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Are droughts occurrence and severity aggravating? A study on SPI drought class transitions using loglinear models and ANOVA-like inference

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Abstract

Long time series (95 to 135 yr) of the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) computed with the 12-month time scale relative to 10 locations across Portugal were studied with the aim of investigating if drought frequency and severity are changing through time. Considering four drought severity classes, time series of drought class transitions were computed and later divided into 4 or 5 sub-periods according to length of time series. Drought class transitions were calculated to form a 2-dimensional contingency table for each period. Two-dimensional loglinear models were fitted to these contingency tables and an ANOVA-like inference was then performed in order to investigate differences relative to drought class transitions among those sub-periods, which were considered as treatments of only one factor. The application of ANOVA-like inference to these data allowed to compare the four or five sub-periods in terms of probabilities of transition between drought classes, which were used to detect a possible trend in time evolution of droughts frequency and severity that could be related to climate change. Results for a number of locations show some similarity between the first, third and fifth period (or the second and the fourth if there were only 4 sub-periods) regarding the persistency of severe/extreme and sometimes moderate droughts. In global terms, results do not support the assumption of a trend for progressive aggravation of droughts occurrence during the last century, but rather suggest the existence of long duration cycles.

1 Introduction

Drought is a normal recurrent feature of climate, which occurs in all climatic zones. There are many definitions for drought; in this study the one proposed by Pereira et al. (2009) is assumed: Drought is a natural but temporary imbalance of water availability, consisting of a persistent lower-than-average precipitation, of uncertain frequency, duration and severity, of unpredictable or difficult to predict occurrence, resulting in diminished water resources availability, and reduced carrying capacity of the ecosystems (Pereira et al., 2009). Thus, short dry periods or dry spells, also often called droughts,

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are excluded from our analysis. There are various approaches for assessing drought severity, e.g. meteorological, agricultural, hydrological and socioeconomic. The first three approaches deal with ways to measure drought as a physical phenomenon, particularly using drought indices, and the last one deals with drought in terms of supply and demand (US National Drought Mitigation Center, 2006). Drought indices are numerical figures incorporating mainly values of hydro-meteorological indicators. Meteorological drought indices respond to weather conditions that have been abnormally dry or abnormally wet. Precipitation based drought indices are the first indicators of droughts, since hydrological droughts may emerge considerable time after a meteorological drought has been established (Wilhite and Buchanan-Smith, 2005), due to the effect of storage. Consequently, precipitation-based drought indicators are the basic tools for a drought early warning system.

The Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI), (McKee et al., 1993, 1995), is often used for the identification of drought events and to evaluate their severity thus defining drought classes. The SPI is widely used because it allows a reliable and relatively easy comparison between different locations and climates (Bordi et al., 2009; Raziei et al., 2008). It has the advantage of statistical consistency and the ability to reflect both short-term and long-term drought impacts (Steinemann et al., 2005) since it may be computed on shorter or longer time scales, which reflect different lags in the response of water cycle to precipitation anomalies. Another advantage of SPI is that, due to its standardization, its range of variation is independent on the aggregation time scale of reference, as well as on the particular location and climate. Therefore, SPI values are more suited to be used as drought triggers, i.e. thresholds that determine when drought management actions should begin and end (Steinemann et al., 2005). The stochastic properties of the SPI time series can be used for predicting the likelihood and potential severity of future droughts, thus assisting in drought management (Moreira et al., 2008; Paulo et al., 2005; Paulo and Pereira, 2007). The 12-month time scale, as well as larger time scales, identifies dry periods of long duration which relate with the global impact of drought on hydrologic regimes and water resources of a region (Paulo et al.,

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2003; Paulo and Pereira, 2006); differently, shorter time scales of 3 to 6 months are more useful to detect agricultural droughts. For the Portuguese conditions, where a dry period of near 6 months occurs, droughts impacting the hydrologic regime are better assessed when using the 12-month time scale (Paulo and Pereira, 2006). Hence, former studies on drought variability or on prediction of drought class transitions were performed with the SPI 12-month.

It is common in our time the idea that water resources have been decreasing in consequence of several causes, mainly due to less precipitation in certain regions of the planet, like the Mediterranean basin, as a result of climatic changes. In particular, it is often said that drought events are becoming more frequent and/or more severe due to climate change (Brunetti et al., 2004; Huntington, 2006; Szép et al., 2005; Richter and Semenov, 2005). In fact, dry spells are foreseen to be in augmentation in Europe due to climate change (Beniston et al., 2007), as well as hydrological droughts (Lehner et al., 2006). Differently, results of our former studies led to conclude that droughts are not more frequent or having an increased severity (Moreira et al., 2006), rather a possible occurrence of cycles in precipitation has been detected (Moreira et al., 2008). Also, results by Bordi et al. (2009) and Raziei et al. (2011) are in agreement with the hypothesis that droughts are not in augmentation. Mishra et al. (2010), regarding the Midwestern United States in the period 1916–2007, indicate that the study region is experiencing reduced extreme and exceptional droughts with lesser areal extent in recent decades (Mishra et al., 2010). An analysis of risk of dryness in Italy did not evidence climate change effects on this domain (Moonen et al., 2002). Also, the analysis of extreme rainfall events in Ireland show that a much greater proportion of extremes have occurred in the period since 1975 and also it was detected an increase in annual precipitation after this date (Kiely, 1999). A study on changes in streamflow in Duero River, it has shown that decreased discharges essentially related to land use changes (Morán-Tejeda et al., 2002).

The statistics of extremes has been widely used to study hydrologic extremes. Katz et al. (2002) approached this topic and discussed the anticipated intensification of

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the hydrologic cycle as part of global climate change (Katz et al., 2002). Raje and Mujumdar (2010) using two approaches for hydrologic drought prediction obtained an increasing probability of extreme, severe and moderate droughts and decreasing probability of normal and wet conditions in Orissa, India as a result of climate change (Raje and Mujumda, 2010). In a study on streamflow droughts in Europe, it is said that “scientists generally agree that the global hydrological cycle will intensify and suggest that extremes will become or have already become more common” (Hisdal et al., 2001). However, authors also wrote “Despite several reports on recent droughts in Europe, the non-parametric Mann-Kendall test and a re-sampling test for trend detection showed that it is not possible to conclude that drought conditions in general have become more severe or frequent. The period analyzed and the selection of stations strongly influenced the regional pattern. Within the period 1962–1990 examples of increasing drought deficit volumes were found in Spain, the eastern part of Eastern Europe and in large parts of the UK, whereas decreasing drought deficit volumes occurred in large parts of Central Europe and in the western part of Eastern Europe. Trends in drought deficit volumes or durations could, to a large extent, be explained through changes in precipitation or artificial influences in the catchment. Changes in the number of drought events per year were determined by the combined effect of climate and catchment characteristics such as storage capacity” (Hisdal et al., 2001). Also for Europe, Bordi et al. (2009), using data sets from 1949 to February 2009, have noted in the time series of drought and wetness area coverage (number of grid points above/below the severity threshold) a remarkable linear trend until about the end of the last century, which is reversed in the last decade. This recent trend reversal is an indication of a nonlinear trend, which is more pronounced on the hydrological time scale. The nonlinear trend analysis was performed based on the time series of the principal component (PC) associated to the first spatial SPI-eigenvector after embedding it in a time delay coordinate system using a sliding window of 70 months (singular spectrum analysis). Nonlinearity appears as a clear feature on the hydrological time scale (Bordi et al., 2009).

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Regarding Iran, Raziei et al. (2008) found a long-term decreasing trend towards dry periods in the northern region, while an increasing but weak long-term trend has been observed in the southern sub-regions, though they are not statistically significant (Raziei et al., 2008). Seager (2007) regarding the turn of the century North American drought, wrote “Except in southern South America the global pattern of precipitation anomalies of the turn of the century drought is similar to that during the five prior droughts. These comparisons suggest that the earlier period of this most recent drought is the latest in a series of multiyear droughts forced by persistent changes in tropical Pacific Ocean temperatures. Warm tropical North Atlantic Ocean temperatures may play a secondary role” (Seager, 2007). More recently, Seager et al. (2009), in a study using observations of precipitation and model simulations forced by historical sea surface temperatures from 1856–2007, wrote “The recent drought in Southeastern United States, forced by reduced precipitation and with reduced evapotranspiration, has no signature of model-projected anthropogenic climate changes” (Seager et al., 2009b). In another paper they wrote “While the last decade or so in north and central México has been drier than preceding decades, the associated continental pattern of hydroclimate change does not fit that which models project to occur as a consequence of rising greenhouse gases and global warming. However, models robustly predict that México will dry as a consequence of global warming and that this drying should already be underway. At least for now, in nature, this is likely obscured by strong natural atmosphere-ocean variability” (Seager et al., 2009a).

Hence, despite the uses of different statistical tools in the analysis, still it is far from existing a global consensus regarding drought increasing of intensity and frequency in various regions of the planet. To be noted that uncertainty is present in climate change impact studies as analyzed by Droogers et al. (2007) and Olesen et al. (2007). However, since the concept of drought is different among authors of related studies, it is more difficult to find if drought or dry spells are influenced by climate change. The present study is therefore one more contribution to the discussion.

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In general, the purpose of this study is to analyze the historical frequency and duration of meteorological drought in Portugal. In particular, the objective of this study is to detect a possible trend in time evolution of droughts frequency and severity through the analysis of drought class transitions, which could be related to climate change, or instead, the occurrence of large cycles originated by a natural variability. The method used in this study is not commonly used for detection of trends in hydrology and climatology as are for example linear regression methods (Moonen et al., 2002; Mazvimavi, 2010; Shang et al., 2011; Shao et al., 2011). Other authors used principal component analysis to observe the spatial and temporal variability of drought and assess linear and no-linear trends (Bordi et al., 2004, 2006; Raziei et al., 2009).

This analysis is based on the SPI due to its above mentioned advantages, and in loglinear modeling, which has shown to be an adequate tool for drought class transitions analysis and for short-term forecast of SPI class transition probabilities (Moreira et al., 2006, 2008). The loglinear modeling, done upon the contingency tables for SPI drought class transitions, was used to obtain probability ratios, named Odds, and their confidence intervals, that allowed the comparison of different sub-periods of the same time series (Moreira et al., 2006, 2008). However, the Odds confidence intervals some times were too large, therefore not enough reliable, thus calling for adopting a more robust probability analysis. Since loglinear models proved well for analyzing and predicting transitions between successive SPI drought classes (Moreira et al., 2006, 2008), the adjusted models were used as a base for the current ANOVA-like inference approach. Suhailaa et al. (2011) used functional data analysis and one way functional analysis of variance to compare rainfall patterns between regions and find significant differences between regions, in Peninsular Malaysia. The ANOVA-like inference is a very robust and sensitive method to find variability and allows to locate significant differences between treatments. In this study, it was used to find significant differences on the number of drought class transitions between equivalent sub-periods of the same time series. So, the sub-periods of each time series are considered as treatments in the current ANOVA.

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2 Data, SPI time series and division in sub-periods

The data used in this study is constituted by long time series of monthly Standardized Precipitation Index in a 12-month time scale (SPI-12) for 10 meteorological stations located in Portugal (Fig. 1).

The time series duration is not the same for all stations. Their size varies between 95 and 135 yr. In Table 2 are presented the identification and time series duration for each station.

The methods used to assess the quality of precipitation data series and to compute the SPI at the 12-month time scale are described in Paulo et al. (2003, 2005). The annual precipitation data sets used in SPI computation were investigated for randomness, homogeneity and absence of trends using the autocorrelation test (Kendall τ), the Mann-Kendall trend test and the homogeneity tests of Mann-Whitney for the mean and the variance (Helsel and Hirsch, 1992). As a result, only the time series not rejected by these tests at 5 % significance level were included in the study. In addition, the appropriateness for using the gamma distribution to compute the 12-month time scale SPI for the south and north of Portugal, was verified using non-parametric tests, namely the Chi-square test. SPI computation is described in former studies (Paulo et al., 2003, 2005; Paulo and Pereira, 2006, 2007).

The SPI time series were converted into drought classes according to Table 1. The severity drought classes adopted, also defined in Table 1, are modified from those proposed by McKee et al. (1993, 1995) by grouping the severe and extremely severe drought classes. This modification was done for modeling purposes since transitions referring to the extremely severe drought classes are much less frequent than for other classes; thus, a possible bias is avoided since too many zeros in the contingency tables cause problems in the fitting.

In order to achieve the final goal of this study – perceive if there is a trend for drought aggravation – the large duration time series (from 1872 to 2007) were divided into 5 or 4 shorter sub-periods of different size with the intent of statistical comparison. The

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time series division into 5 or 4 different sub-periods (depending of the time series total duration) is presented in Table 2. All sub-periods but the first have the same length for all locations.

In a previous study (Moreira et al., 2006), a first attempt was done just by dividing smaller time series into 3 sub-periods of similar duration (22/23 yr), because 3 was the minimal number in order to find either a cycle or a trend. However, if there is a cycle, it is not expectable that periods of drought recurrence should have exactly the same duration in every location. It is more likely that they refer to a larger range as for previous results (Moreira et al., 2008). Differently, if for some sites there is a significant trend of progressive increasing in droughts occurrence and severity, the successive sub-periods should present significant differences between them. It can be observed that, excepting for the sites in northern Portugal, there are sub-periods with much less events of moderate and severe/extreme droughts when compared with the previous and the subsequent sub-period (Figs. 2 and 3). Thus, the sub-periods were defined according to this perceived dynamics in order to gain accuracy when comparing them.

After dividing the time series, the number of one step transitions between any drought class was counted for each sub-period in order to form a 2-dimensional 4×4 contingency table with $N = 16$ cells each one. An example of these contingency tables is presented in Table 3, where the 5 contingency tables resulting from the division of the Porto time series into 5 sub-periods can be observed.

The observed frequencies, denoted by $n_{h,j}, h, j = 1, \dots, 4$ on that table, are the number of times that it occurs the drought class h in a given month, followed by the drought class j in the next month (number of transitions between drought classes in successive months). In each pair of consecutive months, the first one is the entry month, while the other is the exit month.

In these contingency tables, since the sub-periods have different sizes, the observed frequencies were weighted in order to make it possible the comparison between the 5 (or 4) sub-periods in terms of the number of drought class transitions.

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3 Modeling and methods of analysis

Loglinear models were fitted to contingency tables for the different stations. The adjusted models were used to carry out an ANOVA like-inference to compare the 4 or 5 sub-periods. These sub-periods correspond to the treatments of a one-way ANOVA.

Previous studies (Moreira et al., 2006, 2008) led to adjust to these contingency tables the quasi-association (QA) loglinear models (Agresti, 1990). Denoting by $m_{h,j}$ the mean value $E(n_{h,j})$ of $n_{h,j}$, $h, j = 1, \dots, 4$, also called expected frequency, the QA loglinear models for two-dimension contingency tables have the following formulation

$$w_{h,j} = \log m_{h,j} = \lambda + \lambda_h^r + \lambda_j^c + \beta \times h \times j + \delta_h I(h = j) \quad (1)$$

where λ is the constant parameter also designated by the grand mean; λ_h^r is the parameter representing the row effect, i.e. the effect of drought class h of the entry month, $h = 1, \dots, 4$; λ_j^c is the parameter representing the column effect, i.e. the effect of drought class j of the exit month, $j = 1, \dots, 4$; β is the linear association parameter between rows and columns; δ_h is a parameter related to the h -th diagonal element of the contingency table, $h = 1, \dots, 4$ and $I(h = j)$ takes the value 1 when the condition $h = j$ holds and the value 0 otherwise. The expected frequencies $m_{h,j}$ represent the expected number of transitions between drought classes h and j in two consecutive months during each sub-period. The word "effect" refers to any deviation above the mean. The QA loglinear models allow linear-by-linear association of the main diagonal of the contingency tables and are adequate to fit to squared tables (when the number of columns and lines are equal) with ordered categories, resulting from a pairwise comparison of dependent samples, which is the case.

In adjusting these models it is assumed that the $n_{h,j}, h, j = 1, \dots, 4$, were values taken by independent Poisson distributed variables (Agresti, 1990). The assumption of independency of the $n_{h,j}, h, j = 1, \dots, 4$ could be considered because transitions between drought classes in successive months mainly depend on the amount of precipitation occurring in those months, not on previous months (Paulo and Pereira, 2007). Then,

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a cycle: there is similarity between alternating sub-periods and significant differences between consecutive ones. The sub-periods with few severe/extreme droughts are followed by sub-periods of higher frequency and persistence of severe/extreme drought.

5 Lisboa (Table 7 and Fig. 3), if just considering the sub-periods 2, 3, 4 and 5, shows also a typical cyclic behavior, which is not observed for the pair of the 1st and 2nd sub-periods. However, there is no evidence of significant decrease of severe/extreme droughts between sub-periods 1 and 2; results for Lisboa show a behavior that is closer to a cycle than to a trend for increase of droughts severity and frequency.

10 Évora (Table 7 and Fig. 3), in the middle of the drought prone Alentejo, seems to behave like an outlier in the sense that it would be expected that the sub-period 3 would have more severe/extreme droughts but, instead, this sub-period does not differ significantly from the 2nd and the 4th. The 1st sub-period shows to have a larger number of drought events, hence differing significantly from the following sub-periods. However, the occurrence and severity of droughts also increase significantly in 5th sub-period relative to the precedent sub-periods, including relative to the 1th one. Therefore, this station does not show neither a clear long term trend for drought aggravation, or a cyclic behavior; nevertheless, droughts are aggravating in the last 27 yr of the considered period of 135 yr.

20 Faro (Table 8 and Fig. 3) only shows a significant increase in severe/extreme droughts between the 4th and the 5th sub-periods, but not between the other 2 sub-periods and the 5th. Thus, results for this location can not be interpreted as indicating a cyclic behavior of droughts occurrence and severity, neither expressing a trend.

25 The results of a previous study (Moreira et al., 2006), where time series with 67 yr were studied relative to various locations in Alentejo (southern Portugal), pointed to a cyclic behavior that could be related with a possible long-term natural variability. These results needed to be corroborated with a further study using longer time series. In the present paper, 10 long time series, with 95 to 135 yr, from different regions of Portugal were divided into 5 or 4 sub-periods, in the expectance of existing similarity, for instance, between the 1st, 3rd and 5th sub-periods, all having significant high

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occurrence of severe/extreme drought occurrence. The results, however, show to be different among locations studied. For the northern part of the country, where locations have an humid climate and data sets are longer than 127 yr, that cyclic behavior was not found. Porto and Montalegre also do not show trends for droughts aggravation but Penhas Douradas show an aggravation of droughts for the last sub-period. For the South, cases of Lisboa, Pavia, Chouto, Beja and S. B. Alportel, results show a behavior generally consistent with a cyclic occurrence and severity of droughts. However, other stations of southern Portugal – Évora and Faro – show a significant aggravation of droughts for the 5th period only. Because these results are in contradiction with those of other locations within the same region, it is not possible to relate this aggravation of droughts to climate change. Hence, there is a possibility that droughts behavior in the Alentejo region may be to due long-term natural variability.

5 Conclusions

15 ANOVA-like inference together with loglinear models have shown high potentialities to compare drought class transitions among different sub-periods. The methodology revealed to be robust and very sensitive in detecting variability. In this study, ANOVA is a new approach that can be used as an alternative to the Odds ratios and correspondent confidence intervals, as used in a former analysis with loglinear models.

20 In the Southern region, results for the sites of Pavia, Beja, Chouto, S. B. Alportel and Lisboa have shown that droughts occurrence and severity behave in a cyclic way, in which a sub-period with few severe/extreme droughts is followed by a sub-period of higher frequency of severe/extreme droughts. This cycle may be related to a long-term natural variability, with the duration of the sub-periods ranging from 26 to 30 yr. For the other locations, mainly those from North, there is no evidence of a typical cyclic behavior, neither a trend for drought aggravation. Therefore, globally, the results do not support the assumption of a trend of drought aggravation since the beginning of the twenty century that could be related with climate change. Nevertheless, if comparing

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Table 1. Drought classification of SPI (modified from Mckee et al., 1993).

Code	Drought classes	SPI values
1	Non-drought	$SPI \geq 0$
2	Near normal	$-1 < SPI < 0$
3	Moderate	$-1.5 < SPI \leq -1$
4	Severe/Extreme	$SPI \leq -1.5$

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Table 2. Division into 4 or 5 sub-periods according to each time series total duration.

		Montalegre		Porto-Serra Pilar		Penhas Douradas		Pavia, Chouto	
Period	Year	Size (years)		Year	Size (years)	Year	Size (years)	Year	Size (years)
	1880			1872		1883			
1st	1900	20		1900	28	1900	17	1912	
2nd	1926	26		1926	26	1926	26	1926	14
3rd	1956	30		1956	30	1956	30	1956	30
4th	1980	24		1980	24	1980	24	1980	24
5th	2007	27		2007	27	2007	27	2007	27
Total		127		135		124		95	

		Lisboa, Évora		S. B. Alportel		Beja, Faro	
Period	Year	Size(years)		Year	Size(year)	Year	Size(years)
	1872						
1st	1900	28		1910		1900	
2nd	1926	26		1926	16	1926	26
3rd	1956	30		1956	30	1956	30
4th	1980	24		1980	24	1980	24
5th	2007	27		2007	27	2007	27
Total		135		97		107	

11301

Table 3. Contingency tables resulting from the division of the Porto time series into 5 sub-periods.

Drought class month t	1st period Drought class $t + 1$				2nd period Drought class $t + 1$				3rd period Drought class $t + 1$				4th period Drought class $t + 1$				5th period Drought class $t + 1$			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1	163	16	0	0	121	24	0	0	139	15	0	0	195	12	0	0	141	24	0	0
2	16	101	14	0	23	111	13	2	15	93	11	3	14	102	8	1	23	103	9	1
3	1	13	19	5	1	15	22	3	1	11	30	5	1	8	12	2	1	8	30	4
4	0	1	4	8	0	0	6	20	0	3	5	30	0	0	2	4	0	0	4	11

11302

Table 7. Results for the pairwise comparison of sub-periods (Scheffé multiple comparison method). “yes” is used to indicate when there is significant differences between h & j sub-periods and “no” otherwise.

Montalegre		Porto		Penhas Douradas		Lisboa		Evora	
$m_{4,4}$									
1 & 2	yes	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	yes
1 & 3	yes	1 & 3	yes	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	yes
1 & 4	yes	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	yes
1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	yes
2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no
2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no
2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	yes
3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	yes
4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes
$m_{3,3}$									
1 & 2	no	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	yes	1 & 2	no
1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	yes	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no
1 & 4	yes	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no
1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	no
2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no
2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no
2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no
3 & 4	no	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no
4 & 5	no	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no
$m_{2,2}$									
1 & 2	yes	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	yes	1 & 2	yes	1 & 2	yes
1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	yes	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no
1 & 4	yes	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	yes	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no
1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	no
2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes
2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	yes
2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no
3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no
4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no

11307

Table 7. Continued.

Montalegre		Porto		Penhas Douradas		Lisboa		Evora	
$m_{1,1}$									
1 & 2	no	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	yes	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	no
1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	yes	1 & 3	yes	1 & 3	no
1 & 4	yes	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	yes	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	yes
1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	yes
2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes
2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	yes
2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes
3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	yes
4 & 5	no	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	yes
$m_{3,4}$									
1 & 2	yes	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	no	1 & 2	yes
1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no	1 & 3	no
1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no	1 & 4	no
1 & 5	no	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	yes	1 & 5	no	1 & 5	no
2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no
2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no
2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes
3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	yes
4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	yes

11308

Table 8. Results for the pairwise comparison of sub-periods. “yes” is used to indicate when there is significant differences between h & j sub-periods and “no” otherwise (cont.).

Pavia		Chouto		Beja		S.B.Alportel		Faro	
$m_{4,4}$									
2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no
2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no
2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no
3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	no	3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no
4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes
$m_{3,3}$									
2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes
2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	yes
2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes
3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no
4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no
$m_{2,2}$									
2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes
2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	yes
2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	yes
3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	no	3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no
4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no
$m_{1,1}$									
2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes
2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	yes	2 & 4	yes
2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes
3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	yes
3 & 5	no	3 & 5	yes	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no
4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	yes	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	yes
$m_{3,4}$									
2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no	2 & 3	yes	2 & 3	no
2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no	2 & 4	no
2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	no	2 & 5	yes	2 & 5	no
3 & 4	no	3 & 4	yes	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no	3 & 4	no
3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no	3 & 5	no
4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no	4 & 5	no

11309

Table 9. Pattern results of the Scheffé multiple comparison for a cycle and a trend.

Period comparison	Cycle	Trend
1 & 2	yes	yes
1 & 3	no	yes
1 & 4	yes	yes
1 & 5	no	yes
2 & 3	yes	yes
2 & 4	no	yes
2 & 5	yes	yes
3 & 4	yes	yes
3 & 5	no	yes
4 & 5	yes	yes

11310

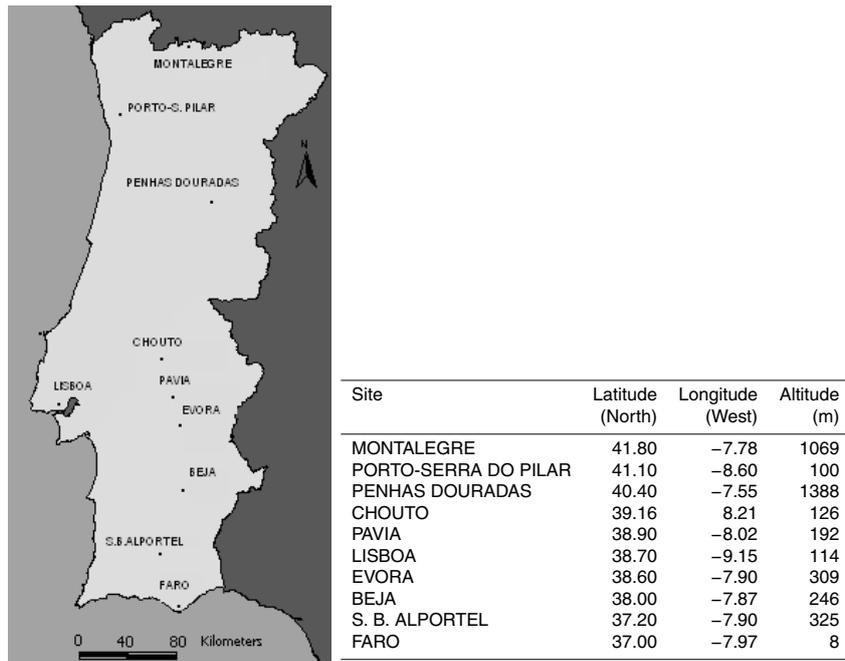


Fig. 1. Portugal (location of the stations).

11311

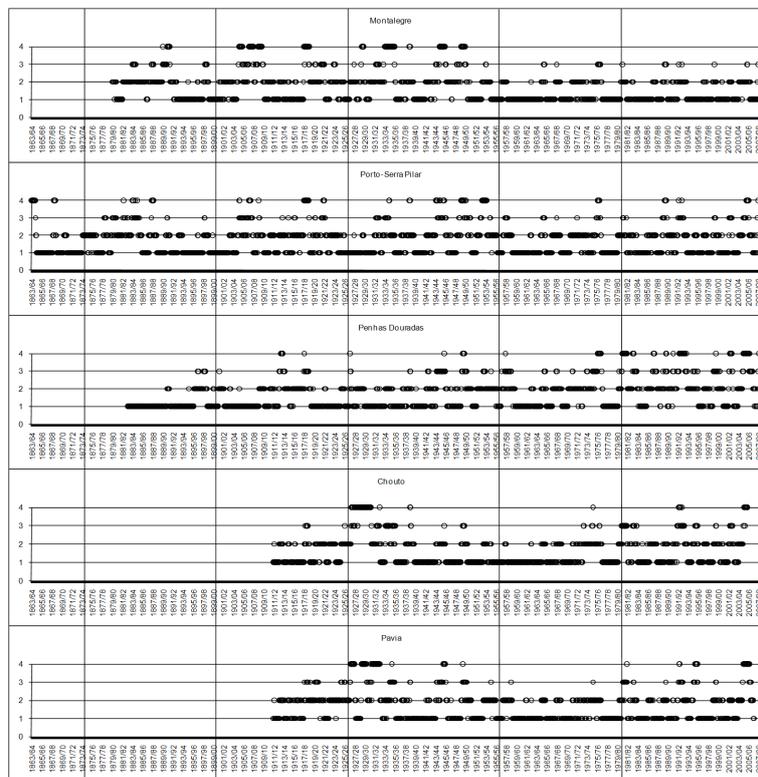


Fig. 2. Drought classes through time by location (sub-periods are indicated with vertical lines).

11312

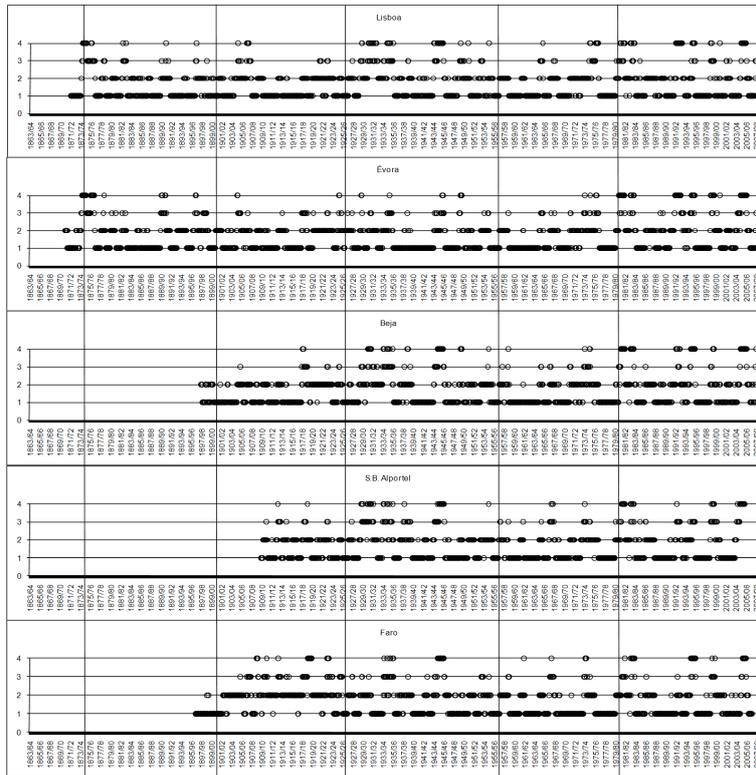


Fig. 3. Drought classes through time by location (cont.) (sub-periods are indicated with vertical lines).