



1 **A standardized index for assessing sub-monthly compound**
2 **dry and hot conditions**

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18 **Abstract:** Compound dry and hot conditions pose large impacts on ecosystems and
19 society worldwide. A suite of indices are proposed for the assessments of droughts and
20 heatwaves previously, yet there is no index available for incorporating the joint
21 variability of dry and hot conditions at sub-monthly scale. Here, we introduce a daily-
22 scale index, termed as the standardized compound drought and heat index (SCDHI), to
23 measure the intensity of compound dry and hot conditions. SCDHI is based on the daily
24 drought index (the standardized antecedent precipitation evapotranspiration index
25 (SAPEI)) and the Standardized Temperature Index (STI) and a joint probability
26 distribution method. The new index is verified against real-world compound dry and
27 hot events and the related observed vegetation impacts in China. SCDHI can not only
28 monitor the long-term compound dry and hot events, but also capture such events at
29 sub-monthly scale and reflect the related vegetation activity impacts. The identified
30 compound events generally persisted for 25-35 days and the southern China suffered
31 from compound events most frequently. In future, the frequency, duration, severity and
32 intensity of compound events increase throughout China in response to anthropogenic
33 climate change, of which the frequency would increase by 1-3 times and the duration
34 and severity increase by 50%, independent of the emission scenarios. The new index
35 can provide a new tool to quantify sub-monthly characteristics of compound dry and
36 hot events, conducive to the timely monitoring of their initiation, development, and
37 decay which are vital for decision-makers and stake-holders to release early and timely
38 warnings.

39 **Keywords:** compound event; SCDHI; SAPEI; sub-monthly scale; China

40



41 **1 Introduction**

42 Compound dry and hot event (CDHE) have been observed for all continents in
43 recent decades (Hao et al., 2019; Mazdiyasi and AghaKouchak, 2015; Manning et al.,
44 2019; Sutanto et al., 2020). The frequent CDHEs have led to more devastating impacts
45 on natural ecosystems and human society than individual events (Zscheischler et al.,
46 2014; Chen et al., 2019; Hao et al., 2018a). For example, Russia was simultaneously
47 struck by an unprecedented drought and hot in the summer of 2010, which caused large-
48 scale crop failures, wildfires, and human mortality (Zscheischler et al., 2018).
49 Unfortunately, the extreme droughts and hots are expected to occur more frequently in
50 the coming decades under global warming, which potentially results in more compound
51 events in many parts of the world, especially for wet and humid regions (Wu et al.,
52 2020; Swain et al., 2018, Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017a). Therefore,
53 understanding such events are of crucial importance to provide the most fundamental
54 information to help disaster mitigation.

55 Much effort has been made to study the compound events in recent years. Utilizing
56 different thresholds to define the concurrent climate extremes for a specific period, the
57 frequency of compound events has received a great deal of attention (Wu et al., 2019;
58 Zhang et al., 2019). Although this approach can detect compound event occurrence, it
59 fails to quantitatively measure compound event characteristics such as duration,
60 severity, and intensity, and is inconvenient for comparison of compound event
61 characteristics through different climates (Wu et al., 2020). Therefore, to overcome
62 these shortages, several joint climate extreme indices have been proposed for analyzing
63 the characteristics of the compound events. For example, the climate extreme index
64 integrated by temperature and soil moisture extremes was presented for monitoring
65 trends in multiple types of climate extremes across large regions, and has been



66 employed to assess changes in spatial extent (Gallant et al., 2014). In recent years,
67 several compound dry and hot indices have been developed. For example, the
68 Standardized Dry and Hot Index based on the ratio of the marginal probability
69 distribution functions of precipitation and temperature was proposed to measure the
70 extreme degree of a compound drought and hot extreme event (Hao et al., 2018). Hao
71 et al. (2019) recently proposed the Standardized Compound Event Indicator (SCEI) to
72 assess the severity of compound dry and hot events by jointing the marginal distribution
73 of Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) and Standardized Temperature Index (STI)
74 using the copula theory. These two joint indices provide useful tools to improve our
75 understanding of the frequency, spatial extent and severity of CDHE. However, they
76 are inevitably subjected to some shortcomings including the fixed monthly scale and
77 the disregard of evapotranspiration, which may limit their use in monitoring the detailed
78 evolution of compound dry and hot events.

79 With the occurrence of extreme climate (e.g. high temperature, low humidity, and
80 sunny skies), droughts can evolve rapidly (Chen et al., 2019; Koster et al., 2019; Mo
81 and Lettenmaier, 2015; Otkin et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020a). Such
82 extreme weather can appear within a short period without resulting in long-lasting
83 compound events, but rather, short-term droughts and heatwaves lasting a few weeks
84 or even days (Mo and Lettenmaier, 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). Severe concurrent
85 drought and heat can suddenly strike a region with a relatively short duration when
86 extreme weather anomalies persist over the same region (Röthlisberger and Martius,
87 2019; Wang et al., 2016). Concurrent short-term drought and hot can pose greater
88 potential socio-economic risks because the combination of these events can exacerbate
89 their respective environmental and societal impacts (Kirono et al., 2017; Schumacher
90 et al., 2019; Sedlmeier et al., 2018). Specifically, even short-term concurrent dry and



91 hot extremes can lead to significant agricultural loss if they occur within sensitive stages
92 in crop development such as emergence, pollination, and grain filling (Zhang et al.,
93 2019). For example, a strong precipitation deficit along with record high temperatures
94 have led to severe impacts during May and early June in 2012 across the central U.S.
95 (Ford and Labosier, 2017; Otkin et al., 2013). Such short-term concurrent dry and hot
96 events regularly inflict widespread agricultural crop losses and drastically cut down
97 livestock population, making it one of the most costly natural hazards in the U.S. history
98 at tens of billions of economic losses (Anderson et al., 2016; Otkin et al., 2019). Under
99 climate change, short-term concurrent dry and hot extremes are expected to increase
100 (especially for humid regions), potentially causing substantial damage to natural
101 ecosystems and society (Li et al., 2020b; Sun et al., 2019). To improve understanding
102 of such short-term compound events and make early and timely warnings, decision-
103 makers and stakeholders require more detailed information such as the start time,
104 severity, and the projected tendency in the coming days rather than the average state at
105 a fixed monthly scale. Correspondingly, sub-monthly scale indices for characterizing
106 short-term compound dry and hot events are needed. Through the influence of
107 evapotranspiration, short-term meteorological variables (e.g., solar radiation and
108 sunshine duration) are considered an important factor in drought and heatwave
109 concurrences (James et al., 2010). For example, the largely increase in sunshine
110 duration due to clear sky creates excessive evapotranspiration, which in turn decreases
111 soil moisture (Ford et al., 2015). More surface sensible heat fluxes is transferred to the
112 near-surface atmosphere to further increase air temperatures and prohibit precipitation
113 (Miralles et al., 2019; Vogel et al., 2018). Together, these land-atmosphere interactions
114 create favorable conditions for concurrent drought and heatwaves (Mo and Lettenmaier,
115 2016; Otkin et al., 2018). Thus, the development of a compound drought and heat index



116 should consider other important drought/hot-related factors including temperature and
117 precipitation (e.g. evapotranspiration).

118 The complexity of compound events makes it an unusual task to develop a simple
119 and robust index to quantify their past and future changes (Zscheischler et al., 2020). A
120 suite of indices are proposed for the assessments of droughts and heatwaves previously,
121 yet there is no index available for incorporating the joint variability of dry and hot
122 conditions at sub-monthly scale. Here we aim to formulate a compound drought and
123 heat index, called the standardized compound drought and heat index (SCDHI), for
124 monitoring and analyzing compound dry and hot events at sub-monthly scale. To
125 achieve this aim, we combine a daily scale drought index, the standardized antecedent
126 precipitation evapotranspiration index (SAPEI), which simultaneously considers
127 precipitation and potential evapotranspiration (PET), with a daily scale standardized
128 temperature index (STI). We investigate the characteristics such as frequency, duration,
129 severity, and intensity of CDHEs during the historical (1961-2018) period and project
130 their changes in China for the future (2050-2100) under different emission scenarios.
131 This index can provide a new tool to quantify the characteristics of CDHEs, and can
132 monitor the CDHE at multiple time scale (e.g., daily, weekly and monthly) to provide
133 detailed information on their initiation, development, decay, and trends.

134 **2 Methods**

135 **2.1 data**

136 Daily meteorological datasets covering 1961 to 2018 were collected from 2239
137 observational stations across the non-arid region in China (Fig. 1), which include
138 precipitation (P), maximum air temperature (T_{\max}), mean air temperature (T_{men}),
139 minimum air temperature (T_{\min}), relatively humidity (RH), wind speed (WS), and
140 sunshine duration. All of these meteorological data with strict quality control are



141 available from the China Meteorological Administration (<http://cdc.nmic.cn/home.do>)
142 and the Resources and Environmental Science Data Center, Chinese Academy of
143 Sciences (<http://www.resdc.cn/Default.aspx>). The kriging method was applied to
144 interpolate these observational station data into $0.25 \times 0.25^\circ$ gridded data.

145 The two commonly used indices (i.e., monthly Palmer Drought Severity Index
146 (PDSI) and Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI) were employed
147 for comparison. PDSI and SPEI were computed from the same meteorological data
148 described above. The conventional PDSI was empirically derived using the
149 meteorological data of the central USA with its semi-arid climate. The portability of
150 the conventional PDSI is thus relatively poor (Liu et al., 2017). In this study, PDSI was
151 calculated according to the China national standard of classification of meteorological
152 drought with standard number of GB/T 20481-2017. The PDSI calculation procedure
153 of this standard was built based on long-term meteorological data of in-situ stations
154 evenly distributed around China, hence well monitor drought in China (Zhong et al.,
155 2019a). The 0.25° -daily root zone (0 - 100 cm) soil moisture dataset obtained from
156 Community Land Model (CLM) of the Global Land Data Assimilation System
157 (GLDAS) was also used in this study. The dataset from 1961 to 2014 were downloaded
158 from the Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services Center (Rodell et al.,
159 2004). The GLDAS CLM soil moisture dataset captures dry and wet conditions in
160 China well (Bi et al., 2016; Feng et al., 2016). In addition, 8-day leaf area index (LAI)
161 of the MOD15A2H from 2003 to 2018 were collected. These data were resampled to
162 0.25° spatial resolution, and then the Z-score was used to calculate the LAI anomalies.

163 We further used eight global climate models from the Coupled Model
164 Intercomparison Project Phase (<https://esgf.llnl.gov/>) (Taylor et al., 2012), including
165 CanESM2, CNRM-CM5, CSIRO-Mk3.6, MIROC-ESM, MPI-ESM-LR, BCC-CSM1-



166 1, IPSL-CM5A-LR, and MRI-CGCM3, were used to project the future climate
167 conditions. These GCMs exhibit good performance to simulate the key features of
168 precipitation and temperature in China (Jiang et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2019). We
169 obtained daily climate variables (i.e., P , T_{\max} , T_{\min} , T_{men} , WS, RH, and shortwave and
170 longwave radiations) for the historical (1961-2005) and future (2030-2100) periods for
171 the three Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) including RCP 2.6 (low
172 emission scenario), RCP 4.5 (moderate emission scenario) and RCP 8.5 (high emission
173 scenario). All of the GCM outputs were based on the first ensemble member of each
174 model, referred to as *r1i1p1* in all of the experiments. The detailed information on these
175 GCMs is shown in Table S1.

176 **2.2 Development of SCDHI**

177 The SCDHI is a compound drought and heat index based on a daily drought index
178 and the Standardized Temperature Index (STI), which is computed in a similar fashion
179 as the Standardized Precipitation Index (Zscheischler et al., 2014). The calculation of
180 daily STI is similar to monthly STI, but for standardizing daily temperature. For
181 example, with respect to one certain grid point, the 1 January STI are computed on the
182 1 January temperature datasets observed during 1961-2018 at each grid point. We firstly
183 formulated a daily scale drought index, i.e. the standardized antecedent precipitation
184 evapotranspiration index (SAPEI), by considering both precipitation and PET.
185 Afterward, the joint distribution method was employed to compute the SCDHI.

186 **2.2.1 Formulation of daily-scale drought index**

187 Li et al. (2020b) have proposed the daily-scale drought index (SAPEI) that
188 considers both precipitation and PET. However, the primary limitation of this index is
189 that it has a fixed temporal scale and cannot reflect the dry and wet condition at different
190 time scales. Hence, in this study, we developed the multiple time scale (i.e., 3-, 6-, 9-,



191 and 12-month) daily drought index. Here, we followed the same nomenclature proposed
192 by Li et al. (2020b) to refer to a daily standardized drought index (SAPEI) based on
193 precipitation and PET. SAPEI is simple to calculate, and uses the antecedent
194 accumulative differences between precipitation and PET to represent the dry and wet
195 condition of the current day. The calculation procedure is described below.

196 The Penman-Monteith method (Allen et al., 1998) was firstly used to compute PET.
197 With a value for PET, the daily difference between precipitation and PET was
198 calculated to reveal climatic water balance (precipitation minus PET). To reflect dry
199 and wet conditions of the day, the antecedent water surplus or deficit (D) was
200 calculated through the following equations:

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^n (p - PET)_i \quad (1)$$

201 Where n is the number of previous days.

202 The D values can be aggregated at different time scales, such as 3, 6, 9 months,
203 and so on. A probability distribution was used to fit the daily time series of D . Given
204 that different probability distributions may cause differences in drought indices (Stagge
205 et al., 2015), to select the most suitable distribution, several commonly probability
206 distributions including the general extreme value, log-logistic, lognormal, Pearson III,
207 generalized Pareto, exponential, and normal distributions, should be used to fit the D
208 series. In the study of Li et al. (2020b), Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS)
209 test have been used applied for optimal probability distribution selection by comparing
210 the empirical probability distribution with a candidate theoretical probability
211 distribution. They suggested that the log-logistic distribution is more suitable for
212 SAPEI. Moreover, previous researches have demonstrated that the log-logistic
213 distribution is suitable for standardizing drought indices, e.g. SPEI (Vicente-Serrano et



214 al., 2010). Therefore, we chose the log-logistic distribution to compute SAPEI. Once
215 the daily D series were fit to a probability distribution, cumulative probabilities of the
216 D series were obtained and transformed to standardized units (SAPEI) using the
217 classical approach of Barton et al. (1965).

218 2.2.2 Construction of SCDHI

219 The SCDHI was established through copula theory, which can combine the
220 candidate variables into one numerical expression. This approach not only realizes a
221 projection from multiple dimensions to a single dimension, but also the marginal
222 distributions of the candidate variables combined with their original structures can be
223 fully preserved within the constructed joint distribution. Hence, the copula-based index
224 provides an objective description of the compound events (Hao et al., 2018b; Terzi et
225 al., 2019).

226 There are many copula families available, which have widely been used for joint
227 bivariate distributions (Terzi et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). Among them, Clayton,
228 Gumbel, Normal, T, and Frank copula perform well for jointing bivariate
229 hydrometeorological variables (Ayantobo et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019), and thus were
230 employed to establish the bivariate joint probability distribution in this study. Assuming,
231 the two random Gaussian variables X and Y representing SAPEI and STI,
232 respectively, the CDHE can be identified as one variable X lower than or equal to a
233 threshold x , and the other variable Y higher than a threshold y at the same time. The
234 joint probability P of the CDHE can then be expressed as:

$$p = P(X \leq x, Y \geq y) = u - c(u, v) \quad (2)$$

235 where u was the X marginal distribution, and $c(u, v)$ was the joint probability



236 distribution.

237 This joint cumulative probability P could be treated as an indicator, where smaller
238 P values denote more severe condition of CDHE. However, P to the given marginal
239 sets, P values in different seasons or areas reflected different conditions and are thus
240 not comparable. Hence, the joint probability P was transformed to a uniform
241 distribution by fitting a distribution F , which was then standardized as an indicator to
242 characterize CDHEs. Once the P series at each day were fitted to a copula, the P
243 series were transformed to standardized units. SCDHI can be estimated by taking the
244 inverse of joint cumulative probability (p) as:

$$SCDHI = \varphi^{-1}(F(P(X \leq x, Y \geq y))) \quad (3)$$

245 where φ is the standard normal distribution function. the distribution F was
246 estimated based on the Yeo-Johnson transformation formula (Yeo and Johnson, 2000).

247 Following the categories of compound dry and hot conditions as suggested by (Wu
248 et al., 2020), we defined five categories of compound dry and hot conditions, including
249 abnormal, light, moderate, heavy and extreme compound drought-hot, as shown in
250 Table 1.

251 We used Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information Criterion (BIC),
252 and KS statistics as goodness-of-fit measures to select an appropriate copula. These
253 statistical measures have been commonly used for estimating the goodness of fit of a
254 proposed cumulative distribution function to a given empirical distribution function
255 (Liu et al., 2019; Terzi et al., 2019). The AIC, BIC, and KS statistics are presented in
256 Fig. S1-3. According to the evaluation metrics, there was a good agreement between



257 the empirical and parametric copulas. Particularly, the performance of Frank copula
258 slightly outweighed those of the other three copulas. Therefore, the Frank copula was
259 utilized to establish the joint probability function and construct SCDHI in this study.
260 Note that the SCDHI under three future scenarios is also used the Frank copula, while
261 the parameters are assessed by future scenarios data. The SCDHI development was
262 illustrated in Fig. S4.

263 Furthermore, to verify the ability of SCDHI to capture the compound dry and hot
264 event, three verification metrics were used (i.e., probability of detection (POD), false
265 alarm ratio (FAR), and critical success index (CSI)) (Zhang et al., 2018).

$$POD = H / (H + M) \quad (4)$$

$$FAR = F / (H + F) \quad (5)$$

$$CSI = H / (H + F + M) \quad (6)$$

266 where H (Hit, observed drought-hot) refers to the number of grids when SAPEI
267 and STI is subjected to grade 1 (G1) - grade 4 (G4) and SCDHI is subjected to G1-G4;
268 M (Miss) denotes the number of grids when SAPEI and STI is between G1 to G4 and
269 SCDHI is subjected to other grades than G1-G4; F (false alarm) denotes the number
270 of grids when SAPEI and STI is subjected to other grades than G1-G4 but SCDHI is
271 subjected to grades of G1-G4.

272 **3 Results and Discussion**

273 **3.1 Evaluation of SAPEI**

274 The SCDHI was established based on the STI and daily-scale drought index, i.e.,
275 SAPEI. However, no previous studies have tested the (daily) drought monitoring
276 performance of SAPEI. When developing a drought index, rigorous testing is required



277 with respect to its applicability before it is applied in drought monitoring. Fig. 2 shows
278 the spatial distributions of the correlations between SAPEI and SPEI/PDSI/soil
279 moisture across China. The monthly mean SAPEI at 3-, 6-, 9- and 12-month scale all
280 showed strong agreement with the SPEI in China, with correlation coefficients higher
281 than 0.8 ($p < 0.01$), indicating that the monthly SAPEI at multiple time scale calculated
282 from the daily value could have the same capability of monthly drought monitoring as
283 SPEI. The 3-, 6-, 9- and 12-month SAPEI generally showed good correlation with PDSI,
284 and 3-month SAPEI and PDSI generally correlate closely, with correlation coefficients
285 higher than 0.6 ($p < 0.01$), while the 12-month SAPEI displayed weak correlation with
286 PDSI in south China. For daily SAPEI at 3-month scale and soil moisture, a close
287 correlation was detected in south China, while relatively weak correlation is found in
288 north China. The correlation between SAPEI and soil moisture increased in magnitude
289 and spatial extent at time scales of 6-12 months. For 12-month SAPEI, correlation
290 coefficient was generally greater than 0.6 for a majority of China. This phenomenon
291 implied that the short-time scale SAPEI was more sensitive to precipitation change, and
292 thus could be more suitable for meteorological drought, while the long-time scale (more
293 than five month) SAPEI was more closely related to soil moisture and can be applied
294 for agricultural drought monitoring. Overall, these analyses indicate that the SAPEI at
295 daily and monthly scale showed reliability in drought monitoring

296 To further test the drought monitoring performance of the SAPEI, typical drought
297 events were chosen as case studies. During recent decades, several well-known large-
298 scale drought events have hit China, including the droughts in winter of 2009 to spring
299 of 2010, and in 2011 (Lu et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2019). In this study, the drought regimes
300 during these events were taken as case studies to evaluate the drought monitoring
301 performance of SAPEI at 3- and 6-month time scales (Sun and Yang, 2012). We firstly



302 showed the monthly evolution of these events by the monthly mean SAPEI, SPEI, and
303 PDSI, and then analyzed the daily evolution of drought in space and time in the most
304 affected areas according to SAPEI and soil moisture.

305 **3.2.1 Drought events during 2009-2010**

306 Fig. S5 illustrates the monthly changes in the 2009/10 drought monitored by the
307 PDSI, SPEI, and SAPEI at 3- and 6-month scale. This drought started to appear in most
308 of China (except for the central and northeast China) in September 2009, and then
309 persisted in most of China during October to December 2009; during this period,
310 drought conditions became more severe in south China. The drought in north and east
311 China gradually faded away during January and March in 2010. In contrast, in
312 southwest China (SWC) the drought intensity became rather strong during the same
313 period. The severe dry condition continued in SWC during April in 2010, while drought
314 in the rest of China gradually disappeared in this period. After that, dry conditions in
315 SWC gradually relieved from May to June in 2010, but did not disappear. The monthly
316 drought evolution based on SAPEI was generally similar with that of SPEI and PDSI.

317 Despite being located in the humid climate zone, SWC suffered from exceptional
318 drought during the autumn of 2009 to the spring of 2010 (Lin et al., 2015). During this
319 drought, more than 16 million people and 11 million livestock faced drinking water
320 shortages, with direct economic losses estimated at 19 billion yuan in SWC (Lin et al.,
321 2015). We selected this event in SWC as the first case study, and reveal detailed
322 spatial and temporal change of this event at daily scale based on SAPEI and soil
323 moisture (Fig. 3 and 4). During September 1 to 30 of 2009, the drought started to appear
324 in the region, and dry conditions became worse and spread throughout nearly the entire
325 SWC from October 1 to November 15 of 2009. Severe dry conditions then stayed in
326 the region for 152 days from November 15 to April 15 of 2010, with high intensity.



327 Afterwards, severe drought was gradually relieved from April 15 to June 15. The
328 drought diminished over time in most parts of southwest China by the end of June.

329 **3.2.2 Drought events in 2011**

330 The monthly changes in the 2011 drought is illustrated in Fig. S6. The drought
331 pattern monitored by SAPEI generally shows a good agreement with those by SPEI and
332 PDSI. More specifically, the drought mainly started in north China in January, while in
333 March it spread to most of China, and drought conditions in lower reaches of the
334 Yangtze River basin became serious. In April to May, severe dry conditions persisted
335 in the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River Basin (MLR-YRB), and extended
336 from the YRB to southern China. In August, the drought moved westward and reached
337 the edge of southwestern China. Severe drought persisted in the region during
338 September and October, but it gradually faded away in November and December. The
339 results monitored by the SAPEI are generally consisted with the findings of Lu et al.
340 (2014).

341 The 2011 drought event was particularly unusual in the LR-YRB. The MLR-YRB
342 is generally in a wet condition, nevertheless, suffered its worst drought in the 50 years
343 during the spring. The severe drought caused shortage of drinking water for 4.2 million
344 people. 3.7 million hectares of crops were damaged or destroyed. Moreover, the heavy
345 drought led to more than 1,300 lakes devoid of all water in Hubei province (Xu et al.,
346 2015). The temporal and spatial evolution of this event in MLR-YRB described by daily
347 SAPEI and soil moisture was shown in Fig. 5-6. The drought started to appear in the
348 north part of the MLR-YRB in early February of 2011, and then gradually expanded to
349 the whole MLR-YRB during early February and March 15. The severe drought
350 condition persisted in this region for 78 days (from March 15 to May 31). Afterwards,
351 there was a tendency toward alleviating drought conditions, and most of MLR-YRB



352 was under light and moderate drought conditions.

353 The previous detailed analysis showed that the SAPEI not only captures monthly
354 characteristics of droughts, but also has the potential to track droughts at sub-monthly
355 scale. Though the input data (including precipitation and PET) of SAPEI are similar to
356 SPEI, the rationale of the index is different from SPEI. It was calculated for each day
357 and considers the water surplus or deficit of that day and the previous days. SPEI was
358 commonly employed to monitor and analyze the monthly or longer-scale droughts
359 (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010). It thus may not be appropriate to apply the SPEI at
360 shorter timescales (e.g., daily or weekly), because of the inherent problem in the
361 construction of the index. Although SPEI gives a full and equal consideration to the
362 water surplus or deficit in the period of the considered time scale, it does not consider
363 the water surplus or deficit in the days before the period. If the scale is very short, this
364 may cause problems. For a 7-day period, for example, if there is no precipitation during
365 the period, it may be regarded as a drought period when compared with historical
366 records (the method used by the SPEI); however, if there is a heavy precipitation just
367 before the period, then the 7-day period probably remains wet and is unlikely to
368 experience drought condition during such a short time. Previous studies have
369 demonstrated the disadvantage of SPEI for short-time scale drought monitoring (Lu,
370 2009; Lu et al., 2014; Li et al., 2020b).

371 In summary, the SAPEI meets the requirements of a drought index, given the fact
372 that it shows reliable and robust ability for drought analysis and monitoring. Like the
373 SPEI, SAPEI includes multiple time scales (3-, 6-, 9-, and 12- month) to monitor
374 droughts at monthly resolution. However, SAPEI has the advantage over SPEI
375 regarding sub-monthly drought monitoring.



376 **3.2 Evaluation of SCDHI**

377 The SCDHI was developed by joining the marginal distribution of the SAPEI and
378 STI. Though the copula method has been widely utilized to connect bivariate
379 distribution, the property of SCDHI in capturing CDHEs still needs to be tested. Fig. 7
380 shows the spatial distributions of the correlations between SCDHI and SAPEI/STI at
381 daily scale across China. The SCDHI all showed strong ($p < 0.01$) correlation with the
382 SAPEI at 3-, 6-, 9- and 12-month scale in China, with correlation coefficients higher
383 than 0.7. A significant correlation ($p < 0.01$) was also detected between STI and SCDHI
384 at multiple scales. Fig. 8 shows the spatial pattern in POD, FAR, and CSI when the
385 drought and hot events observed by SAPEI and STI, respectively, were related to
386 compound drought-hot event detected by SCDHI at 3-, 6-, 9- and 12-monthly scale. As
387 shown in Fig. 8, POD is close to 1 and FAR is close to 0, implying that SCDHI can
388 well detect in most of the areas where the droughts and hots were detected by SAPEI
389 and STI. The values of CSI indicated that the ratios of drought-hot affected areas
390 detected by SAPEI and STI to the drought and hot areas detected by SCDHI were close
391 to one. Overall, these analyses implied that SCDHI can well monitor droughts and hots
392 that can be successfully captured by SAPEI and STI. The SCDHI thus detects CDHEs
393 that are identified separately by the coincidence of low SAPEI and high STI. In addition,
394 the SCDHI detects events that are very extreme in either the SAPEI or the STI and
395 moderate in the other variable but thus still cause substantial damage (Zscheischler et
396 al., 2017b). Furthermore, the SCDHI is able to quantify the magnitude of CDHEs.

397 To further test the drought-heat monitoring performance of the SCDHI, two typical
398 CDHEs were chosen as case studies according to the Yearbook of Meteorological
399 Disasters in China. One was a well-known compound drought and heatwave striking
400 Sichuan-Chongqing region (SCR) with serious consequences during summer of 2006



401 (Wu et al., 2020), and the other occurred in southern China with adverse impacts on
402 agriculture during July to September of 2009 (Wang et al., 2010). SCR experienced
403 continuous extreme temperature during mid-June to late August 2006. The duration and
404 severity of this hot event were the worst on the historical record. Simultaneously, a
405 heavy drought occurring once in 100 years hit this region. During this compound event,
406 a population of over ten million was confronted with drinking water shortage, about
407 twenty thousand km² of cropland suffered serious losses, and more than one hundred
408 times forest fire broke out. Local governments issued the most serious arid warning
409 (Zhang et al., 2008). Thus, we take this typical drought-hot event as first case studies
410 to evaluate the drought/hot monitoring performance of SCDHI. The monthly spatial
411 pattern of this compound event in SCR is shown in Fig. S7, indicating that SCR during
412 summer in 2006 experienced the moderate to extreme compound dry and hot conditions.
413 Fig. 9 maps the spatial pattern of this compound event and its impact on vegetation
414 from mid-June to late August. This event started to appear in SCR in mid-June 2006,
415 and gradually spread throughout the whole SCR during June 19 to 26. The moderate
416 dry-hot condition then persisted in the entire SCR from June 27 to August 5 in 2006,
417 lasting for 40 days. The negative LAI was scattered in some of the dry-hot affected
418 areas. However, during August 6 to 21, the drought-hot event became even more
419 severe with the onset of extremely hot temperatures, causing negative vegetation
420 anomalies in most of the affected areas.

421 The monthly spatial pattern of another compound event in southern China during
422 July to September of 2009 is shown in Fig. S8. Overall moderate to heavy compound
423 dry and hot conditions are observed at monthly scale in this region. However, this event
424 showed large fluctuation at weekly scale. According to the Yearbook, the hot event was
425 divided into two periods: the first stage was from early to late July, and the other stage



426 was from mid-August to early September. The fluctuating compound event caused
427 adverse impact of crop pollination and grain filling, resulting in decrease of crop
428 production. Fig. 10 maps the spatial pattern of this event and its impact on LAI. In the
429 first stage, the drought-hot event hit the most of southern China during July 5 to 12, and
430 then it became severe in the west part of southern China during July 13 to 20. However,
431 the hot event suddenly disappeared from July 21 to 28, leading to disappearance of the
432 compound event in most of southern China (Fig. 10a). Afterward, the compound event
433 hit this region again from August 6 to 13, and its intensity was strong during August 14
434 to 21, with severe hot conditions. Subsequently, the intensity and spatial extent of the
435 compound event faded away in north of southern China during August 22 to 29. This
436 event extended to most of this region again from August 30 to September 14, with
437 severe dry and hot condition. The compound events still stayed in this region from
438 September 15 to 22 (Fig. 10b). Despite the short-term event, the anomalous change in
439 vegetation was found in most of the dry-hot affected areas. This complex event
440 indicates that monthly analyses of the event can provide an overall situation, but is
441 not able to capture the serious dry and hot conditions caused by a short-term extreme
442 climate anomaly at shorter time scales. Though such short-term compound event only
443 lasted for days or weeks, they lead to large agricultural losses if they occur within
444 sensitive stages in crop development (i.e., pollination and grain filling) (Mazdiyasi
445 and AghaKouchak, 2015). To provide timely information of the CDHEs, short-time
446 scale analyses and monitoring of such events are essential.

447 Overall, the changes in these two CDHEs based on SCDHI are consistent with the
448 national weather reports (<http://www.weather.com.cn/>). In summary, the SCDHI is able
449 to robustly and reliably capture CDHEs at sub-monthly scale, and potentially provide a
450 new tool to objectively and quantitatively analyze and monitor the characteristics of



451 CDHEs in time and space.

452 **3.3 Application**

453 Here, we evaluate and compare the spatiotemporal variation of characteristics of
454 CDHEs in China. More precisely, the CDHEs during growing season (April-September)
455 from 1961 to 2018 were identified based on 3-month scale SCDHI and run theory (Wu
456 et al., 2018), after which the frequency, duration, severity, and intensity of these events
457 were analyzed (A specific case to identify CDHE is shown in Fig. S9). We then
458 projected their future characteristics changes under the RCP 2.6, 4.5 and 8.5 from 2050
459 to 2100. Given that short-term concurrent dry and hot events generally persist for at
460 least weeks (Otkin et al., 2018), only the events lasting for more than two weeks were
461 considered in this study.

462 Fig. 11 shows spatial patterns of characteristics of the CDHEs. A high frequency of
463 compound events was detected in southern China, with occurrence of every two years
464 on average, in contrast, the eastern Tibet Plateau and northeast China experienced fewer
465 compound events (Fig. 11a), which was generally consistent with the previous studies
466 (Liu et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2016). The CDHE generally lasted for about twenty-five
467 to thirty-five days in most of China, while in east Tibet Plateau, the CDHE persisted
468 for less than twenty days (Fig. 11b). The severity and intensity of the CDHE presented
469 relatively similar patterns and showed that most of eastern China experienced high
470 severity and intensity (Fig. 11 c-d). Overall, southern China suffered more frequent
471 CDHEs, with higher severity and intensity. Southern China is a humid region where
472 evapotranspiration is mainly controlled by energy supply because soil moisture is
473 usually sufficient. For given adequate soil moisture in the initiation of drought,
474 evaporative demand can increase rapidly during a short period when strong, transient
475 meteorological changes (such as extreme temperature) occur, which in turn exhaust soil



476 moisture to intensify drought conditions (Zhang et al., 2019, Otkin et al., 2018).
477 Moreover, vegetation over south China is usually abundant and plants tend to suck more
478 water from the soil when high temperatures occur, causing evapotranspiration increase
479 and soil moisture decline (Li et al., 2020c; Wang et al., 2016). More surface sensible
480 heat fluxes are thus transferred to the near-surface atmosphere to further increase air
481 temperatures (Mo and Lettenmaier, 2015). These land-atmosphere interactions
482 altogether cause the Bowen ratio to increase (Otkin et al., 2013, 2018), creating a
483 favorable condition for short-term concurrence droughts and hots. Therefore, CDHEs
484 are more likely to occur in humid regions with higher severity and intensity.

485 Fig. 12 illustrates the spatial patterns of change in frequency, duration, severity, and
486 intensity of the CDHEs under RCP 2.6, 4.5, and 8.5 scenarios. According to Fig. 12a,
487 the future (2050-2100) CDHE frequency under three scenarios in most of east China
488 will increase by about one to three times with respect to the reference period (1961-
489 2018). Under RCP 8.5 scenario, CDHE at about 4% of the study region is expected to
490 markedly increase by more than five times, which are scattered in the central to west
491 parts of China. The duration of CDHE across the east of the study region will mainly
492 show an increase of about 0.5 times, while duration in mid-west China potentially
493 increases by approximately 1.5 times under RCP 8.5 scenarios (Fig. 12b). The spatial
494 pattern of future severity change is similar to the duration; severity in most of east China
495 is projected to increase by about 0.5 time under three scenarios; however, CDHE
496 severity over mid-west China is expected to more than triple under RCP 8.5 (Fig. 12c).
497 The CDHE intensity in most of the study region exhibits slight increase for all scenarios
498 in comparison to the historical period.

499 The cumulative density functions (CDFs) of the CHDE frequency, duration,
500 severity, and intensity in historical and future periods were quantified, and the result is



501 shown in Fig. 13. A substantial change in the values of CHDE frequency, duration,
502 severity, and intensity was detected between the historical and future projections. The
503 frequency, duration, severity, and intensity of CHDEs will intensify throughout the
504 China in future scenarios compared to the historical reference, as marked by the
505 movement towards the right side of the CDF curves. Specifically, the cumulative
506 probability of CDHE frequency is expected to increase by more than 80% under three
507 scenarios, compared with the 95th percentile value in historical period (Fig. 13a). The
508 cumulative probability of duration would increase by about 72% under RCP 8.5
509 scenario, while increment under RCP 2.6 scenario is relatively small (17%), in
510 comparison to the 95th percentile in reference period (Fig. 13b). The severity cumulative
511 probability project to increase by 42% and 53% under RCP 2.6 and 4.5 scenarios
512 respectively, but even increase by 88% under RCP 8.5 scenario (Fig. 13c). An increase
513 of at least 42% is observed in the intensity cumulative probability, compared with the
514 n reference period (Fig. 13d). Such an increase in the frequency, duration, severity, and
515 intensity of CDHEs across China could be a new normal in future.

516 Global warming is very likely to exacerbate the prevalence of the CDHEs
517 (Pfleiderer et al., 2019). Trends are often present in individual variables (e.g.,
518 temperature, and precipitation), while can also occur in the dependence between drivers
519 of compound events, which consequently affects associated risks. The (negative)
520 correlation between seasonal mean summer temperature and precipitation is projected
521 to intensify in many land regions, leading to more frequent extremely dry and hot
522 conditions (Kirono et al., 2017; Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017a). Overall, the
523 frequency, severity, duration, and intensity of the CDHEs in China under global
524 warming will increase significantly. Effective measures need to be implemented to
525 decrease the CO² emissions for compound dry and hot event mitigation.



526 **4 Conclusions**

527 Under global warming, the compound dry and hot event tends to more frequent and
528 short-lived (i.e., days or weeks). Correspondingly, a compound drought and heat index
529 should be able to monitor such event at sub-monthly scales in order to timely reflect
530 dry and hot condition evolution. In this study, we developed a multiple time scale (e.g.,
531 3-, 6-, 9, and 12- month) compound drought and heat index, termed as SCDHI, to
532 monitor short-time (e.g., days or weeks) and long-time (e.g., months) compound event.
533 This index was established based on the daily drought index (i.e., SAPEI) and
534 Standardized Temperature Index (STI) using a joint probability distribution method.
535 Using the SCDHI, we then quantitatively investigated the characteristics (i.e., frequency,
536 intensity, severity, and duration) of the CDHEs in China in historical period (1961-
537 2018), and revealed how they would change in the future (2050-2100) under
538 representative concentration pathway (RCP) 2.6, 4.5, and 8.5 scenarios. The main
539 conclusions of this study are presented as follows: The SCDHI can well monitor
540 simultaneous dries and hots detected by SAPEI and STI. The monthly SCDHI can
541 provide an overall situation of the compound dry and hot conditions, but sub-monthly
542 SCDHI can well capture fluctuation of simultaneous dries and hots within a month. It
543 also can reflect the impact of the compound dry and hot event on vegetation anomalies.
544 The SCDHI can offer a new tool to quantitatively measure the characteristics of the
545 CDHEs. It also can provide detailed information such as the initiation, development,
546 decay, and tendency of the compound event for decision-makers and stakeholders to
547 make early and timely warning. In the case study of the China, the southern China
548 suffered more frequent the CDHE, with higher severity and intensity. The CDHE
549 mainly lasted for twenty-five to thirty-five days in China. The frequency, duration,
550 severity, and intensity of compound events will intensify throughout the China in future.



551 The frequency will increase by about one to three times with respect to the reference
552 period. A region with fewer compound event (< 5) would exhibit a multi-fold (more
553 than five times) increase in the future. The duration across east areas mainly increased
554 by 0.5 times, while severity project to increase by about 0.5 to 1 times.

555

556 **Data availability.** The observed meteorological datasets are available at
557 <http://cdc.nmic.cn/home.do>. The CMIP5 datasets are available at <https://esgf.llnl.gov>.

558

559 **Author Contributions.** Conceived and designed the experiments: JL, WS. Performed
560 the experiments: JL, WS. Analyzed the data: JL. Wrote and edited the paper: JL, WS,
561 WZ, ZJ, GS, CX.

562

563 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

564

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803 **Table**

804 Table 1 Categories of compound dry and hot conditions based on SCDHI.

Category	Dry and hot condition	SCDHI
G ₀	Abnormal	(-0.80, -0.50]
G ₁	Light	(-1.30, -0.80]
G ₂	Moderate	(-1.60, -1.30]
G ₃	Heavy	(-2.0, -1.60]
G ₄	Extreme	≤ -2

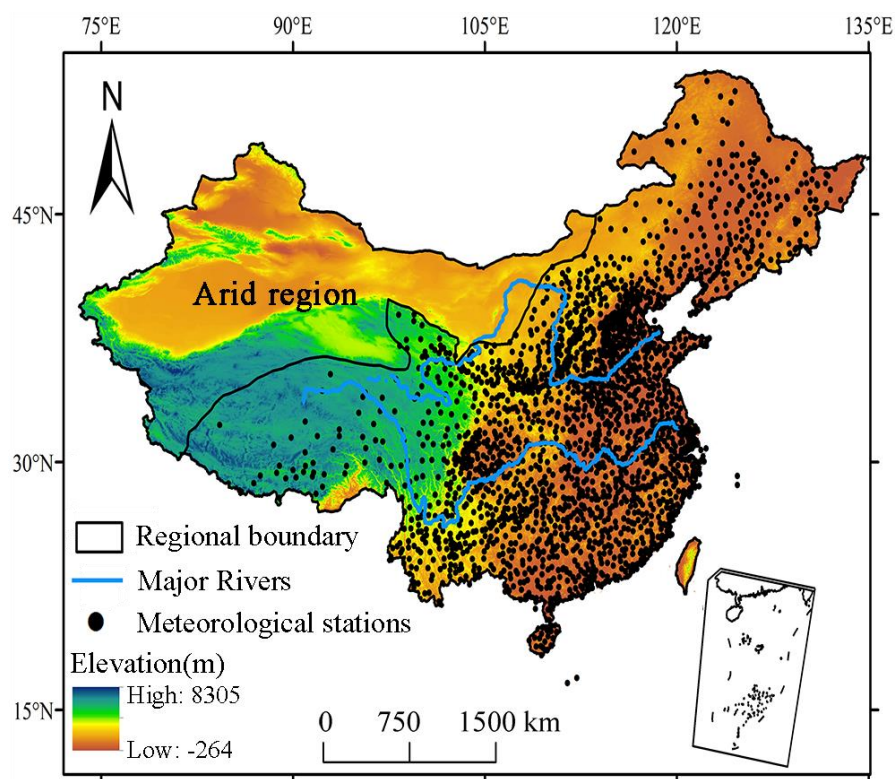
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826 **Figure**

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Figure 1 Geographical position of China and local of meteorological stations.

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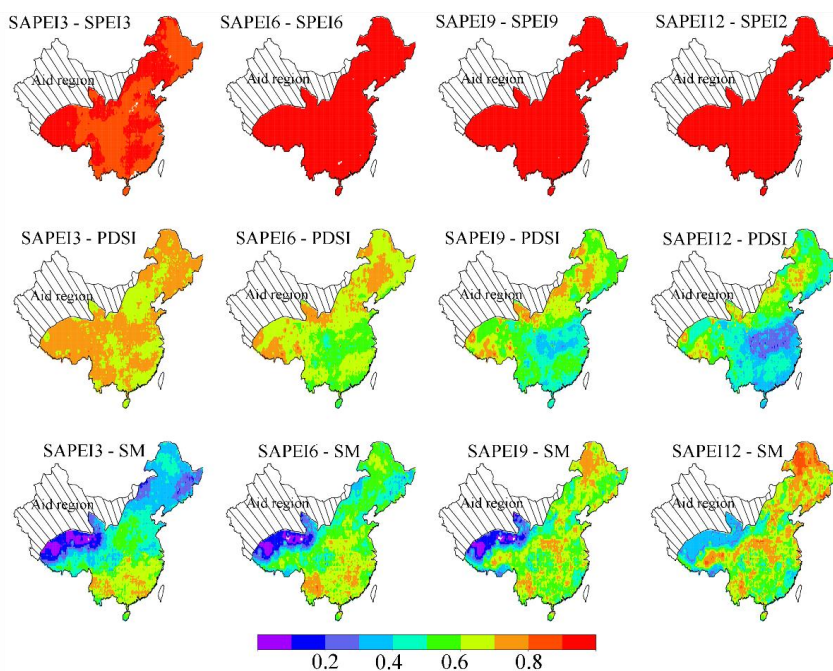
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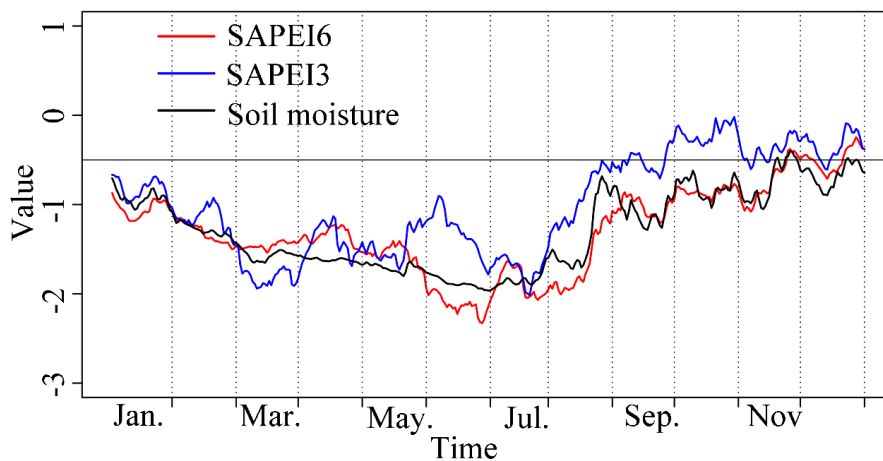
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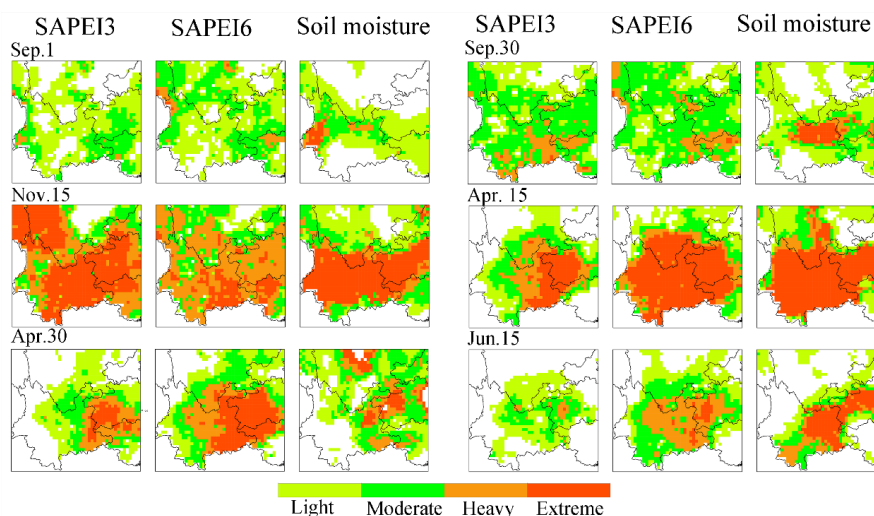
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839
840 Figure 2 The spatial pattern of the correlations between monthly SAPEI and SPEI/PDSI,
841 and between daily SAPEI and soil moisture (SM). The monthly SAPEI is computed by
842 averaging the daily values in each month.
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845 Figure 3 SAPEI (3- and 6-month) and soil moisture series during the 2009/2010 drought
846 event over the southwest China. The series were spatially average merged series.

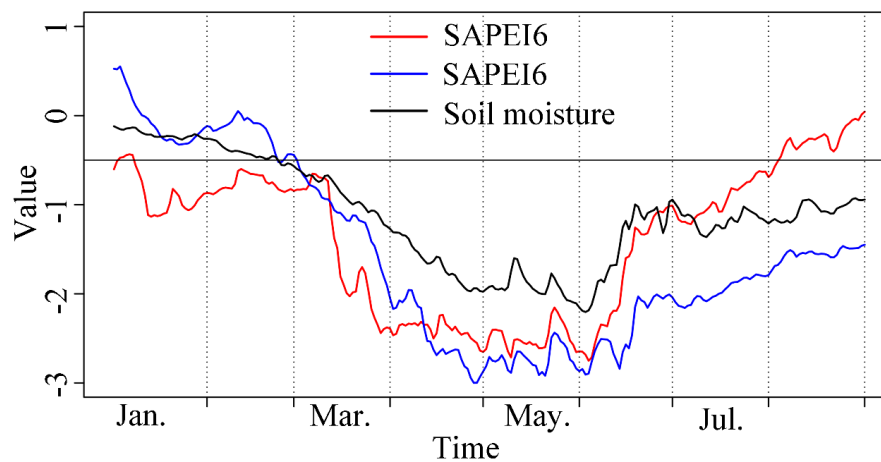


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848 Figure 4 Daily evolutions of the 2009/2010 drought event over the southwest China

849 monitored by 3- and 6-month SAPEI and soil moisture.

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852 Figure 5 SAPEI (3- and 6-month) and soil moisture series during the 2011 drought

853 event over the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River. The series were spatially

854 average merged series.

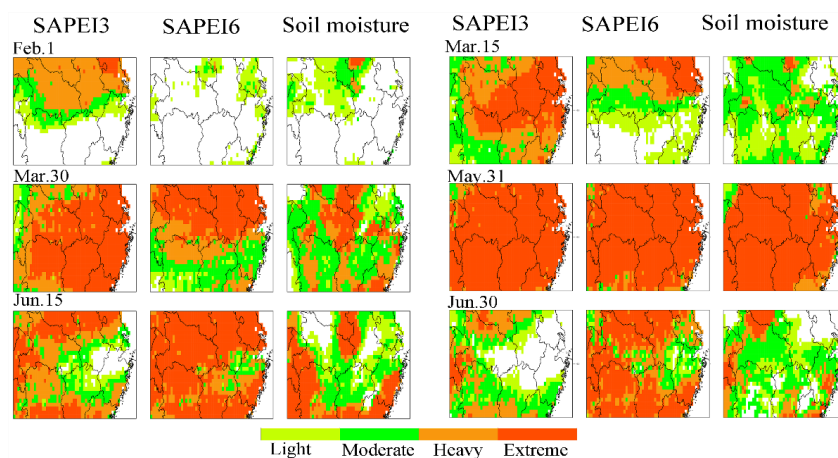
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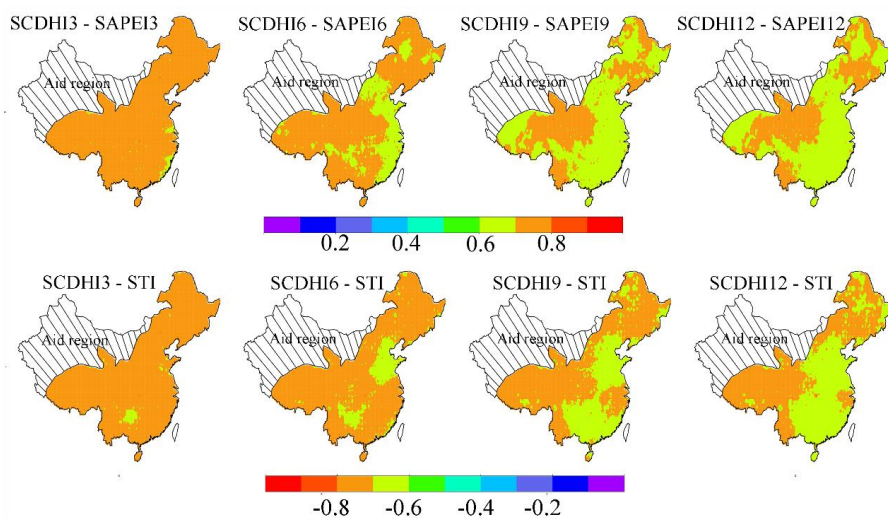


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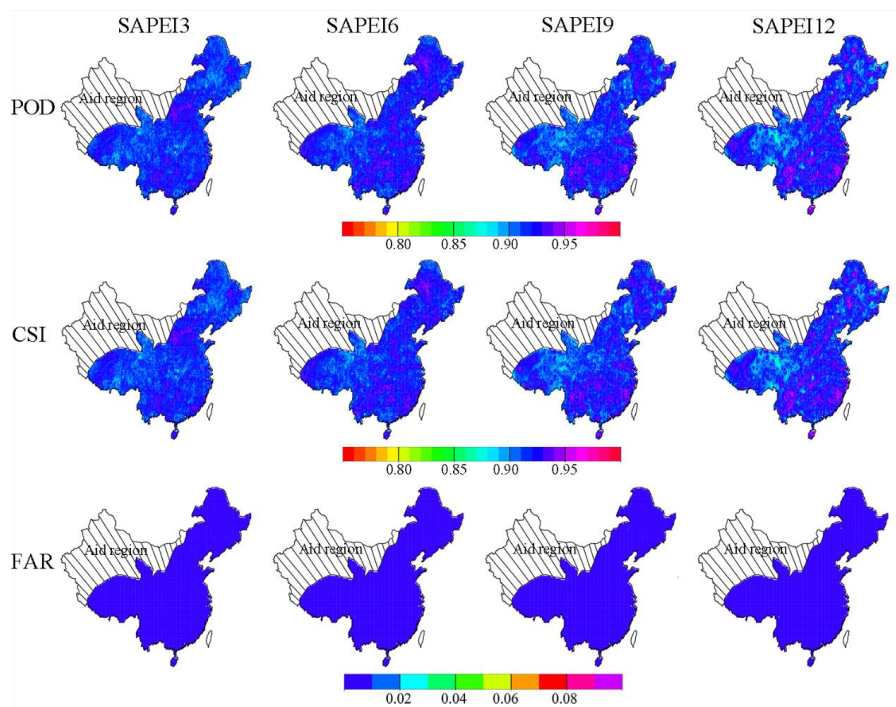


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862 Figure 6 Daily evolutions of the 2011 drought event over the middle and lower reaches
863 of the Yangtze River monitored by 3- and 6-month SAPEI and soil moisture.

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867 Figure 7 The spatial pattern of the correlations between SCDHI and SAPEI/STI at daily
868 scale from 1961 to 2018.

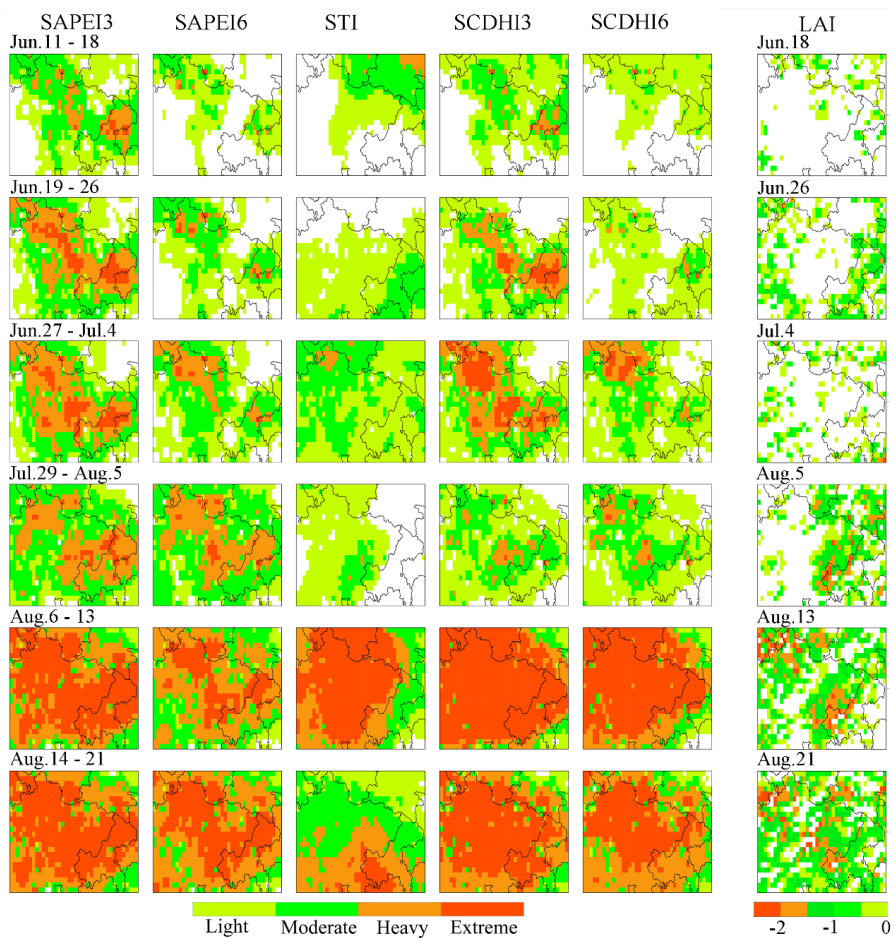


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870 Figure 8 The spatial pattern of POD, FAR, and CSI for SCDHI at 3-, 6-, 9- and 12-

871 month time scales from 1961 to 2018.

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874 Figure 9. The spatial evolutions of the compound dry and hot event over the Sichuan-

875 Chongqing region in 2006 and its impact on vegetation.

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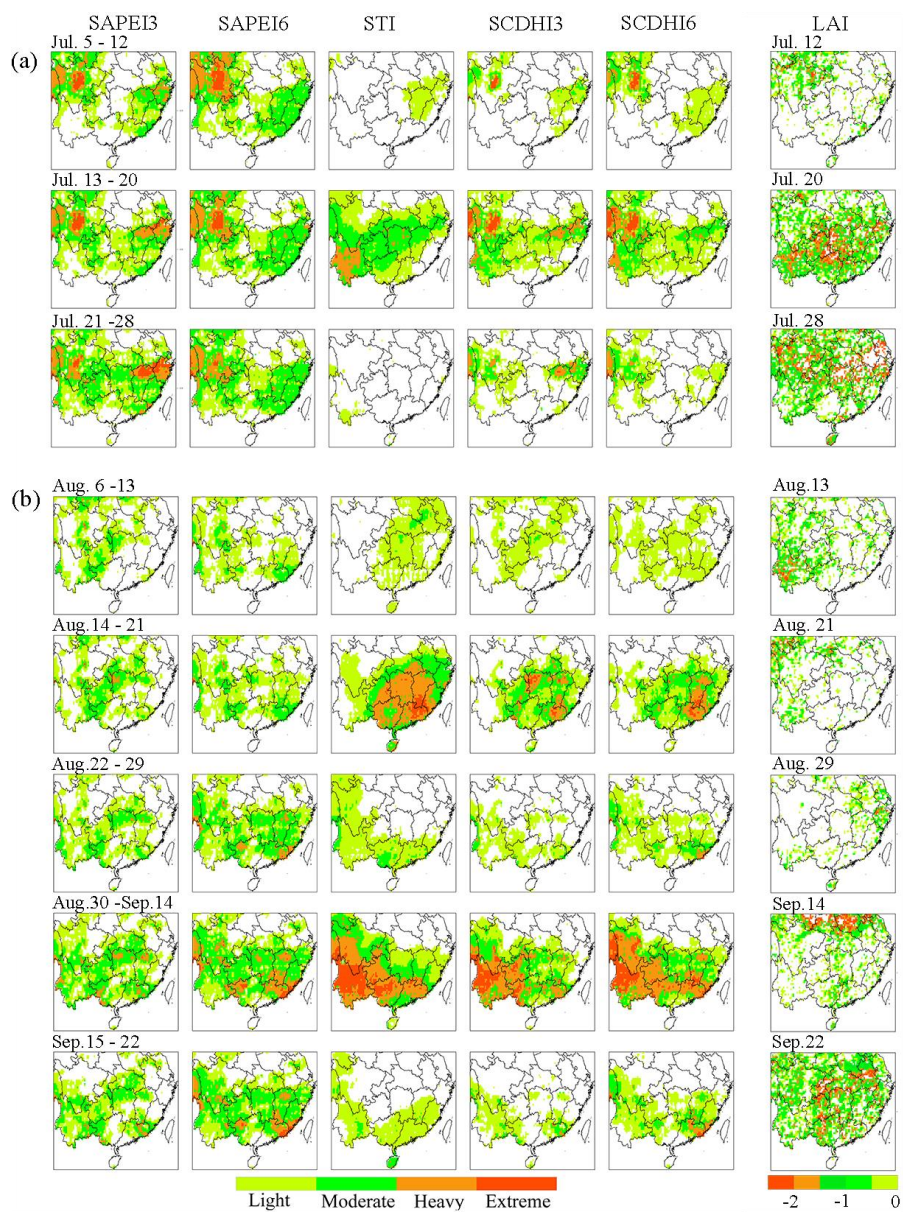
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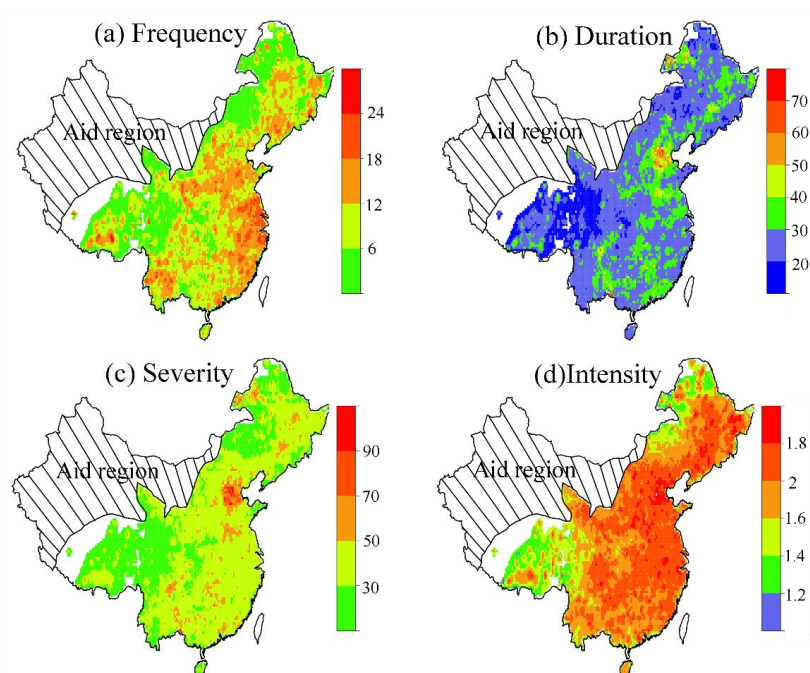
883 Figure 10 The spatial evolutions of the compound dry and hot event over the southern

884 China in 2009 and its impact on vegetation.

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889 Figure 11 The spatial pattern of the characteristics of the compound dry and hot event

890 in China from 1961 to 2018.

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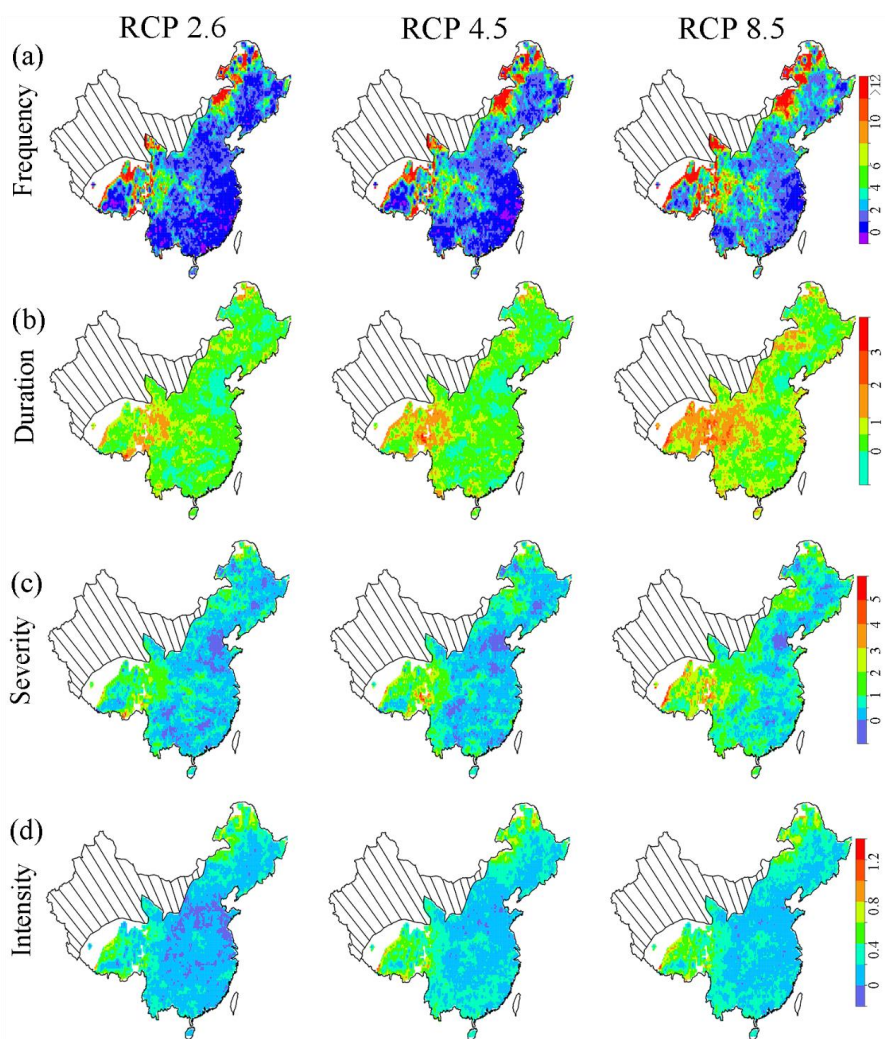
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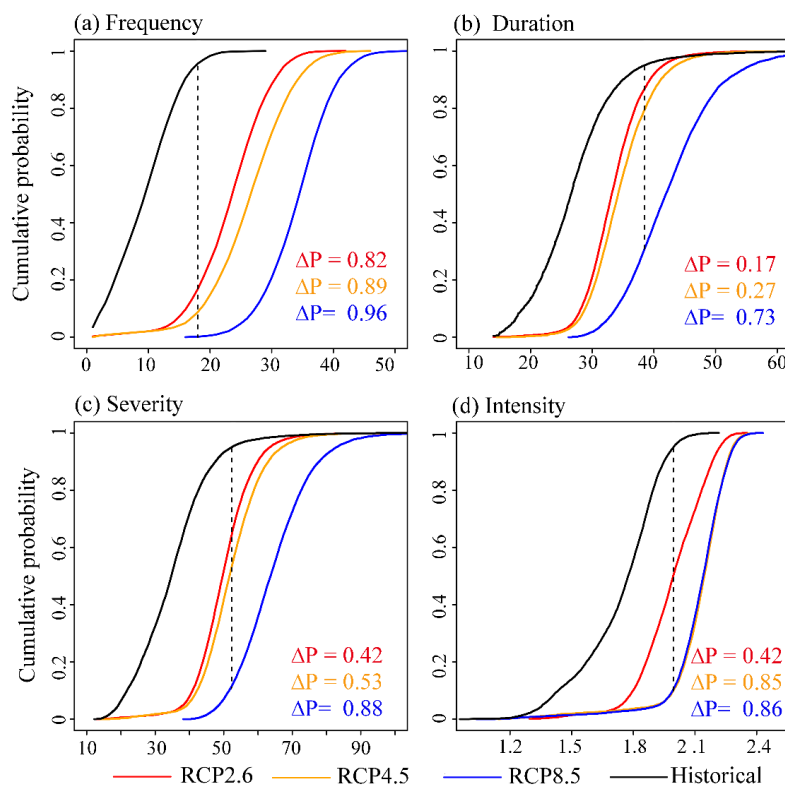
900 Figure 12 Future changes in characteristics of the compound dry and hot events under
901 the RCP 2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios. The change values were the ratio of the
902 future value to the reference values. Reference period: 1961-2018, and future period:
903 2050-2100.

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 909 Figure 13 Cumulative probability functions of characteristics of the compound drought
 910 and hot events in historical and future period. The vertical lines denote the probability
 911 of the 95th percentile value during the historical period. ΔP denotes the changes in the
 912 probability of the 95th percentile value between the historical period and the future
 913 period. Reference period: 1961-2018, and future period: 2050-2100. The red, orange,
 914 and blue fonts refer to the change values under RCP 2.6, 4.5 and 8.5 scenario,
 915 respectively.
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