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37 Abstract

38 The Masinga Reservoir located in the upper Tana River Basin, Kenya, is extremely 39 important in supplying country's hydropower and protecting downstream ecology. The Dam 40 serves as the primary storage reservoir, controlling streamflow through a series of downstream 41 hydro-electric reservoirs. The Masinga dam's operation is crucial in meeting the power demands 42 thus contributing significantly to the country's economy. La Nina related prolonged droughts of 43 1999-2001 resulted in severe power shortages in Kenya. Therefore, seasonal streamflow 44 forecasts contingent on climate information are essential to estimate pre-season water allocation. 45 Here, we utilize reservoir inflow forecasts downscaled from monthly updated precipitation 46 forecasts from ECHAM4.5 forced with constructed analogue SSTs and multimodel precipitation 47 forecasts developed from ENSEMBLES project to improve water allocation during April-June 48 (AMJ) and October-December (OND) seasons for the Masinga reservoir. Three-month ahead 49 inflow forecasts developed from ECHAM4.5, multiple GCMs and climatological ensemble are 50 ingested into a reservoir model to allocate water for power generation by ensuring climatological 51 probability of meeting the end of the season target storage required to meet seasonal water 52 demands. Retrospective reservoir analysis shows that inflow forecasts developed from single 53 GCM and multiple GCMs perform better than climatology by reducing the spill and increasing 54 the allocation for hydropower during above-normal inflow years. Similarly, during below-normal 55 inflow years, both these forecasts could be effectively utilized to meet the end of the season 56 target storage by restricting releases for power generation. The multimodel forecasts preserves 57 the end of the season target storage better than the single model inflow forecasts by reducing 58 uncertainty and the overconfidence of individual model forecasts.

60

1.0 Introduction

61 Recent studies focusing on the teleconnection between Sea Surface Temperature (SST) 62 conditions and regional/continental hydroclimatology show that interannual and interdecadal 63 variability in exogenous climatic indices modulate both global and regional scale rainfall (Ropelewski and Halpert, 1987) and streamflow patterns (e.g., Dettinger and Diaz, 2000; 64 65 Piechota and Dracup, 1996). Advancement in understanding the linkages between exogenous climatic conditions such as tropical SST anomalies to local/regional hydroclimatology offer the 66 67 scope of predicting season ahead and long-lead time (12 to 18 months) streamflow (Maurer and 68 Lettenmaier, 2003; Souza and Lall, 2003). Considerable improvement in the skill of seasonal 69 climate forecasts over the last decade has also been achieved using the slowly evolving boundary 70 conditions such as SSTs in the tropical oceans (Goddard et al. 2003). Seasonal forecasts of 71 streamflow could also be utilized effectively for multipurpose water allocation and to prepare 72 adequate contingency measures to mitigate hydroclimatic disasters (Voisin et al. 2006; 73 Georgakakos and Graham, 2008; Golembesky et al. 2009). Hence, the application of climate 74 based information for water management has been shown to result in improved benefits over the long term in comparison to the benefits that would be obtainable under no-forecasts 75 76 (climatology) based operation. Still, application of climate forecasts for improving water 77 management faces various challenges partly due to the uncertainty in climate forecasts (Pagano 78 et al. 2001; Pagano et al. 2002) as well as due to the challenges in translating probabilistic 79 forecasts for operational guidance (Sankarasubramanian et al. 2009).

Recent studies on operational streamflow forecasts development show that seasonal streamflow forecasts downscaled from monthly updated climate forecasts are quite effective in reducing the uncertainty in intra-seasonal water allocation (Sankarasubramanian et al. 2008;

83 Sankarasubramanian et al. 2009). Efforts to reduce uncertainty in climate forecasts have also 84 focused on combining climate forecasts from multiple climate models (Rajagopalan et al. 2002; Devineni and Sankarasubramanian, 2010a, 2010b). Recent studies based on multimodel 85 86 combination approach indicate better streamflow forecasting skill than any individual forecast 87 model as the skill of the multimodel ensembles is maximized by assigning optimal weights to 88 each GCM (Robertson et al. 2004; Devineni et al. 2010a, 2010b). Studies have also shown the 89 utility of multimodel streamflow forecasts derived from low-dimensional models in invoking 90 restrictions and water conservation measures during drought years (Golembesky et al. 2009). 91 Low dimensional models primarily employ the dominant modes of variability in the predictors 92 (e.g., precipitation forecasts from GCMs) to explain the variability in the predictand (e.g., 93 precipitation/streamflow). For instance, Golembesky et al. (2009) utilized probabilistic 94 multimodel streamflow forecasts to invoke water-use restrictions for improving the operation of 95 Falls Lake reservoir, Neuse basin during below normal inflow years. One important usefulness 96 of multimodel climate forecasts is in reducing the overconfidence of individual models resulting 97 in lesser false alarms and missed targets (Devineni and Sankarasubramanian, 2010a; Weigel et 98 al. 2008). This has important implications since multimodel climate forecasts can increase the 99 confidence of stakeholders towards application of climate information for water management.

The main intent of this study is to evaluate the performance of probabilistic streamflow forecasts developed from single General Circulation Model (GCM) and from multimodel climate forecasts in improving the hydropower generation for the Tana River basin, Kenya. Tana River basin accounts for about 57% of the total hydropower generated in Kenya and our analysis is focused on the Masinga Reservoir system, which accounts for about 67% of the total storage capacity in the Tana River basin. For developing the reservoir inflow forecasts, the study utilizes 106 3-month ahead precipitation forecasts from ECHAM4.5 General Circulation Model (GCM) 107 forced with constructed analogue SST forecasts and the multimodel climate forecasts developed 108 from the study of Devineni and Sankarasubramanian (2010a). The reservoir management model 109 adopted here is a simplified version of the dynamic allocation framework reported by 110 Sankarasubramanian et al. (2009).

111 The manuscript is organized as follows: Section 2 provides baseline information on the 112 Tana River basin and its linkage to El-Nino Southern Oscillation (ENSO) along with the 113 seasonal streamflow forecasts developed from ECHAM4.5 and from multimodel climate 114 forecasts. Following that, we present a brief description of the Masinga reservoir simulation 115 model and the retrospective reservoir analyses design. Section 4 compares the utility of 116 streamflow forecasts derived from ECHAM4.5 and multiple climate models with climatology in 117 improving the hydropower generation from the Masinga reservoir. Finally, in Section 5, we 118 summarize the findings of the study and also give conclusions.

119

120 **2.0** Hydroclimatology of the Tana basin and Streamflow Forecasts Development

121 Kenya experienced major extreme climatic events in the recent past such as El-Niño 122 related floods in 1997/1998 and 2009/2010 and La Niña related droughts in 1999/2000 and 123 2008/2009, which led to severe socio-economic impacts in the country. Specifically, inadequate 124 rainfall during the prolonged 1999-2000 drought led to severe water scarcity and shortage in 125 electrical power supply causing serious power rationing throughout the country. In particular, the 126 estimated losses in hydropower generation and industrial production due to water shortage 127 during the 1999/2000 drought were over 2 billion US dollars (Mongaka et al., 2006). Such 128 enormous losses related to the extreme events underscores the need to translate the climate based

streamflow forecasts information into planning, risk management and decision-making to minimize socio-economic impacts and to meet increased energy demands in the near future.

131 Kenya is highly dependent on hydropower which constitutes over 75% of the total 132 electricity generated in the country. The bulk of this electricity is obtained from five generating 133 plants along the Upper Tana River Basin (Figure 1a), namely Masinga (40 MW), Kamburu (94.2 134 MW), Kindaruma (44 MW), Gitaru (225 MW) and Kiambere (156 MW), typically known as the 135 Seven-Forks Dams (See Figure 1a). Kenya Electricity Generating Company Limited (KenGen) is 136 the leading electric power generation company in Kenya producing about 80 percent of 137 electricity from hydropower. The Masinga Dam, the uppermost reservoir, controls the flow of 138 water through a series of downstream hydro-electric reservoirs. The Masinga catchment area lies between $0^{\circ}7'-1^{\circ}15'S$ and $36^{\circ}33'-37^{\circ}46'E$ and has an area of about 7.354 km². The reservoir has 139 a capacity of 1,560 million m³ at Full Supply Level (FSL) with a surface area 120 km². The 140 141 spillway for Masinga dam is 1,056.5 meters above mean sea level which corresponds to the FSL. 142 The minimum operating level is 1,035.0 meters above mean sea level. Tana River basin 143 experiences bimodal precipitation pattern and accordingly dominant runoff seasons occur during 144 April - Mary-June (AMJ) and October - November - December (OND). Observed inflows at 145 the Masinga Dam are available from 1940 to till date. Inflows during AMJ, which are heavily 146 influenced by SST variations in the Indian Ocean (Mutai and Ward, 2000), contribute more than 147 46% of the total annual inflows into the dam (Figure 1b). Inflows during the OND season 148 account for 26% of the annual flows and its interannual variations are significantly associated 149 with ENSO variations (Mutai and Ward, 2000). The correlation between OND flows and JAS 150 (July-August-September) Nino3.4, a commonly used index denoting ENSO conditions which 151 indicate the average SSTs over 170 W-120W and 5S-5N, over the 1947-2005 period is 0.42. This

152 strong association between SST and inflows indicates the potential in linking climate forecasts 153 for developing season-ahead inflow forecasts for the Tana River basin.

154 Seasonal streamflow forecasts based on exogenous climate indices can be obtained using 155 both dynamical and statistical modeling approaches. The dynamical modeling involves coupling 156 of a hydrological model with a Regional Climate Model (RCM) that preserves the boundary 157 conditions specified by the General Circulation Models (GCM) by considering the topography of 158 a region (e.g., Leung et al., 1999; Nijssen et al., 2001). However, uncertainty propagation from 159 the coupling of these models (Kyriakidis et al. 2001) and converting the gridded 160 streamflow/precipitation forecasts into reservoir inflow forecasts pose serious challenges in 161 employing dynamical downscaling for water management applications. On the other hand, 162 statistical modeling basically employs statistical models to downscale GCM outputs to develop 163 streamflow forecasts at a desired location (Gangophadhyay et al., 2005). Studies have also 164 related well-known climatic modes to observed streamflow in a given location using a variety of 165 statistical models ranging from simple regression (e.g., Hamlet and Lettenmaier, 1999) to 166 complex methods such as linear discriminant analysis (Piechota et al., 2001), spatial pattern analysis (Sicard et al., 2002), and semi-parametric resampling strategies (Souza and Lall, 2003). 167 168 Although both approaches have their advantages and limitations, statistical modeling approach is 169 the least data intensive and is very relevant in regions such as Kenya, where high resolution 170 spatial data to run regional climate and hydrologic models are not readily available.

171

2.1 Multimodel Inflow Forecasts Development using Multimodel Climate Forecasts

172 The primary intent of this paper is to utilize inflow forecasts developed using multimodel 173 climate forecasts and compare their performance with inflow forecasts developed using single 174 GCMs and with climatological inflows. Recent studies on reducing the uncertainty of climate

175 forecasts shows that combining multiple models result in reduced false alarms and missed targets 176 resulting in improved probabilistic climate forecasts (Rajagopalan et al., 2002; Devineni and 177 Sankarasubramanian, 2010b). In this study, we utilize the multimodel precipitation forecasts 178 developed by Devineni and Sankarasubramanian (2010b) for developing multimodel inflow 179 forecasts for the Masinga reservoir. The multimodel precipitation forecasts for the AMJ and 180 OND seasons are developed by combining five coupled GCMs (CGCMs) and climatology (i.e. 181 observed precipitation) based on the methodology described in Devineni and 182 Sankarasubramaniam (2010b). The precipitation forecasts from multiple models along with the 183 climatology are combined by analyzing the skill of the candidate models contingent on the 184 Nino3.4 state. The main advantage of combining multiple GCMs conditional on the predictors' 185 state is that the approach assigns higher weights for climatology and lower weights for the 186 CGCMs particularly if the skill of a candidate model is poor under ENSO conditions. For 187 additional details and a complete discussion on the multimodel combination methodology, see 188 Devineni and Sankarasubramaniam (2010a, 2010b).

189 Retrospective precipitation forecasts from the European Union's ENSEMBLES project 190 (Weisheimer et al. 2009) were used to develop the multimodel forecasts over the Masinga River 191 Basin. Table 1 provides details on the five CGCMs considered in the ENSEMBLES experiment 192 for developing multimodel precipitation forecasts. Seven-month ahead retrospective climate forecasts were developed on 1st February, 1st May, 1st August and 1st November for the period 193 194 1960-2005 using the respective months' initial conditions. For this study, we considered CGCMs' SST forecasts and precipitation forecasts issued on 1st February (1st August) to develop 195 multimodel precipitation forecasts. For instance, monthly precipitation forecasts issued in 1st 196 February (1st August) for the period AMJ (OND) are converted into tercile forecasts for each 197

198 CGCM and the tercile forecasts are combined based on the Devineni and Sankarasubramanian (2008) algorithm to develop the multimodel tercile forecasts. Given the tercile probabilities, PF_t^{ij} 199 , with 'i' (1= below-normal, 2=normal and 3= above normal) denoting the tercile categories, 'j' 200 201 (1 = AMJ and 2 = OND) indicating the season and 't' denoting the year of forecast over the period 1960-2005, we estimated the conditional mean, μ_j^t , and conditional variance, σ_j^t , of the forecast 202 203 using equations (1) and (2) by assuming the conditional distribution as normal. Given climatological 33rd and 67th percentiles, $P^{0.33, j}$ and $P^{0.67, j}$, for a given season, we used the tercile 204 probabilities issued for a given season in a particular year to estimate the condition mean and 205 206 variance by solving the simultaneous equations in (1) and (2).

$$\frac{P^{0.33,j} - \mu_t^j}{\sigma_t^j} = z_t^{1,j}$$

208

(1)

209
$$\frac{P^{0.67,j} - \mu_t^j}{\sigma_t^j} = z_t^{2,j}$$
(2)

The standard normal variates, $z_t^{1,j}$ and $z_t^{2,j}$, are obtained based on the inverse of the cumulative 210 211 distribution function of the standard normal distribution with the respective cumulative probabilities, $CF_t^{1,j} = PF_t^{1,j}$ and $CF_t^{2,j} = PF_t^{1,j} + PF_t^{2,j}$, being computed based on the tercile 212 precipitation forecasts. Once we obtain the conditional mean, μ_j^t , and conditional variance, σ_j^t , 213 214 we can generate realizations from the normal distribution. The conditional mean of the 215 multimodel forecast over the Masinga catchment area over four grid points (Figure 1a) and the previous month streamflow, Q_{t-1} , were used as predictors in the principal component regression 216 217 to develop the inflow forecasts for the Masinga Dam. We capture the role of initial land surface 218 conditions by using the previous month streamflow as a predictor in developing streamflow forecasts. Filled stars in Figure 1a indicate the selected grid points of multimodel precipitation forecasts and open stars indicate the selected grid points of precipitation forecasts from the ECHAM4.5 GCM. We considered principal components regression, since the forecasts from these four grid points were correlated. All the GCMs from ENSEMBLES experiment and ECHAM4.5 atmospheric GCM were almost at the same resolution. Our previous study combined the individual CGCMs precipitation forecasts to develop multimodel precipitation forecasts.

225 To compare the performance of multimodel climate forecasts, we also consider 226 precipitation forecasts from a single GCM – ECHAM4.5 forced with constructed analogue SSTs. 227 Retrospective precipitation forecasts from ECHAM4.5 are available at IRI for 7 months in advance for every month beginning January1957 with a resolution of 2.8°X2.8° 228 229 (http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/.IRI/.FD/.ECHAM4p5/.Forecast/ca_sst/.ensemble24/. 230 MONTHLY/.prec/). To force the ECHAM4.5 with SST forecasts, retrospective monthly SST 231 forecasts were developed based on the observed SST conditions in that month based on the 232 constructed analogue approach. For additional details on ECHAM4.5 precipitation forecasts, see 233 Li and Goddard (2005) (http://iri.columbia.edu/outreach/publication/report/05-02/report05-234 The ensemble mean which is computed from 24 realizations of ECHAM4.5 02.pdf). 235 precipitation forecasts obtained based on different initial conditions was downloaded over the 236 Masinga catchment area from IRI data library for the period 1957-2005. We utilize the ensemble 237 mean of precipitation forecasts issued at the beginning of two rainy seasons (April - May - June (AMJ) and October – November – December (OND)), April 1st and October 1st, along with the 238 239 previous month streamflow (March/September) as additional predictor. Though this result in 240 comparison of precipitation forecasts from multimodels and ECHAM4.5 at two different lead 241 times, from the perspective of water management, the allocation decisions are usually done at the

beginning of the season. Thus, in the context of application, the best single model forecastavailable at the beginning of the season is used.

244 Principal Components Regression (PCR): Since the gridded precipitation forecasts over a 245 given region are spatially correlated, employing precipitation forecasts from multiple grid points 246 as predictors would raise multicollinearity issues in developing the regression. PCR, which is a 247 commonly employed approach in Model Output Statistics (MOS) (Wilks, 1995), eliminates 248 systematic errors and biases in GCM fields and also recalibrates the principal components (PCs) 249 of GCM fields to predict the hydroclimatic variable of interest using regression analyses. In this 250 context, the predictand is the streamflow (Q_i) over the season (AMJ/OND) and the predictors are 251 the previous month streamflow (Q_{t-1}) and the ensemble mean of precipitation forecasts from 252 ECHAM4.5 GCM or the multimodel ensemble mean obtained using equations (1) and (2). 253 Using the principal components of the predictors, we developed regression relationship based on 254 equation (2):

255
$$ln(Q_t) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{\beta}_j * PC_t^k + \hat{\varepsilon}_t$$
(3)

where Q_t denotes the observed streamflow during the AMJ/OND season in year 't', PC_t^k denotes the 'k'th PCs from the retained 'K' PCs of precipitation forecasts and $\hat{\beta}$ s denote the regression coefficients whose estimates are obtained by minimizing the sum of squares of error. We employed step-wise regression to select 'K' PCs out of the rotated grid points of precipitation for developing the PCR model.

Using principal components regression (PCR), we developed single model (SM) inflow forecasts and multimodel (MM) inflow forecasts to obtain the leave-one-out cross-validated mean seasonal (conditional mean) streamflow forecasts for the AMJ (OND) season. Using the

264 point forecast error obtained from the PCR, we obtained the conditional variance of the seasonal 265 streamflows to develop the probabilistic reservoir inflow forecasts. Residual analyses of the PCR 266 based on the quantile plots and skewness test on the residuals showed that the normality 267 assumption is valid. This indicates that the seasonal flows during the AMJ and OND season 268 could be assumed as a log-normal distribution. Based on this assumption, we developed 500 269 ensembles of the seasonal streamflows in log-space using the conditional mean and the point 270 forecast error obtained from the PCR. These ensembles are eventually transformed back to the 271 original space for developing the probabilistic inflow forecasts that could be forced with the 272 Masinga reservoir model.

273 Figure 2a (2b) show the conditional mean of the SM and MM seasonal streamflow 274 forecasts for the period 1991 - 2005 developed based on the ECHAM4.5 and multimodel 275 precipitation forecasts for the AMJ (OND) seasons. All the forecasts for the single model 276 (multimodel) in Figure 2 are obtained in a leave-one-out cross-validated mode using the 277 observed flows and the predictors for the period 1961-2005 (1961-2005). Since the multimodel 278 climate forecasts from ENSEMBLES project are available only up to 2005, we have evaluated 279 the skill of the multimodel inflow forecasts only up to 2005. The inset in Figure 2 shows the 280 verification statistics for the multimodel (single model) inflow forecasts based on correlation 281 coefficient and root mean square error computed between the ensemble mean of the forecasted 282 streamflow and the observed streamflow over the period 1961-2005 (1961-2005). From Figure 2, 283 we observe that the multimodel streamflow forecasts slightly perform better than the single 284 model forecasts in predicting the conditional mean. It is important to note that the single model 285 inflow forecasts for the AMJ and OND seasons were developed using 3-month ahead 286 ECHAM4.5 precipitation forecasts issued at the beginning of April and October respectively. On the other hand, the multimodel precipitation forecasts issued at the beginning of 1^{st} February and 1st August were employed in developing the AMJ and OND inflow forecasts, which results in a lead time of two months for both seasons. We ingest these leave-one-out cross-validated probabilistic streamflow forecasts available to the probabilistic reservoir simulation model over the period 1991 – 2005 for evaluating the utility of streamflow forecasts developed from single model and multimodel precipitation forecasts in improving the water and energy management for the Masinga Reservoir.

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- 295

3.0 Masinga Reservoir Simulation Model

296 The reservoir simulation model used here is a simplified version of the detailed dynamic 297 water allocation framework presented in Sankarasubramaniam et al. (2009). Given seasonal (Tmonth lead) streamflow forecasts (as ensembles) q_t^k and initial reservoir storage, S_{t-1} , at the 298 299 beginning of the allocation period, the reservoir simulation model determines the seasonal release R_t^h and R_t^w for hydropower generation and city of Nairobi water supply respectively. 300 Here, $t = 1, 2, \ldots, N$ denotes the forecast years (N=total number of years of retrospective 301 302 forecasts; 1991-2005 for multimodel forecasts and 1991-2005 for ECHAM4.5 downscaling), 303 and k = 1, 2, ..., K index represents a particular realization within the ensemble. In addition, the water allocation model incorporates an end of the season target storage, S_T^* (T denoting the 304 forecast lead time in months) that is associated with a failure probability p_s . For instance, in the 305 case of Masinga reservoir S_T^* corresponds to the target storage of 1572 MCM (1560 MCM) at 306 307 the end of June (December) for meeting the demand during the months with low rainfall. Figure 308 3a shows the operational rule curves for the Masinga Dam. Using the basic continuity equation, 309 the seasonal storage equations for each ensemble member k are updated for the forecasting year t

310
$$S_{T,t}^{k} = S_{t-1,k} + q_{t}^{k} - E_{t}^{k} - R_{t}^{h} - R_{t}^{ws} - SP_{k,t}$$
 ... (4)

311 where seasonal storage equations are constrained so that the storage is between the minimum and 312 maximum possible storage, S_{min} and S_{max} , respectively

313
$$S_{T,t}^k = \min(S_{T,t}^k, S_{\max}), \qquad S_{T,t}^k = \max(S_{T,t}^k, S_{\min}) \qquad \dots (5)$$

 $SP_{k,t}$ is the spill which occurs if $S_{T,t}^k > S_{max}$, and could be obtained based on the constraints from equations (4) and (5). The release for hydropower R_t^{hydro} is converted into net hydropower HP_t generated from the turbines based on the elevation storage relationship of the reservoir. Evaporation, E_t^k is also computed as a function of average storage during the season using the water spread area and storage information of the reservoir specified in equation (6).

319
$$E_t^k = \psi_t \delta_1 ((S_{t-1,k} + S_{T,k}^k)/2)^{\delta_2}$$
 ... (6)

where ψ_t = seasonal evaporation rate and δ_1 and δ_2 = coefficients describing the area-storage relationship. We employed spline interpolation technique for obtaining the water spread area corresponding to the average season storage computed for each ensemble. It is important to note that the evaporation is evaluated implicitly for each realization in the ensemble. The estimated average evaporation rate (ψ_j) = 0.402 mm and 0.502 mm for the AMJ and OND seasons respectively.

The objective is to determine R_t^h , such that the probability of having the end of the season storage, $S_{T,t}$, less than the target storage, S_T^* , is small which is represented by its failure probability (Prob), p_s , using

329
$$\operatorname{Prob}(S_T \le S_T^*) \le p_s$$
 ... (7)

Given the water supply release is very small (35 MCM) compared to the hydropower release, we considered climatological probability for p_s (= 0.5) which implies that the target storage could be violated 50% of the time under the retrospective forecast-based analysis. Reducing p_s will result in reduced releases for hydropower resulting in increased spill from the reservoir.

334 Prior to performing the retrospective reservoir analyses using the streamflow forecasts, 335 we performed model verification from 1991 to 2005 by comparing the reservoir model's ability 336 to simulate the observed end of June storages. The simulations were performed by forcing the 337 model with the observed flows during AMJ and initial storages in April to determine the end of 338 the June storages by allocating the reported releases for water hydropower generation. Figure 3b 339 shows the observed and model predicted stages at the end of June—the end of the season stage. 340 The observed and modeled storages obtained from the reservoir model were converted into 341 stages using the available stage-storage relationship for the Masinga Reservoir. From Figure 3b, 342 we understand that the developed model is quite reasonable in predicting the observed June 343 storages upon simulation with observed flows and the reported hydropower and water supply 344 releases. This gives the confidence in employing the simulation model presented here for further 345 analyses that utilize the seasonal streamflow forecasts from two models for improving water and 346 energy management.

347 In this study, we consider three inflow forecasting schemes (a) streamflow developed 348 using ECHAM4.5 precipitation forecasts, (b) multimodel precipitation forecasts obtained by 349 combining five GCMs from the ENSEMBLES project and (c) climatological ensemble. Each 350 scheme provides 500 members/realizations for a given season indicating the conditional 351 distribution of the inflows into the Masinga Dam. The climatological ensemble for each season is 352 obtained by leaving out the particular year's observation from the observed inflow (1940-2005) 353 with the remaining 70 years having equal chances of getting selected in the ensemble. This is 354 reasonable, since the lag-1 correlation on the seasonal flows is almost zero. For each of the

355 forecasting schemes, we first obtain the p_s . Based on the end of the season target storage 356 probabilities estimated from climatological forecasts (accepted climatological risks), we explore 357 the possibilities of modifying the releases from current releases to increase the power generated 358 during above normal storage conditions and impose restrictions during below normal storage 359 conditions. For instance, if the climate-information based forecasts (i.e., schemes (a) and (b)) suggests lower (higher) probability of $S_T \leq S_T^*$ is lesser than 0.5, then we increase (decrease) the 360 361 releases such that $p_s = 0.5$. Thus, we obtain revised releases for the single model and multimodel 362 inflow forecasts as well as for the climatological ensemble by ensuring $p_s = 0.5$ for each year 363 during 1991-2005. Using the revised releases for each of the three forecasting schemes, we run 364 the reservoir model with the observed inflows to obtain the end of the season target storages. The 365 basis for comparing the performance of the three forecasting schemes is based on the end of the 366 season target storages, spill and generated hydropower by combining the releases that ensures 367 $p_s=0.5$ under the three forecasting schemes with the observed inflows for the period 1991-2005. 368 This retrospective analysis similar to our previous studies (Golembesky et al., 2009; 369 Sankarasubramanian et al., 2009) provides us an understanding on what would have happened if 370 the candidate inflow forecasts were applied over the period 1991-2005.

371

372 4.0 Results and Analysis

This section presents the retrospective analyses for understanding the utility of single model and multimodel inflow forecasts in improving the hydropower generation for the Masinga Dam utilizing the three candidate forecasting schemes. Since the multimodel forecasts are available only up to 2005, all the results presented in this section consider the period 1991-2005

for multimodel forecasts, whereas results for single model forecasts and climatological ensembleare presented for the period 1991-2005.

379 4.1 End of the Season Target Storage Probabilities

To begin with, we first evaluate the ability of the three candidate forecasting schemes in estimating the probability of meeting the June and December storage for the reported seasonal releases from Masinga over the period 1991-2005 without constraining the releases being $p_s=0.5$. Given that most of the reservoirs can hold water for more than the seasonal demand, the entire demand could be met with 100% reliability. However, we can modify the reservoir releases by comparing the ability of the three forecasting schemes in estimating probability of meeting the end of the season target storage (Prob ($S_T < S_T^*$)).

Figure 4 shows the estimates of $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ for the three forecasting schemes where 387 $S_T^*=1560$ MCM and $S_T^*=1572$ MCM for AMJ (Figure 4a) and OND (Figure 4b) seasons 388 389 respectively. The probability estimates shown were obtained from each streamflow forecasting 390 model and from climatological ensembles. Figure 4 also shows the observed streamflows (Q_t) in 391 each year suggesting their tercile category ($Q_t < 0.33$ percentile – Below-Normal (Obs_BN); Q_t 392 < 0.66 percentile — Above-normal (Obs_AN); otherwise — Normal (Obs)). Both Figures 4(a) (AMJ releases) and Figure 4(b) (OND releases) demonstrate that the estimates of Prob ($S_T < S_T^*$) 393 394 vary depending on the forecasted streamflow potential by each model. Since all the three inflow 395 forecasts were run with the same initial conditions recorded at the beginning of the season in the Masinga Dam, any difference in estimating the $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ among the forecasts should be 396 397 primarily due to the skill of the inflow forecasts.

Figures 4a and 4b show clearly that the estimates of $\operatorname{Prob}(S_T < S_T^*)$ from streamflow 398 forecasts are above (lower) the estimates of $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ from climatological ensembles 399 400 during below-normal (above-normal) inflow conditions, which indicates the skill of the inflow 401 forecasts in predicting the observed inflows during the AMJ and OND seasons. This is expected 402 as the probability of attaining the end of the season target storage will be low (high) during 403 below-normal (above-normal) inflow conditions. We also observe that the estimates of $\operatorname{Prob}(S_T < S_T^*)$ in Figures 4a and 4b differ for each streamflow forecast, as each forecasts exhibit 404 405 different skill. During normal years (empty circles on the secondary Y axis), the difference between the estimates of $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ is very small indicating all the inflow forecasts from 406 407 three schemes contain similar probabilistic information in predicting the season-ahead inflows. 408 The only exceptions are during AMJ 1995 and AMJ 1997 under which the multimodel forecasts estimate $\operatorname{Prob}(S_T < S_T^*)$ are very different from that of ECHAM4.5 based inflow forecasts and 409 410 climatological ensemble.

411 Comparing the performance of multimodel inflow forecasts with inflow forecasts 412 developed using ECHAM4.5 precipitation forecasts, we infer that multimodel forecasts forecasts 413 perform more consistently in indicating below-normal inflow storage conditions. For instance, multimodel forecasts correctly estimate the $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ in comparison to the climatological 414 estimates of $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ in year 1993, 1996 for the AMJ season and in year 2001 for the OND 415 season in predicting the below-normal inflow season. Further, $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ estimated using 416 417 single model inflow forecasts are shown to be significantly higher (Figure 4) than that of multimodel estimate of $\operatorname{Prob}(S_T < S_T^*)$ during above-normal and below-normal conditions. This 418 419 is primarily due to the overconfidence of single model in predicting below-normal and above-

420 normal conditions as reported by previous studies (Weigel et al., 2008; Devineni and Sankarasubramanian, 2010a). On the other hand, estimates of $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ from multimodel 421 forecasts are much closer to the climatological estimates of $\operatorname{Prob}(S_T < S_T^*)$ since multimodel 422 423 forecasts reduce the overconfidence of individual models resulting in reduced false alarms. Both multimodel and single model forecasts incorrectly estimate $\operatorname{Prob}(S_T < S_T^*)$ for AMJ 2003 – an 424 425 above-normal inflow season - with the model-based target storage probabilities being higher 426 than climatological counterpart. In general, having inflow forecasts from multiple models 427 provides more confidence in developing appropriate scenarios for application. We present in the 428 next section a more detailed comparison on the performance of ECHAM4.5-based inflow 429 forecasts and multimodel in improving the energy management.

430 **4.2 Hydro**

Hydropower generation for Masinga Reservoir utilizing Multimodel forecasts

431 Though results showed in Figure 4 did not ensure $p_s = 0.5$ for each forecasting scheme, 432 the estimates of $\operatorname{Prob}(S_T < S_T^*)$ obtained from the three models show their ability to change 433 according to the nature of inflow conditions. For the next set of analysis, we ensure $p_s = 0.5$ such 434 that releases from the reservoir could be adjusted so that the desired end of the season target 435 storage probability is maintained. The basis behind this analysis is that the user accepts risk of 436 meeting the target storage based on climatological inflows derived using observed inflows. The 437 idea is that releases (Figure 5) are adjusted by ensuring the ps = 0.5 for both forecasted and 438 climatological inflows and then those releases are validated by estimating the actual hydropower 439 generation (Figure 6), spill (Figure 7) and the end of the season storage (Figure 8) that could 440 have occurred based on the the actual inflows during the season.

441 Given that $p_s = 0.5$ for each season in a given year, we utilize the three forecasting 442 schemes to modify the reservoir releases to increase (reduce) hydropower generation if the

443 inflow forecasts suggest above normal (below normal) conditions. For instance in AMJ 1998 (above normal inflow year), in Figure 4, estimates of $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ are almost zero for both 444 445 single model and multimodel forecasts indicating that the probability of attaining the target 446 storage is very high. Hence, given that the accepted risk in meeting the target storage (p_s) is 0.5, 447 one can increase the water releases (determined from the reservoir simulation model) for 448 hydropower generation to meet the target storage constraint. Similarly, during AMJ 2000 (below 449 normal inflow year), since both forecast models suggest that the probability of meeting the target 450 storage is very low, we can enforce restrictions on the releases for hydropower to ensure $p_s = 0.5$. 451 Such information on reduced potential of generating hydropower could be utilized for increasing 452 the firm power generation from other systems.

453 The main intent of this study is to understand the utility of multimodel streamflow 454 forecasts in improving the water allocation for hydropower generation. For this purpose, the 455 AMJ /OND multimodel inflow forecasts are utilized to modify the releases for hydropower 456 generation over the three month period in the season during 1991-2005 by enforcing the end of 457 the season storage constraint to be equal to 0.5. We used the observed storage on March 31 458 (September 30) of each year during 1991 – 2005 as the initial storage (S_{t-1}) for AMJ (OND) 459 season. By combining the streamflow forecasts, (q_{tk}) , issued in March (September) with the observed storage at the end of March (September), we obtain releases for hydropower use, R_{t}^{h} , 460 by constraining $p_s = 0.5$ in equation (7). The revised releases that constraints $p_s = 0.5$ are 461 462 combined with the observed inflows to infer what could have happened on the generated 463 hydropower and in meeting the target storage if the forecast-suggested inflows were used as the 464 allocation policy for the season.

465 Figure 5 shows the estimated difference in the releases obtained using climatological 466 ensemble (forecasting scheme c) to the releases suggested by the single model and multimodel 467 forecasts for improving hydropower generation for AMJ (Figure 5a) and OND (Figure 5b) 468 seasons over the period 1991 - 2005. The releases for all the three forecasting schemes are 469 obtained by ensuring $p_s = 0.5$. The figure also shows the actual observed inflow during the period 470 as below normal, normal or above normal condition on the secondary Y-axis. A positive 471 (negative) change indicates that the model suggests higher probability of not meeting the target 472 storage resulting in reduced (increased) release from the climatological ensembles predicted 473 releases. From figure 5, we observe that single model and multimodel forecasts suggest an 474 increase (decrease) in releases compared to during above normal (below normal) inflow years. 475 Further, we can also see that the multimodel forecasts suggest more water release during above 476 normal years compared to single model forecasts. Similarly, during below normal years, the 477 multimodel forecasts suggest more reduction in release from the actual observed release 478 compared to SM forecasts.

479 Given that the Masinga reservoir is primarily operated for hydropower generation, we 480 also estimated the amount of hydropower (in GWH) that results each year from operating the 481 reservoir based on the seasonal forecasts. In other words, we combine the model determined 482 releases with observed inflows to simulate to actual amount of hydropower that is generated 483 based on the storage – elevation relationship of the reservoir. Figure 6 shows the estimated 484 change in generated hydropower from the reservoir from both the forecasts. Analogous to Figure 485 5, we can observe from Figure 6 that the forecasts suggest an increase (decrease) in generated 486 hydropower during above normal (below normal) inflow years. It is important to note that the 487 increase in hydropower generated during the above normal years results from an increased 488 allocation of water for power generation. This also in turn results in a reduced spill from the 489 reservoir during above normal inflow years. The estimated spill each year for both the seasons is 490 shown in Figure 7. We observe that for most of the years the spill obtained from the forecast 491 models is lesser than the spill suggested by the climatological ensemble. This indicates that the 492 model is actually releasing additional water for hydropower generation during above-normal 493 years.

494 We can always increase the allocation for any use by allocating additional water. But, 495 such an increase should not come at the cost of failing to meet the target storage. To evaluate 496 whether the changes in releases do not result in increased/decreased storage at the end of the 497 season, we show the simulated end of season (June (Figure 8a) and December (Figure 8b)) 498 storages from 1991 -2005 by combining the forecast-suggested releases from both the models 499 with the observed flows. We observe that during below normal years the simulated end of season 500 storage is lesser than the target storage (S_T^*) . From Figure 8, it is clear that the multimodel 501 forecasts suggested releases keep the storages very close to the target storage in comparison to 502 the storages obtained using the single model forecasts and the climatological ensemble. The only 503 exceptions are during AMJ 2004 and AMJ 2005 where the multimodel forecasts suggest an 504 increased release resulting in a storage that is lesser than the target storage. This is a clear case of 505 multimodel forecasts failing to estimate the target storage. During the rest of the years on both 506 seasons, multimodel forecasts estimate the storages closer to the target storage.

507 The retrospective reservoir analysis presented in this study can be utilized to determine 508 the appropriate seasonal releases in conjunction with the future streamflow potential. If the 509 forecasts suggest an above normal inflow year, then the $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ will be lower than its 510 climatological probability, forecasts based allocation would facilitate the opportunity to relax the

511 restrictions and thereby release more water for hydropower generation and reduce downstream 512 flood risk. In other words, the reservoir operators can consider additional releases such that the forecasts based estimates of $Prob(S_T < S_T^*)$ are equal to its climatological probability of p_s=0.5. 513 514 Similarly, during below normal years, one can consider the options of enforcing restrictions on 515 the releases to ensure the end of season target storage is met with a probability equal to 516 climatological probability. By suggesting a reduction in hydropower generation during below 517 normal inflow years, the system's resilience in rebounding to normal operation is improved by 518 hedging additional water to meet future demand.

519 **Discussion:**

520 Results from the multimodel climate forecasts improve the forecast skill by reducing the 521 overconfidence of individual models (Weigel et al. 2008; Devineni et al. 20010ab). The intent of 522 this study is to utilize them in applying them for improving reservoir management. For this 523 purpose, we considered multimodel precipitation forecasts developed by Devineni et al. (2010b) 524 for developing seasonal inflow forecasts into Masinga Reservoir in the Tana River basin, Kenya. 525 Inflow forecasts developed from multimodel and ECHAM4.5 clearly show that multimodel 526 forecasts have improved skill in predicting the observed flows (Figure 3). Utilizing analyses 527 presented in Figure 4 clearly show that multimodel forecasts reduces the overconfidence of 528 individual model forecasts and also reduces false alarms (e.g., year 1996 in Figure 4a). Except 529 very few instances (OND 1991 in Figure 4b), multimodel forecasts perform better than 530 ECHAM4.5 model-based inflow forecasts in many years (e.g., OND 1995 in Figure 4b) 531 compared to individual model forecasts. It is important to note that for both seasons, AMJ and 532 OND, multimodel forecasts are developed two months (February for AMJ and August for OND) 533 ahead of individual model forecasts, which are issued at the beginning of the season. Another advantage in using multiple models for analyzing the storage probabilities is during normal years. It is very clear from our analysis that the storage probabilities are around a smaller range indicating that a normal or business-as-usual operation could be pursued.

537 Analyses in Figures 5-7 show that inflow forecasts from climate models could be 538 adjusted to meet the climatological probability of meeting the target storage ($p_s = 0.5$). However, 539 our modeling framework facilitates target-storage probability based on stakeholder's choice of 540 interest. However, for such selected probabilities, inflow forecasts should be carefully analyzed 541 to ensure the forecasts being well-calibrated indicating a good correspondence between forecast 542 probabilities and their observed relative frequencies (Devineni et al. 2008). Such careful analyses 543 on inflow forecasts based on user-selected target-storage probabilities would reduce 544 apprehensions on utilizing climate-information based streamflow forecasts for improving water 545 and energy management. Our analyses from Figure 8 also show that forecasts-based allocation 546 ensures meeting the target storages in both seasons. Since Figure 8 is obtained by combining 547 forecasts-based releases with the observed inflows, it is a validation of the performance of inflow 548 forecasts in meeting the target storage as well as improving the hydropower generation. The 549 lessons from this study also have potential applications for basins in the Southeast US. This is 550 primarily because both regions (GHA and Southeast) are semi-arid and the river basins are 551 predominantly belonging to rainfall-runoff regime. From hydroclimate perspectives too, 552 Southeast experiences dry and warm winter during La Nino conditions as like the Tana River 553 basin. Our hydroclimatology research group in collaboration with the State Climate Office of NC 554 developed (http://www.nc-climate.ncsu.edu/inflowforecast) has an online portal for 555 disseminating both the inflow forecasts from multiple models and the storage forecasts for the 556 user-specified releases. Our hope is that as multiple climate models are analyzed in developing

557 seasonal forecasts, providing online access to both inflow and storage forecast scenarios will 558 result in real-time evaluation and application of climate-information based streamflow forecasts 559 for improving reservoir operations in regions that are significantly impacted by climate 560 variability.

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5.0 Summary and Conclusions

563 A reservoir simulation model that uses ensembles of streamflow forecasts is presented 564 and applied for improving the water allocation and thereby the energy management for the 565 Masinga Reservoir in Tana River basin in Kenya. The Masinga Reservoir located in the upper Tana River Basin is extremely important in supplying the power requirements of the country as 566 567 well as in protecting the downstream ecology of the Tana River System. The Dam serves as the 568 primary storage reservoir, controlling streamflow through a series of downstream hydro-electric 569 reservoirs. Prolonged droughts of 1999-2001 in the Tana River basin due to La Nina related 570 conditions resulted in power shortages and prolonged power rationing in Kenya. In this study, we 571 utilize reservoir inflow forecasts downscaled from monthly updated precipitation forecasts from 572 ECHAM4.5 forced with constructed analogue SSTs and multimodel precipitation forecasts 573 developed from ENSEMBLES project to improve the seasonal water allocation during April-574 June (AMJ) and October-December (OND) seasons for the Masinga reservoir in Kenya. Threemonth ahead inflow forecasts developed from ECHAM4.5, multiple General Circulation Models 575 576 (GCMs) and climatological ensemble are forced into a reservoir simulation model to allocate 577 water for power generation by ensuring climatological probability of meeting the end of the 578 season target storage that is required to meet the water demands during non-rainy seasons. The 579 forecasts based releases are then combined with observed inflows to estimate storages, spill and

generated hydropower from the system. Retrospective reservoir analysis shows that inflow 580 581 forecasts developed from single GCM and multiple GCMs perform better than climatology 582 reduce the spill considerably by increasing the allocation for hydropower during above-normal 583 inflow years. Similarly, during below-normal inflow years, both these forecasts could be 584 effectively utilized to meet the end of the season target storage by restricting the releases of 585 water for power generation uses. Comparing the performance of inflow forecasts developed from 586 multimodels with the inflow forecasts developed using ECHAM4.5 alone, we infer that the 587 multimodel forecasts preserves the end of the season target storage better in comparison to the 588 single model forecasts by reducing the overconfidence of individual model forecasts. Thus, 589 considering multiple models for seasonal water allocation reduces the uncertainty related to a 590 single model and provides the inflow forecasts with reduced model uncertainty for improving 591 water and energy allocation.

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Figure 6: Estimated change in electrical power generation at Masinga Dam during the (a) AMJ
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- and black filled circles show inflows during above normal years (Obs_AN, greater than 67th
- 736 percentile).
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Table 1: Details of CGCMs considered from the ENSEMBLES project for developing
 multimodel forecasts for this study.

| Ocean Model | Atmospheric Model | Institution | Reference |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------|--------------------------|
| HOPE | IFS CY31R1 | ECMWF | Balmaseda et al. (2008) |
| HadGEM2-O | HadGEM2-A | UKMO | Collins et al. (2008) |
| OPA8.2 | ARPEGE4.6 | MF | Daget et al. (2009) |
| MPI-OMI | ECHAM5 | IFM-GEOMAR | Keenlyside et al. (2005) |
| OPA8.2 | ECHAM5 | CMCC-INGV | Weisheimer et al. (2009) |



Figure 1: (a) Location of the Upper Tana River Basin in Kenya with letters representing the following dams: A – Kiambere, B – Kindaruma, C – Gitaru, D – Kamburu, and E - Masinga, and (b) Seasonal variation of the AMJ and OND total inflows into Masinga Dam (1947 – 2005). Filled stars in Figure 1a indicate the selected grid points of multimodel forecasts and open stars indicate the selected grid points of ECHAM4.5 GCM.



Figure 2: Comparison between the observed and predicted inflows into Masinga Dam using Single (SM) and Multimodel (MM) for (a): AMJ and (b) OND seasons.



Figure 3: (a) Masinga Operational Rule Curves, and (b) Comparison between observed (Obs) and simulated (Sim) June end storage



Figure 4: Comparison between climatology and forecast estimates of failure probabilities in meeting (a) June (Jun) end storage and (b) December (Dec) end storage for single model (SM) and Multimodel (MM). Empty circles denote observed inflows during normal years (Obs), gray filled circles show inflows during below normal years (Obs_BN, less than 33rd percentile), and black filled circles show inflows during above normal years (Obs_AN, greater than 67th percentile)



Figure 5: Estimated changes in water releases for power generation at Masinga Dam during the (a) AMJ and (b) OND seasons using single model (SM) and multimodel (MM). Empty circles denote observed inflows during normal years (Obs), gray filled circles show inflows during below normal years (Obs_BN, less than 33rd percentile), and black filled circles show inflows during above normal years (Obs_AN, greater than 67th percentile)



Figure 6: Estimated change in electrical power generation at Masinga Dam during the (a) AMJ and (b) OND season using Single Model (SM) and Multimodel (MM). Empty circles denote observed inflows during normal years (Obs), gray filled circles show inflows during below normal years (Obs_BN, less than 33rd percentile), and black filled circles show inflows during above normal years (Obs_AN, greater than 67th percentile)



Figure 7: Comparison between the observed and predicted spill for (a) AMJ and (b) OND seasons using Single Model (SM) and Multimodel (MM).



Figure 8: Comparison between the (a) June end and (b) December end storage for Single Model (SM) and Multimodel (MM). Empty circles denote observed inflows during normal years (Obs), gray filled circles show inflows during below normal years (Obs_BN, less than 33rd percentile), and black filled circles show inflows during above normal years (Obs_AN, greater than 67th percentile).