017, New Orleans, LA (December 12 2017): “Projected drought risk in 1.5°C and 2°C warmer climates” (Invited Talk)
- New Mexico Water Resources Research Institute Annual New Mexico Water Conference, Socorro, NM (August 16 2017): “Using Temperature Forecasts to Improve Seasonal Streamflow Forecasts in the Colorado and Rio Grande Basins” (Poster)
- National Center for Environmental Prediction Subseasonal-to-Seasonal Science Meeting, College Park, MD (September 15 2017): “Using Temperature Forecasts to Improve Seasonal Streamflow Forecasts in the Colorado and Rio Grande Basins” (Poster)
- National Center for Atmospheric Research Water System Retreat, Boulder, CO (January 17 2018): “Mitigating the impacts of climate non-stationarity on seasonal streamflow predictability in the US Southwest” (Talk)
- “Surviving Peak Drought and Warming” Conference, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ (March 29 2018): “Drought in 1.5°C and 2°C warmer climates: uncertainties and implications” (Invited Talk)
- Western Snow Conference, Albuquerque, NM (April 17 2018): “On the use of snow and climate information in statistical streamflow forecasting” (Talk)

Research Collaborations

- Florian Pappenberger, Head of Forecasting, European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), Reading, United Kingdom
- Angus Goodbody, hydrologic forecaster, Natural Resources Conservation Service, Portland, OR

Field Tours

- Lower Colorado Region Operations, Boulder City, NV, February 7-9, 2017
- Upper Rio Grande Tour – Alamosa Office Operations, Reclamation’s Closed Basin Project, and San Luis Valley irrigation operations, May 1-3, 2017
- “Connecting People to Rivers”, Rio Chama Wild and Scenic Reach, hosted by Rio Grande Restoration, July 14-16, 2017

Outreach to Reclamation, the Water Management Community, and the Public

- Participation in discussions at USGS New Mexico Water Science Center, Upper Rio Grande Focus Area Study annual research symposium (via webinar; December 5 2017)
- Meeting with Colorado Division of Water Resources in Alamosa, CO (May 1 2017)
- Presentation at Reclamation’s Albuquerque Area Office to a group of approximately 30 local water management stakeholders in the Middle Rio Grande valley (via webinar; January 23, 2018)
- Presentation to Rio Grande Compact Engineer Advisor’s Meeting for Compact Year 2017 (March 6, 2018)

Ongoing Research and Collaboration

The team has remained in contact with the NRCS to discuss and design ways to incorporate the research results into NRCS's operational forecasting model. Dr. Lehner has also been in close contact with Carolyn Donnelly, water operations supervisor, and Lucas Barrett, a hydrologic modeler in Reclamation's Albuquerque Area Office, and provided Lucas Barrett with the project's experimental streamflow forecasts to be used in the Upper Rio Grande Water Operations Model (URGWOM) to project the 2018 snowmelt runoff in the Rio Grande Basin. Thus, the project is beginning to directly benefit Reclamation's water operations in the Rio Grande basin, and has the potential to similarly benefit forecasts and water operations in other parts of Reclamation's service area.

Reclamation also cares about the timing of runoff as it occurs in spring of each year. That is, Reclamation water managers would like to know ahead of time in which week the peak streamflow will occur. This interest is motivated by ecological considerations, mostly related to fish spawning and riparian health. Initial work is underway to explore the predictability of peak streamflow for the Upper Colorado and Rio Grande using antecedent hydrologic information, such as snow pack, accumulated precipitation, or soil moisture, as well as seasonal climate information. Only a few streamflow gages offered sufficient correlations between these potential predictors and peak streamflow, and in almost all cases this correlation did not translate into predictive skill in a cross-validation hindcasting framework. Other sources of predictability for peak streamflow timing were discussed (e.g., radiative forcing from dust on snow), but ultimately were not pursued due to lack of clear applications potential and/or overlap with other research groups in the field.

Project supervision and interaction

At the beginning of the project, a repeating monthly call with Andy Wood, as well as Douglas Blatchford and Dagmar Llewellyn from Reclamation was established, leading to a regular exchange of ideas and feedback that was very useful for tracking progress and making adjustments to the research focus, where necessary. Mr. Blatchford and Ms. Llewellyn invited relevant people from Reclamation, the USGS, and other water-management institutions to these calls, thereby allowing the research effort to be optimally aligned with stakeholder needs.

The project supervisors arranged a number of interactions with the decision makers in water operations that were critical for the success of the project. These included a visit to the Lower Colorado Operations Office and the Yuma Area Office, where the exposure of the research led to invited talks in meetings with the Southern Nevada Water Authority, and with Colorado and Rio Grande river stakeholders. Dr. Lehner was also able to give a presentation at the National Center for Environmental Prediction (at the Subseasonal-to-Seasonal, or S2S, Science Meeting).

The team also facilitated insightful site visits to Reclamation projects in Yuma AZ, Boulder City NV, Alamosa, CO, and Taos and Chama, NM. Similarly, Dr. Wood used his many contacts in both the private, federal, and academic sector of water management in the Western US to support the project with critical data and information.

Financial reporting

The total Reclamation funding for this PACE fellowship was \$119,980, including funding in Fiscal Year 2015, 2016, and 2017.

Funding available under this PACE Fellowship did not adequately cover some of the publication costs and travel of Dr. Lehner, nor the needed mentoring time for Dr. Lehner by Dr. Wood. To successfully complete this project, Dr. Wood leveraged contributions from his ongoing Reclamation forecasting project, and dedicated time from his project to mentor Dr. Lehner and contribute to the scientific outcomes of this fellowship. Dr. Wood also organized NCAR funds to pay for new computing infrastructure for Dr. Lehner. Dr. Wood facilitated a smooth project progression by managing budget through leveraging synergies with his other projects.

Next Steps

As a result of the research initiated under this PACE fellowship, two projects have been funded under Reclamation's Fiscal Year (FY) 2018 Science & Technology Program. These follow-on projects are described below. Dr. Lehner has been promoted to a Project Scientist I position at NCAR in order to continue his involvement with this research, through these Science & Technology Program projects. Work on this effort is expected to be initiated in May, 2018.

The first of these follow-on projects is three-year project titled *Improving the robustness of southwestern US water supply forecasting in the face of climate trends and variability*. This project will identify parts of the Reclamation management domain that are experiencing climate trends that may be undermining the effectiveness and skill of seasonal water supply forecasts (WSFs) that are used to inform water management decisions. 'Skill' is a multi-faceted description of the quality of a forecast, including components of accuracy, reliability, and precision. It will also identify regions in which seasonal climate (and particularly temperature) forecasts from the National Multi-Model Ensemble (NMME) may be sufficiently skillful to make WSFs responsive to seasonal and interannual climate trends, and thereby enhance their skill. In the Upper Rio Grande basin, where research under Dr. Lehner's PACE fellowship already provided evidence that such changes are underway, the project will refine and demonstrate NMME-based strategies for improving the resilience of the existing operational forecasting methods (statistical prediction and model-based Ensemble Streamflow Prediction, or ESP) at key water management input locations (to the existing RiverWare models), enabling experimental operational scenario analysis. The work will lead to operations-ready methods suitable for adoption in the two major forecasting agencies, the National Weather Service (NWS) and the Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS). The Reclamation-wide assessment of hydroclimate sensitivities to trends and NMME climate forecast skill will provide foundational information for potential follow-on decision support studies in basins in Reclamation's service area other than the Upper Rio Grande.

The second of these follow-on projects is also a three-year project, which is titled "*Development of short-range forecasts of weather-driven channel losses and gains to support Reclamation Water Management.*" On the field trip to the Reclamation Yuma Area Office (September 13-15 2016), Reclamation water-management staff Edward Virden (Director of Operations) and Hong Nguyen-DeCorse indicated a strong need for improved short-term precipitation forecasts to support water operations in the Yuma area. Although only exploratory work was conducted on the Lower Colorado basin during the PACE fellowship, clear research needs were identified during the site visit. These needs eventually led to a successful proposal to Reclamation's 2018 Science & Technology Program in Fiscal Year 2018 to conduct research on short-term weather and loss-gain modeling in the Lower Colorado Basin. For this project, a collaboration with NOAA's Michael Scheuerer and Tom Hamill, both in Boulder, CO, was established, with the goal of improving the forecast skill of quantitative, short-term precipitation forecasts in the Yuma area.

Appendix B

Peer-Reviewed Publication for Research Phase I:

Lehner, F., E. R. Wahl, A. W. Wood, D. Blatchford, and D. Llewellyn, 2017a: Assessing recent declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a paleoclimate perspective *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, doi:10.1002/2017GL073253

1 **Assessing recent declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a**
2 **paleoclimate perspective**

3 **Flavio Lehner¹, Eugene R. Wahl², Andrew W. Wood¹, Douglas B. Blatchford³, Dagmar**
4 **Llewellyn⁴**

5 ¹Research Application Laboratory, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, USA

6 ²Paleoclimatology Group, NOAA's National Centers for Environmental Information, Boulder,
7 USA

8 ³Lower Colorado Regional Office, Bureau of Reclamation, Boulder City, USA

9 ⁴Albuquerque Area Office, Bureau of Reclamation, Albuquerque, USA

10 Corresponding author: Flavio Lehner (flehner@ucar.edu)

11

12 **Key Points:**

- 13 • The decreasing runoff efficiency trend from 1986-2015 in the Upper Rio Grande River
14 basin is unprecedented in the last 445 years
- 15 • Very low runoff ratios are 2.5 to 3 times more likely when temperatures are above-
16 normal than when they are below-normal
- 17 • The trend arises primarily from natural variability but runoff sensitivity to temperature
18 implies further declines should warming continue
19

20 Abstract

21 Recent decades have seen strong trends in hydroclimate over the American Southwest, with
22 major river basins such as the Rio Grande exhibiting intermittent drought and declining runoff
23 efficiencies. The extent to which these observed trends are exceptional has implications for
24 current water management and seasonal streamflow forecasting practices. We present a new
25 reconstruction of runoff ratio for the Upper Rio Grande basin back to 1571 CE, which provides
26 evidence that the declining trend in runoff ratio from the 1980s to present-day is unprecedented
27 in context of the last 445 years. Though runoff ratio is found to vary primarily in proportion to
28 precipitation, the reconstructions suggest a secondary influence of temperature. In years of low
29 precipitation, very low runoff ratios are made 2.5-3 times more likely by high temperatures. This
30 temperature sensitivity appears to have strengthened in recent decades, implying future water
31 management vulnerability should recent warming trends in the region continue.

32 1 Introduction

33 Streamflow in most watersheds in the American Southwest is driven primarily by winter
34 precipitation, with a secondary contribution from summer precipitation (Serreze et al. 1999).
35 Much of the winter precipitation falls as snow in the mountains and runs off in spring and early
36 summer, and peak snowmelt-driven streamflows typically occur between March and July. The
37 influence of summer precipitation increases to the south due to the increased influence of the
38 North American monsoon (Woodhouse et al. 2013), but the headwater regions of rivers such as
39 the Colorado and Rio Grande are dominated by winter precipitation. Seasonal outlooks for runoff
40 volume driven by spring snowmelt, termed water supply forecasts (WSFs), leverage the
41 relationship between winter precipitation and summer streamflow by using predictors such as
42 observed winter snow water equivalent (SWE) and accumulated precipitation to forecast spring
43 runoff. Forecasts have traditionally been made beginning in January of the same year (Pagano et
44 al. 2014). The skill of these WSFs at longer lead times depends on both the strength and stability
45 of the relationship between these predictors and the coming spring runoff. The runoff ratio, or
46 the fraction of runoff generated by a given amount of precipitation, can serve as a simple metric
47 illustrating the efficiency of this translation. Hence, decadal variations in runoff ratio would
48 indicate non-stationarity in this translation, which in turn can alter the forecast skill. In the
49 context of WSFs, relevant runoff ratio calculations might include the spring streamflow volume
50 divided by winter precipitation up to the start or end of the forecast period. In the context of

51 assessing hydroclimate variability more generally, and as necessitated by the temporal resolution
52 of currently available paleoclimate reconstructions, total water year (October-September)
53 streamflow and precipitation might be used.

54 In the American Southwest, and specifically the Upper Rio Grande River basin (URG), annual
55 runoff ratios are sensitive to a number of factors. The relative contributions of winter, spring, and
56 summer precipitation to the water year (WY) total precipitation are important because summer
57 precipitation typically does not contribute to streamflow as much as winter precipitation (Hamlet
58 et al. 2005), in part due to the higher evaporative losses in summer. In WSFs, for example,
59 primarily the winter precipitation is used as a predictor, while spring and summer precipitation
60 variability after the forecast date contributes to the forecasting uncertainty (Pagano et al. 2004;
61 Rosenberg, et al. 2011), especially since winter and summer precipitation in the American
62 Southwest are not necessarily correlated on interannual time scales (Griffin et al. 2013; Coats et
63 al. 2015). Spring temperatures and wind speeds, which control evaporative loss, also influence
64 the magnitude and timing of peak SWE in the headwaters (Dettinger and Cayan 1995). Human
65 influences can strongly modify natural streamflows; among these, groundwater pumping (Alley
66 et al. 2002) is less easily corrected for than other impairments such as reservoir storage
67 operations and measured diversions and return flows. Finally, recent research has suggested that
68 dust loading on snowpack can induce earlier melt and reduced runoff volumes (Painter et al.
69 2010).

70 Unexpected seasonal, interannual, or decadal variations in any of these factors can lead to WSF
71 biases. In the URG, water resources managers have noted systematic over-forecasting biases in
72 the recent decade. The 2000s and 2010s exhibited intermittent drought conditions, thus the
73 forecast model's calibration over a longer period that is relatively wetter on average (i.e.,
74 including the wetter decades of the 1980s and 1990s) is likely to be a partial cause of this bias.
75 Indeed, runoff ratios have been declining since the mid-1980s in the adjacent Upper Colorado
76 River basin (Woodhouse et al. 2016) and similar trends exist in the URG (Figure 1). Because the
77 recent decades have also been marked by substantial upward temperature trends, the question of
78 whether runoff ratio declines can be linked to temperature increases, and thus potentially to
79 anthropogenic global warming, have gained the attention of the water management community
80 (Reclamation 2016; Udall and Overpeck 2017).

81 Assessing the long-term significance of the recent runoff efficiency changes is hindered,
82 however, by relatively short periods of observational records for streamflow, precipitation, and
83 SWE in many watersheds of the American West, which limit the data available for training
84 statistical forecast models. This obstacle motivates the development of reconstructions of
85 streamflow, precipitation, temperature, and their relationships that extend beyond the
86 instrumental period and thus place recent variations in runoff ratio and associated forecast biases
87 in the URG into a longer-term context. There have been extensive efforts to understand
88 hydrologic variability and improve seasonal forecasting in the Colorado River basin (Franz et al.
89 2003), but less attention has been paid to the URG. Notably, an estimated 5 million people
90 depend on Rio Grande River water, which is shared between the US and Mexico, making it one
91 of the most allocated rivers in the world (Dahm et al. 2005).

92 Here we use existing and new reconstructions of annual streamflow and precipitation to extend
93 the record of runoff ratio of the URG back to 1571 of the Common Era (CE). We use these
94 records to assess the extent to which observed changes in WY runoff ratio have precedent over
95 the past 445 years. The close correspondence between WY runoff ratio and seasonal runoff
96 ratios, as discussed above, makes this analysis relevant for water resource management. In
97 addition, we use temperature reconstructions and a climate model simulation to investigate the
98 role of temperature and large-scale circulation patterns in influencing periods of high and low
99 runoff ratio.

100 **2 Materials and Methods**

101 **2.1 Observational data sets**

102 We use naturalized monthly Rio Grande River streamflow at Otowi Bridge (USGS 08313000;
103 commonly referred to as Otowi Index Supply) from 1942-2015 obtained from the State of New
104 Mexico (Nabil Shafike, personal communication). The naturalization does not include potential
105 impairments from groundwater pumping, the influence of which on streamflow is not currently
106 well constrained. For precipitation and surface air temperature, we use the Parameter Elevation
107 Regression on Independent Slopes Model (PRISM) data set from 1895-2015 (Daly et al. 2008)
108 and spatially average each field across the surface drainage area corresponding to the the Otowi
109 Bridge gauge, defined by the hydrologic unit code (HUC6) regions 130100 and 130201. For

110 precipitation, we multiply the average value with the drainage area of this mask to convert it to
111 units of volume.

112 **2.2 Paleoclimate reconstructions**

113 We use existing tree ring-based reconstructions of water year (October-September) streamflow at
114 the Otowi Bridge gauge, as well as water year precipitation and annual mean temperature over
115 the associated drainage basin, covering a common period (1571-1977). The streamflow
116 reconstruction uses moisture-sensitive tree-ring species, which reflect a combination of winter
117 precipitation and summer evapotranspiration and thus capture key features of streamflow
118 variability (Woodhouse et al. 2012). It was calibrated against naturalized flows in the 20th
119 century and covers the period 1450-2012 CE (updated version;
120 <http://www.treeflow.info/content/rio-grande-owoti-new-mexico-update>).

121 The precipitation reconstruction is a modified version of the 0.5° x 0.5° western US precipitation
122 reconstruction by Diaz and Wahl (2015), covering the period 1571-1977. The precipitation
123 reconstruction relies on tree ring-based streamflow reconstructions, but, crucially for the study
124 here, the streamflow reconstruction from Otowi Bridge has been excluded in the construction of
125 this modified version. Thus, the streamflow and precipitation reconstructions used here are
126 largely independent, with very few shared original chronologies (Table S1 and Supplementary
127 Material Section 1). To estimate precipitation in the Rio Grande basin upstream of Otowi Bridge,
128 we spatially averaged the reconstructed precipitation over the aforementioned Otowi drainage
129 region and multiplied it by the drainage area to obtain units of volume.

130 For annual mean temperature we extract a 5° x 5° grid cell centered at 37.5 °N, 107.5 °W (which
131 corresponds roughly to the Rio Grande headwaters) from the reconstruction by Wahl and
132 Smerdon 2012. The coarse spatial resolution of this reconstruction does not weaken the analysis
133 here because the length scale of high spatial correlation ($r > 0.8$) of the URG annual mean
134 temperature encompasses the size of the selected grid cell in observations (Figure S1). While the
135 choice of annual mean is motivated by the available reconstruction data, we note that annual
136 mean and the more critical melt season (Mar-Aug) mean temperature in the URG basin are
137 highly correlated ($r = 0.74$ in observations 1895-2015). For the determination of reconstruction
138 uncertainties see Supplementary Material Section 3.

139 **2.3 Model simulation**

140 We use an 1,800-year long preindustrial control simulation (piControl) from the Community
141 Earth System Model (CESM), which is described in detail by Kay et al. (2015). CESM is a fully-
142 coupled Earth System Model with components of atmosphere, ocean, sea ice, and land surface
143 (Hurrell et al. 2013). In the configuration here, all components are run at $\sim 1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ horizontal
144 resolution. The forcing represents perpetual 1850 CE conditions for atmospheric composition,
145 orbital parameters, and land cover.

146 We extract streamflow from this simulation by extracting the routed runoff at the Otowi Bridge
147 location from the $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ River Transport Model embedded in CESM. We recognize that the
148 CESM runoff and routing schemes are coarse and contain climatological biases at the watershed
149 scale, but we expect that they will sufficiently discriminate high and low flows driven by large
150 scale climate variations to be useful in the context of this study. CESM precipitation and surface
151 air temperature are then extracted by mapping the Otowi Bridge drainage area onto the CESM
152 grid.

153 **3 Results**

154 **3.1 Hydroclimate over the past four centuries**

155 At Otowi Bridge, streamflow has varied on interannual to decadal time scales, with pronounced
156 periods of low flow as identified and discussed in Woodhouse et al. (2012). Figures 1a and 1b
157 show the reconstructed and observed time series of WY precipitation and streamflow for Otowi
158 Bridge, Figure 1c shows the runoff ratio resulting from dividing streamflow by precipitation, and
159 Figure 1d shows annual mean temperature. Beyond the decadal time scale, however, no
160 prolonged periods of high or low flow were recorded in the reconstruction, consistent with other
161 Southwestern US findings that multi-decadal drought conditions were more prevalent in the first
162 half of the last millennium (Cook et al. 2004; Meko et al. 2007; Coats et al. 2016), although there
163 is a 16th century megadrought that ended just before our reconstructions begin (Stahle et al.
164 2000). Comparing the last four centuries of reconstructed streamflow to the recent decades of
165 measured streamflow at Otowi Bridge clearly indicates that the observed annual high values of
166 the 1980s and the low value of 2002 are exceptional, but not unprecedented. The highest value in
167 the observations is 2,074 KAF (1,000 acre feet; in 1985) and lowest value is 235 KAF (in 2002),
168 whereas the highest reconstructed value is 2,123 KAF (in 1720) and the lowest value is 216 KAF

169 (in 1685). Due to uncertainties in the reconstruction (Woodhouse et al. 2006), which are likely
170 larger than the margin between the observed and reconstructed highest and lowest flows, it is
171 uncertain but conceivable that these recent extrema are the highest and lowest flows in more than
172 400 years.

173 The 10-year smoothed time series (thick line in Figure 1a) clearly shows the 1980s to be the
174 decade of highest flow over the whole time period, while the early 2000s tie within uncertainties
175 with the 1580s and 1770s for the decade of lowest flow. Most importantly, the short sequencing
176 of the exceptionally high- and low-flow decades within the last 30 years results in this period
177 showing the strongest 30-year streamflow trends of the entire period 1571-2015 (histogram in
178 Figure 1a, at 99.1% probability; see Supplementary Material, Section 4).

179 Precipitation is strongly correlated with streamflow ($r=0.75$ in reconstructions 1571-1942, $r=0.89$
180 in reconstructions 1943-1977, $r=0.77$ in observations 1943-1977, $r=0.79$ in observations 1943-
181 2015) and largely drove the extreme streamflow periods in both reconstructions and observations
182 (Figure 1b). Precipitation is also strongly correlated ($r=0.73$, 1571-1977) with a reconstruction of
183 April snow water equivalent in the Rio Grande headwaters (Pederson et al. 2011), suggesting
184 that winter-spring precipitation can explain at least 50% of water year precipitation variability.
185 Similar to streamflow, the 1980s stand out as an exceptional decade with precipitation values
186 almost consistently above the long-term average derived from the reconstruction. Consequently,
187 this wet decade and the subsequent decline into the generally drier 2000s also produced the
188 strongest 30-year precipitation trend of the entire period (histogram in Figure 1b, at 97.9%
189 probability). Interestingly, the 1990s were exceptionally wet as well, but had lesser impact on the
190 streamflow record than the 1980s (compare Figure 1a and 1b), leaving room for additional
191 explanatory factors, as discussed later.

192 Due to the strong influence of precipitation on streamflow and runoff ratio in these arid regions
193 (Vano et al. 2012), the reconstructed time series of runoff ratio features many of the same high
194 and low value periods as the precipitation reconstruction (Figure 1c). Again, the 1980s show
195 exceptionally high runoff ratios and the decline into the early 2000s also marks the strongest 30-
196 year trend in the entire period (histogram in Figure 1c, at 97.8% probability). However, there are
197 a few periods, including the 1990s and the mid-nineteenth century, in which the relationship
198 between precipitation and runoff ratio appears to be weaker.

199 Compared to precipitation and streamflow, reconstructed temperature in the URG shows distinct
200 multi-decadal (relatively lower frequency) variations (Figure 1d). A roughly century-long cold
201 period between 1600 and 1700 was followed by a similarly long period of above-long-term mean
202 temperatures, followed by a sharp decrease and then gradual rise of temperature until present-
203 day. The highest reconstructed temperatures occurred in the late 18th century and rival the
204 observed high values of the 20th and 21st century, although the past 15 years are clearly the
205 warmest period of such length over the last 440+ years (cf. Wahl and Smerdon 2012). Unlike
206 reconstructed streamflow, precipitation, and runoff ratio, observed 30-year temperature trends
207 fall well within the distribution of the reconstruction.

208 **3.2 Role of temperature**

209 While precipitation is the main driver of interannual streamflow variations in the URG,
210 temperature also influences streamflow and hence runoff ratio. To investigate the role of
211 temperature in interannual variations of runoff ratio, we plot runoff ratio (in percentile units) as a
212 function of precipitation and temperature anomalies (Figure 2; all time series are relative to their
213 median due to the non-Gaussian distribution of precipitation and runoff ratio, see Figure S2a).
214 First, the figure illustrates the weak, but statistically significant negative correlation between
215 temperature and precipitation ($r=-0.28$ in reconstructions 1571-1942, $r=-0.39$ in reconstructions
216 1943-1977, $r=-0.37$ in observations 1943-1977, $r=-0.30$ in observations 1943-2015) that is
217 typical for this region (Trenberth and Shea 2005; correlation coefficients between -0.30 and
218 -0.50 based on reanalysis data). Second, the stratification of high and low runoff ratio years
219 according to associated precipitation anomalies clearly shows that positive precipitation
220 anomalies are an important prerequisite for high runoff ratios with 76% of the years of high ($>$
221 70th percentile) and 88% of the very high ($>$ 90th percentile) runoff ratios coinciding with
222 positive precipitation anomalies in reconstructions (upper two quadrants in Figure 2a). In turn,
223 81% of the low ($<$ 30th percentile) and 95% of the very low ($<$ 10th percentile) runoff ratio years
224 coincide with negative precipitation anomalies. Third, and most importantly for this study, a
225 further stratification according to temperature shows that when precipitation is below the
226 median, low and very low runoff ratios are 1.7 and 2.5 times as likely to occur, respectively, in
227 warm years (51% and 68%; bottom right quadrant in Figure 2a) than in cold years (30% and
228 27%; bottom left quadrant in Figure 2a). Also, there exists a significant correlation between

229 runoff ratio and temperature that is almost entirely driven by the relationship of the two variables
230 in dry years, with no significant correlation in wet years (Figure S2b-d). Repeating the analysis
231 with reconstructions of summer and annual maximum monthly temperature does not alter these
232 conclusions (Supplementary Material Section 5 and Figure S3).

233 The relationships found in the reconstructions are also clearly visible in the shorter (73 years)
234 observational record (Figure 2b), which exhibits strong warming during the recent decades. In
235 fact, 86% and 88% of all low and very low runoff ratio years, respectively, were dry and warm,
236 while 0% and 13% of the low and very low runoff ratio years, respectively, were dry and cold.
237 Notwithstanding the uncertainties due the small observational sample, the recent warm decades
238 appear to have been an important factor in very low runoff ratio years.

239 Turning to the CESM simulation, we find the model generally reproduces the sensitivities of
240 runoff ratio that are found in the reconstructions and observations (Figure 2c): 59% of high
241 runoff ratio years and 65% of very high runoff ratio years occur in wet years (above-median
242 precipitation; top two quadrants in Figure 2c). In turn, 59% of low and 67% of very low runoff
243 ratio years occur in dry years (below-median precipitation; bottom two quadrants in Figure 2c).
244 Further, the apparent importance of high temperatures for the occurrence of very low runoff ratio
245 years is found in CESM as well: 50% of the very low runoff ratio years occur in a dry and warm
246 year, while only 17% occur in a dry and cold year, making it approximately 3 times as likely to
247 have a very low runoff ratio year if temperatures are above normal rather than below normal
248 (Figure 2c). Notable differences of the model output from the reconstructions and observations
249 are the percentages of very high runoff ratio years when it is dry and cold, and the opposite very
250 low runoff ratio years when it is wet and warm (Figure 2c, bottom-left and upper-right quadrants,
251 respectively).

252 Due to the negative correlation between precipitation and temperature there exists a natural
253 tendency for dry years to coincide with warm years. To account for this, we investigated the
254 likelihood for very low/low/high/very high runoff ratios conditional on the background climate
255 of the respective year and find the results reported above to be robust (Supplementary Material
256 Section 6 and Figure S4).

257 **3.3 Circulation composites**

258 To investigate the large scale atmospheric circulation patterns potentially associated with certain
259 cases of very high and low runoff ratios in the reconstruction, we search for analogous situations
260 in CESM and create composite maps. Here, we focus on the following four situations (using the
261 very low/low/high/very high categories defined above):

262 A: Years with very high runoff ratio, high precipitation, and low temperature.

263 B1: Years with very high runoff ratio, below-median precipitation, and below-median
264 temperature.

265 B2: Years with very low runoff ratio, below-median precipitation, and below-median
266 temperature.

267 C: Years with very low runoff ratio, low precipitation, and high temperature.

268 To construct the composites, we extract sea level pressure (SLP), precipitation, and temperature
269 during the years that fulfill the above criteria from the CESM simulation and average them
270 (Figure 3). Naturally, not all four situations occur with equal frequency in the 1,800 model years
271 analyzed; all four composites combined cover 9.3% of the 1,800 total model years.

272 Situation A features a deep Aleutian Low over the North Pacific in both the cold (October-
273 March) and warm (April-September) seasons, leading to a strong North-South temperature
274 gradient across North America and high precipitation totals over much of the contiguous US
275 (hereafter “US”; Figure 3a-b). Both cold and warm season responses are robust over much of
276 North America and the North Pacific (no stippling in Figure 3). Situation A in the cold season is
277 reminiscent of the canonical El Niño response over the North Pacific-North America region.
278 Indeed, 57% of all situations A coincide with a winter (Dec-Feb) in which the Niño 3.4 index
279 (sea surface temperatures averaged over 170-120 °W, -5-5 °N) exceeds 1 standard deviation.

280 Situation B1, in which very high runoff ratios occur with below-median temperatures but in
281 conjunction with below-median precipitation, shows a sharp contrast between cold and warm
282 season in terms of circulation and precipitation (Figure 3c-d). The cold season features a wave
283 train across the Pacific and North America, somewhat resembling the surface signature of the
284 Pacific North American pattern. A deep Aleutian Low channels cold air from the Bering Sea to
285 the US, while northern Canada receives positive temperatures anomalies due to the southerly

286 flow on the east side of the Aleutian Low (Figure 3c). Together with another low pressure
287 anomaly over the US East Coast, these two SLP anomalies cause substantial positive
288 precipitation anomalies across large parts of the US. In the warm season, the low pressure
289 anomaly over the Northeast Pacific is weaker, and the SLP anomaly on the US East coast moves
290 further inland (Figure 3d). The resulting flow across the central US is predominantly northerly,
291 causing dry and cold conditions and counteracting the moisture influx into the Southwestern US
292 that is typical for the North American summer monsoon. The contrasting precipitation totals
293 from the cold and warm season result in a net negative water year precipitation anomaly, but due
294 to the high accumulation in the cold season and the relatively cold warm season, runoff ratios
295 remain very high.

296 Situation B2, in turn, during which very low runoff ratios occur during years of below-median
297 precipitation and temperature, features a positive SLP anomaly over much of the northeastern
298 Pacific in the cold season, diverting incoming storms from the Pacific to Canada and steering
299 cold Arctic air across most of North America (Figure 3e). In the warm season, the positive SLP
300 anomaly over the North Pacific is weaker and no clear circulation patterns are established over
301 the US (Figure 3f), although temperatures are slightly elevated and precipitation is slightly
302 reduced over much of the western US. As a net result, this situation is mainly dominated by the
303 cold season precipitation deficit, which together with slightly above-average temperatures during
304 the warm season, appears to be sufficient to drive very low runoff ratios.

305 Finally, situation C, during which some of the lowest runoff ratios of all CESM years occur is in
306 many ways the reversal of situation A, with high temperatures and low precipitation over most of
307 the US in both seasons (Figure 3g-h). The key features of the cold season composite are negative
308 SLP anomalies over the Gulf of Alaska and a blocking high over the US West coast, steering
309 storms into the northern half of the US West coast, while leaving the southern half of the coast
310 and the central US dry (Figure 3g). While resembling La Niña, only 38% of the winters in this
311 composite show a Nino 3.4 index < -1 standard deviation. In the warm season, the blocking high
312 over the Pacific persists and a thermal low sets in over the central US, creating very warm and
313 dry conditions, and further decreasing streamflow relative to the precipitation decrease, thus
314 causing anomalously low runoff ratios (Figure 3h).

315 All of these situations resemble viable climatological circulation patterns and can arise from
316 unforced climate variability, as demonstrated by the use of a control simulation, which were
317 found to contain substantial multi-decadal variability of large scale circulation patterns (Deser et
318 al. 2012a). Our results therefore suggest that decadal variations in the frequency of these
319 circulation patterns (for example associated with the relative frequency of El Niño and La Niña
320 events in recent decades; Meehl et al. 2009) might not, or only to a small degree, be associated
321 with externally forced climate change, e.g., from increasing greenhouse gas concentrations. Due
322 to the short observational record and the small signal-to-noise ratio of forced sea level pressure
323 trends in simulations (Deser et al. 2012b), detection and attribution of anthropogenically forced
324 changes in observed circulation patterns and hydroclimate over the American Southwest remains
325 an active area of research (Prein et al. 2016).

326 **4 Summary and conclusions**

327 In summary, paleoclimate reconstructions suggest that both the high and low annual runoff ratios
328 of the most recent decades in the URG were extreme in context of the last 440 years. As a
329 consequence, the 30-year declining trend in runoff ratio from the mid-1980s to present-day
330 appears to be unprecedented, and is problematic for current statistical seasonal streamflow
331 forecasting approaches that assume hydroclimatic stationarity. Although decadal-scale trends in
332 runoff ratio are driven primarily by precipitation variations, the paleoclimate record also reveals
333 an important role for temperature in creating some of the lowest runoff ratio years in the last four
334 centuries. Supported by a long climate model simulation, we estimate that in years with below-
335 median precipitation, very low (< 10th percentile) runoff ratios are 2.5-3 times more likely if
336 temperatures are warmer than normal (above-median).

337 If recent warming trends continue, our findings suggest a further decline in runoff ratios in the
338 URG and other Southwestern US basins. Nevertheless, the paleoclimate record and associated
339 circulation composites indicate that low and high runoff ratios of almost equal magnitude as
340 observed in recent decades are possible in the absence of any significant greenhouse gas forcing
341 trend. In this light, careful detection and attribution is warranted when diagnosing underlying
342 causes of recent hydroclimate trends in the Southwestern US.

343

344

345 **Acknowledgments**

346 We thank Andrew Newman, Keith Musselmann, Kevin Sampson, and Nabil Shafike for
347 discussion or technical support, as well as two anonymous reviewers for their very constructive
348 feedback. Part of this work was inspired by a workshop held at the Lamont-Doherty Earth
349 Observatory of Columbia University on June 1-3, 2016, titled “Comparing data and model
350 estimates of hydroclimate variability and change over the Common Era”. We acknowledge the
351 efforts of all those who contributed to producing the CESM LE and the paleoclimate
352 reconstructions. The CESM simulation is available on the Earth System Grid
353 (www.earthsystemgrid.org), the temperature reconstruction is available at NOAA
354 Paleoclimatology (www.ncdc.noaa.gov/data-access/paleoclimatology-data/datasets), the
355 streamflow reconstruction is available at www.treeflow.info, the precipitation reconstruction and
356 the Otowi Index Supply are available from the corresponding author. The National Center for
357 Atmospheric Research is sponsored by the National Science Foundation. F. L. is supported by a
358 Postdoc Applying Climate Expertise (PACE) fellowship cosponsored by NOAA and the Bureau
359 of Reclamation, A. W. W. is supported by Reclamation under Cooperative Agreement
360 #R11AC80816, and by the US Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) Climate Preparedness and
361 Resilience Program. F.L. designed the study, conducted the analysis, and led the writing; E. R.
362 W. created all new reconstructions; E. R. W. and A. W. W. helped design the study; all authors
363 contributed to the writing.

364 **References**

- 365 Alley, W. M., R. W. Healy, J. W. LaBaugh, and T. E. Reilly, 2002: Flow and storage in
366 groundwater systems. *Science*, **296**, 1985–1990, doi:10.1126/science.1067123.
- 367 Coats, S., J. E. Smerdon, R. Seager, D. Griffin, and B. I. Cook, 2015: Winter-to-summer
368 precipitation phasing in southwestern North America: A multicentury perspective from
369 paleoclimatic model-data comparisons. *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, **120**, 8052–8064,
370 doi:10.1002/2015JD023085.
- 371 ———, J. E. Smerdon, K. B. Karnauskas, and R. Seager, 2016: The improbable but unexceptional
372 occurrence of megadrought clustering in the American West during the Medieval Climate
373 Anomaly. *Environ. Res. Lett.*, **11**, 74025, doi:10.1088/1748-9326/11/7/074025.
374 [http://stacks.iop.org/1748-](http://stacks.iop.org/1748-9326/11/i=7/a=074025?key=crossref.9488431852c8066bb4124d4718e10863)
375 [9326/11/i=7/a=074025?key=crossref.9488431852c8066bb4124d4718e10863](http://stacks.iop.org/1748-9326/11/i=7/a=074025?key=crossref.9488431852c8066bb4124d4718e10863).
- 376 Cook, E. R., C. A. Woodhouse, C. M. Eakin, D. M. Meko, and D. W. Stahle, 2004: Long-term
377 aridity changes in the western United States. *Science*, **306**, 1015–1018,

- 378 doi:10.1126/science.1102586. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15472040>.
- 379 Dahm, C. N., R. J. Edwards, and F. P. Gelwick, 2005: Gulf Coast Rivers of the Southwestern
380 United States. *Rivers of North America*, 180–228.
- 381 Daly, C., M. Halbleib, J. I. Smith, W. P. Gibson, M. K. Doggett, G. H. Taylor, J. Curtis, and P.
382 P. Pasteris, 2008: Physiographically sensitive mapping of climatological temperature and
383 precipitation across the conterminous United States. *Int. J. Climatol.*, **28**, 2031–2064,
384 doi:10.1002/joc.1688.
- 385 Deser, C., and Coauthors, 2012a: ENSO and pacific decadal variability in the community climate
386 system model version 4. *J. Clim.*, **25**, 2622–2651, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-11-00301.1.
- 387 ———, A. Phillips, V. Bourdette, and H. Teng, 2012b: Uncertainty in climate change projections:
388 The role of internal variability. *Clim. Dyn.*, **38**, 527–546, doi:10.1007/s00382-010-0977-x.
389 <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s00382-010-0977-x> (Accessed July 21, 2014).
- 390 Dettinger, M. D., and D. R. Cayan, 1995: Large-scale atmospheric forcing of recent trends
391 towards early snowmelt runoff in California. *J. Clim.*, **8**, 606–623, doi:10.1175/1520-
392 0442(1995)008<0606:LSAFOR>2.0.CO;2.
- 393 Diaz, H. F., and E. R. Wahl, 2015: Recent California water year precipitation deficits: A 440-
394 year perspective. *J. Clim.*, **28**, 4637–4652, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-14-00774.1.
- 395 Franz, K. J., H. C. Hartmann, S. Sorooshian, and R. Bales, 2003: Verification of National
396 Weather Service Ensemble Streamflow Predictions for Water Supply Forecasting in the
397 Colorado River Basin. *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **4**, 1105–1118, doi:10.1175/1525-
398 7541(2003)004<1105:VONWSE>2.0.CO;2.
- 399 Griffin, D., and Coauthors, 2013: North American monsoon precipitation reconstructed from
400 tree-ring latewood. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **40**, 954–958, doi:10.1002/grl.50184.
- 401 Hamlet, A. F., P. W. Mote, M. P. Clark, and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2005: Effects of temperature and
402 precipitation variability on snowpack trends in the western United States. *J. Clim.*, **18**, 4545–
403 4561, doi:10.1175/JCLI3538.1. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3538.1>.
- 404 Hurrell, J. W., and Coauthors, 2013: The Community Earth System Model: A Framework for
405 Collaborative Research. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, **94**, 1339–1360, doi:10.1175/BAMS-D-
406 12-00121.1. <http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/abs/10.1175/BAMS-D-12-00121.1> (Accessed
407 August 17, 2014).
- 408 Kay, J. E., and Coauthors, 2015: The Community Earth System Model (CESM) Large Ensemble
409 Project: A Community Resource for Studying Climate Change in the Presence of Internal
410 Climate Variability. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, **published**.
- 411 Meehl, G. A., A. Hu, and B. D. Santer, 2009: The mid-1970s climate shift in the pacific and the
412 relative roles of forced versus inherent decadal variability. *J. Clim.*, **22**, 780–792,
413 doi:10.1175/2008JCLI2552.1.

- 414 Meko, D. M., C. A. Woodhouse, C. A. Baisan, T. Knight, J. J. Lucas, M. K. Hughes, and M. W.
415 Salzer, 2007: Medieval drought in the upper Colorado River Basin. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **34**,
416 doi:10.1029/2007GL029988.
- 417 Pagano, T., D. Garen, and S. Sorooshian, 2004: Evaluation of Official Western U.S. Seasonal
418 Water Supply Outlooks, 1922–2002. *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **5**, 896–909, doi:10.1175/1525-
419 7541(2004)005<0896:EOOWUS>2.0.CO;2.
- 420 ———, A. Wood, K. Werner, and R. Tama-Sweet, 2014: Western U.S. water supply forecasting:
421 A tradition evolves. *Eos (Washington, DC)*, **95**, 28–29, doi:10.1002/2014EO030007.
- 422 Painter, T. H., J. S. Deems, J. Belnap, A. F. Hamlet, C. C. Landry, and B. Udall, 2010: Response
423 of Colorado River runoff to dust radiative forcing in snow. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*,
424 **107**, 17125–17130, doi:10.1073/pnas.0913139107.
425 [http://apps.webofknowledge.com.ezp.sub.su.se/full_record.do?product=WOS&search_mod
426 e=GeneralSearch&qid=78&SID=N2NEdqxYRhcZduK347X&page=1&doc=1](http://apps.webofknowledge.com.ezp.sub.su.se/full_record.do?product=WOS&search_mode=GeneralSearch&qid=78&SID=N2NEdqxYRhcZduK347X&page=1&doc=1).
- 427 Pederson, G. T., and Coauthors, 2011: The unusual nature of recent snowpack declines in the
428 North American cordillera. *Science*, **333**, 332–335, doi:10.1126/science.1201570.
- 429 Prein, A. F., G. J. Holland, R. M. Rasmussen, M. P. Clark, and M. R. Tye, 2016: Running dry:
430 The U.S. Southwest’s drift into a drier climate state. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **43**, 1272–1279,
431 doi:10.1002/2015GL066727.
- 432 Reclamation, B. of, 2016: *Climate Change Adaptation Strategy*. 33 pp.
433 <https://www.usbr.gov/climate/docs/2016ClimateStrategy.pdf>.
- 434 Serreze, M. C., M. P. Clark, R. L. Armstrong, D. A. McGinnis, and R. S. Pulwarty, 1999:
435 Characteristics of the western United States snowpack from snowpack telemetry (SNOTEL)
436 data. *Water Resour. Res.*, **35**, 2145–2160, doi:10.1029/1999WR900090.
- 437 Stahle, D. W., E. R. Cook, M. K. Cleaveland, M. D. Therrell, D. M. Meko, H. D. Grissino-
438 Mayer, E. Watson, and B. H. Luckman, 2000: Tree-ring data document 16th century
439 megadrought over North America. *Eos (Washington, DC)*, **81**, doi:10.1029/00EO00076.
- 440 Trenberth, K. E., and D. J. Shea, 2005: Relationships between precipitation and surface
441 temperature. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **32**, 1–4, doi:10.1029/2005GL022760.
- 442 Udall, B., and J. Overpeck, 2017: The 21 st Century Colorado River Hot Drought and
443 Implications for the Future. *Water Resour. Res.*, doi:10.1002/2016WR019638.
- 444 Vano, J. A., T. Das, and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2012: Hydrologic Sensitivities of Colorado River
445 Runoff to Changes in Precipitation and Temperature. *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **13**, 932–949,
446 doi:10.1175/JHM-D-11-069.1. [http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/abs/10.1175/JHM-D-11-
447 069.1](http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/abs/10.1175/JHM-D-11-069.1).
- 448 Wahl, E. R., and J. E. Smerdon, 2012: Comparative performance of paleoclimate field and index
449 reconstructions derived from climate proxies and noise-only predictors. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*,

450 **39**, doi:10.1029/2012GL051086.

451 Woodhouse, C. A., S. T. Gray, and D. M. Meko, 2006: Updated streamflow reconstructions for
452 the Upper Colorado River Basin. *Water Resour. Res.*, **42**, doi:10.1029/2005WR004455.

453 Woodhouse, C. A., D. W. Stahle, and J. V Diaz, 2012: Rio Grande and Rio Conchos water
454 supply variability over the past 500 years. *Clim. Res.*, **51**, 147–158, doi:Doi
455 10.3354/Cr01059.

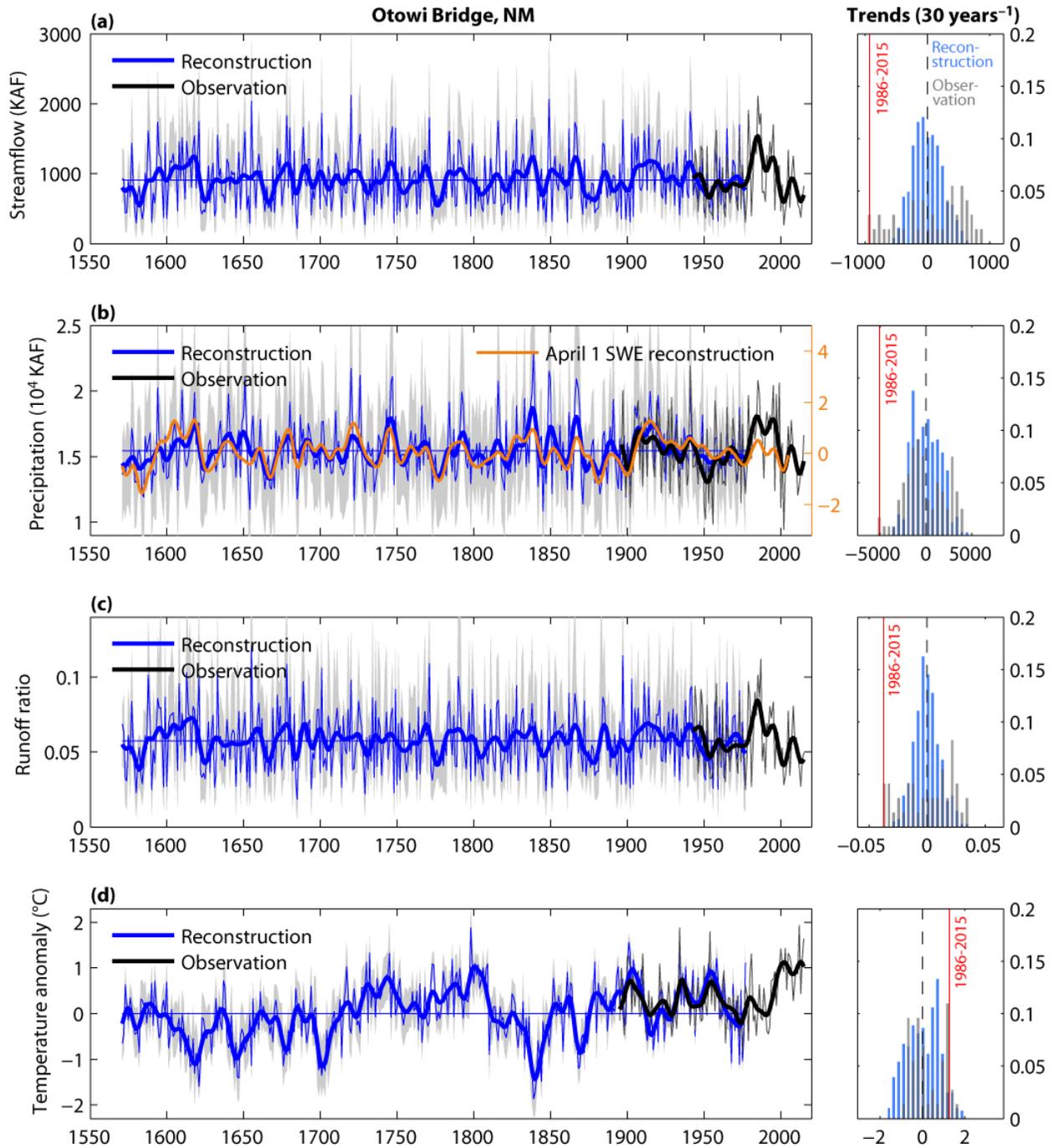
456 Woodhouse, C. A., D. M. Meko, D. Griffin, and C. L. Castro, 2013: Tree rings and multiseason
457 drought variability in the lower Rio Grande Basin, USA. *Water Resour. Res.*, **49**, 844–850,
458 doi:10.1002/wrcr.20098.

459 Woodhouse, C. A., G. T. Pederson, K. Morino, S. A. McAfee, and G. J. McCabe, 2016:
460 Increasing influence of air temperature on upper Colorado River streamflow. *Geophys. Res.*
461 *Lett.*, **43**, 2174–2181, doi:10.1002/2015GL067613.

462

463

464

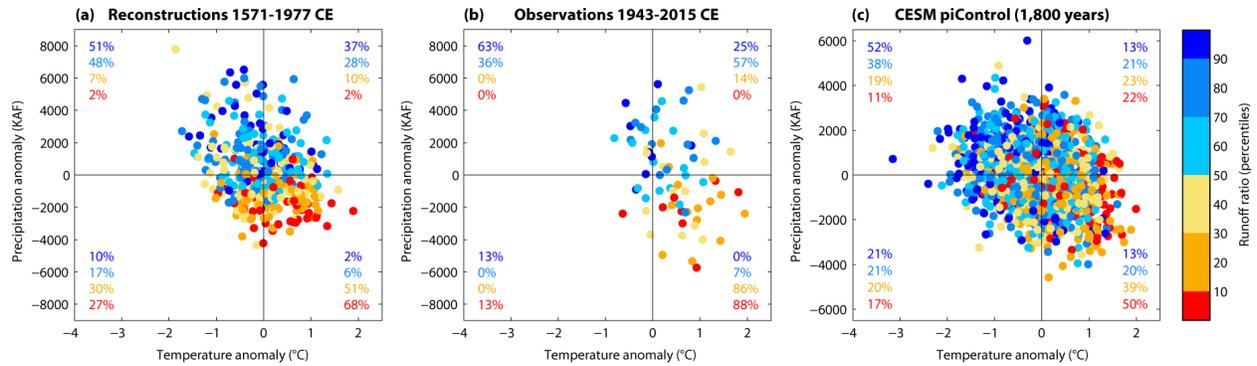


465

466 **Figure 1.** Time series of reconstructed (blue) and observed (black) (a) streamflow at Otowi
 467 Bridge, (b) precipitation upstream of Otowi Bridge and normalized snow water equivalent
 468 (SWE; orange), (c) runoff ratio for Otowi Bridge, (d) average surface air temperature upstream
 469 of Otowi Bridge. Thin lines are water year totals: except temperature, which are annual means;
 470 and SWE, which is April 1. Thick lines are smoothed with a 10-year Fourier low pass filter. Blue

471 horizontal lines give the reconstruction mean 1571-1977. Thin gray shading indicates 5-95%
472 reconstruction uncertainty. Right column shows normalized histograms of all 30-year trends of
473 the water year/annual mean data. Red vertical line indicates the most recent 30-year trend 1986-
474 2015. See Section 2 for data sources and details.

475



476

477

478

479

480

481

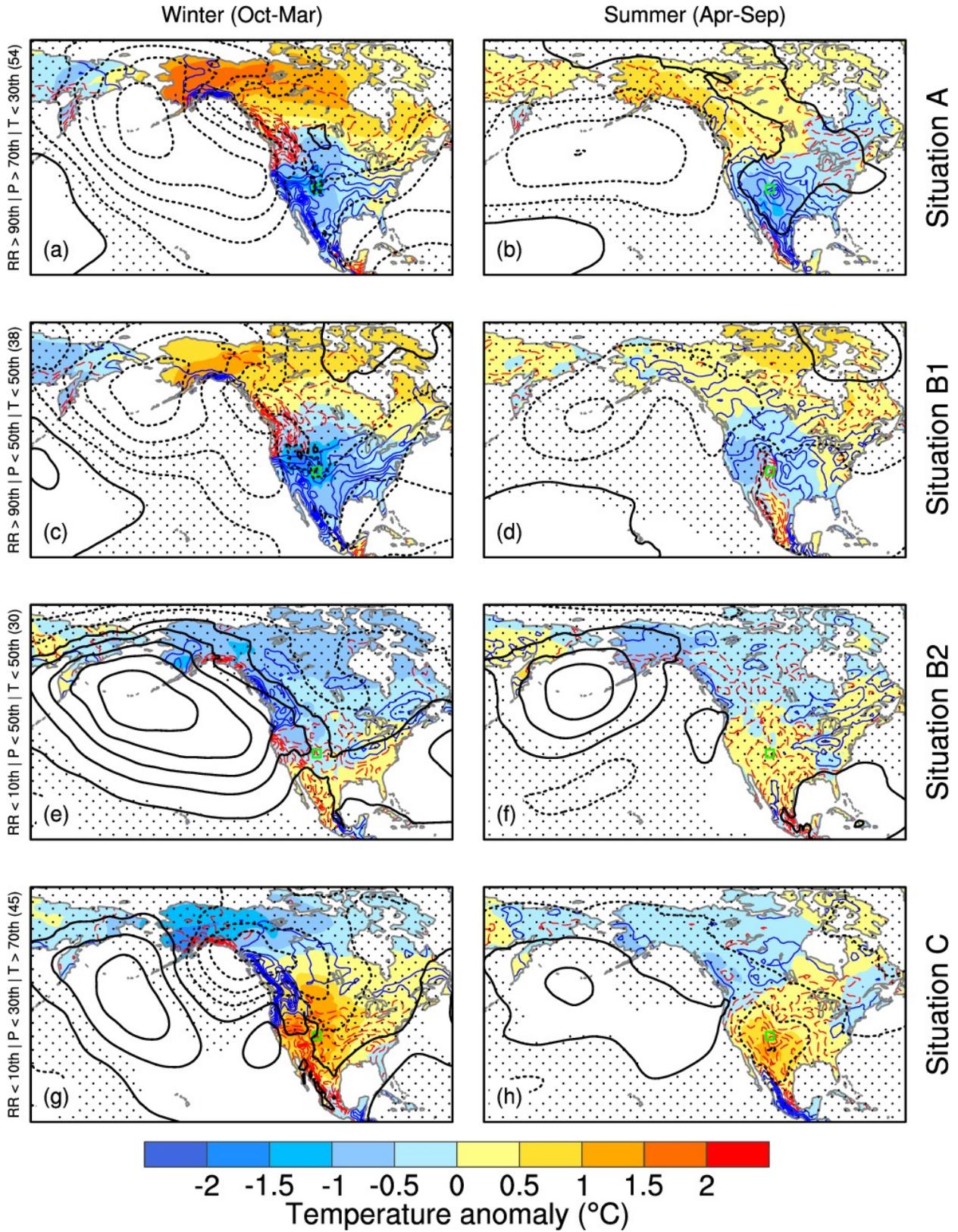
482

483

484

Figure 2. Runoff ratio at Otowi Bridge (colors) as a function of water year precipitation and annual mean temperature from **(a)** reconstructions, **(b)** observations, and **(c)** CESM control simulation (1,800 years total). Time series are relative to their median; in the case of observations, relative to the median of the reconstructions. Colored numbers give the percentage of very low ($< 10^{\text{th}}$ percentile), low ($< 30^{\text{th}}$), high ($> 70^{\text{th}}$), and very high ($> 90^{\text{th}}$) runoff ratio years that fall within a given quadrant of precipitation and temperature anomalies.

485



486

487 **Figure 3.** Composite situations from CESM control simulation of temperature (shading),
488 precipitation (blue and red contours; increment of 0.1 mm/day, starting at ± 0.05 mm/day), and
489 sea level pressure (black contours; increment of 0.5 hPa, starting at ± 0.25 hPa) anomalies for
490 years with (a-b) very high runoff ratio (RR) while precipitation (P) is high and temperature (T) is
491 low, (c-d) very high RR while both P and T are below median, (e-f) very low RR while both P
492 and T are below median, and (g-h) very low RR while P is low and T is high. Left column shows
493 cool season (Oct-Mar) means, right column warm season (Apr-Sep) means. Negative anomalies
494 are given as dashed contours. Stippling (sea level pressure) indicates non-significant difference
495 at 95% probability level. The number of years forming each composite situation is given in
496 brackets. The area of the Upper Rio Grande basin is indicated by the green square.

497

Appendix C

Peer-Reviewed Publication for Research Phase II:

Lehner, F., A. W. Wood, D. Llewellyn, D. B. Blatchford, A. G. Goodbody, and F. Pappenberger, 2017b: Mitigating the Impacts of Climate Nonstationarity on Seasonal Streamflow Predictability in the U.S. Southwest. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, doi:10.1002/2017GL076043.

1 **Mitigating the impacts of climate non-stationarity on seasonal streamflow**
2 **predictability in the US Southwest**

3
4 **Flavio Lehner¹, Andrew W. Wood¹, Dagmar Llewellyn², Douglas B. Blatchford³, Angus G.**
5 **Goodbody⁴, Florian Pappenberger⁵**

6
7 ¹ Research Applications Laboratory, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, USA

8 ² Bureau of Reclamation, Albuquerque Area Office, Albuquerque, USA

9 ³ Bureau of Reclamation, Lower Colorado Regional Office, Boulder City, USA

10 ⁴ National Water and Climate Center, Natural Resources Conservation Service, Portland, USA

11 ⁵ Forecast Department, European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, Reading, UK

12 Corresponding author: Flavio Lehner (flehner@ucar.edu)

13
14 revised for *Geophysical Research Letters*

15 November 2017

16 **Key Points:**

- 17 • Seasonal temperature forecasts from climate prediction models are skillful over the
18 headwaters of the Colorado and Rio Grande river basins
- 19 • Adding temperature information to current operational seasonal streamflow forecasts in
20 snowmelt-driven basins improves forecast skill
- 21 • Temperature forecasts help mitigate impacts of non-stationarity on US Southwest
22 streamflow predictability under increasing temperatures

24 **Abstract**

25 Seasonal streamflow predictions provide a critical management tool for water managers in the
26 American Southwest. In recent decades, persistent prediction errors for spring and summer
27 runoff volumes have been observed in a number of watersheds in the American Southwest.
28 While mostly driven by decadal precipitation trends, these errors also relate to the influence of
29 increasing temperature on streamflow in these basins. Here we show that incorporating seasonal
30 temperature forecasts from operational global climate prediction models into streamflow
31 forecasting models adds prediction skill for watersheds in the headwaters of the Colorado and
32 Rio Grande River basins. Current dynamical seasonal temperature forecasts now show sufficient
33 skill to reduce streamflow forecast errors in snowmelt-driven regions. Such predictions can
34 increase the resilience of streamflow forecasting and water management systems in the face of
35 continuing warming as well as decadal-scale temperature variability, and thus help to mitigate
36 the impacts of climate non-stationarity on streamflow predictability.

37

38 **1 Introduction**

39 With growing populations and rising temperatures, the pressure on water resources in the
40 southwestern United States (US) is increasing and expected to continue to do so over the next
41 decades (Reclamation 2016). Water resources in California, Nevada, Arizona, Utah, Colorado,
42 New Mexico, and Texas are currently almost entirely allocated for agricultural, industrial and
43 municipal uses and are heavily managed, with seasonal streamflow forecasts being a key tool
44 used to inform this management. Seasonal streamflow forecasts for a range of lead times are
45 among the most economically valuable streamflow predictions made in the US and around the
46 world, given their significance for water management (Hamlet et al. 2002; Raff et al. 2013).

47
48 Seasonal streamflow forecasts in the Upper Rio Grande river basin, for example, are used to
49 predict the annual water delivery requirements between Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas under
50 an interstate river allocation agreement, the Rio Grande Compact, to plan for water storage and
51 to inform associated reservoir management decisions. The forecasts in combination with those
52 decisions enable projections of the water supplies that will be available to farmers, which in turn
53 can influence cropping decisions. In addition, supplemental water supply to the Upper Rio
54 Grande basin is imported each year from the Colorado River system through trans-basin
55 diversions. Forecasts of the water available for diversion are used to estimate the portion of the
56 imported water that will need to be purchased by the Federal government to support the needs of
57 endangered species, as well as for planning of drinking water operations in major municipalities.
58 On the much larger Colorado River system, as well, water supply forecasts issued in spring are
59 essential to make reservoir storage and release decisions that help avoid shortage conditions in
60 Lake Mead and Lake Powell, and that determine water and hydropower allocations affecting 7
61 southwestern US states. These decisions influence water and energy costs for major American
62 cities such as Los Angeles, Las Vegas and Phoenix, and major irrigation regions such as
63 California’s Imperial Valley and Arizona’s Welton Mohawk Irrigation and Drainage District.

64
65 Although it is difficult to quantify the value of seasonal forecasts or the marginal value of
66 forecast improvements, the value of the water managed using such forecasts rises well into the
67 billions of dollars each year (Hamlet et al. 2002; Pierce 2010). In comparison, the costs of
68 enhancements to operational water supply forecasting are small, especially when they represent

69 an extension of the current approaches, similar to the cost-benefit ratio of improved flood
70 forecasting (Pappenberger et al. 2015). In recent decades the western US has seen strong
71 hydroclimatic trends and decadal variability, leading to variable streamflow forecasting skill and
72 a likelihood of sub-optimal management decisions (Pagano and Garen 2005). To better grapple
73 with water resource management challenges arising from hydroclimate non-stationarity and
74 increasing water demands, improved efficiency in water management practices is critically
75 needed (Milly et al. 2008; Lins and Cohn 2011; Steinschneider and Brown 2012).

76

77 Operational seasonal streamflow forecasts in snowmelt driven basins commonly derive skill
78 from the stability of relationships between winter precipitation and snow water equivalent (SWE)
79 with spring to summer melt season runoff (e.g., April-July streamflow). In some cases, but less
80 commonly, additional predictability is found in observations of prior streamflow, soil moisture,
81 and in climate indices such as El Niño-Southern Oscillation (Wood et al. 2005; Koster et al.
82 2010; Shukla and Lettenmaier 2011; Kalra et al. 2013; Harpold et al. 2017; Bell et al. 2017). The
83 simplest operational form of seasonal streamflow prediction relies on statistical models that
84 quantify these relationships, such as principal component regression (PCR) models trained on
85 observed in situ data records of ~30 years (Garen 1992). These ‘water supply forecasts’ (WSFs)
86 have traditionally been made beginning in January of the same year with updates on the first day
87 of each month to incorporate new precipitation and SWE observations (Pagano et al. 2014b).
88 Operational forecasts are published by regional River Forecasting Centers and the US
89 Department of Agriculture National Resources Conservation Service (NRCS). A second
90 common form of seasonal streamflow prediction involves the use of dynamic watershed models
91 to predict future watershed states and fluxes (Day 1985; Pagano et al. 2014a).

92

93 The skill of statistical WSFs varies with lead time and also on decadal time scales, with basins
94 such as the Upper Colorado River (UC) and Upper Rio Grande (URG) showing declining skill
95 since the 1980s (Pagano et al. 2004). While extensive research has been conducted on how to
96 improve seasonal streamflow forecasting systems (Moradkhani et al. 2004; Wood and
97 Lettenmaier 2006, 2008; Crochemore et al. 2016; Mendoza et al. 2017), the reasons for decadal
98 variations in skill of a fixed forecasting system remain relatively elusive. Pagano and Garen
99 (2005) argue that these skill variations originate primarily from interannual to decadal climate

100 variations, rather than basin-specific processes or human interference. As such, successful
101 prediction of interannual to decadal climate variability has the potential to stabilize streamflow
102 forecasting skill.

103

104 Besides decadal climate variability, southwestern US water resources are also sensitive to the
105 influence of anthropogenically-forced climate change, be it via temperature, precipitation, or
106 atmospheric circulation changes (Lettenmaier and Gan 1990; Christensen et al. 2004; Barnett et
107 al. 2005; Mote et al. 2005). For semi-arid and snowmelt driven basins such as the UC and URG,
108 numerous studies have indicated that increasing temperature decreases streamflow (Christensen
109 et al. 2004; Nowak et al. 2012; Vano et al. 2012; Woodhouse et al. 2016; Griffin and Friedman
110 2017; Udall and Overpeck 2017; Lehner et al. 2017). Specifically, runoff efficiency – a metric
111 indicating the fraction of precipitation that ends up as streamflow – is more likely to be low
112 when temperatures are above average (Nowak et al. 2012; Lehner et al. 2017). As a
113 consequence, the relationship between winter moisture accumulation (precipitation and SWE)
114 and summer streamflow is evidently non-stationary and can be influenced by temperature.

115

116 The influence of temperature on runoff efficiency is problematic for WSFs in light of their
117 underlying stationarity assumptions with regard to the background climate during the forecast
118 period. Statistical models using observed accumulated precipitation and SWE at the start of the
119 forecast without additional temperature information for the forecast period would under-predict
120 streamflow for cool forecast periods and over-predict streamflow for warm forecast periods, in
121 part because they do not include the information of the secular warming trend and associated
122 evaporation losses over the entire period.

123

124 Here we investigate (1) recent hydroclimate trends and streamflow forecast errors in the study
125 region, the URG and parts of the UC, (2) the seasonal predictability of temperature over this
126 region, and (3) whether including predicted temperatures in WSFs improves seasonal streamflow
127 forecasting skill. To that end, we generate WSFs via the current operational strategy, termed
128 ‘baseline forecast’, as well as WSFs that include seasonal temperature forecasts as a predictor,
129 termed ‘temperature-aided forecast’. The comparison of the two approaches enables us to assess
130 the potential to improve streamflow forecasting skill by including temperature forecasts, as well

131 as the sufficiency of current operational temperature forecasts for this purpose. Section 2
132 introduces the data and methods used, Section 3 presents the results, and Section 4 discusses
133 their wider implications.

134

135 **2 Data and methods**

136 **2.1 Streamflow, precipitation, snow water equivalent, and temperature datasets**

137 Estimates of naturalized monthly streamflow at a number of gages across the UC and URG are
138 obtained from the NRCS; the gages are marked with circles in Fig. 1a and are listed in Table S1.
139 For each gage and year from 1987 to 2016, the total streamflow for the respective forecasting
140 “target period” (e.g., Apr-July cumulative flow) is calculated. Observations of water year-to-date
141 cumulative precipitation and instantaneous SWE at the 1st of Jan, Feb, Mar, Apr, and May are
142 extracted from the same snow telemetry monitoring (SNOTEL) stations as used in the
143 operational forecasting by NRCS, but only if they cover the entire hindcasting period 1987-2016
144 (triangles in Fig. 1a; see also Table S1); this is to ensure consistency and reproducibility across
145 the hindcasting period. The year 1987 is chosen as a start year because it offers continuous
146 streamflow and SNOTEL measurements across all gages considered here. Monthly mean
147 temperature is taken from the Parameter Elevation Regression on Independent Slopes Model
148 (PRISM) data set (Daly et al. 2008) averaged over the box indicated in Fig. 1 (35.5-39.5°N,
149 108.5-105.0°W). Precipitation used to calculate runoff efficiency in Fig. 1b is taken from PRISM
150 as well, summed up over the watersheds upstream of Rio Grande at Otowi Bridge, San Juan at
151 Bluff, and Gunnison at Grand Junction.

152

153 **2.2 Seasonal temperature forecasts**

154 Seasonal temperature forecasts are derived from 8 initialized coupled climate models that
155 produce seasonal climate forecasts (Table S2): the North American Multimodel Ensemble
156 (NMME; Kirtman et al. (2014)), which comprises of 7 models, and the System 4 seasonal
157 forecasting model from the European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF;
158 Molteni et al. (2011)). In their current configuration, these models issue forecasts each month for
159 lead times of up to 12 months with various numbers of ensemble members (10-51). Since we are
160 interested in extracting the seasonally predictable signal, we use each model’s ensemble mean
161 (rather than all its individual ensemble members) of monthly mean 2-m temperature hindcasts

162 issued from January 1987 to May 2016, averaged over the area indicated in Fig. 1a. We then use
163 an equal-weights multi-model mean across the 8 models, since we found this method to perform,
164 in terms of correlation with observed temperature, as well as or better than other weighting
165 schemes in cross-validation across issue dates and lead times of interest (we tested a
166 performance-weighted multi-model mean and an equal-weights mean of the overall three best
167 models CFSv2, NASA, and ECMWF; not shown). For each streamflow forecast issue month (1st
168 January, 1st February, etc), temperature is averaged from that issue month until the end of the
169 main runoff period (July). Alternatives to this choice were tested, such as using spring (March-
170 May) average temperature or the average over the next or the next two months after issue date,
171 but were found to be inferior (not shown).

172

173 **2.3 Streamflow forecasting procedure**

174 The marginal benefit of including seasonal temperature information in WSFs can be evaluated
175 through benchmarking the performance of enhanced WSF models against models based on the
176 current operational forecast practice. We mimic the operational forecasting procedure of the
177 NRCS's operational WSF by using SNOTEL data in a principal component regression (PCR)
178 trained on 30 years (1987-2016) of observed naturalized streamflow of the respective target
179 period (Garen 1992), hereafter 'baseline forecast'. Before use in the PCR, all predictors are
180 standardized (subtraction of mean and division by standard deviation) and streamflow is
181 seminormalized via a square root transformation, as is consistent with NRCS practice. The
182 number of principal components (PCs) retained is determined through an iterative process as
183 described in Garen (1992). Specifically, individual PCs are used in a linear regression and the
184 significance of the regression coefficients is determined via a *t*-test; only PCs are retained that
185 result in significant regression coefficients and that show a physically plausible relationship with
186 streamflow (i.e., positive coefficients, indicating that high precipitation and SWE typically leads
187 to high streamflow and vice versa). In our case, one PC is retained for all streamflow gages,
188 consistent with Harpold et al. (2017) who also duplicated the NRCS's WSF. For each forecast
189 issue date, forecasts are cross-validated by training the model on 29 of the 30 years and forecast
190 the remaining (out-of-sample) year, loop through all 30 years to evaluate performance. Note that
191 our baseline forecast likely differs slightly from the officially published NRCS forecast over the
192 past decades, since those may also include additional but non-continuous snow course

193 information and/or newer SNOTEL data. As discussed above, for consistency across watersheds,
194 we only use datasets of consistent record length (1987-2016).

195

196 We then reforecast the same time period using the same information, but add the ensemble mean
197 temperature anomaly of the 8 seasonal forecasting models as an additional predictor to the PCR
198 (hereafter ‘temperature-aided forecast’). For a given year and forecast issue date (e.g., January 1,
199 February 1, March 1, April 1, and May 1 1987), the mean temperature prediction from the
200 forecast issue date to the end of July is averaged over the box indicated in Fig. 1a. For all gages,
201 the regression coefficients derived from the PCR are such that precipitation and SWE always
202 exhibit a positive relationship with streamflow, and temperature always a negative one,
203 indicating a physically plausible interaction of precipitation, SWE, and temperature in describing
204 streamflow. The same rules for PC retention are applied and one PC was retained in all cases.

205

206 **2.4 Skill metrics**

207 Prediction skill for the baseline and temperature-aided streamflow forecast is calculated via a
208 leave-one-out cross validation from 1987 to 2016. Each year between 1987 and 2016 is
209 hindcasted with a principal component regression model that has been calibrated on the
210 remaining 29 years of data, and the resulting time series of 30 streamflow predictions are verified
211 against the corresponding observations.

212

213 We quantify forecast skill using the following metrics: (i) correlation, (ii) relative root mean
214 squared error (rRMSE, in %), (iii) the Brier Skill Score (BSS) for streamflow < 33rd percentile,
215 and (iv) Continuous Ranked Probability Skill Score (CRPSS; Hersbach (2000)). Correlation and
216 rRMSE describe how well the model predicts the variability and the absolute values,
217 respectively, of the observed time series. The third metric provides insight into the ability of the
218 model to predict dry conditions relevant to droughts in the US Southwest, and the fourth metric,
219 which measures the ability of the forecast model to correctly predict the cumulative distribution
220 function of the observed streamflow data, is used to quantify probabilistic prediction skill.

221

222 Since the skill metrics BSS and CRPSS rely on probabilistic forecasts, we derive exceedance
223 probabilities from the standard error of the forecasts, consistent with NRCS’ approach (Garen

224 1992). Both BSS and CRPSS are expressed as skill relative to a certain reference forecast
225 (typically persistence or climatology). Here, we express them relative to the ‘baseline forecast’ to
226 emphasize the improvement relative to the current operational approach.

227
228

229 **3 Results**

230 **3.1 Hydroclimate trends and streamflow forecast errors**

231 Recent hydroclimate trends in the UC and URG headwaters are illustrated by plotting the runoff
232 efficiency as a function of temperature anomalies for streamflow gages at the outflow of the
233 headwaters of the Gunnison, San Juan, and Rio Grande (Fig. 1b; these three gages are
234 representative of the dynamics at other gages, see Fig. S1). A clear temperature sensitivity exists,
235 leading to relatively reduced streamflow under positive temperature anomalies. Even in the
236 absence of a strong precipitation trend, higher temperatures are shifting the partitioning of
237 precipitation from snow to rain, a phenomenon that is detectable at virtually all SNOTEL
238 stations in the region (Fig. 1c), thereby changing the peaks and timing of both snowmelt and
239 runoff. Higher temperatures also allow for more evaporative loss between when the snow falls
240 and when the water arrives at the streamflow gages downstream, which is a key hydrologic
241 dynamic leading to forecast errors.

242

243 Relatively persistent forecast errors are confirmed by the forecast record in the UC and URG:
244 streamflow gage records in these two basins show a tendency to be under-predicted in the 1980s
245 and 1990s and over-predicted in the 2000s and 2010s (Fig. 1d and Fig. S1). While these forecast
246 errors are in part related to unusually wet springs and summers in the 1980-90s and unusually
247 dry springs and summers in the 2000-10s, there exists evidence that streamflow in recent years
248 was lower than expected from precipitation deficits alone (Woodhouse et al. 2016; Lehner et al.
249 2017), pointing to a simultaneous influence of temperature on streamflow and thus on forecast
250 error. This theory is further corroborated by a significant correlation of streamflow forecast error
251 with both anomalous precipitation and temperature after the forecast issue date (Fig. S2). This
252 relationship holds even when the natural correlation between precipitation and temperature is
253 accounted for, a result consistent with earlier studies (Harding et al. 2012).

254

255 **3.2 Temperature forecast skill**

256 While uncertainty in multi-decadal projections of precipitation in the US Southwest remains
257 high, climate models such as those included in the 5th phase of the Coupled Model
258 Intercomparison Project (CMIP5) project future temperature increases (Fig. 2a) with far more
259 certainty (van Oldenborgh et al. 2013). Similarly, dynamical seasonal climate prediction models,
260 such as the 8 models from the NMME and ECMWF are more skillful in predicting temperature
261 than precipitation (Becker et al. 2014; Slater et al. 2016). The ensemble mean across these 8
262 seasonal forecasting models captures the observed warming trend of recent decades as well as
263 part of the interannual variability of spring-to-summer temperature over the UC and URG
264 headwaters region at lead times of up to 5 months, showing significant correlations ranging
265 between 0.65 and 0.75 (Fig. 2a,b). The combination of these two results leads to a usable
266 temperature forecast skill in the context of streamflow prediction in this region. The ECMWF
267 model is the best-performing individual model overall, although not necessarily for every lead
268 times and not necessarily when compared to the multi-model mean across all 8 models.

269

270 **3.3 Improved streamflow forecast skill**

271 We find that augmenting the baseline forecasting approach through the use of temperature
272 predictors adds prediction skill across the majority of streamflow gages and issue dates in the
273 study region, which is representative of snowmelt-influenced watersheds in many parts of the
274 western US. These benefits are illustrated through the skill difference between the baseline and
275 temperature-aided forecasts for all skill metrics considered (Fig. 3). The median relative
276 improvement across gages and skill metrics is between 1% and 5% with some spread across
277 gages. The vast majority of these improvements are statistically significant in light of sampling
278 uncertainty (see Section 3.4). However, the probabilistic skill for drought conditions (BSS) is
279 improved less consistently than the other skill metrics. All four skill metrics indicate larger
280 improvements for later issue dates, which likely results from a combination of better temperature
281 forecast skill at shorter lead times and the potential for stronger temperature anomaly signals due
282 to a shorter averaging period (e.g., May-July versus January-July).

283

284 When considering the median skill across gages within each basin, improvements tend to be
285 larger in the Rio Grande and San Juan than in the Gunnison. The variations of forecast
286 improvements across gages reflects the different temperature sensitivity of catchment hydrology

287 in different locations. The sensitivity of spring runoff to temperature is affected by factors such
288 as the basin distribution of elevation and aspect, vegetation and land cover (Male and Gray
289 1981), making it difficult to disentangle the reasons for an individual forecast's improvement
290 using a statistical model only. No relationship between magnitude of skill improvement and
291 basin elevation is found (not shown).

292
293 We also calculate the theoretical skill improvement resulting from using the actually observed
294 temperature and found it overall to be only marginally higher than with the temperature-aided
295 forecast based on predicted temperature (Fig. 3b,c). This indicates that the majority of the
296 temperature information that adds skill to WSF can indeed be extracted from seasonal prediction
297 models. Since temperature in this region over the period 1987-2016 shows a strong positive
298 trend, the question arises how much of the added skill is attributable to the trend alone. Using the
299 observed linear temperature trend from 1987 to 2016 as a predictor in the WSF model (thereby
300 excluding any interannual variability that might be predictable by seasonal prediction models),
301 we show that the trend alone adds most of the skill that originates from the seasonally forecasted
302 temperatures (Figure 3b and 3c).

303
304 Finally, we repeat the forecasting using the temperature forecasts from the ECMWF model only,
305 since it is the best-performing individual model (Fig. 2b), and from the 7 NMME models only
306 (i.e., without ECMWF). Interestingly, we found the streamflow forecasting skill to be roughly
307 equal in all three cases (Fig. S3). This suggests that temperature forecasts from ECMWF model
308 contain about as much information, with regard to streamflow forecasting, as the 7 NMME
309 models combined.

310

311 **3.4 Robustness of forecast skill improvements**

312 The skill is improved for the majority of the total of 100 possible forecasts (20 gages x 5 issue
313 dates). For correlation, rRMSE, and CRPSS, 99% of forecasts are improved, with 98-100% of
314 those significantly. For BSS, only 62% of all forecasts are improved, 95% of those significantly
315 (see also Table S3). Significance is established through a Monte Carlo approach in which all
316 forecasts and the associated skill score calculations are repeated 1,000 times on 30-year samples
317 constructed from bootstrapping the original 30 years with replacement. If the 95th percentile of

318 this distribution of skill scores shows an improvement, the skill improvement is considered
319 significant at the 95% confidence level.

320

321 **4 Discussion and conclusions**

322 The skill improvement demonstrated here for seasonal streamflow forecasts in the Upper Rio
323 Grande and Upper Colorado River basins can be of significant value to State and Federal water
324 managers, which, in turn, can benefit water users throughout these basins (Carolyn Donnelly and
325 Craig Cotton, personal communication). Despite its limited spatial extent, the study here is of
326 relevance for other snow-melt driven basins across the US and the world, since streamflow
327 forecast skill in such basins is often driven by the same temperature-sensitive processes.

328

329 We show that current seasonal climate prediction models are skillful in forecasting both the long-
330 term trends and interannual variability of seasonal temperatures for this region. This temperature
331 information adds skill to existing ‘water supply forecasts’ (WSFs), mitigating some of the
332 forecast errors introduced through climate non-stationarity, and moving the WSFs closer to their
333 maximally expected forecast skill based on relationships between observed snow, precipitation,
334 and temperature. Additional predictability might be available once seasonal precipitation
335 forecasts become more skillful.

336

337 For the statistical WSFs shown here, the proposed extension involves accessing and
338 incorporating temperature predictions into existing statistical forecasting models. Conventional
339 forecasting approaches based on hydrologic models (such as Ensemble Streamflow Prediction, or
340 ESP, a popular operational method that is not discussed in this paper) are also commonly
341 dependent on climate stationarity assumptions and thus are also likely to benefit from additional
342 temperature forecast information. Fortunately, many techniques for inclusion of conditional
343 climate information have been described in the literature over the last several decades for both
344 statistical and model-based forecasting (e.g., Werner et al. 2004; Beckers et al. 2016; Mendoza et
345 al. 2017; see also the special issue of Wetterhall et al. 2017), including examples of using
346 NMME and ECMWF (Yuan et al. 2013; Mo and Lettenmaier 2014; Thober et al. 2015;
347 Crochemore et al. 2016). It may be impossible to protect or increase streamflow prediction skill
348 in all locations in the face of a non-stationary climate, but expanding the use of model-based

349 seasonal climate predictions, and particularly temperature forecasts, appears to be one pragmatic
350 strategy for hydroclimates that are similar to the US Southwest.

351

352 Despite the evidence of forecast skill improvement through inclusion of temperature, this study
353 does not support detailed conclusions regarding the hydrologic processes that underpin changes
354 in prediction skill, as the temperature influence on streamflow can be dampened or amplified due
355 to other effects and non-linear interactions (e.g., related to groundwater use or vegetation
356 alterations). Our focus on minimally impaired gages in headwater locations aims to circumvent
357 this issue, but we cannot exclude all possibilities of processes amplifying or canceling each
358 other. Similarly, using low-dimensional statistical models only, we are unable to disentangle why
359 certain gages show greater improvement than others. Process-based observation and modeling
360 studies tackling this question may therefore be a valuable next step for the hydrologic forecasting
361 community.

362

363 **Acknowledgments**

364 We thank Pablo A. Mendoza and Carolyn Donnelly for constructive discussion, two anonymous
365 reviewers for helpful feedback, Kevin Sampson for technical assistance, and the different
366 modeling centers for making available the seasonal climate forecasts. NMME data is available
367 publicly from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Climate
368 Prediction Center. ECWMF System 4 data is not available anymore, but its successor System 5
369 (not used here) has been released in November 2017 and is publicly available. The National
370 Center for Atmospheric Research is sponsored by the National Science Foundation. F.L. is
371 supported by a Postdoc Applying Climate Expertise (PACE) fellowship cosponsored by the
372 NOAA Climate Program Office and the Bureau of Reclamation, organized by the Cooperative
373 Programs for the Advancement of Earth System Science. A.W.W. is supported by Reclamation
374 under Cooperative Agreement #R11AC80816 and by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers
375 (USACE) Climate Preparedness and Resilience Program.

376

377 **References**

- 378
379 Barnett, T. P., J. C. Adam, and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2005: Potential impacts of a warming climate
380 on water availability in snow-dominated regions. *Nature*, **438**, 303–309,
381 doi:10.1038/nature04141.
- 382 Becker, E., H. Van den Dool, and Q. Zhang, 2014: Predictability and forecast skill in NMME. *J.*
383 *Clim.*, **27**, 5891–5906, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-13-00597.1.
- 384 Beckers, J. V. L., A. H. Weerts, E. Tjrdeman, and E. Welles, 2016: ENSO-conditioned weather
385 resampling method for seasonal ensemble streamflow prediction. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*,
386 **20**, 3277–3287, doi:10.5194/hess-20-3277-2016.
- 387 Bell, V. A., H. N. Davies, A. L. Kay, A. Brookshaw, and A. A. Scaife, 2017: A national-scale
388 seasonal hydrological forecast system: development and evaluation over Britain. *Hydrol.*
389 *Earth Syst. Sci. Discuss.*, 1–19, doi:10.5194/hess-2017-154.
- 390 Christensen, N. S., A. W. Wood, N. Voisin, D. P. Lettenmaier, and R. N. Palmer, 2004: The
391 effects of climate change on the hydrology and water resources of the Colorado River basin.
392 *Clim. Change*, **62**, 337–363, doi:10.1023/B:CLIM.0000013684.13621.1f.
- 393 Crochemore, L., M. H. Ramos, and F. Pappenberger, 2016: Bias correcting precipitation
394 forecasts to improve the skill of seasonal streamflow forecasts. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, **20**,
395 3601–3618, doi:10.5194/hess-20-3601-2016.
- 396 Daly, C., M. Halbleib, J. I. Smith, W. P. Gibson, M. K. Doggett, G. H. Taylor, J. Curtis, and P.
397 P. Pasteris, 2008: Physiographically sensitive mapping of climatological temperature and
398 precipitation across the conterminous United States. *Int. J. Climatol.*, **28**, 2031–2064,
399 doi:10.1002/joc.1688.
- 400 Day, G. N., 1985: Extended Streamflow Forecasting Using NWSRFS. *J. Water Resour. Plan.*
401 *Manag.*, **111**, 157–170, doi:10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9496(1985)111:2(157).
- 402 Garen, D. C., 1992: Improved Techniques in Regression-Based Streamflow Volume Forecasting.
403 *J. Water Resour. Plan. Manag.*, **118**, 654–670, doi:10.1061/(ASCE)0733-
404 9496(1992)118:6(654).
- 405 Griffin, E. R., and J. M. Friedman, 2017: Decreased Runoff Response to Precipitation, Little
406 Missouri River Basin, Northern Great Plains, USA. *JAWRA J. Am. Water Resour. Assoc.*,
407 **80526**, 1–17, doi:10.1111/1752-1688.12517.
- 408 Hamlet, A. F., D. Huppert, and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2002: Economic Value of Long-Lead
409 Streamflow Forecasts for Columbia River Hydropower. *J. Water Resour. Plan. Manag.*,
410 **128**, 91–101, doi:10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9496(2002)128:2(91).
- 411 Harding, B. L., A. W. Wood, and J. R. Prairie, 2012: The implications of climate change
412 scenario selection for future streamflow projection in the Upper Colorado River Basin.
413 *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, **16**, 3989–4007, doi:10.5194/hess-16-3989-2012.
- 414 Harpold, A. A., K. Sutcliffe, J. Clayton, A. Goodbody, and S. Vazquez, 2017: Does Including
415 Soil Moisture Observations Improve Operational Streamflow Forecasts in Snow-Dominated

416 Watersheds? *J. Am. Water Resour. Assoc.*, **53**, 179–196, doi:10.1111/1752-1688.12490.
417 Hersbach, H., 2000: Decomposition of the Continuous Ranked Probability Score for Ensemble
418 Prediction Systems. *Weather Forecast.*, **15**, 559–570, doi:10.1175/1520-
419 0434(2000)015<0559:DOTCRP>2.0.CO;2.
420 Kalra, A., W. P. Miller, K. W. Lamb, S. Ahmad, and T. Piechota, 2013: Using large-scale
421 climatic patterns for improving long lead time streamflow forecasts for Gunnison and San
422 Juan River Basins. *Hydrol. Process.*, **27**, 1543–1559, doi:10.1002/hyp.9236.
423 Kirtman, B. P., and Coauthors, 2014: The North American multimodel ensemble: Phase-1
424 seasonal-to-interannual prediction; phase-2 toward developing intraseasonal prediction.
425 *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, **95**, 585–601, doi:10.1175/BAMS-D-12-00050.1.
426 Koster, R. D., S. P. P. Mahanama, B. Livneh, D. P. Lettenmaier, and R. H. Reichle, 2010: Skill
427 in streamflow forecasts derived from large-scale estimates of soil moisture and snow. *Nat.*
428 *Geosci.*, **3**, 613–616, doi:10.1038/ngeo944.
429 Lehner, F., E. R. Wahl, A. W. Wood, D. Blatchford, and D. Llewellyn, 2017: Assessing recent
430 declines in Upper Rio Grande River runoff efficiency from a paleoclimate perspective.
431 *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, doi:10.1002/2017GL073253.
432 Lettenmaier, D. P., and T. Y. Gan, 1990: Hydrologic sensitivities of the Sacramento-San Joaquin
433 River Basin, California, to global warming. *Water Resour. Res.*, **26**, 69–86,
434 doi:10.1029/WR026i001p00069.
435 Lins, H. F., and T. A. Cohn, 2011: Stationarity: Wanted dead or alive? *J. Am. Water Resour.*
436 *Assoc.*, **47**, 475–480, doi:10.1111/j.1752-1688.2011.00542.x.
437 Male, D. H., and D. M. Gray, eds., 1981: *Handbook of Snow: Principles, Processes,*
438 *Management and Use*. The Blackburn Press, Caldwell, New Jersey, USA, 776 pp.
439 Mendoza, P. A., A. W. Wood, E. Clark, E. Rothwell, M. P. Clark, B. Nijssen, L. D. Brekke, and
440 J. R. Arnold, 2017: An intercomparison of approaches for improving predictability in
441 operational seasonal streamflow forecasting. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. Discuss.*, 1–37,
442 doi:10.5194/hess-2017-60.
443 Milly, P. C. D., J. Betancourt, M. Falkenmark, R. M. Hirsch, Z. W. Kundzewicz, D. P.
444 Lettenmaier, and R. J. Stouffer, 2008: Climate change. Stationarity is dead: whither water
445 management? *Science*, **319**, 573–574, doi:10.1126/science.1151915.
446 Mo, K. C., and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2014: Hydrologic Prediction over the Conterminous United
447 States Using the National Multi-Model Ensemble. *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **15**, 1457–1472,
448 doi:10.1175/JHM-D-13-0197.1. [http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/abs/10.1175/JHM-D-13-](http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/abs/10.1175/JHM-D-13-0197.1)
449 [0197.1%5Cnhttp://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/pdf/10.1175/JHM-D-13-0197.1.](http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/pdf/10.1175/JHM-D-13-0197.1)
450 Molteni, F., and Coauthors, 2011: The new ECMWF seasonal forecast system (System 4).
451 *Tech. Memo. ECMWF*, 49.
452 Moradkhani, H., K. Hsu, H. V. Gupta, and S. Sorooshian, 2004: Improved streamflow
453 forecasting using self-organizing radial basis function artificial neural networks. *J. Hydrol.*,
454 **295**, 246–262, doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2004.03.027.

455 Mote, P. W., A. F. Hamlet, M. P. Clark, and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2005: Declining mountain
456 snowpack in western north America. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, **86**, 39–49,
457 doi:10.1175/BAMS-86-1-39.

458 Nowak, K., M. Hoerling, B. Rajagopalan, and E. Zagona, 2012: Colorado River Basin
459 Hydroclimatic Variability. *J. Clim.*, **25**, 4389–4403, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-11-00406.1.

460 van Oldenborgh, G., M. Collins, J. Arblaster, J. Christensen, J. Marotzke, S. Power, M.
461 Rummukainen, and T. Zhou, 2013: Atlas of Global and Regional Climate Projections. *Clim.*
462 *Chang. 2013 Phys. Sci. Basis. Contrib. Work. Gr. I to Fifth Assess. Rep. Intergov. Panel*
463 *Clim. Chang.*, 1311–1394, doi:10.1017/CBO9781107415324.029.

464 Pagano, T., D. Garen, and S. Sorooshian, 2004: Evaluation of Official Western U.S. Seasonal
465 Water Supply Outlooks, 1922–2002. *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **5**, 896–909, doi:10.1175/1525-
466 7541(2004)005<0896:EOOWUS>2.0.CO;2.

467 —, A. Wood, K. Werner, and R. Tama-Sweet, 2014a: Western U.S. water supply forecasting:
468 A tradition evolves. *Eos (Washington, DC)*, **95**, 28–29, doi:10.1002/2014EO030007.

469 Pagano, T. C., and D. Garen, 2005: The recent increase in Western US streamflow variability
470 and persistence. *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **6**, 173–179, doi:10.1175/JHM410.1.

471 —, and Coauthors, 2014b: Challenges of Operational River Forecasting. *J. Hydrometeorol.*,
472 140516115449007, doi:10.1175/JHM-D-13-0188.1.
473 <http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/abs/10.1175/JHM-D-13-0188.1>.

474 Pappenberger, F., H. L. Cloke, D. J. Parker, F. Wetterhall, D. S. Richardson, and J. Thielen,
475 2015: The monetary benefit of early flood warnings in Europe. *Environ. Sci. Policy*, **51**,
476 278–291, doi:10.1016/j.envsci.2015.04.016.

477 Pierce, J. A. S., 2010: *A Measure of Snow: Case Studies of the Snow Survey and Water Supply*
478 *Forecasting Program*. Salt Lake City, UT, 109 pp.
479 <https://www.wcc.nrcs.usda.gov/ftpref/downloads/factpub/MeasureofSnowFullReport.pdf>.

480 Raff, D., L. Brekke, K. Werner, A. Wood, and K. White, 2013: *Short-Term Water Management*
481 *Decisions: User Needs for Improved Climate, Weather, and Hydrologic Information*. 231
482 pp. <http://www.ccawwg.us/>.

483 Reclamation, B. of, 2016: *Climate Change Adaptation Strategy*. 33 pp.
484 <https://www.usbr.gov/climate/docs/2016ClimateStrategy.pdf>.

485 Shukla, S., and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2011: Seasonal hydrologic prediction in the United States:
486 Understanding the role of initial hydrologic conditions and seasonal climate forecast skill.
487 *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, **15**, 3529–3538, doi:10.5194/hess-15-3529-2011.

488 Slater, L. J., G. Villarini, and A. A. Bradley, 2016: Evaluation of the skill of North-American
489 Multi-Model Ensemble (NMME) Global Climate Models in predicting average and extreme
490 precipitation and temperature over the continental USA. *Climate Dynamics*.

491 Steinschneider, S., and C. Brown, 2012: Dynamic reservoir management with real-option risk
492 hedging as a robust adaptation to nonstationary climate. *Water Resour. Res.*, **48**, 1–16,
493 doi:10.1029/2011WR011540.

494 Thober, S., R. Kumar, J. Sheffield, J. Mai, D. Schäfer, and L. Samaniego, 2015: Seasonal Soil
495 Moisture Drought Prediction over Europe Using the North American Multi-Model
496 Ensemble (NMME). *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **16**, 2329–2344, doi:10.1175/JHM-D-15-0053.1.
497 <http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/10.1175/JHM-D-15-0053.1>.

498 Udall, B., and J. Overpeck, 2017: The 21 st Century Colorado River Hot Drought and
499 Implications for the Future. *Water Resour. Res.*, doi:10.1002/2016WR019638.

500 Vano, J. A., T. Das, and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2012: Hydrologic Sensitivities of Colorado River
501 Runoff to Changes in Precipitation and Temperature. *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **13**, 932–949,
502 doi:10.1175/JHM-D-11-069.1.

503 Werner, K., D. Brandon, M. Clark, and S. Gangopadhyay, 2004: Climate Index Weighting
504 Schemes for NWS ESP-Based Seasonal Volume Forecasts. *J. Hydrometeorol.*, **5**, 1076–
505 1090, doi:10.1175/JHM-381.1.

506 Wetterhall, F., I. G. Pechlivanidis, M.-H. Ramos, A. W. Wood, Q. J. Wang, E. Zehe, and U.
507 Ehret, 2017: Special issue: Sub-seasonal to seasonal hydrological forecasting. *Hydrol. Earth*
508 *Syst. Sci.*,

509 Wood, A. W., and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2006: A test bed for new seasonal hydrologic forecasting
510 approaches in the western United States. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, **87**, 1699–1712,
511 doi:10.1175/BAMS-87-12-1699.

512 ———, and ———, 2008: An ensemble approach for attribution of hydrologic prediction
513 uncertainty. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **35**, doi:10.1029/2008GL034648.

514 ———, A. Kumar, and D. P. Lettenmaier, 2005: A retrospective assessment of National Centers
515 for Environmental prediction climate model-based ensemble hydrologic forecasting in the
516 western United States. *J. Geophys. Res. D Atmos.*, **110**, 1–16, doi:10.1029/2004JD004508.

517 Woodhouse, C. A., G. T. Pederson, K. Morino, S. A. McAfee, and G. J. McCabe, 2016:
518 Increasing influence of air temperature on upper Colorado River streamflow. *Geophys. Res.*
519 *Lett.*, **43**, 2174–2181, doi:10.1002/2015GL067613.

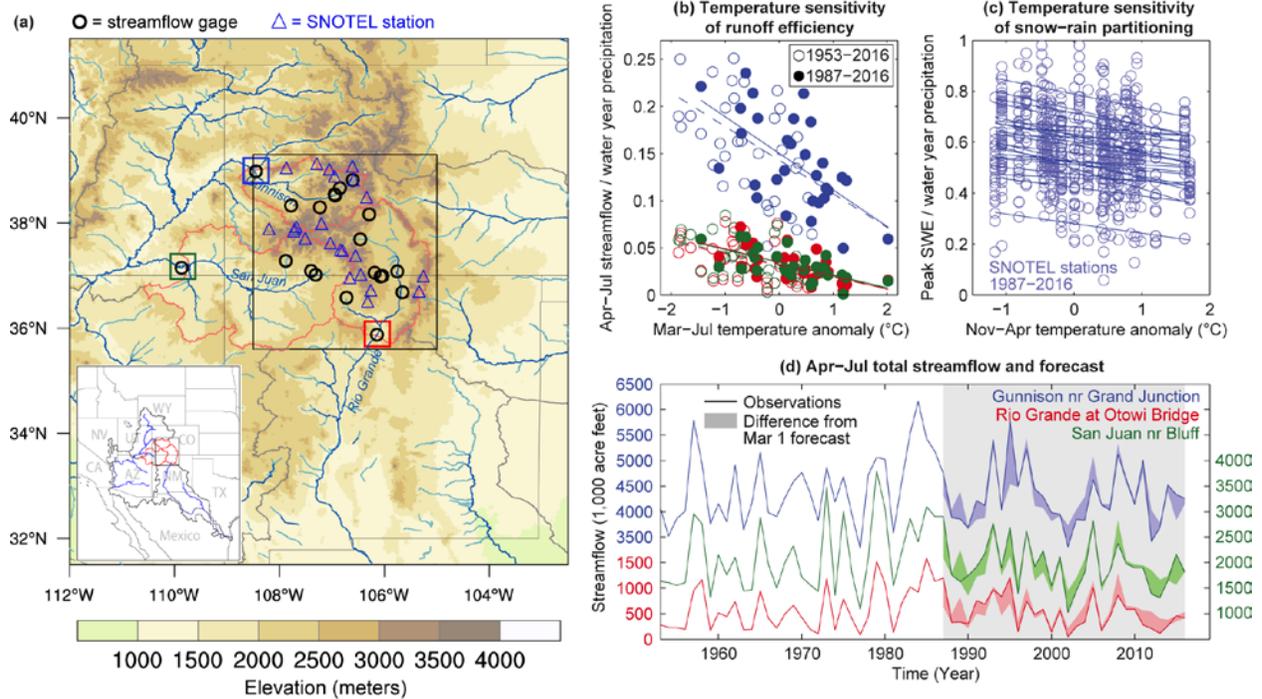
520 Yuan, X., E. F. Wood, J. K. Roundy, and M. Pan, 2013: CFSv2-Based seasonal hydroclimatic
521 forecasts over the conterminous United States. *J. Clim.*, **26**, 4828–4847, doi:10.1175/JCLI-
522 D-12-00683.1.

523

524

525 **Figures**

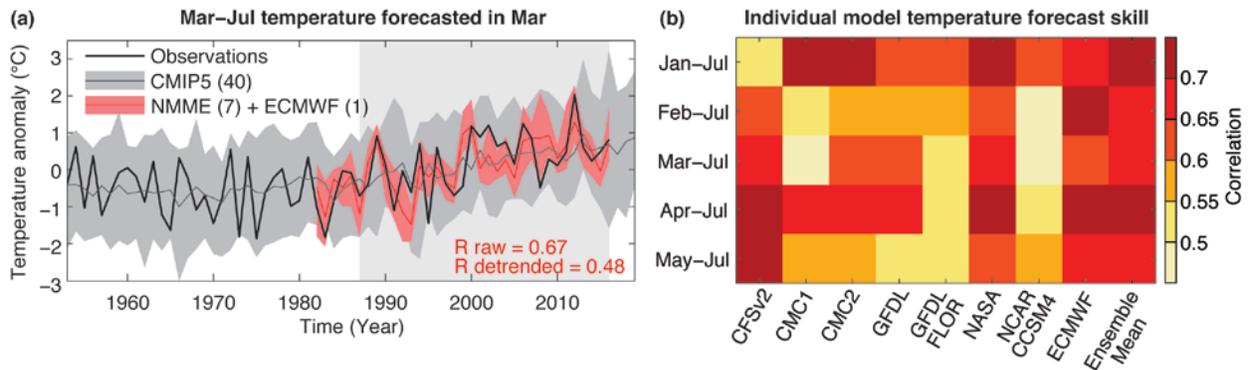
526



527

528 **Figure 1:** (a) Map showing the main rivers, basins, (circles) streamflow gages, and (triangles)
 529 SNOTEL stations analyzed in this study. (b) Runoff efficiency – spring-summer streamflow
 530 divided by water year precipitation – for 3 selected gages marked with colored boxes in (a). (c)
 531 Snow-rain partitioning – peak snow water equivalent (SWE) divided by water year precipitation
 532 – as a function of winter-spring temperature for all SNOTEL stations analyzed in this study
 533 (each linear trend line is for one SNOTEL station). (d) Observed and forecasted streamflow for
 534 the 3 selected gages; solid lines are the observed streamflow, while colored shading indicates the
 535 difference between the observed and forecasted streamflow, i.e., the larger the shading the larger
 536 the forecast error; gray shading indicates time period analyzed in this study. See text for more
 537 details on datasets.

538



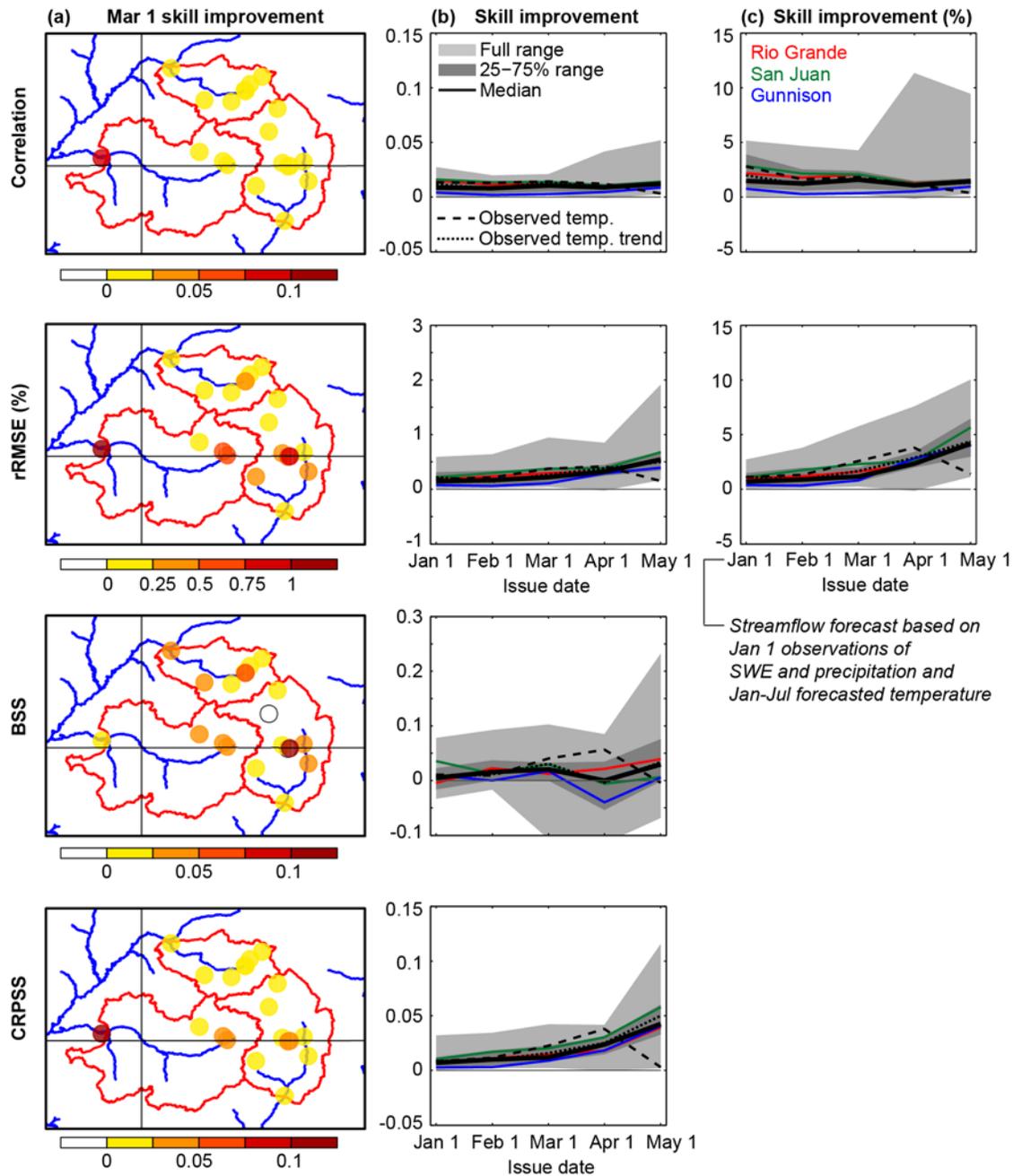
539

540 **Figure 2:** (a) March-July mean temperature anomalies relative to 1982-2016 from observations,
541 40 CMIP5 models, and seasonal prediction models (NMME+ECMWF), averaged over the box
542 indicated in Fig. 1a. The red line is the mean across NMME-ECMWF models, the gray line is the
543 mean across CMIP5 models, and the black line is observations. Shading indicates the 5-95%
544 range. (b) Correlation between observed and forecasted temperature for different temperature
545 targets and seasonal prediction models for 1982-2016. Forecasts are initialized at the start of
546 each predicted period. All correlations are significant at 95% confidence.

547

548

549



550

551 **Figure 3:** (a) Absolute skill improvement of the temperature-aided forecast relative to the
 552 baseline forecast at individual gages for issue date 1st March as an illustrative example. (b)
 553 Absolute skill improvement for all gages as a function of issue date. (c) Relative skill
 554 improvement for all gages as a function of issue date. Solid lines are the median across (black)
 555 all gages and (colors) the three basins. Dashed line is the median across all gages when using

556 observed temperature, mimicking the hypothetical case where the future temperature is known at
557 the time of forecast issue, and dotted line is the median when using only the linear trend of
558 observed temperature.

559