Skilful seasonal forecasts of streamflow over Europe?

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Abstract. This paper presents a Europe-wide analysis of the skill of the newly operational EFAS (European Flood Awareness System) seasonal streamflow forecasts, benchmarked against the Ensemble Streamflow Prediction (ESP) forecasting approach. The results suggest that, on average, the System 4 seasonal climate forecasts improve the streamflow predictability over historical meteorological observations for the first month of lead time only. However, the predictability varies in space and time and is greater in winter and autumn. Parts of Europe additionally exhibit a longer predictability, up to seven months of lead time, for certain months within a season. The results also highlight the potential usefulness of the EFAS seasonal streamflow forecasts for decision-making. Although the ESP is the most potentially useful forecasting approach in Europe, the EFAS seasonal streamflow forecasts appear more potentially useful than the ESP in some regions and for certain seasons, especially in winter for most of Europe. Patterns in the EFAS seasonal streamflow hindcasts skill are however not mirrored in the System 4 seasonal climate hindcasts, hinting the need for a better understanding of the link between hydrological and meteorological variables on seasonal timescales, with the aim to improve climate-model based seasonal streamflow forecasting.

1 Introduction

Seasonal streamflow forecasts predict the likelihood of a difference from normal conditions in the following months. Unlike forecasts at shorter timescales, they currently do not have skill to predict the exact streamflow at a specific location and time. The predictability in seasonal streamflow forecasts is driven by two components of the Earth system, the initial hydrological conditions (IHC; i.e. of snowpack, soil moisture, streamflow and reservoir levels, etc) and large-scale climate patterns, such as the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), the Pacific-North American (PNA) pattern and the Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) (Yuan et al., 2015b).

The first seasonal streamflow forecasting method, based on a regression technique developed around 1910-11 in the United States, harnessed the predictability from accurate IHC of snowpack to derive streamflow for the following summer (Church, 1935). This statistical method recognised antecedent hydrological conditions and land surface memory, as key drivers of streamflow generation for the following months.

5 Alongside the physical understanding of streamflow generation processes came technical developments, such as the creation of the first hydrological models and the acquisition of longer observed meteorological time series, which led to the creation of the first operational model-based seasonal streamflow forecasting system. This system, called Extended Streamflow Prediction (ESP; i.e. note that ESP nowadays stands for Ensemble Streamflow Prediction, although it refers to the same forecasting method), was developed by the United States National Weather Service (NWS) in the 1970s (Twedt et al., 1977;

10 Day, 1985). The ESP forecasts are produced by forcing a hydrological model, initialised with the current IHC, with the observed historical meteorological time series available. The output is an ensemble streamflow forecast (where each year of historical data is a streamflow trace) for the following season(s) (Twedt et al., 1977; Day, 1985). The quality of the ESP forecasts can be high in basins where the IHC dominate the surface hydrological cycle for several months (Wood and Lettenmaier, 2008).

15 Precipitation variability was however soon identified as a major source of error in the ESP forecasts (Pagano and Garen, 2006), as this forecasting method is based on the assumption that past meteorological events are representative of future events, where each historical year has an equal likelihood of occurrence in the forecast year. As a result, the ESP forecasts are skilful as long as the weather experienced in the current year is not extraordinarily extreme compared to all the historical years of meteorological observations available (Day, 1985). This drawback led to the investigation of the use of seasonal

20 climate forecasts, in place of the historical meteorological inputs, to feed hydrological models and extend the predictability of hydrological variables on seasonal timescales (Pagano and Garen, 2006). This investigation was made possible by technical and scientific advances. Scientifically, seasonal climate forecasts were improved greatly by the understanding of ocean-atmosphere-land interactions and the identification of large-scale climate patterns as drivers of the hydro-meteorological predictability (Goddard et al., 2001; Troccoli, 2010). This was technically implementable with the increase of

25 computing resources, making it possible to run dynamical coupled ocean-atmosphere-land general circulation models on the global scale at high spatial and temporal resolutions (Doblas-Reyes et al., 2013). An additional technical challenge, the coarse spatial resolution of seasonal climate forecasts compared to the finer resolution of hydrological models, had to be addressed. To tackle this issue, many authors have explored different ways of downscaling climate variables for hydrological applications (Wood et al., 2002 and references therein).

30 While climate-model-based seasonal streamflow forecasting experiments are more common outside of Europe, for example for the United States (Wood et al., 2002; 2005; Mo and Lettenmaier, 2014), Australia (Bennett et al., 2016), Africa (Yuan et al., 2013), they remain limited in Europe, with a few examples in France (Céron et al., 2010; Singla et al., 2012; Crochemore et al., 2016), in Central Europe (Demirel et al., 2015; Meißner et al., in review), in the United Kingdom (Bell et al., 2017; Prudhomme et al., in review) and at the global scale (Yuan et al., 2015a; Candogan Yossef et al., 2017). This is because,

although the quality of seasonal climate forecasts has increased over the past decades, there remains limited skill in seasonal climate forecasts for the extra-tropics, particularly for the variables of interest for hydrology, notably precipitation and temperature (Arribas et al., 2010; Doblas-Reyes et al., 2013).

In Europe, the NAO is one of the strongest predictability sources of seasonal climate forecasts; it is associated with changes

5 in the surface westerlies over the North Atlantic and Europe, and hence with changes in temperature and precipitation patterns over Europe (Hurrell, 1995; Hurrell and Van Loon, 1997). It was shown to affect streamflow predictability, especially during winter (Dettinger and Diaz, 2000; Bierkens and van Beek, 2009; Steirou et al, 2017), additionally to the IHC and the land surface memory. It was additionally shown to be an indicator of flood damage and occurrence in parts of Europe (Guimarães Nobre et al., 2017).

10 As the quality and usefulness of seasonal streamflow forecasts increases, their usability for decision-making lags behind. Translating the quality of a forecast into an added value for decision-making and incorporating new forecasting products into established decision-making chains are not easy tasks. This has been explored for many applications of the water sector, such as navigation (Meißner et al., in review), reservoir management (Viel et al., 2016; Turner et al., in review), drought-risk management (Sheffield et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2013; Crochemore et al., 2017), irrigation (Chiew et al., 2003; Li et al., in

15 review), water resources management (Schepen et al., 2016) and hydropower (Hamlet et al., 2002); but it has not been adopted by the flood preparedness community.

The European Flood Awareness System (EFAS) is at the forefront of seasonal streamflow forecasting, with one of the first operational pan-European seasonal hydrological forecasting systems. The aim of this paper is to bridge the current gap in pan-European climate-model-based seasonal streamflow forecasting studies. Firstly, the setup of the newly operational

20 EFAS climate-based seasonal streamflow forecasting system is presented. A Europe-wide analysis of the skill of this forecasting system compared to the ESP forecasting approach is then presented, in order to identify whether there is any added value in using seasonal climate forecasts instead of historical meteorological observations for forecasting streamflow on seasonal timescales over Europe. Subsequently, the potential usefulness of the EFAS seasonal streamflow forecasts for decision-making is assessed.

2 Data and methods

2.1 EFAS hydrological simulation and seasonal hindcasts

The data used in this paper include a streamflow simulation and two seasonal streamflow hindcasts (Fig. 1).

2.1.1 Hydrological modelling and streamflow simulation

The Lisflood model was used to produce all the simulation and hindcasts used in this paper. Lisflood is a GIS-based

30 hydrological rainfall-runoff-routing distributed model written in the PCRaster Dynamic Modelling Language, which enables it to use spatially distributed maps (i.e. both static and dynamic) as input (De Roo et al., 2000; Van Der Knijff et al., 2010).

The Lisflood model was calibrated to produce pan-European parameter maps (see Zajac et al., 2013 and Smith et al., 2016 for details).

The Lisflood model is run operationally in EFAS, with the simulation domain covering Europe at a 5 x 5 km resolution. A reference simulation, called the EFAS water balance (EFAS-WB), is available on a daily time step starting from February 1990. Lisflood simulates the hydrological processes within a basin, starting from the previous day IHC (e.g. snow cover, storage in the upper and lower zones, soil moisture, initial streamflow, reservoir filling) and forced with the most recent observed meteorological fields (i.e. of precipitation, potential evapotranspiration and temperature; provided by the EFAS meteorological data collection centres). The observed meteorological fields are daily maps of spatially interpolated point measurements of precipitation (from more than 6000 stations) and temperature (from more than 4000 stations) at the surface level. These same data are used to produce interpolated potential evapotranspiration maps from the Penman–Monteith method (Alfieri et al., 2014). All meteorological variables are interpolated on a 5 x 5 km grid using an inverse distance weighting scheme and the temperature is first corrected using the elevation (Smith et al., 2016).

The EFAS-WB is the best estimate of the hydrological state at a given time and for a given grid point in EFAS and is thus used as initial conditions from which the seasonal hydrological forecasts are started.

2.1.2 Ensemble seasonal streamflow hindcasts

In this paper, two types of ensemble seasonal streamflow hindcasts are used: the Ensemble Streamflow Prediction (ESP) hindcast (hereafter referred to as ESP) and the System 4-driven seasonal streamflow hindcast [hereafter referred to as CM-SSF (climate-model-based seasonal streamflow forecast), following the notation from Yuan et al. (2015b)].

They are both initialised from the EFAS-WB, on the first day of each month, to produce a new ensemble streamflow forecast up to a lead time of seven months (215 days), with a daily time step. Both hindcasts are generated from February 1990 for the same European domain as the EFAS-WB, at the same 5 x 5 km resolution. The unique difference between the ESP and the CM-SSF is the meteorological forcing used to drive the hydrological model, described below.

The ESP is produced by driving the Lisflood model with 20 (the number of years of data available at the time the hindcast was produced) randomly resampled years of historical meteorological observations (i.e. the same as the meteorological observations used to produce the EFAS-WB). A new 20-member ESP is thus generated at the beginning of each month and for the next seven months.

The CM-SSF is produced by driving the Lisflood model with the ECMWF System 4 seasonal climate hindcast (Sys4; i.e. of precipitation, evaporation and temperature). Sys4 has a spatial horizontal resolution of about 0.7 degrees (approximately 70 km). It is re-gridded to the Lisflood spatial resolution using an inverse distance weighting scheme and the temperature is first corrected using the elevation. Sys4 is made of 15 ensemble members, extended to 51 every three months (Molteni et al., 2011). From 2011 onwards the Sys4 forecasts were run in real time and all contained 51 ensemble members. A new 15 to 51-member CM-SSF is hence produced at the beginning of each month and for the next seven months. Operationally, the

CM-SSF forecasts are currently used in EFAS to generate a seasonal streamflow outlook for Europe at the beginning of every month.

2.2 Hindcast evaluation strategy

For this study, monthly region specific discharge averages of the hindcasts (CM-SSF and ESP) and EFAS-WB were used.
5 The specific discharge is the discharge per unit area of an upstream basin. For this paper, the gridded daily specific discharge was calculated by dividing the gridded daily discharge output maps (of the hindcasts and the EFAS-WB) by the Lisflood gridded upstream area static map. Subsequently, the gridded daily specific discharge maps were used to calculate daily region averaged specific discharges (for each region in Fig. 2) by summing up the daily specific discharge values of each grid cell within a region, divided by the number of grid cells in that region. Finally, monthly specific discharge region
10 averages were calculated for each calendar month.

The regions displayed in Fig. 2 were created by merging several basins together (basins used operationally in EFAS for the shorter timescales forecasts), while respecting hydro-climatic boundaries. They were chosen for the analysis presented in this paper for two main reasons. Firstly, they are the regions used operationally to display the EFAS seasonal streamflow outlook. Secondly, they were created in order to capture large-scale variability in the weather.

15 The analysis of the hindcasts was performed on monthly specific discharge (hereafter referred to as streamflow) region averages for hindcast starting dates spanning February 1990 to November 2016 (included; approximately 27 years of data), with one to seven months of lead time. In this paper, one month of lead time refers to the first month of the forecast (e.g. the January 2017 streamflow for a forecast made on the first of January 2017). Two months of lead time is the second month of the forecast (e.g. the February 2017 streamflow for a forecast made on the first of January 2017), etc.

20 Several verification scores were selected in order to assess the hindcasts' quality. These verification scores were chosen to cover a wide range of hindcast attributes (i.e. accuracy, sharpness, reliability, overall performance and discrimination). Most of these verification scores are the same as chosen in Crochemore et al. (2016), with an additional verification score selected to look at hindcast discrimination. The EFAS-WB streamflow simulations were used as a proxy for observation against which the seasonal streamflow hindcasts were evaluated, hence excluding model errors from the analysis.

25 ### 2.2.1 Hindcast accuracy

Both hindcasts (CM-SSF and ESP) were assessed in terms of their accuracy; the magnitude of the errors between the hindcast ensemble mean and the 'truth' (i.e. the EFAS-WB). For this purpose, the mean absolute error (MAE) was calculated for each region, target month (i.e. the month that is being forecast) and lead time (i.e. one to seven months). The lower the MAE, the more accurate the hindcast.

2.2.2 Hindcast sharpness

Both hindcasts were also assessed in terms of their sharpness; an attribute of the hindcast only, which is a measure of the spread of the ensemble members of a hindcast. In this paper, the 90% interquantile range (IQR) (i.e. the difference between the 95th and the 5th percentiles of the hindcast distribution) was calculated for each region, target month and lead time. The lower the IQR, the sharper the hindcast. The sharpness should not be looked at in isolation and should be analysed together with the hindcast accuracy.

2.2.3 Hindcast reliability

Both hindcasts were additionally assessed in terms of their reliability; the statistical consistency between the hindcast probabilities and the observed frequencies. For this purpose, the probability integral transform (PIT) diagram was calculated for each region, target month and lead time (Gneiting et al., 2007). The PIT diagram is the cumulative distribution of the PIT values as a function of the PIT values. The PIT values measure where the 'truth' (i.e. EFAS-WB) falls relative to the percentiles of the hindcast distribution. For a perfectly reliable hindcast, the 'truth' should fall uniformly in each percentile of the hindcast distribution, giving a PIT diagram that falls exactly on the 1 to 1 diagonal. A hindcast that systematically under [over] estimates the 'truth' will have a PIT diagram below [above] the diagonal, outside of the ±0.1 tolerance bands from the 1 to 1 diagonal. A hindcast that is too narrow [wide] will have a horizontal [vertical] PIT diagram.

The PIT diagram presents the hindcast reliability differently from a reliability diagram, in the sense that the observed frequency is not plotted on a PIT diagram.

2.2.4 Hindcast overall performance

The hindcasts were furthermore assessed in terms of their overall performance from the continuous rank probability score (CRPS), calculated for each region, target month and lead time (Hersbach, 2000). The CRPS is a measure of the difference between the hindcast and the observed (i.e. EFAS-WB) cumulative distribution functions. The lower the CRPS, the better the overall performance of the hindcast.

In this paper, the skill of the CM-SSF is benchmarked with respect to the ESP in order to identify whether there is any added value in using Sys4 instead of historical meteorological observations for forecasting the streamflow on seasonal timescales over Europe. To this end, skill scores were calculated for the MAE, IQR and CRPS, using the following equation:

$$Skill\ score = 1 - \frac{score_{CM-SSF}}{score_{ESP}} \tag{1}$$

Skill scores were calculated for each region, target month and lead time and will be referred to as: MAESS, IQRSS and CRPSS, respectively. Skill scores larger [smaller] than zero indicate more [less] skill in the CM-SSF compared to the ESP. A skill score of zero means that the CM-SSF is as skilful as the ESP.

2.2.5 Hindcast potential usefulness

For decision-making, the ability of a seasonal forecasting system to predict the right category of an event (e.g. above or below normal conditions) months ahead is of great importance (Gobena and Gan, 2010). In this paper, the potential usefulness of the CM-SSF and the ESP to forecast lower and higher than normal streamflow conditions within their

5   hindcasts is assessed.

To do so, the relative operating characteristic (ROC) score, a measure of hindcast discrimination (Mason and Graham, 1999), was calculated. The thresholds selected to calculate the ROC are the lower and upper terciles of the EFAS-WB climatology for each season. They were calculated for the simulation period (February 1990 to May 2017), by grouping together EFAS-WB monthly streamflows for each month falling in a season (SON: September-October-November, DJF:

10   December-January-February, MAM: March-April-May and JJA: June-July-August). For each season and each region a lower and upper tercile streamflow value was obtained, subsequently used as thresholds against which to calculate the probability of detection (POD) and the false alarm rate (FAR) (with 0.1 probability bins) for both hindcasts, for each region, season and lead time. Finally, the area under the ROC curve, i.e. the ROC score, was calculated for both hindcasts, for each region, season and lead time. The ROC score ranges from 0 to 1, with a perfect score of 1. A hindcast with a ROC score ≤

15   0.5 is unskilful, i.e. less good than the long term average climatology which has a ROC of 0.5, and therefore not useful.

Because the ROC score was calculated from a low number of events [i.e. approximately 27 years × 3 months in each season × 1/3 (lower or upper tercile) = 27 simulated events], the hindcasts were judged skilful and useful when their ROC score ≥ 0.6 instead of 0.5. Moreover, the CM-SSF was categorised as more useful than the ESP when the CM-SSF's ROC score was at least 10% larger than the ESP's ROC score.

20   ## 3 Results

3.1 Overall skill of the CM-SSF

In the first part of the results, the skill of the CM-SSF (benchmarked with respect to the ESP) is presented, in terms of the accuracy (MAESS), sharpness (IQRSS), reliability (PIT diagrams) and overall performance (CRPSS) in the hindcast datasets. This will benchmark the added value of using Sys4 against the use of historical meteorological observations for

25   forecasting the streamflow on seasonal timescales over Europe.

As shown by the MAESS boxplots (Fig. 3), the CM-SSF appears on average more accurate than the ESP for the first month of lead time only, for all seasons excluding spring (MAM). Beyond one month of lead time, the CM-SSF becomes on average as or less accurate than the ESP. There are however noticeable differences between the different seasons. The CM-SSF shows the largest improvements in the average accuracy compared to the ESP in winter (DJF) and for the first month of

30   lead time. For higher lead times (i.e. two to seven months), the accuracy of the CM-SSF is on average quite similar to that of the ESP in autumn (SON) and winter, and on average lower in spring and summer (JJA). The boxplots for the autumn and

winter are smaller than for the spring and summer, which hints a smaller variability in the MAESS amongst regions and target months in autumn and winter compared to the spring and summer. The boxplots for the CRPSS look very similar to the MAESS boxplots, the main difference being the lower average scores for two to seven months of lead time in autumn and winter (Fig. 3).

5 The boxplots of the IQRSS show that the CM-SSF predictions are on average as sharp as those of the ESP for the first month of lead time (slightly sharper in autumn; Fig. 3). For two to seven months of lead time, in autumn and winter, the CM-SSF predictions are on average sharper than those of the ESP, whereas in spring and summer, the CM-SSF predictions are on average slightly less sharp than the ESP predictions. As for the MAESS, the boxplots of the IQRSS for the autumn and winter are slightly smaller than for the spring and summer, hinting a smaller variability in the IQRSS amongst regions and 10 target months in autumn and winter than in spring and summer.

Overall, the presence of the boxplots above the zero line (i.e. no skill line) for all lead times suggests that the CM-SSF is more skilful than the ESP for some regions and target months, beyond the first month of lead time.

As shown in the ESP PIT diagrams (Fig. 4), lines are concentrated around the diagonal, within the tolerance bands, for all seasons and both lead times (i.e. one and seven months; this was also observed for two to six months of lead time, not 15 shown). This signifies that the ESP is mostly reliable, with the exception of a few cases where it is under-predictive for the first month of lead time in winter and summer. This is expected, as, by design, the ESP reverts back to climatology at increasing lead times (i.e. when the effect of the IHC fades away).

The CM-SSF appears generally less reliable than the ESP, especially at longer lead times (i.e. increasing spread of lines around the diagonal; Fig. 4). The CM-SSF is on average most [least] reliable for both lead times in autumn [spring], shown 20 by the smaller [larger] spread of lines around the diagonal. For the autumn and winter, for both lead times, most lines are situated below the diagonal and outside of the tolerance bands, signifying that the CM-SSF mostly under-predicts the simulated streamflow within the hindcast period. For the winter, a few horizontal or near horizontal lines can be observed for both lead times, meaning that the CM-SSF predictions are sometimes too narrow. For the spring and summer, most lines are situated above the diagonal and outside of the tolerance bands, suggesting that the CM-SSF mostly over-predicts the 25 simulated streamflow.

3.2 Potential usefulness of the CM-SSF

In the second part of the results, the potential usefulness of the CM-SSF compared to the ESP is described, for decision-making. Here potential usefulness is defined as the ability of the forecasting systems to predict lower or higher streamflows than normal, as measured with the ROC score.

30 Generally, either of the two forecasting systems (CM-SSF or ESP) is capable to predict skilfully whether the streamflow will be anomalously low or high in the coming months (Fig. 5). However, for a few seasons and regions, none of the two forecasting systems is skilful at predicting lower and/or higher streamflows than normal. This is especially noticeable in winter.

For most seasons, the ESP is more skilful than the CM-SSF at predicting lower and higher streamflows than normal. However, in winter for most regions and during other seasons for several regions, the CM-SSF appears more skilful than the ESP. Regions where the CM-SSF best predicts lower and higher streamflows than normal at most lead times are summarised in Table 1 for all four seasons and the lower and upper terciles.

5 **4 Discussion**

4.1 Does seasonal climate information improve the predictability of seasonal streamflow forecasts over Europe?

On average over Europe and across all seasons, the CM-SSF is skilful (in terms of hindcast accuracy, sharpness and overall performance, using the ESP as a benchmark), for the first month of lead time only. This means that, on average, Sys4 improves the predictability over historical meteorological information for pan-European seasonal streamflow forecasting for

10 the first month of lead time only. At longer lead times, historical meteorological information becomes as good as or better than Sys4 for seasonal streamflow forecasting over Europe. Crochemore et al. (2016) and Meißner et al. (in review) similarly found positive skill in the seasonal streamflow forecast (Sys4 forced hydrological model compared to an ESP) for the first month of lead time, after which the skill faded away, for basins in France and Central Europe respectively.

However, the predictability varies per season and the CM-SSF predictions are on average sharper (increasingly at increasing

15 lead times) than and as accurate as the ESP predictions in autumn and winter beyond the first month of lead time. In spring and summer, the CM-SSF predictions are on average less sharp and less accurate than the ESP predictions. By design, the ESP is almost perfectly reliable for all seasons, regions and lead times, with the exception of a few cases where it is under-predictive for the first month of lead time in winter and summer, due to the IHC. Contrastingly, the CM-SSF tends to systematically under- [over-] predict the autumn and winter [spring and summer] simulated streamflow.

20 The added predictability gained from Sys4 was shown to lead to skilful CM-SSF predictions of lower and higher streamflows than normal for specific seasons and regions. The CM-SSF is more skilful at predicting anomalously low and high streamflows than the ESP in certain seasons and regions, and noticeably in winter in many parts of Europe. Several authors have discussed the higher winter predictability over (parts of) Europe, with examples in basins in France (Crochemore et al., 2016), Central Europe (Steirou et al., 2017), the UK (Bell et al., 2017) and the Iberian Peninsula

25 (Lorenzo-Lacruz et al., 2011). Bierkens and van Beek (2009) additionally showed that there was a higher winter predictability in Scandinavia, the Iberian Peninsula and around the Black Sea. Our results are mostly consistent with these findings, except for Scandinavia, where the ESP is mostly skilful in winter. Bierkens and van Beek (2009) produced the seasonal streamflow forecast analysed in their paper by forcing a hydrological model with resampled years of historical meteorological information based on their winter NAO index. However, Sys4 has difficulties in forecasting the NAO over

30 Europe (Kim et al., 2012), which could have led to these inconsistent results with the ones presented by Bierkens and van Beek (2009).

In spring, the CM-SSF is more skilful than the ESP at predicting lower and higher streamflows than normal beyond one month of lead time mostly in regions of Western Europe. This could be due to a persistence of the skill from the previous winter through the land surface memory (i.e. groundwater-driven streamflow or snowmelt-driven streamflow), as highlighted by Bierkens and van Beek (2009) for Europe, Singla et al. (2012) for parts of France, Lorenzo-Lacruz et al. (2011) for the Iberian Peninsula and Meißner et al. (in review) for the Rhine. Moreover, it could be that most of the gained predictability occurs in March, a transition month between the more predictable winter (as mentioned above) and spring, as discussed by Steirou et al. (2017).

The added predictability from Sys4 for forecasting lower and higher streamflows than normal is limited in summer and autumn for most regions. Other studies have found similar patterns for (parts of) Europe, these include; less skill in summer than in winter overall for basins in France (Crochemore et al., 2016); less skill for the low flow season (July to October) for basins in Central Europe (Meißner et al., in review); negative correlations in summer and autumn seasonal streamflow forecasts in Central Europe as the influence of the winter NAO fades away (Steirou et al., 2017); and less skill overall in summer than in winter in Europe (Bierkens and van Beek, 2009). The lower CM-SSF skill for predicting lower and higher streamflows than normal in summer could additionally be due to the convective storms in summer over Europe, which are hard to predict, and to the fact that it is the dry season in most of Europe, where rivers are groundwater fed. Therefore, in this season, the quality of the IHC controls the streamflow predictability.

While the CM-SSF is most skilful (in terms of hindcast accuracy, sharpness and overall performance, using the ESP as a benchmark) in autumn and winter and most potentially useful in winter and spring, this does not appear to correlate with high performance in the Sys4 precipitation and temperature hindcasts [as seen on the maps of correlation for Sys4 precipitation and temperature for all four seasons (SON, DJF, MAM and JJA) and with two months of lead time (as identified in this paper); available at https://meteoswiss.shinyapps.io/skill_metrics/]. Over Europe, the Sys4 precipitation and temperature hindcasts are the most skilful in summer and the least skilful in autumn and winter. Moreover, the regions of high CM-SSF skill for predicting lower and upper streamflows than normal do not clearly correspond to regions of high performance in the Sys4 precipitation and temperature hindcasts. These differences could be partially induced by the different benchmark used to evaluate the skill of the CM-SSF (i.e. the ESP) compared to the one used to look at the performance of the Sys4 precipitation and temperature hindcasts (i.e. ERA Interim). However, these results clearly indicate that looking at the performance of the Sys4 precipitation and temperature hindcasts only does not give a good indication of the skill and potential usefulness of the seasonal streamflow hindcasts over Europe [as shown by Neumann et al. (submitted to J. Hydrometeorol.) for the 2013/14 Thames River floods], and that marginal performance in seasonal climate forecasts can translate through to more predictable seasonal streamflow forecasts, and vice versa. The added predictability in the CM-SSF could be due to the combined predictability in the precipitation and temperature hindcasts, as well as a lag in the predictability from the land surface memory.

In most regions and for most seasons, at least one of the two forecasting systems (CM-SSF or ESP) is able to predict lower or higher streamflows than normal. However, in winter, the number of regions and lead times for which none of the

forecasting systems are skilful increases. This could be because in winter, many regions experience weather-driven high streamflows and the performance of Sys4 is limited at this time of year (as mentioned above). In those regions, the seasonal streamflow forecasts could be improved either by improving the IHC, through for example data assimilation, or by improving the seasonal climate forecasts.

5 Overall, the ESP appears very skilful at forecasting lower or higher streamflows than normal, showing the importance of IHC and the land surface memory for seasonal streamflow forecasting (Wood and Lettenmaier, 2008; Bierkens and van Beek, 2009; Yuan et al., 2015b).

4.2 What is the potential usefulness and usability of the EFAS seasonal streamflow forecasts for flood preparedness?

What appears like little added skill does not necessarily mean no skill for the forecast users and can in fact be a large added
10 value for decision-making (Viel et al., 2016). The ability of a seasonal streamflow forecasting system to predict the right category of an event months ahead is valuable for many applications in the water sector (e.g. navigation, reservoir management, drought-risk management, irrigation, water resources management, hydropower and flood preparedness). From the results presented in this paper, it appears that either of the two forecasting systems (CM-SSF or ESP) are capable of predicting lower or higher streamflows than normal months in advance, thanks to the predictability gained from the IHC, the
15 land surface memory and the seasonal climate hindcast in some regions and for certain seasons.

However, as highlighted by White et al. (2017), there is currently a gap between usefulness and usability of seasonal information. What is a useful scientific finding does not automatically translate into usable information which will fit into any user's decision-making chain (Soares and Dessai, 2016). While several authors have already investigated the usability of seasonal streamflow forecasts for applications such as navigation (Meißner et al., in review), reservoir management (Viel et
20 al., 2016; Turner et al., in review), drought-risk management (Sheffield et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2013; Crochemore et al., 2017), irrigation (Chiew et al., 2003; Li et al., in review), water resources management (Schepen et al., 2016) and hydropower (Hamlet et al., 2002), its application to flood preparedness is still left mostly unexplored. One exception being Neumann et al. (submitted to J. Hydrometeorol.) who look at the use of the CM-SSF to predict the 2013/14 Thames basin floods. This is partially due to the complex nature of flood generating mechanisms, still poorly studied on seasonal
25 timescales beyond snowmelt-driven spring floods, as well as the fact that seasonal forecasts reflect the likelihood of abnormal seasonal streamflow totals, but without much skilful information on the exact timing, location and the severity of the impact of individual flood events within that season. Coughlan de Perez et al. (2017) looked at the usefulness of seasonal rainfall forecasts for flood preparedness in Africa and highlighted the complexities behind using these forecasts as a proxy for floodiness [for discussion on floodiness see Stephens et al. (2015)]. Furthermore, decision-makers in the navigation,
30 reservoir management, drought-risk management, irrigation, water resources management and hydropower sectors are familiar with working on long timescales (i.e. several weeks to months ahead). In contrast, the flood preparedness community is currently mostly used to working on timescales of hours to a couple of days.

The Red Cross Red Crescent Climate Centre has recently designed a new approach that harnesses the usefulness of seasonal climate information for decision-making for disaster management. This approach, called 'Ready-Set-Go!', is made of three stages. The 'Ready' stage is based on seasonal forecasts, where they are used as monitoring information to drive contingency planning (e.g. volunteer training). The 'Set' stage is triggered by sub-seasonal forecasts, used as early-warning information

5 to alert volunteers. Finally, the 'Go!' stage is based on short-range forecasts and consists in the evacuation of people and the distribution of aid (White et al., 2017). Using a similar approach, seasonal streamflow forecasts could complement existing forecasts at shorter timescales and provide monitoring and early-warning information for flood preparedness.

Such an approach however requires the use of consistent forecasts from short to seasonal timescales. In this context, moving to seamless forecasting is becoming vital (Wetterhall and Di Giuseppe, in review).

10 Soares and Dessai (2016) also identified the accessibility to the information, enhanced by collaborations and ongoing relationships between users and producers, as a key enabler of the usability of seasonal information. International projects, such as the Horizon 2020 IMPREX (IMproving PRedictions and management of hydrological EXtremes) project (van den Hurk et al., 2016), alongside promoting scientific progress on hydrological extremes forecasting from short to seasonal timescales over Europe, gather together forecasters and decision-makers and can effectively demonstrate the added value of

15 the integration of seasonal information in decision-making chains.

4.3 Aspects for future work

In this paper, terciles of the simulated streamflow are used. However, and because the application of the EFAS seasonal streamflow forecasts is of particular relevance for flood preparedness, the evaluation of the hindcasts for lower and higher streamflow extremes (for example the 5th and the 95th percentiles respectively) would be more relevant and might give very

20 different results. This was not done in this paper as the time period covered by the seasonal streamflow hindcasts (i.e. approximately 27 years) was not long enough for statistically reliable results for lower and higher streamflow extremes. The limited hindcast length is a common problem in seasonal predictability studies. Increasing the hindcast length back in time could lead to more stable Sys4 hindcasts and hence to more stable and potentially skilful seasonal streamflow hindcasts (Shi et al., 2015).

25 Furthermore, in this paper, the hindcasts were analysed against simulated streamflow, used as a proxy for observed streamflow. This is necessary because it enables an analysis of the quality of the hindcasts over the entire computation domain, rather than at non-evenly spaced stations over the same domain (Alfieri et al., 2014). Further work could however include carrying out a similar analysis for selected river stations in Europe, in order to account for model errors.

The calculation of the verification scores (excluding the ROC) was made by randomly selecting 15 ensemble members from

30 the 51 ensemble members of the CM-SSF hindcasts, for starting dates for which the ensemble varies between 15 and 51 members (i.e. hindcasts made on the 1st of January, March, April, June, July, September, October and December; this is due to the split between 15 and 51 ensemble members in the Sys4 hindcasts, as described in Sect. 2.1.2 of this paper). In order to investigate the potential impact of this evaluation strategy on the results presented in this paper, the CRPSS was calculated

for 15 and 51 ensemble members of the CM-SSF hindcasts for starting dates for which 51 ensemble members are available for the full hindcast period (i.e. hindcasts made on the 1st of February, May, August and November). This is displayed in Fig. 6 for all hindcast starting dates, lead times (i.e. one to seven months) and regions combined. Overall, it is apparent that the impact of this evaluation strategy on the results presented in this paper should be minimal, as all points align themselves approximately with the 1 to 1 diagonal.

The next version of the ECMWF seasonal climate forecast, SEAS5, is due to be released in November 2017. Future work could include forcing the Lisflood model with SEAS5 and comparing the obtained seasonal streamflow hindcasts to the CM-SSF presented in this paper. This should indicate whether developments to the seasonal climate forecast translate through to better pan-European seasonal streamflow forecasts, which is of particular interest for regions and seasons when neither the ESP nor the CM-SSF are currently skilful.

This paper assesses the added predictability from using seasonal climate forecasts, additionally to the IHC. Additional work to further disentangle and quantify the contribution of both predictability sources (seasonal climate forecasts versus IHC) to seasonal streamflow forecasting quality over Europe could be carried out by using the EPB (end point blending) method (Arnal et al., 2017).

5 Conclusions

In this paper, the newly operational EFAS seasonal streamflow forecasting system [producing the CM-SSF forecasts by forcing the Lisflood model with the ECMWF System 4 seasonal climate forecasts (Sys4)] was presented and benchmarked (in terms of hindcast accuracy, sharpness, reliability and overall performance) against the ESP forecasting approach (ESP produced by forcing the Lisflood model with historical meteorological observations) for the hindcast period 1990 to 2017. On average, Sys4 improves the predictability over historical meteorological information for pan-European seasonal streamflow forecasting for the first month of lead time only. However, the predictability varies per season and the CM-SSF is more skilful on average at predicting autumn and winter streamflows than spring and summer streamflows. Additionally, parts of Europe exhibit a longer predictability, up to seven months of lead time, for certain months within a season.

Subsequently, the potential usefulness of the two forecasting systems (CM-SSF and ESP) was assessed by analysing their skill in predicting lower and higher streamflows than normal. Overall, at least one of the two forecasting systems is capable of predicting those events months in advance. The ESP appears the most skilful on average, showing the importance of IHC and the land surface memory for seasonal streamflow forecasting. Nevertheless, for certain regions and seasons the CM-SSF is the most skilful at predicting anomalously low or high streamflows, noticeably in winter, beyond one month of lead time.

Patterns in skill in the CM-SSF are not mirrored in the Sys4 precipitation and temperature hindcasts. This hints that using seasonal climate forecast performance as a proxy for seasonal streamflow forecasting skill is not adequate and that more work is needed to understand the link between meteorological and hydrological variables on seasonal timescales over Europe.

Acknowledgments and data availability

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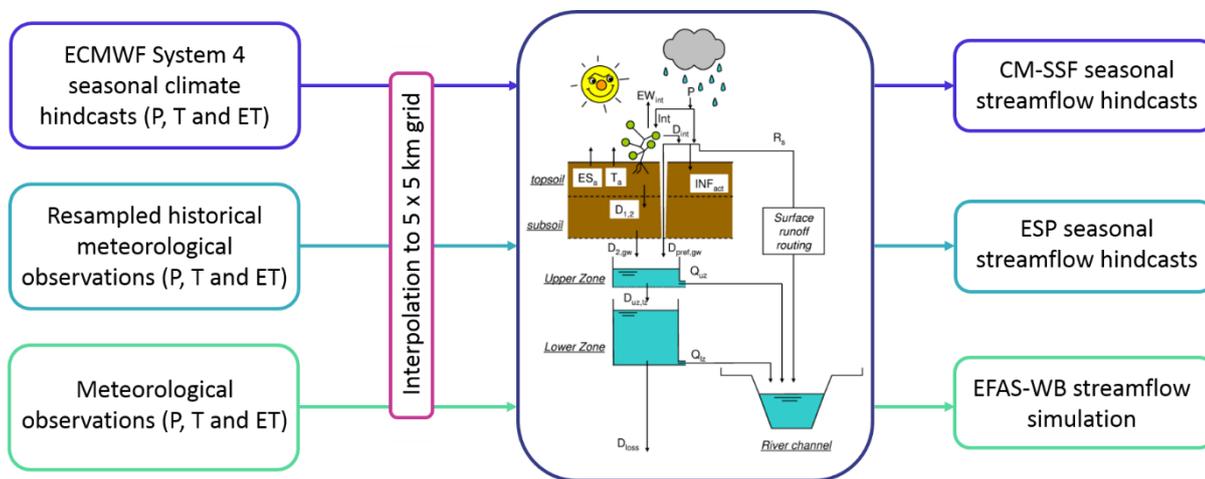
Figure 1: Schematic of the EFAS-WB streamflow simulation and of the CM-SSF and ESP seasonal streamflow hindcasts generation.

Figure 2: Map of the 74 European regions (dark blue outlines) selected for the analysis of the CM-SSF and the ESP.
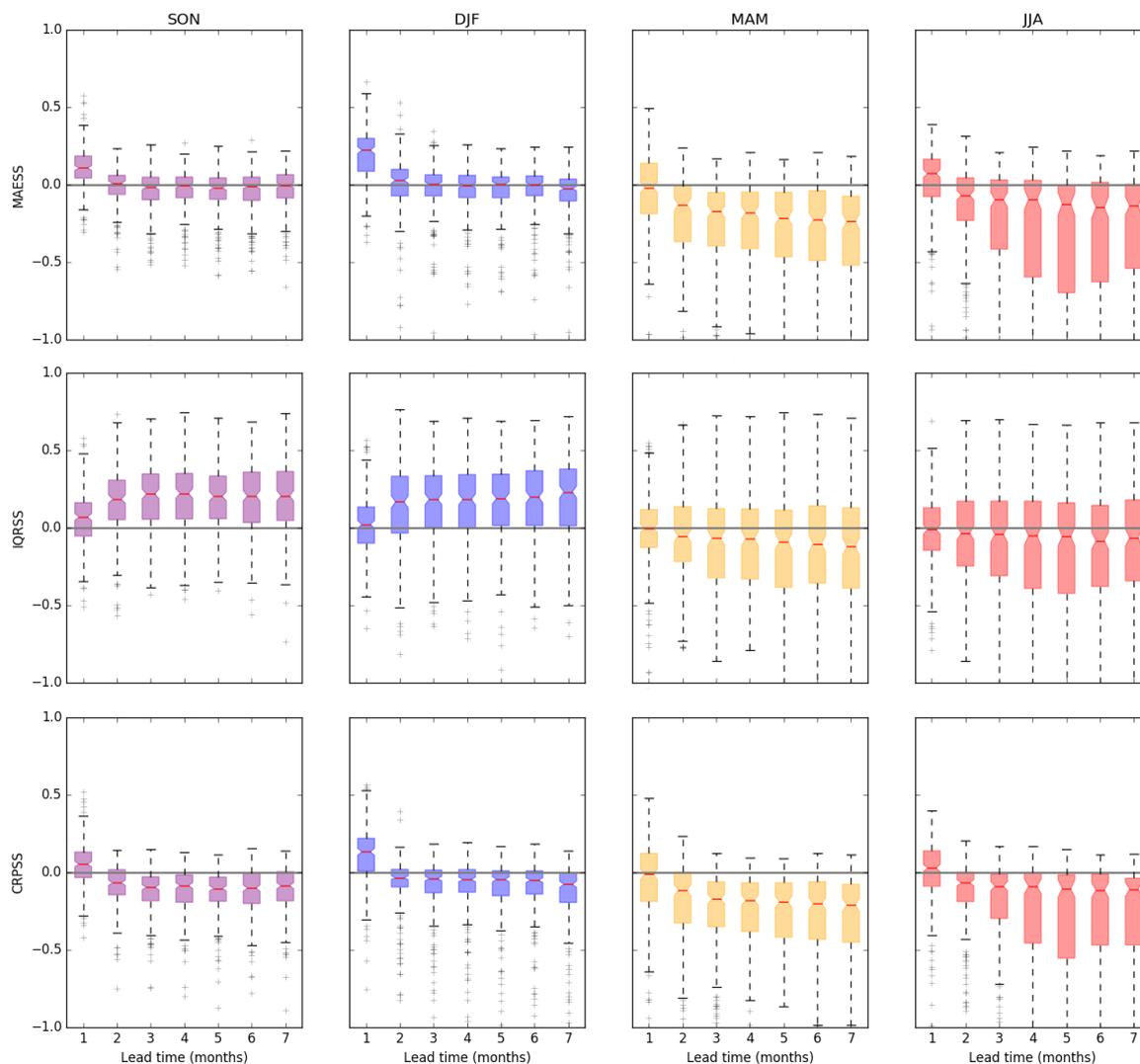
Figure 3: Boxplots of the MAESS (top row), IQRSS (middle row) and CRPSS (bottom row) for all four seasons (SON, DJF, MAM and JJA from the left-most to the right-most column) as a function of lead time (i.e. one to seven months). The boxplots contain the scores for all target months falling in a given season and all 74 regions. For all scores, values larger [smaller] than zero indicate that the CM-SSF is more [less] skilful than the ESP (benchmark). Where the skill is zero, the CM-SSF is as skilful as the ESP for the hindcast period.
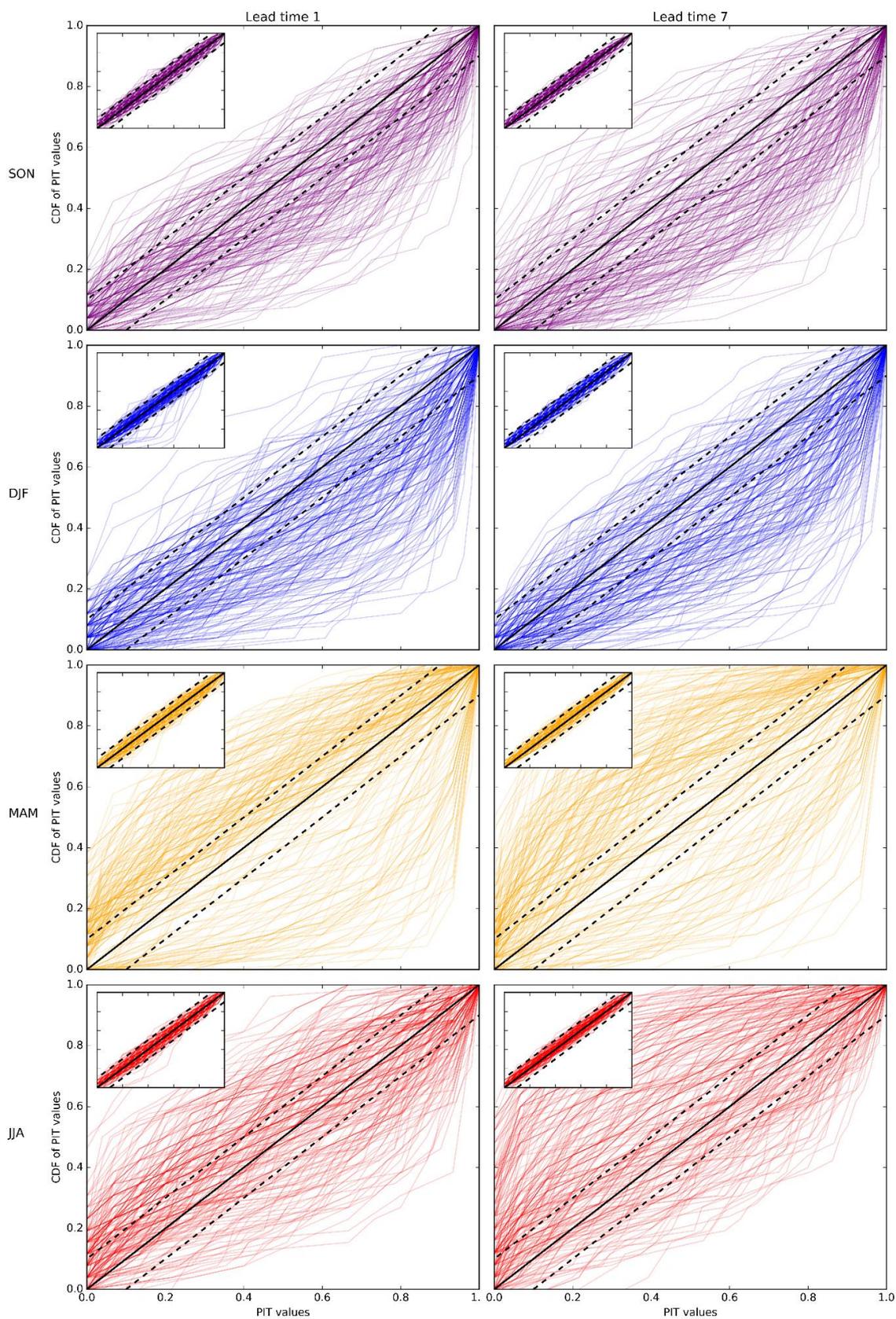
Figure 4: PIT diagrams for the CM-SSF (main plots) and the ESP (inplots) for all four seasons (SON, DJF, MAM and JJA from the top to the bottom row) and for one and seven months of lead time (left and right columns, respectively). These lead times were selected for display to highlight the evolution of reliability between the first and last month of the hindcast. The lines in the plots correspond to all the target months falling in a season and all 74 regions. The dotted diagonal lines are the ±0.1 tolerance bands from the 1 to 1 diagonal. Lines above [below] the diagonal and outside of the tolerance bands signify an over-prediction [under-prediction] of the simulated streamflow by the hindcast.

Table 1: Regions where the CM-SSF is more skilful than the ESP at predicting anomalously low (lower tercile; first column) or high (upper tercile; second column) streamflows for all four seasons (SON, DJF, MAM and JJA from the top to the bottom row). This is a summary of the information displayed in Fig. 5.

	Lower tercile	**Upper tercile**
SON	- Few regions in Fennoscandia - Po River basin (northern Italy) - Elbe River basin (south of Denmark) - Upstream of the Rhine River basin - Upstream of the Danube River basin - Duero River basin (Iberian Peninsula)	- Few regions in Fennoscandia - Iceland - Parts of the Danube River basin - Segura River basin (Iberian Peninsula)
DJF	Many regions except: - in most of Fennoscandia North of the Baltic Sea, - parts of Central Europe.	Same as lower tercile.
MAM	- Few regions on the Iberian Peninsula - Few regions in the western part of Central Europe	Same as lower tercile.
JJA	- Few regions in the United Kingdom (UK) - Ireland - North-western edge of the Iberian Peninsula - Regions in Fennoscandia around the Baltic Sea - Regions south of the North Sea	- Northern part of the UK - Ireland - North-western edge of the Iberian Peninsula - Regions in Fennoscandia around the Baltic Sea - Around the Elbe River basin - Upstream of the Danube River basin - Along the Adriatic Sea in Italy
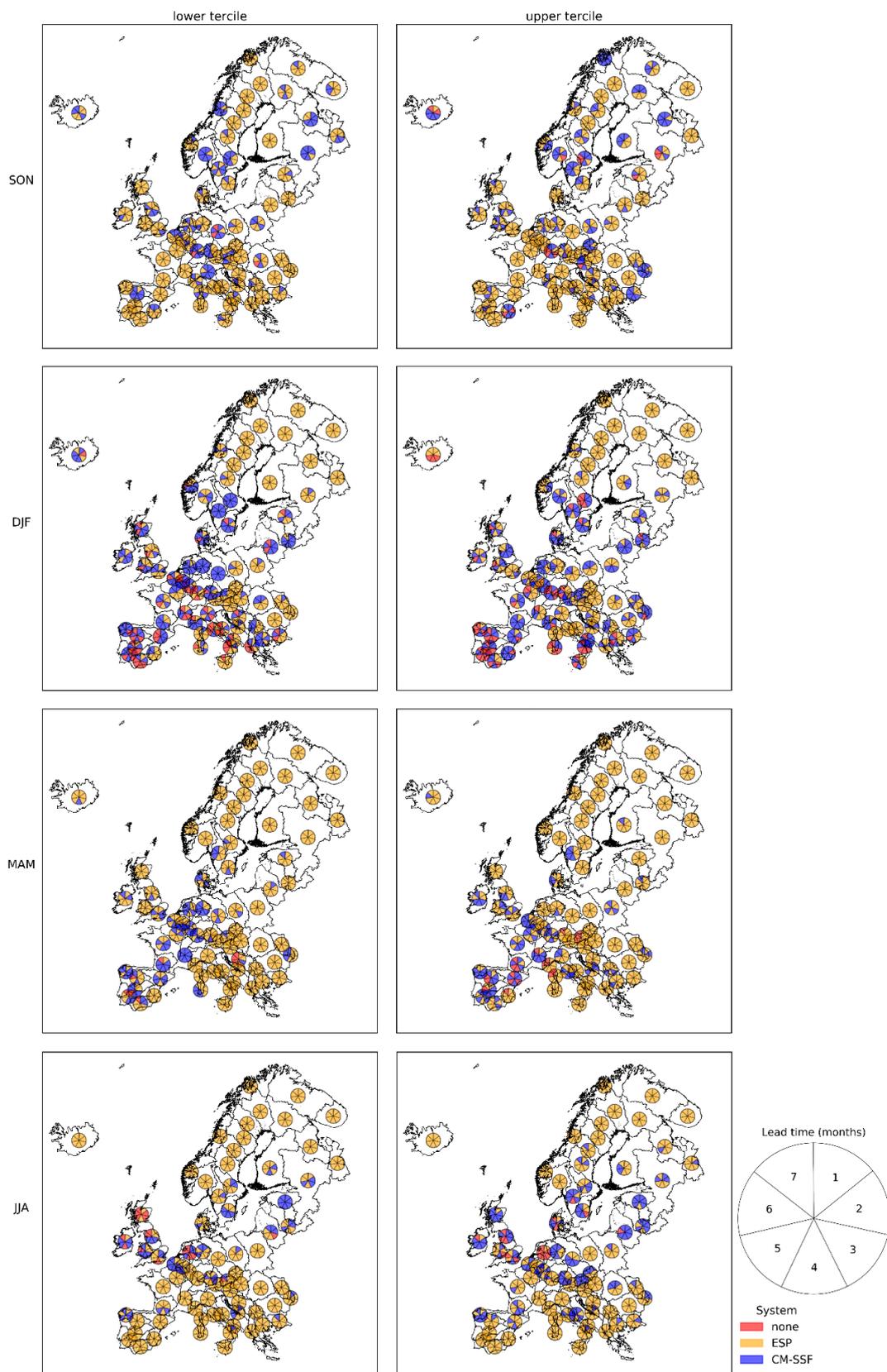
Figure 5: Maps of the best system (as measured with the ROC score) for all four seasons (SON, DJF, MAM and JJA from the top to the bottom row) and the lower and upper simulated streamflow seasonal terciles (left-most and right-most columns respectively) in each region. The pie charts display the best system for each lead time (one to seven months), as shown on the example pie chart on the bottom right of this figure. There are three possible cases: 1) neither the ESP nor the CM-SSF is skilful (red colours), 2) the ESP is skilful and better than the CM-SSF (yellow colours), and 3) the CM-SSF is skilful and better than the ESP (blue colours).
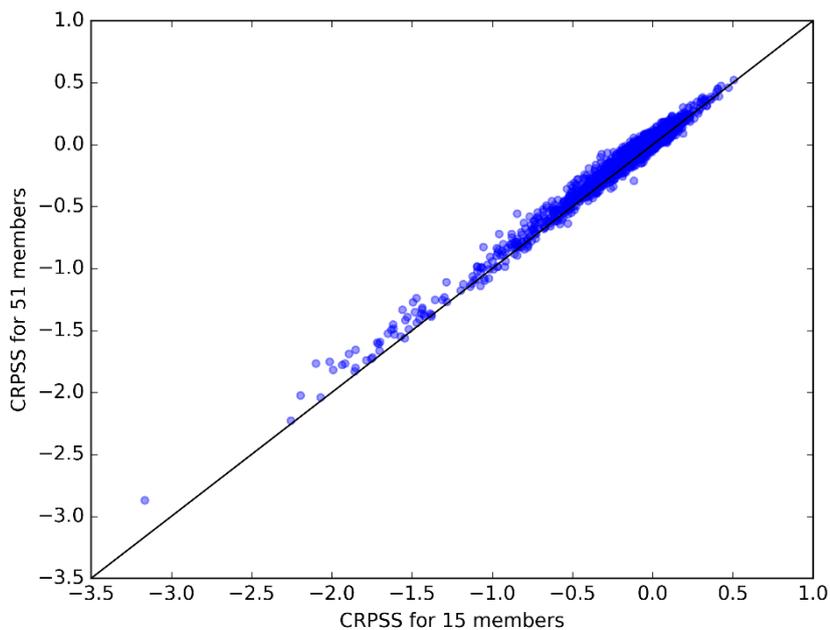
Figure 6: CRPSS calculated for the CM-SSF against the ESP (benchmark) for hindcasts made on the 1st of February, May, August and November, all lead times (one to seven months) and all 74 regions. The x-axis [y-axis] contains the CRPSS calculated from 15 [all 51] ensemble members of the CM-SSF.