Propagation from meteorological to hydrological drought in the Horn of Africa using both standardizedstandardised and threshold-based indices

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Abstract

There have been numerous drought propagation studies in data-rich countries, but not much has been done for datapoor regions (e.g., such as the Horn of Africa ([HOA]]). In tThis study we characteriszes meteorological, soil moisture; and hydrological droughts and the propagation from one to the other for 318 catchments in the HOA to improve the understanding of the spatial variability of the drought hazard. We calculate the Standardized Standardized Precipitation Index ([SPI)], StandardizedStandardised Soil Moisture Index ([SSMI)], and StandardizedStandardised Streamflow Index ([SSI)]. AdditionallyIn addition, we use the variable threshold method to calculate the drought duration of drought below a predefined percentile threshold for precipitation, soil moisture, and discharge. The relationship between meteorological and soil moisture is investigated by finding the SPI accumulation period that has the highest correlation between SPI and SSMI and the relationship between meteorological and hydrological drought is analysed by the SPI accumulation period that has the highest correlation between SPI and SSI time series. Additionally, we calculated these relationships with the ratio between the threshold-based meteorological drought duration and soil moisture drought duration, and the relation between threshold-based meteorological drought duration and streamflow drought duration The relationship between meteorological, soil moisture, and hydrological drought is examined by finding the SPI accumulation period that shows the highest correlation between SPI and vs SSMI, and SPI and vs SSI timeseries. A, and , by calculating the ratio between the threshold-based precipitation drought duration and vs. soil moisture drought duration, respectively meteorological drought duration vs. streamflow drought duration is calculated. Finally, we investigate the influence of climate and catchment characteristics on these propagation metrics. The Regults indicate show that (1) the propagation from SPI to SSMI and the mean drought duration ratio of meteorological precipitation to soil moisture ([P/SM]] mean duration ratio are mainly influenced by soil properties and vegetation, with the short accumulation periods (1-to 4 months) of SPI found in catchments with eroplandarable land, high mean annual precipitation, and low sand and silt content, while longer accumulations (5 to -7 months) are found in catchments with low upstream mean annual precipitationmean annual upstream precipitation, and shrub vegetationation; (2) the propagation from SPI to SSI and precipitation to streamflow duration ratio are highly influenced by the climate and catchment control, i.e., geology, elevation and land-cover, with the short accumulation times in catchments with high annual precipitation, volcanic permeable geology, and cropland, and the longer accumulations in catchments with low annual precipitation, sedimentary rocks and shrubland; and (3) the influence of upstream mean annual precipitationmean annual upstream precipitation is more important for the propagation from SPI to SSI than from SPI to SSMI. Additionally, precipitation accumulation periods of approximately 1 to -4 months in wet western areas of HOA, and of approximately 5 to -7 months in the more dryland regions are found. This can guide forecasting and management efforts as different drought metrics are thus of importance in different regions. which is useful information for management because of their more direct relation to impacts.

1 Introduction

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There are many droughts in the Horn of Africa ([HOA) experiences recurrent droughts] (including the currentongoing multi-year drought), which have and these have severe impacts such as crop losses, livestock deaths and diseases, as well as frequent emergencies, food insecurity, infrastructure damages and high economic costs (IGAD & WFP, 2017). This is especially particularly devastating for the small scaleholder farmers whose livelihoods depends on rain-fed agricultural systems and livestock (IGAD & WFP, 2017).

In Over the past decade, studies have been done conducted in the HOA to understand and characterize extreme events such as droughts. Most of these studies use modelled data due to the lack of observational data in this the region. The lack of observational data, especially on f streamflow river discharge, has led to limited analysis of hydrological drought events. Several of the studies have focused on meteorological and agricultural drought and rather than not hydrological droughts (Agutu et al., 2017, 2020; Anderson et al., 2012; Awange et al., 2016; Belal et al., 2014; Dutra

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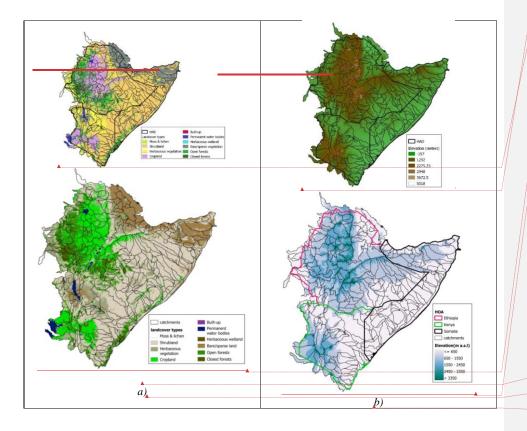
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et al., 2013; Edossa et al., 2010; Gebrechorkos et al., 2020; Haile et al., 2019, 2020; Kurnik et al., 2011; Lyon, 2014; 50 Nicholson, 2014; Rulinda et al., 2012; Tonini et al., 2012) In-T, these studies, drought was have assessed drought **Formatted** based on soil moisture (model and reanalysis), precipitation (satellite-derived based, observed and a combination of both), terrestrial water storage (TWS; through the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment) and normalizzed difference vegetation index (NDVI). Soil moisture and hydrological drought, which greatlyhave a strong impact on agriculture and water use in ecosystems **Formatted** 55 and society, respectively, are considered to have devastating impactseffects in the HOA (Shukla and Wood, 2008; Van Loon, 2015), Therefore, it is paramount critical for water resources management to understand how the drought signal translatestransitions from deviating aberrant meteorological conditions into soil moisture and finally eventually to hydrological drought. This process is referred called to as propagation. Drought propagation is greatlystrongly influenced by climate and catchment characteristics (Barker et al., 2016; Van Loon and Laaha, 2015; Van Loon and 60 Van Lanen, 2012). Therefore Thus, there is also a need to assess the combined effects of climate and catchment characteristics on propagation of droughts propagation also need to be assessed to better understand, for a thorough understanding of the underlying processes of drought development. There are numerous many studies on drought propagation studies in data-rich countries (e.g.i.e., USA, China), but not much has been done for the data-poor regions (e.g.i.e., HOA). In this studyresearch, we define drought as a prolonged period of below-averagenormal water availability. Drought is normally usually classified categorized into three types: meteorological (precipitation deficit), agricultural or soil moisture (soil moisture deficit), and hydrological (abnormally low water levels of in streamflow in rivers, reservoirs, lakes and groundwater) (He et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2019; Van Loon et al., The Drought frequency, severity and duration of drought are important characteristics of drought events, and can be Formatted used to studyinvestigate drought propagation. Many studies have quantified these drought characteristics using standardiszed indices (i.e., Standardiszed Precipitation Index (SPI) (Mckee et al., 1993), Standardiszed Soil Moisture Index ([SSMI]] (Hao and Aghakouchak, 2014), and Standardiszed Streamflow Index ([SSI]] (Huang et al., 2017)). Some studies have also employed used, threshold-based indices to calculate the drought duration and deficit of drought, (as a measure of severity) and to investigate and study drought propagation (Heudorfer and Stahl, 2017; Tallaksen et 75 al., 2009; Van Lanen et al., 2013; Van Loon, 2013; Van Loon et al., 2014; Van Loon and Laaha, 2015). Most of these studies are at the catchment-scale level (Apurv et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2017; Tallaksen et al., 2009) and some at the regional levelseale (Barker et al., 2016; Van Loon, 2013; Van Loon and Laaha, 2015; Xu et al., 2019a). These studies mainlymostly focused on the drought characteristics, identifying with some characteristics features associated with related to lagging, attenuation, lengthening and pooling recognized. What is stillremains unclear fromin these studies is how the propagation of drought from meteorological precipitation to soil moisture is drought related s to climate and catchment characteristics. MoreoverFurthermore, the two approaches to characterized drought characterisation differ in that the standardized standardised indices do noteannot provide information on drought deficit volumes but can be used across different geographical regions, unlike the as opposed to variable threshold-based method which preserves the hydrological values but cannot be used across different geographical regions. These methods may canthus provide 85 different information if when used for spatial analysis of drought propagation. Many studies have used statistical methods to assess the drought propagation and relate themis to climate and catchment characteristics. Some of the studies provide an indication of which variables to should be included in an **Formatted** analysis of drought propagation analysis in the HOA, such as geology, landcover, mean annual mean precipitation and seasonal characteristics. For example, Barker et al. (2016) have characteriszed meteorological and hydrological droughts and their propagation in the UK. The relationship between meteorological and hydrological drought was assessed by cross correlating the 1-month SSI (SSI-1) with various different SPI accumulation periods using a Pearson correlation coefficient. They also investigated the influence of climate and catchment propertiescharacteristics on hydrological drought characteristics and its propagation using Pearson correlation togetheralong with Spearman's correlation. They found that the -SPI accumulation periods correlated differently with the 1 month SSISSI-1, depending on the regions in the UK, which could be due to the differencesee in hydrogeology and mean annual precipitation. Huang et al. (2017) used SPI and SSI to characterisze meteorological and hydrological droughts, respectively. They investigated the propagation time and the influence of El Nino Southern Oscillation (FENSO), Artic Oscillation ([AO]] and underlying surface characteristics properties on drought propagation in the Wei River Basin in China-by using the cross-wavelet analysis. They found that ENSO and AO are strongly correlated with actual evaporation and 100 thus, impacted influenced the propagation time from meteorological to hydrological drought (which is influenced by seasonal characteristics). Van Loon and Laaha (2014) used variable threshold level methods to characterisze

meteorological and hydrological drought in 44 Austrian catchments free from of major disturbances. They **Formatted** analyzed analyzed, the combined influence of climate and catchment characteristics of drought propagation using various statistical tools (i.e., bivariate correlation analysis, regression analysis). Their results showed firstly that 105 hydrological drought duration is primarily influenced by storage and release (i.e., base flow index, geology, and land use). FurthermoreIn addition, the duration of meteorological drought is important for hydrological drought duration, and the. Finally, the hydrological drought deficit is governed by catchment wetness (mean annual precipitation). These results cannot be easily generaliszed and applied toin the HOA due-because toof the its different climate and hydrogeology. Thus, there is still a need for a deeper understanding of the drought propagation in this region and for 110 the appropriate indicators to be used characterise for drought characterization. Choosing an appropriate indicator for drought characteriszation indicator is key to understanding the linkage relationship between the drought hazard and **Formatted** the drought impacts. Depending Different indices may prove valuable depending on the area of application, different indices may prove useful (Vicente-Serrano & Lopez-Moreno, 2005). The objective of this study is therefor to understand (1) how drought characteristics change as the drought propagates from meteorological to soil moisture and 115 finally to hydrological droughts in the HOA,; and (2) which climatic and catchment characteristics influence the propagation from meteorological to soil moisture to hydrological drought, using both-the standardized standardized and threshold-based indices. The study is conducted ion a set a number of catchments across Kenya, Somalia and Ethiopia with diverse hydro-climatic and landscape-geological conditions, characteristics, Case study area 120 The study was conducted on a selection of catchments based on the level 6 boundaries of HydroBASINS level 6, which s covering covers Kenya, Somalia and Ethiopia and consisting consists of 338 catchments (Lehner & Grill, **Formatted** 2013), The region has a seasonal climatological regime. It is mostly predominantly semi-arid, but ranges from very humid in the Ethiopian highlands and Mountt. Kenya region to very arid-dry in parts of Somalia, southern and southeasternsouth-eastern, Ethiopia and northeasternnorth-eastern, Kenya. The region is mostly made up of shrubland 125 with cropland and forestss found in the very humid highly wet Ethiopian highlands, around Lake Victoria and on the high slopes of Mountt. Kenya (Figure 1 Figure 1 a). The mean annual mean precipitation decreases from the westeast **Formatted** to the eastwest and from high altitudes (the Ethiopian highlands and the region around Mounts. Kenya region receive aexperiences mean annual-mean precipitation overof more than 500mm) to low altitudes (northeasternnorth-eastern Kenya and Somalia experiencereceive mean annual-mean precipitation of below less than 200mm) (Figure 1 Figure 1/2 and c). P-The precipitation increases from the the Somalia coast towards the Kenyan coast (Figure 1 Figure 1 c) 130 Formatted which is also reflected in the forest cover (Figure 1 Figure 1a). Formatted Formatted: English (United Kingdom) The longprolonged rains mostly occur duringfrom March to -May ([MAM)], while the short rains occur infrom October-to December ({OND}) due tofollowing the migration of the inter-tropical convergence zone ({ITCZ}) from **Formatted** south to north and vice versa (Awange et al., 2016), This is mostly particularly true for Kenya and Somalia, while Ethiopia experiences a single rainy season in June_to_September ({JJAS}). The region also has a very diverse geology. ranging from rich volcanic soils onin the high slopes of Mountt. Kenya and in the Ethiopian highlands, to sedimentary rocks in the semi-arid areas of southern and southeastern entropies. Ethiopia, Somalia, and eastern and northeastern north-eastern Kenya (Figure 1 Figure 1 d). The diverse topography, climate seasonality and the large **Formatted** number of catchments and relevant catchment attributes characteristics make the itregion a suitable region forto study 140



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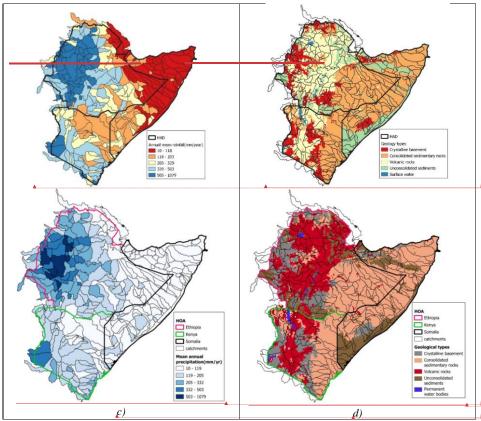


Figure 14: Maps showing some characteristics of the study area: a) landcover (Copernicus) (Buchhorn et al., 2020); b) elevation (STRM) (Farr and Kobrick, 2000); c) mean annual precipitation (MSWEP) (Beck et al., 2017)); and d) geology (Africa Groundwater Atlas, 2022).

3 Methodology

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The methodology of this study is summariszed in Figure 2. First, the data and their respective sources together with the catchment characteristics are discussed (Section 3.1), followed by calculation of the Standardiszed Precipitation Index ([SPI]], Standardiszed Soil Moisture Index ([SSMI]] (Ryu and Famiglietti, 2005), and Standardiszed Streamflow Index ([SSI]) and the threshold-based indices (Precipitation to Soil moisture mean duration ratio (P/SM ratio) and Precipitation to Streamflow mean duration ratio (P/Q ratio) (Section 3.2). SecondThen, the drought propagation analysis process is discussed (Section 3.3). Finally, the statistical analysis involving linking of both the standardiszed and threshold-based indices with the climate and catchment characteristics, and the comparison of both methods in characterising drought propagation is discussed (Section 3.4).

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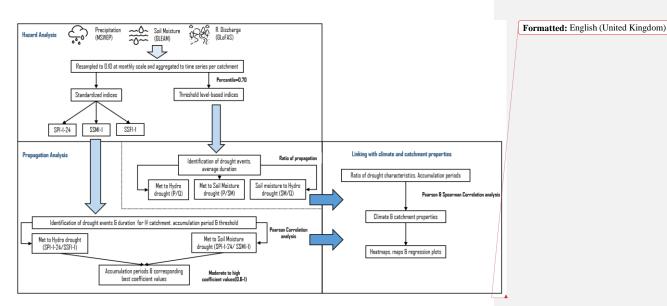


Figure 22: Detailed methodology framework showing steps taken from hazard analysis to propagation analysis and finally to linking with climate and catchment characteristics.

3.1 Data

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In this study we rely on the same types of datasets used in previous studies. Ideally, propagation analysis should be based only on observed data, but—that this is not always feasible for large-scale analysesis. In this study, we have therefore prioritized favoured data sources that are as close as possiblety to observedational data as possible, while but—still covering the entire regional domain range of the HOA. Correspondingly Accordingly, we chose opted to use reanalysis data for precipitation and soil moisture, but still used modelled data for streamflow because as no suitable observational dataset in the HOA been was found. These gridded datasets are were aggregated to catchment resolution based on hydrological data and level 6 hydrological data and maps of; HydroSHEDS; (Lehner and Grill, 2013), for to delineate catchmentseatchment delineation.

HydroSHEDS is a global hydrological dataset that provides information on the _water drainage systems of the earth. It is based on digital elevation models (DEMs) and other geospatial data source ss, and is organizedis divided into several levels of detail, with level 1 being the coarsest and level 12 being the finest. At each level, the dataset provides information on the location and characteristics of water bodies, such as rivers, lakes, and wetlands, as well as the the topography of the surrounding terrain. Level 6 was selected chosen because it provides a highan average level of detail on the water drainage systems. In particular, Specifically, level 6 delineates hydrographic units (HUs) with an average size of around about 10,000 square kilometers kilometres are delineated at level 6. HUs are defined as areas that drain to a common outlet point, such as a river mouth or the edge of a lake. HUs are further divided into sub basins, which are areas that drain to a specific point along a river or other watercourse.

For the analysis, we use the upstream contributing area of each catchment. Catchments with an area of 150 square kilometres km² or more were selected for analysis, reducing the number to catchments to 320. A further twoTwo additional catchments are excluded due to missing values (missing values were due to the resolution of soil moisture and streamflow datasets) after aggregation at the catchment level, leaving only 318 catchments. The remaining catchments provide good spatial coverage of the HOA and its diverse characteristics.

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180 3.1.1 Hydrometeorological and soil moisture datasets Precipitation data has beenwere, retrieved from the Multi-Source Weighted-Ensemble Precipitation ([MSWEP]] Formatted version 2 (Beck et al., 2019) 1.1. This is a global gridded precipitation (P) dataset that coverscovering the period 1979 to the -present. MSWEP has a -at three hourly temporal and 0.1 degree spatial resolution temporal resolution of 3 hours, daily, and monthly; and a spatial resolution of 0.1 degrees. In this study we sued the daily MSWEP precipitation 185 data. It does not contain purely observations, but a combination of gauge-, satellite- and reanalysis-based P-estimates, dependingent on timescale and location (Beck et al., 2017, 2019), This dataset was selectedehosen for this analysis based ondue to its spatial and temporal resolution and good performance in capturing spatial and temporal variation of drought conditions (Xu et al., 2019b). The soil moisture data were has been retrieved from the Global Land Evaporation Amsterdam Model ([GLEAM]] 190 (version 3.5a). The model applies a set of algorithms to estimate land surface evaporation (also knownreferred to as evapotranspiration) and root zone root-zone soil moisture from satellite and reanalysis data at the global scale, with a spatial resolution of 0.25 degree spatial resolution and a daily temporal resolution (Martens et al., 2017; Miralles et **Formatted** al., 2011), It uses the latest version of MSWEP precipitation; (version 2.8)(Beck et al., 2017, 2019), European Space Agency Climate Change Initiative [ESA CCI] soil moisture (version 5.3), satellite observed soil moisture, reanalysis 195 air temperature and radiation, and v-vegetation optical depth (FVOD)(Liu et al., 2011) to produce terrestrial evaporation and root-zone soil moisture] (Martens et al., 2017). The root-zone soil moisture is based on the weighted average of the soil surface up to 5 centimetres (top layer), which is more variable, and the root-zone up to a layer of 100 centimetres. -The GLEAM model applies the Priestley and Taylor (PT) equation (Priestley and Taylor, 1972) to calculate the Potential Evapotranspiration (PET) based on observations of European Centre for Medium Range 200 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), ERA-Interim surface net radiation and near surface air temperature (Dee et al., 2011) The root zone soil moisture is obtained from a multi-layer water balance model that uses precipitation and soil moisture data as inputs. The root zone soil moisture is based on the weighted average of the soil surface of up to 5 cm (topmost layer), which is more variable, and root zone up to 100cm layer. GLEAM datasets have been used in recent studies, including in the Horn of Africa OA (Javadinejad et al., 2019; Nicolai-Shaw et al., 2017; Peng et al., 2020). For 205 this study, the GLEAM potential evaporation (PET) and root zoneroot-zone soil moisture were used (see http://www.gleam.eu) were used for the period 19812010-2020. Streamflow data werehas been retrieved from the Global Flood Awareness System ([GloFAS].] which consists of global gridded river streamflow data; with a horizontal resolution of 0.1 degrees at a daily time step and at ime-period **Formatted** from of 1979 to the present (Harrigan et al., 2020). It combines both the surface and sub-surface runoff from the 210 HTESSEL land surface model used withinin ECMWF's global atmospheric reanalysis (FERA5) (Balsamo et al., 2009; Hersbach et al., 2020)] with the LISFLOOD hydrological and channel routing model_(Hirpa et al., 2018), LISFLOOD calculates a water balance at with a temporal resolution of six hoursrly or dailyy temporal resolution and a spatial resolution of with 0.05 degrees spatial resolution (see http://www.globalfloods.eu/). The GloFAS dataset was selected Formatted because there is no observed river discharge data with sufficient spatial coverage and time period in the study region. 215 Unfortunately, GloFAS uses ERA5 Land as precipitation input, which has been found to be less reliable in the HOA region than MSWEP or CHIRPS. Therefore, we tested the GloFAS dataset at the available discharge stations (with discharge values from 1981 onwards; total of 26 stations) in the HOA for bias compared to observed data. We found that while there is a bias in the absolute values, the anomalies are similar between the two datasets [see for more explanation in section 1 Supplementary Material). Since our analysis focuses on relative deviations from normal, we 220 deemed it acceptable to use the GloFAS data to represent discharge anomalies The GloFAS dataset was chosen because of the lack of observational streamflow datasets with sufficient spatial coverage and time period. Additionally, we conducted bias test of GloFAS dataset at specific weather discharge stations in the HOA against observational data. Commented [MHd(2]: I presume they were discharge We found that whilst there is a bias, the general variation between the two datasets was similar (see supplementary materials Fig. S1 and S2). 225 Catchment characteristics were obtained from multiple a variety of sources. These sources include BasinATLAS Formatted: English (United Kingdom) Linke et al., 2019), upstream mean annuall mean precipitation from MSWEP (Beck et al., 2017), geologically types **Formatted** from Africa gGroundwater Atlas (Africa Groundwater Atlas, 2022), and landcover types from Copernicus Global Land Cover layers-Collection 2 (Buchhorn et al., 2020), The cCatchment characteristics used in this study include soil properties (i.e., percent silt, sand and clay fractions, percent mean annual mean soil water content), geologically types,

land—cover types, terrain slope, elevation, upstream contributing area, climate zones, upstream annual mean precipitationmean annual upstream precipitation, global average aridity index_, and average population density (see Table S1 further description of these characteristics can be found in Supplementary Mmaterials table S1). These

catchment characteristics were selected because they have been found in previous studies to influence drought propagation in other regions (Barker et al., 2016; Van Loon, 2013; Van Loon and Laaha, 2015). The characteristics **Formatted** 235 were also chosenselected because drought intensity tends to variesy based according on to the topographic location and the time it takes for water to passflow through the catchments. **Drought Analysis** Standardiszed indices The [SPI], developed devised by McKee et al. (1993), allows quantification of precipitation deficits or surpluses on 240 over a range of different accumulation periods. In this study, we prefer SPI over other meteorological drought monitoring indices because organizations providing climate services to the Horn of Africa, such as the IGAD Climate Prediction and Application Centre (ICPAC) use SPI specifically for drought monitoring in its East Africa Drought Watch. Several studies in the Horn of Africa have also used SPI (Kalisa et al., 2020; Okal et al., 2020; Dinku et al., **Formatted** 2007; Viste et al., 2013). To represent agricultural drought we selected the Standardised Soil Moisture Index (SSMI) Field Code Changed 245 index, and for hydrological drought we selected the Standardised Streamflow Index (SSI), By the nature of the different indices, different distributions are best suited to fit the different data types. We used the Formatted distributions suggested by Stagge et al., (2015) for calculation of SPI, distributions suggested by Ryu and Famiglietti, (2005) for calculation of SSMI and distributions suggested by Vicente-Serrano et al., (2012) for calculation of SSI. We fitted a different distribution for each catchment, which is not a problem in our study because we analyse drought 250 propagation with catchments and do not compare drought characteristics between catchments (see for more explanation section 2 in Supplementary Material). The SPI was calculated by summing daily MSWEP precipitation to obtain a monthly temporal resolution. Monthly precipitation values were fitted to a distribution, performed for each catchment, A distribution was fitted through the monthly precipitation values, which was done per watershed to calculate SPI values forat accumulation periods ranging from of 1 to 24 months. Each watershedcatchment within the 255 HOA has a specific distribution which that was was either normal, gamma, exponential Weibull or lognormal distributions ffor SPI calculation (Stagge et al., 2015), The number of zeros in precipitation was considered according to the recommendations of Stagge et al. (2015). In calculation of the For [SSMI] (Ryu and Famiglietti, 2005), we used Formatted mean monthly GLEAM root_zone soil moisture content and fitted normal, beta, pPearson3 or fiskFisk distributions Ryu and Famiglietti, 2005), In the calculation of the For [SSI,] (Vicente Serrano et al., 2012) we used mean monthly 260 GloFAS streamflow values and fitted Eexponential Weibull, Llognormal, Ppearson3 or generalized extreme distributions Vicente-Serrano et al., 2012), The distribution for each catchment and variable was selected based on the Kolmogorov best_-fit method. Each of these distributions haves been proven-shown to fit various indices by in previous studies to work for the different indices. The number of zeros in precipitation was taken into consideration following recommendations from Stagge et al. (2015) for SPI. 265 All drought indices were calculated at awith a monthly resolution for the period 1980-2020. The standardised wet and **Formatted** dry periods of each indicator were included in the analysis to characterise changes in anomalies when moving through the hydrological cycle. As such, with this method, we did not define drought events, but aim to identify the anomalies over different accumulation periods. Commented [MHd(3]: Necessary? Confused me more to be 3.2.2 Threshold level-based indices 270 The threshold-based approach is a drought analysis method that has been employed widely used method for drought analysis (Heudorfer & Stahl, 2017; Tallaksen et al., 2009; Van Lanen et al., 2013; Van Loon, 2013; Van Loon et al., Formatted: English (United Kingdom) 2014; Van Loon & Laaha, 2015). In Aapplying this approach, a drought event was defined as any event that falls **Formatted** below the pre-defined threshold. Drought events were identified from the monthly time series of the above-mentioned hydrometeorological datasets (precipitation (FP), soil moisture (FSM) and river dischargestreamflow (Q) 275 variables) using a monthly-varying threshold-based approach (without pooling) i.e. an approach that has a different value for each month (this is similar to standardised indices that fit a distribution for each month separately), to account for reflect seasonality, and defined in terms of the duration of drought. This approach has been previously used in numerous studies (e.g., Beyene et al., 2014; Nyabeze, 2004; Van Huijgevoort et al., 2012; Van Huijgevoort, 2014; Commented [MHd(4]: Isn't is just 70th percentile of the Van Loon, 2013; Van Loon et al., 2014; Van Loon & Laaha, 2015; Vidal et al., 2010). The 70th percentile was used 280 as threshold. This means that eachvery month of the year has a different threshold level-based on the 70th percentile of the duration curve of the values of the hydrometeorological variable values in that month, for all the years in the Formatted

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timeseriestime series, PIn previous studies have used percentile ranges between the 70th and 90th have been used **Formatted** (Heudorfer & Stahl, 2017; Van Loon, 2013; Van Loon et al., 2014; Van Loon & Laaha, 2015). After testing different percentile values (70th, 80th and 90th percentiles), we selected the 70th percentile because it was able to could clearly 285 capture both moderate and severe droughts. - The other percentiles were eliminated because with the high precipitation variability experienced in the region, they showed HOAhad too few droughts, showed a misidentification of less severe droughts, and they missed did not account for most of the most of the mmajor known drought years. This made it difficult to identify patterns and trends (see section 2 Figure S9, S10 and S11 Supplementary Material). The duration of the drought event was determined by the total number of consecutive months that their which the 290 value of the variable value was below the threshold value. Then Subsequently, the average drought duration of drought per catchment was calculated per catchment in the study area was calculated. Finally, the duration ratios were **Formatted** calculated (precipitation droughtmeteorological drought duration against in relation to soil moisture drought duration (\(\frac{P}\)SM ratio\(\frac{1}{2}\) and streamflow drought duration (\(\frac{P}\)Q ratio\(\frac{1}{2}\)). A ratio closer to 1 indicates that the durations are similar (i.e., there is not so much clustering of precipitation drought meteorological droughts into streamflow 295 droughts), whileereas a ratio closer to 0 indicates means there are substantially manymore more precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts than streamflow droughts, indicating that they have propagated and clustered into less fewer and longer P/Q droughts. **Drought propagation** 3.3.1 Standardized indices 300 SSMI and SSI integrate processes at the land surface and processes and eatchment-scale hydrogeological processes **Formatted** in the catchment, respectively. Hence Therefore, a comparison comparing of SSMI and SSI with the SPI provides an indication of the time it takestaken for the drought signal to propagate through the hydrological cycle from precipitation deficits to soil moisture deficits and finally to streamflow deficits. SPI timeseriestime series, with accumulation periods of 1-24 months were cross_-correlated against 1-month_SSMI_(SSMI-1) and SSI (SSI-1) 305 timeseriestime series using Pearson correlation per catchment. This cross-correlation method has been used in many similar studies (Barker et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2019a), and can effectively show the similarity between different drought types. The accumulation period with the highest correlation coefficient with either SSMI-1 or SSI-1, was denoted as SPI-n and used as an indication of the propagation of the meteorological drought signal to soil moisture and streamflow respectively. Only correlation values greater than orand equal to 0.5 were used retained 310 for the analysis of propagation, because as these were considered as strong signals. Propagation times were considered short if when the accumulation time of SPI-n accumulation time was less than below **Formatted** four months. We did not investigate-determine whether there was a lag between the SPI and SSI timeseriestime series, because as other studies have found that the strongest correlations are normally usually occur, at a lag of zero months (i.e., no lag) (Barker et al., 2016), Finally, the catchments were grouped based on the calculated accumulation periods. 315 To ehecktest for the independence of the data between the catchments based on the different groups of accumulation periods, a one-tailedway t-test was carriedperformed-out to see determine how much statistically different the groups are were statistically different from each other. 3.3.2 In threshold-based indices, the Threshold based indices The drought propagation was investigated studied using by the ratio of the drought duration ratios of the Formatted 320 hydrometeorological variables. A ratio between the of the duration of precipitation meteorological droughts against and the duration of soil moisture drought (P/SM)s was calculated to indicate propagation from precipitation meteorological to soil moisture drought, P/SM mean duration ratio represents the speed with which precipitation deficits affect soil moisture availability, and therefore, how quickly the ability of plants to access water is hampered during drought. A low ratio suggests that soil moisture is more resilient to precipitation deficits (slow soil moisture 325 response to precipitation), which is probably related to catchment properties like soil type. A high ratio indicates that precipitation deficits have a strongn faster immediate impact on soil moisture availability (faster soil moisture response to precipitation). Furthermore We also calculated, the ratio of the duration of precipitation drought meteorological droughts to and streamflow droughts (P/Q) was calculated to show the propagation from meteorological precipitation to streamflow drought, P/Q mean duration ratio represents the degree to which precipitation deficits affect streamflow. A low ratio suggests that streamflow is more resilient to precipitation deficits, and meteorological droughts are

buffered. A high ratio indicates that precipitation deficits haves a more immediate quick response in streamflow. Also Tuneseis measurement P/O ratios factors in are probably influenced by the effect of meteorological droughts on soil moisture and streamflow droughts leaving only the influence of catchment characteristics like subsurface storage. Overall, we favoured the use of the duration ratios to other conventional indices because these ratios can provide insight into the mechanisms through which drought propagates and the vulnerabilities of different systems to precipitation deficits (Van Loon et al., 2016). These ratios take into account the effect of precipitation deficits on soil moisture and streamflow.

3.4 Influence of possible governing factors of climate and catchment characteristics

The effects of climate and catchment characteristics on propagation wereas investigated through by statistical analysis. Firstly, we analyszed the strength of the relationships using cross-correlation analysis. We calculated the correlation matrix of the pairwise combinations of all variables based on Pearson correlation coefficients. Since—As the relationships might not—could be non—be linear, we also calculated Spearman correlation coefficients and visually inspected the correlation matrix plottedpresented as a heatmap to verifyto verify, the results. We created a clustered heatmap of the Pearson correlation matrix to examineplore the intercorrelations of the catchment characteristics. We used the Euclidean distance method to orderrank the coefficients. The the Euclidean distance method orders, rows and columns are arranged according toby similarity, hence, making it easier to find groups of climate and catchment characteristics that have—with a joint effect on drought propagation. We then plotted individual graphsplots for each of the key variables against the propagation indices. Additionally In addition, we used raster zonal statistics in QGIS to link variables such as geology, landcover, climate zones, upstream areas and elevation to the indices. Secondly, we performeconducted d-a one-tailedway t-test for on the standardizedstandardised, indices of the clustered catchments. The significance test was used to determine whether the clusters of catchments differeds per accumulation period.

4 Results and Discussion

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In the following sections, drought propagation and the link with catchment characteristics per propagation indicator are discussed in detail. First, the propagation from precipitation-meteorological_to soil moisture drought is presented, followed by the propagation of-from_soil moisture to discharge-streamflow_drought.

4.1 Precipitation to soil moisture

4.1.1 SPI_-to_-SSMI

MThe mapping of SPI-n for propagation from SPI-to_SSMI propagation (Figure 3a) showed high correlation values in all catchments, especially in the south of HOA (Kenya region, average 0.82) (Figure 3a). The high correlation values were found across in the full-range of SPI accumulation periods. This may_could be due to the strong link between precipitation and soil moisture as_since GLEAM uses MSWEP precipitation as one of its inputs. The catchments were split-equally divided into between the short and long accumulation periods (1-4 months and 5-9 months with each 159 catchments each (Figure 3b)). The longest accumulation periods (9 and 8 months) were located in the northwest of the HOA, with correlation values greater than 0.7 (Figure 3a). Figure 3b shows that the SPI-n of the catchments on the north-easternest coast of the HOA HOA were SPI-n between 1 and 3 months, while those of catchments at the eastern centercentre, were longer (between 5 and 7 months). (See section 3.1 Figure S12, S13 and S14 Supplementary Material for spatial plots of the propagation.)

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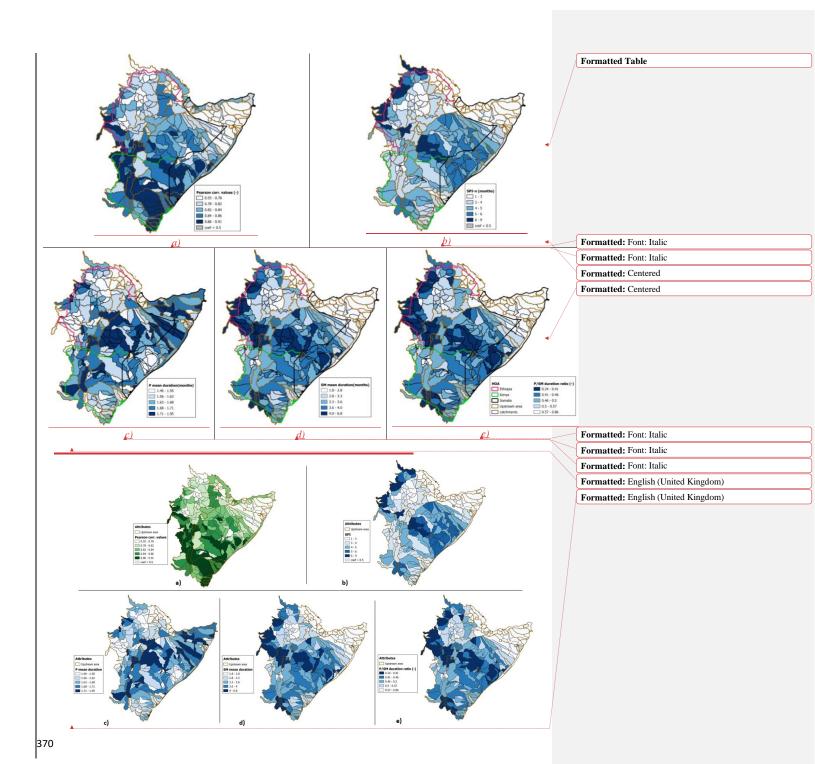


Figure 33: Propagation from precipitation to soil moisture: a) highest coefficient values per catchment (>0.5) from SPI-to_SSMI; b) corresponding SPI-n (SPI accumulation period having highest correlation with SSMI) per catchment; c) mean precipitation droughtmeteorological drought duration; d) mean soil moisture drought duration; e) ratio of drought mean duration from meteorological to soil moisture (P/SM).

4.1.2 P/SM duration ratio

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The duration of the droughts increases as the drought signal propagates through the hydrological cycle (Figure 3c, and d). The duration of soil moisture droughts is greaterlonger than that of precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts, indicating propagation and elusteringpooling of precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts into soil moisture drought. The map of the threshold-based drought duration ration map (P/SM) (Figure 3c) displays shows similar processes as the map of the propagation using standardized tandardized indices propagation map (Figure 3b), i.e., a short precipitation to soil moisture response in the northeast (represented shown by short accumulation periods in the standardized tandardized indices (P/SM ratio)).

The <u>analysis of the P/SM ratio analysis (Figure 3c)</u> shows that the north-western <u>eentercentre</u> and north-eastern <u>eentercentre</u> of the HOA have high ratios, <u>which means meaning that in this area soil moisture in this area respondsaets</u> faster to precipitation (less pooling of the <u>precipitation droughtmeteorological drought eventss</u>). The P/SM ratio decreases <u>moving</u> towards the southeast coast of the HOA (<u>in with some catchments the having ratios is as as low as 0.3), which indicatinges longer soil moisture droughts towards the southeast coast of the HOA. There ratios are also low ratiosin on type catchments <u>located inat</u> the north-western tip and west of the HOA, indicating longer soil moisture droughts and shorter <u>precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts</u> (Figure 3c and d), <u>meaning implying thatthe response of soil moisture in these catchments responds more slowly to to precipitation is slower in these catchments (greater clusteringmore pooling of the precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts).</u></u>

4.1.3 Relation of precipitation-to-soil moisture with climate and catchment characteristics

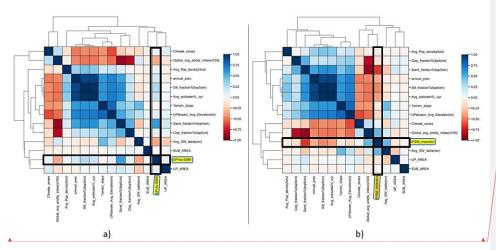


Figure 44: Heatmap of Pearson correlations between the propagation indices and catchment characteristics: a) the SPI_to_SSMI; b) P/SM mean duration ratio.

Note* Euclidean distances used for clustering variables with interchangeable correlations. The heatmap based on the Spearman correlation coefficients (see Figure S15 and S16 Supplementary Material Figure S4 and S3) showed a similar pattern as Figure 4. Therefore, we assume that linear models (Pearson correlation method) can be used to represent the monotonic relationships even though the relationships are not perfectly linear.

SPI_to_SSMI propagation has longer accumulation times propagation have longer accumulation periods—in catchments with low aridity index and higher sand and low silt_fraction_content_(Table 1) and vice versa. These catchments are located in the (semi-)arid eastern_eentre_of the HOA. SPI_to_SSMI propagation also have significantly related to_relationships with percent soil water content; and landcover. Similarly, catchments with a low

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P/SM duration ratio have a low aridity index and higher sand fraction content (Figure 5a and b). These catchments have experience low upstream—mean annual precipitation, and are interspersed riddled with shrubland. They correspond to the catchments with slow propagation from precipitationmeteorological to soil moisture droughts (longerprolonged soil moisture droughts; Figure 3d and medium to longerprolonged precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts; Figure 3c) due to the slow reactionesponse of soil moisture to precipitation. The slow reactionesponse occurs because is due to the fact that, the soil in these areas, tends to be very dry in these areas, hence so the process of wetting of the soil surface needs to be wetted before occurs first before infiltration can begin. Additionally In addition, SPI_to_SSMI propagation havehas a longer accumulation in catchments with closed and open forests, and herbaceous wetlands and vegetation (Table 1). In these catchments, the interaction between of precipitation and with soil moisture is slow, leading to the weaker correlations (Figure 3a). This phenomenon is consistent with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Sehler et al., 2019), which claimed that landcover, soil moisture and precipitation are more strongly have stronger correlationscorrelated in (semi-)arid regions with limitedlow vegetation, while weaker correlations are found in humid regions with forests and denseely vegetationed. The propagation of SPI_to_SSMI haspropagation have shorter accumulation periods and the P/SM duration ratios ratio are is high in catchments with cropland and bare or sparse vegetation; these catchments are found located in the north western centercentre (Ethiopian highlands) and north-eastern tip, respectively.

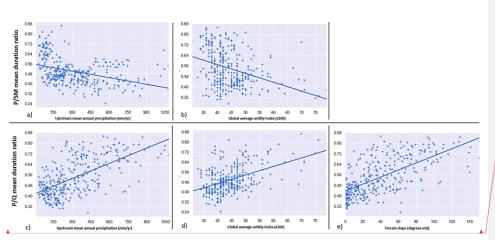


Figure 55: Catchment characteristics against P/SM and P/Q mean duration ratios.

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The propagation time from precipitation to soil moisture is also influenced by spatial variability in precipitation within the catchmentsprecipitation variability, howeverbut this influence is not pronounced for in both SPI-to-SSMI propagation and P/SM mean duration ratio. This is seenreflected in the low positive correlation value between upstream mean annual precipitation and SPI-n for SPI-10-SSMI (Figure 4), the average distribution of the accumulation periods per equal interval (quantile) grouping of the upstream mean annual precipitation mean annual upstream precipitation grouping (Table 1), and the less steep slope (highest value 0.56) in P/SM mean duration ratio against versus upstream mean annual precipitationmean annual upstream precipitation (Figure 5a). This weak correlation can be explained by the fact that because bb oth the short and long accumulation periods (Figure 3b) and the low and high P/SM mean duration ratios (Figure 3c) can beare, found in the catchments located-in the wetter western part of HOA (Figure 1c). The P/SM ratio decreases with increasing upstream mean annual precipitation mean annual upstream precipitation, meaning most catchments with high P/SM ratios-located in the wetter, western part of the HOA were respond quickly fast responding, while those whereas ones with high-low P/SM ratios found in the eastern of the HOA respond slowly responding, they are less affected by precipitation deficits. SPI_to-SSMI propagation and P/SM mean duration ratio are nothave no dependentee on the upstream area, elevation, and geology-type (equal distribution of the mean values in Table 1) (see Table S2 and S3 Ssupplementary Mmaterial Table S2 and S3).

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Table 14; Mean average accumulation period per catchment characteristics: upstream mean annual precipitationmean annual upstream precipitation, upstream elevation, upstream area, geologicaly type, and landcover type (≤4 months are considered short accumulation periods and ≥5 long accumulation periods).

	Precipitation (mm)	SPItoSSMI	SPItoSSI
		(months)	(months)
	<u>Precipitation (mm)</u>	5.0	2.4
Upstream mean annual	10-118	6.0	3.4
precipitation Mean annual	118-203	5.9	2.7
upstream precipitation	203-329	4.9	2.0
	329-503	4.8	1.4
	503-1079	3.1	1.0
A	Area (km²)		
	152-3935	4.3	5.6
	3935-7259	4.1	5.5
Upstream Area (km²)	7259-15257	5.0	5.4
	15257-47890	4.3	4.4
	47890-745375	4.7	4.2
A	Sand fraction (%)		
	11-26	3.1	5.5
	26-29	4.4	5.6
Percent sand fraction (%)	29-32	4.8	5.1
	32-35	5.1	4.0
	35-40	5.8	4.6
A	Elevation (m)		
	<u>3-402</u>	3.9	6.0
	402-731	4.4	<u>6.0</u>
Upstream elevation,	732-1043	4.7	<u>4.9</u>
*	1044-1544	5.1	4.8
	1545-2493	4.3	3.1
	Geology type		
	Crystalline basement	<u>5.0</u>	<u>3.8</u>
	Consolidated sedimentary rocks	4.4	5.0
Geology	Volcanic rocks	4.3	<u>3.1</u>
	Unconsolidated sediments	<u>4.4</u>	4.4
	Surface water	4.0	1.7
	<u>Landcover types</u>		
	Shrubland	4.8	4.8
	Herbaceous vegetation	4.6	4.2
	Cropland	4.4	2.8
	<u>Built-up</u>	4.6	<u>3.5</u>
<u>Landcover</u>	Herbaceous wetland	<u>4.8</u>	<u>2.9</u>
	Bare/sparse vegetation	<u>2.3</u>	<u>4.9</u>
	Open forests	<u>5.3</u>	3.8
	Closed forests	5.0	2.7

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In conclusionsummary, the propagation of SPI_to_SSMI_propagation and the P/SM mean duration ratio is more edgepend more on the soil properties, landcover and whenthe time of the it_last rained. All these variables are linked to the storage capacity of the catchment. We see that catchments with a high percentage of sandy soils and shrubland have longer reactionsponse times and long durations, while catchments with a low percentage of sandy soils and cropland have short responseaction times and shorter durations. This link with soil properties is in line with the findings from of Van Loon and Laaha (2014), who showed that factors such as storage in soils, aquifers, and lakes influence drought duration with longer durations in larger storage and shorter durations in smaller storage.

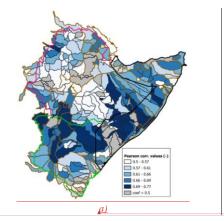
4.2 Precipitation to streamflow

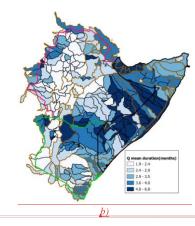
4.2.1 SPI_to_SSI

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The <u>analysis of SPI_to-SSI_analysis</u> (Figure 6a) shows that the catchments with the low correlation values were mostlyainly found in the north_western_at the center centre around the Ethiopian highlands. These areas in the north_western_centre also have short accumulation periodstimes (Figure 6c). A few catchments in the north_western tip have longer accumulation periodsperiods (5 to 7 months). The majority of the catchments in the HOA have long accumulation periods (≤5 months; 212 catchments); and with 106 catchments having short accumulation periods (≥ 4 months). The sSignal strength decreases as the further it moves down the hydrological cycle, with the highest correlation value being 0.91 forin-SPI_to-SSMI and being 0.91 and 0.77 for SPI_to-SSI (Figure 3a and Figure 6a, respectively). This is evident in becomes the clear by the number of catchments where the strength of the correlation value is less than 0.5 (grey sub-catchments in Figure 6a and c). This results in a smaller number of leads to fewer catchments with correlation values above higher than 0.5, as the drought propagates from meteorological drought to soil moisture andto finally to streamflow drought.





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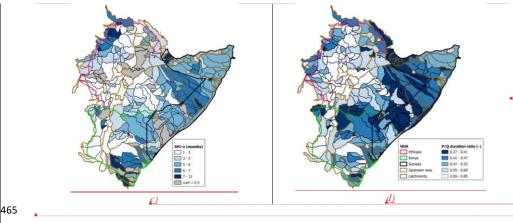
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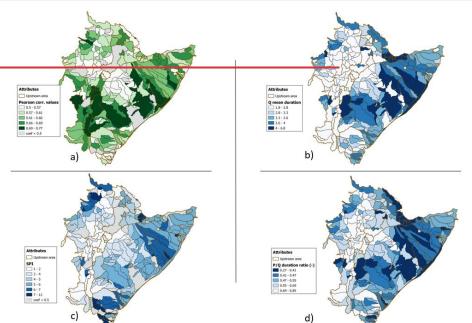


Figure 66: Propagation from precipitation to streamflow: a) Highest coefficient values per catchment (>0.5) from SPI-10-SSI; b) mean streamflow drought duration; c) corresponding SPI-n (SPI accumulation period having highest correlation with SSI) per catchment; d) ratio of mean drought mean-duration from meteorological to streamflow (P/Q ratio).

4.2.2 P/Q mean duration ratio

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Analysis of P/Q mean duration ratio analysis (will further be referred to as P/Q ratio). (Figure 6d) shows that the highest duration ratios are found in the catchments to in the west and southwest of the HOA, and low ratios are found to in the east of the HOA towards the coast. In the The catchments with the high P/Q mean duration; ratios experience short streamflow droughts and longer precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts occur, as shown in Figure 6d and Figure 3c, respectively. In these locations, the runoff response of runoff to rainfall is rapid when it rains is fast, in contrast as opposed to the catchments having with low duration ratios that and experienceing longer streamflow droughts,

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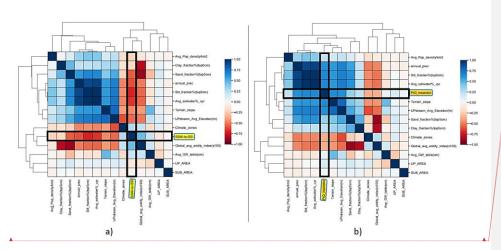
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	howeverbut the streamflow droughts are still longer than precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts. Streamflow		Formatted	
	droughts are shorter and there is less poolingelustering of precipitation droughtmeteorological droughts to soil			
	moisture and finallyto streamflow droughts in the west and southwest as opposed in contrast to the east towards the	/ //		
480	coast where they become longer and with increased clustering. The catchments in the east of the HOA are also located	///		
	within the arid and semi-arid areas. + Therefore, whenever it rains, the process of infiltrations has to occur first before			
	any runoff is produced, making resulting in longer the response of streamflow to precipitation longerresponse. The	/		
	threshold-based drought duration ration ration (P/Q) map (Figure 6d) shows displays similar processes to as the		Formatted	
	standardizedstandardised indices propagation map (Figure 6c), i.e., short precipitation to streamflow response in the	_	Formatted	\equiv
485	west (shown-represented by short accumulation periods in the standardized tandardised indices and a high duration		Tormutteu	()
	ratio in the threshold indices P/Q ratio).			
	4.2.3 Relation of precipitation to streamflow with climate and catchment			
	characteristics			
	Characteristics			
	Propagation from of precipitation meteorological to streamflow drought is influenced by catchment scale		Formatted	
490	hydrogeological characteristics of the catchment properties. In catchments with sedimentary rocks, shrubland, bare or		1	
	sparse vegetation, low mean annual upstream precipitation, high aridity, low elevation, medium silt content and low	$/\!/\!\!/$		
	sand content, the propagation of SPI-to-SSI-propagation accumulation periods is longer and the -P/Q -mean duration	///		
	ratio have longer accumulation periods and longer duration of drought droughts, respectively is longer, in catchments			
	with sedimentary rock structure, shrubland, bare or spare vegetation, low upstream mean annual precipitation, high	//		
495	aridity, low elevation, medium percent silt fraction and low percent sand fraction. These catchments are located in-to.	/		
	the east of the HOA towards the coast (Figure 6c and d) and are associated with small to largebig eatchment upstream	_	Formatted	
	catchment areas (Table 1). The influence of upstream areas on propagation was not as pronounced as we expected	_	Formatted	
	(Table 1, and Figure 7). The lack of influence of upstream areas on the propagation of drought from precipitation to	_	Formatted	
	streamflow contradicts the findings inof previous studies (Haslinger et al., 2014; Van Lanen et al., 2013;			
500	Van Loon & Laaha, 2015; Vidal et al., 2010) suggesting that the propagation time from meteorological drought to	1	Formatted	
	hydrological drought may be aggravated exacerbated by catchment-basin size. In these catchments, the mean duration			
	of streamflow droughts mean duration (Figure 6b) shows has longer time scales than the mean duration of		Formatted	
	meteorological droughtsprecipitation mean duration (Figure 3c), which reflectsing the propagation, and indicating	-	Formatted	
	suggesting that pooling of shorter precipitation drought meteorological drought events are pooled into longer and fewer			
505	streamflow drought events due to-catchment_storage processes in the catchment_CThe catchments streamflow	////		
	responded more slowly to nse to precipitation was slower, hence, resulting in longer accumulation periodsperiods and	///		
	low P/Q mean ratios. This is due to caused by other processes in these areas, such as infiltration and wetting of the	//		
	soil surface, which have to take place that need to first occur before the process of runoff occurs. Catchments with / short accumulation periods and high P/Q mean duration ratios have high upstream mean annual precipitation mean			
510	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
310	annual upstream precipitation, low aridity, volcanic soils, cropland, forests and high elevation (Table 1, and Figure 5). These catchments respond more quickly to precipitation due to streamflow responses to precipitation are faster because		Formatted	
	of the high saturation of the volcanic soils, which are mostly located in the west of HOA. These findingsresults are	////		
	in lineconsistent, with previous studies (e.g., Li et al. 2019, Laizé & Hannah, 2010), tha twhich found that the	///		
	propagation time from meteorological drought to hydrological drought depends on the flow concentration time, which	//		
515	is highlystrongly influenced-affected by elevation, slope, percentage proportion of arable crop-land and bedrock	'		
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Figure 7; Heatmap of Pearson correlations between the propagation indices and catchment characteristics: a) the SPI-to-SSI; b) P/Q mean duration ratio. Euclidean distances used for clustering variables with interchangeable correlations.

CThe differences in catchment differences in both SPI-to-SSI propagation and P/Q mean duration ratios has exhibit a spatial pattern that strongly reflects the heterogeneity of thein geology (Figure 1d), landcover (Figure 1d), and the precipitation gradient (Figure 1c) from the wetter west to the drier east of the HOA. The overall catchments general precipitation climate of the catchment has a is-much more important ingreater influence on the influencing propagation from of SPI to SSI and P/Q mean durationmeteorological to streamflow drought ratio as opposed tothan on the propagation from precipitation of meteorological to soil moisture drought (Table 1, and Figure 5a). The strong link may becould be due to a result of the prominent precipitation gradient between the wethundt and the (semi-)arid areas. Rainfall in the semi-arid areas is highlyvery erratic and the dry spellsperiods last for longer-periods, leading resulting in-to-yery low storage (Vicente-Serrano & Lopez-Moreno, 2006) and longer propagation durationstimes, which translates into longer droughts. This finding result is consistent in accordance with Van Loon et al., (2014) and Barker et-al. (2016); who identified found that seasonality in precipitation of rainfall is an major-important climatic factor affecting influencing drought propagation of droughts from meteorological to hydrological droughts.

Additionally, Moreover, the correlation value of upstream mean annual precipitation and upstream precipitation in SPI- to- SSI propagation was lower when compared than the value for to terrain slope, percent silt fraction content, upstream average elevation and percent average annual soil water content (Figure 7). This shows that catchment characteristics related to -soil properties, geology and landcover have a greater influence on in-the propagation of drought from precipitation meteorological to streamflow drought, the catchment properties related to soil properties, geology and landcover are more influential than than the upstream annual mean precipitation mean annual upstream precipitation in determining the drought propagation. This result is in line consistent, with the findings of Barker et al. (2016), who found that the hydrological drought characteristics of catchments with permeable aquifers outcrops have HOA a weak correlation with mean annual precipitation and a strong correlation with catchment storage characteristics such as the Base Flow Index (BFI) or the percentage of highly fractured rock.

5 Discussion

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5.1 Implications for research

When we compareing our results with catchment-levelscale studies (see Section 4), we find comparable processes of drought propagation processes and a similar influence of climate and catchment characteristics on this propagation. As this is a a-study specific for to the HOA region, our results have a number of important implications for drought risk analysis in drylands areas, but may not be valid-transferable forto other regions. The HOA region was chosen because of the high-large variability in climate and catchment characteristics and the large number of catchments.

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	WithinIn the study region, the precipitation can be found to beis related to the elevation (increasing precipitation with	Formatted	
550	increasinge in altitude elevation and increasing aridity towards the east, where elevation and precipitationich also has		
	decreasinge altitude and precipitation) when eComparing catchments withinin the (semi)-arid-redryland region of	/ //	
	the study area, we it appears that learn that catchment-scale hydrogeological processes, such as geology and landcover,	///	
	are dominatent in influencing the propagation of drought from precipitation meteorological to streamflow, while land	///	
	surface processes, for examplesuch as soil properties, influence the propagation from precipitation meteorological to	//	
555	soil moisture drought (Figure 3). This is in accordance consistent with previous studies (e.g., Barker et al., 2016; Van	Formatted	
	Loon, 2013),		
	We find that the differences in propagation from precipitation meteorological to soil moisture drought to are also be	Formatted	
	influenced by spatial variability in precipitation variability, with the humid wetter western part of HOA having		()
	catchments with both short and long propagation timescales and the drier eastern eenter having only long propagation		
560	timescales. We have learned found that drought periods are shorter in the catchments in the humid west of the HOA	////	
	(with a higher global average aridity index, fertile volcanic soils, and eropland) arable land are shorter than in the	/////	
	catchments in the (semi-)arid east of the HOA. For instanceexample, the catchments in the (semi-)arid east with	/////	
	shrubland, bare or sparse vegetation and underlain with ssedimentary rocks (consolidated and unconsolidated) are		
	affected by longer periods of soil moisture drought. In addition, streamflow drought and the time scale for the		
565	propagation from meteorological drought to soil moisturge drought to hydrological drought is also longer	/////	
	(≥5 months). Therefore, for the process of drought propagation from precipitation meteorological to streamflow		
	drought, it is important not only to monitor—not only precipitation forecasts but—information on hydrogeological		
	characteristics, such as geology and landcover, of the catchment is also essential. Incorporating this knowledge into hydrological drought forecasting could significantly increase the predictive value of forecasting systems by making		
570	the forecast less dependent on the forecasting redictive skill skill of actual precipitation. We have also confirmed that		
3,0	drought duration is influenced by both climate and catchment control processes, similar to Van Loon and Laaha,		
	(2014). There is still a need to further investigate the effect impact on the propagation timescale when we include		
	groundwater.		
	The present study also highlights some of the improved ways with using CDI CCMI CCI and threshold board		
575	The <u>research_study</u> also highlights some of the <u>issuesproblems</u> with using SPI, SSMI, SSI ₇ and threshold-based duration ratios. The <u>Due to the</u> nature of <u>standardized standardized</u> indices, they are <u>makes it</u> unable to identify regions	Formatted	
3/3	with highly seasonal climates and arid regions (Hayes et al., 1999). Unlike threshold-based indices, it does not calt		
	fails to capture the water deficits-amounts in-the different catchments and regions that are more prone to drought than	/	
	others, as opposed to the threshold based indices. Additionally Moreover, dry regions with misleading large positive	///	
	and negative values may occur in the arid regions with the short accumulation periods (1, 2 or 3 months) may have		
580	misleadingly high positive and negative values, Although calculating the SPI, SSMI or SSI for any user-defined	/ //	
	accumulation periods makes the indicators more flexible, it is stillremains important to choose-that meaningful		
	accumulation periods are chosen to capture_the drought conditions and also to select appropriate indicators (Vicente-		
	Serrano & Lopez-Moreno, 2005 _{a. Furthermore In addition, the results confirm that accumulation periods should be}		
-0-	selected based on the impacts of drought-impacts. The threshold-based indices represent the specific duration of		
585	drought event duration, thus hereby better representing the link with catchment characteristics and better capturing		
	seasonal precipitation variability spatial variability in precipitation within the catchments.		
	Based on the results presented in this paper, we provide an argument for considering terrestrial processes on the		
	drought propagation in the context of drought risk analysis. We found that drought propagation from meteorological		
	to soil moisture and to hydrological drought cannot be explained by atmospheric processes alone. The propagation		
590	process is highly influenced by climate and catchment characteristics, hence, when forecasting droughts it is preferred		
	to use a full hydrological model framework, or at least an indicator-based method which takes (either implicitly or		
	explicitly) such characteristics into consideration, as the results of our study suggests.		
	5.2 Implications for drought monitoring and early warning		
	5.2 Implications for drought monitoring and early warning		
595	Drought mitigation and water resources management require reliable and efficient drought monitoring and early	Formatted	
	warning systems (M&EW); as they are a critical component of drought preparedness (Barker et al., 2016; Safavi et	Pormatteu	
	al., 2018). The efficiency of these systems in analyzing analysing extremes is highly largely determined by the choice	///	
	of indices, which must need to consider and integrate different aspects of information. Drought M&EW systems	//	
	usually use standardizedstandardised indices such as the SPI, especially since as the SPI is the most widely used index	/	

600	to characterisze drought (Vicente-Serrano & Lopez-Moreno, 2005), However, the use of standardizedstandardised		F	ormatted	
	indices and threshold-based indices for soil moisture and hydrological droughts is not widespread and ornot well	//	$/\!\!/$		
	developed for soil moisture and hydrological droughts in the HOA. For example, the National Drought Monitoring		//		
	Agency (NDMA) in Kenya has a good drought M&EW system, howeverbut it this uses only considers precipitation,	////			
	while impacts are more likely to be associated with soil moisture and hydrological droughts. The SSI and the use of	///			
605	threshold-based indices are less common in the HOA. This may be due to the lack of streamflow data in this region	//			
	compared to precipitation data, especially for the short time scales required to produce useful drought M&EW				
	products. However, monitoring soil moisture and hydrological variables and incorporating such indices is beneficial	/			
	for reliable and effective drought planning and water resource management, and it is especially particularly useful for				
	communication purposes if precipitation, soil moisture and streamflow are monitored in a comparable manner.				
640	William and the second of the		_		
610	While Although the use of streamflow and soil moisture data directly in drought M&EW systems is preferred, these	-	F	ormatted	
	systems cannot be used in this region due to the lack of data in this region. Therefore, the SPI could be provide a		1		
	surrogate for soil moisture and streamflow impacts, provided suitable propagation times are known. This also ensures	/			
	the use of standardized standardised indices in the HOA and discourages the use of threshold-based indices (which /				
C1 F	require raw data). Given the uncertainty in modelled and considering the uncertainty in modelled and reanalysis data,	//			
615	it is better to standardisze the datasets, as is the case with standardized standardised indices do (Van Loon & Laaha, /	/	_		
	2014; Van Lanen et al., 2013; Van Loon, 2013), The correlation results (Figure 3b and Figure 6c) showing the spatial	<	F	ormatted	
	variability of SPI- <i>n</i> (the accumulation period that is strongly correlated with SSMI-1 and SSI-1, respectively).		F	ormatted	()
	providegive an indication of accumulation periods that could serve as a proxiesy for soil moisture droughts or		/ _		
C20	streamflow droughts in the monthly precipitation data. This allows the use of precipitation data, which are that is more	///			
620	readily available <u>forto</u> identifying <u>future future</u> potential soil moisture and streamflow droughts. <u>Additionally In</u>	//			
	addition, the short soil moisture and streamflow droughts, which are that have been more influential for the ddrought	/	_		
	planning and water resource management, are better captured by the short accumulation periods (Figure 3b and Figure		F	ormatted	
	6c), which are less affected by the decreasing long-term trends in precipitation and streamflow trends in the eastern	_	F	ormatted	
COF	of the HOA and increasing trends in the west <u>ern of the HOA (Gebrechorkos et al., 2020)</u> , Water managers can use	//			
625	this information on soil moisture and streamflow trends to see identify, when to start begin controlling the water users				
	and anticipate drought impacts. The obtained results obtained canmay also be used to forecast applicable in water				
	resource forecasting.				
	5.3 Recommendations and further research				
	Accommendation and restate research				
	Groundwater plays an important role in mitigating the impacts of drought and as a source of water supply in arid and				
630	semi-arid areas, particularly especially, in the eastern part of the HOA (Adloff et al., 2022). Therefore, to fully	_	F	ormatted	
	understand the process of drought propagation, it is necessary to include the groundwater component in the analysis.	_/		ormatica .	
	MoreoverFurthermore, while catchment storage in the catchment plays a key role in determining the drought duration	////	/		
	of drought anand propagation, it is also important to take into account consider seasonality and autocorrelation of soil	////	1		
	moisture, as well as and also streamflow caused by infiltration and evaporation. Therefore, undertaking analysing the	////			
635	propagation analysis of the drought signal, through the hydrological cycle and including the groundwater component				
	would provide a more comprehensive picture and assessment of the influence of climate and catchment characteristics	//			
	on the drought duration, severity and propagation. In addition, the effect impact of seasonal variability (based on the	\parallel			
	long and the short rains) oin drought propagation should be further investigated. Seasonal variability is particularly	//			
	important for the propagation from precipitationmeteorological-to-soil moisture drought, especially in the western	1			
640	part of the HOA where the response of soil moisture response to precipitation is dependents on when it last rained.				
	Similarly, the timing of hydrological droughts leading to impacts should be investigated.				
	Finally, the availability of for observation based studies of drought, the availability of hydrhydrolological records for		_		
	observation-based studies of drought is a limitation. This is particularly true for the HOA. The period of analysis	-	F	ormatted	
	(1980-2020) does not capture the full range of hydrological variability. We assume anticipate that longer records could	//	1		
645	affect influence—the accumulation periods presented here, although the same regional picture and propagation	///	7		
	characteristics would probably likely emerge. FurthermoreIn addition, the use of modelled and reanalysis data has	///			
	introduced some uncertainty into the analysis. For example, the GloFAS streamflow dataset was developed for a	//			
	global application and represents streamflow in perennial systems typical of humid regions.	//			
	Correspondingly Accordingly, it does not represent ephemeral flow processes typical of in dryland regions. As	/			
650	such The, the dataset tends to over_/under_estimate the streamflow in arid and semi-arid areas. As such, the dataset				
	tends to overestimate streamflow in arid and semi-arid areas. Hence Therefore, a modelling framework that is suitable				

for dryland (semi-)arid areasregions, where hydrological processes are distinctdiffer from those in humid regions, would be preferred is crucial. For example, a model like-such as the DRYP hydrological model (Quichimbo et al., 2021) has been designed developed specifically for dryland hydrological processes_such as ephemeral flow, surface-and groundwater interactions, and high_resolution rainfall precipitation in (semi-)arid regions, and therefore as such that a good potential for further investigation and application. This model has been used to investigate the role of gridded gridded rainfall resolutioprecipitation resolution n-into societallyally_relevant water stores (streamflow, soil moisture and groundwater recharge) (Quichimbo et al., submitted) and has been used to generatemake water balance forecastspredictions based on seasonal climate forecastsprojections in the HOA__(MacLeod et al., in review). A regional version of this model would provide a better alternative for follow-up studies given the GloFAS dataset limitations.

6 Conclusion

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Drought propagation from meteorological to soil moisture to hydrological drought in 318 catchments in the HOA was analyzedanalysed using standardizedstandardised indices (over a range of accumulation periods) and threshold-based indices (drought-duration ratios). In addition, the influence of possible governing factors, such as climate and catchment characteristics, was also investigated. The research shows that:

Precipitation to soil moisture propagation time is longer (5 to -7 months) in catchments with shrubland, closed
and open forests, herbaceous wetland and vegetation, and high sand and low silt fraction, while being shorter
(2-4 months) in catchments with cropland and high upstream mean annual precipitation mean annual
upstream precipitation.

- Precipitation to streamflow propagation time is longer in catchments with sedimentary rock structure, low
 mean annual precipitation, and shrubland, while being shorter in catchments with volcanic soils, high annual
 mean precipitation, cropland and forests.
- In precipitation to streamflow propagation the catchment properties related to soil properties, geology, elevation and landcover are more influential than upstream annual mean precipitationmean annual upstream precipitation. However, the upstream mean annual precipitationmean annual upstream precipitation is more not so important for streamflow drought duration, severity and propagation from precipitation-to-streamflow as opposedbut to nevertheless mean annual upstream precipitation is even less important in propagation from precipitation to soil moisture precipitation to soil moisture precipitation to soil moisture.

In summary, precipitation to soil moisture propagation is more dependent on the soil properties as opposed to the hydrogeological characteristics (i.e., elevation) while the precipitation to streamflow propagation experience the combined effect of climate and catchment control properties (i.e., elevation, geology). The results in this study provide an indication of precipitation accumulation periods that could serve as a proxy for soil moisture and streamflow droughts in the HOA. The precipitation accumulation periods of roughly 1-to 4 months in wet western areas of HOA, and of roughly 5-to-7 months in the more dryland regions are the most suitable for drought analysis. These results can be used as a foundation for future developments in drought monitoring and early warning systems in the HOA, laying foundations for better drought preparedness and increased resilience to drought and its impacts in water resources.

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Competing interests. The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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