

1 **REGIONAL STATISTICAL AND PRECIPITATION-RUNOFF MODELLING FOR**
2 **ECOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS: PREDICTION OF HOURLY STREAMFLOW IN**
3 **REGULATED RIVERS AND UNGAUGED BASINS**

4
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16
17 ***Short Title: Modelling for prediction of hourly streamflow in ungauged basins***

18 **Abstract**

19 Prediction of natural streamflow in regulated rivers for derivation of ecologically relevant
20 streamflow metrics (ERSFMs) and prediction in ungauged basins (PUB) are important in
21 management of water resources. However, specific studies on comparison of methods for
22 predicting hourly flow regime relevant to ecological study in regulated (hydropeaking) rivers
23 are rare in literature. Therefore, using catchments in mid Norway, we performed comparative
24 evaluation of prediction of hourly streamflow series and flow duration curves (FDCs) in
25 ungauged basins. We developed a regional regression model based on relationships among
26 streamflow percentiles and drainage areas and performed a regional calibration of a streamflow
27 recession based Precipitation-Runoff (P-R) model.

28 A leave one out cross-validation procedure was used to evaluate the regional models. The
29 results indicate that the regional regression model with transferring of streamflow information
30 based on the nearest neighbor performed better than both transferring optimal parameters from
31 local calibration and regional parameter sets corresponding to maximum regional weighted
32 average Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency of the P-R model (NSE_{MRWA}). We also evaluated the models
33 based on prediction of some environmental indices: the daily range, daily standard deviation,
34 flashiness, maximum ramping rate, number of rise and falls and daily flow changes. However,
35 both modelling strategies predicted hourly streamflow indices well and appeared stable over
36 most indices while the largest differences occurred in the rise and fall counts.

37 The models were further applied for prediction of the natural streamflow time series at Sokna
38 hydropeaking plant. The observed hydrograph exhibits continuous sudden fluctuations while
39 the predicted natural flow hydrograph exhibits smooth pattern. The within a year FDCs for
40 observed flow exhibits sharp transitions from high to low flows. There is clear differences
41 between the environmental indices obtained for the observed and the modelled data series, with
42 the general observation that the NSE_{MRWA} computing a smaller variability than the regression
43 model.

44

45 **Key words:**

46 Regression model; Precipitation-runoff model; Hourly streamflow; Environmental flow;
47 Prediction in ungauged basins; Ecologically relevant streamflow metrics; Hydropeaking at
48 Lundesokna; Flow duration curves.

49

INTRODUCTION

50 River regulation for hydropower may create considerable alterations of natural streamflow
51 regime that have profound ecological, geomorphologic and hydraulic repercussions. Pre-
52 regulation or 'baseline' natural flow regime can be obtained from pre-regulation observed
53 streamflow if available, which frequently is not the case. Moreover, humans have altered
54 streamflow for a long time and hence the assumption that streamflow records prior to regulation
55 represent a 'natural' condition can be flawed mainly due to the impacts of land use and climate
56 change. In addition, streamflow simulation by calibration of Precipitation-Runoff (P-R) models
57 is not possible for a regulated reach of river. Prediction of streamflow may also be required at
58 ungauged sites where ecological data is available in order to study the impacts of hydrological
59 alterations on the riverine ecology. Furthermore, there are interests to predict contributions from
60 ungauged streams to the environmental flow (e-flow) and reservoir inflow.

61 To obtain information on temporal flow pattern alterations compared to the natural (i.e.
62 pretending no regulation) to study the impacts of regulations, a methodology for predicting a
63 time series of natural streamflow hydrographs and duration curves that excludes the effects of
64 regulation are required. The concept of inflow controlled environmental flow regime (e.g.
65 Alfredsen *et al.*, 2012) can also be better evaluated if a continuous time series of natural flow
66 can be predicted rather than assessed based on a pre-regulation natural flow regime.
67 Furthermore, the predicted natural time series is the basis in the derivation of ecologically
68 relevant streamflow metrics (ERSFMs). Alteration in the hydrographs and flow duration curves
69 (FDCs) would indicate potential alteration in other streamflow characteristics that are relevant
70 for assessment of ecological integrity. Comparison of the indices derived from the predicted
71 (natural) versus the actual flow under regulation would help to characterize flow related
72 changes and devise improved mitigation and management in regulated rivers.

73 Continuous streamflow Prediction in Ungauged Basins or PUB (Sivapalan *et al.*, 2003)
74 through regional Precipitation-Runoff (P-R) modelling is a highly researched area (e.g. He *et al.*,
75 2011; Hrachowitz *et al.*, 2013; Parajka *et al.*, 2013; Razavi and Coulibaly, 2013). Besides
76 the PUB, the regional modelling enables thorough and comparative study using a large number
77 of catchments in the region. Current scientific understanding of hydrologic controls on riverine
78 ecosystems and experience gained from individual river studies support development of
79 environmental flow standards at the regional scale [Poff *et al.*, 2010]. Several regionalization
80 attempts for prediction of flow characteristics (e.g. regime, hydrograph, seasonality, frequency,
81 extremes such as flood and drought) at ungauged basins are available in literature in both
82 hydrological and ecological sciences. However, the task remain challenging.

83 A number of approaches for prediction of ERSFMs at ungauged sites are reported. In a more
84 recent time, the two main modelling approaches for prediction of ERSFM are statistical
85 regression (e.g. Sanborn and Bledsoe, 2006; Sickie *et al.*, 2006; Carlisle *et al.*, 2011; Knight *et al.*,
86 2011, Murphy *et al.*, 2012) and the P-R models (e.g. Kennen *et al.*, 2008; Poff *et al.*, 2010;
87 Murphy *et al.*, 2012; Shrestha *et al.*, 2014). Some applications of various statistical models for
88 direct prediction of ERSFMs using characteristics of watershed include Nathan and McMahon
89 (1990), Moliere *et al.* (2006), Engeland and Hisdal (2009), Castiglioni *et al.* (2011), Knight *et al.*
90 (2011) and Murphy *et al.* (2012). However, there is no many studies that compare methods
91 for predicting streamflow for assessment of ecological flow regime. Engeland and Hisdal

92 (2009) compared regional regression based on 24 potential catchment characteristics as
93 independent variables and the HBV P-R model for prediction of low flow index for daily
94 streamflow from 51 catchments in Southern Norway and found that the regression method
95 generally gives better estimates. Castiglioni *et al.* (2011) compared physiographical space based
96 interpolation and top-kriging and noted that both techniques provide plausible and accurate
97 predictions of a low-flow index (Q_{355}) in ungauged basins. Murphy *et al.* (2012) compared a
98 regional regression model and a P-R model and noted limitations of the P-R model to effectively
99 predict ecological flow regimes in ungauged basins. Farmer *et al.* (2014) examined 19 different
100 statistical and P-R based streamflow prediction methods using a wide set of performance
101 metrics for Southeast region of the United States and found that a nonlinear spatial interpolation
102 technique using flow duration curves with the nearest-neighbor donor gauges produced the most
103 reliable predictions of continuous records of daily streamflow. Shrestha *et al.* (2014) evaluated
104 the ability of the Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC) P-R model to replicate hydro-ecologically
105 relevant indicators and noted a need to exercise caution in the use of model-simulated
106 indicators. Vis *et al.* (2015) studied calibration criteria for the HBV-light P-R model for
107 estimating 12 ecological flow characteristics and found that the most suitable calibration
108 strategy varied according to the streamflow characteristic or the objectives. However, these
109 comparisons mainly focused on daily or coarser temporal resolution.

110 Previous studies related to environmental flow and ecological flow regime (e.g. Schofield
111 and Burt, 2003; Tharme, 2003; Arthington *et al.*, 2006; Carlisle *et al.*, 2009; Poff *et al.*, 2010;
112 Kennard *et al.*, 2010; Alfredsen *et al.*, 2012; Costa *et al.*, 2012; Vezza *et al.*, 2012), alterations
113 of natural flow regime due to regulation or hydropeaking (e.g. Poff *et al.*, 1997; Jones, 2014)
114 and impacts of climate change (e.g. Gibson *et al.*, 2009; Wenger *et al.*, 2010) mainly focused
115 on coarse temporal resolutions such as annual, monthly and daily streamflow. However,
116 contemporary operation practices in regulated rivers such as for hydropeaking require high-
117 resolution prediction, which allows close examination of relevant ecological indicators from
118 high-resolution hydrographs. The lists of suggested ERSFMs and softwares used to calculate
119 the ERSFMs reported in literature (e.g. Richter *et al.*, 1996; Poff *et al.*, 1997; Olden and Poff,
120 2003; Mathews and Richter, 2007; Knight *et al.*, 2011; Thompson *et al.*, 2014) are also based
121 on daily or coarser time series that may not be representative for the hydropeaking flow that is
122 variable at high resolution (e.g. hourly). To our knowledge, study on prediction of 'unimpaired'
123 or natural hourly streamflow series in regulated rivers for ecological purposes is not widely
124 reported in literature. Sauterleute and Charmasson (2014) developed a computational tool,
125 which enables the quantification of short-term (rapid) fluctuations of flow and stage occurring
126 in rivers resulting from hydropeaking, by means of processing the time series. However, the
127 authors noted that the tool was not developed to enable comparisons between rivers with and
128 without hydropeaking, or those with natural flow regimes. Bevelhimer *et al.* (2014) presented
129 a variety of metrics for characterizing sub-daily (hourly) flow variation to evaluate general
130 trends among streams affected by hydropeaking, run-of-river plants and streams that are largely
131 unaffected by regulation. The present study is a comparative evaluation of methods for
132 prediction of hourly streamflow series and environmental indices in ungauged or regulated
133 basins in a region of mid Norway. In the study region, regulation of rivers is common and
134 hydropeaking operation is increasing while environmental legislations are stringent and
135 important aquatic ecosystems (e.g. salmonid fish) are abundant.

136 The main objectives and scope of this study are: (i) To develop a regional regression model
137 for prediction of FDCs from relationship between streamflow percentiles and watershed
138 characteristics and to propose FDCs based transfer of streamflow time series information from
139 gauged to ungauged catchments; (ii) Comparative evaluation of the regional regression model
140 and a Precipitation-Runoff model for prediction of natural streamflow time series at ungauged
141 basins and; (iii) Application and comparative evaluation of the models to a regulated

142 hydropeaking river to predict hourly natural streamflow time series and to compute specific
143 sub-daily ERSFMs mainly based on the work by Bevelhimer et al. (2015).

144 **STUDY REGION AND DATA**

145 The study region is located in mid Norway that has a large number of highly regulated
146 catchments. We used hourly streamflow data from 26 unregulated catchments (40 to 3090 km²)
147 that was obtained from the Norwegian Water Resources and Energy Directorate (NVE). Four
148 of the catchments (catchments no. 3, 6, 8 and 14) are located inside the Gaula watershed (Figure
149 1). The catchments, drainage areas, mean runoff and ratio of mean to median flow are listed in
150 Table 1. Ratio of mean to median flow is greater than one for all catchments showing that the
151 streamflow distributions are right skewed. We used the data from 2006 to 2011 to develop
152 relationships between drainage areas and streamflow percentiles using the regional regression
153 model and from 2008 to 2010 for calibration of the P-R model, transfer of streamflow
154 information and associated cross-validation procedures. Hourly climate data include
155 precipitation from 44 stations, temperature from 54 stations, wind speed from 40 stations,
156 relative humidity and global radiation from 12 stations, which are spatially interpolated on 1x1
157 km² grids for calibration of the P-R model. We obtained climate data from public services and
158 private companies. For instance, we obtained temperature data from 9 stations owned by the
159 Norwegian Meteorological Institute, 12 stations owned by the Norwegian Institute for
160 Agricultural and Environmental Research (Bioforsk) and the remaining from stations owned by
161 various hydropower companies. The high flow regime for the study catchments occurs from
162 snowmelt events in most cases, but for some of the catchments high flow is associated with
163 rainfall on snowmelt or summer rainfall events. The dominant land use/land cover types in the
164 study area are bare rock, low vegetation above timberline and forests. Predominant soil
165 formation is glacial tills. We found land use and hypsography data from the NVE, and soil data
166 from the Norwegian Geological Survey (NGU). Terrain slope was processed in ArcGIS from a
167 Digital Elevation Model (DEM).

168 We applied the proposed methods in the present study to predict the ‘unimpaired’ or natural
169 streamflow series for the regulated Lundesokna catchment at the outlet of the Sokna
170 hydropower plant (total catchment area 243.4 km²). Lundesokna river flows from the Samsjøen
171 reservoir to Gaula, which is one of the best salmon rivers in Norway. Sokna hydropower plant
172 is a hydropeaking plant and has the following salient features: installed capacity of 30 MW, a
173 gross head of 185 meters, intake regulation height of 9 meters and total catchment area at intake
174 of 217 km². We constructed the regulated streamflow time series of the Lundesokna catchment
175 by adding a modelled time series using the P-R model for the local catchment between Sokna
176 intake and outlet (area = 26.4 km²) to the observed time series of discharge data from the Sokna
177 power plant.

178 **METHODS AND MODELS**

179 There are several inherent uncertainties associated to both regional regression and P-R
180 modelling for prediction in ungauged basins. The accuracy of predictions of streamflow
181 characteristic is important because of the potential consequences a poor prediction can have on
182 estimates of ecological health (Murphy *et al.*, 2012). Some of the main problems associated
183 with P-R models are predictive uncertainty due to uncertainty in inputs, parameter calibration,
184 model structure and regionalization methods. Vis *et al.* (2015) illustrated uncertainties in
185 various simulated ecological flow characteristics using a P-R model calibrated using different
186 objective functions. The regression approach is also associated with several assumptions such
187 as randomness, normality and homoscedascity of residuals, and non-collinearity among the
188 independent variables. In addition, dependence between regression model parameters and
189 subjectivity in selection and pre-processing of the independent variables are prevailing

190 challenges if large numbers of independent variables and hence parameters are used.

191

192 ***Statistical (regression) model***

193 Nathan and McMahon (1990) and Moliere *et al.* (2006) illustrated regression among different
194 catchment attributes and discharge for prediction of low flow hydrograph in ungauged basins
195 in Australia. The regression approach in previous studies focused on deriving separate
196 relationships among various dependent variables (i.e. each ERSFMs) and selected catchment
197 attributes. For instance, Knight *et al.* (2011) conducted regional regression analyses based on
198 16 potential independent variables (watershed characteristics) to predict 19 presupposed
199 ecologically relevant streamflow characteristics for Tennessee and Cumberland river basins
200 (USA). Selection of a small number of independent variables reduces the number of regression
201 parameters and hence the uncertainties related to dependence among parameters and
202 collinearity among independent variables. Therefore, the regression model in the present study
203 focus on parametrical parsimony, simplicity and consistency for a particular dependent variable.

204 Identification of independent variables and choice of dependent variables are important for
205 the regression model. In the study on global environmental assessment methodologies, Tharme
206 (2003) stated that flow duration curves and other single flow indices comprise the second largest
207 subgroup of the hydrological approaches for environmental flow assessment in rivers. Kennen
208 (2008) used the ratio of 25 % to 75 % exceedance flows to evaluate the effect of changes in the
209 flow regime on aquatic-invertebrate assemblage structure. Wenger *et al.* (2010) used frequency
210 of high flows (Q_{95} and Q_{99}) during winter and summer, mean annual and mean summer flows,
211 and frequency of summer low flows (Q_{10} and Q_{20}). Yin *et al.* (2012) used 10 % and 20 %, and
212 30% respectively of average daily flow for baseflow in dry and wet seasons and the 25th
213 percentile flow as a minimum high pulse discharge. Alfredsen *et al.* (2012) defined flow
214 regimes based on flow percentiles (low < 25%, high > 75% and normal 25% to 75%) to
215 represent dry, wet and normal years to develop an inflow controlled environmental flow regime.
216 The natural flow regime paradigm of Poff *et al.* (1997) and Richter *et al.* (1997) focuses on a
217 full range of intra-and inter annual variability of streamflow characteristics pertinent to
218 magnitude, frequency, duration, timing and rate of change to study comparative relationships
219 between natural and altered hydrological conditions and riverine ecology. Therefore, due to the
220 various utilization of streamflow characteristics in environmental assessment, the main focus
221 of the present study is to evaluate methods to derive the two main runoff ‘signatures’ namely
222 flow duration curves and time series of streamflow for ungauged or regulated rivers from which
223 further ERSFMs can be extracted.

224 To construct flow duration curves, we fitted separate linear regressions between each
225 streamflow percentile (0 % to 100 % at 1% intervals) values as the dependent variable with the
226 independent variable (drainage areas of catchments). Flow duration or the percentage of time
227 flow equaled or exceeded is computed as 100-percentile. The fine interval of 1% interval was
228 preferred to obtain better accuracy in prediction of percentiles. Coarse intervals augmented by
229 interpolation might reduce the accuracy by introducing an additional source of uncertainty on
230 the prediction. The drawback of estimation of large number of regression parameters at 1%
231 intervals can be tackled by carrying out parameter estimation for all percentiles at once. The
232 flow percentiles rather than the various ERSFMs exhibit similar relationships to watershed
233 characteristics and make the regression approach more consistent. Mohamoud (2008)
234 performed prediction of flow duration curves (FDCs) and streamflow for ungauged catchments
235 by fitting multiple non-linear regression model among 15 drainage-area normalized streamflow
236 percentiles and landscape–climate descriptors and found that the FDC-based method shows
237 great promise for predicting streamflow in ungauged basins compared to the drainage area ratio
238 method (e.g. Stedinger *et al.*, 1993). Yu *et al.* (2002) compared polynomial regression that uses
239 annual rainfall, altitude and drainage area as catchment descriptors with a simple regression
240 model that uses only drainage area as catchment descriptor and found that both regional analysis
241 methods could generate reasonable FDCs. However, the authors reported that the polynomial

242 regression has less uncertainty, but it resulted in unrealistic values for extrapolation beyond
 243 Q_{90%} and Q_{10%}.

244 To identify influential catchment descriptors, we performed linear correlation analysis
 245 among streamflow percentiles and several catchment characteristics. The results of the linear
 246 correlation analysis are presented in Table 2 for drainage area, lake percentage, forest
 247 percentage, minimum elevation, maximum elevation, median terrain slope and maximum
 248 terrain slope. We did not expect reliable mean annual runoff (MAR) for the catchments from
 249 the sparse precipitation gauging stations in the region and hence we did not use the MAR as a
 250 descriptor variable. In Nordic catchments, lake percentage is often used as an independent
 251 variable for both low-and high flows (e.g. Engeland and Hisdal, 2009, Sælthun, 1997).
 252 However, among the descriptor variables assessed in the present study, only drainage area
 253 exhibited marked correlations with streamflow percentiles from low- to high flow ranges.
 254 Therefore, using only drainage area as an independent variable we fitted the following simple
 255 linear regression model with the assumptions of normal and homoscedastic residuals:

$$256 \quad \underline{Y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta}^* + \underline{\varepsilon} \text{ or } Y_i = \beta_0^* + \beta_1^* x_{1i} + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

$$257 \quad \underline{\varepsilon} \approx N \quad \underline{0}, \underline{I}\sigma^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{Y} \approx N \quad \underline{X}\underline{\beta}^*, \underline{I}\sigma^2 \quad (2)$$

258 We estimated the set of parameters (β) using the ordinary least-square technique and their lower
 259 and upper confidence levels (UCL and LCL) from the t -statistics:

$$260 \quad \underline{\hat{\beta}} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \end{pmatrix} = \underline{X}'\underline{X}^{-1}\underline{X}'\underline{Y}; \quad \text{UCL, LCL} = \hat{\beta}_i \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-p} \sqrt{S^2 \underline{X}'\underline{X}^{-1}_{ii}}, \quad (3)$$

261 where \underline{Y} is a $n \times 1$ column vector of the dependent variable, \underline{X} is a $n \times p$ matrix of the independent
 262 variable, $\underline{\varepsilon}$ is a $n \times 1$ column vector of the error term that indicates the deviation of the estimate
 263 from the true value, \underline{I} is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, S^2 is estimate of error variance, * represents the
 264 'true' values, the underline represents the vector or matrix notation, n is the number of
 265 observations (data points), p is the number of model parameters, N stands for the assumed
 266 Normal distribution, $(\underline{X}'\underline{X})_{ii}^{-1}$ is the main diagonal element corresponding to i^{th} row and i^{th}
 267 column of a $(\underline{X}'\underline{X})_{ii}^{-1}$ matrix of size $p \times p$, the ' notation represents a transpose and α is the
 268 significance level.
 269

270 We performed diagnostic analyses of the residuals to verify the adequacy of the regression
 271 model. We performed a significance test of the model parameters through an F -test and
 272 computed the percentage of variability in the data explained by the regression model (R^2).
 273 Outlier catchments were identified by plots of drainage areas versus flow percentiles (Figure
 274 2). Randomness of the residuals were tested by plots of regression residuals versus the predicted
 275 dependent variable. We verified the normality of the residuals by probability plots and presented
 276 the model prediction error in terms of 95 % confidence intervals (CI). An outlier catchment in
 277 the present study is defined as a catchment which has streamflow percentiles and drainage area
 278 relationships that deviates from the rest and hence an outlier catchment is excluded from the
 279 regional regression model.

280 Streamflow percentiles or flow duration curves alone cannot provide sufficient information
 281 for ecological studies and hence prediction of complete time series of streamflow at ungauged
 282 basins is required. Various regionalization methods that are useful for either regional transfer
 283 of calibrated parameters of the P-R models or for transfer of streamflow information (e.g.
 284 Parajka et al., 2013; Hailegeorgis et al., 2015; Farmer et al., 2014) are reported in hydrological
 285 sciences literature. For the regression model in the present study, we proposed a simple method
 286 to derive streamflow time series (hydrographs) for ungauged catchments from relationships

287 between flow percentiles and drainage area and observed streamflow data at the gauged
 288 catchments. We transferred streamflow information among the catchments based on an
 289 assumption that a streamflow at a time T exhibit the same percentile for the donor (gauged)
 290 catchment and the recipient (ungauged) catchment using a simple lookup function in Microsoft
 291 excel:

$$293 \quad Q_T^{ungauged} = \text{lookup } Per_T^{Q_{gauged}}, Per^{0:1:100}, Q_{Per}^{regression:ungauged}, \quad (4)$$

294
 295 where Q_T is time series of streamflow, Per_T are percentiles for observed time series of
 296 streamflow at gauged basin, $Per^{0:1:100}$ are percentiles from 0 % to 100 % at 1% intervals and
 297 Q_{Per} is streamflow corresponding to the percentile Per for the ungauged basin, which is
 298 calculated from the results of the regional regression model. Evaluation of various
 299 regionalization methods, strategy for selection of donors, and assessment of associated
 300 uncertainties with specific application to prediction of ERSFMs in ungauged basins require a
 301 thorough investigation, which is outside the scope of the present study. Rather we evaluated the
 302 regional transfer of streamflow information from the regression model and the look-up function
 303 for prediction in ungauged basins based on the nearest neighborhood (spatial proximity)
 304 between donors and recipients using the leave one out cross-validation procedure. The Nash-
 305 Sutcliffe efficiency (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) or NSE performance measure was used as an
 306 evaluation metric.

307

308 **Precipitation-Runoff (P-R) model**

309 The P-R model allows prediction of continuous time series of streamflow from which one can
 310 derive ecological indices of interest. Following the results of assessment of performance of
 311 different P-R models for the region of study (Hailegeorgis *et al.*, 2015), we selected a
 312 parsimonious recession based ‘top-down’ model, which was proposed by Kirchner (2009) for
 313 the present study. The model was based on inferring model structure and equations from
 314 observed streamflow during recession. The main basis of the model is a water balance equation:

$$315 \quad \frac{dS}{dt} = I - AET - Q = I - AET - Q \quad (5)$$

$$316 \quad \frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{dQ}{dS} \frac{dS}{dt} = \frac{dQ}{dS} (I - AET - Q) = g(Q) (I - AET - Q) \approx g(Q) (-Q) \Big|_{I < Q, AET < Q}, \quad (6)$$

317 where the actual evapotranspiration (AET), infiltration (I) = rainfall + snow melt (SM) and
 318 discharge (Q) are given in mm/hr, bulk catchment storage (S) is in mm, t is a time variable and
 319 $g(Q)$ is discharge sensitivity function (Kirchner, 2009) that is the sensitivity of discharge to
 320 change in storage. However, the response routine used in the present study was based on a 1x1
 321 km² grid cells rather than lumped for the whole catchment. The following relationship was used
 322 based on a streamflow recession analysis:

$$323 \quad \ln g(Q) \approx \ln \left(\frac{dQ}{dS} \right) \approx \ln \left(\frac{-dQ/dt}{Q} \Big|_{P < Q, AET < Q} \right) \approx \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln Q, \quad (7)$$

324 where α_0 and α_1 are model parameters. Runoff computation follows integrating the following
 325 storage-discharge relationship in time:

$$326 \quad S(Q) = \int dS = \int \frac{1}{g(Q)} dQ \quad (8)$$

327 We computed the potential evapotranspiration (PET) based on the Priestly Taylor method

328 (Priestley and Taylor, 1972), and actual evapotranspiration from the PET, discharge and
 329 evapotranspiration ratio parameter (EvR). We simulated a snow accumulation and snowmelt
 330 outflow (SNOWOUT) based on a gamma distributed snow depletion curve (Kolberg and
 331 Gottschalk, 2006) and implemented a simple travel time zone isochrones routing to translate
 332 the hillslope runoff response of each 1x1 km² grid cell to the catchment outlet based on travel
 333 time lags. There are six calibrated parameters in the P-R model: threshold temperature (TX),
 334 wind speed sensitivity of snow (WS), the EvR, velocity of flow for runoff routing (V), α_1 and
 335 α_0 .

336 A regional calibration of the P-R model was performed using streamflow data from the 26
 337 gauged catchments. The Differential Evolution Adaptive Metropolis algorithm or DREAM
 338 (Vrugt *et al.*, 2009) with residual based log-likelihood ($L-L$) objective function implemented in
 339 an open source ENKI hydrological modelling platform (Kolberg and Bruland, 2012), which
 340 was developed at the company for industrial and scientific research or SINTEF, was used:

$$341 \quad L-L\left(\delta / \sigma_i^2, \sum_{i=1}^{N_C} \sum_{t=1}^{n_i} Qsim_{t,i}^{(\theta)} - Qobs_{t,i}^{(\theta)}\right)^2 = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N_C} \left(\frac{-n_i}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{n_i}{2} \log \sigma_i^2 - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n_i} (Qsim_{t,i}^{(\theta)} - Qobs_{t,i}^{(\theta)})^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \right) \right\} \times f, \quad (9)$$

342 where $Qobs^{(\theta)}$ and $Qsim^{(\theta)}$ respectively are Box-Cox (Box and Cox, 1964) transformed non-
 343 missing observed time series and corresponding simulated streamflow time series of length n_i ,
 344 N_C is the total number of catchments ($N_C = 26$ in this case), δ is a model parameter, θ is the
 345 Box-Cox transformation parameter, f is the fraction of effectively independent observations and
 346 σ^2 is the variance of error.

347 The objective function for the regional calibration utilizes streamflow data from all
 348 catchments in the region, but would also provide optimal parameter set for each catchment,
 349 which is termed as the local calibration. Hence, the algorithm is useful to calibrate large num
 350 ber of catchments at once. Hailegeorgis *et al.* (2015) obtained acceptable performance of the re
 351 gional calibration based on transferring regional parameter set that provides maximum regional
 352 weighted average (MRWA) NSE compared to other advanced regionalization methods. In the p
 353 resent study, we also evaluated the performance of regional transfer of parameter sets that
 354 provide the best MRWA NSE compared to the regional regression model:
 355

$$356 \quad NSE_{MRWA} = \frac{1}{N_C} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Ca}} \left(\frac{n_{ia}}{N_{TS}} \right) NSE_i, \quad (10)$$

357 where N_{Ca} is the total number of catchments included to compute the NSE_{MRWA} ($N_{Ca} = N_C - 1$) s
 358 ince a donor catchment is excluded for the leave one out cross-validation), n_{ia} is the length of t
 359 imestamp with non-missing observed streamflow series for each catchment i , N_{TS} is the total le
 360 ngth of timestamp for the calibration period. The weights are the term in the parenthesis assign
 361 ed for each catchment based on the length of their non-missing streamflow records during the
 362 calibration period. The term regional calibration and the NSE_{MRWA} are interchangeably used in
 363 the present study. We used a cross-validation procedure to evaluate the performance of transfer
 364 of optimal parameter sets of the local calibration. We used a leave one out cross-validation
 365 procedure by excluding the donor catchments for the regression model and the NSE_{MRWA} since
 366 the procedure is more appropriate to evaluate the models for prediction in ungauged basins. D
 367 etailed descriptions of the evapotranspiration routine, the snow routine and the calibration
 368 algorithm can be found from Hailegeorgis *et al.* (2015).
 369
 370

371 *Environmental Flow Indices*

372 To evaluate and illustrate the application of the regression method and the precipitation-runoff
373 model in flow assessment we computed environmental flow indices for two cases studies. Since
374 sub-daily prediction is a focus for this work, we used the recently proposed method by
375 Bevelhimer et al. (2015) to compute ecologically relevant streamflow metrics (ERSFMs) with
376 an hourly resolution. We computed the daily range and daily standard deviation as a measure
377 of habitat variability, the flashiness as a measure of flow oscillations and the maximum ramping
378 rate as measures of drying out habitat and potential fish stranding. Finally, we computed the
379 number of rise and falls and the daily flow changes (10 % reversals) as a measure of flow
380 stability and regularity in habitat access. First, we compared predicted and observed indices that
381 was derived from the predicted and observed streamflow, which was obtained from the cross-
382 validation procedure, for Øyungen or catchment 26. Further, we compute the same indices for
383 the Lundesokna catchment where the pre-regulation flow is now known, but where we have a
384 rapidly changing production regime today. For Lundesokna we also computed the indicators
385 outlined by Carolli et al. (2015) to assess if a flow regime is peaked or not.

386

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

387 The study focused on evaluation of parsimonious and simple approaches for prediction of
388 hourly streamflow for ungauged basins to derive streamflow characteristics of ecological
389 relevance. In the first approach, we proposed a simple linear regression model with catchment
390 area as independent variable to predict streamflow percentiles and hence flow duration curves,
391 and transfer of streamflow time series information based on the flow duration curves. In the
392 second approach, we tested prediction of streamflow from calibration of a P-R model.

393 The Trangen or catchment 22 was identified to be an outlier based on preliminary plots of
394 streamflow percentiles versus drainage area (Figure 2), and later confirmed by the diagnostics
395 of residuals of the regional regression model. Exclusion of the outlier catchment increased the
396 explained variability or R^2 from 0.73 to 0.80, from 0.79 to 0.88 and from 0.85 to 0.94
397 respectively for the 10th, 25th and 50th percentiles (Figure 2 and Figure 3). Therefore, we
398 excluded the catchment from the regional regression analysis. Outlier catchment may occur due
399 to poor quality data, or because the drainage area is not related to the flow percentiles or
400 drainage area versus percentiles relationships is peculiar for the catchment. Figure 3 presents
401 results of estimated parameters along their confidence intervals for the regional regression
402 model at 1 % percentile intervals. The β_1 , which is an influential parameter being the coefficient
403 of the independent variable, monotonically increases with percentiles and the intercept
404 parameter β_0 also increases with the percentiles except for a little deviation at some higher
405 percentiles. The lower and upper confidence intervals of parameters also exhibited the same
406 trend. Therefore, for any drainage area the estimated higher percentile flows (e.g. 75th
407 percentile) are found to be always greater than those estimated for lower percentile flows (e.g.
408 74th percentile). Mohamoud (2008) reported the need for reconstruction of FDCs to ensure that
409 percentile flows estimated for higher magnitudes are always larger than those estimated for
410 lower magnitude percentile flows. The causes of the problem are probably due to uncertainty
411 or identifiability issues in the estimation of regression parameters from fitting the non-linear
412 regression to more than one and different combinations of landscape–climate descriptors for
413 different streamflow percentiles. Such problem is not expected for the linear regression model
414 with one and the same independent variable for all percentiles used in the present study.
415 However, the problem needs to be checked for a non-linear regression or a linear regression
416 that use several and different combinations of independent variables for different percentiles.

417 In Table 3, we presented the results from the comparative evaluation of the methods using
418 the cross-validation procedures for the 11 catchments that have no or small amount of missing
419 streamflow records. Table 3 presents the *NSE* values obtained from spatial transfer of

420 information when donor catchments are excluded from the regional regression model while
421 deriving streamflow percentiles and drainage area relationships and while computing the
422 NSE_{MRWA} from the P-R model. Similarly, Table 3 also shows NSE values from transferring
423 optimal local parameters from donor to recipient catchments. The NSE values along the
424 diagonals (bold fonts in Table 3) indicate the performance of regression model and local
425 calibration of the P-R model for a particular catchment. These NSE values indicated that for
426 most of the catchments the regional regression model outperformed the local calibration of the
427 P-R model. The NSE values along the diagonals for the regression model that was obtained
428 from the leave one out cross-validation by excluding donors also indicated that the performance
429 of percentiles-drainage area relationships for construction of flow duration curves at ungauged
430 basins is not sensitive to the choice of donor catchment. Therefore, the proposed regression
431 model is very useful for prediction of FDCs at ungauged basins for any water resources
432 planning purpose. However, regional transfer of information of streamflow time series among
433 the catchments (Eq. 4) is more sensitive to the choice of donor catchment than the P-R model
434 does. However, the regression method with transfer of information of streamflow time series
435 based on the nearest neighbor or spatial proximity between donor and recipient (Figure 1)
436 resulted in regional performance better than the local calibration and regional calibration
437 (NSE_{MRWA}) of the P-R model. For instance, regression based prediction by transferring
438 streamflow information from Gaulfoss (no 6) to one of its internal subcatchment of Eggafoss
439 (no. 3) (Table 3) indicated NSE value of 0.89 versus the local calibration of the P-R model
440 ($NSE = 0.81$) and the NSE_{MRWA} ($NSE = 0.68$). Similarly, transfer of streamflow information
441 from Krinsvatn (no. 12) for prediction at its nearest neighbor Øyungen (no. 26) (Table 3 and
442 Figure 4) indicated NSE value of 0.78 versus the local calibration of the P-R model ($NSE =$
443 0.71) and the NSE_{MRWA} ($NSE = 0.64$). The NSE values in Table 3 further showed in most of the
444 cases better transferability of streamflow information using the regional regression model and
445 spatial proximity among catchments, for instance, among pairs of catchments 6 and 14 (36 km),
446 3 and 6 (54 km), 10 and 17 (15 km), 12 and 26 (64 km), 14 and 3 (33 km), 21 and 1 (28 km),
447 and 21 and 26 (40 km) than parameter transfer from local calibration and regional calibration
448 (NSE_{MRWA}) of the P-R model. The spatial proximity in the present study was defined as the
449 shortest Euclidian distance in x and y co-ordinates spaces between catchment outlets. The
450 parameter sets and hence the performance measure NSE_{MRWA} are the same except slight
451 differences when a donor catchment no. 16 is excluded that shows less sensitivity of the
452 NSE_{MRWA} to the choice of donors (Table 3). This is probably because all catchments were
453 included in the regional calibration objective function (Eqn. 9) to utilize the advantages of local
454 calibration of each catchments at once.

455 The better performance of the regression model in the present study comply with the results
456 from Engeland and Hisdal (2009) and Murphy *et al.* (2012) who found that regression model
457 outperformed the P-R models respectively for Southern Norway and Kentucky (USA). The
458 results also comply with Farmer *et al.* (2014) who obtained that methods based on flow duration
459 curves with the nearest-neighbor donor gages performed better. Murphy *et al.* (2012) and Vis
460 *et al.* (2015) noted the importance of better predictions on estimates of ecological health. There
461 are various uncertainties that need to be addressed in regionalization and prediction in ungauged
462 basins through transfer of calibrated parameters of P-R models such as uncertainty in the model
463 calibration (input data, model structure, and parameter uncertainty and identifiability issues)
464 (e.g. Wagener and Wheeler, 2006) and uncertainty in identification of suitable regionalization
465 methods (e.g. Hailegeorgis *et al.*, 2015). The regression based prediction in the present study
466 transfers characteristics of the observed streamflow from gauged to ungauged catchments while
467 the regional calibration of the P-R model derives regional model parameters by utilizing the
468 available streamflow data in the region. The relationships obtained between the readily
469 available physiographic characteristics of catchments (i.e. the drainage area) and streamflow

470 percentiles is also promising for the regression model for prediction in ungauged basins.
471 However, there are marked uncertainty bounds of prediction by the regression model as
472 demonstrated by confidence intervals of the estimated parameters (Figure 3). In addition, some
473 catchments such as catchments 10 and 16 exhibit large prediction errors and hence poor *NSE*
474 that shows poor spatial transferability of streamflow information for the catchments based on
475 the regression model. If a large number of catchments are available, certain additional criteria
476 can be set to exclude less performing catchments from the region or the region can be divided
477 into several sub-regions. Evaluation of various regionalization methods, for instance, similarity
478 of catchments in physiographic characteristics compared to the spatial proximity for prediction
479 related to ecological flow assessment at ungauged basins is also important.

480 Figure 5a-f shows a comparison between computed environmental flow indices for Øyungen
481 or catchment 26 computed for observed data, and the predicted inflow series from the regression
482 model and the P-R model (NSE_{MRWA}) that are presented in Figure 4. Both modelling strategies
483 predicted the streamflow indices well and appeared stable over most indices. The largest
484 differences occurred in the computation of the rise and fall counts (Figure 5f).

485 Figure 6 presents observed hydrographs and FDC under hydropeaking versus the predicted
486 natural streamflow and FDCs for Lundesokna river downstream of the outlet of the Sokna
487 hydropower plant. We transferred information of streamflow time series from the Gaulfoss to
488 the Lundesokna river based on the regression model and nearest neighbor (spatial proximity)
489 and regional calibration (NSE_{MRWA}) of the P-R model. Both the Gaulfoss and Lundesokna are
490 parts of the Gaula catchment and the streamflow gauging station for Gaulfoss and the outlet of
491 the Sokna hydropower are only about 5.7 km apart (Figure 1). Even if there are similarities
492 between the general patterns of hydrographs predicted from the regional regression model (Q_{est})
493 and simulation by the P-R model (Q_{sim}), and their corresponding FDCs, the results show that
494 there are significant differences in predicted streamflow magnitudes for specific times and
495 durations. The predicted hydrographs from both methods show that the catchment runoff
496 generation responds well to the catchment-averaged precipitation events. However, based on
497 the leave one out cross-validation results, the regional regression method was found to be more
498 reliable than the regional calibration (NSE_{MRWA}) for prediction of hourly streamflow series.
499 Figure 6 shows significant hydrological alterations due to regulation and hydropeaking for
500 Lundesokna river. The observed streamflow (Q_{obs} , regulated in Figure 6) for Lundesokna river
501 downstream of the outlet is highly influenced by the hydropeaking operation. The results
502 indicate typical differences between the regulated or hydropeaking flow and the predicted
503 natural flow. The within a year FDC for observed regulated (hydropeaking) flow exhibits sharp
504 bend transitions from high to medium flows and from medium to low flows. High flow (e.g. Q
505 $> 22 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$) occurs only about 1 % of the time (< 100 hours duration), low flow (e.g. $Q < 5.0$
506 m^3/s) occurs for more than 68 % of the time (6000 hours) while the middle portion of the FDC
507 that is 1% to 60 % of the time (100-5250 hours) is characterized by a nearly constant
508 streamflow. The observed regulated hydrograph also shows continuous sudden fluctuations of
509 streamflow magnitudes while the predicted streamflow hydrographs and FDCs exhibit
510 smoothly varying patterns, which are typical characteristics of natural flow.

511 Computing the magnitude index (HP1) of Carolli et al. (2015) for Lundesokna we obtained
512 an average of 0.16 for the regression model and 0.12 for the P-R model while the observed data
513 gave a value of 1.08. The threshold value for peaking has an average of 0.75. The temporal
514 index (HP2) produced a value of 0.71 for the regression model, 0.25 for the P-R model and 1.9
515 for the observed. Here the threshold is 1.26. Figure 7a-f shows the environmental flow indices
516 for Lundesokna. There is clear differences between the observed (regulated) data and the two
517 modelled data series, even if a difference also can be observed between the regression and the
518 P-R models, with the general observation that the P-R model computing a smaller variability in
519 indices than the regression model. Compared to the patterns seen by Bevelhimer et al. (2015)

520 for a number of regulated and unregulated cases, the results obtained from Lundesokna are
521 similar.

522 Alteration in the FDCs and hydrographs also indicate alterations in several streamflow
523 characteristics, which probably affect the ecological integrity in regulated rivers. However,
524 Knight et al. (2014) noted that at sites with reference hydrology other environmental factors
525 and their interactions with hydrology may influence fish species richness. Bevelhimer et al.
526 (2014) illustrated that sub-daily (hourly) flow metrics reveal variation among and within
527 streams that is not captured by daily flow statistics. The authors also noted that multiple sub-
528 daily statistics were not correlated with daily statistics despite being similar in purpose and
529 scope, which showed the importance of assessing rapid flow variations for studies on flow-
530 ecology relationships.

531 CONCLUSIONS

532 The study indicate that a simple regression model to develop relationships between flow
533 duration curves and drainage areas, and transfer of streamflow time series information based
534 on spatial proximity between donor and recipient catchment outperformed the transfer of
535 optimal parameter sets from local calibration and regional parameter sets corresponding to
536 maximum regional weighted average performance (NSE_{MRWA}) of the precipitation-runoff
537 model. Therefore, the simple regression based derivation of natural streamflow hydrographs
538 and duration curves at ungauged rivers would be useful for an operational environment in terms
539 of better prediction of ecological relevant streamflow metrics to study ecological impacts of
540 hydrological alterations. It would also relieve people working with management issues from
541 relying on scarce or short data series. Furthermore, it contributes to the endeavors for the
542 prediction in ungauged basins, which is one of the important but challenging tasks in hydrology.
543 The models were applied in a boreal region but the methodologies should also be applicable in
544 other climate regimes. Improved results for the hourly resolution are expected from regional
545 modelling based on larger set of catchments.

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714 **Table 1.** Descriptions for the study catchments

Catchment No.	Name of catchments	NVE's Station No.	Catchment area, km ²	Observed mean runoff ^a		Observed median flow or P50 ^a	Observed Mean/Median flow ^a
				m ³ /s	l/s/km ²	m ³ /s	
1	Dillfoss	127.13	480	17.59	36.64	9.86	1.78
2	Driva v/Risefoss	109.9	745	18.33	24.61	9.30	1.97
3	Eggafoss	122.11	668	18.50	27.70	7.86	2.35
4	Embrethølen	139.26	495	23.29	47.06	11.48	2.03
5	Feren	124.13	220	10.45	47.41	7.38	1.42
6	Gaulfoss	122.9	3090	80.31	25.99	40.70	1.97
7	Gisnås	121.29	95	2.76	29.24	1.25	2.21
8	Hugdøl bru	122.17	546	15.62	28.60	9.42	1.66
9	Høggås bru	124.2	495	21.16	42.75	12.86	1.65
10	Isa v/Morstøl bru	103.2	44	3.28	73.89	1.75	1.87
11	Kjeldstad i Garb.	123.31	145	7.74	53.36	4.06	1.91
12	Krinsvatn	133.7	207	12.00	57.98	5.69	2.11
13	Lenglingen	308.1	450	12.78	28.41	6.68	1.91
14	Lillebudal bru	122.14	168	6.35	37.82	3.39	1.87
15	Murusjø	307.5	346	7.41	21.42	5.07	1.46
16	Osenelv v/Øren	105.1	138	6.01	43.56	4.05	1.48
17	Rauma v/Horgheim	103.4	1100	35.99	32.72	17.73	2.03
18	Rinna	112.8	91	4.19	45.98	2.30	1.82
19	Skjellbreivatn	139.25	546	11.97	21.93	7.04	1.70
20	Søya v/Melhus	111.9	138	8.75	63.52	4.26	2.05
21	Støafoss	128.5	477	19.97	41.86	11.72	1.70
22	Trangen	139.35	852	32.76	38.45	27.03	1.21
23	Valen	117.4	39	1.30	33.16	0.68	1.92
24	Valldøla v/Alstad	100.1	226	13.61	60.23	7.84	1.74
25	Vistdal	104.23	67	4.12	61.89	2.51	1.64
26	Øyungen	138.1	239	10.68	44.71	4.91	2.18

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^a Calculated from 2006 to 2011 hourly streamflow data.

737 **Table 2.** Linear correlation coefficients between streamflow percentiles and some catchment
 738 characteristics

Streamflow (m ³ /s) at FDC (%)	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Catchment area (km ²)	0.85	0.98	0.96	0.95	0.94	0.92	0.91	0.90	0.88	0.85	0.92
Lake percentage	-0.32	-0.12	-0.11	-0.07	-0.04	-0.01	0.02	0.04	0.06	0.09	-0.03
Forest percentage	-0.03	-0.02	-0.03	-0.01	0.03	0.07	0.10	0.11	0.09	0.09	0.11
Minimum elevation, masl	-0.22	-0.24	-0.26	-0.27	-0.26	-0.26	-0.26	-0.27	-0.28	-0.28	-0.18
Maximum elevation, masl	-0.03	0.15	0.18	0.19	0.16	0.14	0.13	0.14	0.17	0.17	0.14
Median terrain slope (degree)	-0.25	-0.22	-0.21	-0.22	-0.23	-0.24	-0.25	-0.26	-0.25	-0.24	-0.16
Maximum terrain slope (degree)	0.09	0.19	0.22	0.24	0.22	0.21	0.21	0.22	0.23	0.23	0.13

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Table 3. Cross-validation for evaluation of the regional regression and P-R models

Donor catchments	Recipient catchments										
	1	3	6	10	12	14	16	17	20	21	26
<i>Regional regression model^a</i>											
1	0.94	0.31	0.39	-1.00	0.50	-0.05	-1.13	-0.42	0.42	0.69	0.48
3	0.35	0.96	0.88	-0.35	-0.13	0.57	-2.22	0.47	0.33	0.02	-0.22
6	0.42	0.89	0.94	0.07	-0.07	0.58	-1.75	0.38	0.37	0.12	-0.15
10	0.04	0.39	0.42	0.38	-0.21	0.22	-2.54	0.61	0.44	-0.21	-0.36
12	0.53	-0.32	-0.25	-1.53	0.76	-0.65	-0.43	-0.54	0.16	0.65	0.78
14	0.23	0.80	0.77	-0.07	-0.17	0.75	-1.90	0.53	0.34	-0.07	-0.25
16	-0.01	-0.62	-0.46	-2.32	0.28	-0.92	0.53	-1.12	-0.08	0.16	0.26
17	-0.08	0.52	0.49	0.16	-0.31	0.32	-2.20	0.98	0.14	-0.30	-0.41
20	0.49	0.34	0.41	-0.31	0.22	0.13	-1.36	-0.14	0.82	0.23	0.10
21	0.71	-0.03	0.06	-1.42	0.59	-0.41	-0.77	-0.75	-0.34	0.88	0.65
26	0.47	-0.33	-0.27	-1.78	0.71	-0.72	-0.51	-1.02	0.07	0.65	0.86
<i>P-R model: local calibration^b</i>											
1	0.74	0.79	0.82	0.48	0.63	0.53	0.03	0.44	0.56	0.71	0.66
3	0.73	0.81	0.83	0.51	0.71	0.53	0.14	0.23	0.53	0.72	0.71
6	0.70	0.79	0.83	0.54	0.49	0.56	-0.59	0.15	0.65	0.67	0.54
10	-0.14	0.10	0.18	0.58	0.19	0.23	-0.23	0.16	0.31	0.24	0.06
12	0.68	0.78	0.70	0.50	0.75	0.52	0.12	0.41	0.51	0.70	0.71
14	0.62	0.66	0.74	0.47	0.27	0.58	-0.34	0.18	0.62	0.57	0.47
16	0.44	0.48	0.50	0.40	0.50	0.38	0.67	0.66	0.28	0.46	0.42
17	0.29	0.31	0.44	0.35	0.29	0.28	0.56	0.77	0.20	0.30	0.21
20	0.58	0.69	0.75	0.56	0.23	0.56	-1.16	-0.11	0.67	0.55	0.32
21	0.69	0.73	0.74	0.56	0.69	0.54	0.17	0.35	0.53	0.71	0.63
26	0.64	0.71	0.61	0.45	0.71	0.48	0.30	0.56	0.44	0.65	0.72
<i>P-R model: NSE_{MRWA}^c</i>											
1	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
3	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
6	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
10	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
12	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
14	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
16	0.66	0.70	0.73	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.52	0.67	0.44	0.63	0.66
17	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
20	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
21	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64
26	0.65	0.68	0.72	0.42	0.69	0.47	0.55	0.68	0.43	0.63	0.64

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774 ^a Streamflow prediction for the recipient catchments from percentiles and catchment area
775 relationships of 24 catchments by leaving out a donor catchment from the regional regression
776 model (leave one out cross-validation) and transfer of streamflow time series information from
777 the donor using the look-up function.

778 ^b Streamflow simulation for the recipient catchments by transferring optimal parameters of the
779 local calibration of the P-R model from the donor catchments.

780 ^c Streamflow simulation for the recipient catchments by transferring parameter sets providing
781 NSE_{MRWA} of the P-R model using 25 catchments by leaving out a donor catchment while
782 calculating the NSE_{MRWA} (leave one out cross-validation).

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788 **Figure captions**

789 **Figure 1.** Locations of modelled catchments, streamflow stations, climate stations and the
790 Sokna catchment-hydropower systems.

791 **Figure 2.** Relationships between drainage areas and some streamflow percentiles to identify
792 outlier catchments for the regional regression model.

793 **Figure 3.** Estimated regional regression parameters along their 95 % confidence intervals and
794 R^2 for the percentiles.

795 **Figure 4.** Observed and predicted hourly streamflow hydrographs from transfer of regional
796 information from Krinsvatn or catchment 12 to its nearby Øyungen or catchment 26
797 (regression) and simulation from transfer of local calibration and NSE_{MRWA} parameters (P-R
798 model).

799 **Figure 5.** Indices from Bevelhimer et al. (2015) computed for Øyungen or catchment 26. The
800 dashed line is for the observed streamflow, the dotted line is for the regression model and the
801 solid line is for the P-R model (NSE_{MRWA}).

802 **Figure 6.** Regulated (observed) and predicted natural hourly streamflow hydrographs from
803 transfer of streamflow information from Gaulfoss catchment to a nearby regulated Lundesokna
804 river (regression) and transfer of parameter corresponding to the NSE_{MRWA} (P-R model).

805 **Figure 7.** Indices from Bevelhimer et al. (2015) computed for Lundesokna. The dashed line is
806 for the regulated flow regime; the dotted line and solid line represent the unregulated (natural)
807 flow regime for the regression and P-R model (NSE_{MRWA}) respectively.

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