

1 **Spatial Shift and Intensification of Compound Drought and**
2 **Heatwaves (CDHW) towards Southern and Eastern Tropical**
3 **Regions over India**

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29 **Supplementary**

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31 **S1. SNEPI (Standardized Net Precipitation and Distribution Index)** (For details, refer
32 to Singh et al., 2021):

33 The methodology to develop the Standardized Net-Precipitation Index (SNEPI) is
34 explained below.

35 - Potential evapotranspiration (PET) is subtracted from daily precipitation to ascertain
36 the daily net precipitation. The Penman-Monteith equation is employed to acquire the
37 PET data, which takes into account variables such as vapor pressure, ambient
38 temperature, net radiation, wind speed, and vapor pressure deficit. The drought index's
39 daily fluctuations are precisely represented by the daily net precipitation.

40 - In order to assign days as either rainy or non-rainy, a threshold is established at which
41 the daily net precipitation balances atmospheric demand (PET) and precipitation input.
42 During periods of excess precipitation, net precipitation values are positive, while
43 negative values indicate deficit precipitation. The analysis encompasses all pertinent
44 data, including single-day periods of surplus or deficit.

45 - The daily net-precipitation series is used to extract the magnitude, duration, and
46 frequency of excess and deficit periods. The characteristics of deficit periods are
47 accounted for by a weighted average of monthly net precipitation. In order to
48 distinguish between periods with uniform precipitation and those with daily
49 fluctuations, a uniformity coefficient is implemented to capture intra-period variability.

50 - For the efficient utilization of water resources, it is crucial to consider the concept of
51 uniformity during periods of surplus or deficit. The uniformity is described by a
52 coefficient, and the non-uniformity is quantified by the area of deviation.

53 - A refined monthly aggregate is produced by adjusting the initial monthly aggregate to
54 account for the distribution of magnitudes within excess or deficit periods. The 1-month
55 SNEPI is computed using this refined aggregate; however, the methodology can be
56 modified to calculate SNEPI at various time scales.

57 - The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) goodness-of-fit test is employed to evaluate four
58 candidate distributions in order to fit the refined monthly aggregate to a suitable
59 probability distribution function (PDF). The optimal distribution is determined by the
60 discrepancy between the critical value and the test statistic.

63 **Performance Analysis:**

64 Contingency tables are generated for a variety of time periods (1, 3, 6, and 12 months) in
65 order to evaluate the efficacy of SNEPI in comparison to SPEI. SPEI is the reference due
66 to the absence of high-resolution official records, and its methodology is consistent with
67 SPI. The tables delineate drought conditions according to the definitions of both indices,
68 emphasizing the areas of agreement and disagreement. Positive disagreements arise when
69 SNEPI suggests wetter conditions than SPEI, while negative disagreements arise when
70 SNEPI suggests arid conditions.

71 The maximum level of agreement between SNEPI and SPEI is observed at the 1-month
72 time scale, and this agreement decreases as the time scale increases. This is attributable to
73 the growing significance of spell and frequency characteristics over extended periods.
74 Additionally, the boxplots of SNEPI and SPEI ranges demonstrated that SNEPI
75 significantly better depicts extreme wet and dry events across the majority of time scales.
76 Specifically, SNEPI consistently reports heightened tails in the 1-month scale, which are
77 associated with reduced uniformity coefficients (U_c) indicating high variability and skewed
78 rainfall events. This emphasizes SNEPI's superior capacity to capture extreme events in
79 comparison to SPEI, particularly at shorter time scales (Singh et al., 2021).

80

81 **S2. EEMD (Empirical Ensemble Mode Decomposition)**

82 MEEMD, which is derived from EEMD (Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition) and
83 EMD (Empirical Mode Decomposition), is employed to assess the existence of any trend
84 in each of the variables. EMD is a non-stationary, non-linear, and one-dimensional time-
85 domain decomposition procedure. This method is highly localized and adaptive,
86 decomposing a time series into multiple empirical modes known as intrinsic mode
87 functions (IMFs). IMFs are oscillatory functions that are simple in nature and have a
88 specific frequency and amplitude, which are frequently associated with a particular
89 physical process. Additionally, IMFs must meet two criteria:

90 i. The number of local extrema and the number of zero crossings must be equal or at most
91 differ by one, while the function must be symmetric in time.
92 ii. The mean value of the envelope, which is determined by the local maxima and local
93 minima, must be zero.

94 In general, a time series is comprised of two primary components: a mono component (I)
95 and a gradually varying component (R). The initial IMF can be derived by extracting the
96 mono component, which is also known as IMF, through a refining process known as sifting.

97 Figure S1 illustrates the procedures associated with the sieving process. The process will
98 terminate when the slow varying component is a monotonic function or when a curve
99 contains at most one extremum, at which point no additional oscillatory component can be
100 defined. The initial time series can be represented as:

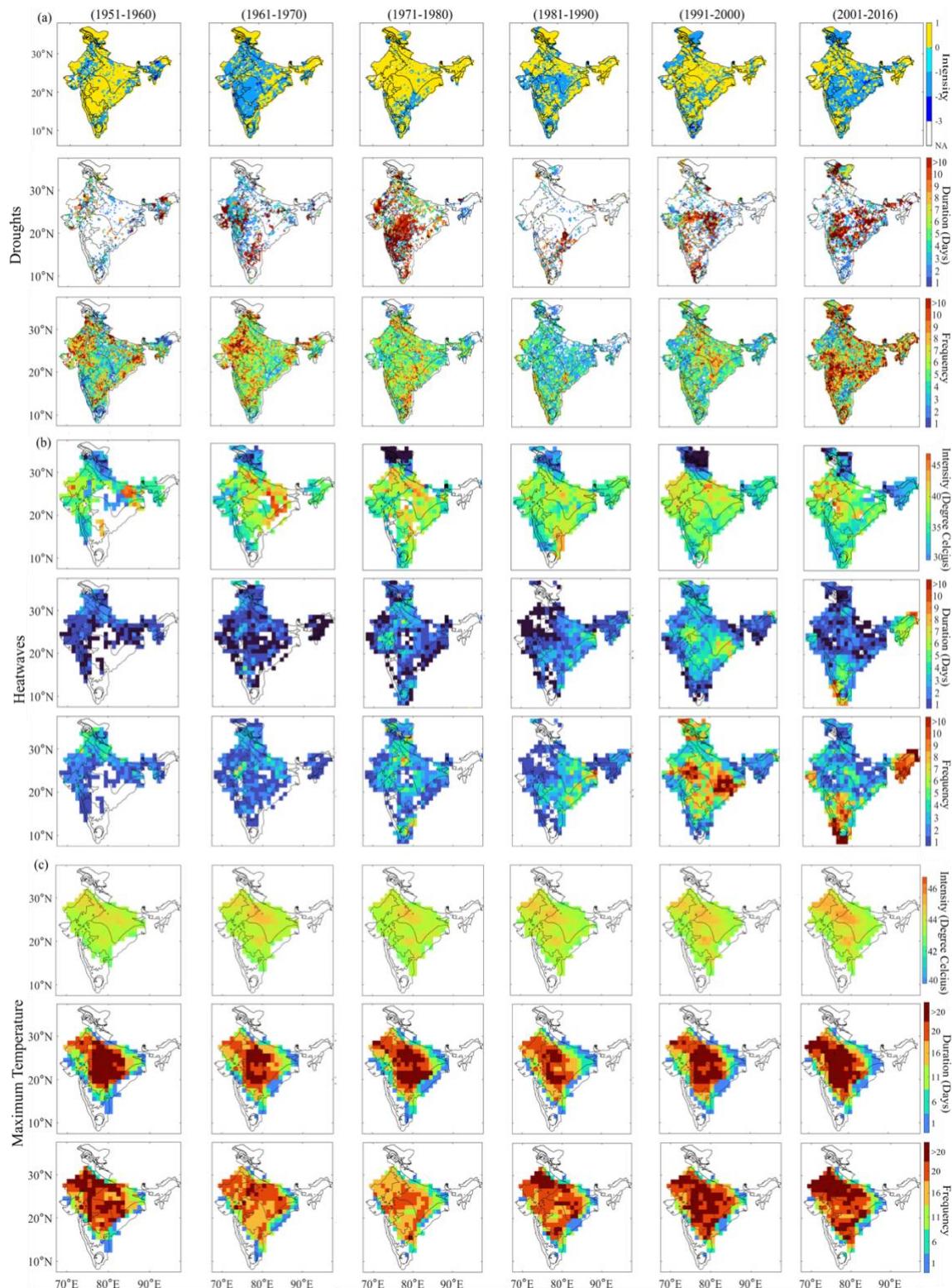
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$$Y(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n I_j(t) + R_n(t), \quad (1)$$

102 The sifting process, which is wholly dependent on the distribution of extrema, is the
103 standard method of enforcing EMD. The results could be substantially different if the
104 locations and values of the extrema are altered. Additionally, mode mixing may result from
105 oscillations of disparate scales, which can result in an incorrect interpretation of the
106 physical meaning of IMF. This unequivocally underscores the fact that EMD is susceptible
107 to noise. The EMD approach is unstable and fails to satisfy the physical uniqueness of the
108 decomposition methods, as we are aware that real data typically contains a certain quantity
109 of random noise and intermittences. Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition (EEMD)
110 was devised to address this limitation. This method is a noise-assisted data analysis
111 technique. The following are the steps that are engaged in EEMD:

- 112 1. Incorporate a white noise series into the targeted data;
- 113 2. Decompose the data with the added white noise into IMFs (as outlined in EMD).
- 114 3. Repeat steps I and II on multiple occasions, each time incorporating a distinct white noise
115 series.

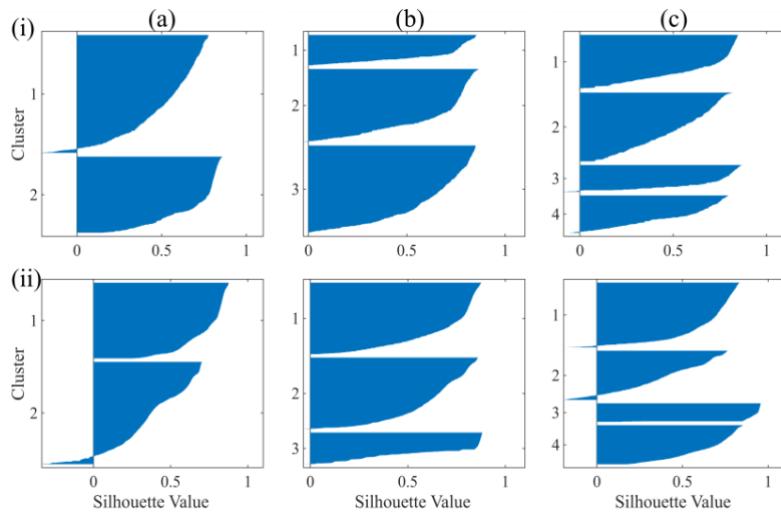
116 4. The final result is the (ensemble) mean of the corresponding IMFs of the decompositions.

117
$$Trend_{EEMD}(t) = R_n(t) - R_n(1902) \quad (2)$$

S3. Results:

132 **Figure S1:** a) Spatiotemporal evolution of drought characteristics (intensity, duration, and
 133 frequency); b) Spatiotemporal evolution of heatwave characteristics (intensity, duration, and
 134 frequency); c) Spatiotemporal evolution of maximum temperature event characteristics
 135 (intensity, duration, and frequency) over the 6 decades starting from 1951 till 2016.

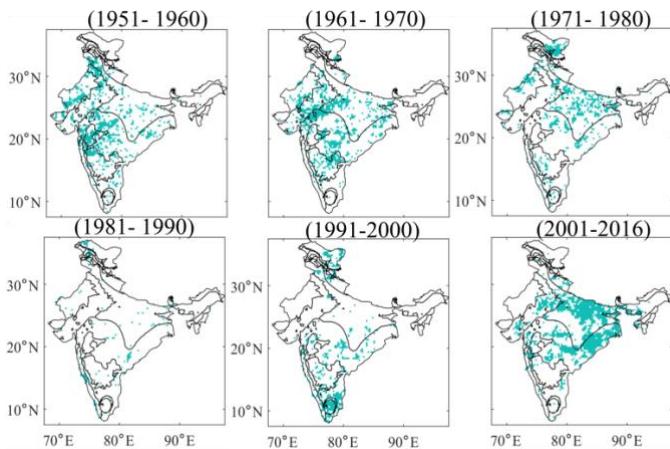
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138 **Figure S2:** Silhouette plots corresponding to the heatwaves for a) 2 clusters, b) 3 clusters,
139 c) 4 clusters, and those corresponding to the droughts for d) 2 clusters, e) 3 clusters, f) 4
140 clusters. The maximum number of points with high silhouette values (almost the same for
141 all the clusters) was observed for an optimum 3 clusters for both droughts and heatwaves.

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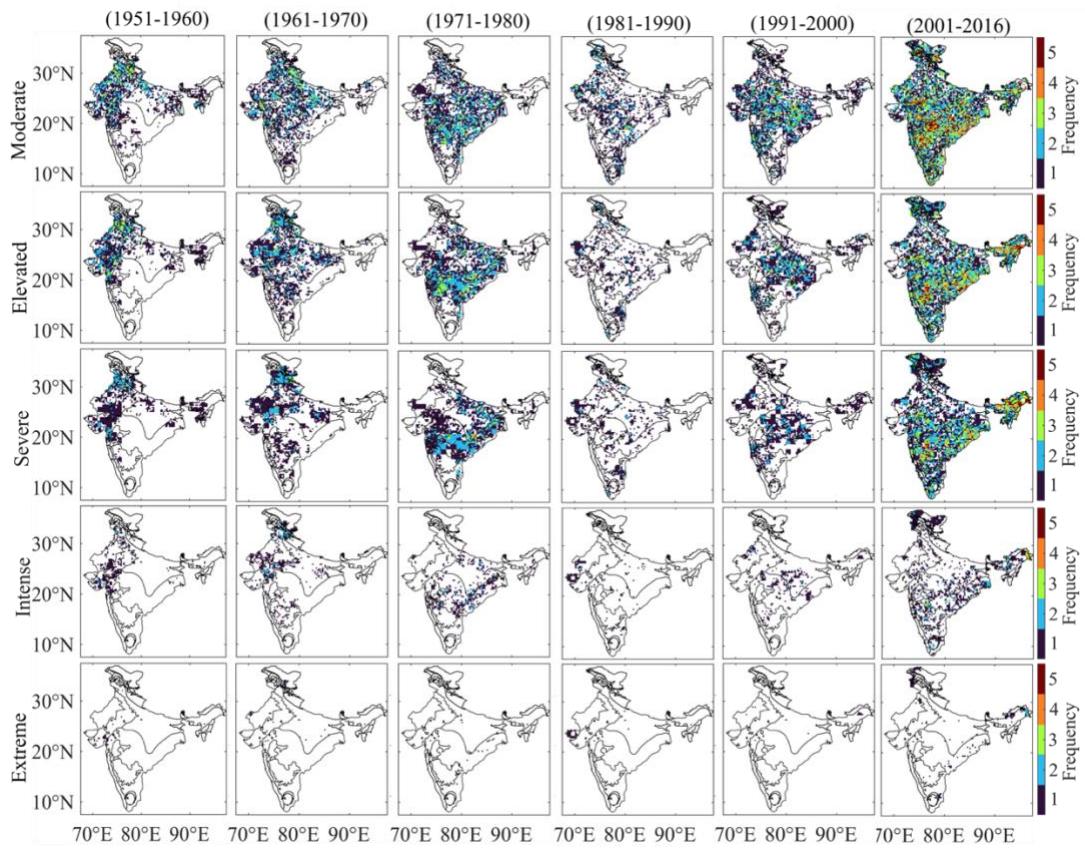
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144 **Figure S3:** Spatiotemporal extent of the extracted overlapped clusters of individual
145 droughts and heatwaves during each decade from 1951 till 2016.

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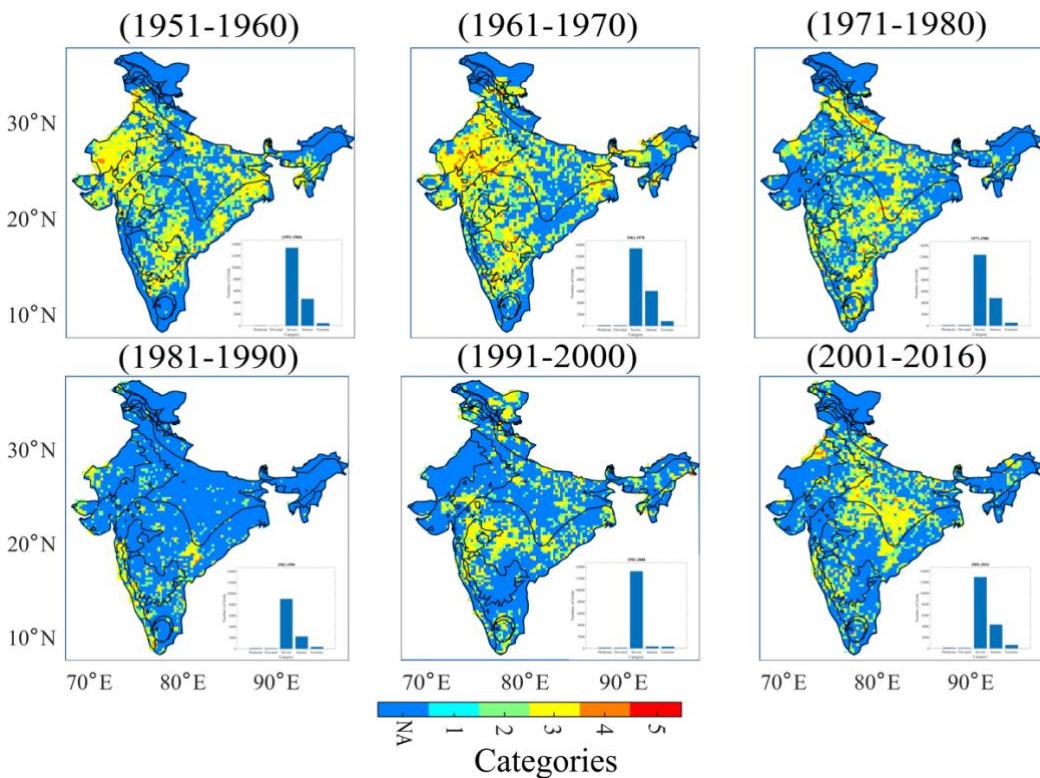
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150 **Figure S4:** Spatiotemporal evolution of the different CDHW event categories (Moderate,
151 Elevated, Severe, Intense, and Extreme) across each decade from 1951 till 2016.

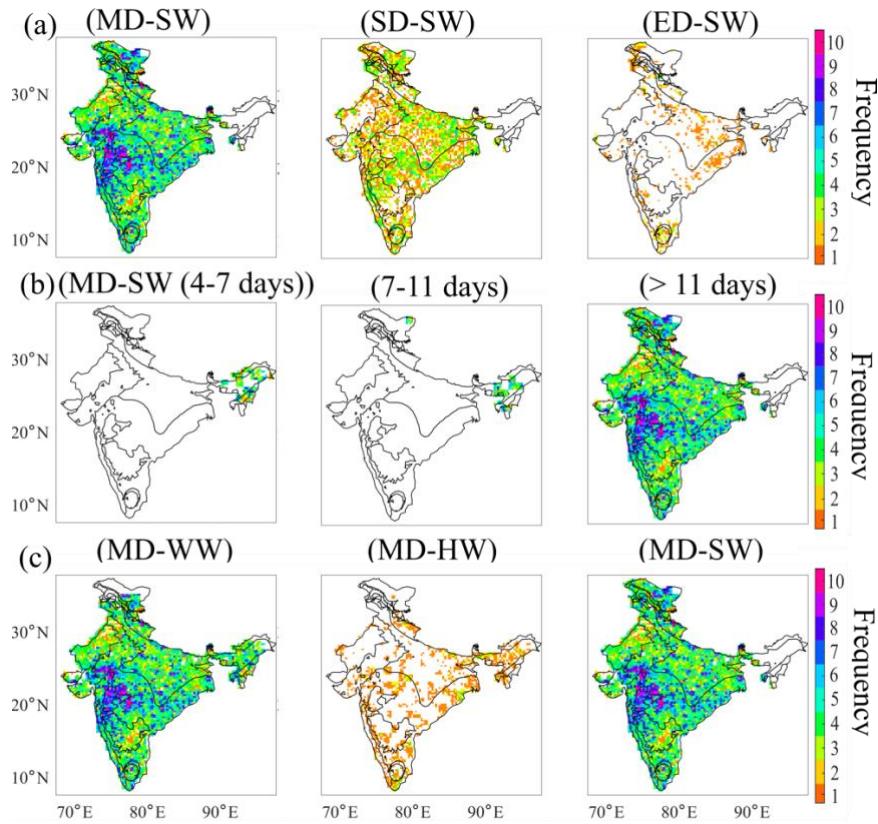


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154 **Figure S5:** Spatial and decadal evolution of the dominant CDHW category across India
155 from 1951-2016, illustrating the shifts in the most frequent event category per grid over
156 successive decades to further highlight the intensification and spatial expansion of the
157 different CDHW categories.

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160 **Figure S6:** a) Influence of drought intensities on the compound occurrence frequency
161 during a year for a given heatwave intensity, showing that the frequency decreased with
162 increasing drought intensity; (b) Influence of heatwave durations on the compound
163 occurrence frequency within a year for moderate droughts, with increase in frequency with
164 longer duration of heatwaves except extreme east India; (c) For a given drought intensity
165 and heatwave duration, influence of increase in temperature on the decreasing frequencies.
166

167 Possible Impacts of CDHW on population dynamics and land use/ land cover

168 The progression of Compound Drought and Heatwave (CDHW) occurrences in India
169 during the last sixty years indicates changing climate patterns, regional susceptibilities, and
170 alterations in land use and land cover (LULC). A large regional transition in CDHW
171 occurrences from northwestern to southeastern India has profoundly impacted both
172 physical landscapes and demographic patterns. This study assesses these changes

173 concerning regional adaptation capacities, as described by Mohanty et al. (2021),
174 highlighting the capacity to address increasing climate problems and formulate mitigation
175 solutions. Urban population data from the census of India (2011) has been utilized to
176 analyse demographic shifts in the CDHW hotspots.

177 Over the past 4 decades, India has experienced significant land use and land cover changes
178 (figure 9(a)) indicating a 6% rise in urbanization and a reduction in plantation cover,
179 especially in the dry areas of Rajasthan, where approximately the urban population which
180 is significantly susceptible to Severe and Elevated CDHW events (figure 9(b)) has
181 increased by almost fivefold. In West Bengal, situated in the eastern tropical wet and dry
182 zone, urban population susceptible to Severe and Elevated CDHW conditions have
183 increased by fourfold. Districts such as Purulia, classified as 'extreme danger' zones for
184 heatwaves (Debnath et al., 2023), endure persistent droughts attributable to increasing
185 temperatures and irregular precipitation patterns. Assam, notwithstanding its tropical wet
186 and humid subtropical climate, has experienced over 10-fold urban expansion, amplifying
187 vulnerability to intensified CDHW events due to its weak adaptation capacity. In Andhra
188 Pradesh's semi-arid regions, the urban population at risk has risen more than fourfold, with
189 Intense CDHW events. Kerala, notwithstanding its tropical wet environment, is
190 experiencing heightened CDHW intensity leading to a fivefold rise in the urban population
191 at risk. Himachal Pradesh, despite little exposure, has encountered escalating CDHW
192 occurrences coupled with a fourfold increase in the exposed urban population (figure 9(b)).
193 In the realm of LULC changes, this analysis reveals a tale of transformation, with regions
194 experiencing shifts in land cover and population dynamics. From northwestern expanses
195 witnessing urban expansion to the coastal regions grappling with intensified CDHW
196 occurrences, the story of India's evolving landscape is intricately linked to its climatic
197 challenges.

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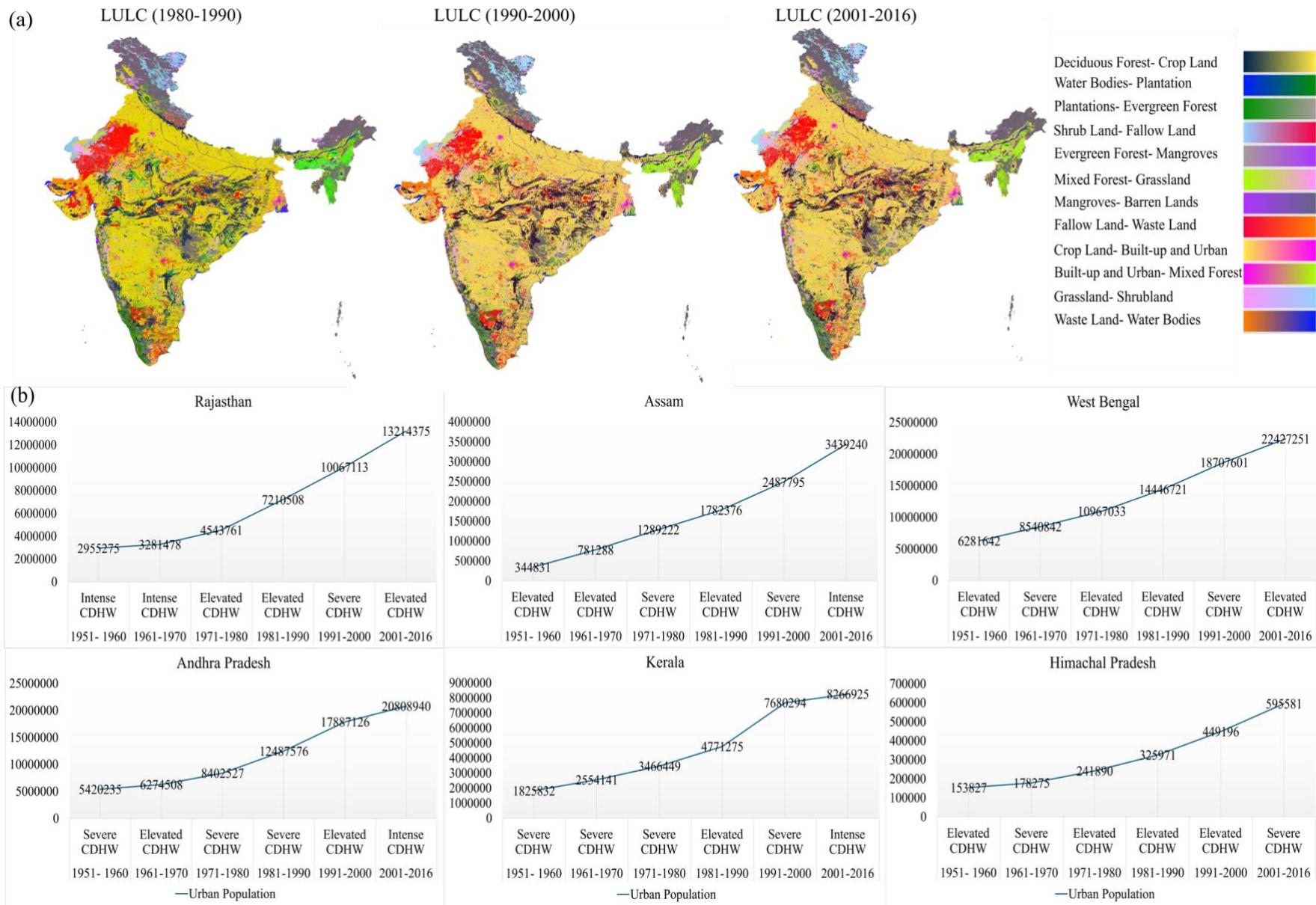


Figure S7: (a) LULC dynamics across India depicts the evolving landscape of land use/land cover (LULC) across India amidst Compound Drought and Heatwave (CDHW) events during the most vulnerable decades 1981-1990, 1991-2000, and 2001-2016; (b) CDHW hotspots (states) showing increase in urban population exposure with respect to the decadal change in the CDHW intensities since 1951 till 2016.