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A model–data intercomparison of simulated runoff in the contiguous United States: results from the North America Carbon Regional and Continental Interim-Synthesis

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Abstract

Significant changes in the water cycle are expected under current global environmental change. Robust assessment of these changes at global scales is confounded by shortcomings in the observed record. Modeled assessments yield conflicting results which are linked to differences in model structure and simulation protocol. Here we compare simulated runoff from six terrestrial biosphere models (TBMs), five reanalysis products, and one gridded surface station product with observations from a network of stream gauges in the contiguous United States (CONUS) from 2001 to 2005. We evaluate the consistency of simulated runoff with stream gauge data at the CONUS and water resource region scale, as well as examining similarity across TBMs and reanalysis products at the grid cell scale. Mean runoff across all simulated products and regions varies widely (range: 71–356 mm yr⁻¹) relative to observed continental-scale runoff (209 mm yr⁻¹). Across all 12 products only two are within 10% of the observed value and only four exhibit Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency values in excess of 0.8. Region-level mismatch exhibits a weak pattern of overestimation in western and underestimation in eastern regions; although two products are systematically biased across all regions. In contrast, bias in a temporal sense, within region by water year, is highly consistent. Although gridded composite TBM and reanalysis runoff show some regional similarities for 2001–2005 with CONUS means, individual product values are highly variable. To further constrain simulated runoff and to link model-observation mismatch to model structural characteristics would require watershed-level simulation studies coupled with river routing schemes, standardized forcing data, and explicit consideration of water cycle management.

1 Introduction

Water balance calculations are becoming increasingly important for Earth system studies and link directly to the amount of reusable water available for wildland and managed environments, as well as human society. Both a general intensification of the

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hydrological cycle (Schwalm et al., 2011) and, more specifically, an increase in runoff are expected under climate change (Gerten et al., 2008). While attempts have been made to observationally constrain continental to global runoff trends (e.g., using long-term stream gauge data), observed trends remain unclear (Alkama et al., 2011; Dai et al., 2009; Gerten et al., 2008; Milliman et al., 2008; Walling and Fang, 2003). This ambiguity is linked to spatiotemporal gaps in the observed record (e.g., most long-term records (< 50 yr) are from northern European or North American rivers), and the overall heterogeneity of discharge measurements.

A standard approach to address inconsistent observational records is the use of modeling frameworks. However, modeled trends in runoff at global scales are highly variable with both increases (Gedney et al., 2006) and decreases (Shi et al., 2011) in runoff, as well as no significant trend (Alkama et al., 2011), reported. A key source of this ambiguity is the diversity in how models simulate runoff in relation to global environmental change, including changes in precipitation, temperature, net radiation, land cover/use, nitrogen deposition, fire regime, atmospheric concentrations of greenhouse gases, and irrigation (Caldwell et al., 2012; Gerten et al., 2008; Neilson, 1995; Sun et al., 2011). Forcing data also plays a significant role in simulated runoff magnitude with the choice of precipitation dataset alone altering simulated region-scale runoff estimates of up to 30 % (Biemans et al., 2009). Furthermore, uncertainty in precipitation fields (inter-product spread) may propagate to a similar or greater magnitude of uncertainty in runoff estimates (Fekete et al., 2004).

To resolve the ambiguity in modeled runoff trends such frameworks need to be validated against observational records. The objective of this study is, within the context of the North American Carbon Program (NACP¹), to evaluate a suite of modeled runoff estimates in a region with a dense network of stream gauges, the water resource regions of the contiguous United States (CONUS). The evaluation of terrestrial biosphere models (TBMs) has been a central part of the NACP Interim-Synthesis activities. Investigations of model skill have focused on interannual variability (Keenan

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et al., 2012); seasonality, plant functional type and model structure (Huntzinger et al., 2012; Schaefer et al., 2012; Schwalm et al., 2010); phenology (Richardson et al., 2012); time and frequency patterns of model mismatch (Stoy et al., 2013) and spectral characteristics of model errors (Dietze et al., 2011). One outcome of both the site (Schwalm et al., 2010) and regional (Huntzinger et al., 2012) NACP Interim-Syntheses has been the identification of the need for more integrated land-hydrosphere modeling and research.

In this study we address the need to bridge terrestrial and ocean/coastal research endeavors with regional hydrologic modeling. Here we evaluate simulated runoff from TBMs by intercomparing estimates of discharge from TBMs, reanalyses, and surface weather stations to observations at United States Geologic Survey (USGS) stream gauge stations. Given the lack of a general framework for integration of land-water carbon dynamics into models, this is a critical first step for linking terrestrial carbon/hydrology models with river, estuary, and ocean data and models.

2 Data and methods

We compare observed runoff from stream gauges to modeled runoff from six TBMs, five reanalysis products, and one gridded product based on surface station meteorology. Observed runoff is based on ca. 7400 continuously monitored stream gauges maintained by the USGS². This network of stream gauges is divided by hydrologic unit codes (HUC³) using a standardized six-level nested hierarchy that, nationally for the United States, varies from 21 water resource regions (WRR) at level one to ca. 160 000 subwatersheds at level six⁴. For this study the 18 WRRs in the CONUS domain (Fig. 1) and total CONUS runoff are used as bases of comparison with USGS stream gauge data.

²<http://waterwatch.usgs.gov>

³<http://water.usgs.gov/GIS/huc.html>

⁴<ftp://ftp-fc.sc.egov.usda.gov/NCGC/products/watershed/hu-standards.pdf>

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The gridded (1° spatial resolution; 10–84° N, 50–170° W) TBM runoff values (Table 1) are taken from NACP Regional and Continental Interim-Synthesis (RCIS; Huntzinger et al., 2012), as well as an additional TBM, WaSSI, which simulated the same spatiotemporal domain as the RCIS but, not gridded, at the watershed level. The TBM simulations, an ensemble of opportunity, are comprised of model output generated from ongoing NACP and related studies, and therefore were not generated with a standardized protocol across runs or models. While this precludes an assessment of structural uncertainty, it better mimics current practice as each model run represents the “best estimate” of runoff for each respective model.

In addition to the TBMs, we also evaluate runoff derived from reanalysis products (Table 1). Focusing on the CONUS domain, we use runoff (calculated as the sum of the non-infiltrating surface runoff and subsurface baseflow fields) from the National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) North American Regional Reanalysis product (NARR; Mesinger et al., 2006); a reanalysis explicitly designed to create a long-term set of consistent climate data on a regional scale for the North American domain. In addition to analyzing native NARR runoff we also calculate runoff as NARR precipitation minus NARR evapotranspiration (hereafter NARR [$P - E$]) and as scaled NARR precipitation minus NARR evapotranspiration (hereafter NARR [GPCP]). In the latter case NARR precipitation is rescaled using Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP v2.1) data (Huffman et al., 2009). The rescaling strategy is to maintain the spatial and temporal pattern of NARR precipitation but adjust the total precipitation amount to match observed GPCP total precipitation. We complement these three NARR-based estimates with the NASA Modern Era Reanalysis for Research and Applications product (MERRA; Rienecker et al., 2011) and MERRA LAND (Reichle et al., 2011), an off-line land-only replay of the MERRA land model with precipitation forced using native MERRA precipitation merged with the NOAA Climate Prediction Center gauge-based data product (Xie and Arkin, 1996) and using the Fortuna-2.5 version of the catchment land surface model as opposed to the native MERRA

version⁵. For both MERRA variants, runoff is given by the sum of the runoff and baseflow variables. Complementing the base NARR with two NARR-variants as well as MERRA and MERRA LAND extends the suite of reanalyses (all 1° spatial resolution) to the third generation and allows consistency across multiple reanalyses to be quantified.

We also use an estimate of runoff derived from monthly water-budget fields (Table 1) calculated by the Center for Climatic Research, Department of Geography at the University of Delaware⁶. This estimate (hereafter UDel) is based on gridded surface station records of temperature and precipitation. Both are first interpolated in space using Shepard's method and in time using climatologically aided interpolation (Willmott and Robeson, 1995). These interpolated estimates are then used as inputs in a modified Thornthwaite water-budget equation, assuming a soil water holding capacity of 150 mm, to estimate evapotranspiration (Willmott et al., 1985). Evapotranspiration is subtracted from precipitation to estimate runoff (1° spatial resolution). Of all modeled products UDel is the most empirical and is based on readily available data. Its inclusion here allows us to evaluate the trade-off between consistency and ease of initialization relative to more computationally expensive TBMs and reanalysis products.

Before analysis, runoff is aggregated to annual values on a water year basis (October–September) from 2001 to 2005. We chose annual values as none of the TBM runs evaluated here used river routing schemes. Such a scheme tracks the lateral movement of water at finer (sub-yearly) time steps from grid cell to grid cell while accounting for gradients in geomorphology and, where applicable, water cycle management. The absence of river routing precludes an analysis of smaller catchments and sub-yearly timescales as the TBM runs evaluated here effectively discharge all runoff into the ocean immediately.

After integration in time, runoff is spatially aggregated. For the comparison using WRRs modeled runoff is aggregated to the relevant region (Fig. 1); for the

⁵<http://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/research/merra/merra-land.php>

⁶<http://climate.geog.udel.edu/~climate>

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CONUS-wide analysis, aggregation is across all WRRs. In addition to comparing observed and modeled runoff, we also compare TBMs (except WaSSI) and reanalysis products (including UDel) to each other at the 1° grid cell scale. We quantify model skill using bias and Nash–Sutcliffe efficiencies (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970); the latter metric ranges from negative infinity to unity where unity indicates perfect model–data agreement.

3 Results

The reanalysis and UDel runoff values are in poor agreement with observed continental-scale runoff (Fig. 2). Relative to the average CONUS stream gauge runoff of 209 mm yr⁻¹, mean modeled runoff from 2001 to 2005 is 166 and 298 mm yr⁻¹ for the reanalyses and UDel respectively. In a relative sense, the reanalysis products underestimate CONUS runoff by ca. 25% while the annual runoff derived from the UDel product is almost 1.5 times greater than observed. In contrast, the mean value across all six TBMs is within 25% (261 mm yr⁻¹) of average stream gauge runoff. The mean and median values across all 12 modeled runoff estimates (224 and 236 mm yr⁻¹ respectively) are, typical of ensemble estimates in general, more consistent with observations than individual products except DLEM, MC1, and NARR [$P-E$] (Fig. 2). In addition to being less consistent with observations, the variability (standard deviation: 94 mm yr⁻¹) of reanalysis estimates is also ca. 1.75 times greater than for TBMs (54 mm yr⁻¹).

Normalizing runoff by precipitation does decrease interannual variability for all estimated products except SiB3.1 (Fig. 2). However, the general pattern of overestimation vs. underestimation remains largely unchanged (Fig. 2); only SiB3.1 and WaSSI show changes in consistency. This result is however subjective as, unlike all modeled products, there is no natural precipitation analogue to pair with USGS stream gauge data. Here we use an independent precipitation dataset, one not used in conjunction with any estimated runoff values; the Global Precipitation Climatology

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Centre Full Data Reanalysis (GPCC⁷; Schneider et al., 2011) of monthly global land surface precipitation. Given the small changes in consistency and the ambiguity inherent in choosing the matching precipitation product for USGS data when calculating runoff/precipitation ratios, we limit our discussion of mismatch to runoff only.

The region level mismatch between stream gauge and modeled runoff suggests a weak geographic divide; WRRs east of and including the Mississippi river are generally underestimated whereas western WRRs are overpredicted (Fig. 3). However, SLand systematically overpredicts all regions. The remaining TBMs also show a tendency toward positive biases, especially in the Rio Grande and Lower Colorado WRRs where SiB3.1 overestimates both by a factor of ca. 7 (Fig. 3). Among the reanalysis and UDel products, MERRA underestimates runoff in every WRR while UDel overestimates all but two (New England and Mid-Atlantic). Furthermore, there is no relationship between mismatch and WRR size (not shown).

The weak east-west pattern suggests that water cycle management may degrade consistency with USGS stream gauge observations (sensu Caldwell et al., 2012). Ideally, estimates of naturalized flow (Kim and Wurbs, 2011) would augment USGS depleted flows as a comparator. However, these estimates are model-based and not available for the WRRs and analysis period considered here. As such, we investigate this possible dependency using an index of water cycle management intensity based on 2005 gross withdrawals (taken from Caldwell et al., 2012) normalized by mean annual USGS stream gauge runoff from 2001 to 2005. Using this index we find that there is no coherent relationship between water cycle management and mismatch. Only the reanalysis products and SLand exhibit a dependency between mismatch and the index of management intensity (Fig. 4). Despite significant relative biases by WRR (Fig. 3) and the use of depleted USGS runoff, four of the six TBMs (none of which consider water cycle management in the runs evaluated here) exceed the customary

⁷ftp://ftp.dwd.de/pub/data/gpcc/html/fulldata_v6_doi_download.html

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NSE threshold for “good” model–data agreement (≥ 0.8): DLEM, LPJ-wsl, SiB3.1, and WaSSI (Fig. 4).

Mapping region-level 5 yr averages to individual water years shows that over- or underestimation relative to stream gauge runoff is generally consistent in time. For the six representative regions shown (Fig. 5) there is no obvious pattern when an overestimate changes to an underestimate or vice versa. More generally, across 216 combinations (18 WRRs \times 12 data products), 152 (70 %) exhibit exclusively under- (60) or overpredicted (92) stream gauge runoff over the 2001 to 2005 analysis period. The New England, South Atlantic-Gulf, Ohio, Tennessee, and Upper Mississippi regions have the lowest consistency with 7 of 12 products. In contrast, the Missouri region shows the highest degree of consistency, 11 of 12 products.

While mean gridded runoff from TBMs and reanalysis products (including UDel) are within 4 mm month^{-1} or ca. 20 % (22 and 18 mm month^{-1} for TBMs and reanalysis respectively), these composite values mask highly variable individual product estimates of runoff and spatial gradients in grid cell level differences (Fig. 5). Across the Great Plains and western CONUS both TBMs and reanalysis products show similar means. However, six eastern WRRs (Lower Mississippi, Ohio, Tennessee, South Atlantic-Gulf, Mid-Atlantic, and New England) and the lower Great Lakes regions are not in agreement, with TBMs simulating more runoff than reanalysis products and UDel. The spread in reanalysis runoff (coefficient of variation) averages 66 % in space with the highest values in the Southwest (Fig. 5). TBMs also exhibit a large degree of spread (mean coefficient of variation: 53 %) with the largest variability in pockets across the Mountain West.

4 Discussion

This study provides an evaluation of continental, WRR, and grid cell-scale surface annual runoff in the CONUS domain from 2001 to 2005. Temporally, overestimations and underestimations are very stable over the five water years examined (2001–2005); individual data products are either systematically biased high or low through time.

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At the region-scale, the 12 data products are consistent in their lack of agreement with stream gauge values. There is neither a coherent spatial pattern across WRRs, nor a region where all products exhibit a uniformly high (or low) level of consistency with stream gauge data. General agreement is seen only at the grid cell level in composite means (averages across all TBMs or reanalysis products) west of the Mississippi, but individual products are highly variable. Given the homogeneity of model–data consistency in time but substantial inter-product spread across all 12 modeled runoff estimates, we use mean CONUS-wide stream gauge runoff to place modeled estimates into three generic tiers based on model skill.

The first tier products consist of solely TBMs: DLEM, LPJ-wsl, MC1, SiB3.1, and WaSSI. The two products closest (within 10%) to CONUS-wide stream gauge runoff (DLEM and MC1) are both TBMs. Furthermore, of the six products with the smallest CONUS-wide bias five are TBMs. Here caution is warranted as TBM predictions, while on average closer to observations than reanalysis products, still show significant bias (mean bias of 52 mm yr^{-1}) and vary widely (range: $200\text{--}356 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$). Despite this, the only products exhibiting “good” consistency ($\text{NSE} \geq 0.8$) with USGS observations are all first-tier TBMs (DLEM, LPJ-wsl, SiB3.1, WaSSI). This “good” consistency is counterintuitive as significant water cycle management occurs across the CONUS which is reflected in depleted USGS flows but is absent from the TBM runs evaluated. The case of SiB3.1 is instructive as this TBM, in line with others in this tier, exhibits high NSE and small bias with the exception of the Rio Grande and Lower Colorado River WRRs which are extensively managed and where SiB3.1 predictions are biased high by a factor of 7.

Given that water cycle management reduces discharge through inter alia human-induced evapotranspiration, runoff lost to fill surface reservoirs water, or interbasin transfer, a positive bias is expected when models do not include human management of the water cycle. However, this systematic offset does not translate into larger biases and/or lower NSE values for most TBMs evaluated here. This, in turn, suggests either a deficiency in the index of water cycle management, that human activities increasing

runoff are significant, or a combination of both. As an example of anthropogenic runoff increase, ground water mining can act to increase runoff if the mined water is discharged into surface water and the aquifer source is not connected to surface water (Caldwell et al., 2012).

5 The second tier of model skill is occupied by those estimates based on precipitation minus evapotranspiration: UDeI, NARR [$P - E$], and NARR [GPCP]. As these also exhibit positive biases, the same caveats concerning water cycle management apply. For example, the largest positive biases for this tier are in the Rio Grande and Lower Colorado regions, similar to the first tier of products. These WRRs are both heavily
10 managed and, typical of the Southwest in general, highly sensitive to withdrawals (Caldwell et al., 2012). Despite this clear bias, precipitation minus evapotranspiration estimates offer reasonable skill levels (e.g., NSE range: 0.58–0.76). Compared to TBMs, which require substantial infrastructure to implement and run, precipitation minus evapotranspiration is trivial to estimate using readily accessible data products
15 suggesting utility in large-scale diagnostic runoff studies.

The lowest tier consisting of pure reanalysis (MERRA, MERRA LAND, and NARR) and SLand exhibits little to no skill; with the three reanalysis products biased low. Furthermore, there is no tendency for reanalysis products to better replicate stream gauge observations. This finding is unexpected because runoff is based on the
20 formal assimilation of millions of observations (but not runoff for NARR or either MERRA variant). The underestimation by NARR has been previously documented using both CONUS River Forecast Center regions (Sheffield et al., 2012) and the Mississippi River basin (Kumar and Merwade, 2011). In contrast, both MERRA variants have shown higher model skill relative to USGS data (Reichle et al., 2011) than in
25 this study. Methodological differences in evaluating MERRA and MERRA LAND skill (scale mismatch of watersheds, naturalized vs. depleted flow as comparator, different score metrics, different temporal extent and granularity) preclude reconciliation of these findings although both studies show MERRA LAND outperforming MERRA. Notwithstanding the dependency of skill for all products in only this tier on the index

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of water cycle management (Fig. 4), explicitly incorporating water cycle management would likely act to increase the magnitude of underestimation for the reanalysis products. Resolving the systematic bias in the reanalysis estimates shown here will require further investigation of, especially for NARR, the known high bias in evapotranspiration (Sheffield et al., 2012) and point-based validation runs of the land surface schemes embedded in the reanalysis (Kumar and Merwade, 2011), ideally with an unambiguous ground truth.

5 Conclusions

The TBMs are, in general, able to reproduce observed trends in CONUS-wide runoff over the 2001–2005 analysis period. However, several products exhibit profound biases and spatial heterogeneity in model skill. Diagnosing mismatch between stream gauge runoff and any given data product is confounded by the coarse scale of TBM and reanalysis products used here as well as the off-the-shelf nature of the TBM runs. Runoff is fundamentally a process that occurs on the catchment scale and multiple catchments within a large WRR may act in a compensatory manner that is not resolvable at a 1° spatial resolution or regional scale. Similarly, mismatch may also be influenced by the choice of forcing data used in a particular TBM. As such it is difficult to attribute differences between simulated and observed values solely to intrinsic characteristics of the models themselves.

A further complication is the tendency of several products, especially the TBMs, to exhibit “good” consistency despite not including water cycle management, i.e., the “right answers for the wrong reasons” (Kirchner, 2006). This can be related to model formation, e.g., bulk parameters compensating for a lack of physically-based equations at relevant scales (Kirchner, 2006), or overall complexity in large heterogeneous systems at coarser scales as studied here (McDonnell et al., 2007). In general, efforts to reduce mismatch between modeled estimates and observed stream gauge runoff require validation at finer scales, the use of standardized forcing data (especially for TBMs; Wei et al., 2013), the explicit incorporation of water cycle management,

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higher quality data on water withdrawals (Caldwell et al., 2012), and river routing schemes. Large-resource model-intercomparison projects that use a constrained protocol (Huntzinger et al., 2013) hold great promise in furthering our understanding of runoff dynamics at multiple scales.

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Table 1. Summary of runoff algorithms for modeled products.

Model	Algorithm	Forcing data	Citation
DLEM	Runoff curve number method; function of effective precipitation (precipitation minus interception, plus snow melt), potential maximum soil moisture retention after runoff, and antecedent water in the soil column. Soil water in excess of saturation in the first soil layers becomes runoff.	NARR	Liu et al. (2012); Tian et al. (2010)
LPJ-wsl	Sum of surface runoff from the top soil layer, subsurface runoff from the lower soil layer, and water percolating down through the lower soil layer. The surface and subsurface runoff are defined as the excess water above field capacity of the top and lower soil layers.	CRU-TS 3.0 ^a	Gerten et al. (2004)
MC1	Sum of surface runoff, macropore (rapid through-flow via roots, cracks, etc.) flow, rapid through-flow and baseflow. Baseflow is a fraction of precipitation as modified by losses to transpiration or direct percolation by soil layer. Losses to transpiration are driven by a simplified version of Penmon–Montieth and transpiration by soil moisture factor for each plant functional type.	PRISM ^b	Bachelet et al. (2001)
SiB3.1	Precipitation (scaled to GPCP) minus evapotranspiration SiB3.1 natively calculates runoff using a defined allowable surface interception storage (puddle) depth, which accumulates as precipitation strikes the ground directly or runs off from the canopy. There is a maximum allowable puddle depth; any water accumulating above this is transferred to runoff, and is immediately in the ocean. As native runoff is unphysical ($\rightarrow 0$) scaled precipitation minus evapotranspiration is used instead.	NCEP II ^c (precipitation scaled to GPCP ^d)	Baker et al. (2010)
SLand	Sum of surface and subsurface runoff. Surface runoff is precipitation minus interception loss scaled by a non-linear function of relative soil wetness. Subsurface runoff is a nonlinear function of relative soil wetness and subsurface runoff at saturation. SLand is the land surface model component of the dynamic vegetation/carbon model VEGAS as used in the NACP RCIS.	PREC/L ^e	Zeng et al. (2000)
WaSSI	Runoff is the sum of overland lateral flow, subsurface, and groundwater flow by an empirical method.	PRISM ^b	Sun et al. (2011)
NARR	Sum of surface and subsurface runoff. Surface runoff is a function of infiltration capacity and excess precipitation (non-evaporated inflow in excess of storage capacity by layer). Subsurface runoff is a linear function of subsurface moisture content above a minimum threshold. Water budget does not close due to assimilation of precipitation and snow.	–	Mesinger et al. (2006); Schaake et al. (1996)
NARR [GPCP]	Scaled NARR precipitation (scaled to GPCP ^d) minus NARR evapotranspiration		
NARR [$P - E$]	NARR precipitation minus NARR evapotranspiration		
MERRA	Sum of precipitation and spurious water source (non-zero due to land–atmosphere interface inconsistencies) minus evapotranspiration and changes in surface and subsurface water (including interception reservoir, soil moisture, and snow)	–	Koster et al. (2000); Rienecker et al. (2011)
MERRA LAND			
UDEL	Precipitation minus evapotranspiration (from a modified Thornthwaite water-budget equation)	–	Willmot et al. (1985)

^a CRU-TS – Climatic Research Unit (CRU) Time-Series Datasets (http://badc.nerc.ac.uk/browse/badc/cru/data/cru_ts_observation_databases).

^b PRISM – Parameter-elevation Regressions on Independent Slopes Model (<http://www.prism.oregonstate.edu/>).

^c NCEP II – (Kanamitsu et al., 2002; <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.html>).

^d GPCP – Global Precipitation Climatology Project (<http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/qa/wmo/wdcamec-ncdc.html>).

^e PREC/L – Precipitation Reconstruction over Land (Chen et al., 2002; <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.precl.html>).

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Fig. 1. CONUS water resource regions. USGS water resource regions and major rivers in the CONUS domain. Prior to aggregation of product runoff, regions coverage converted from polygon (<http://water.usgs.gov/GIS/huc.html>) to 1° raster using the region with the maximum area of overlap for each grid cell.

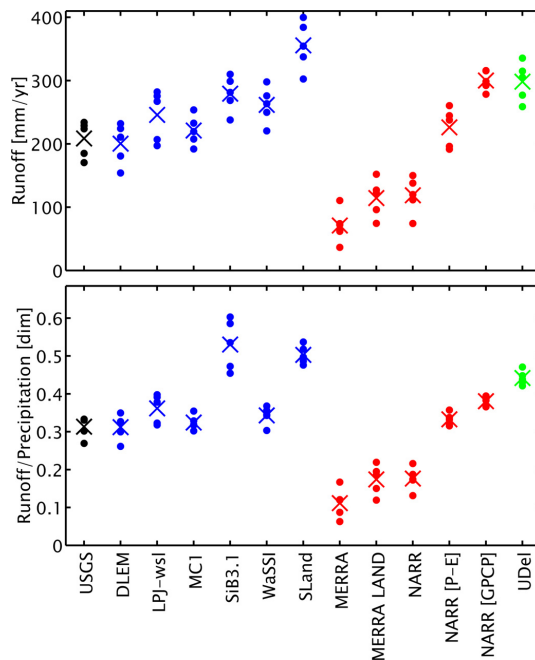


Fig. 2. Mean CONUS runoff and runoff normalized by precipitation. Data values are mean 2001–2005 value, water year basis (cross) and individual years (circles). Color coding denotes product type: USGS stream gauge observations (black), TBMs (blue), reanalyses (red), and the UDel surface station based product (green). NARR variants are: NARR [GPCP]; NARR precipitation scaled to GPCP minus NARR precipitation, and NARR [$P - E$]; NARR precipitation minus NARR evapotranspiration.

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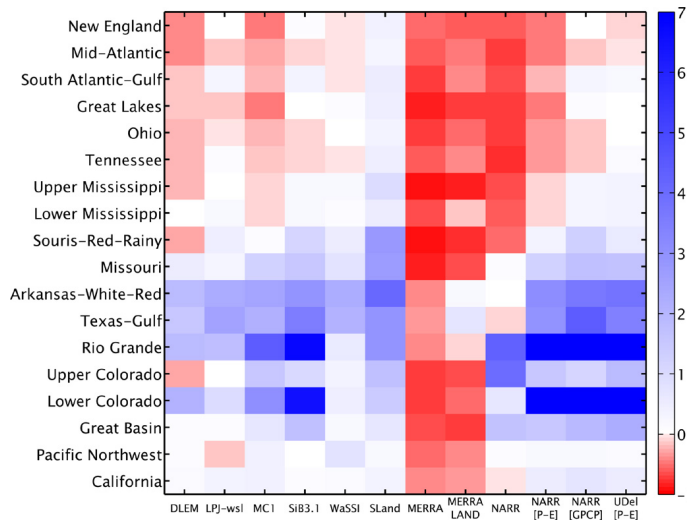


Fig. 3. Relative bias in runoff by water resource region and data product. Relative bias is calculated as $(\hat{y} - y)/y$ where y is USGS stream gauge runoff for a given region averaged over 2001–2005 (water year basis) and \hat{y} is the corresponding simulated value. Red denotes underestimation; blue overestimation. NARR variants are: NARR [GPCP]; NARR precipitation scaled to GPCP minus NARR precipitation, and NARR $[P - E]$; NARR precipitation minus NARR evapotranspiration. Off-scale values are Rio Grande: NARR $[P - E]$ (10), NARR [GPCP] (11) and Lower Colorado: NARR $[P - E]$ (10), NARR [GPCP] (10), UDel (8).

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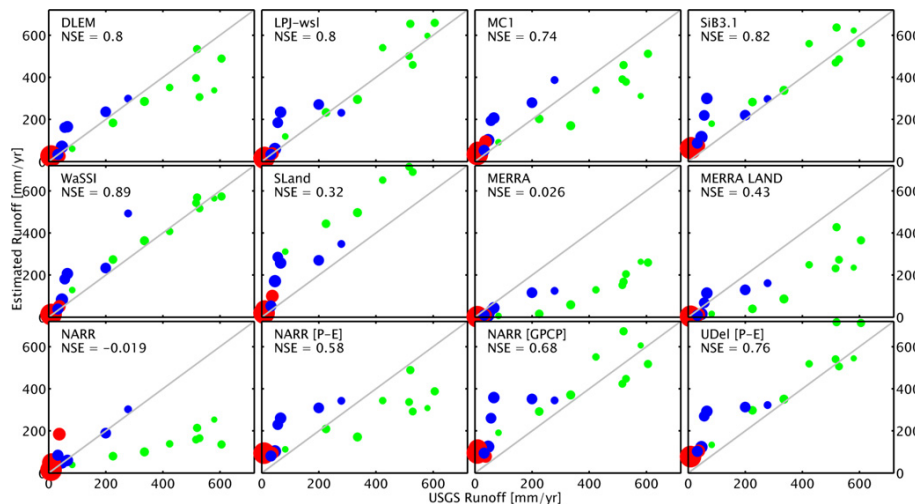


Fig. 4. Estimated and observed mean runoff from 2001 to 2005. Estimated runoff product and Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE) given in upper-left of each panel. NARR variants are: NARR [GPCP]; NARR precipitation scaled to GPCP minus NARR precipitation, and NARR [$P - E$]; NARR precipitation minus NARR evapotranspiration. Each circle represents the 2001–2005 (water year basis) mean for one of the 18 CONUS water resource regions. Symbol size is proportional to management intensity by region (i.e., larger symbols indicate a higher degree of water cycle management). Symbol color coding denotes geography: eastern (green), from the Souris-Red-Rainy, Upper Mississippi, and Lower Mississippi regions eastward or numbers 1–9, and western (blue) regions, from the Missouri, Arkansas-White-Red, and Texas-Gulf regions westward or numbers 10–18. The Upper Colorado, Lower Colorado, and Rio Grande western regions are colored red and all have a water cycle management index in excess of unity, i.e., gross withdrawals exceed depleted flows. The index of management intensity by region is not correlated with bias except for MERRA ($p = 0.009$), MERRA LAND ($p = 0.02$), NARR ($p = 0.04$), and SLand ($p = 0.003$). NARR [$P - E$] shows marginal dependence ($p = 0.06$).

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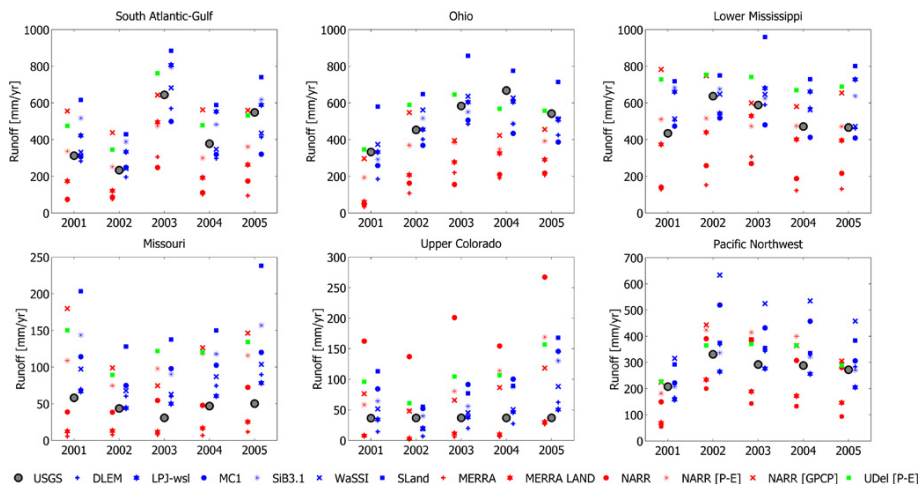


Fig. 5. Time evolution of region-scale runoff. Annual runoff (water year basis) from 2001 to 2005 for six representative regions. Color coding denotes product type: USGS stream gauge observations (black), TBMs (blue), reanalyses (red), and the UDel surface station based product (green). NARR variants are: NARR [GPCP]; NARR precipitation scaled to GPCP minus NARR precipitation, and NARR [$P - E$]; NARR precipitation minus NARR evapotranspiration.

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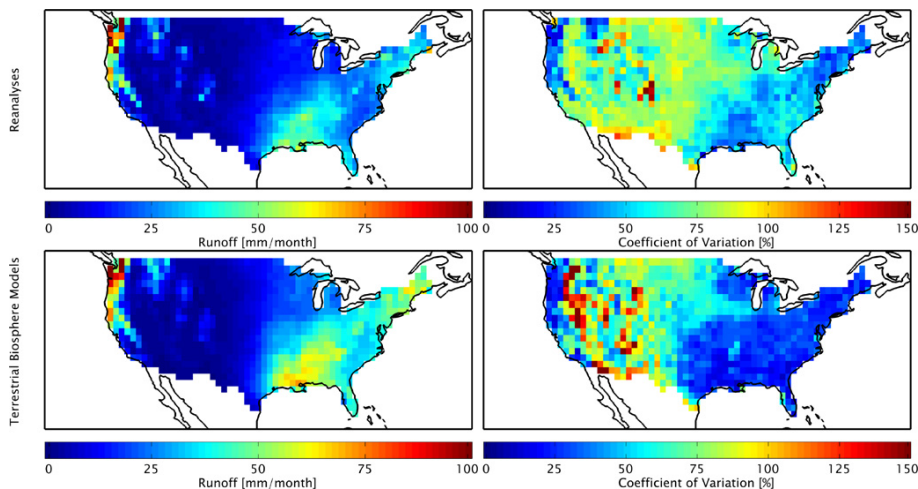


Fig. 6. Spatial patterns of runoff. Maps show monthly mean runoff and its coefficient of variation (mean/standard deviation in %) by grid cell from 2001 to 2005 (water year basis). Reanalysis includes all five reanalyses products and UDel. WaSSI is not included as its output is catchment-scale and not gridded.

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