

1 Exploring the joint probability of precipitation and soil moisture 2 over Europe using copulas

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7 **Abstract.** The joint probability of precipitation and soil moisture is here investigated over Europe
8 with the goal to extrapolate meaningful insights on the potential joint use of these variables for the
9 detection of agricultural droughts within a multivariate probabilistic modeling framework. The use
10 of copulas is explored, being the framework often used in hydrological studies for the analysis of
11 bivariate distributions. The analysis is performed for the period 1996-2020 on the empirical
12 frequencies derived from ERA5 precipitation and LISFLOOD soil moisture datasets, both
13 available as part of the Copernicus European Drought Observatory. The results show an overall
14 good correlation between the two standardized series (Kendall's $\tau = 0.42 \pm 0.1$), but also clear
15 spatial patterns in the tail-dependence derived with both non-parametric and parametric
16 approaches. About half of the domain shows symmetric tail-dependence, well reproduced by the
17 Student-t copula; whereas the rest of the domain is almost equally split between low and high tail-
18 dependences (both modeled with the Gumbel family of copulas). These spatial patterns are
19 reasonably reproduced by a random forest classifier, suggesting that this outcome is not driven by
20 chance. This study stresses how a joint use of standardized precipitation and soil moisture for
21 agriculture drought characterization may be beneficial in areas with strong low tail-dependence,
22 and how this behavior should be carefully considered in multivariate drought studies.

23 **1. Introduction**

24 Agricultural drought, defined as a condition of unusually high precipitation shortages and/or soil
25 water deficits causing adverse effects on crop yields and production (Panu and Sharma, 2002), is
26 probably the most recognized of the four main drought types or phases (Wilhite and Glantz, 1985).
27 This is mainly due to the more direct and easier to understand impacts compared to the other types
28 of droughts (Mishra and Singh, 2010). The scientific literature on agricultural drought provides a
29 large variety of indices (WMO and GWP, 2016), with the aim of reproducing the temporal
30 dynamics of crop water deficit through a combination of climatic observations, hydrological
31 modeling, and remote sensing data (Zargar et al., 2011).

32 The difficulty in capturing the multi-facet nature of agricultural drought events across the
33 world with a single approach (Sivakumar et al., 2011) is confirmed by the absence of consensus
34 in the scientific literature on the most reliable agricultural drought index. Despite the large range
35 of available indices, some common characteristics can be identified, such as the focus on some
36 proxy variables of plant water availability – through soil moisture (Dutra et al., 2008), actual
37 evapotranspiration (Anderson et al., 2011) or basic meteorological information (Vicente-Serrano
38 et al., 2010) – and the need to account for deviations from long-term conditions (i.e., use of
39 standardized anomalies).

40 Meteorological drought indicators computed on appropriate aggregation time scales
41 (McKee et al., 1993; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010) have demonstrated a good capability to
42 represent agricultural drought conditions in several case studies (e.g., Bachmair et al., 2018;
43 Mohammed et al., 2022; Tian et al., 2018). They have been successfully integrated in a number of
44 operational drought monitoring systems, thanks to their minimal input data requirement and ease
45 of use. Among those indices, the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI, McKee et al., 1993)
46 computed on short-to-medium aggregation periods (i.e., SPI-3 and -6) is often adopted as a suitable
47 proxy variable for agricultural droughts (WMO, 2012).

48 As highlighted by Sheffield and Wood (2007), simplified indices for drought monitoring,
49 such as the Palmer Drought Severity index (PDSI; Palmer, 1965) or the previously mentioned
50 meteorological indicators, have been slowly integrated with indices directly based on modeled soil
51 moisture data. This transition is fostered by the increasing availability worldwide of process-based
52 hydrological models. Soil moisture percentile, or similarly standardized quantities, are often used
53 for this scope (Mo and Lettenmeier, 2013; Xia et al., 2014). The ever-growing records of remote

54 sensing-based estimates of soil moisture are becoming an additional data source to support the
55 development of dedicated soil moisture-based drought indices (Cammalleri et al., 2017; Carrão et
56 al., 2016).

57 In the context of agricultural drought, an overall good agreement between SPI and soil
58 moisture indices has been demonstrated over a large range of agricultural practices, crop types and
59 climatic conditions. Halwatura et al. (2017) showed how SPI-3 represents a good approximation
60 of modeled soil moisture over three different climatic regions in eastern Australia. Sims et al.
61 (2002) found high correlation between short-term precipitation deficit and soil moisture variations
62 in North Carolina, while Ji and Peters (2003) highlighted the high correlation between SPI-3 and
63 vegetation growth over croplands and grasslands in the U.S. Great Plains. Wang et al. (2015)
64 observed a good matching between soil moisture dynamics and SPI at the scale of 1-3 months
65 when testing various indices over China. In Europe, Manning et al. (2018) highlighted how
66 precipitation is the main driver of soil moisture droughts for a set of both dry and wet sites.

67 In spite of the above-mentioned consistencies, the outcome of any drought analysis is
68 inevitably affected by the index selected to characterize drought conditions over a certain study
69 region, as also highlighted by Quiring and Papakryiakou (2003) in testing different indices over
70 the Canadian prairies. These authors suggest that a variety of drought indices should always be
71 tested to determine the most appropriate one for a given application. It follows that the synergy
72 between multiple indices can be exploited by the use of multivariate indicators (Hao and Singh,
73 2015), a family of approaches that encompasses a variety of merging strategies, including
74 combined cascading indices (Cammalleri et al., 2021a; Rembold et al., 2019), composite and
75 integrated approaches (Brown et al., 2008; Svoboda et al., 2002), and joint probability functions
76 (Bateni et al., 2018; Hao and AghaKouchak, 2013; Kanthavel et al., 2022).

77 The latter category, in particular, aims at capturing the complex statistical dependence
78 among different drought-related variables (Hao and Singh, 2015), and it has seen a growing
79 relevance in many hydrological applications thanks to the introduction of copula functions and
80 their ability to model a wide range of dependence structures (Nelsen, 2006; Salvadori et al., 2007;
81 Joe, 2015). In the field of drought indices, the approach proposed by Kao and Govindaraju (2010)
82 for the computation of the Joint Deficit Index (JDI) has been applied to a variety of drought-related
83 quantities over different regions, often including precipitation and soil moisture (i.e., Dash et al.,
84 2019; Kwon et al., 2019).

85 A key feature in using joint probability is the possibility to characterize the so-called tail-
86 dependence (TD), namely the asymptotical dependence of the extremes (Frahm et al., 2005). While
87 TD has received large attention in the scientific literature of hydrological extremes (e.g.,
88 Aghakouchak et al., 2010; Poulin et al., 2007; Serinaldi, 2008), its use is largely unexploited in
89 studies focusing on combined drought indices.

90 Studies on the marginal distribution of either precipitation or soil moisture usually adopt
91 the Gamma distribution for precipitation and the Beta distribution for soil moisture. The use of the
92 Gamma family for the implementation of the SPI at different accumulation periods has become a
93 standard practice in many applications (e.g., Mo and Lyon, 2015; Yuan and Wood, 2013). While
94 other distributions have also proven to be reliable, such as the exponentiated Weibull (Pieper et
95 al., 2020) and the Person Type III (Ribeiro and Pires, 2016), fitting the Gamma is still the most
96 adopted approach. Over Europe, Stagge et al. (2015) demonstrated how the Gamma outperformed
97 the other tested distributions across all accumulation periods and regions.

98 A more limited number of applications based on soil moisture data are available in the
99 scientific literature compared to SPI. The use of the Beta distribution for soil moisture data has
100 been introduced as early as the late '70s, with the pioneer study of Ravelo and Decker (1979),
101 following the consideration that soil moisture is a double-bounded quantity, ranging between
102 residual and saturation. Sheffield et al. (2004) successfully applied this standardization for drought
103 analyses over the US, while the same distribution has been adopted by Cammalleri et al. (2016)
104 on modeled data over Europe. Most recently, the Beta distribution was also used to characterize
105 the frequency of global satellite soil moisture data (Sadri et al., 2020).

106 Conversely, no standard approaches have been identified for the application of copulas to
107 model the bivariate joint distribution of precipitation and soil moisture, mainly due to the large
108 variety of probabilistic structures than may be observed between these two quantities. Common
109 fitting strategies rely on the application of various copula families to identify the optimal for each
110 specific site (e.g., Hao and AghaKouchak, 2013), or are based on an a-priori selection of a copula
111 family following empirical evidence (e.g., Dixit and Jayakumar, 2021). Independently from the
112 selection strategy, the adopted copula implicitly assumes an underlying TD behavior, which
113 influence on extreme detection should be properly accounted.

114 A comprehensive study on the joint probabilistic dynamics of precipitation and soil
115 moisture is currently lacking in the scientific literature of multivariate drought modeling. Hence,

116 the main goal of this study is to fill this gap, by investigating the mutual relationship between the
117 empirical frequencies of precipitation (cumulated over 3 months, as for SPI-3) and soil moisture
118 datasets as available over Europe as part of the European Drought Observatory of the Copernicus
119 Emergency Management Service (EDO, <https://edo.jrc.ec.europa.eu>).

120 A large set of copulas is tested for this purpose across the entire European domain, to
121 identify an optimal modeling of the dependence especially in proximity of the tails (given its major
122 role in extreme detection). The spatial distribution of the results is analyzed to infer evidence of
123 common patterns and behavior, which may support future operational applications based on
124 similar parametric approaches.

125

126 **2. Materials and Methods**

127 **2.1 Precipitation and soil moisture datasets**

128 The study focuses on Europe and makes use of the dataset of indicators available over the region
129 as part of EDO. Precipitation data accumulated over consecutive 3-month periods are used here,
130 as the quantity at the base of the SPI-3 index. Hourly total precipitation maps from the ECMWF
131 ERA5 global atmospheric reanalysis model ([https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/ecmwf-](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/ecmwf-reanalysis-v5)
132 [reanalysis-v5](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/ecmwf-reanalysis-v5)) are collected through the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S,
133 <https://climate.copernicus.eu/>) and cumulated at monthly updates (no missing values are present
134 in the reanalysis dataset). This dataset has proven to be quite reliable over Europe for drought
135 analyses (e.g., Cammalleri et al., 2021b; van der Wiel et al., 2022), as it is currently employed in
136 near-real time as part of the operational tools of EDO. Empirical frequencies of 3-month
137 precipitation are derived from the rainfall records, in order to obtain a non-parametric calculation
138 of the standardized anomaly, SPI-3, without the possible artifact introduced by the fitting of a
139 theoretical distribution (i.e., Gamma distribution) (see Sol'áková et al., 2014). From here on, we
140 will refer to this dataset as standardized precipitation.

141 Soil moisture records over the entire European domain are derived from the simulations of
142 the LISFLOOD distributed hydrological rainfall–runoff model (de Roo et al., 2000). LISFLOOD
143 runs in near-real time as part of the European Flood Awareness System (Thielen et al., 2009), and
144 it provides daily soil moisture maps for the root zone at a spatial resolution of 5-km. Daily modeled
145 data are averaged at monthly scale and converted into a Soil Moisture Index (SMI) as in
146 Seneviratne et al. (2010). The model is calibrated and validated over an extensive network of river

147 discharge stations following the procedure described in Arnal et al. (2019), and it has been
148 successfully tested for drought analyses over Europe as part of EDO for the computation of the
149 Soil Moisture Anomaly (SMA) index (Cammalleri et al., 2015). Similar to precipitation, empirical
150 frequencies are computed from the monthly soil moisture data in order to obtain a non-parametric
151 calculation of the standardized anomaly, SMA, thus independent from a theoretical fitting (i.e.,
152 Beta distribution). We will refer to this dataset as standardized soil moisture from hereafter.

153 In this study, data collected for the most recent 25 years (1996-2020) are used as a common
154 period. This period is chosen to minimize the effects of non-stationarity in precipitation records
155 and to avoid the inclusion of early LISFLOOD records that are affected by a lower number of
156 ground meteorological stations in the forcing (Thieming et al., 2022). The time series of both
157 standardized precipitation and soil moisture at grid-cell scale are preliminarily tested for auto-
158 correlation using the partial auto-correlation function (PACF, Box and Jenkins, 1976). This
159 analysis returned positive and statistically significant (95% confidence interval) values only at lag
160 = 1, suggesting a substantial absence of auto-correlation beyond what is expected for time series
161 with smooth temporal dynamics such as 3-month cumulative precipitation and soil moisture.

162 The 300 maps (12 months \times 25 years) for the two standardized datasets are then spatially
163 interpolated on a common Lambert azimuthal equal-area (LAEA) projection on a regular grid of
164 5-km using the nearest neighbor algorithm. This is done to preserve the high-resolution
165 information of the soil moisture and by considering the smooth spatial dynamics of precipitation
166 accumulated over 3 months.

167 **2.2 Copula families**

168 The introduction of copulas in multivariate probability modeling has provided to hydrologists a
169 flexible tool to reproduce the joint probability of multiple dependent variables characterized by a
170 variety of marginal distributions (De Michele and Salvadori, 2003; Salvadori and De Michele,
171 2004).

172 Limiting the focus on bivariate variables, the joint probability distribution, F , of two
173 random variables (X_1 and X_2) can be expressed, thanks to the Sklar's theorem, as:

$$174 \quad F(x_1, x_2) = C(F_1(x_1), F_2(x_2)) \quad (1)$$

175 where F_1 and F_2 are the marginal distribution of X_1 and X_2 , respectively, and C is the copula
176 function (Salvadori et al., 2007).

177 A large variety of parametric formulations has been introduced in the literature to explicitly
 178 link the marginal distributions to the joint probability, with some of the most common copula
 179 families used in hydrology belonging to the Elliptical and Archimedean copulas (Chen and Guo,
 180 2019). Two measures of dependence play a major role in parametric copula inference. The Kendall
 181 rank correlation coefficient (τ) is commonly used as a non-parametric measure of overall ordinal
 182 association, while the so-called Tail-Dependence (TD) coefficients (Salvadori et al., 2007) are
 183 used to estimate the asymptotical degree of dependence in the upper and lower extremes (upper
 184 tail-dependence, λ_U , and lower tail-dependence, λ_L , respectively). The estimation of TD non-
 185 parametrically is not an easy task, as highlighted by Serinaldi et al. (2015), as it aims at assessing
 186 an asymptotic behavior from a finite sample. Several formulations are proposed in the scientific
 187 literature (see Frahm et al., 2005), and the method proposed by Schmidt and Stadtmueller (2006)
 188 is here used to obtain non-parametric estimates of both TD coefficients.

189 In this study, the parametric bivariate probability of standardized precipitation and soil
 190 moisture is assessed by using the R package “VineCopula” (Aas et al., 2009; Dissman et al., 2013).
 191 The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC, Stoica and Selen, 2004) is used to select, for each spatial
 192 grid cell, the best fitting copula among the wide range of families available in the package. The
 193 main properties of some relevant copulas are reported in Table 1, as they will be useful to interpret
 194 the successive results.

195 In particular, from the data in Table 1 it is important to highlight how the BB7 copula is a
 196 combination of Joe and Clayton copulas, of which it inherits the tail-dependences, and how the
 197 TD behavior of a copula can be inverted (i.e., the upper tail-dependence can become the lower and
 198 *vice versa*) by simply considering the reciprocal marginals (commonly known as rotated forms,
 199 identified by the suffix 180). Information from both non-parametric and parametric approaches are
 200 here jointly used to discriminate between different TD behaviors.

201
202

203 **Table 1.** Main copulas analyzed in this study and their upper and lower tail-dependence
 204 coefficients (λ_L and λ_U , respectively).

Copula	λ_L	λ_U
Gaussian	0	0

Student-t	$2t_{v+1} \left(-\sqrt{v+1} \sqrt{\frac{1-\rho}{1+\rho}} \right)$	$2t_{v+1} \left(-\sqrt{v+1} \sqrt{\frac{1-\rho}{1+\rho}} \right)$
Gumbel	0	$2 - 2^{\frac{1}{\theta}}$
Clayton	$2^{-\frac{1}{\theta}}$	0
Joe	0	$2 - 2^{\frac{1}{\delta}}$
BB7	$2^{-\frac{1}{\theta}}$	$2 - 2^{\frac{1}{\delta}}$

205

206

207

Even if a copula is selected as the optimal based on the AIC, this does not necessarily exclude that other copulas may perform similarly. For this reason, we introduced a further test

208

based on the relative likelihood criterion (Burnham and Anderson, 2002), $\exp\left(\frac{AIC_{\min} - AIC_i}{2}\right)$,

209

to establish the likelihood that an AIC value of a given copula (AIC_i) is significantly different than

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the minimum value (AIC_{\min}) obtained for the optimal solution.

211

2.3 Random forest classification of selected copulas

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The interpretation of the selected copula functions may help highlighting the transferability of the

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observed results over different contexts. For this reason, the observed spatial distribution of the

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selected copulas is analyzed through a random forest classifier (Breiman, 2001), in order to find

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evidence of reproducible patterns beyond simple chance.

216

As input features we consider a set of commonly available variables, such as: ground

217

elevation, annual average temperature, annual total precipitation, precipitation seasonality (ratio

218

between total precipitation in warm and cold months), annual average Normalized Difference

219

Vegetation Index (NDVI), annual average soil moisture, and soil type. As hyperparameters for the

220

random forest, we tuned the number of trees (ntree) and the number of features randomly sampled

221

at each split (mtry) using the “randomForest” R package (Breiman, 2001).

222

3. Results

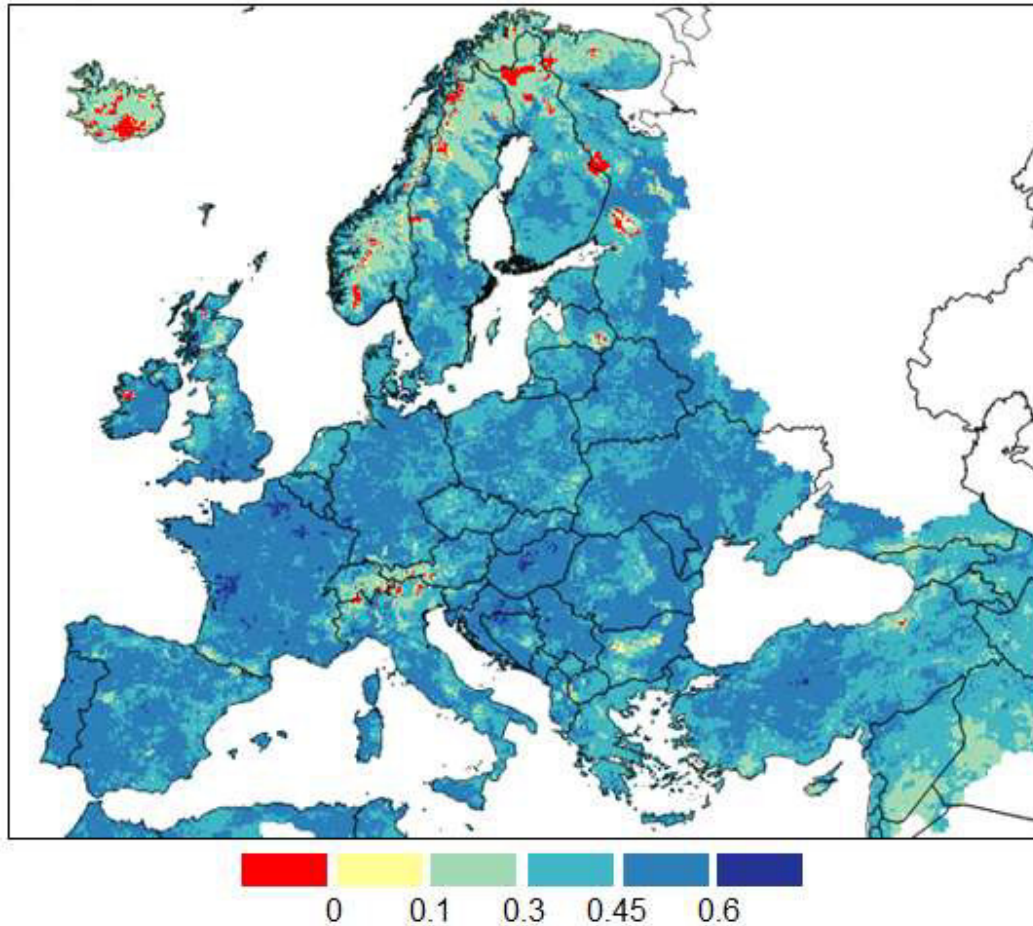
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A preliminary analysis of the degree of correlation between the monthly standardized 3-month

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precipitation and soil moisture (analogous to non-parametric SPI-3 and SMA) is tested on the full

225 timeseries of each grid cell using the Kendall's τ , as depicted in Fig. 1 for the entire European
226 domain.



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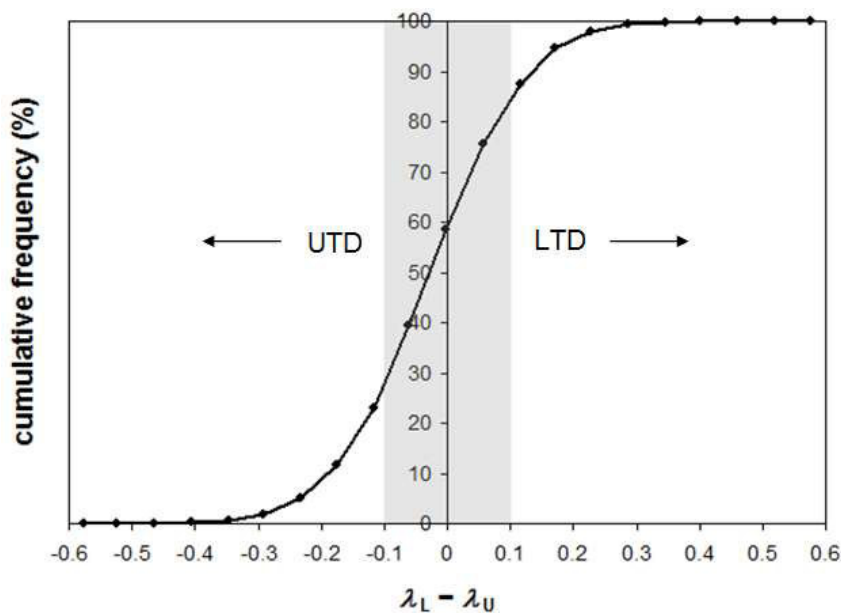
228 **Fig. 1.** Spatial distribution of the Kendall's τ between monthly standardized 3-month precipitation
229 and soil moisture. Roughly, values lower than 0.1 are not statistically significant at $p = 0.05$ (two-
230 tails).
231

232 The results reported in Fig. 1 confirms the expected direct relation between the two
233 variables, with a relatively homogeneous distribution of medium/high (between 0.3 and 0.5) τ
234 values ($\tau = 0.42 \pm 0.1$). Limited regions with low (and sometimes even slightly negative) τ values
235 are sporadically observed, mostly over the Alps, Iceland and the coldest regions of the Scandinavia
236 peninsula. Low correlations over these regions are likely related to the presence of snow coverage
237 during extended periods of the year. Overall, the observed τ values cannot be considered
238 statistically significant (at $p = 0.05$) only for less than 2% of the domain.

239 The analysis of the non-parametric tail-dependence values is summarized in the plot
 240 depicted in Fig. 2, where the cumulative frequency of the difference between the empirical λ_L and
 241 λ_U values is reported. The range of TD values in Fig. 2 for which it is possible to exclude significant
 242 asymmetry in the tail dependence coefficients is identified by setting a maximum value for $|\lambda_L -$
 243 $\lambda_U|$. To define this threshold, the non-parametric TD coefficients were re-computed on shuffled
 244 time series (to artificially reconstruct conditions of null dependence), and the $|\lambda_L - \lambda_U|$ value
 245 corresponding to a cumulative frequency of 90% of the grid cells after the shuffling was detected
 246 as threshold, corresponding to a value of 0.1. This value can be seen as a lower limit to identify
 247 symmetric dependence.

248 The plot in Fig. 2 highlights how the majority (about 50%) of the grid cells can be
 249 considered characterized by a symmetric behavior in the tail-dependence coefficients according to
 250 the above mentioned criterion ($|\lambda_L - \lambda_U| < 0.1$), whereas the rest of the grid cells are almost equally
 251 split between a predominance of the Upper Tail-Dependence (UTD, corresponding to negative
 252 differences) or a predominance of Lower Tail-Dependence (LTD, positive differences).

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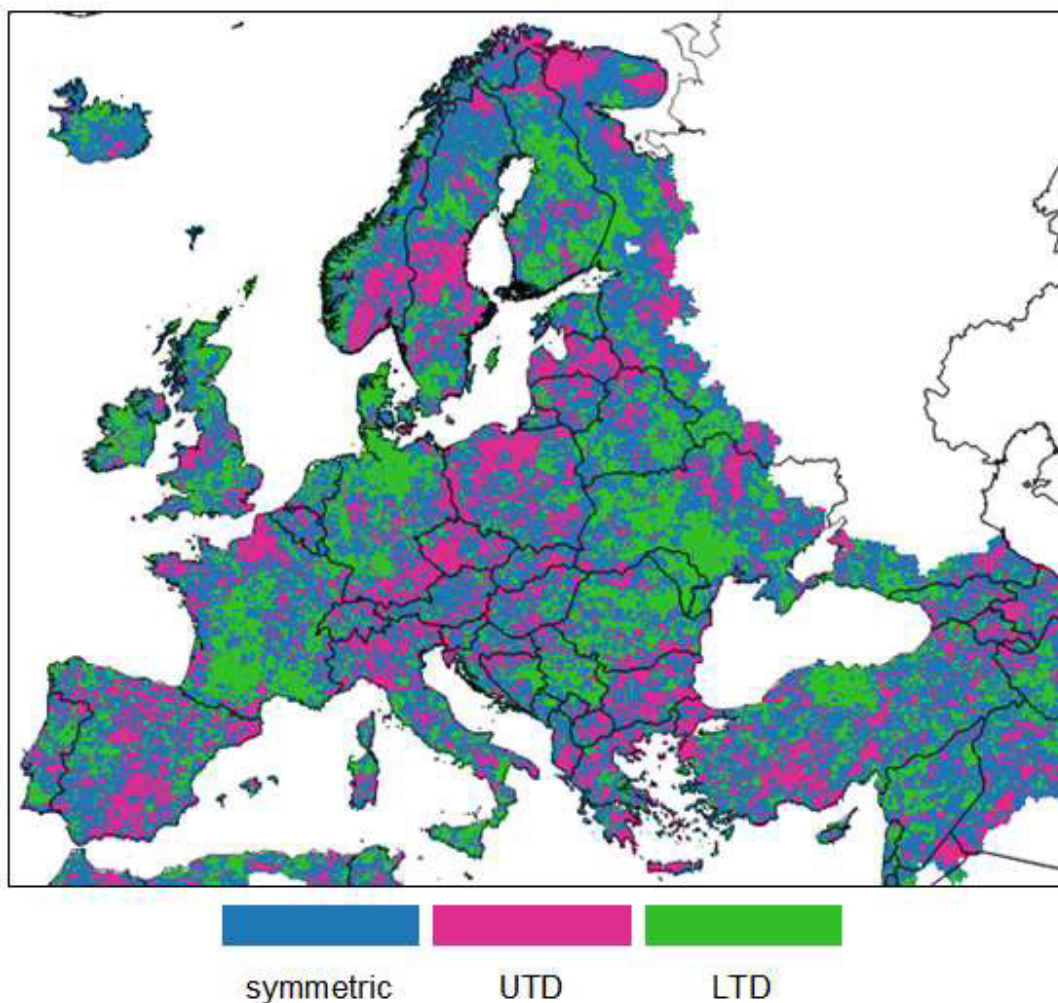


254

255 **Fig. 2.** Analysis of the frequency of the empirical tail-dependence coefficients. The plot shows the
 256 cumulative frequency distribution of the differences between the empirical λ_L and λ_U values
 257 computed according to Schmidt and Stadtmueller (2006). The domain with a roughly symmetric
 258 behavior ($|\lambda_L - \lambda_U| < 0.1$) is highlighted by the grey box area.

259

260 The results reported in Fig. 2 were used to divide the entire domain in three categories
261 (symmetric, LTD and UTD) as depicted in Fig. 3. This map shows evidence of some coherent
262 spatial patterns, such as the predominance of LTD in southern France, southern Italy, northern
263 Germany and Denmark, and western Ukraine (among others), and a clustering of UTD in Poland,
264 Czechia, southern Scandinavia, and Greece. The symmetric condition seems overall more spread
265 across the entire domain, also thanks to the higher frequency, with a slightly predominance over
266 northern Europe (i.e., northern Scandinavian peninsula and Iceland).
267



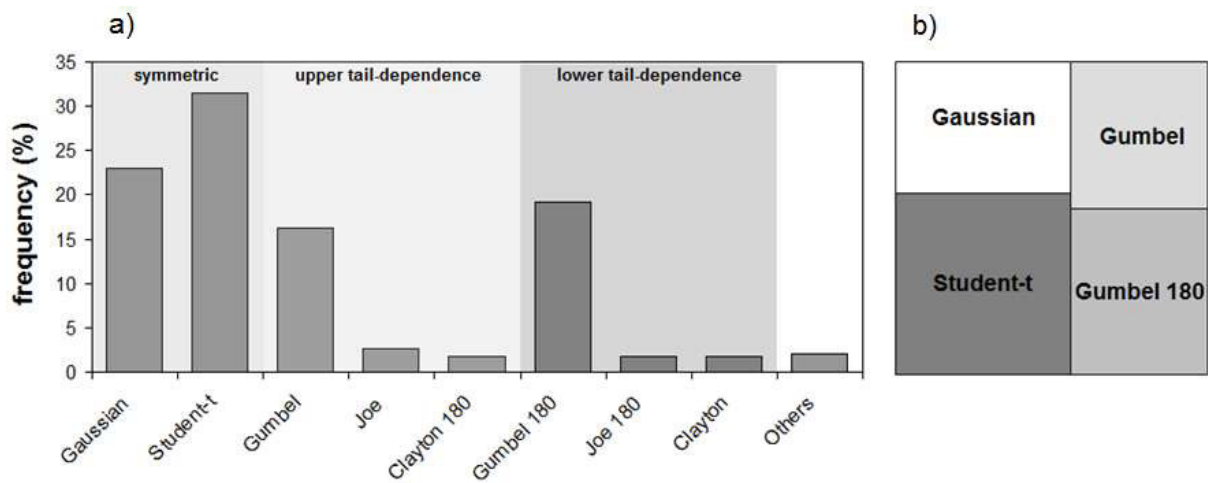
268
269 **Fig. 3.** Spatial distribution of the three categories derived from the differences in the empirical tail-
270 dependence coefficients.
271

272 Given the results of the tail-dependence assessment, it is useful to focus the copula
273 parametric analysis on the capability to reproduce such patterns instead of finding the single copula

274 that can perform reasonably well over the entire domain. Indeed, the search for the optimal copula
 275 based on the minimum AIC returns the BB7 as the optimal one in about 80% of the domain (not
 276 shown). This result is a consequence of the BB7 flexibility (being derived from a combination of
 277 two purely asymmetric functions), which allows reproducing both symmetric and asymmetric tail-
 278 dependence coefficients according to the values assumed by the two parameters. However, the fact
 279 that a single flexible copula works well over a large range of conditions may hide the key spatial
 280 patterns observed in the TD analysis. These patterns may be better reproduced by adopting a
 281 limited number of more specialized copulas.

282 By limiting the search to a subset of copula functions, comprising only purely symmetric
 283 or purely asymmetric tail behaviors, more interesting results are obtained, as summarized by the
 284 frequency plot in Fig. 4. The grid cells where symmetric tail behavior copulas are selected as
 285 optimal are about 55% of the domain (see Fig. 4b), with a predominance of Student-t copula but
 286 also with a non-negligible fraction of cells (23%) where the Gaussian (symmetric and without tail-
 287 dependence) is chosen (see Fig. 4a). The remaining grid cells are almost equally split between
 288 upper and lower tail-dependence, with Gumbel (and its rotated counterpart, Gumbel 180) as the
 289 most selected among the asymmetric options.

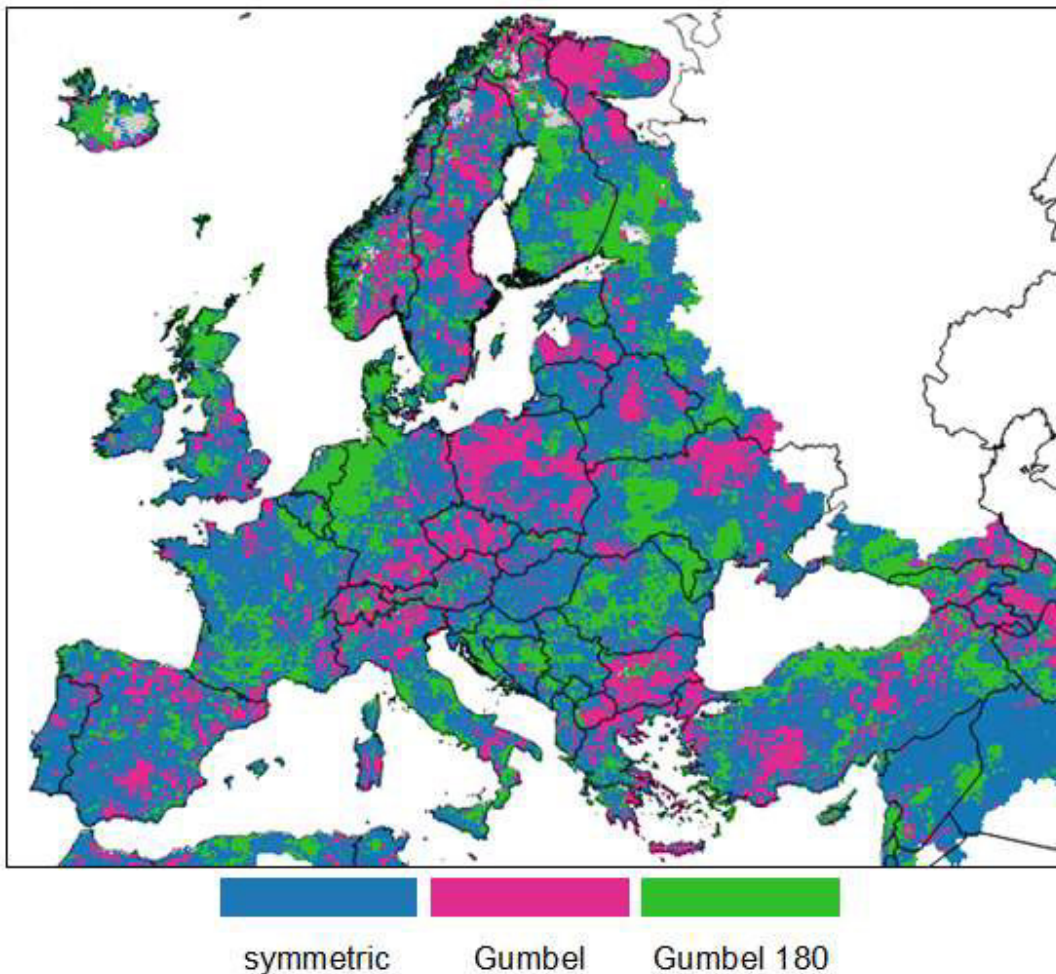
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291
 292 **Fig. 4.** Frequency of the optimal copulas based on the minimum AIC. The barplot in panel a)
 293 shows the frequency of each copula, while the box in panel b) reports a compact description of the
 294 subdivision of the entire domain among the 4 most frequent copulas.
 295

296 The spatial distribution of these optimal copulas (Fig. 5) mostly agree with the patterns
 297 observed in Fig. 3, supporting the findings on the spatial distribution of TD coefficients. In

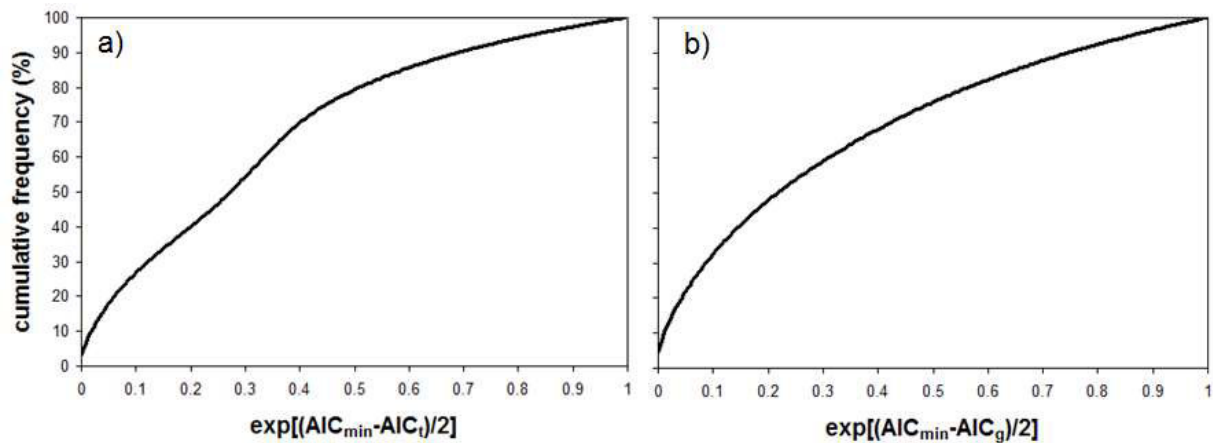
298 addition, this result further confirms that a rather limited range of simple copula functions is able
299 to capture the overall dynamics of dependence between precipitation and soil moisture over the
300 entire European domain. Despite the observed spatial clusters in the obtained optimal copulas, the
301 overall patterns observed in Fig. 5 are still rather noisy and may be difficult to interpret. This erratic
302 behavior can be partially explained by the fact that different copulas may perform quite similarly
303 over some grid cells, hence the AIC of the optimal copula (AIC_{min}) may not differ significantly
304 from the AIC of other functions.



305
306 **Fig. 5.** Spatial distribution of the optimal copulas obtained by minimizing the AIC. The symmetric
307 tail behavior class includes both Gaussian and Student-t copulas.
308

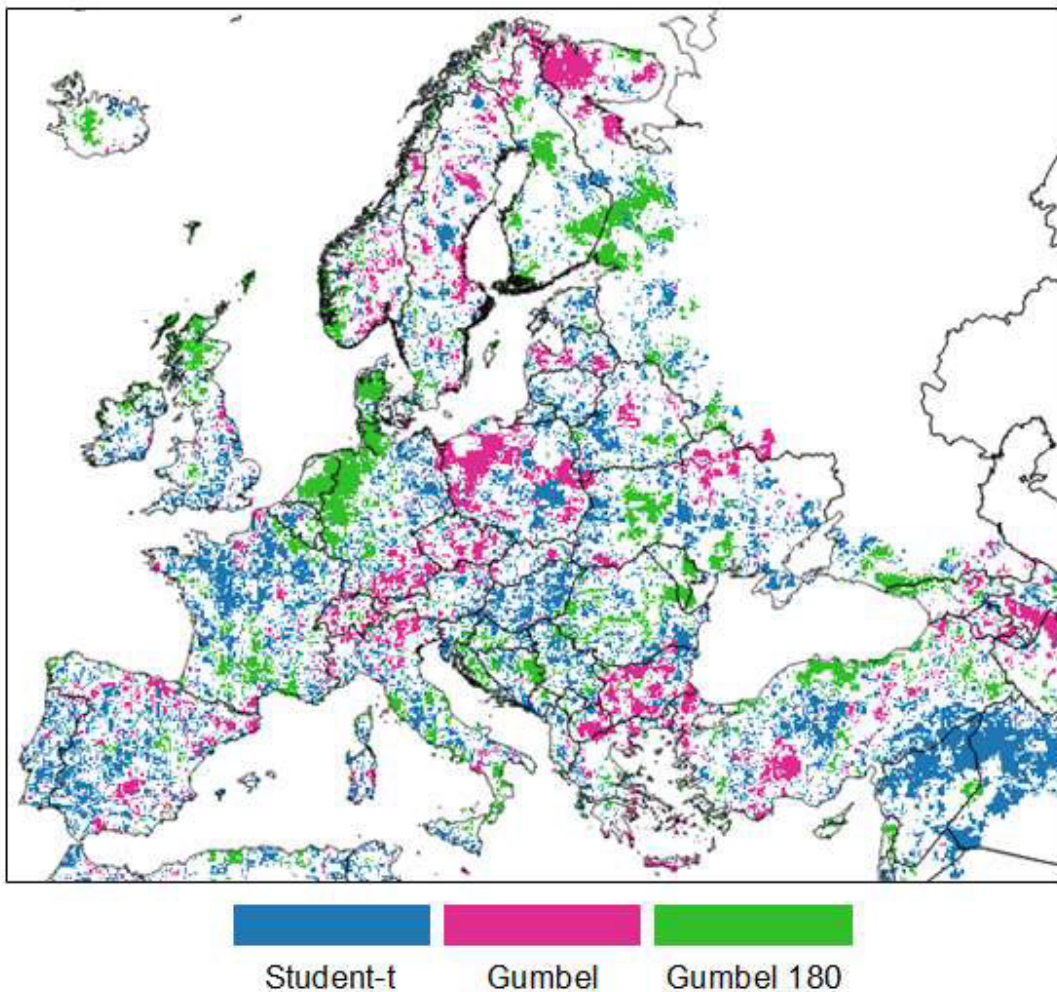
309 To further investigate this hypothesis, we evaluated the possibility to replace the optimal
310 copulas with either a Student-t or a Gumbel (direct and rotated) over the entire domain. The
311 Gaussian copula was excluded from this analysis under the assumption that the no tail-dependence

312 of the Gaussian can be adequately reproduced by the Student-t with a small enough tail-
 313 dependence. The plots in Fig. 6 reports the relative likelihood for the Student-t (panel a) and
 314 Gumbel families (panel b) compared to the locally selected optimal copulas. Low values of this
 315 metric correspond to conditions where the optimal copula cannot be replaced by the alternative
 316 function (being either the Student-t or the Gumbel).
 317



318
 319 **Fig. 6.** Frequency analysis of the relative likelihood computed between the optimal AIC (AIC_{min})
 320 and: a) Student-t (AIC_t), or b) Gumbel (AIC_g) families. The grid cells where either the Student-t
 321 or the Gumbel was already the optimal solution were excluded from the respective frequency
 322 analysis.
 323

324 The results in Fig. 6 show that, if we assume a relative likelihood of 0.1 as a threshold to
 325 detect a statistically significant difference, the Student-t cannot reasonably replace the local
 326 optimal copula in about 18% of the entire domain (Fig. 6a), whereas this fraction is about 17% for
 327 the Gumbel family (Fig. 6b). It emerges that the Gumbel family is the optimal one in almost the
 328 totality (about 99%) of the grid cells where the Student-t is not a suitable replacement of the local
 329 optimal, whereas almost only symmetric copulas (63% Student-t and 34% Gaussian) are the
 330 optimal functions where the Gumbel family is not a suitable replacement. Overall, these results
 331 suggest that the selection of the optimal copula is “univocal” (i.e., cannot be reasonably replaced
 332 by another function) in about 35% (18+17) of the domain, whereas either the Student-t or the
 333 Gumbel families can be adopted in the remain fraction of the domain with similar performances
 334 in terms of AIC (and no clear TD behavior). This analysis also confirms the assumption that all
 335 the areas where the Gaussian was chosen as optimal copula can be satisfactory modeled by using
 336 the Student-t (i.e. without a statistically significant increase in AIC).



338

339 **Fig. 7.** Spatial distribution of the grid cells where the selection of the optimal copula is “univocal”
 340 according to the relative likelihood criterion.

341

342 The “univocal” areas derived from the previous analysis are mapped in Fig. 7, highlighting
 343 some of the more consistent spatial clusters already observed in both Figs. 3 and 5, as well as a
 344 large fraction of cells in northern Europe where a “univocal” optimal copula cannot be selected.
 345 These grid cells with “univocal” copula are used as a starting point for the random forest
 346 classification, given the robustness in their signal, and the agreement in the outcome of both
 347 parametric and non-parametric TD behaviors.

348

349 A sample corresponding to 25% of the “univocal” grid cells (about 8% of the entire
 350 domain) was used to train the random forest, adopting a number of trees (ntree) of 80 and a single
 feature randomly sampled at each split (mtry = 1). The training size and the minimum values of

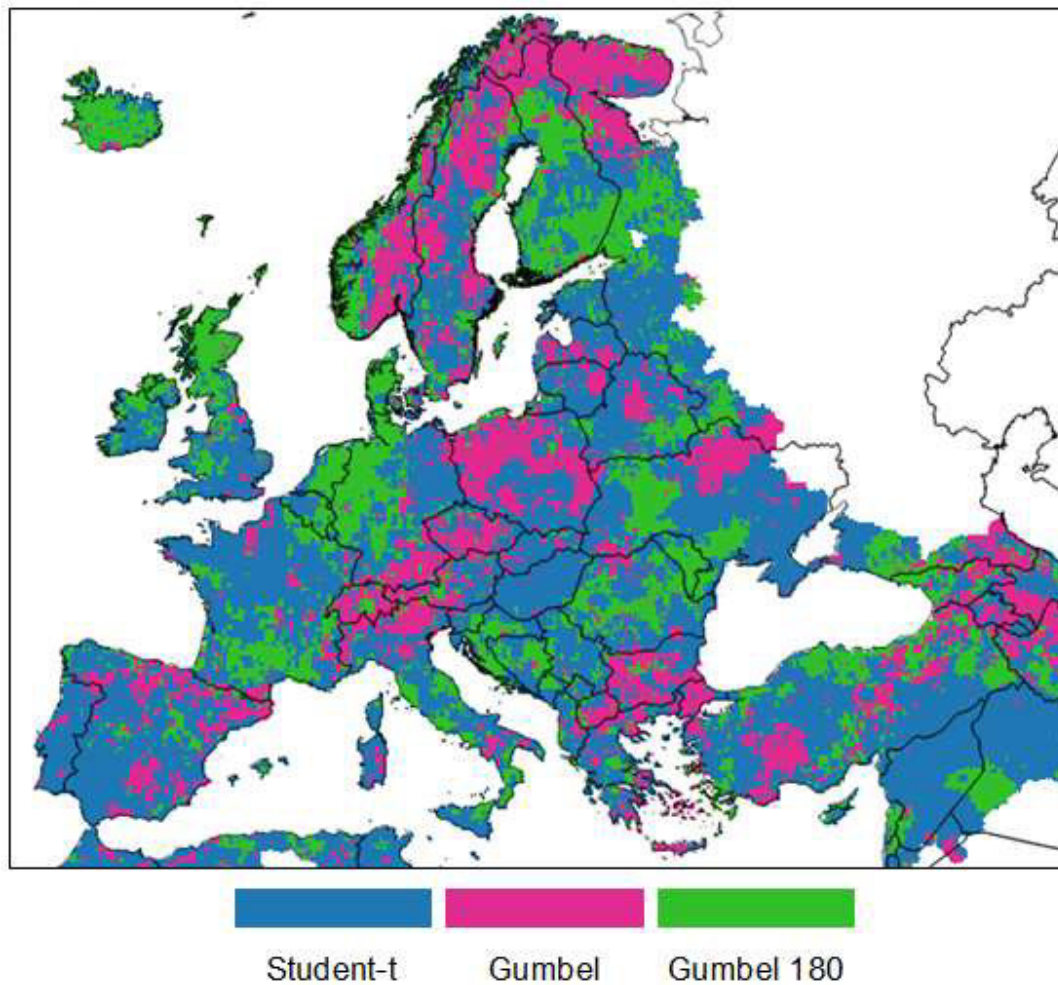
351 hyperparameters were chosen to reduce the problem of overfitting. Among the possible features,
 352 three variables were selected by analyzing the variable importance plots, as well as the ease of
 353 access: annual average temperature, annual total precipitation, and precipitation seasonality. The
 354 trained classifier was then applied to the testing subset (the remaining 75% of the “univocal” grid
 355 cells) and the outcomes were analyzed by mean of a confusion matrix, which results are
 356 summarized in Table 2. Overall, the obtained classification has a very satisfactory matching with
 357 the test subset, with a general high accuracy ($ACC = 0.86$) and with all the metrics pointing toward
 358 a significant improving in the performance compared to the reference No-Information-Rate (NIR)
 359 (i.e., small p-values) and a high probability to have correct modeled values compared to simple
 360 chance (i.e., high Cohen’s K).

361

362 **Table 2.** Summary of the confusion matrix analysis applied to the trained random forest on the
 363 testing subset.

Accuracy (ACC)	0.86
No-Information-Rate (NIR)	0.50
p-value ($ACC > NIR$)	$< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$
McNemar’s test p-value	3.44×10^{-5}
Cohen’s kappa statistic (K)	0.78

364



365

366 **Fig. 8.** Map of the optimal copula as modeled by the trained random forest classifier.

367

368 Finally, the trained classifier was applied to the entire dataset to obtain a classification of

369 the European domain in term of the expected optimal copula and the corresponding TD behavior.

370 This map, reported in Fig. 8, shows a strong resemblance to both the empirically-derived map in

371 Fig. 3 and the optimal AIC fitting in Fig. 5. Beside this overall agreement, some notable

372 discrepancies can be observed over northern Scandinavia and Iceland, two regions where low

373 Kendall's τ and a small fraction of "univocal" selected copulas were already identified.

374

375 **4. Discussion**

376 The overarching goal of the study is to investigate the joint probability of two standardized

377 variables aiming at capturing agricultural drought conditions, hence the overall agreement between

378 these two quantities is a fundamental prerequisite. A direct relationship between standardized 3-

379 month cumulated precipitation and soil moisture is expected, since both SPI-3 and SMA are
380 similarly-used agricultural drought indices, and this can support the identification of the most
381 suitable set of copula families (Salvadori et al., 2007; Genest et al., 2007). This direct relationship
382 is overall confirmed by the positive Kendall's τ values estimated over most of the domain ($\tau =$
383 0.42 ± 0.1). Moderately high correlation values of standardized precipitation and soil moisture were
384 estimated also in other studies. Kwon et al. (2018) reported Pearson's r values between 0.4 and
385 0.6 for 55 stations in South Korea, albeit with seasonal patterns; Gaona et al. (2022) found similar
386 values over the Ebro basin with both land-surface modeled and satellite soil moisture, and
387 Sepulcre-Cantó et al. (2012) obtained an average value of r of about 0.6 over nine stations across
388 Europe.

389 Sehler et al. (2019) studied the correlation between remote sensing-based precipitation and
390 soil moisture, finding moderate correlation over southern Europe, and a weak (often not
391 significant) correlation in central Europe. However, central Europe is close to the upper limit of
392 the analyzed remote sensing products, which can explain such low performance. Limited
393 correlation even among different soil moisture products has been observed in northern Europe in
394 other studies (Almenda-Martín et al., 2022), confirming the difficulty to model soil moisture
395 dynamics over this region.

396 The obtained values for the Kendall's τ fall in a somewhat optimal range for the analysis
397 of the joint probability, since they are statistically significant almost everywhere (i.e., the two
398 indices are to a certain degree consistent) but not too high to make meaningless any joint use of
399 the two datasets (i.e., the two indices are too similar and provide the same information).

400 The outcome of the tail-dependence analysis is even more interesting, given the role that
401 such metric plays in the detection of extreme events (and in particular the low-tail for droughts).
402 The TD investigation is sometimes overlooked in the development of multivariate drought indices,
403 where previous studies often focused on optimizing the copula to the local data without analyzing
404 the implicit assumption on the TD, the consistency with the non-parametric TD, and the
405 implications of the associated dependence. Previous studies on the joint probability of precipitation
406 and soil moisture are rather scarce, and TD is rarely the focus of such analyses or, at least, limited
407 to specific areas and/or conditions.

408 As an example, Manning et al. (2018) performed a very detailed analysis over 11 FluxNet
409 sites in Europe on the role of precipitation and evapotranspiration on soil moisture drought, based

410 on pair copula constructions, but the authors did not provide any indication on which bivariate
411 copula was the optimal one for each site. Kwon et al. (2018) reported that Frank copula was the
412 most frequent optimal choice in their study over South Korea. However, some clear spatial patterns
413 observed in their outcomes were not discussed, with Frank being the selected copula mostly in the
414 central area of the domain, but with Gumbel and Student-t performing the best in the southern and
415 eastern coasts, respectively.

416 Dash et al. (2019) found Frank (among the Archimedean copulas) working the best for 3-
417 month precipitation and soil moisture over an Indian basin; while Hao and AghaKouchak (2013)
418 highlighted the good performance of Frank and Gumbel in five regions of California, even if
419 neither Gaussian nor Student-t were considered. In all these applications, no specific
420 considerations on the TD behaviors were reported, even if a common trend seems to be the good
421 performance of Frank copula. This is in contrast with our results, where the Frank was very rarely
422 selected as optimal (less than 1% of the domain). A possible explanation of these results may be
423 our focus on empirical marginal frequencies rather than theoretical ones, given the well-
424 documented increasing uncertainty in parametric fitting in the tails (Farahmand and
425 AghaKouchak, 2015; Laimighofer and Laaha, 2022). As a possible confirmation of this
426 hypothesis, a good performance of Gumbel and Gaussian has been observed over Iran by Bateni
427 et al. (2018), similarly to our results, when a non-parametric form for SPI and SSI (Standardized
428 Soil Moisture Index) was used.

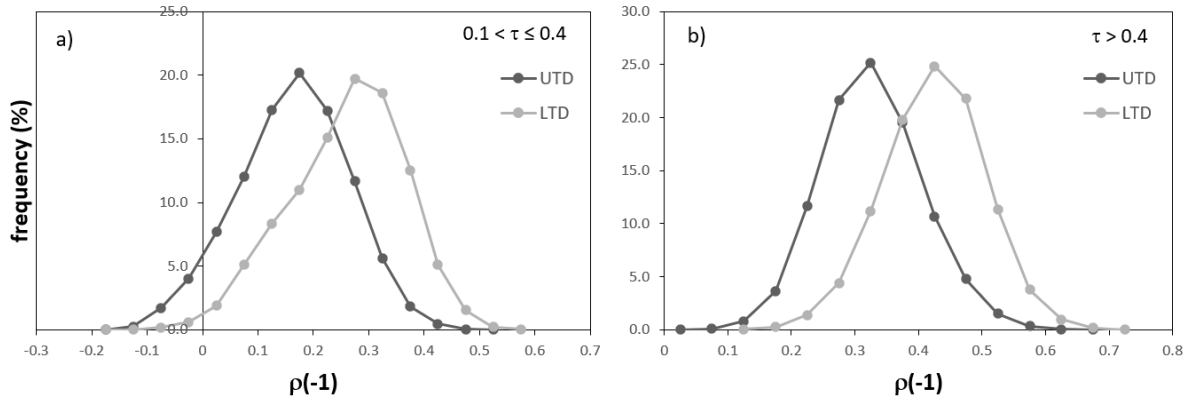
429 The absence of a strict standard procedure to investigate tail-dependence may be another
430 factor affecting the limited focus on the topic in many studies on multivariate drought indices.
431 Non-parametric TD has the clear advantage to avoid any alteration of the data due to the fitting
432 procedure, but the outcomes in this study also show a high degree of spatial noise likely due to the
433 intrinsic nature of non-parametric analyses, the large uncertainty in non-parametric methods
434 (Serinaldi et al., 2015), as well as the effects of the limited sample size (for this last issue see also
435 the illustration 3.18 in Salvadori et al., 2007). The threshold used here to define a symmetric
436 behavior, based on a random shuffling of the data, seems to successfully overcome the difficulty
437 to define a self-consistent maximum difference in TD values, but it cannot be seen as a reliable
438 approach to easily identify TD symmetry without the support of further evidence (e.g., by
439 theoretical analyses).

440 In this regard, the fitting of parametric copula functions returns spatial patterns in TD
441 coefficients similar to the ones obtained with the non-parametric approach. However, the absence
442 of “univocal” fittings can be observed for large areas, as well as some contrasting results compared
443 to the non-parametric TD especially over northern Europe (areas with low correlation). The grid
444 cells where a given copula clearly outperforms the alternative options is limited to roughly 1/3 of
445 the domain, further stressing the evidence that clear-cut outcomes are difficult to infer from a
446 single methodology. Thus, it seems reasonable to state that only a critical concerted analysis of
447 both parametric and non-parametric TDs can return robust practical indications based on a
448 converge of evidence.

449 A clear outcome of our study is the predominance of regions with symmetric tail-
450 dependence coefficients, where the Student-t copula is suitable to reproduce the joint probability
451 of standardized precipitation and soil moisture. An even split of the remaining domain between
452 areas with either lower or upper tail-dependence is also observed, where the Gumbel copula (in
453 either is direct or 180 rotated forms) is proven to be a suitable option. These results are crucial in
454 defining the role of standardized precipitation and soil moisture datasets in detecting drought
455 events, and to which extent they can work in synergy in a drought monitoring system. While the
456 correlation between the two datasets highlights the extent of their overall agreement, which in this
457 study was somewhat uniform across most of the domain (τ ranging between 0.3 and 0.5), very
458 different degrees of tail-consistency can be obtained for similar Kendall’s τ if the TDs differ
459 substantially. Regions with higher LTD will have a higher agreement in the detection of drought
460 extremes compared to areas with a UTD predominance, hence a low number of false alarm and a
461 higher signal-to-noise ratio may be expected.

462 To further explore this behavior, the time series of standardized variables were converted
463 in binary vectors based on the commonly used standardized drought threshold of -1 (corresponding
464 to an empirical frequency of 0.16). On these data, the pair-wise binary correlation coefficient, $\rho(-1)$,
465 was computed separately for the grid cells with LTD and UTD. Results are shown in Fig. 9,
466 for grid-cells with low ($0.1 < \tau \leq 0.4$, panel a) and high ($\tau > 0.4$, panel b) overall correlation,
467 respectively. They show a net increase in the pairwise binary correlation for the grid cells with
468 LTD (of about 0.15 in both cases) compared to the cases with UTD, even if the overall correlation
469 is comparable. This increase in $\rho(-1)$ translates in a stronger agreement in the detection of extremes
470 when a low tail-dependence is observed, resulting in a more robust detection of the drought

471 conditions thanks to the concurrency of extreme conditions in both drought indices (i.e.,
 472 convergence of evidence).
 473



474
 475 **Fig. 9.** Frequency distribution of the pairwise binary correlation between standardized
 476 precipitation and soil moisture lower than -1, computed separately for grid cells with UTD (dark
 477 grey lines) and LTD (light grey lines). Panel a) reports the results for the grid cells with low overall
 478 correlation ($0.1 < \tau \leq 0.4$), while panel b) reports the results for the grid cells with high correlation
 479 ($\tau > 0.4$).
 480

481 Regions such as southern France, northern UK, northern Germany and Denmark (where a
 482 strong LTD is observed, see Fig. 8) are appropriate candidates for a robust assessment of
 483 agricultural drought conditions based on a joint precipitation-soil moisture index, whereas some
 484 regions in central Europe (i.e., Poland, Czechia, Switzerland) may not equally benefit from the use
 485 of a joint index due to the lower importance of LTD.

486 Overall, the parametric copula fittings confirm most of the non-parametric TD patterns
 487 suggesting that a parametric approach is suitable for an operational implementation of a
 488 precipitation-soil moisture joint drought index over most of Europe. This implies that the proposed
 489 procedure, based on the combination of parametric and non-parametric analyses, can be considered
 490 a reliable tool to provide meaningful insight on the potential application of joint probability as
 491 detector of extreme droughts.

492 At first glance, it may seem difficult to assign an explanation for the observed spatial
 493 patterns in LTD and UTD. However, the proven possibility to reasonably reconstruct these spatial
 494 patterns with a random forest classifier, starting from only a small sample of robust training data
 495 (less than 10% of the domain) and with commonly available driving features, suggests that the
 496 observed clusters are unlikely to be caused only by chance and that hidden structures may be

497 present and may be further explored. This result is encouraging for an extension of the derived
498 approach to other regions of the world.

499

500 **5. Summary and Conclusions**

501 The use of combined indices based on copula seems a promising development in the field of
502 drought detection and monitoring. In this study, we analyzed the joint probability of two variables
503 commonly used in agricultural drought analyses: the empirical frequencies of 3-month cumulated
504 precipitation and soil moisture. We focus on the probabilistic characteristics being key for
505 agricultural drought studies.

506 The overall agreement in the marginal probability of the two standardized variables
507 suggests that they are indeed valid candidates for the development of a joint drought index over
508 the European domain. However, an in-depth analysis of the tail-dependence, derived with both
509 non-parametric and parametric approaches, shows some clear spatial patterns, which have direct
510 repercussion on the capability of such data to provide robust and coherent estimates of drought
511 extremes. In this regard, regions such as southern France, northern UK, northern Germany, and
512 Denmark may benefit more from the joint use of the two standardized variables thanks to the
513 observed strong low tail-dependence (i.e., increasing agreement on the left tail extremes). The joint
514 dependence of standardized precipitation and soil moisture is well reproduced by using three
515 common copulas (Student-t, Gumbel and 180 rotated Gumbel), with spatial patterns that were
516 successfully reconstructed with a random forest classification, suggesting the presence of a
517 structure in the outcomes not related to chance.

518

519 **Code availability:** The codes used for this analysis can be provided upon request via the
520 corresponding author.

521

522 **Data availability:** All the data used in this study can be accessed and retrieved through the
523 European Drought Observatory (EDO) web portal
524 (<https://edo.jrc.ec.europa.eu/gdo/php/index.php?id=2112>).

525

526 **Author contribution:** CC designed the experiments, with inputs from AT and CDM. CC
527 developed the codes and performed the analyses. CC prepared the manuscript, which was
528 expanded and revised by all co-authors.

529

530 **Competing interests:** At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of
531 Hydrology and Earth System Sciences.

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