1	The Role of Retrospective Weather Forecasts in Developing Daily Forecasts of
2	Nutrient Loadings over the Southeast US
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20 Abstract

It is well-known in the hydrometeorology literature that developing real-time daily 21 streamflow forecasts in a given season significantly depend on the skill of daily precipitation 22 forecasts over the watershed. Similarly, it is widely known that streamflow is the most important 23 predictor in estimating nutrient loadings and the associated concentration. The intent of this study 24 25 is to bridge these two findings so that daily nutrient loadings and the associated concentration could be predicted using daily precipitation forecasts and previously observed streamflow as 26 surrogates of antecedent land surface conditions. By selecting 18 relatively undeveloped basins in 27 28 the Southeast US (SEUS), we evaluate the skill in predicting observed total nitrogen (TN) loadings in the Water Quality Network (WQN) by first developing the daily streamflow forecasts using the 29 retrospective weather forecasts based on K-nearest neighbor (K-NN) resampling approach and 30 then forcing the forecasted streamflow with a nutrient load estimation (LOADEST) model to 31 32 obtain daily TN forecasts. Skill in developing forecasts of streamflow, TN loadings and the 33 associated concentration were computed using rank correlation and RMSE, by comparing the respective forecast values with the WQN observations for the selected 18 Hydro-Climatic Data 34 Network (HCDN) stations. The forecasted daily streamflow and TN loadings and their 35 36 concentration have statistically significant skill in predicting the respective daily observations in the WQN database at all the 18 stations over the SEUS. Only two stations showed statistically 37 insignificant relationship in predicting the observed nitrogen concentration. We also found that the 38 39 skill in predicting the observed TN loadings increase with increase in drainage area which indicates that the large-scale precipitation reforecasts correlate better with precipitation and streamflow over 40 41 large watersheds. To overcome the limited samplings of TN in the WQN data, we extended the 42 analyses by developing retrospective daily streamflow forecasts over the period 1979-2012 using

reforecasts based on the K-NN resampling approach. Based on the coefficient of determination 43 $(R_{Q-daily}^2)$ of the daily streamflow forecasts, we computed the potential skill $(R_{TN-daily}^2)$ in developing 44 daily nutrient forecasts based on the R² of the LOADEST model for each station. The analyses 45 showed that the forecasting skills of TN loadings are relatively better in winter and spring months 46 47 while skills are inferior during summer months. Despite these limitations, there is potential in 48 utilizing the daily streamflow forecasts derived from real-time weather forecasts for developing 49 daily nutrient forecasts, which could be employed for various adaptive nutrient management strategies for ensuring better water quality. 50

51 **1. Introduction**

Anthropogenic interventions of biogeochemical cycles have resulted in increased nutrient 52 53 loadings in streams over the past few decades (Galloway et al., 1995; Caraco and Cole, 1999). Continuous concerns about water quality degradation have resulted in the development of active 54 water quality management programs such as total maximum daily load allocation (TMDL) as well 55 56 as establishment of policy instruments related to water quality trading. Of particularly interest is the total nitrogen (TN) loadings whose contribution from the land surface to the North Atlantic 57 Ocean, has increased from 5 to 20 folds in comparison to the pre-industrial/natural level (Howarth 58 59 et al., 1996). Nitrate levels have tripled in major rivers over the northeastern US since 1900's while nitrate concentration doubled in the Mississippi River basin since 1965 (Turner and Rabalais, 1991; 60 Howarth et al., 1996; Vitousek et al., 1997; Goolsby and Battaglin, 2001). 61

Excess nitrogen results in overproduction of phytoplanktons, which in turn causes anoxic 62 conditions and eutrophication in lakes and coastal regions (Vitousek et al., 1997; Pinckney et al., 63 64 1999). Such eutrophication, due to natural and anthropogenic nitrogen sources, is an important water quality degradation issue, which ranges from small streams (Duff et al., 2008) to large water 65 bodies such as Gulf of Mexico (e.g. Bricker et al., 1999; Alexander et al., 2000; Rabalais et al., 66 67 2002; Alexander and Smith, 2006). There have been several efforts to reduce nitrogen loadings to streams but such programs are often too costly. For example, North Carolina Department of 68 Energy and Natural Resources (DENR) have spent several billion dollars in nutrient management 69 70 of Falls Lake in the Neuse River to control total nitrogen loadings under permissible range (North Carolina DENR). But, availability of data on total nitrogen is limited with concentration being 71 72 measured on a non-continuous basis. Studies have tried to overcome these limitations by using the 73 long available records of streamflow, since both instream nutrient concentration and loadings

74 primarily depend on streamflow variability (Borsuk et al., 2004, Paerl et al., 2006, Lin et al., 2007) and antecedent flow conditions (Vecchia, 2003, Alexander and Smith, 2006). Various nutrient 75 simulation models have been developed to estimate loadings using semi-distributed hydrologic 76 models (e.g., WASP, HSPF, SWAT, GWLF) or statistical models (e.g., LOADEST). Both these 77 types of models are typically implemented under a simulation mode by using observed 78 79 meteorological forcings to estimate nitrogen loadings. Similarly, considerable progress has been made in developing daily streamflow forecasts using statistical models, e.g. parametric models 80 81 (Rajagopalan and Lall 1999; Anderson et al., 2002; Salas and Lee, 2010), and semi-distributed 82 watershed models (e.g., Clark and Hay, 2004; Mcenery et al., 2005, Georgakakos et al., 2010). Developing daily streamflow forecasts over a large region using semi-distributed models require 83 intensive spatial data (e.g. topography, land cover, soils) and computational resources, hence, we 84 employed a semi-parametric approach in this study. In particular, we employed the K Nearest 85 Neighbor (K-NN) semi-parametric scheme to develop daily streamflow forecasts contingent on 86 87 updated climate forecasts since it can capture nonlinear relationships that are typically observed in daily streamflow data (Salas and Lee, 2010). The K-NN scheme has been widely used in 88 hydrologic studies (Rajagopalan and Lall 1999; Prairie et al. 2006; Sharif and Burn 2006). 89 90 Although daily streamflow forecasts could be developed with reasonable skill, there is a gap in linking those forecasts to develop daily nutrient loading forecasts. Furthermore, several studies 91 92 have utilized antecedent streamflows as surrogates of initial catchment conditions (e.g. Chiew and 93 McMohan, 2002; Piechota et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2009) including 3-day average streamflow conditions (Majumdar and Kumar, 1990; Srinivas and Srinivasan, 2000; Cigizoglu, 2003). In our 94 95 analysis, the maximum auto-correlation between observed streamflow and the previous-day 96 streamflow occurred with a lag of 3 days for the selected sites (figure not shown). Given that 97 skillful forecasts of daily nutrient loadings could be utilized in improving in-stream water quality, 98 we intend to investigate the potential in forecasting daily nutrient loadings conditional on daily 99 precipitation forecasts and previously observed streamflow as surrogates of antecedent moisture 100 conditions for 18 watersheds that are minimally affected by anthropogenic interventions over the 101 Southeast US (SEUS).

The manuscript is organized as follows: Section 2 details the data sources for daily streamflow, observed daily total nitrogen samplings and retrospective daily precipitation forecasts that were utilized in the study. Following that, we describe the methodology behind the development of daily streamflow and nutrient loadings forecasts. Section 4 provides the results on the skill in predicting the observed nutrient loadings over the selected 18 watersheds. Finally, in Section 5, we summarize the salient findings and conclusions arising from the study.

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109 2. Data Description

110 This section outlines the streamflow, Water Quality Network (WQN), retrospective111 weather forecasts associated with the development of total nitrogen forecasts over the SEUS.

112 2.1 HCDN Streamflow Database

Given the intent of the study is to associate daily nutrient loadings with daily precipitation forecasts, we focus our analysis on 18 undeveloped basins over the SEUS from the Hydro-Climatic Data Network (HCDN) database (Slack et al., 1993). Figure 1 shows the location of 18 HCDN stations and Table 1 provides the list of the 18 stations considered in this study along with their drainage areas. Daily streamflow records in the HCDN basins is purported to be relatively free of anthropogenic influences such as upstream storage and groundwater pumping and the accuracy ratings of these records are at least 'good' according to United States Geological Survey (USGS) standards. Since the streamflow data (Q) in the HCDN database is available only up to 1988, we
extended records up to 2009 based on the USGS historical daily streamflow database.

122 2.2 Weather Forecasts Database

We employed retrospective weather forecasts from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric 123 Administration (NOAA) to forecast daily streamflow at multiple sites in the SEUS (Hamill et al, 124 125 2004; Hamill et al., 2006). NOAA's Earth System Research Laboratory/Physical Science Division (ESRL/PSD) reforecast project provides daily precipitation forecasts from the Global Forecast 126 127 System (GFS) model, which was formerly called the Medium-Range Forecast Model (MRF). The 128 GFS forecasts model has 28 sigma (pressure) levels and a T62 spatial resolution (~200 km grid size), which represents physical processes to estimate atmospheric forcings such as winds, 129 temperature, precipitation, geopotential heights at different pressure levels (Hamill et al., 2006). 130 15 ensemble forecasts are obtained by initializing different atmospheric states of the GFS model 131 every day. The control run is initialized by the National Center for Environmental Prediction 132 (NCEP)-National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) reanalysis data (Kalnay et al., 1996) 133 while the other 14 ensemble members use a set of seven bred pairs of initial conditions (Toth and 134 Kalnay, 1997), which are re-centered each day on the reanalysis initial condition. In this study, we 135 136 make use of daily precipitation reforecasts from the GFS model consists of 15 ensemble members, up to 15 days in advance, starting from 1979 to till date. We considered the ensemble mean of 137 daily precipitation forecasts to forecast daily streamflow and daily total nitrogen loadings for the 138 139 selected watersheds.

140 2.3 Water Quality Monitoring Network (WQN) Database

USGS provides national and regional descriptions of stream water quality conditions in
Water Quality monitoring Network (WQN) across the nation (Alexander et al., 1998). The WQN

database comprises of water quality data from the USGS monitoring networks for large watersheds 143 (National Stream Quality Accounting Network, NASQAN) as well as watersheds that are 144 minimally developed (Hydrologic Benchmark Network, HBN). We used the observed daily 145 concentrations of Total Nitrogen (TN) for the 18 stations in the SEUS from the WQN database. 146 By selecting watersheds from the HCDN database, we basically ensure that both the streamflow 147 148 is minimally affected by anthropogenic influences. Bu, water quality data is influenced by the land use type. Based on the USGS National Land Use Classification Data (NLCD) data of 2001, we 149 150 calculated the percentage area under agriculture and urban (Table 1) land use. From Table 1, we 151 can see the distribution with seven, six and five watersheds having 20%-30%, 10%-20% and 0%-10% of area under agriculture respectively. On the other hand, the urban land use is less than 10% 152 with the exception being station #3(23%). TN loadings for these stations are available over a 153 period of 12-23 years with samplings being available on average 5 to 6 times per year (Table 1). 154 For additional details about the WQN database, see Alexander et al. (1998). We next provide 155 details on the methodologies behind the development of streamflow and total nitrogen loadings 156 forecasts for the selected watersheds. 157

158 3. Streamflow and Total Nitrogen Forecasting Models

159 The overall schematic diagram of the daily streamflow and nutrients forecasting methodology160 is shown in Figure 2.

161 **3.1 Daily Streamflow Forecasts**

To develop daily streamflow forecasts, we first identified the grid points of large scale 1-day ahead forecasted precipitation (referred as FP, hereafter) that exhibit significant correlation with daily streamflow from the HCDN database (Table 2). The correlation was considered statistically significant when it was greater than 1.96/sqrt(n-3), where 'n' denotes the number of days over 166 1979 to 2009 period. This helps us to identify the neighboring grid points that modulate the167 streamflow of a particular watershed.

Given that the selected large scale FP grids are inter-correlated with each other, Principal 168 Component Analysis (PCA) was applied to select first few principal components which explained 169 over 90% variability in the precipitation data. PCA, also known as empirical orthogonal function 170 (EOF) analysis, transforms the correlated variables to orthogonal uncorrelated principal 171 components (See details in Oh and Sankarasubramanian, 2013). The number of principal 172 components varies from 2 to 5 among different sites (Table 2). These principal components (PCs) 173 174 of 1-day ahead FP as well as daily streamflow over the previous three days, prior to the forecasting date, were selected as the predictor for the semi-parametric statistical model. For example, to 175 forecast streamflow on a particular day WQN data was observed, say March 14 in a given year, 176 predictors were the 1-day ahead FP issued on Mar 13 and the 1-day average daily streamflow from 177 March 11 to March 13 in that year. Thus, the number of predictors varies from 3 to 6 (i.e., the 178 number of selected PCs shown in Table 2 and one predictor for the 1-day average streamflow). 179 The streamflow over the previous three days could be considered as a surrogate for antecedent soil 180 moisture conditions. Then, the nearest neighbor resampling method was employed to predict daily 181 182 streamflow for that particular day in which WQN was observed.

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184 *K* – Nearest Neighbor (K-NN) resampling approach

After obtaining the predictors, PCs of the FP grids and 1-day average streamflow, we utilized the K - Nearest Neighbor (K-NN) resampling method proposed by Lall and Sharma (1996). Similar application of K-NN resampling approach was employed for developing monthly streamflow forecasts conditional on climatic predictors (Souza et al., 2003; Devineni et al., 2008). The K-NN approach resamples daily (or monthly data) from historical data to generate values that were observed in the past. Typically, the K nearest neighbors are identified between predicted time series and the historical series based on the Euclidean distance. Then a weighing function (e.g. Lall and Sharma, 1996) is generally assigned such that more weights are given to the nearest neighbors while less weights are given the farthest neighbors to estimate the predicted time series. Finally, multiple ensembles are generated to estimate the conditional mean of the time series.

In the K-NN scheme, we used the Mahalanobis distance instead of the Euclidean distance, 195 since the selected predictors – PCs of the principal components and the streamflow over the past 196 observations- could be correlated. Therefore, for forecasting the streamflow for a given day 197 observed in the WQN data, all the neighbors were chosen based on the historical time series of 1-198 day ahead FP and previous 1-day average streamflow for that day over the period 1979 to 2009, 199 leaving out the daily predictors and predictands over the entire forecasting year (i.e., 365 days). 200 201 This implies that in order to forecast streamflow for a given day, 30 historical years are available (excluding the forecast year) for identifying similar conditions. Since this is a small sample size 202 for identifying neighbors, we also considered daily streamflow over the three previous days, 203 resulting in a total 120 neighbors, to develop streamflow forecasts for a given day. Mahalanobis 204 distance for all these 120 neighbors were estimated using equation (1) (Mahalanobis, 1936): 205

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$$D_{i,j} = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)^T S^{-1} (X_i - X_j)}$$
 (1)

where X_i and $X_j = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{120})$ are the multivariate vectors containing predictor variables at the conditioning time step *i* and *j* denote the rest of the time periods that are considered for identifying the neighbors with *T* representing the transpose operation and S^{-1} denoting the inverse of the predictor (X_j) covariance matrix. The matrix, $X_i = [x_{1i}, x_{2i}]$ denotes the multivariate vector with x_{1i} , and x_{2i} , denoting the 1-day averaged streamflow before the forecasted day and the PCs of 1-day ahead FP. The first 50 nearest neighbors and their corresponding daily streamflow values were selected based on Mahalanobis distance, $D_{i,j}$, to develop ensemble of daily streamflow forecasts. These daily streamflow values from the 50 neighbors were used to draw 500 ensembles that represent the conditional distribution with the density/weight represented by each member, j, by the kernel in equation (2):

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$$w_j = \frac{1/j}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} 1/k}$$
, $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$ (2)

where K = 50 (the number of neighbors), W_i represents the probability with which neighbor is resampled in constituting the 500-member ensemble. Finally, the forecasted streamflow for each day is calculated as the conditional mean of these 500 realizations obtained from the 50 neighbors. The ensemble mean of daily streamflow forecasts are specifically obtained for the days on which WQN data is available, so that the ensemble mean of daily streamflow forecasts could be used for developing forecasts of total nitrogen loadings, whose details are described in the next section.

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3.2 Daily Nitrogen Loadings and Concentration Forecasts Development

Daily nitrogen loadings forecasts are developed by forcing the daily streamflow forecasts with the Load Estimation (LOADEST) program. The LOADEST model can be employed with the observed or predicted daily streamflow time series at any given site. Streamflow forecast developed using large-scale precipitation forecasts and previous 3-day average streamflow using the non-parametric model is forced with the LOADEST model to develop nutrient forecasts. LOADEST is a statistical model that estimates daily loadings based on the observed daily
streamflow and the centered time (*dtime*) of the year of the observation (Runkel et al., 2004).

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$$\ln(L_j) = a0 + a1 \ln(Q_j) + a2 \ln Q_j^2 + a3 \sin(2\pi dtime) + a4 \cos(2\pi dtime) + \hat{\varepsilon}_j \dots (3)$$

where L_j denotes the observed daily loadings from the WQN database with 'j' denoting the day of observation, Q_j is the observed daily flow and *dtime* is the centered time which is a function of the observation's number of days (from January 1) in the calendar year, *a0-a4* denote the model coefficients and $\hat{\varepsilon}_j$ is the estimated residual for the model. The expression *dtime* is centered to avoid multi-collinearity and *dtime* also represents the seasonality in loadings pattern. For a detailed expression on *dtime*, see Cohn et al. (1992).

240 The LOADEST model allows the user to select the best-fitting regression model from eleven 241 predefined regression models using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1981). Five 242 regression models that include a linear time trend are not appropriate, since we are employing 243 observed streamflow to estimate simulated loadings for HCDN watersheds. Therefore, the 244 simulated nutrient loadings based on the remaining regression models (i.e., model forms: 1, 2, 4 245 and 6 as defined in Runkel et al., 2004) in the LOADEST program do not have any time trend. 246 Equation (3) represents the model form 6. Model form 1 (2) considers only the first two (three) 247 terms in the right hand side (RHS) of equation (3), whereas model form 3 considers all the terms except the third term in the RHS of equation (3). For further details on model forms, see Runkel 248 et al. (2004). Table 3 shows the "goodness of fit" statistics (coefficient of determination (R²) and 249 250 AIC) in predicting the observed daily loadings in the WQN database (Table 1) and the coefficients of the best fitting regression model for total nitrogen for the selected18 stations. 251

From Table 3, we infer that R² ranges from 0.83-0.97 indicating good fit of the observed daily loadings over 18 stations. Using these parameters, we next estimate the forecasts of daily loadings 254 using the ensemble mean of daily streamflow forecasts developed using the retrospective weather forecasts. Strictly speaking, these parameters should have been obtained by leaving out the 255 observed WQN loadings on the day of the forecasting. Since we have more than 50 observations 256 at each site (Table 1), the regression coefficients and model forms did not change substantially. 257 Hence, we used the parameters of the regression coefficients given in Table 3 to estimate the 258 259 forecasted total nitrogen loadings. These forecasted loadings are divided by the forecasted streamflow to estimate the forecasts of total nitrogen concentrations for the 18 selected watersheds. 260 The forecasted daily streamflow and total nitrogen loadings and concentration are respectively 261 262 compared with the observed streamflow and the observed WQN daily loadings based on Spearman rank correlation and Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) in predicting the observed information. 263

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265 **4. Results and Analysis**

In this section, we present skill in predicting variability (rank correlation) and accuracy (RMSE) of observed streamflow and WQN loadings using the forecasted daily streamflow obtained using the K-NN approach.

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271 4.1 Skill in Forecasting Daily Streamflow

We first summarize the performance of the daily streamflow forecasts for only those days when TN loadings are measured (Figure 4a). Based on that, we infer that all the stations show statistically significant correlations with 8 sites showing correlations greater than 0.8 (Figure 3a). Similarly, RMSE (in cfs per unit area) is lesser than 1 for all states except stations #11, 17 and 18 (Figure 3b). These errors primarily occur due to the inability of the model to predict high values 277 as indicated by very high residuals. For instance, RMSE for station #17 drops from 3.56 to 0.55 by excluding only one extreme observation recorded on 2/10/1981 (not shown here). The RMSE 278 for station #11 (#18) are adjusted to 0.73 (0.29) by dropping one (two) high flow value(s). 279 Although this conditional bias is not observed at all the stations, we infer that the daily streamflow 280 forecast model has poor skill in predicting high flow values. We defer this issue for further 281 282 discussion at the end of this section. Given this evaluation in predicting observed streamflow on days with WQN data, we next evaluate the performance of daily nitrogen loadings and 283 concentration forecasts for the 18 stations. 284

285 4.2 Skill in Forecasting Total Nitrogen Loadings and Concentration

Using the ensemble mean of the daily forecasted streamflows as a predictor in the LOADEST 286 model, we estimate the forecasted TN loadings for those days in which measurements are available 287 in the WQN database. Figure 4a (4b) shows rank correlation (RMSE) between forecasted daily 288 loadings and observed loadings for the 18 stations. Daily loadings of TN forecasts exhibit 289 statistically significant relationship between observation and forecasts at all the stations with 290 correlation coefficients being greater than 0.8 in nine stations. We also infer the correlation is 291 higher in coastal regions as opposed to the inland watersheds. Similar to the skill of daily 292 293 streamflow forecasts, loadings forecasts produce high RMSE in some stations despite their ability to predict the observed variability. This failure in forecasting TN loadings is primarily due to the 294 inability in estimating high flow events as discussed in Section 4.1. 295

Further extending our analysis, we estimated TN concentration from the LOADEST model utilizing the forecasted streamflow and loadings and then compared the forecasted TN concentration with the observed concentrations available in the WQN database (Figure 5). Though the forecasted concentration is smaller compared to correlation reported for streamflow and

loadings, the correlation is statistically significant at all stations except stations #6 and #18. Given
that concentration is the ratio of loadings to the streamflow, the error in predicting both loadings
and streamflow result in reduced skill. We are not reporting the RMSE since the trend is similar
to Figures 4 and 5.

304 4.3 Factors affecting the skill in forecasting TN loadings

In order to understand what factors control the skill in forecasting the TN loadings utilizing the weather forecasts, we plotted the rank correlation against basin area (Figure 6). Rank correlation in forecasting streamflow (Figure 6a) and TN loadings (Figure 6b) are statistically significant for all the stations and the skill increases as the drainage area increases. This is primarily due to the fact that retrospective weather forecasts being available over large spatial scales, the developed streamflow and TN loadings forecasts modulate better with the observed streamflow and WQN loadings.

To gain further understanding on how the developed model estimate the observed streamflow 312 and nutrients, we present the performance of daily streamflow and TN forecasts for the sites that 313 have the best and worst skill under each case (Figure 7). For quantifying the performance of 314 streamflow, we considered the continuous daily streamflow records available from USGS instead 315 316 of comparing the performance on the days with WQN data. From streamflow forecasts for the site with best skill (Figure 7a), we understand that overall performance is good, but the K-NN 317 resampling approach based daily streamflow forecasts consistently underestimate high flow events. 318 319 This underestimation/error in streamflow forecasts partially arises from the errors in the precipitation forecasts also. We discuss this issue in detail in the next section. From Figure 7b, the 320 321 site performs poorly in forecasting flows above 8000 cfs. It is important to note that for the same 322 site we observed significant correlation in predicting both the streamflow and the loadings on those

323 days with WQN data being present. Thus, evaluating the performance of K-NN resampling model over the entire time series of observed records provide a more confirmatory evaluation of the 324 model. The primary reason the K-NN resampling model performs poorly at site 3 (Rocky River 325 near Norwood, NC) is due to the limited correlation between the observed precipitation and the 326 forecasted precipitation during the summer months (figure not shown). Thus, the error resulting 327 328 from K-NN resampling arises from both errors in the precipitation forecasts and in estimating the initial conditions as well as from the model itself. Even if one uses physically-based distributed 329 330 models (e.g., Sacramento model), the skill of streamflow forecasts is heavily dependent on the 331 skill of precipitation forecasts as well as the season of forecasting.

Figure 7c shows the performance of the TN loadings forecasts obtained using the streamflow 332 forecasts with the LOADEST model. Even here, the same issue is highlighted with the limited 333 ability of the forecasts in predicting the nutrients on days with high flows resulting in 334 underestimated TN loadings. But, the model estimates the variability of the observed nutrients 335 very well. Figure 7d shows the performance of TN loadings for a station with the worst skill. The 336 skill of the streamflow forecasts resulting from the K-NN resampling approach in predicting the 337 observed daily streamflow recorded at USGS stations is marginal with an average daily correlation 338 of 0.6. Given that the R^2 of the LOADEST model is 0.912 for the selected station (Table 3), the 339 poor performance primarily results from the inability of the streamflow forecasts which partly 340 arises from the resampling model as well as from the skill of the precipitation forecasts. Thus, to 341 342 develop nutrient forecasts, it is important that the skill of daily precipitation and streamflow forecasts should be good and also the load estimation model should have very high skill in 343 344 predicting the observed nutrients. Given that these basins are virgin, it could be argued the 345 predominant source of nutrient loadings arise from the nonpoint sources whose primary transport is the streamflow. Thus, for developing a broader understanding of what could be achieved in forecasting daily nutrients in virgin basins, one could look at the skill in predicting daily streamflow forecasts using the retrospective weather forecasts for the selected 18 stations. We summarize this information under the discussion in the next section by summarizing the skill of daily streamflow forecasts under each month for the selected 18 stations.

351 4.4 Discussion

The intent of this study is to develop daily forecasts of total nitrogen (TN) loadings and its 352 353 concentration in 18 HCDN watersheds that are minimally impacted by anthropogenic influences 354 over the southeastern US. Given that these watersheds experience virgin flow, our hypothesis is that most of the nutrient transport at daily time scales could be explained based on observed 355 streamflow. For this purpose, we related the observed daily streamflow and loadings using the 356 LOADEST model (Table 3), which showed significant skill in predicting the daily variability in 357 TN loadings purely based on observed streamflow. Given that the predominant driver of 358 streamflow in watersheds under rainfall-runoff regime is precipitation, we utilized the 359 retrospective 1-day ahead precipitation forecasts from the reforecasts database of Hamill et al., 360 (2004) and daily streamflow over previous three days (as a surrogate for soil moisture storage) for 361 362 developing daily streamflow forecasts on the days with recorded WQN observations. The forecasted ensemble average of the streamflow obtained using the K-NN resampling model was 363 used within the LOADEST model to estimate the forecasted daily TN loadings and the 364 365 concentrations. We observed the correlation between observed TN loadings and the forecasted TN loadings being significant in almost all the stations. But, the forecasted concentration showed 366 367 reduced skill, since it accounted for the errors in both loadings and streamflow. Though one could 368 improve the streamflow forecasts developed using the K-NN resampling approach by considering

369 physically distributed hydrologic models and by explicitly considering additional input variables (e.g., temperature forecasts, humidity), we certainly captured the first-order information on the 370 daily streamflow variability by utilizing the retrospective precipitation forecasts and employed that 371 for assessing the potential in developing nutrient forecasts. Another advantage with the 372 streamflow forecasts using K-NN approach is in specifying the conditional distribution of flows. 373 Thus, one could use the conditional distribution of streamflows with the LOADEST model to 374 develop the conditional distribution of loadings, which could be used to estimate the probability 375 376 of violating the concentration at the daily time scale.

It is important to note that all the skill reported in Figures 3-6 consider the ability to predicting 377 those days when the WQN observations are available. The primary difficulty in assessing the 378 potential for developing nutrient forecasts at daily time scale is the discontinuous nutrient 379 samplings recorded in the WQN database. Oh and Sankarasubramanian (2012) addressed this issue 380 by computing the coefficient of determination (R^2) of the winter TN loadings forecasts as a product 381 of the R^2 in forecasting the seasonal streamflow and the R^2 of the LOADEST model for the winter 382 season. Similarly, we express the skill of TN forecasts (equation 4) at daily time scale as a product 383 of the R² of streamflow (Q) forecasts developed from the K-NN approach for each day in the 384 calendar year and the R^2 of the LOADEST model reported in Table 3. 385

$$R_{TN-daily}^2 = R_{(LOADEST)}^2 * R_{Q-daily}^2 \qquad \dots (4)$$

R²_{Q-daily} is computed between the observed daily streamflow over the period 1979-2010 and the computed ensemble mean of the streamflow forecast from the K-NN resampling approach. Since the skill of daily streamflow forecasts differ substantially depending on the season, we plot the $R^2_{TN-daily}$ as a box-plot for each month (Figure 8). Basically, Figure 8 pools the daily correlation,

 $R_{TN-daily}^2$, for a given month across the 18 stations. For instance, in January, we expect 31*18 daily 391 correlations and the box-plot simply summarizes the skill in predicting daily TN for that month 392 over the Southeast US. About 75% of the $R_{IN-daily}^2$ at daily level are statistically significant level 393 over the period January to May and also from November and December (Figure 8). Daily TN 394 forecasts show relatively better skills in predicting observed TN variability during winter and 395 spring. On the other hand, the skill of $R_{IN-daily}^2$ is poor during the summer and fall seasons. It has 396 been well-known that retrospective precipitation forecasts have lower skill during the warm-season 397 398 (Hamill et al., 2004). One of the possible reasons of relatively poor skill during summer and fall is that weather phenomena during these seasons depend greatly on local scale processes while 399 400 large-scale models do not have the ability to capture it (Hamill et al., 2006). Thus, the poor skill of $R_{TN-daily}^2$ primarily arises from the skill in forecasting precipitation during the summer and fall 401 seasons. Additionally, the role of temperature during the summer season is also much higher with 402 enhanced evapotranspiration. However, considering temperature as additional predictor did not 403 result in substantial increase in the $R_{Q-daily}^2$ for the summer season. Perhaps, if one considers a 404 405 physically-based hydrologic model, the skill in predicting daily streamflow could improve during 406 the summer season. We plan to investigate this as a future work in assessing the potential for developing nutrient forecasts with streamflow forecasts being derived from a physically-based 407 distributed hydrologic model. Thus, the potential skill $(R_{IN-daily}^2)$ in predicting daily nutrients is 408 statistically significant for the winter and spring season in almost all the stations. One could utilize 409 this to develop adaptive nutrient management strategies for controlling the point sources (e.g., 410 411 waste water treatment plants) so that the downstream TN concentration does not exceed the desired/ EPA standards. 412

Given that consideration of both forecasted precipitation and 3-day average streamflow prior 413 to the forecasting day exhibit significant skill in predicting the observed TN loadings from the 414 WQN database, we investigated the role of each predictor in contributing to the overall skill 415 reported in Figures 3-5. This analyses will also provide information on the role of basin storage, 416 3-day average streamflow, in contributing to the forecast skill. For this purpose, we developed the 417 418 streamflow forecasts using only one predictor and then used that streamflow forecast to estimate the TN loadings. Figure 9 quantifies the role of each predictor, 3-day average streamflow prior to 419 420 forecasting day (Q) and 1-day ahead precipitation forecasts (FP), in contributing to the skill, 421 correlation and RMSE, in forecasting TN loadings for all the 18 sites. It is important to note that the correlation and RMSE were obtained by forecasting for the actual day for which the samples 422 423 are available in a given site in the WQN database. Figure 9 clearly indicates that the combination of both 3-day average streamflow and 1-day ahead precipitation forecasts as predictors result in 424 improved correlation and reduced RMSE in estimating daily TN loadings at all the sites. 425 Comparing the skill obtained using only one predictor, 3-day average streamflow or forecasted 426 precipitation, we infer that for most of the watersheds, the skill obtained using 3-day average 427 streamflow (prior to the forecasting day) alone as a predictor provides better skill in comparison 428 429 to the skill obtained using forecasted precipitation alone as a predictor with the exception being stations 6, 8 and 18. On an average, in most of the basins, 3-day average streamflow prior to the 430 forecasts alone can explain around 25% (average correlation across all the sites is 0.52) of the 431 432 variability in the observed nutrients. Several studies have shown that antecedent moisture/flow conditions also play a critical role in influencing the nutrient loadings from the watershed (Vecchia 433 434 2003, Alexander and Smith 2006). This analyses further confirms the critical role of basin storage, 435 both streamflow and nutrients, in influencing the forecast skill. On the other hand, forecasted

precipitation alone, can explain on average 20% (average correlation across all the sites is 0.45) of
the variability in the observed TN loadings in the WQN database. Thus, including both of them
as a predictors in the proposed modeling framework results in overall improvement.

We also investigated how the type of land use influence the skill in forecasting TN loadings. 439 Figure 10 shows the scatter plot between the forecast skill, correlation coefficient between the 440 observed TN loadings and the forecasted TN loadings, and the percentage area under agriculture 441 for each watershed. This indicates basins with higher percentage of agricultural land exhibits 442 higher skill in forecasting the TN loadings. Basin with increased agricultural activity could 443 444 potentially experience increased fertilization application, which could increase the streamflowinduced transport. This indicates the role of basin nutrient storage in influencing the forecast skill. 445 Similar analyses on urban land use did not reveal any relationship with the skill. Thus, analyses 446 from Figures 9 and 10 show that both antecedent moisture conditions and in-basin nutrient storage 447 influence the forecast skill for the selected 18 stations over the SEUS. 448

Though the watersheds considered under this study have experienced moderate agricultural 449 activity, extending the above modeling framework for basins experiencing significant urbanization 450 451 will require additional information. For instance, as the basin gets urbanized, it is natural to expect the point TN loadings from waste water treatment (WWT) plants to influence the downstream 452 loadings and concentration. Under such situation, it would be useful to consider the discharges 453 from the WWT plants as predictors in developing the model. One could also use the TN forecast 454 455 to control point loadings so that the downstream TN concentration is within the prescribed standard. For basins experiencing significant non-point pollution from agriculture, one could use 456 information from remote sensing satellites that quantify the chlorophyll concentration could be 457 458 also be considered as nutrient storage in the river reach and water bodies (Jones et al., 2005). Thus,

adequate monitoring of changes in basin land use and nutrient conditions could provide additional
 information in developing a TN forecasting model for watersheds experiencing significant human
 interference.

462

463 **5. Summary and Conclusions**

464 We developed a semi-parametric statistical model, which utilizes 1-day ahead precipitation forecasts from the reforecasts from the NOAA GFS climate model (Hamill et al., 2004) and daily 465 streamflow over the previous three days as predictors, to develop daily streamflow forecasts, which 466 467 in turn was used to implement a load estimation model, LOADEST, for estimating daily nutrients. For each day, conditioned on previous day's streamflow and 1-day ahead forecasted precipitation, 468 50 nearest neighbors over a three-day window were selected based on the Mahalanobis distance 469 and then observed daily streamflow corresponding to those 50 neighbors were resampled to 470 constitute 500 ensemble members to develop a daily streamflow forecast. It is important to note 471 that to develop a forecast for a given day in a year, the entire year's predictors and predictand were 472 left out for identifying the 50 nearest neighbors. Finally, the conditional mean of these daily 473 streamflow ensemble was forced in the LOADEST model to obtain daily forecasts of TN loadings 474 475 and concentration for days with recorded WQN observations. Skill in developing forecasts of streamflow, TN loadings and the associated concentration were computed using rank correlation 476 and RMSE, by comparing the respective forecast values with the WQN observations for the 477 478 selected 18 HCDN stations. The forecasted daily streamflow and TN loadings and their concentration exhibit statistically significant skill in predicting the respective daily observations 479 480 in the WQN database at all the 18 stations over the SEUS.

481 The study also found that the skill in predicting the observed TN loadings is higher for large watersheds indicating the large-scale precipitation forecasts from the reforecast database better 482 correlate with precipitation and streamflow over large watersheds. Analyses also showed that 483 compared to the forecast precipitation, the 3-day average streamflow prior to the forecasting period 484 played a dominant role in contributing to the skill of the forecast. We also observed the skill in 485 486 forecasting TN loadings is higher for basins having higher percentage of the area under agriculture. 487 These findings confirm that basin storage, both streamflow and nutrients, play a critical role in 488 influencing the skill of the forecast. Further, to overcome the limited samplings of TN in the WQN 489 data, we extended the analyses by developing retrospective daily streamflow forecasts over the period 1979-2012 using reforecasts based on the K-NN resampling approach. Based on the 490 coefficient of determination ($R_{Q-daily}^2$) of the daily streamflow forecasts, we computed the potential 491 skill ($R_{IN-daily}^2$) in developing daily nutrient forecasts based on the R² of the LOADEST model for 492 each station. The analyses showed that the forecasting skills of TN loadings are relatively better 493 494 in winter and spring months while skills are inferior during summer months. These findings are consistent with other studies (Devineni and Sankarasubramanian, 2010; Sinha and 495 Sankarasubramanan, 2013) which show that large-scale precipitation forecasts derive their skill 496 497 from ENSO climatic modes in the SEUS. One possible reason for this poor skill in summer is due to the dominance of local-scale processes during the summer season. Other possible reasons could 498 be due to the limitations in the methodology. We resampled neighbors to develop daily streamflow 499 ensemble, which of course will not have members beyond the maximum observation over the 500 selected 50 neighbors. Further, air temperature can play a dominant role during the summer and 501 502 fall seasons, resulting in enhanced evapotranspiration and reduced baseflow from the watershed. Despite these limitations, there is potential in utilizing the daily streamflow forecasts for 503

developing daily nutrient forecasts, which could be employed for various adaptive nutrientmanagement strategies for ensuring better water quality.

506

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- 512
- 513

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Table 1: Baseline information for the 18 selected stations. Percentage land use area under urban

and agriculture are calculated based on the 2001 USGS NLCD data. Values in the parentheses in

the last column show the total number of daily total nitrogen loadings and concentration

643 samplings available for each station.

Station	Station	Station Name	Drainage Area	% Area under	% Area under	Number of Years (# of daily Obs.)	
Index	Number		(km ²)	Agriculture	Urban		
1	1 2047000 Nottoway river near Sebrell, VA		3732.17	16.9	5.0	17 (95)	
2	2083500	Tar river at Tarboro, NC.	5653.94	28.9	8.0	22 (152)	
3	2126000	Rocky river near Norwood, NC	3553.46	28.7	22.8	14 (65)	
4	4 2176500 Coosawhatchie river near		525.77	23.9	6.8	13 (100)	
5	2202500	Ogeechee river near Eden, GA	6863.47	23.5	5.0	20 (141)	
6	2212600	Falling creek near Juliette, GA	187.00	0.6	2.4	14 (56)	
7	2228000	Satilla river at Atkinson, GA	7226.07	20.4	7.6	20 (123)	
8	8 2231000 St. Marys river near Macclenny		1812.99	3.8	5.9	14 (108)	
9	9 2321500 Santa Fe river at Worthington sprin		1489.24	12.3	6.4	21 (82)	
10	2324000	Steinhatchee river near Cross city, FL	906.50	0.8	4.8	19 (92)	
11	2327100	Sopchoppy river near Sopchoppy, FL	264.18	0.0	1.0	22 (125)	
12	2329000	Ochlockonee river near Havana, FL	2952.59	28.6	6.9	22 (133)	
13	2358000	Apalachicola river at Chattahoochee, FL	achicola river at Chattahoochee, FL 44547.79 22.5 9.4		9.8	23 (152)	
14	2366500	Choctawhatchee river near Bruce, FL	11354.51	19.6	5.6	21 (119)	
15	152368000Yellow river at Milligan, FL		1616.15	17.6	6.5	21 (123)	
16	2375500	Escambia river near Century, FL	9885.98	12.5	4.8	22 (145)	
17	2479155	Cypress creek near Janice, MS	136.23	0	0.9	16 (54)	
18	2489500	Pearl river near Bogalusa, LA	17023.99	15.2	6.8	12 (57)	

Table 2: Station ID, number of selected PCs, and cumulative Eigen values for large scale

646 precipitation grids from the NOAA's GFS model, which provide 1-day ahead precipitation

647 forecasts (Grid numbers are shown in Figure 1)

Station		# of	Cumulative Eigen value		
ID	Selected Grids (total # of selected grids)	Selected PCs	of selected PCs		
1	5, 7, 12, 19-21 (6)	4	0.962		
2	5, 7, 12 (3)	2	0.905		
3	4-5, 11-13, 18-20 (8)	4	0.948		
4	11-13, 18-20, 27 (7)	3	0.909		
5	17-18, 24-27 (6)	3	0.922		
6	9-12, 16-19, 23-26 (12)	4	0.903		
7	24-26, 31-33 (6)	3	0.918		
8	17-19, 24-26, 31-33 (9)	4	0.918		
9	17-19, 24-26, 31-33 (9)	4	0.918		
10	16-19, 23-26, 30-33 (12)	5	0.921		
11	16-18, 23-25, 30-32 (9)	4	0.930		
12	16, 30-32 (4)	3	0.975		
13	23-25, 30-32 (6)	3	0.934		
14	18, 22-25, 30-32 (8)	4	0.938		
15	18, 22, 24 (3)	2	0.912		
16	22, 29-31 (4)	3	0.977		
17	15-17, 22-24, 29-31 (9)	4	0.929		
18	17, 22-24, 30-31 (6)	3	0.932		

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Station	R ² (Daily)	AIC (Daily)	Model No	Coefficients of selected LOADEST model				
Index				a0	a1	a2	a3	a4
1	0.948	0.892	4	6.768	1.114	-0.283	-0.069	
2	0.966	-0.131	4	8.122	0.980	0.108	-0.018	
3	0.966	0.496	4	8.863	1.066	-0.195	0.090	
4	0.956	0.905	6	4.446	1.013	0.026	0.238	-0.036
5	0.916	0.837	4	7.721	1.069	-0.084	-0.317	
6	0.853	2.094	1	2.647	1.095			
7	0.968	0.518	6	7.521	1.005	-0.025	-0.083	0.103
8	0.963	0.250	6	6.428	1.088	-0.075	-0.027	0.187
9	0.986	-0.219	6	5.690	1.086	-0.037	-0.078	0.059
10	0.979	0.279	6	5.549	1.241	-0.069	-0.096	0.071
11	0.979	0.516	6	4.351	1.139	-0.043	0.187	0.007
12	0.923	0.585	1	7.341	0.846			
13	0.902	0.193	4	10.563	0.981	0.074	0.165	
14	0.835	0.423	4	9.077	0.931	-0.145	-0.042	
15	0.834	1.085	6	7.238	1.123	-0.131	-0.004	0.176
16	0.873	0.758	4	8.868	1.039	0.147	0.032	
17	0.912	1.233	4	4.555	1.188	0.206	0.328	
18	0.899	0.853	1	10.193	1.047			

Table 3: Performance of LOADEST model in predicting the observed TN loadings from the
WQN database. Models with linear time components (Model No: 3,5, 7-9) are not considered.

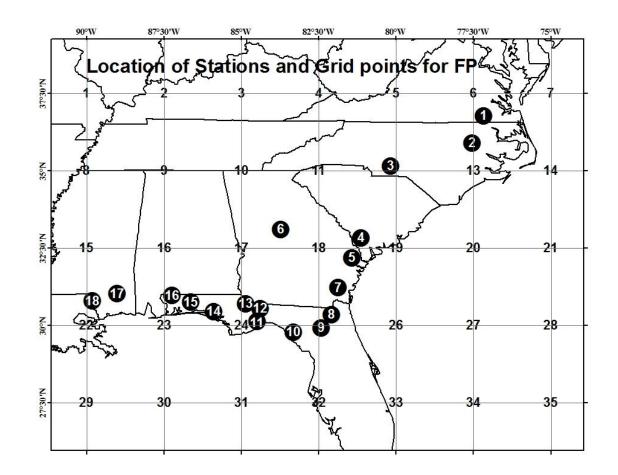


Figure 1. Locations of 18 water quality monitoring stations and grids of forecasted precipitation

656 from NOAA's reforecast model.

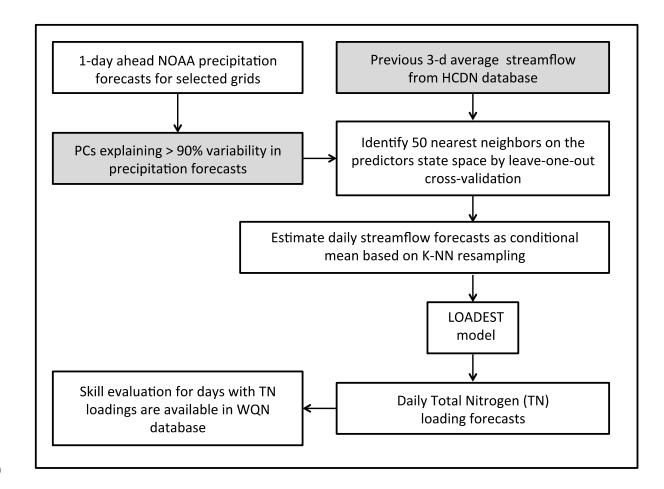


Figure 2: Schematic diagram illustrating the overall approach to forecast daily streamflow and
total nitrogen loadings conditioned on the predictors (gray boxes), daily weather forecasts and
daily average streamflow values for previous 3 days, based on Kernel-Nearest Neighbor (K-NN)
resampling approach.

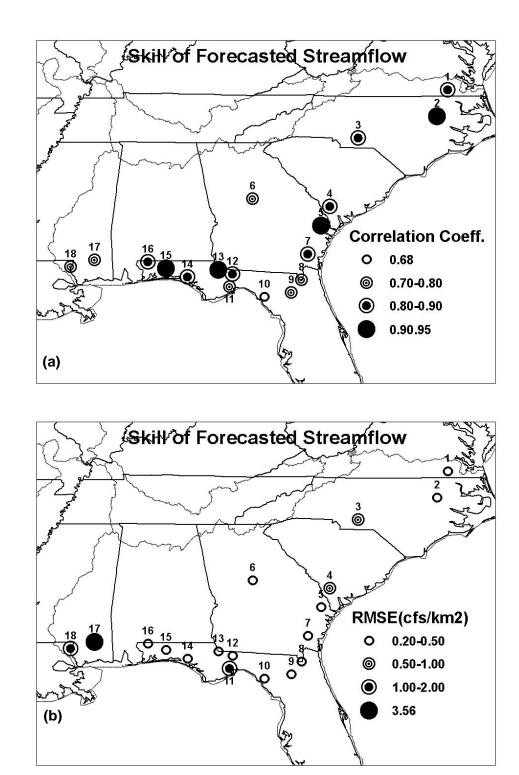




Figure 3: a) Rank correlation and b) RMSE (cfs per unit area) between observed daily

672 streamflow and forecasted daily streamflow for those days with TN loadings being available in

673 the WQN database.

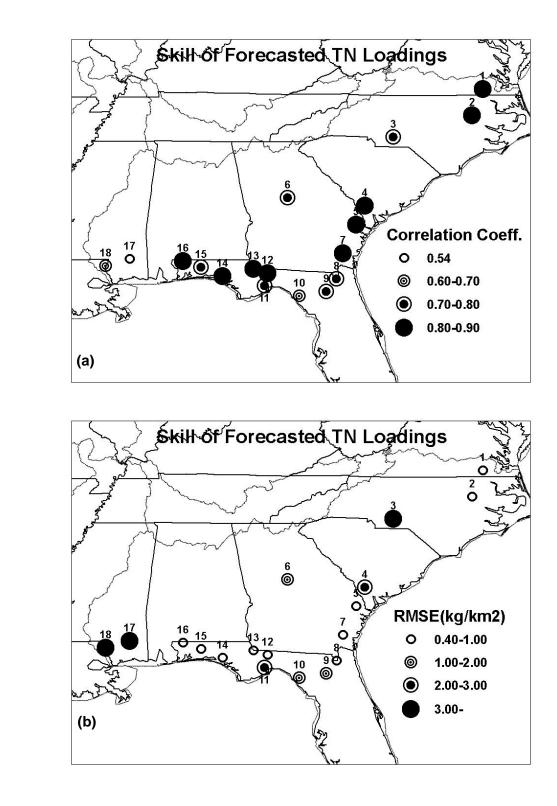




Figure 4: a) Rank correlation and b) RMSE between observed TN loadings and forecasted TNloadings for those days with TN loadings being available in the WQN database.

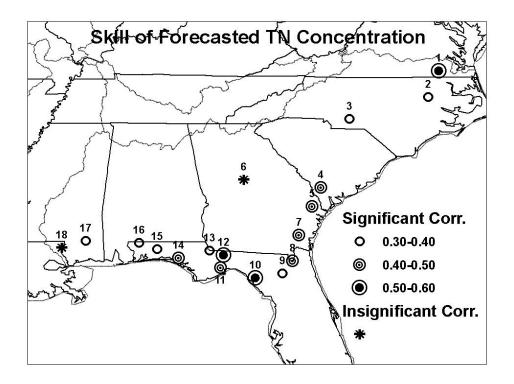


Figure 5: Correlation between observed TN concentration and forecasted TN concentration for

those days with TN loadings being available in the WQN database.

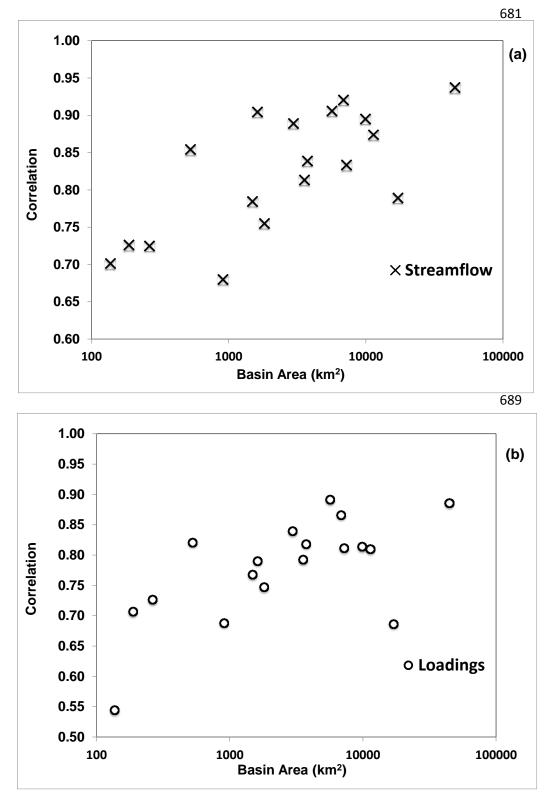


Figure 6: Role of basin scale, drainage area, in forecasting observed (a) streamflow and (b) TNloadings provided in the WQN database for the 18 stations.

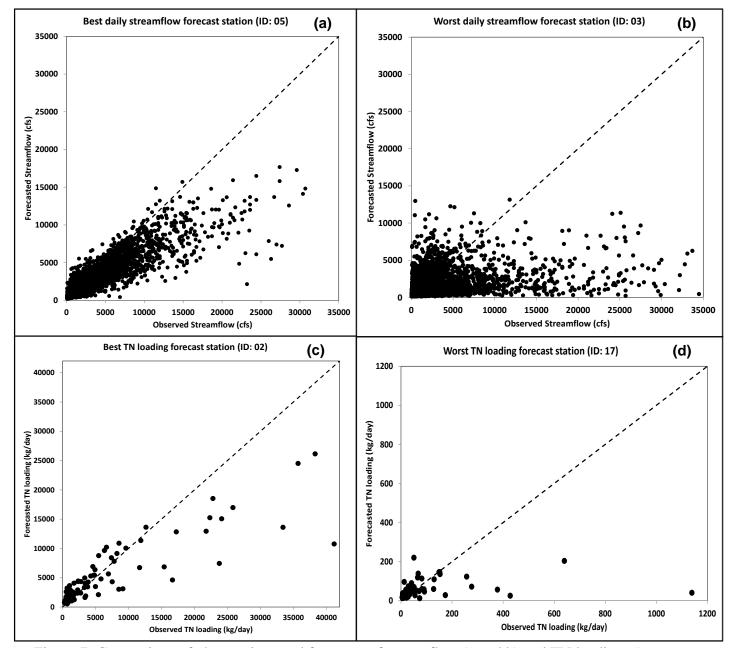


Figure 7: Comparison of observations and forecasts of streamflow (a and b) and TN loadings (c
and d) for the stations with best (Streamflow: Ogeechee river near Eden, GA, TN: Tar river at
Tarboro, NC) and worst forecasting skill (Streamflow: Rocky river near Norwood, NC, TN:
Cypress creek near Janice, MS).

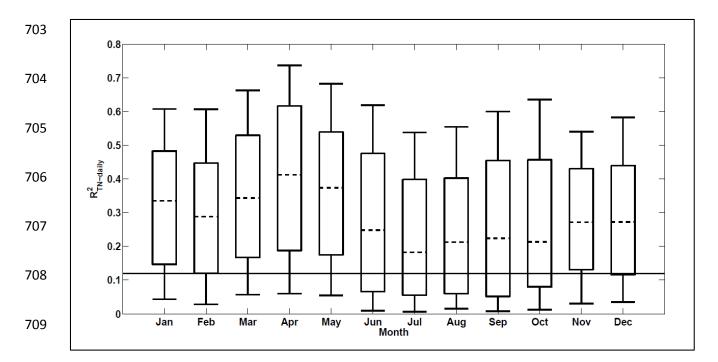


Figure 8: Box plot showing rank correlations between observed daily streamflow and forecasted
streamflow aggregated over each month from 1979 to 2009 period. Each plot includes 558
correlations (18 stations × 31years). The solid line represents the statistically significant (95%)
R² corresponding to the null hypothesis that R² being equal to zero.

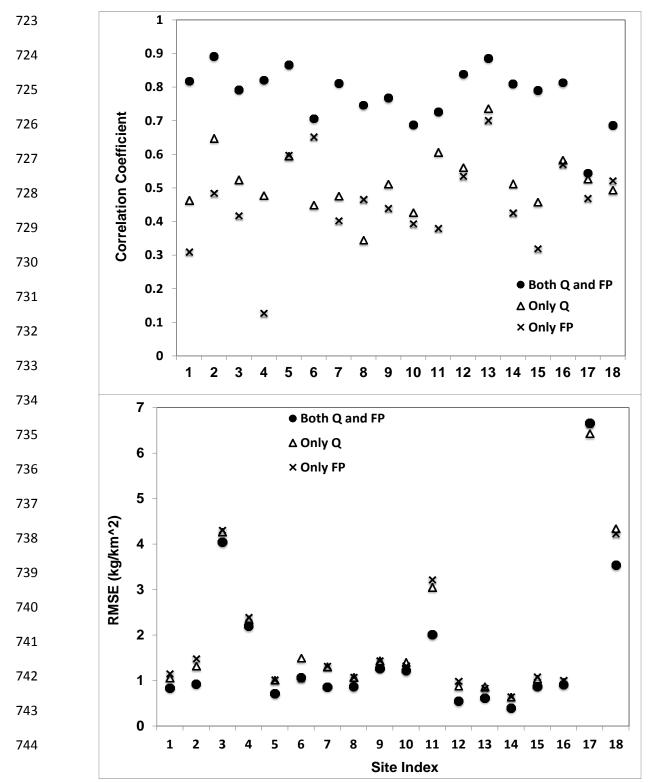
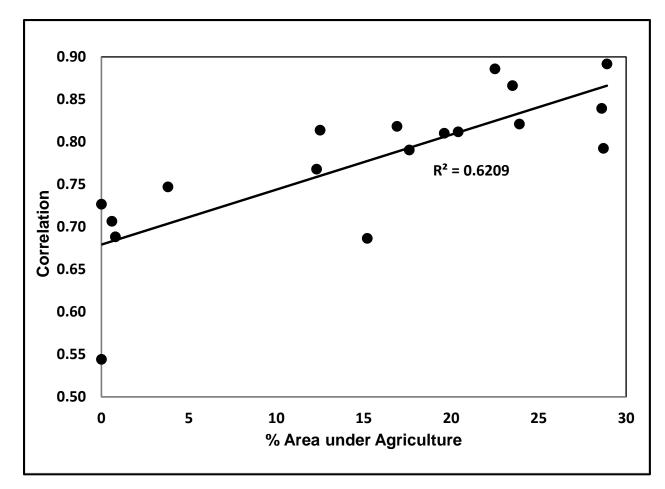


Figure 9: The role of different predictors, 3-day average daily streamflow prior to forecasting
day (Q) and 1-day ahead precipitation forecasts (FP), in forecasting the observed TN loadings is
expressed as (a) correlation coefficient and (b) RMSE between the observed TN and the
forecasted TN loadings for the 18 selected sites.



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Figure 10: Role of the type of land use, percentage area under agriculture, in influencing the

751 forecast skill which is expressed as the correlation coefficient between the observed TN loadings

and the forecasted TN loadings for the 18 selected watersheds.