



17 *planning. In addition, in the way that climate science can inform decision-making, we*  
18 *documented how decision makers can inform climate science in the need for additional research.*  
19 *In this article, we show the evolution of the use of different types of climate products and explain*  
20 *the connections among drought, perception of risk, climate literacy, and interactions with*  
21 *climate information providers.*

22

23 **Key words:** climate information, climate products, climate services, water management, western  
24 U.S., drought

25 **INTRODUCTION**

26 Rapid population growth, finite water resources, and increasing climate variability are making  
27 the western U.S. increasingly vulnerable to drought (U.S. Department of Interior 2005). Yet  
28 water management decision makers (hereafter ‘water managers’) have not been taking advantage  
29 of all the climate information and forecasts available from the National Oceanic Atmospheric  
30 Administration (NOAA), and other Federal agencies and research institutions (CCSP 2008). The  
31 use of climate information<sup>3</sup> alone cannot decrease a water provider’s vulnerability to water  
32 shortages; however, historic observations and climate projections at seasonal to decadal  
33 timescales can potentially help them prepare for drought. Given the impact of climate on water  
34 supplies, this study was motivated by interest in how climate information providers communicate  
35 with municipal water managers, who in turn might use the information to better prepare for water  
36 supply shortages on interannual and longer (30–50 year) time scales.

37  
38 Previous studies have shown that 1- or 3-month seasonal climate outlooks<sup>4</sup> issued by the NOAA  
39 Climate Prediction Center (CPC) are hard to locate on the web, they are hard to understand, they  
40 do not address relevant climate variables, and they do not have high enough skill and long  
41 enough lead times (Callahan et al., 1999; Carter & Morehouse 2003; Gamble et al. 2003;  
42 Hartmann et al. 2002; Pagano et al. 2001, 2002; Rayner et al. 2005; Steinemann 2006). These  
43 studies suggested that water managers would be more likely to incorporate that information into

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<sup>3</sup> We define *climate information* as current conditions or historic records of climate-related variables such as temperature, precipitation, snow water equivalent, streamflow and soil moisture.

<sup>4</sup> The previous studies cited here use ‘climate forecasts’ to refer to seasonal climate outlooks, but we are using the official NOAA term for the products (O’Lenic et al 2008). *Climate outlooks* are projections (often called forecasts) of temperature and precipitation for months or seasons in the future at the scale of climate divisions.

44 their operational models if forecasters produce evaluations of seasonal climate outlooks that  
45 water managers could understand, and if they combined climate outlooks with streamflow  
46 forecasts that intersect with the existing knowledge base of water managers (Carter and  
47 Morehouse 2003; Gamble et al. 2003; Hartmann et al. 2002; Huppert et al. 2002; Pagano et al.  
48 2001, 2002; Rayner et al. 2005; Steinemann 2006). In addition, these studies suggested that  
49 increased communication between forecasters and water managers was necessary for water  
50 managers to appreciate the utility of climate outlooks and for climate scientists to recognize the  
51 uses and needs of forecasts by water managers (Callahan et al. 1999; Carter & Morehouse 2003;  
52 Gamble et al. 2003; Hartmann et al. 2002; Huppert et al. 2002; O'Conner et al. 1999; Pagano et  
53 al. 2001, 2002).

54  
55 These studies had focused on the following regions of the U.S.<sup>5</sup>: Pennsylvania (O'Conner et al.  
56 1999), the Pacific North West (Callahan et al. 1999, Rayner et al. 2005), Arizona (Pagano et al.  
57 2001, 2002,; Carter & Morehouse 2003), California (Rayner et al. 2005), Washington D.C.  
58 (Rayner et al. 2005) and Georgia (Steinemann 2006). These studies were not directly applicable  
59 to Colorado because several climatological and societal factors distinguish the state from  
60 previous study regions. In Colorado, water managers have both an established relationship with  
61 climate scientists and experience with a recent drought. In addition, whereas the previous studies  
62 had looked only at the use of climate outlooks in annual water management operations, the use

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<sup>5</sup> There are six independent studies with distinct time periods and groups of managers studied, as well as several additional papers that reference or build on these six studies.

63 of climate information, seasonal climate outlooks, and climate change projections<sup>6</sup> in both annual  
64 and long-term (30–50 year) decision processes is also important in Colorado.

65  
66 This research focuses on six water providers in the Colorado Front Range, an area that extends  
67 about 100 miles along the eastern side of the Rocky Mountains from Fort Collins in the north to  
68 Colorado Springs in the south. Five water providers are affiliated with cities: Aurora Water, the  
69 City of Boulder Water Utility, Colorado Springs Utilities, Denver Water, and the City of  
70 Westminster Water Resources and Treatment Division; the last is a conservancy district:  
71 Northern Colorado Water Conservancy District (Northern Water)<sup>7</sup>. We chose these water  
72 management agencies based on their size and the proportion of the total Colorado population  
73 they serve (Table 1). Together, these organizations provide water to about 60% of Colorado’s  
74 population.

75  
76 This study sought to identify the uses and needs for climate information, outlooks and  
77 projections among the six large water providers in Colorado and to evaluate the factors affecting  
78 their annual and long-term decisions. Our study period started after the severe drought in 2002  
79 which caused water managers to rethink their long-term supply plans. We evaluated how the  
80 drought affected and possibly changed water management decisions and highlighted why  
81 Colorado is unique in terms of water management challenges and adaptation to climate.

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<sup>6</sup> *Climate change projections* are the output from General Circulation Models (GCMs) that provide climate scenarios for 50–100+ years in the future at the scale of large areas (300km grids).

<sup>7</sup> Northern Water, Colorado’s first water conservancy district, provides water for agricultural, municipal, domestic and industrial uses in northeastern Colorado. Thirty-three towns and cities own shares of Northern’s water, including Boulder.

83 **BACKGROUND**

84 Our study capitalized on an ongoing iterative process of communication and education between  
85 WWA and municipal water managers in Colorado that was already in place when this study  
86 began. WWA began in 1999, as the third of ten Regional Integrated Sciences and Assessments  
87 (RISAs) now funded by NOAA. The WWA was established with the purpose of identifying  
88 regional vulnerabilities to climate variability and change and the goal of developing products that  
89 will help water managers in the Intermountain West (Colorado, Wyoming, and Utah) adapt to  
90 this change. Through research, education and communication efforts over the last decade, WWA  
91 fostered relationships between water managers and scientists in order to educate the water  
92 managers about available climate information and forecasts and to help NOAA develop climate  
93 products useful to water managers (<http://wwa.colorado.edu>).

94  
95 The State of Colorado developed a means to disseminate information on drought conditions with  
96 the establishment of the Water Availability Task Force (WATF) in 1981. Since then, WATF  
97 meetings have been held at least three times per year, and monthly in times of drought. At the  
98 WATF meeting, representatives from the State Climatologist's Office, the Natural Resources  
99 Conservation Service (NRCS), the State Engineer's Office, Reclamation, and NOAA provide  
100 information on observations and forecasts of water supply, snowpack, precipitation, and  
101 streamflows. Scientists affiliated with WWA are also involved with the WATF, typically  
102 presenting seasonal climate outlooks and contributing to assessments of drought conditions.  
103 Drought conditions in Colorado began in 2000 and intensified in 2002. This study documents  
104 that water providers' interest in climate outlooks, projections, and other climate information  
105 increased after that turning point. Prior to the 2002 drought, representatives from water

106 providers did not regularly attend the WATF meetings, with attendees primarily from State and  
107 Federal agencies. Water managers began regularly attending the WATF during the 2002 drought  
108 (Figure 1), and the WATF is now an important source of climate and water supply information  
109 for the six Colorado Front Range water providers included in this study.

110  
111 The majority of annual water supplies in Colorado come from spring runoff of snowpack, which  
112 represents between 50–70% of annual precipitation in the mountainous regions of the state  
113 (Hunter et al. 2006; Serreze et al. 1999). The IPCC (2007b) defines sensitivity as “the degree to  
114 which a system is affected, either adversely or beneficially, by climate variability or change.”  
115 We define the sensitivity of water supplies to climate variability as the “impact of natural  
116 variability of streamflows on annual water availability.” Thus, while sensitivity to climate  
117 variability can be hard to quantify, most water supplies in Colorado are inherently sensitive to  
118 climate variability due to variations in winter snowpack that dominates water supplies, recent  
119 and anticipated population growth, and fully appropriated rivers (Nichols and Kenney 2003).  
120 Water managers have used current and historic climate information and streamflow forecasts<sup>8</sup> to  
121 prepare for interannual variability in supplies.

122  
123 Colorado water providers rely on reservoirs to store spring runoff and insure an adequate water  
124 supply all year long. Thus water availability is based on both the quantity of water in the streams  
125 and aquifers and on the ability to divert, store and use that water. The water management  
126 community distinguishes between water *supplies* in the streams and rivers and water that is  
127 *available* to divert and use. Water *supply* is water in all states of the hydrologic cycle (except

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<sup>8</sup> *Streamflow forecasts* are distinct from climate outlooks because they are projections of a unique parameter that is influenced by climate variables like temperature and precipitation.

128 water vapor): rain, snow, streamflows, soil moisture and groundwater. *Water availability*  
129 includes only the fraction of water supply that is accessible and sufficient to meet demands.  
130 Thus each water provider has a different water availability based on water rights and storage  
131 potential (Table 1). Whereas there are three common definitions of drought (meteorological,  
132 hydrological, and agricultural) (Pielke et al. 2005), the water management definition of drought  
133 is when water availability is not sufficient to meet demand (without enforcing water use  
134 restrictions) on an annual basis. A water provider whose annual water availability is more  
135 sensitive to climate variability relative to other providers is more vulnerable to water shortages  
136 and drought. The water providers in this study represent a range of sensitivities and abilities to  
137 meet demand in times of water shortages.

138  
139 The variability and timing of precipitation in water supply basins, water rights priorities, and the  
140 ratio of average storage to annual demand affect the sensitivity of water supplies to climate  
141 variability. Most rivers in Colorado are dependent on runoff from spring snowmelt in the  
142 mountains for much of their streamflow. The degree to which a stream experiences large  
143 seasonal variability increases toward the Continental Divide. In addition, the topography and  
144 elevation in Colorado contribute to variations in winter snowfall and resulting annual water  
145 supplies across the different river basins (Ray et al. 2008). For example, a water provider who  
146 only has water supplies on the west side of the Continental Divide may be more sensitive to  
147 water supply shortages than a water provider that has supplies on both the east and west sides of  
148 the divide. This provider may be more vulnerable to drought when a water supply shortage or a  
149 call for water from a senior water right affects the west side, whereas a provider with supplies on

150 both sides of the Continental Divide may be able to make up for shortages on one side with  
151 supplies on the other.

152  
153 Water rights administration also affects annual water availability for cities because available  
154 streamflow is allocated to Colorado water users in order of seniority of water rights.. Most rivers  
155 in Colorado are fully appropriated, meaning sufficient water rights exist to claim all available  
156 streamflow during all but the very wettest periods. New water rights are only be able to take  
157 water in years that anomalously high snowfall in the mountains results in high spring runoff or  
158 during extraordinarily large rainstorms.

159  
160 Most Colorado river basins experience a high degree of annual variability. Water systems across  
161 the state adjust to annual variability through use of reservoir storage to carry over water from wet  
162 years to dry years. Water providers that hold relatively senior water rights will be able to  
163 continue diverting during years with reduced streamflow and are not as dependent on reservoir  
164 storage as those with more junior water rights. A provider with a 1:1 ratio of reservoir storage to  
165 annual demand and no ownership of senior direct flow water rights might have a higher  
166 sensitivity to climate variability than a provider whose storage ratio is 2:1. One year of below  
167 average water supply may cause a significant drawdown of reservoirs in Westminster (1:1 ratio),  
168 while Aurora (~4:1) will be able to carry much more water over from one dry year into another  
169 because it can supply more than one year's worth of demand with water stored in its reservoirs  
170 (Table 1). However, Westminster's senior water rights enable diversions even in a dry year,  
171 while Aurora has more junior water rights, which it must offset with additional reservoir storage  
172 space to maintain a reliable supply.

173

174 In summary, Water managers in the Front Range of Colorado face many challenges in annual  
175 operating decisions as they plan ahead several decades to ensure water supply reliability. Their  
176 water supplies are inherently sensitive to climate, and a growing population means that they will  
177 continue to be vulnerable to droughts that decrease their annual water availability. In this study,  
178 we were able to use established connections between WWA and these water managers in order  
179 to observe their interest in climate information and ask them detailed questions about their  
180 decision processes and uses of climate products.

181

## 182 **METHODS**

183 This research was conducted between 2004 and 2009 using an ‘interactive model’ (Lemos &  
184 Morehouse 2005), which strives to facilitate ongoing relationships between researchers and  
185 stakeholders to achieve flows of information in both directions. The goal of the interactive  
186 model is to produce usable science, which requires stakeholder interactions and  
187 interdisciplinarity. According to Lemos and Morehouse, interdisciplinarity involves “scientists  
188 from different disciplines working together to tackle problems whose solutions cannot be  
189 achieved by any single discipline” (2005, p.62). The multi-disciplinary WWA umbrella  
190 comprises scientists from social sciences (policy, law, and economics) and physical sciences  
191 (atmospheric dynamics, climatology, geology, and hydrology). Our research structure was  
192 guided by the explicit needs of the stakeholders (water managers) so that the results will meet  
193 their informational needs. By understanding the uses and needs for climate information, outlooks  
194 and projections, information providers (e.g. NOAA) can produce more useful climate products  
195 and services.

196  
197 Through out the study period, we interacted with several water managers from each of the six  
198 providers in interviews, meetings and workshops, as well as published accounts about this area  
199 (Klein et al. 2007; Kenney et al. 2004; Kenney et al. 2008; Klein & Kenney, 2005). These water  
200 managers have expertise in annual and long-term operations and management, supply planning  
201 and modeling, and demand management/conservation (Table 2). The interviews conducted  
202 specifically for this research took place between 2006 and 2007, although the study involved  
203 discussions at meetings and workshops with water providers over a five year period. In addition,  
204 since 2004 these providers have received a WWA publication, the *Intermountain West Climate*  
205 *Summary* eight times per year, which is partly intended to increase climate literacy. This  
206 publication provided annotated maps of current and forecasted climate conditions including  
207 streamflows and snowpack and other information to educate on climate. The goal of these  
208 efforts – workshops and the Summary – has been to improve water managers’ climate literacy so  
209 they can better understand the sensitivity of their water supplies to climate variability and change  
210 and take advantage of the climate information, outlooks and projections from NOAA, NRCS and  
211 other climate information providers.

212  
213 We synthesized information from the interviews, evaluations of public documents, and informal  
214 communications at meetings and workshops. The information obtained from water managers  
215 can be grouped into three categories: perception of risk, decision processes, and climate literacy,  
216 defined as their knowledge of the climate system and the impact of climate variability on water  
217 availability relative to annual operating decisions and long-term plans (Niepold et al. 2008). We  
218 wanted to understand perceptions of individual water managers because decision makers

219 combine personal and subjective assessment of their systems' adaptability and vulnerability to  
220 climate variability or change with objective evidence (Ray 2004). Their perceptions includes  
221 opinions on the vulnerability of a water supply system to shortages due to climate variability, as  
222 well as the skill of climate outlooks and projections. During interviews, we asked questions  
223 about experiences with climate and weather events and using climate information to deal with  
224 those events (Appendix). During discussions at meetings and workshops, we assessed how  
225 water managers perceive climate variability and change, and how these perceptions differed  
226 among individual water managers. In particular, we wanted to know how water managers  
227 perceive that their vulnerability to water shortage might change with possible future climate  
228 change and how the 2002 drought influenced these perceptions.

229

230 We followed the policy sciences framework as described by Lasswell (1956) to assess how water  
231 managers use climate information to deal with the effects of climate variability on their water  
232 supplies. We identified points in both annual and long-term decision processes where climate  
233 information, outlooks, and projections either help or could potentially help water managers make  
234 decisions about water availability or demand management. First, we evaluated planning and  
235 policy documents, and city council meeting minutes to identify annual and long-term projections,  
236 operations, and plans (Table 3). We then used open-ended interviews based on a set of questions  
237 to speak with water managers at, or consultants for, each of the six providers (Appendix).

238 Through these interviews, we gathered specific information about operational and planning  
239 models, decision processes, projections, and the uses and needs for climate information. We  
240 interviewed people responsible for different parts of the planning process, and identified times  
241 when climate information was currently being used and where it potentially could be used to

242 help increase the reliability of the water supply system to make better decisions, both during the  
243 drought in 2002 and after.

244

245 Finally, we used an institutional analysis framework (Ray 2004; Ingram et al. 1984) to identify  
246 factors that affect the use of climate information and forecasts in annual and long-term decisions,  
247 including perception of risk, the drought of 2002, and interest in climate variability and change.

248 By hosting meetings and workshops, WWA was actively trying to improve the climate literacy  
249 of water managers through the study period, and we analyzed how these interactions affected the  
250 water managers' use of climate information, outlooks and projections.

251

## 252 **RESULTS & DISCUSSION**

253 Our analysis shows that water managers in these six agencies now use climate information in  
254 both annual operating decisions and long-term (30–50 year) planning (see Table 4, which  
255 provides the source of all subsequent results except where noted). The results show that water  
256 providers' current interest in climate information, outlooks and projections was instigated after a  
257 severe drought, which elevated their perception of risk. These water managers use current and  
258 historic climate data in quantitative annual and long-term water availability and demand models,  
259 but they use climate outlooks only qualitatively in non-quantitative annual supply and demand  
260 projections (Table 5). They are working to figure out how to incorporate climate change  
261 projections in quantitative long-term supply reliability models. Since the drought of 2002, which  
262 caused water supply shortages across Colorado and the need for water use restrictions (Table 4;  
263 Pielke et al. 2005; Kenney et al. 2004), the six water managers have increased their use of  
264 climate information and projections and their climate literacy (Figure 1). They also have

265 expressed an interest in additional climate education on the climate system, natural variability,  
266 and the skill and methodology of climate and streamflow forecasts (Table 6).

267  
268 “Perception of risk” is the way a water manager understands the sensitivity of water availability  
269 to climate variability and the provider’s vulnerability to drought. Water managers in this study  
270 indicated that they use information gained from their own experiences, anxieties about the  
271 uncertainty of the future, and media coverage of climate to define the risk their water supply  
272 systems face to the threat of changing climate variability. Water managers combine objective  
273 evidence, prior experiences and a subjective assessment of their systems’ vulnerability to climate  
274 variability or change to make both annual and long-term decisions. This includes perceptions  
275 about the influence of climate on water supplies or about the skill of climate outlooks. The  
276 climate system is not fully understood and confidence among scientists in the ability of GCMs to  
277 predict future hydrologic conditions is low (IPCC 2007a), so water managers cannot assess  
278 future vulnerabilities to drought. Many scholars have found that a decision maker’s perception of  
279 risk is just as important in the crafting of climate-related policy as the results of a quantitative  
280 risk assessment (Slovic 1987; Dessai et al. 2004; Grothmann & Patt, 2005; Leiserowitz 2005,  
281 2006).

282

### 283 **Annual Versus Long-Term Climate Information**

284 Water managers in Colorado make decisions about water availability and demand to address  
285 annual operating decisions and planning for long-term system reliability. Annual operating  
286 decisions include consideration of the number of years associated with the longest drought  
287 period contained in the operating criteria or historic record of the water provider. The time frame

288 encompassed in annual operating decisions will vary from one water provider to another based  
289 on the seniority of the provider's water rights and the degree to which its water system reliability  
290 depends on carry-over of reservoir storage from wet years to dry years. The annual operating  
291 decisions ensure a sufficient supply each year for the demands of people, business, industry, or in  
292 Northern Water's case, agriculture, throughout a period that might correspond to the number of  
293 years expected to be encompassed in a typical dry period. Inputs into these decisions include  
294 reservoir storage levels, tunnel and pipeline operations, water treatment, water source selection,  
295 and water distribution. Water managers in Colorado are accustomed to dealing with highly  
296 variable annual streamflows and have a level of confidence in the ability of water systems to  
297 perform as designed based on historic long-term averages. The water managers have an interest  
298 in interannual and shorter-term conditions to manage water systems for the expected dry periods  
299 for which they were designed. During the winter, water managers look at the accumulation of  
300 snow in the mountains and estimate how much runoff will be available to divert into reservoirs  
301 during the spring and summer. To make annual water availability projections, they use  
302 snowpack data from the NRCS SNOTEL gauges throughout the winter, and spring/summer  
303 streamflow forecasts from NRCS and the National Weather Service Colorado Basin River  
304 Forecast Center (CBRFC). This information is used to estimate annual water supplies, and  
305 quantitatively in annual operations models, which incorporate streamflow forecasts and historic  
306 water rights administration to project water availability for reservoir operations.

307  
308 Long-term decisions or plans involve estimating future population growth and water demands  
309 and securing adequate water supplies to meet additional demands. Securing new supplies  
310 enables water providers to take additional water from the streams and rivers, and these may

311 include building new reservoirs and conveyance systems and purchasing existing water rights.  
312 These efforts take many decades to accomplish, so water managers typically plan ahead 30–50  
313 years. As discussed below, long-term decision-making is increasingly incorporating information  
314 on long-term climate variability and climate change.

315  
316 Water managers' perception of risk and the climate factors they consider are different for annual  
317 operating decisions and long-term planning. Even though the risk of drought is renewed every  
318 year, one year of below average supplies may be mitigated by use of water stored from a  
319 previous wetter year or overcome by enforcing water use restrictions or other demand  
320 management strategies. The availability of supplies in one year may affect supplies in following  
321 years because water managers use reservoir storage to even fluctuations between wetter and drier  
322 years. A drought year could be followed by another drought year, a year of abundant supplies, or  
323 an average year. Therefore, the risk of annual shortages changes every year and it can improve or  
324 decrease each year depending on the extent to which a particular water system can accommodate  
325 the fluctuations of the previous few years. Long-term risk of drought is more enduring because  
326 if water providers do not prepare adequately for future demands or climate conditions, they will  
327 not be able to compensate quickly, resulting in longer periods of water shortages that deplete  
328 reservoir reserves and cannot be overcome with demand management policies. The water  
329 managers in this study have a longer history of using climate outlooks for annual operating  
330 decisions than of using climate projections for long-term planning. From their perspective, the  
331 likelihood of a single year deviating from the historic average in the short-term can be relatively  
332 well-defined whereas significant uncertainty exists regarding the degree to which the climate  
333 may vary from the average in the future.

334

335 **Use of Climate Information, Outlooks and Projections in Annual Operating Decision**

336

**Before 2002**

337 NOAA climate scientists within WWA began interacting with water managers in the Colorado  
338 Front Range in 1997(Table 4),, providing forecasts of the El Niño event with meetings and  
339 informational packets. At that time, water providers were looking at historic gauge records of  
340 streamflows in their water supply basins to get an idea of the potential variability of their annual  
341 water supplies. Several providers regularly looked at the U.S. Drought Monitor, monitored U.S.  
342 Geological Survey streamflow gauges, and used winter and spring/summer streamflow forecasts  
343 from the NRCS and the CBRFC (Table 4).

344

345 **Use of Climate Information, Outlooks and Projections in Long-term Planning Before 2002**

346 For long-term planning, most water providers relied on the design basis for which the greatest  
347 amount of reliable data existed by assuming that future water supply variability would be like the  
348 historic record of streamflows. Prior to the 1990s, only two of the water providers (Denver and  
349 Northern Water) actively investigating use of paleo-reconstructed streamflows (Table 4), which  
350 provide information on the range of natural variability of drought in the past that were longer or  
351 more severe than any experienced in the 100+ years of the historic record. Between water years  
352 1997 and 2000, water supplies were average or above average (McKee et al. 1999; Colorado  
353 Division of Water Resources 1997-2000), and WWA found that most water managers did not  
354 look at seasonal climate outlooks or climate change projections, instead they used historic  
355 streamflows and current water supply/snowpack data to assess their annual vulnerability to  
356 drought (Lewis 2003).

357

358 **Use of Climate Information, Outlooks, and Projections in Annual Operating Decisions**

359

**After 2002**

360 Beginning in 2002, all six water providers indicated that they increased their use of climate  
361 information, outlooks, and projections in both annual operations and long-term planning  
362 decisions relative to the time period before the drought. To calculate annual water demand, these  
363 water managers previously used historic data on water use per capita, accounting for any new or  
364 anticipated development. However, because at least 50% of municipal annual water use is for  
365 outdoor lawn irrigation (Mayer et al. 1999), several providers have attempted to account for the  
366 impact of climate on water demand. Beginning in or after 2002, all six water managers started  
367 looking at seasonal climate outlooks issued monthly by NOAA/CPC and regional experimental  
368 seasonal guidance products from WWA to qualitatively anticipate above average summer  
369 demand. Summer demand information is especially important during years of below average  
370 snowpack and/or below average streamflow projections. These water managers also look at  
371 seasonal climate outlooks to anticipate times of low water supply, but this is only a qualitative  
372 use and they do not input any climate forecast information into models.

373

374 The four reasons given by the six study participants for not using climate outlooks quantitatively  
375 are consistent with previous studies (Callahan et al. 1999; Carter & Morehouse 2003; Gamble et  
376 al. 2003; Hartmann et al. 2002; Pagano et al. 2001, 2002; Rayner et al. 2005; Steinemann 2006).  
377 First, climate outlooks do not provide information on the appropriate scale. Climate outlooks are  
378 for climate divisions, not river basins or watersheds, which is the scale water managers use for  
379 streamflow forecasts. Second, climate outlooks provide information about temperature and

380 precipitation, not streamflows. As of 2009, these water managers are not using water system  
381 operational models that can convert temperature and precipitation into streamflows. Operational  
382 water system models are typically constructed to use streamflow data and would need to be  
383 modified to bring in temperature and precipitation data, adequately correlate these data to  
384 historic streamflow data and reliably project future streamflow. Third, verification information  
385 about climate outlooks does not meet their needs. Many water managers do not understand skill  
386 scores or know the difference between skill and accuracy<sup>9</sup> (Table 6). Finally, water managers  
387 take the consistent above average temperature and EC (“equal chances”) precipitation forecasts  
388 for the Intermountain West Region<sup>10</sup> (Livezey & Timofeyeva 2008) to mean there are no  
389 forecasted anomalies. Despite these limitations, water managers look at and discuss seasonal  
390 outlook, and incorporate them into “mental models,” which combine objective evidence of  
391 current snowpack and streamflow conditions with a subjective assessment of their systems’  
392 reliability (Table 4).

393

#### 394 **Use of Climate Information, Outlooks and Projections in Long-term Planning After 2002**

395 Most providers are planning ahead to 2030 and/or 2050 (Table 4). Such long-term planning  
396 involves ensuring system reliability as the water demand and population grow, which  
397 traditionally means acquiring additional water supplies. The amount of new water supplies  
398 needed is based on how much water demand and population are anticipated to grow. Cities like  
399 Aurora and Colorado Springs that have a lot of physical room to expand would need to acquire

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<sup>9</sup> *Accuracy* is the degree to which the forecast corresponds to what actually happened, and *skill* is the degree to which the forecast did better than a reference forecast (i.e. climatology) (Wilks 1995).

<sup>10</sup> According to the Forecast Evaluation Tool, a precipitation forecast was only made 1/4 to 1/3 of time for the winter (snow fall) months (<http://fet.hwr.arizona.edu/ForecastEvaluationTool/>).

400 more water than providers in Denver and Westminster that are physically blocked from  
401 expanding by the surrounding suburbs. Northern Water, while not physically expanding, will  
402 need to acquire more water to supply cities that are continuing grow. Assuming continued  
403 population growth, the annual water demand of all the water providers in this study will continue  
404 to increase in the next 20–40 years (Table 4).

405  
406 All six water providers use supply reliability models to evaluate historic water supplies against  
407 future demands and ensure a reliable water supply under a range of climate conditions (Table 4).  
408 These models project future water demands onto the instrumental record of streamflows and  
409 reservoir storage, which includes the range of climate variability from the recent past. All the  
410 water managers in this study are interested in using paleo-reconstructed streamflows created  
411 from tree-rings to increase the range of climate variability in their long-term models because  
412 these reconstructions include longer and more severe droughts than indicated by the instrumental  
413 record (Woodhouse & Lukas 2006). Since 2002, all six providers have expressed an interest in  
414 integrate paleo-reconstructions of streamflows into their planning. Several providers already  
415 have or are trying to incorporate paleo-reconstructed streamflows into their models, but this has  
416 proved difficult due to differing timescales: the reconstructed streamflows are for annual flows  
417 and the models require weekly or monthly values (Table 4).

418

#### 419 **Before and After the 2002 Drought**

420 Interest in and understanding of climate by water managers has increased through the study  
421 period (Table 4). Beginning in 1998 and continuing through the study period, the water  
422 managers in this study have attended many workshops and meetings co-organized by NOAA and

423 WWA. These workshops had two purposes: 1) to both educate water managers on topics such as  
424 seasonal forecasting, climate variability and change, paleo reconstructions of streamflows,  
425 forecast verification, and climate change modeling, and 2) to improve climate scientists'  
426 understanding of water system operations decision making as part of a process to identify  
427 opportunities for new climate information to meet the needs of water managers (Figure 1). Most  
428 of these workshops occurred after the 2002 drought in parallel with a renewed interest in the  
429 WATF. During the 2002 drought WWA conducted “rapid-response” efforts to inform and  
430 educate water managers including regularly updating summaries of current climate information  
431 and outlooks. These summaries were distributed as information sheets at stakeholder meetings  
432 such as the WATF and discussions within conference calls.

433  
434 With their improved climate literacy, water managers in the Front Range of Colorado have  
435 started to use climate information, outlooks and projections in new ways as well as to fund  
436 research to develop more useful climate products (Figure 1).. Boulder, Denver, Northern and  
437 Westminster now incorporate tree ring reconstructed streamflows into long-term supply  
438 reliability models in order to extend the range of historic climate variability. In Boulder, formal  
439 drought plans use climate related variables like snowpack and projected reservoir storage to  
440 “trigger” different stages of drought and associated water use restrictions. This approach allows  
441 water managers to ensure that demand will not exceed supply if water shortages are expected  
442 (Table 4). Water managers also want to understand the skill of forecasts, including seasonal  
443 climate outlooks, streamflow forecasts, and long-term climate change projections. To do this  
444 they need to understand both forecast methodology and verification techniques. In February

445 2008, WWA co-hosted a workshop about streamflow forecast verification with NWS and NRCS  
446 to meet this need by regional water managers.

447  
448 For long-term planning, providers are beginning to pay close attention to climate change  
449 projections and are trying to incorporate them into long-term supply reliability models. Since  
450 2006, both Aurora Water and Denver Water have hired climate change scientists to specifically  
451 address this issue. Boulder has worked with two private companies, Stratus Consulting and  
452 AMEC, to complete a study of the potential effects of climate change on its water supplies that  
453 was partially funded by NOAA. Water managers in Colorado are working together to use  
454 climate information in water supply planning. Collaboration among water providers on water  
455 supply planning and climate is unprecedented in Colorado. Since 2007, a project funded by  
456 WWA, AMEC, and four Front Range cities (Aurora, Boulder, Colorado Springs, and Denver)  
457 are developing a model that uses climate variables to find analogue years of streamflows and to  
458 create ensemble forecasts of management variables like reservoir storage. In 2008, Boulder  
459 completed a climate change study that used climate change projections to assess the long-term  
460 variability of Boulder's water supplies. Also in 2008, water managers from six providers  
461 (Aurora, Boulder, Fort Collins, Colorado Springs, Denver, and Northern) began funding the Joint  
462 Front Range Climate Change Vulnerability Study on the impact of climate change on the water  
463 resources in Colorado. This study will use downscaled projections of changes in temperature  
464 and precipitation from GCMs in regional hydrologic models (Table 4).

465

466 **Two-way Flow of Information Between Decision Makers and Climate Information**

467 **Providers**

468 Throughout the study period as interactions with climate information providers has helped  
469 improve climate literacy among water managers (Figure 1), we have seen how the water  
470 managers have also informed climate sciences on needs for additional research. The water  
471 managers in this study have specific needs for climate information, outlooks and projections, and  
472 they had insightful suggestions about different or additional information needs. The bottom half  
473 of Table 5 shows specific types of climate outlooks, projections and streamflow forecasts that  
474 water managers would like to that are currently not available or not skillful enough. Table 6  
475 contains specific ideas for climate education, data and services that water managers would like  
476 the climate science community to provide. These results are consistent with a recent federal  
477 interagency perspective on climate change and water resource management (Brekke et al 2009).

478  
479 Water managers have an interest in climate information and a better understanding of climate  
480 systems than the average public due to the nature of their work. An increased understanding of  
481 the availability and utility of climate information and natural variability will help water managers  
482 comprehend and use climate information as well as place anomalous years in a historical  
483 perspective. For annual operating decisions, water managers would like streamflow forecasts for  
484 the South Platte and Arkansas Rivers similar to what is available for the Colorado River. They  
485 need a better understanding of the connections among snowpack, soil moisture, other climate  
486 variables like temperature, and streamflows and recommend research in these areas which would  
487 enable more accurate and possibly earlier streamflow forecasts. Also needed are more skillful  
488 spring and summer streamflow forecasts and precipitation outlooks at lead times in the fall in  
489 order to give water managers an earlier assessment of water availability for the following year  
490 and allow them to plan for water use restrictions if necessary.

491  
492 For long-term planning, water managers want to learn more about the difference between natural  
493 variability and climate change projections, especially as climate change projections translate into  
494 streamflows. They want to know how climate change may affect the timing and volume of  
495 streamflows and water rights administration in the future. In addition to education efforts, a  
496 research priority should be to quantify the relationship among weather variables (snowpack, soil  
497 moisture, temperature, and precipitation) and streamflow in order to increase the accuracy of  
498 seasonal streamflow forecasts. The Natural Resources Conservation Service in Utah has already  
499 begun this kind of research (Julander & Perkins 2004), and water managers are willing to fund  
500 the installation of new soil moisture sensors. Finally, the water managers in this study supported  
501 increased monitoring of precipitation by expanding the SNOTEL observation network because a  
502 more accurate understanding of current climate will lead to a better understanding of possible  
503 changes that are occurring and are projected to occur.

504

## 505 **CONCLUSION**

506 Water managers in the Colorado Front Range use a variety of climate information, outlooks and  
507 projections in annual operating decisions and long-term plans. In general, the water managers in  
508 this study use climate information quantitatively in annual operating decisions and long-term  
509 decision models, use seasonal climate outlooks qualitatively in annual operating decisions, and  
510 are beginning to use climate change projections to assess future vulnerability to drought. They  
511 look at seasonal climate outlooks and climate change projections, but for the most part they do  
512 not use them quantitatively due to inadequate skill, spatial and temporal scales, or lack of  
513 variables (i.e. monthly streamflows) that they need for input to their models. Throughout the

514 study period, we observed an increased interest in climate information, outlooks and projections  
515 as the water managers improved their climate literacy. Water managers are now able to  
516 articulate the specific kinds of climate information, outlooks and projections they need in order  
517 to increase their ability to quantitatively use these climate products in their annual operations and  
518 long-term decision models. Thus, climate professionals have a better understanding of the  
519 factors affecting management of water systems and the types of climate information that may be  
520 useful in supporting water manager decision-making.

521  
522 We attribute this increased interest in climate and a desire to improve one's climate literacy to an  
523 elevated in perception of risk that occurred as a result of the severe drought in 2002. 2002  
524 appears to be a focusing event (Birkland 1998; Pulwarty et al. 2005) where water managers'  
525 perception of risk shifted as they realized that their water supply systems may not be reliable if  
526 they only plan for droughts in the historic record. This experience increased water managers'  
527 anxiety over a possible future where water shortages may occur with a different pattern or  
528 frequency than they did in the past. Thereafter they sought out new climate information and  
529 education leading to improved climate literacy and increased use of climate products. Despite  
530 concerns with climate outlooks and projections, water managers across the Front Range of  
531 Colorado want to learn how they can increase their use of climate outlooks and projections to  
532 make their systems more reliable in the face of possible changing climate variability.

533  
534 The interactions between WWA and water managers before and throughout this critical time of  
535 shifting perceptions helped foster these changes. Scientists and climate information providers  
536 helped elevate water managers' perception of risk by increasing climate education efforts

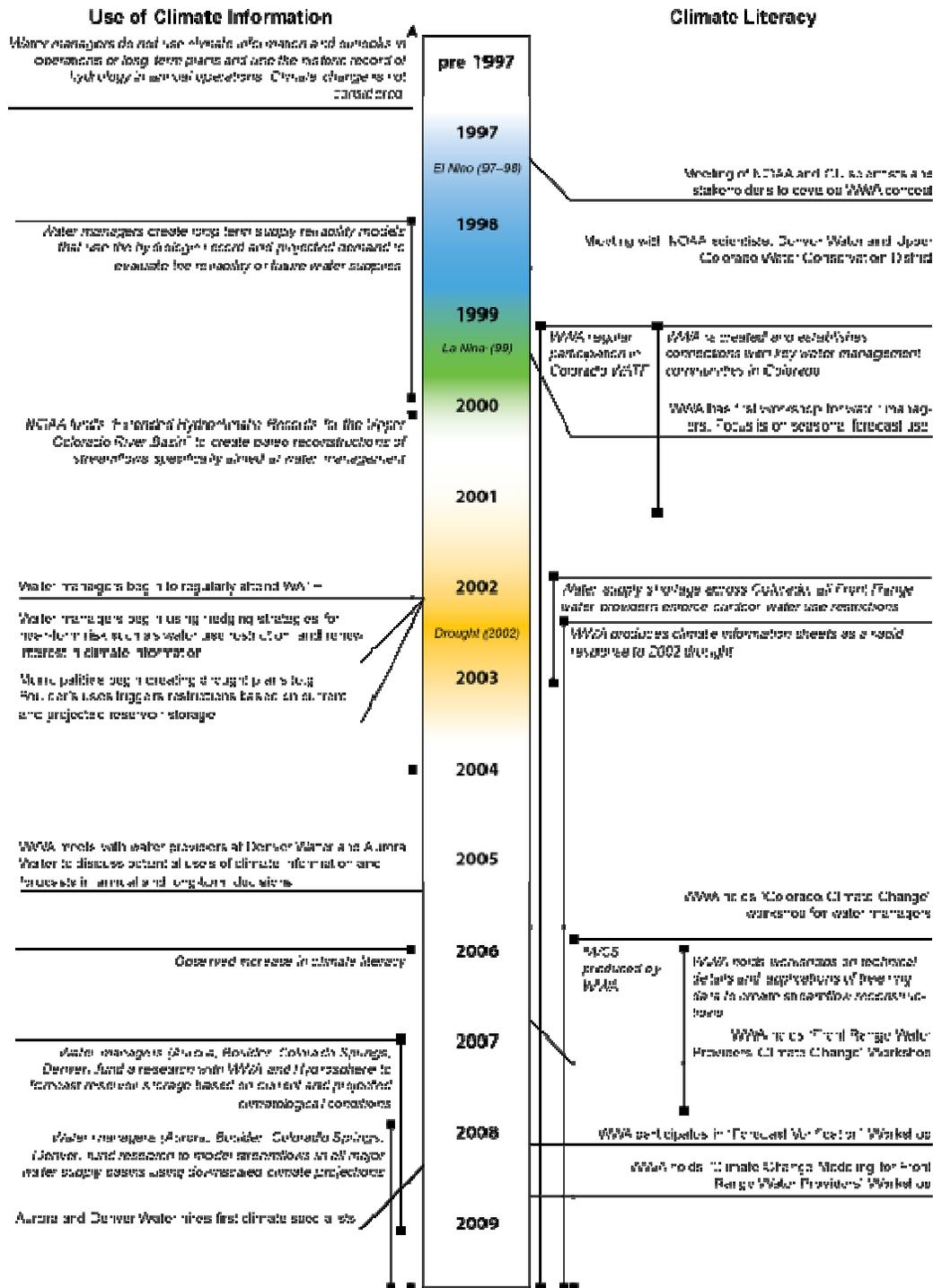
537 through workshops, meetings, and publications specifically developed for water resource  
538 decision makers. Improved climate literacy enabled water managers to understand the benefits  
539 of using climate information and forecasts in annual and long-term decisions. Another outcome  
540 was an improved understanding by climate specialists of the operational factors affecting water  
541 managers' decisions such as water rights limitations, sensitivity to seasonal aspects of  
542 precipitation, and the need for translation of temperature and precipitation data into streamflow  
543 data. Our study confirms the value of the co-production of knowledge (Lemos and Morehouse  
544 2005) that results in climate science informing but not prescribing decision making, and  
545 decision-making informing climate science but not prescribing research priorities. Climate  
546 information providers, like the Western Water Assessment and other RISA programs, should  
547 continue and increase these partnership education and outreach efforts. Through regular  
548 communication, we can help water managers increase their understanding of climate systems,  
549 how forecasts are made, and the current limitation of seasonal and longer forecasts. Regular  
550 communication will also improve the understanding climate information providers have of water  
551 system operations and the type and format of climate information of use to water managers.  
552 Armed with that information, water managers and climate professionals will be better suited to  
553 combine their technical expertise on water supply and management with climate information,  
554 outlooks and projections to adapt to a changing climate and increase the reliability of their water  
555 availability and manage demand now and in the future.

556

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563  
 564 **Figure 1.** Time line showing how significant climatological events and interactions with WWA  
 565 helped increase water managers' perception of risk, climate literacy and use of climate  
 566 information and forecasts.  
 567

568 **Table 1.** Table of water providers, population, annual supply, % of total CO population (personal  
 569 communication with water managers throughout the study period).

<b>Provider</b>	<b>Population served</b>	<b>% of Colorado population (2003)</b>	<b>Annual availability/sy stem yield (acre-feet)</b>	<b>Reservoir storage capacity (acre-feet)</b>	<b>Annual demand (acre-feet)</b>	<b>Ratio of storage: demand</b>
Aurora	289,325	6.4%	77,900	156,000	40,186	3.9:1
Boulder	93,051	2.0%	24,000	26,000	24,000	1:1
Colorado Springs	370,448	8.1%	119,000	243,000	80,000	3:1
Denver	1,100,000	24.2%	345,000	673,000	285,000	2.4:1
Northern <sup>a</sup>	750,000	14.4%	312,200	808,700	232,000	3.5:1
Westminster	104,642	2.3%	30,000	22,500	22,000	1:1
	<b>sum</b>	<b>57.5%</b>				

570

571

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<sup>a</sup> Northern Water’s service area includes Boulder and Northern Water’s population served number is inclusive of the same population number served by Boulder. However, the % of Colorado population shown for Northern does not include Boulder.

572 **Table 2.** Communication between researchers and study participants during the study period  
 573 (workshops, interviews, meetings, etc.), includes only agencies and their staff participating in  
 574 this study.

<b>Date</b>	<b>Type of communication: Title</b>	<b>Water management agencies participating</b>	<b>Number of participants</b>	<b>Areas of expertise of participants</b>
August 27, 2004	<i>Presentation:</i> Science-Policy Assessments for Water Resource Managers	Northern Water	~7	annual water supply modeling and annual operations and public relations
January 21, 2005	<i>Meeting:</i> Denver Water and WWA Informational Meeting	Denver Water	7	annual operations and long-term planning management, demand projections/management, long-term water supply projections, annual water supply modeling
February/March 2005	<i>Questionnaire on the</i> Experimental Southwest Climate outlooks	Denver Water, Northern Water	3	annual water supply modeling, long-term planning and modeling
August 25, 2005	<i>Meeting:</i> WWA Demand and Conservation Pre-Meeting with Aurora Water	Aurora Water	1	demand management/conservation
September 8, 2005	<i>Meeting:</i> Aurora Water Demand Meeting	Aurora Water	5	annual operations and long-term planning management, public relations, horticulture, demand management/conservation, irrigation,
November 22, 2005	<i>Meeting:</i> Denver Water Climate Change Scoping meeting	Denver Water	2	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual water supply modeling, long-term planning and modeling
December 1, 2005	<i>Workshop:</i> Colorado Climate Workshop	Aurora Water, Boulder, Colorado Springs Utilities, Denver Water, Northern Water, Westminster	12	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual water supply modeling, demand management/conservation, long-term planning and modeling
February 9, 2006	<i>Interview</i>	Denver Water	2	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual water supply modeling, long-term planning and modeling

February 24, 2006	<i>Interview</i>	Northern Water	2	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual water supply modeling, long-term planning and modeling
March 3, 2006	<i>Interview</i>	Westminster	4	annual water supply modeling and operations, long-term planning and modeling, demand management/conservation,
June 31, 2006	<i>Interview</i>	Boulder	1 (consultant)	consultant on planning for annual operations and long-term decisions
November 17, 2006	<i>Workshop: Front Range Water Provider Climate Change Workshop</i>	Aurora Water, Boulder, Colorado Springs Utilities, Denver Water, Northern Water	7+	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual water supply modeling, long-term planning and modeling
September 17, 2007	<i>Interview</i>	Aurora Water	9	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual operations and water accounting, demand management/conservation, planning for climate variability, water reuse
October 15, 2007	<i>Interview</i>	Colorado Springs Utilities	2	annual operations and long-term planning management, long-term planning and modeling
February 1, 2008	<i>Workshop: Climate Change Modeling for Front Range Water Providers</i>	Aurora Water, Boulder, Colorado Springs Utilities, Denver Water, Northern Water	10	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual water supply modeling, long-term planning and modeling
February 19, 2008	<i>Workshop: Forecast Verification</i>	Aurora Water, Denver Water, Northern Water, Westminster	9	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual water supply modeling, long-term planning and modeling, conservation
December 2008/January 2009	<i>Email exchanges: Follow-up questions from interviews regarding use of climate information before 1997 and between 1997-2002</i>	Aurora Water, Boulder, Colorado Springs Utilities, Denver Water, Northern Water, Westminster	6	annual operations and long-term planning management, annual water supply modeling, long-term planning and modeling

576 **Table 3.** Public documents from each city that the researchers reviewed for information about  
577 annual and long-term decision processes.  
578

<p><b>Aurora</b> Aurora Water (2007). Water Management Plan, Aurora, CO. Accessed 6 Sep 2007. <a href="http://www.aurora.gov">www.aurora.gov</a> Rocky Mountain News article from 6/18/04 regarding exchanges of Colorado River Basin water with Eagle Park Reservoir Co., accessed from <a href="http://www.rockymountainnews.com/drmn/local/article/0,1299,DRMN_15_2972709,00.html">http://www.rockymountainnews.com/drmn/local/article/0,1299,DRMN_15_2972709,00.html</a> City council meeting minutes (2-7-05) City council meeting minutes (8-8-05) Bureau of Reclamation document asking for comments on the scope of an EA regarding use of excess capacity in Fry-Ark Project (Sept. 2003) Bureau of Rec. Scoping Report regarding use of excess capacity in Fry-Ark Project (March 2004) USBR Great Plains NEPA report website: <a href="http://www.usbr.gov/gp/nepa/quarterly.cfm#ecao">http://www.usbr.gov/gp/nepa/quarterly.cfm#ecao</a> accessed 8/24/05 Aurora Utilities press release, (March 21, 2005) Denver Water “Waterwire” article on Chatfield Reservoir accessed 8/9/04 City council meeting minutes (3-21-05) IGA document (May 2004) and Water Chat article from 5/25/04 accessed 7/29/04 from <a href="http://www.waterchat.com/News/State/04/Q2/state_040528-03.htm">http://www.waterchat.com/News/State/04/Q2/state_040528-03.htm</a> City council meeting minutes (4-25-05) Agenda for a city council study session on 8-8-05</p>
<p><b>Boulder</b> <a href="http://www3.ci.boulder.co.us/publicworks/depts/utilities/water_supply/where.htm444444">http://www3.ci.boulder.co.us/publicworks/depts/utilities/water_supply/where.htm444444</a> accessed 8/6/04 Drought Plan vol 1 and 2, 2003</p>
<p><b>Colorado Springs</b> “March 1st IGA (IGA 2-04.pdf) and Colorado Springs Utilities news release from Feb. 10, 2004 accessed 9/9/05 at <a href="http://www.csu.org/about/news/news/release3798.html">http://www.csu.org/about/news/news/release3798.html</a> C. Springs Utilities Southern Delivery System Fact Sheet (Jan 2004) Southern Delivery System EIS newsletter from USBR (Sept. 2004) <a href="http://www.sdseis.com">www.sdseis.com</a> , accessed 9/13/05 IGA document regarding IGA with City of Aurora, City of Pueblo, Board of Water Works of Pueblo, Southeastern CO WCD, City of Fountain, and Colorado Springs Utilities(May 2004) Water Chat article from 5/25/04 accessed 7/29/04 from <a href="http://www.waterchat.com/News/State/04/Q2/state_040528-03.htm">http://www.waterchat.com/News/State/04/Q2/state_040528-03.htm</a></p>
<p><b>Denver</b> Moffat Final Purpose and Need Statement (April 2004) DW’s Water Watch Report of 11/27/06 Denver Water 2002 Integrated Resource Plan (Feb 2002). Drought Response Plan (June 2004)</p>

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<http://www.ncwcd.org/datareports/snowpack/snowstations.pdf>

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[http://www.ncwcd.org/ims/ims\\_weather\\_form.asp](http://www.ncwcd.org/ims/ims_weather_form.asp), accessed 22 February 2006

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[http://www.ncwcd.org/project\\_features/power.asp](http://www.ncwcd.org/project_features/power.asp), accessed 2/23/06

[http://www.ncwcd.org/hot\\_topic/rentalwater.asp](http://www.ncwcd.org/hot_topic/rentalwater.asp) accessed 2/22/06

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[http://www.ncwcd.org/news\\_information/web\\_news/LatestNews/RPP%20-%20finaldraft.pdf](http://www.ncwcd.org/news_information/web_news/LatestNews/RPP%20-%20finaldraft.pdf), accessed when 5/16/07

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From [http://www.ncwcd.org/project&features/wgp\\_firming.asp](http://www.ncwcd.org/project&features/wgp_firming.asp), accessed 7/20/04

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<http://www.ci.westminster.co.us/res/env/waterquality/Default.htm>, accessed 2/27/2006

580 **Table 4.** Synthesis of information gained from interviews and informal communication with  
 581 water managers in this study between 2004-2009.

<b>How did you use climate information before 1997 El Nino and between 1997 and the 2002 drought?</b>	<i>AW (Aurora Water), B (City of Boulder Water Utility), CSU (Colorado Springs Utilities), DW (Denver Water), NW (Northern Water), WWR (City of Westminster Water Resource and Treatment Division)</i>
When did your organization begin to use the historic gauge streamflow record in your long-term planning models or decisions?	All providers have been using historic streamflow records for as long as they can remember to make subjective decisions about annual and long-term water supplies. More recently, as they have developed models of water rights and water supply systems, they use the stream gauge record in a more quantitative way.
When did your organization begin learning about paleo reconstructions of streamflows, and when did you attempt to incorporate that information into long-term planning decisions?	All providers had looked at paleo reconstructions before 2002, largely because of outreach efforts by local NOAA researchers (Woodhouse). Two providers began to look at paleo reconstructions before Woodhouse's efforts in the 60s/70s/80s (DW, NW). Four are using them in long-term models as of 2009 (B, DW, NW, WWR). The remaining two (AW, CSU) plan to use them in future long-term plans.
When did your organization begin to attend the Water Availability Task Force?	Water providers have fuzzy memories of when they or someone else at their organization began attending WATF, but they all recalled a new or renewed interest during and since the 2002 drought.
When did your organization first begin to look at and use seasonal climate outlooks, the drought monitor, etc	None of the water managers use these products in a quantitative way in their decisions, but they all look at these products for subjective assessments of drought, annual water supplies, and demand. Half began looking at these since 2002 (AW, CSU, NW), one between 1997 and 2002 (B), and two before 1997 (W-80s, DW-mid90s).
When do you recall first learning about Western Water Assessment and/or interacting with us?	Water managers are fuzzy about their first encounters with WWA, but the majority of them are sure it was after 2002 (B says late 1990s).
<b>What annual projections does your organization make?</b>	
Sources of spring runoff or annual streamflows.	Use streamflow forecasts from NRCS/CBRFC and monitor streamflows using own gauges or USGS. DW and NW also make their own projections. DW and WWR also look at NW's projections.
Projections of reservoir storage each year, including estimating the time when your storage reservoirs will fill.	Use streamflow forecasts, water rights, SWE and current reservoir storage to get a qualitative idea. DW and CSU use models that give a more accurate estimate of reservoir storage. Others use data and experience to make projections.
Calculation of annual demand each year and how is it calculated?	Mostly based on average per capita water use, increased when there is new development. WWR calculates future annual water demand based

	on observed water use for land use types. CSU and DW use a model that accounts for temp and precip. NW's projections are based on water availability because their water is supplemental.
Other data sources?	All look at NOAA/CPC seasonal climate outlooks, WWA experimental seasonal forecast guidance and/or medium range precip forecasts, but only use qualitatively. Most read IWCS and/or attend WATF to get more information.
<b>What are your annual operations &amp; planning for these?</b>	
Reservoir and tunnel operations for water supply	All own and operate reservoirs. All operate multiple reservoirs and use transbasin water. AW, CSU, and NW use water from/operate Reclamation trans-mountain projects. B gets their transbasin water from NW and WWR gets transbasin water from DW.
Reservoir operations for hydroelectric power	B, DW and NW produce hydropower from their reservoirs and it is a secondary use of the water. Water is never released just for hydropower. CSU produces hydro-power locally when water is delivered to treatment plants from local and terminal storage reservoirs.
Reservoir releases for endangered species, senior water rights, contracts, exchanges, leases, etc.	All must operate for senior water rights: AW and CSU have a lot of exchanges, WWR has a few. NW, B and WWR have to use bypass flows for senior water users. DW has contracts to provide untreated water to several entities including WWR. DW has endangered species requirements on the Colorado River.
Determining necessity of drought-year operations, including restrictions.	All except NW have drought plans with triggers that use streamflow forecasts, snowpack, reservoir storage and/or projected reservoir storage, to determine necessity of drought restrictions.
<b>What are your long-term projections and plans?</b>	All except B are in the process of acquiring more water or more storage space for water. Several are expanding reuse operations.
How much more water do you expect to need for build out? When do you estimate you will reach build out?	Range of times until build-out. DW, B and WWR are closer. AW and CSU are still growing. NW is only growing because the cities are growing. Most cites plan for 2030, 2050 or both. DW, B, and WWR have a better idea of the specific amounts of water they will need at build-out.
Long-term projections for future annual water demand for treated water, future annual supply availability, and the firm yield of reservoirs based on future supplies.	Projections for demands come from anticipated growth, usually from a Land Use Plan created by a different department with limited or no input from water resources. Projections for supplies: DW, CSU, WWR and B have models that use past hydrology to determine supply reliability under future demands.

<p>Information sources for these projections.</p>	<p>Demand projections from land use plans, supply projections from hydrologic record, internal demand-side mgmt. and conservation planners, and water rights administration</p>
<p>Evaluation of the reliability of future water supply options</p>	<p>Most use hydrologic record and make sure they will be reliable in a 50's drought or at least able to meet necessary demands with the use of restrictions. B uses sophisticated reliability standards, saying how often different types of drought restrictions will be necessary.</p>
<p>Use of tree-ring reconstructions of past streamflows to determine water supply reliability under different drought scenarios</p>	<p>All have looked into it and would like to use it. Their models cannot use data directly because they need weekly or monthly, not annual flows. Water providers are actively pursuing this because they feel more comfortable using reconstructions of the long-term past than uncertain projections of the future to determine if their water supplies will be reliable.</p>
<p><b>Recommendations on how climate forecasts &amp; other products could be improved so you could use them?</b></p>	
<p><b>ANNUAL OPERATIONS</b></p>	<p>Streamflow forecasts for the South Platte and Arkansas Rivers similar to what is available for the Colorado River. Better understanding of the connection between snowpack, soil moisture and streamflows to get more accurate streamflow forecasts; more skillful precip outlooks earlier (forecasts for winter precip in the fall; accurate April 1 snowpack in fall; leading to earlier streamflow forecasts); use of additional variables in streamflow and reservoir forecasts (like Hydrosphere forecasting project for water utilities). For demand, better understanding of relationship between climate variables and demand, then they could use seasonal climate outlooks to know if they will have different than average demand.</p>
<p><b>LONG-TERM PLANNING</b></p>	<p>A better understanding between climate variables (snowpack, temp, soil moisture, etc) and streamflows and demand. Relationship of climate variables and forest conditions. Climate change scenarios turned into hydrologic scenarios (like Joint Front Range Climate Change Vulnerability Project). How climate change will affect water rights and timing of streamflows, as well as volume. A better understanding about natural variability vs. climate change projections. More data on precip (expand SNOTEL network; improve SNODAS).</p>

583 **Table 5.** Information used quantitatively (top two sections) and information not used  
 584 quantitatively (bottom two sections) by water managers in both annual and long-term decisions.

<b>ANNUAL</b>	<b>Information</b>	<b>Source</b>	<b>How used quantitatively</b>	<b>Providers using this</b>
	current snowpack/ SWE from SNOTEL	NRCS	annual water availability: reservoir storage projections	all
	current streamflows	USGS and own gauges	annual water availability: reservoir storage projections & daily reservoir operations	all
	streamflow projections	NWS/CBRFC and NRCS	annual water availability: reservoir storage projections & daily reservoir operations	all, NW also makes own projections
	instrumental record of hydrology	USGS & own reconstructed natural flows	annual water availability: comparing inter-annual variability of supplies	all
<b>LONG-TERM</b>				
	paleo reconstructions of streamflow	NOAA/WWA	long-term supply reliability models: supply projections	all are experimenting with this
	instrumental record of hydrology	USGS & own reconstructed natural flows	long-term supply reliability models: supply projections	all
	historic temp and precip	NOAA/NCDC	long-term supply reliability models: demand projections	CSU and DW
<b>ANNUAL</b>	<b>Information</b>	<b>Source</b>	<b>Why NOT used quantitatively</b>	
	seasonal climate outlooks (summer temp & precip) in the winter	NOAA/CPC & WWA	not skillful enough	
	seasonal streamflow forecasts in the fall based on climate outlooks	NRCS & NWS/CBRFC	not available	
	fall forecasts of winter precip	NOAA/CPC and WWA	not skillful enough	
<b>LONG-TERM</b>				
	climate change scenarios converted into streamflows	IPCC-various GCMs	do not have hydrology models of all basins	
	historic streamflow data expressed as exceedence probabilities		not available	

585 **Table 6.** Water managers' expressed needs for climate data and education, which would help  
586 increase their climate literacy.

<p><b>Availability and utility of climate information and natural variability:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Effect of climate patterns (e.g. ENSO) on regional weather</li><li>• Regional trends in temperature, precipitation, and streamflows; compare anomalous years to natural variability</li><li>• Reoccurrence interval of single- and multi-year droughts and other extremes</li><li>• Regional variability in historic streamflows among river basins (exceedence probabilities); reliability of current or future water rights</li></ul>	<p><b>Climate forecast methodology and skill:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Underlying assumptions and uncertainties of forecast models</li><li>• Sources of forecast and data error</li><li>• Verification methods, including hind casting</li><li>• Types of verification (resolution/sharpness vs. reliability)</li><li>• Skill vs. accuracy</li><li>• Regional patterns of skill</li></ul>
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745 **Appendix: General interview questions**

746 **How did you use climate information before 1997 El Niño and between 1997 and 2002?**

- 747 • When did your organization begin to use the historic gauge streamflow record in your long-  
748 term planning models or decisions?
- 749 • When did your organization begin learning about paleo reconstructions of streamflows, and  
750 when did you attempt to incorporate that information into long-term planning decisions?
- 751 • When did your organization begin to attend the Water Availability Task Force?
- 752 • When did your organization first begin to look at seasonal climate outlooks, the drought  
753 monitor, etc.? If you use these in your decision-making, when first start doing so?
- 754 • When do you recall first learning about Western Water Assessment or interacting with us?  
755

756 **What annual projections does your organization make?**

- 757 • Sources of spring runoff or annual streamflows. Do you generate these in house (if so, how)  
758 or get this information from NRCS, State Engineer's office, or another source?
- 759 • Projections of reservoir storage each year, including estimating the time when your storage  
760 reservoirs will fill.
- 761 • Calculation of annual demand each year (if so, how and inputs), or is annual demand a  
762 constant, and if so how was it arrived at?
- 763 • Other data sources? (e.g. Attend the Colorado Water Availability Task Force meetings  
764 regularly or look at the presentations posted on the website; Read the monthly Intermountain  
765 West Climate Summary that WWA creates.)  
766

767 **What are your annual operations & planning for these?**

- 768 • Reservoir and tunnel operations for water supply
- 769 • Reservoir operations for hydroelectric power
- 770 • Reservoir releases for endangered species, senior water rights, contracts, exchanges, leases,  
771 etc.
- 772 • Determining necessity of drought-year operations, including restrictions. Definition of a  
773 drought (i.e. supplies or projected supplies corresponding to drought stages)? What are your  
774 drought triggers?  
775

776 **What are your long-term projections and plans?**

- 777 • How much more water do you expect to need for build out? When do you estimate you will  
778 reach build out?
- 779 • Long-term projections for future annual water demand for treated water, future annual supply  
780 availability, and the firm yield of reservoirs based on future supplies.
- 781 • Information sources for these projections.
- 782 • How do you evaluate the reliability of future water supply options? (e.g. compare water  
783 demand in the future to climate conditions during the 50's drought.)
- 784 • Have you considered using tree-ring reconstructions of past streamflows to determine your  
785 water supply reliability under different drought scenarios?  
786

787 **Do you have any recommendations on how climate outlooks and other products could be**  
788 **improved so you could use them in annual operations and long-term planning**  
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