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Complex Network Theoretic Assessment of Precipitation Driven Meteorological Drought in India: Past and Future

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Abstract

Spatio-temporal analysis of droughts is of paramount importance especially for future climate scenarios. We use complex network theoretic measures to understand spatio-temporal properties of precipitation driven meteorological drought across India in past and future climate scenarios. We construct drought networks using Event synchronization (ES) for moderate and extreme drought conditions derived using Standardized Precipitation Index at an aggregated scale of 6 months(SPI-6). Network measures like degree, closeness, betweenness and directionality are used to understand spatio-temporal properties of drought events. ES based networks can capture synchronous events and can help in ascertaining drought propagation through different regions. This study provides insight into the structural properties of drought networks and how they change for projected climate regimes. We find drought hotspots as well as regions which are vulnerable to spatially separated drought events. In the past, regions in western India were vulnerable to extreme droughts, which can propagate from other regions of the country. Use of complex networks also reveal a reversal in drought propagation directions in future climate scenarios. Furthermore, using centrality measures, we also identify regions which aid in drought propagation

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and act as pathways connecting drought hotspots. Thus, changes in structural and topological properties of complex networks can be used to understand the impact of climate change across regions.

Keywords: Drought, Complex networks, Climate Change, Centrality, Drought Propagation

1 Highlights

2 1. Introduction

3 Drought is a natural hazard which occurs primarily due to prolonged deficits
4 in precipitation. They may cover large spatial regions and can exacerbate to
5 prolonged periods which can have disastrous impacts on socio-economic and
6 agricultural sectors. Droughts occur in India with an almost unfailing reg-
7 ularity(Mishra and Singh, 2010*a*; Mallya et al., 2016) and have entailed large
8 economic losses. Prolonged deficits in rainfall can propagate through the hydro-
9 logical cycle and can lead to droughts in agricultural and hydrological regimes
10 (Van Loon et al., 2014), often with some time lag. Droughts also propagate
11 spatially, and aided by atmospheric processes they can cover large spatial dis-
12 tances(Herrera-Estrada et al., 2017). Thus, droughts become difficult to pre-
13 dict and quantify because of their spatio-temporal evolution and dependence on
14 many climatic and anthropogenic factors(Mishra and Singh, 2010*b*). Knowledge
15 of spatio-temporal patterns of drought is important for mitigation and policy
16 planning, everso more considering projections of increase in extreme events un-
17 der future climate scenarios(Dai, 2011). It has been predicted that droughts
18 in India will become more widespread and can intensify in many parts of the
19 country(Bisht et al., 2019).

20
21 Drought events are generally characterized by their severity, duration and inten-
22 sity(Yevjevich, 1967; Herrera-Estrada et al., 2017). Several studies have been
23 done to understand drought at regional as well as national scales in terms of
24 their severity and duration. Droughts can be classified into meteorological,

25 hydrological, agricultural, groundwater based on different hydrometeorological
26 variables, for example, precipitation, evapotranspiration, soil moisture, stream-
27 flow etc. Based on drought indices derived from these variables, univariate and
28 multivariate frequency analysis has been done in previous studies. The seminal
29 work of Yevjevich (1967) based on run theory paved way for univariate char-
30 acterization of drought events(Cancelliere and Salas, 2004; Dracup et al., 1980;
31 Tallaksen et al., 2009). Dracup et al. (1980) identified duration and severity as
32 characteristic features of a drought event. As duration and severity have non
33 trivial correlation structure, many multivariate distributions have been used to
34 model severity and duration(Shiau, 2006).These methods construct joint prob-
35 ability distributions based on marginal probabilities of severity and duration.

36
37 Droughts generally arise out of interactions between different components of
38 hydrological cycle. Several local and global correlation measures can capture
39 the spatio-temporal connectedness between hydroclimatic processes. These con-
40 nections also manifest in the temporal evolution or time series of the hydrocli-
41 matic variables, like precipitation, streamflow, temperature, evapotranspiration
42 etc. Statistical interdependence between time series of these variables between
43 different spatial locations (nodes) can be ascertained by presence or absence of
44 connections (edges) between them. In the past, linear cross correlation mea-
45 sures were used to quantify statistical interdependence between anomaly time
46 series of different locations(Tsonis and Roebber, 2004; Donges et al., 2009; Gao
47 et al., 2017). However, the non linear nature of climatic processes call for non
48 linear correlation measures. Measures like event synchronization(Quiroga et al.,
49 2002) can capture synchronous occurrences of extreme events. Researchers
50 have used event synchronization based complex networks for understanding
51 teleconnections of extreme rainfall events((Boers et al., 2019)), precipitation
52 events ((Rheinwalt et al., 2016; Malik et al., 2012; Kurths et al., 2019; Boers
53 et al., 2013; Mondal et al., 2020)), rainfall modeling(Jha and Sivakumar, 2017),
54 ocean atmospheric teleconnections(Agarwal et al., 2019),stream flow (Yasmin
55 and Sivakumar, 2018) and drought analysis(Konapala and Mishra, 2017). (Kon-

56 apala and Mishra, 2017) used complex network to understand drought propaga-
57 tion through network measures like strength, divergence, betweenness central-
58 ity and directionality. These measures can help us identify regions which are
59 vulnerable to droughts. Furthermore, these measures can allude to important
60 spatial pathways through which droughts propagate. The topological structure
61 of networks can change in projected climate scenarios. This would manifest in
62 network measures like degree, directionality, betweenness centrality etc. Thus
63 changes in the network structure and properties can help us identify potential
64 hotspots and vulnerable areas.

65

66 In this work we study precipitation driven meteorological droughts in India from
67 a complex network perspective. Our aim is to use network theoretic measures
68 to understand spatio-temporal properties of drought in past and future climate
69 scenarios. Historically, droughts in India are more pronounced in Western and
70 Peninsular parts. Mallya et al. (2015) observed an eastward shift even within the
71 historical period. This suggests that the drought events are migrating towards
72 Eastern India and new hotspots are created. Furthermore, agriculturally im-
73 portant regions of Indo-Gangetic plains are becoming prone to droughts(Mallya
74 et al., 2015; Mishra et al., 2016). Using a standardized precipitation index
75 (SPI) at 12 months scale (Jha et al., 2020) performed copula based frequency
76 analysis of droughts in India. It was reported that western and central India
77 have a higher return period and it was found that different areas have different
78 resilience to exacerbating drought conditions. This suggests that some regions
79 are more vulnerable to droughts and can aid in either mitigation or propagation
80 of drought to other regions. Under changing climate, droughts are believed to
81 intensify in many parts of the world. Spinoni et al. (2020) used various drought
82 indices to show an intensification of drought over various parts of the world.
83 However, they also showed that use of only precipitation data may not provide
84 a complete picture. Using NASA-NEX downscaled climate ensemble data (Ah-
85 madalipour et al., 2017) showed that under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 there may be
86 aggravation in severe and extreme drought events over United States. In the

87 context of Indian region, several studies have shown that the spatial hotspots
88 of drought may change from western to eastern parts of the country. Using a
89 non stationary SPI (Salvi and Ghosh, 2016) showed that central, eastern and
90 southeast coastal regions of India are likely to show an increase in extreme dry
91 spells under different RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. Gupta and Jain (2018)
92 showed that a shift of drought hazard is likely to occur in projected climate sce-
93 narios from central India towards southeast-central India. These observations of
94 shift in the hotspots is also observed in study using bias correction approach in
95 which it is shown that drought events are expected to increase in west central,
96 peninsular and central northeast regions of India(Ojha et al., 2013*a*). Motivated
97 by these studies, we ask if complex networks can reveal the shifting of drought
98 hotspots in future climate scenarios. Since, complex networks can provide direc-
99 tionality measures based on synchronous events, we can understand “sources”
100 and “sinks” of drought events. In the context of these studies, it also becomes
101 imperative to understand droughts as complex systems, arising out of spatio-
102 temporal interactions of atmospheric, hydrological and anthropogenic processes.

103

104 We present one of the first studies on application of complex networks to un-
105 derstand droughts in India and try to explain recent observations of shift in
106 drought hotspots. We use past and future rainfall data to construct event syn-
107 chronization based drought networks. Then we use drought networks to derive
108 network properties like indegree, outdegree, closeness and betweenness central-
109 ity and directionality. These measures are then used to understand vulnerability
110 of moderate and extreme droughts over India and potential hotspots in future
111 climate scenarios. We use directionality to find dominant propagation directions
112 and use these to ascertain shift in drought hotspots. The article is organized as
113 follows: In section 2 we present the datasets used and the study area. In the
114 next section 3 we present a brief overview of construction of complex networks
115 for climatic and drought data using precipitation and different network mea-
116 sures that we use. We present our results in section 4 in which we use network
117 measures to compare and contrast structural properties of drought networks in

118 past and future climate scenarios. This is finally followed by section 5 in which
119 we discuss our results, limitations and future directions.

120 **2. Study Area and Datasets**

121 *2.1. Study Area*

122 The study area is comprised of different river sub-basins of India which in-
123 clude those in Himalayan, Deccan, Coastal, Central, North-Western and Eastern
124 regions. A total of 97 sub basins are defined as per the report of India WRIS
125 (Bhawan and Puram, 2014) obtained from National Remote Sensing Centre,
126 India. The study area shown in Figure 1 encompasses varying agro-climatic
127 zones.

128 *2.2. Datasets*

129 In this study, monthly rainfall data for the historical period (1901-2013)
130 and for the future climate projections (2006-2099) has been used. The histor-
131 ical monthly gridded ($0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$) was obtained from Indian Meteorological
132 Department. For the future climate scenarios, we have used the subset of bias
133 corrected, statistically downscaled, gridded ($0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$) long term projections
134 released by NASA, called the “NASA-Earth Exchange Global Daily Downscaled
135 Projections” (NEX-GDDP) (Thrasher and Nemani, 2015) over Indian region.
136 These datasets contain downscaled climate projections derived from GCM sim-
137 ulations of CMIP5 under RCP(Representative Concentration Pathway). It has
138 been suggested that NEX-GDDP performs better on monthly scales than daily
139 scales (Raghavan et al., 2018). At local to regional scales, NEX-GDDP serves
140 the purpose for climate change studies and improves upon many of the biases
141 in CMIP5(Sahany et al., 2019). To study precipitation driven meteorological
142 drought, we convert the monthly rainfall time series to Standardized Precipi-
143 tation Index (SPI) at a 6 month aggregated scale. SPI has been widely used
144 to quantify drought and is calculated based on a long time series rainfall data.
145 Firstly, a probability distribution is fitted to the cumulative rainfall followed by

146 an equiprobability transformation(McKee et al., n.d.). SPI is computationally
147 easy to calculate and different aggregated scales at 3, 6, 9 and 12 months can
148 act for proxy for different hydro-meteorological processes. SPI-6 is effective for
149 capturing. SPI-6 has earlier been used for multivariate drought analysis over
150 India(Ganguli and Reddy, 2014). While SPI is effective for capturing drought
151 in historical periods, it is not effective for capturing droughts in future climate
152 scenarios as it does not take into consideration prospective changes due to tem-
153 perature variations. However, since we are interested in precipitation based
154 drought, the use of SPI-6 can help in understanding medium term trends in
155 dry spells and precipitation anomalies which may manifest as meteorological
156 drought. In an earlier study, a non stationary SPI (Salvi and Ghosh, 2016) was
157 used to access extreme dry and wet spells in the 21st century. Recently, (Tan
158 et al., 2020) used SPI over Kenya to assess meteorological drought in near, mid
159 and far future. Zhao et al. (2020) used SPI at one month scale to study mete-
160 orological drought in North America under projected climate scenarios. SPI at
161 different time scales has been used to study drought characteristics over South
162 Korea under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios(Choi et al., 2016). In this study,
163 a moderate drought is defined when $SPI_6 \in (-1, -2)$ and an extreme drought
164 is defined for $SPI_6 < -2$.

165 **3. Complex Networks in Climate**

166 Spatio-temporal propagation of droughts(Van Lanen et al., 2013; Van Loon
167 et al., 2014) imply a sense of causality or causal connectivity (Wright, 1921)
168 which can be captured through some linkage between the two spatio-temporally
169 separated processes. Since the linkage implies some correlation between the
170 events at different spatial locations, there have been many statistical and in-
171 formation theoretic measures to quantify the correlation and interdependence
172 of events. Hydrometeorological phenomenon can be understood as manifesta-
173 tion of the underlying dynamics in form of time series of the variable(Tsonis
174 and Roebber, 2004). The correlation between two time series can be used to

175 construct the complex network. However, Pearson correlation is not suitable
 176 for plethora of climatological data, owing to it's assumption of the underlying
 177 probability distribution of the data.

178 3.1. Event Synchronization based Complex Network

Generally, extreme events can be synchronized across spatial scales and Event Synchronization (ES) has been used to construct complex networks of streamflow(Yasmin and Sivakumar, 2018), droughts(Konapala and Mishra, 2017), extreme rainfall events(Boers et al., 2013). ES allows for a dynamic delay between events, with an upper bound of allowed delay (τ_{max}) and does away with the inherent assumption of probability distribution of the data. In this study we construct a ES based complex network of precipitation driven meteorological drought in past as well as under projected climate scenarios across 97 basins of India. The first step is the extraction of event time series at each spatial location and then calculating the pair wise dynamic delay. The event time index at location(s) $i(j)$ is given by $t_{i(j)}^{\mu(\nu)}$, where $\mu(\nu) = 1, 2, \dots, n_i(n_j)$. n_i and n_j are the number of events that occur at locations i and j . Thus the dynamic delay between these spatial locations is given by:

$$\tau_{ij}^{\mu\nu} = \min \left\{ \frac{t_i^{\mu+1} - t_i^\mu, t_i^\mu - t_i^{\mu-1}, t_j^{\nu+1} - t_j^\nu, t_j^\nu - t_j^{\nu-1}}{2} \right\} \quad (1)$$

The events at i and j are said to be synchronous if $t_i^\mu - t_j^\nu \in (0, \tau_{ij}^{\mu\nu}) \wedge (0, \tau_{max})$ and under this condition, $S_{ij}^{\mu\nu} = 1$, otherwise $S_{ij}^{\mu\nu} = 0$. A measure of number of synchronous events occurring at i before m is given by:

$$ES_{ij} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{\mu\nu} S_{ij}^{\mu\nu} \quad (2)$$

179 and, similarly for ES_{ji} . It is a measure of the likelihood of an event propa-
 180 gation from one location to another. Concomitantly, top five percent values
 181 of the ES scores are selected (Malik et al., 2012). Once the threshold value
 182 of ES is decided, values above the threshold are retained whilst the rest are
 183 removed to construct a weighted adjacency matrix (A_{ij}), preserving the direc-
 184 tionality(Rheinwalt et al., 2016; Konapala and Mishra, 2017). This adjacency

185 matrix is a binary matrix with the non zero values signifying existence of a link
 186 and hence significant synchronization of events at the two spatial locations.

187 3.2. Network Measures

We use different measures derived from the theory of complex networks to ascertain the structural properties of drought networks constructed from the ES matrix. In this study we primarily use centrality measures like degree, closeness, betweenness alongwith directionality and distance. The degree centrality can be further classified as indegree (D^-) and outdegree (D^+) for directed networks. D^- is the number of the edges that are inward to the node and D^+ is the number of outward edges from the node. More the number of outward edges (greater D^+), more is the ability of that node to propagate an event to other locations. Similarly, D^- can be thought of as a measure of a location to be vulnerable to incoming synchronous events from other regions. Such regions, thus act as “sinks” ($D^- - D^+ > 0$) and “sources” ($D^- - D^+ < 0$), characterized by their differences in degree centrality. For weighted networks, the strength divergence has been used to ascertain the vulnerability of a region to incoming or outgoing events (Konapala and Mishra, 2017; Kurths et al., 2019; Boers et al., 2013). It has also been suggested (Ozturk et al., 2019) that degree can also be used to understand the extent of localization of atmospheric processes over certain regions, which again depends on the topographic structures across the region (Malik et al., 2012). While degree and strength can allude to sources and sinks in the network, betweenness centrality (BC) can help in understanding information transfer pathways of the network and it is assumed that the information propagates along the shortest paths. Mathematically, it is defined as:

$$BC_v = \sum_{i,j \neq v}^N \frac{\sigma_{ij}(v)}{\sigma_{ij}} \quad (3)$$

where, σ_{ij} is the number of shortest paths from i to j , that include the vertex v . Another important measure is closeness (C_i), which is the inverse of the average

distance between node and it's neighbours.

$$C_i = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^N d_{ij}} \quad (4)$$

188 where d_{ij} is the distance between two nodes, i and j . For a directed graph, we
189 can similarly define incloseness (C^{in}) and outcloseness (C^{out}). A node with
190 higher C^{in} can be easily reached from other nodes and those with a higher C^{out}
191 can easily reach other nodes. Thus, a difference, $C^{in} - C^{out}$ can measure the
192 “reachability” of a node. Nodes with a higher positive(negative) closeness dif-
193 ference would be more likely to allow information transfer, in our case, drought
194 event, to(from) that node. Thus, this can provide information about drought
195 propagation pathways across the regions. Previously, it has been shown that
196 closeness centrality can be used to find pathways of development of extreme
197 rainfall events and it's spatial relation with other systems(Ozturk et al., 2019).
198 Some nodes can spread or aid in propagation of drought events more efficiently
199 than others, as closeness centrality measures the efficiency of a node in spread-
200 ing the information. Another measure of importance is the link distance $d(i, j)$
201 which is a great circle distance between the geographical locations. Directional-
202 ity ($\theta(i, j)$) and distance which have been defined along the dominant links are
203 used to identify out-propagation directions of the event. For this, the dominant
204 direction is identified along the link which has the maximum strength (derived
205 from weighted adjacency matrix)

206 3.3. Constructing Drought Networks

207 In this study, we derive the events based on SPI at an aggregated scale of 6
208 months (SPI_6). The SPI-6 time series represents the precipitation anomaly over
209 the region. We are mainly interested in understanding dry spells of precipitation
210 which can manifest as meteorological drought. The SPI_6 time series is used to
211 study two kinds of events, moderate droughts ($-1 < SPI_6 < -2$) and extreme
212 droughts ($SPI_6 < -2$). These events are extracted from the SPI time series and
213 the event synchronization matrix is constructed for moderate as well as extreme
214 drought events for past (1901-2013) and projected climate scenarios (RCP4.5,

215 RCP8.5). The time series of the sub-basins are assigned at their respective
216 centroids, which act as node of the drought networks. Event synchronization
217 scores for all the pairs are evaluated based on the formalism discussed in the
218 previous sections (section 3.1) and only the top five percent scores are selected.
219 This choice also manifests from the not so large number of nodes (97×97) that
220 are present in our analysis. We impose a τ_{max} of 3 months which is reasonable
221 and has previously been used for the drought networks in US (Konapala and
222 Mishra, 2017). Thus all the values below the threshold are made 0 and only
223 the strongest ES values are kept. Then the adjacency matrix was constructed
224 and the other network measures derived for past and future drought networks
225 in moderate and extreme classes.

226 **4. Results**

227 Historically, drought prone regions in India are in the western, north-western,
228 central India. It was found that while all regions are at risk of exacerbated
229 drought conditions in future, some regions in central northeast, west central
230 and peninsular India may be especially prone to severe drought events in fu-
231 ture(Ojha et al., 2013b). It is also evident from Figure2a, 2b and 2c, where
232 in the past extreme drought events were found to occur more in the western,
233 central and south peninsular India. Agriculturally important regions of the
234 Indo-Gangetic plains are also prone to extreme meteorological droughts. In the
235 RCP 4.5 scenario (Figure 2b), eastern regions are found to be have more ex-
236 treme droughts as compared to the western regions. This signifies a spatial shift
237 in the drought occurrences in future climate scenarios. It has been reported ear-
238 lier that (Salvi and Ghosh, 2016) extreme dry spells (calculated using both SPI
239 and a non stationary version of SPI) are likely to increase over central, east-
240 ern, southeast coastal regions under projected climate regimes. These regions
241 are also more likely to witness increased drought occurrences under RCP 8.5
242 scenarios.

243 *4.1. Centrality Measures of Droughts in Past*

244 Western regions have a higher indegree(Figure4a) as compared to other re-
245 gions, suggesting that the region is prone to have extreme drought events pre-
246 ceded by extreme droughts in other regions. However, the outdegree of these
247 regions (Figure4b) is also higher than other regions. This suggests that the
248 drought events in western part of the country are localized and not so likely to
249 propagate to farther regions in the South and East. Extreme drought events in
250 western parts may be a result of preceding extreme droughts in other regions as
251 can be seen from the dominant direction of propagation (Figure 3f). Majority
252 of the sub basins have their outward propagation directed towards the western
253 parts of the country. These directions were arrived at using the most domi-
254 nant event synchronization scores for the respective links. This shows that in
255 past, drought events in Eastern regions propagated through the sub basins with
256 high betweenness centrality (Figure 3e) towards the western regions. Eastern
257 regions comprise of basins like Damodar, Brahmani, Mahanadi, Subarnrekha
258 etc (Bhawan and Puram, 2014) and they have a higher number of outgoing
259 links than incoming links for extreme droughts (Figure 3c). Thus, they have a
260 negative degree difference and act as sources of extreme drought events. Some
261 basins along the western coast also show a negative degree difference and can
262 aid in propagating drought events to Rajasthan and Gujarat states of India,
263 which is also shown in dominant outdirections. In the context of extreme rain-
264 fall events in India, previously closeness centrality was used to identify regions
265 which aid in information transfer and potential hotspots which aid in propa-
266 gating events through the network(Malik et al., 2012). Information flow in the
267 case of climate networks is in the form of energy and matter transport. Simi-
268 larly, in Figure 3d we show the difference between incloseness and outcloseness
269 centrality($C^{in} - C^{out}$). Regions with positive difference are those which have
270 a higher incloseness centrality. Evidently, regions in the Western part, central
271 India, Indo-gangetic plains have a positive closeness difference. Whereas, east-
272 ern regions have a higher outcloseness centrality than incloseness. This suggests
273 that, it is thus easier for eastern regions to propagate extreme drought to the

274 western regions. Peninsular regions are more prone to moderate drought events
275 which is also shown in the closeness maps. A moderate drought event initi-
276 ated elsewhere is more likely to propagate to the peninsular parts. An extreme
277 drought event initiated in the eastern, southern regions can quickly lead to an
278 initiation of extreme droughts in the western parts of the country. Even in the
279 past, there has been a significant shift of the drought hotspots to the coastal
280 regions of South India, central India and agriculturally important regions of
281 Indo-Gangetic plains (Mallya et al., 2016). These regions also show a higher
282 betweenness centrality, thus acting as important pathways for the propagation
283 of droughts. It is found that sub-basins in central India (Narmada), south east
284 coastal regions are more affected by moderate drought events and have a positive
285 degree difference (Figure 6a).

286 *4.2. Centrality Measures of Droughts in Future Climate Scenarios*

287 Earlier studies have reported that on a long term basis, Indo-Gangetic plains,
288 central India, upper peninsular India would be more severely affected with
289 drought under projected regimes (Bisht et al., 2019). The changes in topolog-
290 ical structure and network properties can help in ascertaining future hotspots
291 and changes in propagation patterns if any. While the higher degree regions
292 were mostly localized in the western parts of the country in past, under both
293 RCP 4.5 and 8.5, there is a localization in the eastern and central parts of the
294 country in the degree field (4a, 5a). Regions in the Eastern India (states of
295 Eastern Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, West Bengal, Odisha) have higher
296 indegree than other regions, while those in central-east area (upper Narmada
297 region, Mahanadi basin) have a higher outdegree. Thus, the eastern regions are
298 more likely to exhibit extreme droughts when an extreme drought is initiated in
299 regions with higher out degree, like the central east and western region. Under
300 RCP 8.5 scenario, this localization becomes ever so evident as the regions with
301 a higher indegree are concentrated in the eastern region and throughout the
302 central India, whereas those with higher outdegree are in the western part of
303 the country. A closer look at the degree difference (Figure 4c) suggests that the

304 sub basins in central east India (Narmada, Tapi) and Southern Indo-Gangetic
305 plains have a higher degree difference and thus are likely to be affected by ex-
306 treme droughts occurring elsewhere in the western regions and peninsular parts
307 of India under RCP 4.5 scenario. The degree difference is starker under RCP
308 8.5 scenario (Figure 5c) suggesting that much of central, eastern and peninsular
309 India have higher likelihood of extreme droughts if an initiation of extreme
310 drought occurs elsewhere. Different regions can aid in the propagation of ex-
311 treme and moderate drought events differently, for example some regions which
312 have a positive degree difference in extreme droughts, show a negative differ-
313 ence in moderate category. This adds to the complexity of spatial propagation
314 of drought and one of the reasons as to why it is difficult to predict the onset
315 of drought and subsequent propagation (Konapala and Mishra, 2017). Further-
316 more, we find that there is change in the closeness difference of the regions in
317 projected scenarios. Under extreme drought, Eastern regions have a positive
318 C_i difference as compared to past (Figure 4d,3d,5d). This also strengthens the
319 argument that these regions would be more likely to act as extreme drought
320 sinks in future. However, they are more likely to act as drought sources and
321 initiators of moderate drought, propagating the events towards south (Figure
322 6d,6f,6b). Compared to past, much of the regions in South India show increased
323 vulnerability to moderate drought events and can exhibit moderate droughts if
324 a moderate event occurs synchronously elsewhere. Regions in Northwest India
325 and western India may also be vulnerable to moderate droughts under both
326 the projections. It is also interesting to note that (Preethi et al., 2019) found
327 that under projected scenarios, reduction in rainfall over central and north cen-
328 tral India can lead to intensification of droughts in these regions. This may be
329 attributed to the westward shift of the monsoon trough in the drought years,
330 thus leading to an intensification of drought events over central India. As is
331 also evident from our results using complex network theoretic measures, much
332 of central and east India has higher vulnerability to drought events and are
333 an important pathways for spatial drought propagation. North central India
334 has a high betweenness centrality under RCP 4.5 scenario for both extreme

335 and moderate droughts. This may allude to the importance of this region in
336 aiding drought propagation and thus acting as an important pathway. An im-
337 portant study linking these measures to the physical processes was done by
338 (Mondal et al., 2020) in the context of extreme rainfall events in US. It is im-
339 portant to identify moisture transport pathways and their significance in the
340 terms of network measures. Directionality derived using dominant direction for
341 future extreme droughts (Figure 4f, 5f) shows that there is a marked changed
342 in out propagation direction compared to past. While in the past there was
343 an overall western trend of out propagation, most of the out directions point
344 towards central, eastern India and Indo-Gangetic plains under both future pro-
345 jections. Central India under both RCP scenarios are likely to be affected by
346 spatially separated moderate drought events (Figure 6c,6e). Compared to the
347 past, southeast coastal regions may become more vulnerable to incoming mod-
348 erate drought events. This also signifies that in future, moderate drought events
349 may become more widespread. Another difference between the past and future
350 climate scenarios is in the out propagation distance ($d(i, j)$) distribution shown
351 in Figure 7a-7f.

352 5. Discussion and Conclusions

353 In this work we used complex networks based analysis to assess spatial-
354 temporal patterns of precipitation driven meteorological droughts in past and
355 future climate scenarios across India. Motivated by previous works which point
356 to changes in drought hotspots in future climate scenarios across India, we an-
357 alyzed network theoretic measures to show that complex networks can be used
358 to identify prospective hotspots.

359
360 Consistent with previous works on historical drought (Mallya et al., 2016), we
361 find that extreme droughts were more pronounced in western and north-western
362 India. We found that in the past, dominant directions of propagation pointed
363 towards the western parts of the country. Using differences in indegree and out-

364 degree, incloseness and outcloseness we showed that the western regions acted as
365 “sinks” of drought events originating elsewhere, primarily from the eastern and
366 central regions. An interesting finding was the general reversal of this trend in
367 future climate projections under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, wherein we found that
368 most of the eastern and central regions were vulnerable to droughts occurring
369 elsewhere. This can be attributed to increased vulnerability of these regions to
370 initiation of droughts elsewhere. We also identified some sub basins of Indo-
371 Gangetic plains and central India as regions with high betweenness centrality,
372 thus they can be identified as mediators or important pathways through which
373 droughts propagate from one region to another. (Salvi and Ghosh, 2016) identi-
374 fied that under future climate scenarios, central, eastern and southeast coastal
375 regions may experience increased extreme dry spells. This is also corroborated
376 with our study using complex networks that these regions may act as drought
377 sinks in future and thus are vulnerable. We also found that most of the regions
378 may be prone to moderate drought and were likely to exhibit moderate drought
379 following synchronous events elsewhere. In general we found that regions in
380 peninsular India acted as sinks for moderate drought events and were likely to
381 act as sinks in future.

382
383 While we showed that some regions are more likely to aid in propagation of
384 droughts than others, the study has its limitations. First and foremost, we do
385 not consider drought indices which take into consideration the effect of temper-
386 ature changes in future climate scenarios. While SPI can be used to monitor
387 historical droughts, it has its limitations in future regimes when temperature
388 changes also come into play (Spinoni et al., 2020, 2018). For this, it is advised
389 to use indices like SPEI which also take into consideration potential evapotran-
390 spiration. Taking a SPEI-12 indicator, (Gupta and Jain, 2018) used copulas to
391 model Severity-Duration and Frequency curves over entire India under projected
392 climate scenarios. They found that eastern India, some regions in Gangetic
393 plains and region comprising central, peninsular and southern India may face
394 increased drought severity. This is also corroborated by our study albeit with

395 SPI-6. Furthermore, we used NEX GDDP projections and it would be interest-
396 ing to use other model outputs and an perform an intercomparison between the
397 same. Some notable studies have tried to link geo-physical processes with the
398 network measures (Mondal et al., 2020) and it would be interesting to identify
399 such processes and whether drought measures can help in understanding these
400 processes like moisture transport, catchment characteristics which can make
401 some regions more vulnerable to droughts. Some differences in dry spell lengths
402 have been predicted in projections from NEX GDDP and CMIP5 over central
403 India (Jain et al., 2019). Thus, analysis of different models can be done to ascer-
404 tain any possible biases arising out of model uncertainties. Overall, our study
405 aims to understand the spatial patterns of moderate and extreme drought events
406 driven by precipitation deficits over Indian region in past and future. This is
407 used to identify potential hotspots and important regional pathways which aid
408 in drought propagation which can prove useful for drought mitigation strategies.

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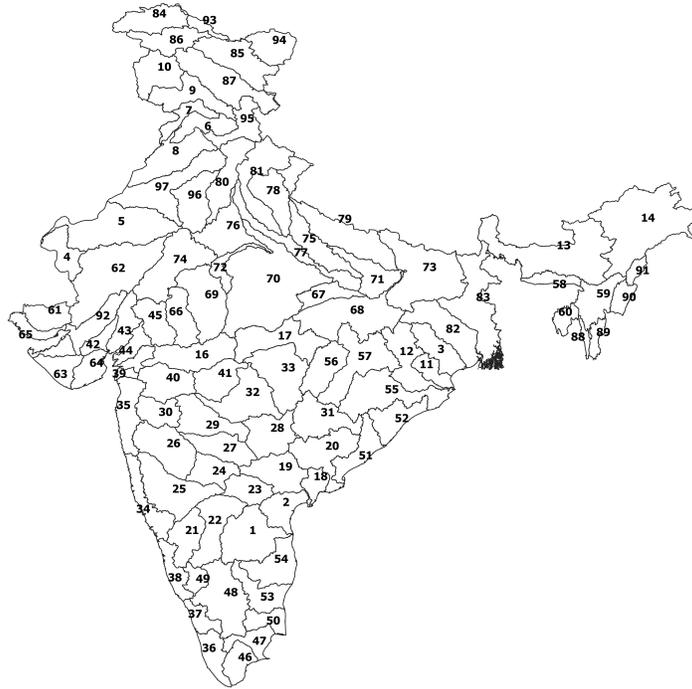
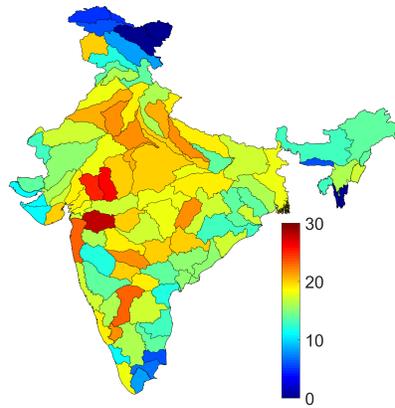
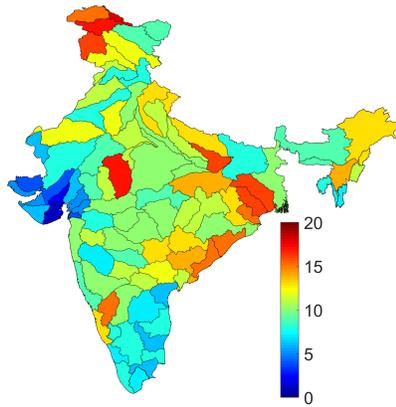


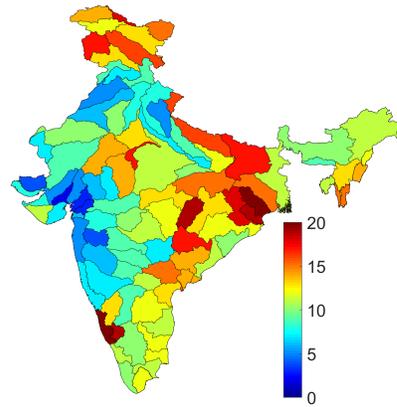
Figure 1: Study area with respective sub basin id represented by node number. The centroid of the sub basin is chosen as the representative node of the entire sub basin.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 2: Number of extreme drought occurrences in a) Past b) RCP 4.5 and c) RCP 8.5 scenario.

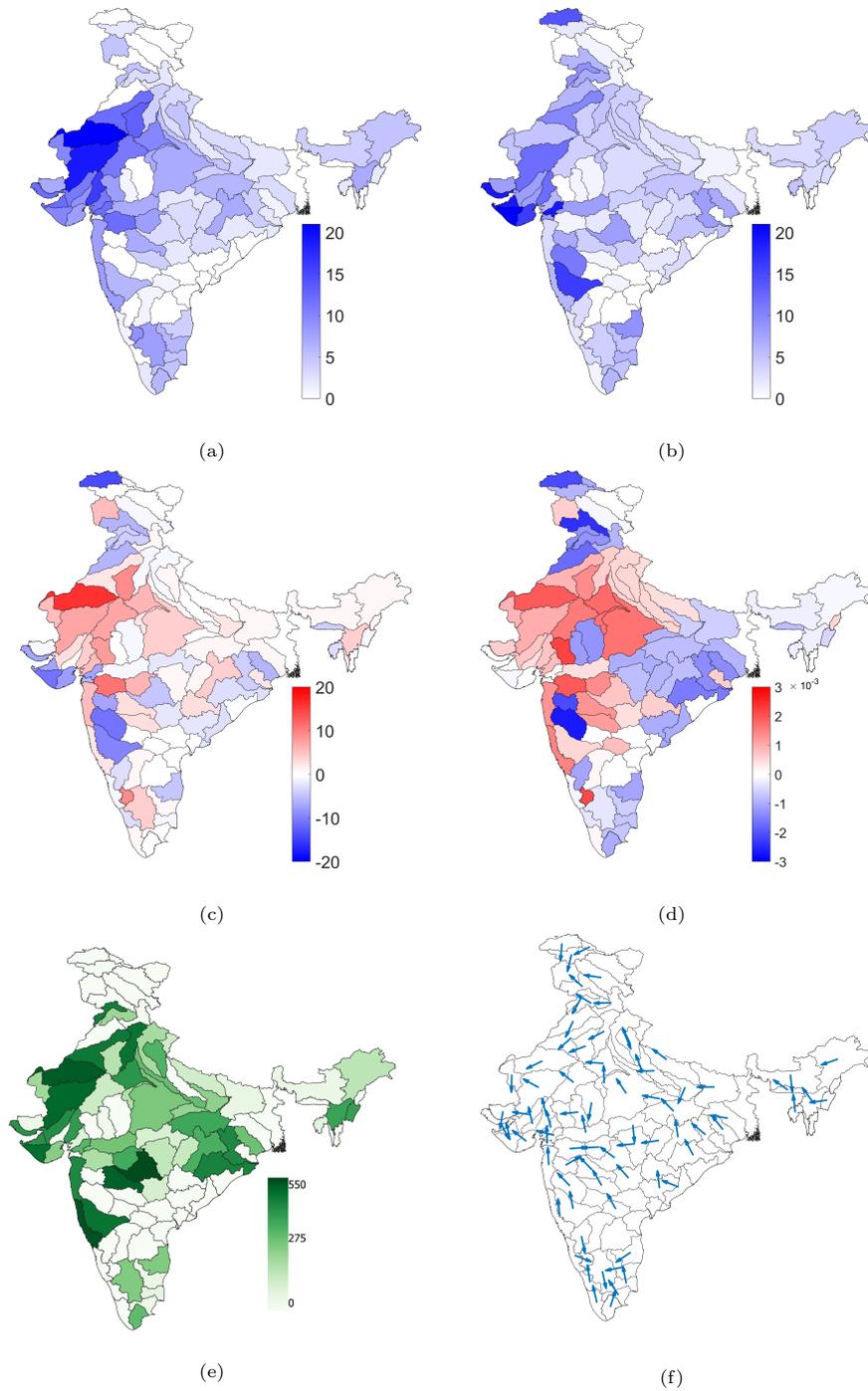


Figure 3: This figure shows different complex network measures of extreme droughts($SPI_6 < -2$) in the past. a) Indegree b) Outdegree c) Degree difference d) Closeness difference e) Betweenness centrality and f) Dominant out-direction

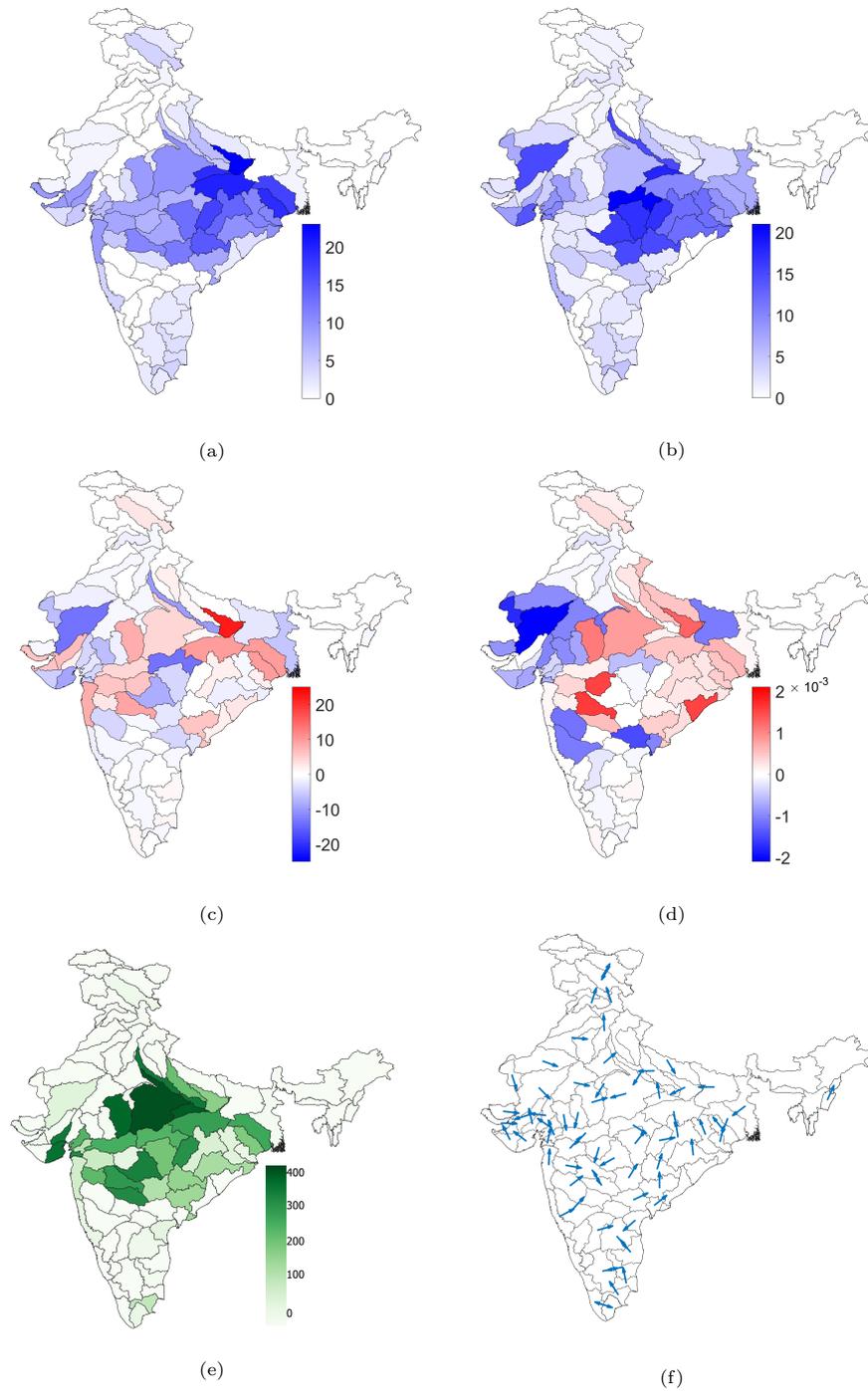


Figure 4: This figure shows different complex network measures of extreme droughts ($SPI_6 < -2$) under RCP 4.5 scenario. a) Indegree b) Outdegree c) Degree difference d) Closeness difference e) Betweenness centrality and f) Dominant out direction

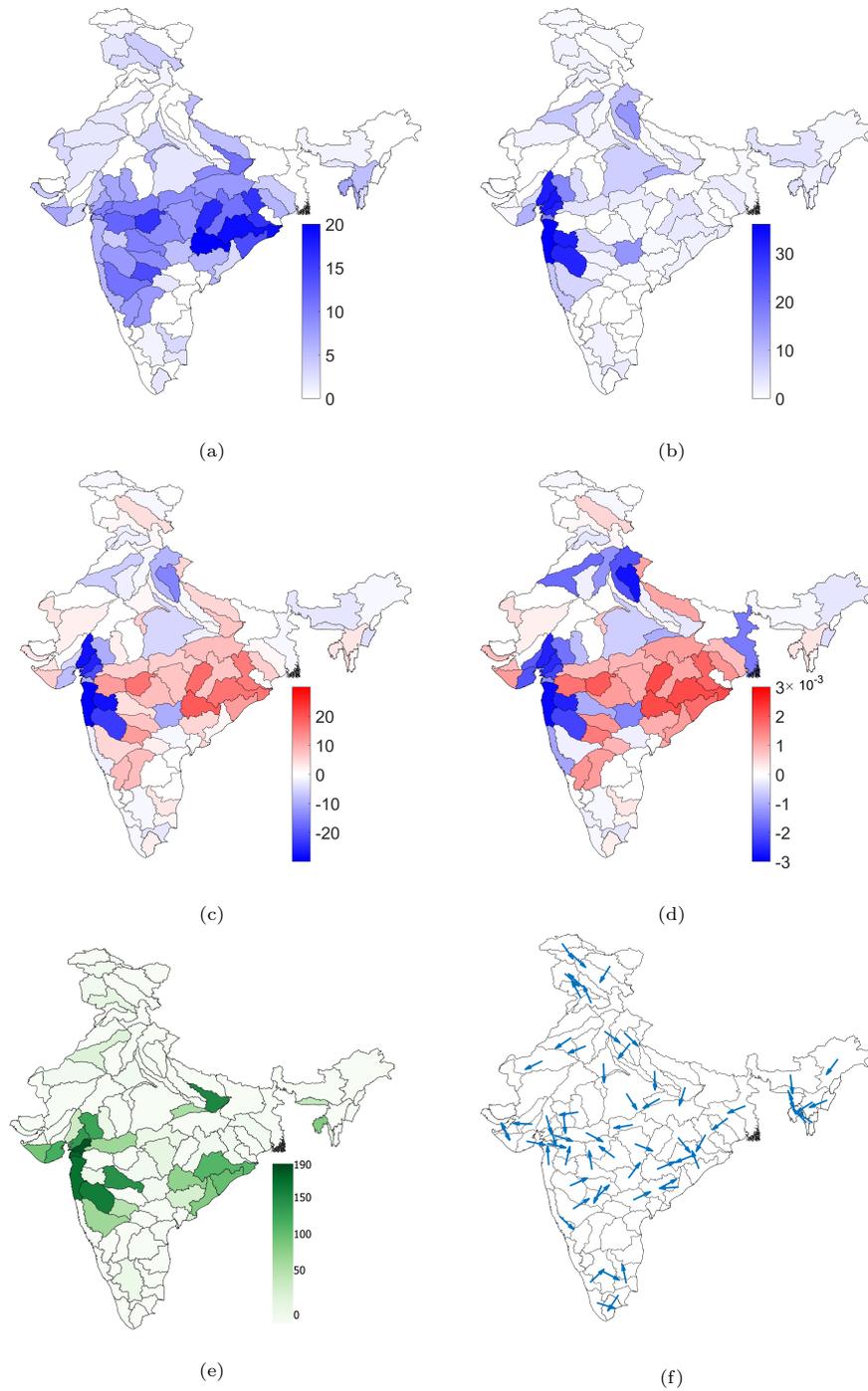


Figure 5: This figure shows different complex network measures of extreme droughts($SPI_6 < -2$) under RCP 8.5 scenario. a) Indegree b) Outdegree c) Degree difference d) Closeness difference e) Betweenness centrality and f) Dominant out direction

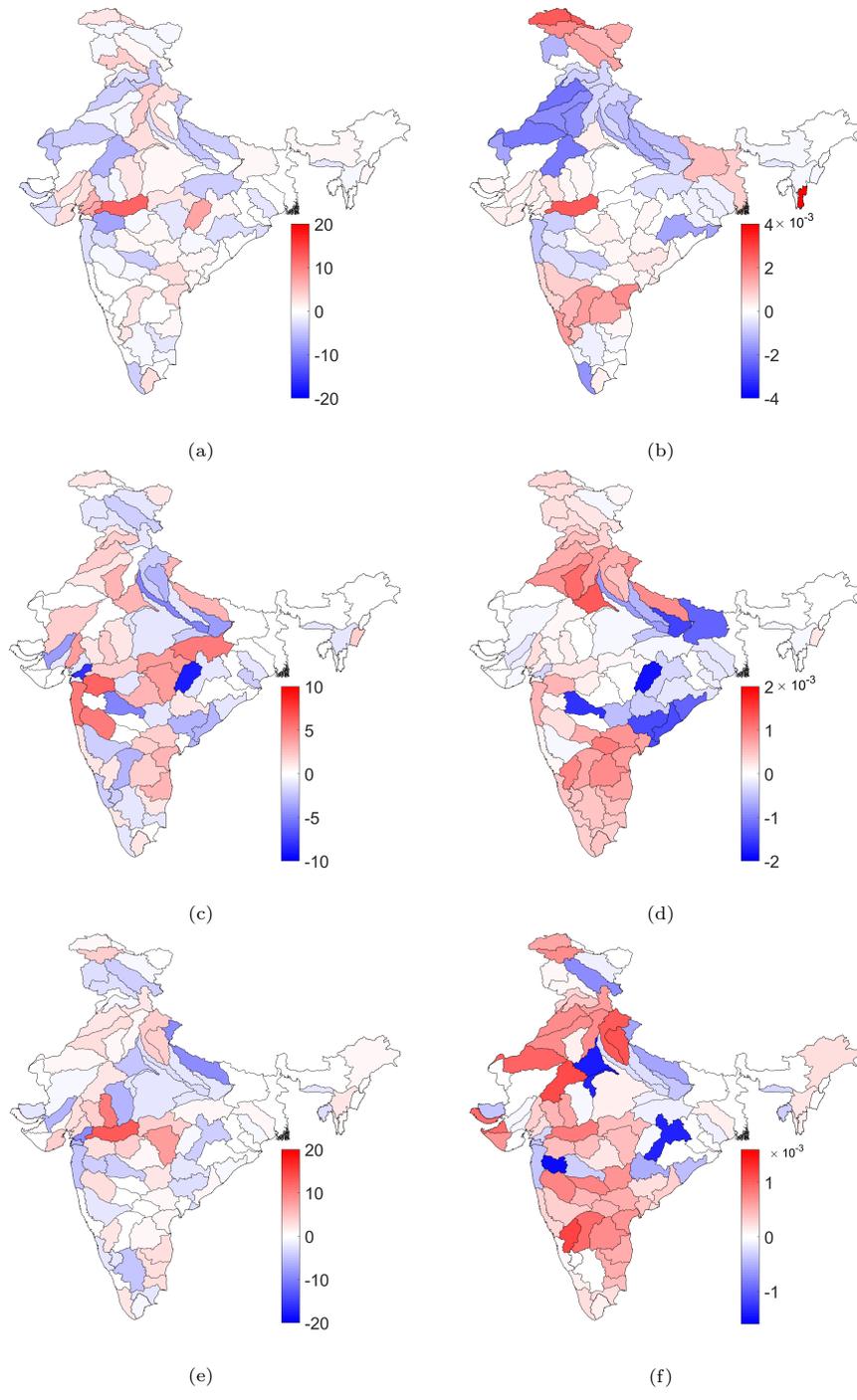
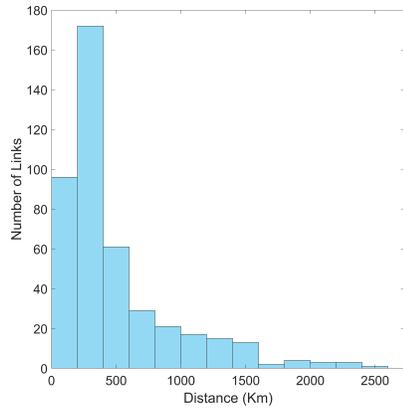
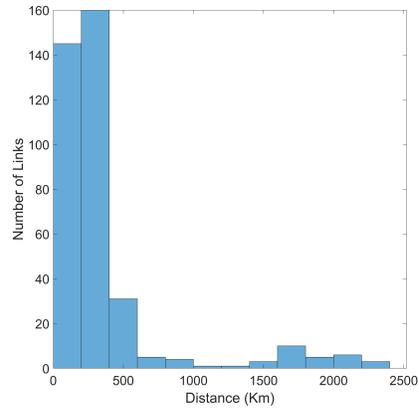


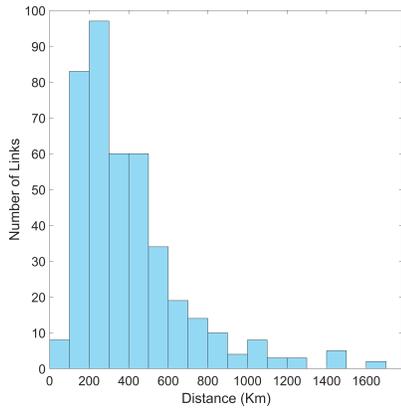
Figure 6: The degree difference(left column) and closeness difference (right column) of moderate droughts in a,b) past c,d) RCP 4.5 and e,f) RCP 8.5 scenarios are shown.



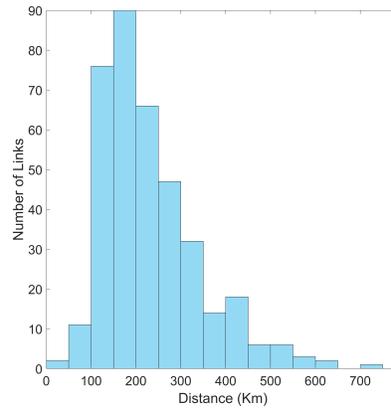
(a)



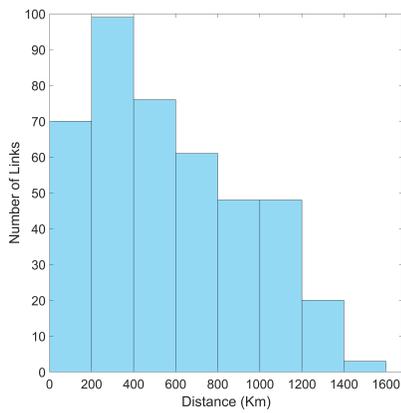
(b)



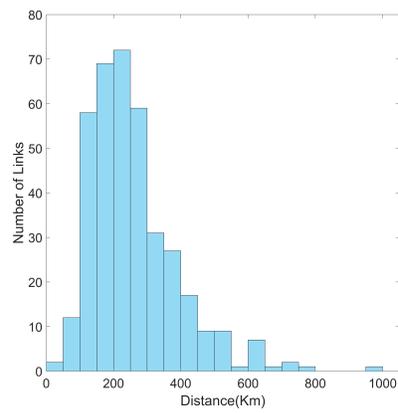
(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

Figure 7: This figure shows the distance distribution of extreme (left column) and moderate droughts(right column) in a,b)Past c,d) RCP 4.5 e,f) RCP 8,5 scenarios