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1 **Precipitation and vegetation transpiration variations dominate the**
2 **dynamics of agricultural drought characteristics in China**

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21 **Abstract:** Agricultural drought posing a significant threat to agricultural production is subject
22 to the complex influence of ocean, terrestrial and meteorological multi-factors. Nevertheless,
23 which factor dominating the dynamics of agricultural drought characteristics and their
24 dynamic impact remain equivocal. To address this knowledge gap, we used ERA5 soil
25 moisture to calculate the standardized soil moisture index (SSI) to characterize agricultural
26 drought. The extreme gradient boosting model was then adopted to fully examine the
27 influence of ocean, terrestrial and meteorological multi-factors on agricultural drought
28 characteristics and their dynamics in China. Meanwhile, the shapley additive explanation
29 values were introduced to quantify the contribution of multiple drivers to drought
30 characteristics. Our analysis reveals that the drought frequency, severity and duration in China
31 ranged from 5-70, 2.15-35.02 and 1.76-31.20, respectively. Drought duration is increasing and
32 drought intensity is intensifying in southeast, north and northwest China. In addition, potential
33 evapotranspiration is the most significant driver of drought characteristics at the basin scale.
34 Regarding the dynamic evolution of drought characteristics, the percentages of raster points
35 for drought duration and severity with evapotranspiration as the dominant factor are 30.7%
36 and 32.7%, and the percentages with precipitation are 35.3% and 35.0%, respectively.
37 Precipitation in northern regions has a positive effect on decreasing drought characteristics,
38 whilst in southern regions, evapotranspiration dominates the dynamics in drought
39 characteristics due to increasing vegetation transpiration. Moreover, the drought severity is
40 exacerbated by the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation in the Yangtze and Pearl River basins,
41 while the contribution of the North Atlantic Oscillation to the drought duration evolution is
42 increasing in the Yangtze River basin. Generally, this study sheds new insights into

43 agricultural drought evolution and driving mechanism, which are beneficial for agricultural
44 drought early warning and mitigation.

45 **Keywords:** Agricultural drought; Drought events; Drought dynamics; Driving Factors; China

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Drought, a natural disaster caused by water scarcity, is becoming more frequent, severe,
48 and prolonged in many parts of the world due to climate change (Felsche and Ludwig, 2021;
49 Li et al., 2022c; Wu et al., 2021a; Xu et al., 2015). Agricultural drought is a phenomenon in
50 which insufficient rainfall or surface water supply leads to continuous decline in soil moisture,
51 inhibits crop production and reduces grain yield (Crow et al., 2012; Li et al., 2022b). As an
52 important component of the regional water cycle, soil moisture is the main source of water for
53 vegetation growth, and it is also a sensitive indicator for evaluating the development of
54 agricultural drought, which is of great significance to the monitoring of agricultural drought
55 (Somorowska, 2022; Wu et al., 2021b). In historical period, frequent droughts severely
56 constrain socio-economic development, and threaten agricultural production and ecosystem
57 security (Feng et al., 2021; Guo et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2020a; Ma et al., 2015). On the one
58 hand, persistent soil moisture deficit can affect crop growth and lead to lower crop yields (Wei
59 et al., 2019). For example, the annual average drought-related grain loss in China from 2000
60 to 2020 reached 25.719 billion kg (Ministry of Water Resources, 2023), and the cumulative
61 global grain production losses from 1983 to 2009 amounted to 166 billion U.S. dollars (Kim
62 et al., 2019). On the other hand, soil moisture deficit can prolong drought recovery time and
63 exacerbate the impact of drought on terrestrial ecosystems (Yao et al., 2023). In particular,
64 from July to August in 2013, a two-month drought reduced the carbon sequestration in

65 southern China by 101.54 Tg C, accounting for 39-53% of the annual net carbon sink of
66 China's land ecosystem (Yuan et al., 2016). In 2010, southwest China experienced a severe
67 spring drought, which reduced regional annual GPP by about 65 Tg C (Li et al., 2019; Zhang
68 et al., 2012). Moreover, drought-induced water stress was the main cause for the reduction of
69 terrestrial carbon sinks in northern China, and the study showed that the maximum reduction
70 of GPP in the region was 0.09 Pg C yr⁻¹ in 1999-2011 compared to 1982-1998 (Yuan et al.,
71 2014). Therefore, exploring the dynamic evolution of agricultural drought characteristics and
72 the driving patterns is crucial for determining future development directions and adopting
73 drought mitigation measures to cope with climate change.

74 In recent years, many studies have investigated the drivers of drought and their impacts
75 (Deng et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2017). For example, Deng et al. (2021) used a
76 stepwise regression approach to identify the drivers of drought and showed that precipitation
77 causes an extremely severe deficit in terrestrial water storage in the Huang-Huai-Hai Plain. In
78 addition, precipitation deficits have been proven to be a major cause of multi-year agricultural
79 droughts in California, and warming will also exacerbate the likelihood of extreme droughts
80 (Luo et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2015). The global sensitivity of SOBOL was used to assess
81 the sensitivity of precipitation and potential evapotranspiration to the frequency of drought
82 events, and it was found that the drought events frequency dominated by potential
83 evapotranspiration decreases from southeast to northwest in China (Ma et al., 2020). In
84 addition, Zhang et al. (2018) evaluated the effects of climate change and human activities on
85 hydrological drought events based on different hydrological models. The results found that
86 the dominant factor of hydrological drought severity was precipitation, followed by potential

87 evapotranspiration and human activities in the middle reaches of the Yangtze River. Moreover,
88 it is worth noting that climate extremes have been shown to be related to circulation factors in
89 China and globally. It was found that agricultural drought represented by soil moisture was
90 influenced by the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Zhang et al., 2021b), and the
91 influence of the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) on dry-heat complex events was mainly
92 concentrated in northwest, northeast and east China (Wu et al., 2021c). These studies lay the
93 groundwork for understanding the driving mechanisms of agricultural drought. However,
94 previous studies focused on the relationship between agricultural drought and meteorological
95 factors or circulation factors, while the analysis of the drivers of agricultural drought
96 characteristics considering multiple factors (marine, terrestrial and meteorology) is quite
97 limited. Due to the uncertainty of climate change caused by global warming, which factor
98 dominates the agricultural drought dynamics and the dynamic impact of driving factors on
99 drought characteristics are still open questions.

100 Recently, the application of machine learning methods to drought monitoring, prediction,
101 and attribution has gained increasing recognition. Current studies using machine learning
102 methods to assess drought in China focused on developing a comprehensive agricultural
103 drought index for agricultural drought monitoring (Cheng et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2020b),
104 building disaster vulnerability models to assess the potential impact of crop disaster risk (Li et
105 al., 2021), constructing drought prediction models (Felsche and Ludwig, 2021; Li et al., 2020),
106 and analyzing the drivers of agricultural drought-affected area and drought-suffering area
107 (Deng et al., 2022). In general, previous studies have explored the application of machine
108 learning to agricultural drought and provided valuable insights for drought impact. However,

109 few studies have applied machine learning to the identification of the drivers of the
110 agricultural drought characteristics dynamics in raster data from drought event perspective. In
111 the context of global warming, the dynamic response of agricultural drought characteristics
112 caused by soil moisture stress to multiple factors is not revealed. Furthermore, how different
113 factors affect the spatial pattern of agricultural drought characteristics dynamics is also a
114 question that needs to be explored. Studying the changes in drivers affecting agricultural
115 drought characteristics can help policy makers to adopt drought mitigation measures to reduce
116 the adverse effects of drought. Recent studies found that tree-based machine learning models,
117 such as extreme gradient boosting (XGB), are popular non-parametric models for attribution
118 analysis (Ebrahimi-Khusfi et al., 2022; Felsche and Ludwig, 2021; Li et al., 2022a; Lundberg
119 et al., 2020). To better explore the mechanisms of agricultural drought evolution and
120 investigate the influencing factors and their relative contributions of drought, we used the
121 XGB algorithm to identify the response of different factors to drought characteristics. On this
122 basis, the contribution of individual factors to drought characteristics was determined by
123 calculating shapley additive explanation (SHAP) values (Lundberg and Lee, 2017), which can
124 improve the interpretability of the XGB model and increase our knowledge of the
125 contribution of variables. Therefore, we applied an interpretable machine learning framework
126 to identify the potential mechanisms affecting the dynamics of drought characteristics. In
127 summary, the main objectives of this study are: 1) to identify regional drought characteristics
128 in China; 2) to assess the main factors of basin-scale drought characteristics; 3) to determine
129 the contribution of influencing factors to the dynamic evolution of drought characteristics and
130 their dynamic impacts.

131 **2. Study area and data**

132 *2.1. Study area*

133 China has a vast territory and many rivers. The terrain is high in the west and low in the
134 east, with a terraced topographic distribution. In addition, the spatiotemporal distribution of
135 precipitation is uneven. Precipitation is mostly concentrated in the summer and autumn, while
136 precipitation decreases from the southeast coast to the northwest inland spatially. According to
137 the Institute of Geographical Sciences and Resources of the Chinese Academy of Sciences,
138 the basins are divided into the following nine basin areas (Fig.1), including Songhua and
139 Liaohe River Basin (R1), Haihe River Basin (R2), Huaihe River Basin (R3), Yellow River
140 Basin (R4), Yangtze River Basin (R5), Pearl River Basin (R6), Southeast Basin (R7),
141 Southwest Basin (R8) and Continental Basin (R9). The hydrological characteristics of the
142 basins are shown in Table 1.

143 -----

144 Place Figure 1 here.

145 -----

146 -----

147 Place Table 1 here.

148 -----

149 *2.2. Data*

150 Monthly soil moisture (SM) data for 1980-2021 is obtained from the ERA5 reanalysis
151 dataset provided by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF)
152 ([https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-land-monthly-means?tab=
153 form](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-land-monthly-means?tab=form)). Monthly precipitation (P), temperature (T), and vapor pressure (VAP) are obtained
154 from the Climatic Research Unit (CRU) at CRU TS v.4.06

155 (https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/hrg/cru_ts_4.06/), and VPD is calculated from T and VAP.
156 Monthly actual evapotranspiration (E), potential evapotranspiration (Ep) and transpiration (Et)
157 are available at the Global Land Evaporation Amsterdam Model (GLEAM v3.6a,
158 <https://www.gleam.eu/>). LAI data is obtained from ERA5. The DEM data and soil texture data
159 from the Resource and Environment Science and Data Center are used in the study
160 (<https://www.resdc.cn/Default.aspx>). The Circulation factor used in this study come from the
161 Physical Sciences Laboratory (<https://www.psl.noaa.gov/data/climateindices/list/>). Finally, the
162 SM, E, Ep and Et datasets are resampled to $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ spatial resolution using the mean
163 aggregation method.

164 **3. Methods**

165 *3.1. Drought index calculation and drought event identification*

166 *3.1.1. Standardized soil moisture index*

167 Based on the ERA5 soil moisture data from 1980-2021, the standardized soil moisture
168 index (SSI) was calculated. The SSI was calculated with reference to the calculation of the
169 standardized precipitation index (SPI) (McKee et al., 1993). First, appropriate distribution
170 functions were selected to fit the soil moisture sequence of each raster in China. Six
171 commonly used probability density functions were selected to fit the soil moisture series,
172 which were gamma distribution, exponential distribution, weibull distribution, generalized
173 extreme value distribution, log-normal distribution and normal distribution. By
174 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (K-S test) and root mean square error (RMSE), the distribution
175 function that best conforms to the empirical cumulative distribution probability function curve
176 was selected as the optimal distribution function for each raster. Then, the SSI was obtained

177 by normalizing the cumulative probability of the optimal distribution function. However, at
178 some raster points, the above parametric distribution functions may not be suitable. Therefore,
179 for these raster points, the Gringorten plotting position algorithm was used to calculate the
180 marginal probability of soil moisture to obtain a nonparametric normalized index instead of
181 the empirical probability distribution (Farahmand and AghaKouchak, 2015; Gringorten,
182 1963).

183 3.1.2. Drought event identification

184 The run theory is a method to extract drought events by setting relevant thresholds based
185 on the characteristics of drought index on the time sequence (Yevjevich, 1967). Since a large
186 number of mild droughts in the sample may have an impact on the statistical features (Fleig et
187 al., 2006). Based on this, for the calculated SSI series, we used three-threshold optimized run
188 theory to identify agricultural drought events in China, and then drought events were
189 eliminated and merged to obtain drought characteristics (drought frequency, drought duration
190 and drought severity) (He et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2016; Shi et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2019).
191 The specific process of drought event identification using the threshold method is as follows:

192 1) It is initially identified as a drought event when SSI is less than -0.5 (blue area in Fig.
193 2), as shown in Fig. 2 there are five droughts (a-e).

194 2) On the basis of 1), small drought events are eliminated, i.e. for drought events with
195 drought duration of only 1 month, if $SSI > -1.0$, it is classified as no drought occurred in this
196 month (Fig. 2a), otherwise it is considered that an independent drought occurred (Fig. 2b).

197 3) For two adjacent drought events with an interval of 1 month (Fig. 2d and 2e), if the
198 interval month $SSI < 0$, the two adjacent drought events are merged into one drought event,

199 otherwise, they are two independent drought events. The drought duration is the sum of the
 200 two drought duration plus 1, and the drought severity is the sum of the severity of the two
 201 drought events.

202 -----

203 Place Figure 2 here.

204 -----

205 3.1.3. Trend analysis

206 The Mann-Kendall (MK) trend test is a nonparametric test that distinguishes trends in
 207 time sequences (Mann, 1945). It has the advantage that the sample series do not need to
 208 follow a specific distribution and is often used to test the trend of variable time series (Guo et
 209 al., 2021; Yue et al., 2018). For time series x_i , the specific principle of MK trend test is as
 210 follows:

$$211 \quad S = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \text{sgn}(x_j - x_i) \quad (1)$$

$$212 \quad \text{sgn}(\theta) = \begin{cases} 1, & \theta > 0 \\ 0, & \theta = 0 \\ -1, & \theta < 0 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

213 where n is the data length; sgn is the sign function.

214 Then the variance is:

$$215 \quad \text{var}(S) = \frac{n(n-1)(2n+5)}{18} \quad (3)$$

216 The standard normalization statistic Z could be expressed as:

$$217 \quad Z = \begin{cases} \frac{S-1}{\sqrt{\text{var}(S)}} & S > 0 \\ 0 & S = 0 \\ \frac{S+1}{\sqrt{\text{var}(S)}} & S < 0 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

218 when $Z > 0$, the sequence has an upward trend, otherwise it has a downward trend. The
 219 significance level is set at 0.05. When $|Z| \geq 1.96$, it represents that the trend of the series

220 passes the 95% significance test and the trend is significant. Conversely, the trend of the series
221 is not significant.

222 3.2. Vapor pressure deficit

223 VPD is the difference between the saturation vapor pressure and the actual vapor
224 pressure. In this study, the saturation vapor pressure (SVP) is first calculated using the
225 Goff-Gratch formula, and then the actual vapor pressure (VAP) is subtracted to obtain the
226 VPD. The Goff-Gratch formula is the saturation vapor pressure calculation formula
227 recommended by the World Meteorological Organization in 1966. The VPD is calculated as:

$$228 \text{VPD} = \text{SVP} - \text{VAP} \quad (5)$$

$$229 \lg(\text{SVP}) = c_1(1 - 273.16/T) + c_2 \lg(T/273.16) + c_3 \left[1 - 10^{c_4(T/273.16-1)}\right] + c_5 \left[10^{c_6(1-273.16/T)} - 1\right] + c_7 \quad (6)$$

230 where $c_1=10.79574$, $c_2=-5.02800$, $c_3=1.50475 \times 10^{-4}$, $c_4=-8.29690$, $c_5=0.42873 \times 10^{-3}$,
231 $c_6=4.76955$, $c_7=0.78614$, and $T=273.15+t$, t is the Celsius temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

232 3.3. Drivers of the drought characteristics dynamics

233 Based on the identification of drought characteristics, the XGB algorithm and SHAP
234 values were combined to quantify the effects of marine, terrestrial and meteorological drivers
235 on drought duration and drought severity (factors in Table 2).

236 -----
237 Place Table 2 here.
238 -----

239 The XGB uses a gradient boosting structure and has the advantage of parallel tree
240 boosting (Chen and Guestrin, 2016). It integrates weak classifiers into a strong classifier to
241 obtain a better regression performance than a single model. By introducing regular items to
242 control the complexity of the model, it can prevent model overfitting and improve modeling

243 performance (Fan et al., 2018; Shin et al., 2019). Moreover, due to the lack of transparency
244 and interpretability of traditional machine learning methods, the visibility of feature
245 importance is poor. Therefore, determining the contribution of influencing factors to target
246 variables changes and improving the interpretability of models are important issues in the
247 modeling process of machine learning algorithms (Gilpin et al., 2018). Recently, the
248 emergence of interpretable methods has improved the understanding of learning model or
249 predictions (Deng et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022b). The SHAP value is one such interpretable
250 approach that quantifies feature importance, determines the contribution of drivers and
251 elucidates the dependencies between input features and output targets (Lundberg and Lee,
252 2017). Therefore, in this study, the XGB algorithm was used to construct regression
253 relationships between drought characteristics and factors, and Grid Search method was used
254 to determine the optimal combination of parameters. Then a model based on the optimized
255 parameters was built to identify the response of factors to drought characteristics, and finally
256 SHAP value was used to quantify the magnitude of the effect of each factor on drought
257 characteristics.

258 **4. Results**

259 *4.1. Spatial and temporal evolution of agricultural drought in China*

260 The time series curves of monthly SSI for nine basins in China from 1980 to 2021 are
261 shown in Fig. 3. It can be seen that the regional average SSI in China ranges from -0.65 to
262 0.80, with the smallest fluctuation range of -1.03 - 0.71 in the continental basin and the largest
263 fluctuation range of -2.16 - 2.23 in the Huaihe River basin among the nine major basins. The
264 statistical monthly SSI trends from 1980 to 2021 are shown in Fig. 4. Most of the northwest

265 regions, especially the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau region, show an increasing trend of SSI,
266 accompanied by weakening trend of agricultural drought. In contrast, SSI tends to decrease in
267 northeastern China, Yellow and Huaihua regions and southeastern China. Due to the influence
268 of summer precipitation, there is a trend of becoming wet in parts of the middle and lower
269 reaches of the Yangtze River from May to July.

270 -----

271 Place Figure 3 here.

272 -----

273 -----

274 Place Figure 4 here.

275 -----

276 *4.2. Agricultural drought characteristics and their variations*

277 For each raster, drought events were extracted according to the run theory, and then the
278 mean values of drought characteristics under all drought events were calculated. As shown in
279 Fig. 5, the frequency of drought in China ranges from 5 - 70, and the regions with higher
280 frequency are mainly concentrated in the southern region (R5-R8). The drought severity and
281 drought duration range from 2.15 - 35.02 and 1.76 - 31.20, respectively. Spatially, drought
282 severity is greater and has a longer duration in the northwest (R9) and the western northeast
283 (R1). In summary, the drought duration and drought severity in northern China are higher than
284 those in other regions, but southern China has a high frequency of droughts and will face a
285 higher risk of agricultural drought (Fig. 5g, h).

286 -----

287 Place Figure 5 here.

288 -----

289 *4.3. Driving factors of drought characteristics*

290 4.3.1. Dominant factors of basin-scale drought characteristics

291 We used the XGB model to establish a model between drought characteristics and
292 driving factors, and then used the Grid Search method to find the optimal parameters of the
293 XGB model for each watershed (Table 3). Based on optimized parameters, a model was
294 established to identify the response of different drivers to drought characteristics at the
295 watershed scale, and then the feature importance was calculated based on the model and
296 quantified as the mean absolute SHAP value of each factor. Fig. 6 shows the influence of the
297 drivers on drought severity and drought duration in nine basins of China. The results indicate
298 that the dominant drivers of drought characteristics of agricultural drought events in China
299 vary among basins, with potential evapotranspiration (Ep) dominating in the majority of
300 regions. For the basin scale, the influence of meteorological factors plays the largest role,
301 followed by the impact of vegetation on the drought duration and severity. Compared to the
302 influence of meteorological and vegetation factors on drought, the influence of circulation
303 factors is weak, but cannot be ignored (Forootan et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022a). As can be
304 seen from Fig. 6, it was found that the closer the watershed to the ocean, the more prominent
305 the influence of circulation factors, such as the R6 and R7 watersheds.

306 -----

307 Place Table 3 here.

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309 -----

310 Place Figure 6 here.

311 -----

312 From the importance scores of drivers on drought severity (Table 4), it can be seen that
313 the SHAP value of Ep spans 1.7, from the lowest value in the R6 (0.13) to the highest value in

314 the R9 (1.83). The influence of vegetation on drought severity is also significant in R4 and R8,
315 where droughts are frequent and vegetation vulnerability is high. Soil moisture is a direct
316 source of water available to vegetation. The promotion of ecological projects such as
317 reforestation increases the amount of water dissipated by vegetation, which will further
318 exacerbate soil water deficit and thus affect the severity of drought. As can be seen from the
319 impact of the driving factors on the drought duration (Table 5), the SHAP values of Ep range
320 from 0.13 to 1.68. In addition to Ep, precipitation (P) is the second most important factor
321 affecting the drought duration in the R1 and R2, while VPD is the secondary factor affecting
322 duration in R9. In the R1, R2, R5 and R6 basins, Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) has a
323 greater impact on drought duration than other circulation factors, while Nino3.4 plays a
324 greater role in the R4 and the R7.

325 -----

326 Place Table 4 here.

327 -----

328 -----

329 Place Table 5 here.

330 -----

331 *4.3.2. Grid-based dominant factors on drought characteristic evolution and their dynamics*

332 To investigate the causes of the dynamics of drought characteristics, variable importance
333 was calculated for each raster based on the XGB model and SHAP values to assess the
334 influence of marine, terrestrial, and meteorological factors on drought characteristics, where
335 the maximum score is identified as the dominant factor in the drought characteristics
336 dynamics (Fig. 7). Fig. 7 shows that the dynamics of drought characteristics in southern China
337 is mainly attributed to the actual evapotranspiration (E), while the dynamics of drought

338 characteristics in the north is mainly dominated by P. Among them, the percentages of drought
339 duration and severity with E as the dominant factor are 30.7% and 32.7%, respectively, while
340 the proportion of P as the dominant factor in drought duration and severity are 35.3% and
341 35.0%, respectively. In addition, for the drought duration dynamics, the raster points with
342 VPD as the dominant factor are mainly concentrated in the northern part of R1 and the
343 western part of R4 and R5. The area of VPD influence on drought severity is mainly
344 distributed in the western part of R4 and R5.

345 -----

346 Place Figure 7 here.

347 -----

348 SHAP values provide both global and local interpretability for machine learning models
349 by providing feature importance values. Therefore, for each raster point, the SHAP values of
350 individual factors in each drought event were calculated (Fig. 8). The temporal variation of
351 SHAP values was used to evaluate the changing influence of each factor on drought
352 characteristics. An increasing trend in SHAP values indicates that the contribution of the
353 factor to drought characteristics is increasing, while a decreasing trend suggests that the factor
354 is weakening the drought characteristics. As can be seen from Fig. 8 and Fig. 9, the decreased
355 precipitation has an increasing influence on the dynamic evolution of drought severity at the
356 majority of raster points in southern China basins, especially in the Pearl River basin (R6).
357 While the contribution of water demand, such as potential evapotranspiration, VPD and
358 vegetation transpiration, to drought dynamics is gradually increasing. Consequently, the
359 decrease in water supply and the increase in water demand depletion further exacerbate the
360 increased drought risk in southern China. Moreover, in the Yangtze and Pearl River basins

361 (R5 and R6), Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) exacerbates the severity of drought.
362 And the rising trend of North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) is also much more concentrated in
363 the south, leading to a larger dynamic contribution to the drought duration. Therefore, future
364 research should focus on the evolution of droughts in the southern basins of China.

365 -----

366 Place Figure 8 here.

367 -----

368 -----

369 Place Figure 9 here.

370 -----

371 **5. Discussion**

372 In the context of climate change, our findings show that agricultural drought events in
373 northern China are low in frequency but high in severity and long in duration. In contrast, the
374 southern region experiences high frequency, short duration and weak severity of droughts.
375 Also, there is a trend of increasing duration and severity in this region, indicating an increased
376 agricultural risk due to drought in this area. These results are consistent with previous studies
377 that have found that droughts become more frequent, with a progressively larger impact area
378 and extremely prominent extreme weather events under a warming climate (Ayantobo et al.,
379 2017; He et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2021).

380 We also investigated the spatial distribution and dynamic evolution of agricultural
381 drought characteristics in China, and then used the XGB model and SHAP values to assess the
382 contributions of marine, terrestrial, and meteorological factors to the duration and severity of
383 agricultural drought. Regarding the dynamic evolution of drought characteristics, there are
384 regional differences in the drivers of the duration and severity of agricultural droughts in

385 China. In the same basin, droughts would exhibit different conditions depending on
386 meteorological factors, groundwater storage and underlying surface conditions (Han et al.,
387 2020; Yang et al., 2022). This is because the frequency of droughts occurring in each raster is
388 different, and the corresponding drought duration and severity are different, so there is a slight
389 difference in the relative importance derived from the modeling of each raster. However, the
390 dominant factor still has a certain spatial distribution pattern in the watershed. It is found that
391 drought characteristics are mainly influenced by P in the northern China, while E is the main
392 driver for the evolution of drought characteristics in the southern region. To further investigate
393 the influence of dominant factors on drought characteristics, we analyzed the inter-annual
394 trend of annual precipitation. As seen in Fig. 9 and Fig. 5(g, h), the annual precipitation at the
395 raster points where drought severity and drought duration decreased in the northern China
396 showed an increasing trend. This indicates that the increased precipitation in the northern
397 China alleviates the drought and mitigates the risk of agricultural drought. It is similar to the
398 finding of Huang et al. (2015) that the frequency of extreme droughts decreases with
399 increasing precipitation in northwest China.

400 As known in previous studies, the frequency of drought events dominated by
401 evapotranspiration decreases from southeast to northwest in China, and the frequency of
402 drought events by Ep in southeast China is greater than that of drought events dominated by
403 precipitation deficit (Ma et al., 2020). In terms of dominant factors, the dynamics of drought
404 characteristics in the southern region are mostly influenced by E. To clarify the mechanisms
405 by which drought characteristics are influenced by E, we explored the relationship between E
406 and vegetation transpiration (Et). It is found that Et is closely related to E with high

407 correlation (Fig. 10a), and vegetation transpiration significantly increases in most of the
408 regions (Fig. 10b), suggesting that vegetation transpiration has an important role in the
409 intensification of agricultural drought in the southern China. Similar findings of vegetation
410 significantly increasing evaporative water consumption and exacerbating the risk of
411 agricultural drought are also confirmed in the Loess Plateau region (Han et al., 2021; Shao et
412 al., 2019). Moreover, the second and third factors in the ranking of importance are mostly Ep
413 and VPD in southern China (Fig. 7), indicating that the atmospheric evaporation demand due
414 to temperature rise also has a greater impact on drought in this region. The significant increase
415 of Ep and VPD in Fig.10 (c-d) also confirms the finding that the atmospheric evaporation
416 demand increases in this region. Wang et al. (2022c) found that the contribution of increased
417 terrestrial evapotranspiration is greater in humid areas, mainly because humid areas could
418 provide sufficient water supply to meet atmospheric evaporation demands and vegetation
419 physiological activities. Increased evapotranspiration indicates more surface water loss and
420 less soil moisture, which could exacerbate drought stress in terrestrial ecosystems, affecting
421 water resources, climate, and agriculture (Wang et al., 2022c; Zhang et al., 2021a). In
422 summary, water shortage caused by increased atmospheric evaporative demand and water
423 depletion caused by vegetation transpiration jointly contribute to the exacerbation of
424 agricultural drought in the southern region. Our study improves the understanding of the
425 response of the evolution of agricultural drought characteristics to the driving factors and
426 provides a scientific basis for drought adaptation strategies.

427 -----
428 Place Figure 10 here.
429 -----

430 In this study, machine learning with interpretable methods is used to obtain the drivers of
431 the evolution of agricultural drought characteristics in China. Machine learning has the
432 characteristics of nonlinearity, high estimation accuracy, and strong generalization ability,
433 which can effectively process large amounts of data. However, it should be noted that
434 machine learning methods cannot directly quantify the internal mechanisms of model
435 behavior. It is a data-driven model subject to data and algorithm constraints, which may
436 introduce some uncertainty to the quantification of the contribution of drivers. In addition, the
437 method of parameter optimization in model construction is also one of the sources of
438 uncertainty. Another deficiency of the attribution analysis is the insufficient consideration of
439 human activities (e.g., CO₂ emissions, irrigation, land use change, etc.), which needs to be
440 enhanced in subsequent studies. Despite uncertainties and limitations, the XGB model can
441 still estimate the impact of drivers on drought characteristics. It improves the understanding of
442 machine learning models by combining with interpretability methods (SHAP), making it
443 easier to quantify feature importance and clarify dependencies between input features and
444 output targets. Therefore, to reduce uncertainty, future studies also need to evaluate the effects
445 of variables on changes in agricultural drought characteristics under multiple models such as
446 RNNs and LSTM models to obtain more reliable attribution results.

447 **6. Conclusion**

448 In this study, we applied an interpretable machine learning framework to identify the
449 potential mechanisms affecting the dynamics of drought characteristics. Our findings showed
450 that agricultural drought events in northern China have low frequency, high severity and long
451 duration in the context of climate change, while those have the opposite characteristics in
452 southern China. In addition, there is an increasing trend in drought duration and severity in

453 southeast, north, and northwest China. At the basin-scale, evapotranspiration is the most
454 influential driver of drought characteristics. Moreover, we identified regional differences in
455 the drivers of drought dynamics. The percentages of drought duration and severity with E as
456 the dominant factor were 30.7% and 32.7%, and 35.3% and 35.0% with P as the dominant
457 factor, respectively. Precipitation in northern China positively contributes to reducing drought
458 duration and intensity, while water scarcity caused by increased atmospheric evaporation
459 demand and water depletion due to vegetation transpiration led to the intensification of
460 agricultural drought in southern China. Furthermore, the contributions of AMO and NAO to
461 drought characteristics are gradually increasing. Our study explores the dynamics and driving
462 patterns of agricultural drought characteristics and improves the understanding of the
463 evolution of agricultural drought characteristics in response to drivers, which are important
464 for developing effective drought mitigation measures and adapting to climate change.

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648

Table 1. Nine basins of China

Codes	Name	Areas (10 ⁴ km ²)	Average annual soil moisture (m ³ ·m ⁻³)	Average annual precipitation (mm)
R1	Songhua and Liaohe River Basin	124	0.938	538
R2	Haihe River Basin	32	0.777	520
R3	Huaihe River Basin	32	0.910	874
R4	Yellow River Basin	80	0.897	479
R5	Yangtze River Basin	180	1.178	1060
R6	Pearl River Basin	57	1.172	1539
R7	Southeast Basin	24	1.229	1736
R8	Southwest Basin	85	1.078	747
R9	Continental Basin	334	0.548	166

Table 2. Drivers in the study

Categories	Drivers	Symbols
Meteorological factors	Potential evapotranspiration	Ep
	Actual evapotranspiration	E
	Precipitation	P
	Vapour pressure deficit	VPD
	Aridity index	AI
Terrestrial factors	Vegetation leaf area index	Laihv, Lailv
	Digital elevation model	dem
	Clay content	clay
	Sand content	sand
Circulation factors	Silt content	silt
	Correlation between precipitation and circulation factors	P_AMO, P_AO, P_NAO, P_Nino, P_PDO, P_SOI
	Correlation between temperature and circulation factors	T_AMO, T_AO, T_NAO, T_Nino, T_PDO, T_SOI

Table 3. Optimal parameters of the XGB model

		R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9
colsample_bytree	Duration	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.7
	Severity	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.9
learning_rate	Duration	0.10	0.10	0.15	0.15	0.10	0.05	0.15	0.05	0.10
	Severity	0.05	0.10	0.05	0.10	0.15	0.10	0.05	0.05	0.15
max_depth	Duration	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3
	Severity	4	7	3	3	3	3	3	3	4
n_estimators	Duration	500	500	500	500	500	500	300	500	500
	Severity	500	200	500	400	500	400	500	500	500
subsample	Duration	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.9
	Severity	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8
R ²	Duration	0.95	0.83	0.79	0.93	0.91	0.82	0.90	0.93	0.92
	Severity	0.93	0.83	0.88	0.89	0.92	0.78	0.88	0.91	0.89
RMSE	Duration	0.37	0.52	0.31	0.31	0.29	0.19	0.14	0.48	0.78
	Severity	0.49	0.55	0.28	0.40	0.30	0.23	0.17	0.62	1.04

Table 4. Importance of driving factors on drought severity

R1		R2		R3		R4		R5		R6		R7		R8		R9	
factor	shap value																
Ep	0.858	Ep	0.636	Ep	0.354	Ep	0.806	Ep	0.227	Ep	0.132	Ep	0.132	AI	0.621	Ep	1.834
E	0.324	dem	0.256	P_Nino	0.189	Lailv	0.287	E	0.194	E	0.129	E	0.104	Laihv	0.401	VPD	0.401
P	0.222	P	0.164	P_AO	0.146	P	0.111	Lailv	0.140	P	0.099	P	0.060	Ep	0.283	P	0.395
AI	0.128	VPD	0.075	AI	0.060	dem	0.087	P	0.126	P_PDO	0.058	P_Nino	0.045	T_NAO	0.139	Lailv	0.352
P_AMO	0.106	Lailv	0.055	P	0.057	E	0.078	Laihv	0.126	P_NAO	0.051	T_SOI	0.023	Lailv	0.121	T_PDO	0.285
P_AO	0.093	P_PDO	0.041	VPD	0.046	AI	0.074	P_SOI	0.125	dem	0.040	T_AO	0.020	VPD	0.095	T_AMO	0.237
T_NAO	0.067	E	0.028	dem	0.036	T_AO	0.058	T_PDO	0.112	T_AMO	0.035	P_AMO	0.019	dem	0.093	T_NAO	0.234
P_NAO	0.066	clay	0.022	T_NAO	0.028	P_PDO	0.045	P_Nino	0.102	T_AO	0.029	Lailv	0.019	P	0.080	T_AO	0.231
T_PDO	0.063	AI	0.021	E	0.025	P_NAO	0.043	VPD	0.066	P_AO	0.028	Laihv	0.017	T_Nino	0.071	dem	0.149
VPD	0.056	Laihv	0.020	T_AO	0.021	Laihv	0.041	T_AO	0.046	P_Nino	0.026	T_NAO	0.016	E	0.067	T_Nino	0.141
T_Nino	0.048	P_Nino	0.017	Lailv	0.020	P_Nino	0.039	P_PDO	0.044	Laihv	0.021	slit	0.013	T_SOI	0.061	P_Nino	0.107
T_AO	0.045	P_AO	0.016	slit	0.020	T_AMO	0.037	T_AMO	0.038	Lailv	0.020	P_SOI	0.011	T_AMO	0.057	E	0.093
Laihv	0.043	P_AMO	0.013	T_AMO	0.018	P_AO	0.032	T_Nino	0.032	T_NAO	0.018	dem	0.011	P_AMO	0.057	P_SOI	0.090
T_AMO	0.042	P_NAO	0.012	T_Nino	0.015	T_Nino	0.028	P_AO	0.025	T_SOI	0.017	P_PDO	0.010	P_NAO	0.055	T_SOI	0.081
Lailv	0.041	slit	0.010	T_PDO	0.015	T_NAO	0.025	dem	0.024	T_Nino	0.016	P_AO	0.010	P_PDO	0.051	sand	0.077
dem	0.033	P_SOI	0.009	P_SOI	0.013	clay	0.022	AI	0.024	P_SOI	0.015	T_PDO	0.010	P_AO	0.039	slit	0.076
P_SOI	0.032	T_Nino	0.009	clay	0.012	P_AMO	0.021	T_SOI	0.021	AI	0.013	VPD	0.010	T_AO	0.036	P_AMO	0.074
P_Nino	0.026	T_PDO	0.007	P_PDO	0.010	T_SOI	0.018	P_AMO	0.021	VPD	0.012	clay	0.008	P_Nino	0.025	P_NAO	0.069
T_SOI	0.025	T_AO	0.007	P_NAO	0.010	T_PDO	0.017	T_NAO	0.021	P_AMO	0.010	T_Nino	0.006	T_PDO	0.023	P_AO	0.059
P_PDO	0.023	T_SOI	0.006	Laihv	0.010	P_SOI	0.015	P_NAO	0.021	T_PDO	0.009	P_NAO	0.006	P_SOI	0.016	P_PDO	0.052
slit	0.014	T_NAO	0.005	sand	0.008	VPD	0.015	slit	0.019	slit	0.009	T_AMO	0.005	slit	0.010	AI	0.049
sand	0.012	sand	0.003	P_AMO	0.008	sand	0.010	clay	0.007	clay	0.006	AI	0.005	clay	0.010	clay	0.030
clay	0.011	T_AMO	0.003	T_SOI	0.004	slit	0.007	sand	0.006	sand	0.004	sand	0.001	sand	0.009	Laihv	0.008

Table 5. Importance of driving factors on drought duration

	R1		R2		R3		R4		R5		R6		R7		R8		R9	
factor	shap value																	
Ep	1.000	Ep	0.593	Ep	0.398	Ep	0.630	Ep	0.222	Ep	0.127	Ep	0.139	AI	0.590	Ep	1.680	
P	0.292	P	0.147	P_Nino	0.138	Lailv	0.229	E	0.156	E	0.111	E	0.089	Laihv	0.365	VPD	0.386	
AI	0.254	dem	0.146	P_AO	0.109	AI	0.217	P	0.142	P	0.108	P	0.081	Ep	0.275	P	0.327	
T_PDO	0.142	VPD	0.086	VPD	0.058	E	0.133	T_PDO	0.136	P_PDO	0.050	P_Nino	0.057	T_NAO	0.152	Lailv	0.293	
VPD	0.110	P_PDO	0.070	P	0.046	P	0.127	Lailv	0.125	T_AO	0.046	P_AMO	0.029	VPD	0.100	T_PDO	0.251	
E	0.094	Lailv	0.061	Lailv	0.031	dem	0.086	Laihv	0.101	T_NAO	0.027	P_PDO	0.023	P	0.099	T_AMO	0.216	
P_AMO	0.077	E	0.034	AI	0.026	P_Nino	0.066	P_Nino	0.079	P_Nino	0.026	P_SOI	0.019	Lailv	0.097	T_NAO	0.203	
Laihv	0.068	Laihv	0.033	P_AMO	0.025	T_Nino	0.047	VPD	0.062	P_AO	0.025	T_AMO	0.017	T_Nino	0.084	T_AO	0.139	
P_AO	0.051	AI	0.031	dem	0.023	T_SOI	0.043	P_SOI	0.056	P_NAO	0.024	T_SOI	0.015	P_AMO	0.071	dem	0.122	
Lailv	0.046	P_AMO	0.029	E	0.023	VPD	0.042	T_AO	0.051	T_AMO	0.023	Lailv	0.012	dem	0.068	T_Nino	0.109	
T_AMO	0.045	slit	0.025	clay	0.020	Laihv	0.042	P_PDO	0.045	dem	0.021	T_PDO	0.012	P_PDO	0.067	P_SOI	0.099	
T_SOI	0.042	P_Nino	0.022	T_AMO	0.017	T_NAO	0.035	AI	0.031	Laihv	0.014	dem	0.011	E	0.054	slit	0.081	
T_Nino	0.041	P_AO	0.018	sand	0.017	T_AMO	0.034	P_AO	0.026	T_Nino	0.013	P_AO	0.011	T_SOI	0.048	T_SOI	0.077	
T_NAO	0.040	T_AO	0.017	T_Nino	0.014	P_AMO	0.032	T_AMO	0.025	AI	0.012	VPD	0.009	P_NAO	0.045	E	0.074	
dem	0.035	T_Nino	0.017	slit	0.014	P_NAO	0.029	T_Nino	0.024	Lailv	0.011	AI	0.008	P_AO	0.039	P_AMO	0.072	
P_NAO	0.028	P_NAO	0.015	T_PDO	0.012	P_PDO	0.028	dem	0.024	VPD	0.011	T_AO	0.007	T_AMO	0.038	P_AO	0.063	
P_SOI	0.021	sand	0.013	P_PDO	0.010	P_AO	0.026	T_SOI	0.023	P_SOI	0.010	T_NAO	0.006	T_AO	0.035	P_NAO	0.056	
T_AO	0.020	P_SOI	0.013	Laihv	0.010	P_SOI	0.022	P_AMO	0.020	T_PDO	0.008	Laihv	0.006	T_PDO	0.034	sand	0.053	
P_PDO	0.017	T_AMO	0.012	P_SOI	0.010	T_PDO	0.022	P_NAO	0.020	P_AMO	0.007	T_Nino	0.006	P_Nino	0.017	AI	0.052	
clay	0.017	clay	0.008	P_NAO	0.010	slit	0.020	slit	0.016	clay	0.006	clay	0.005	P_SOI	0.014	P_Nino	0.051	
P_Nino	0.015	T_PDO	0.008	T_AO	0.007	T_AO	0.019	T_NAO	0.016	T_SOI	0.006	P_NAO	0.004	slit	0.013	P_PDO	0.051	
slit	0.013	T_SOI	0.007	T_NAO	0.006	clay	0.013	clay	0.010	slit	0.004	slit	0.003	sand	0.008	clay	0.025	
sand	0.007	T_NAO	0.007	T_SOI	0.003	sand	0.013	sand	0.006	sand	0.003	sand	0.001	clay	0.008	Laihv	0.007	

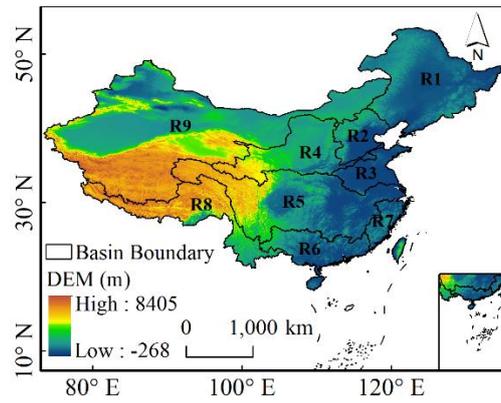


Fig.1 Basin division in China (Songhua and Liaohe River Basin (R1), Haihe River Basin (R2), Huaihe River Basin (R3), Yellow River Basin (R4), Yangtze River Basin (R5), Pearl River Basin (R6), Southeast Basin (R7), Southwest Basin (R8) and Continental Basin (R9)).

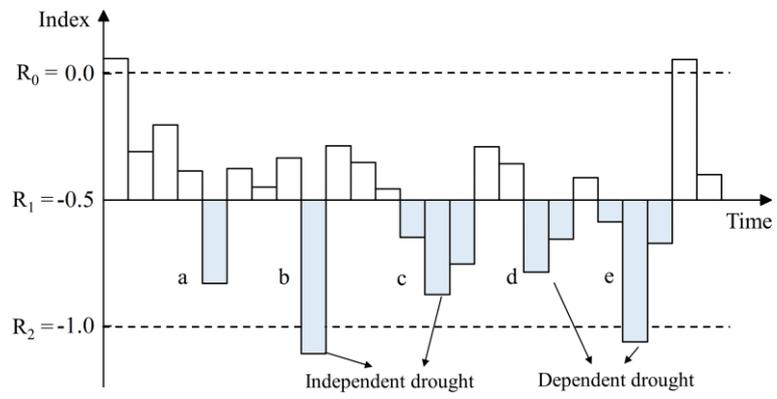


Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of drought event identification, elimination and fusion process

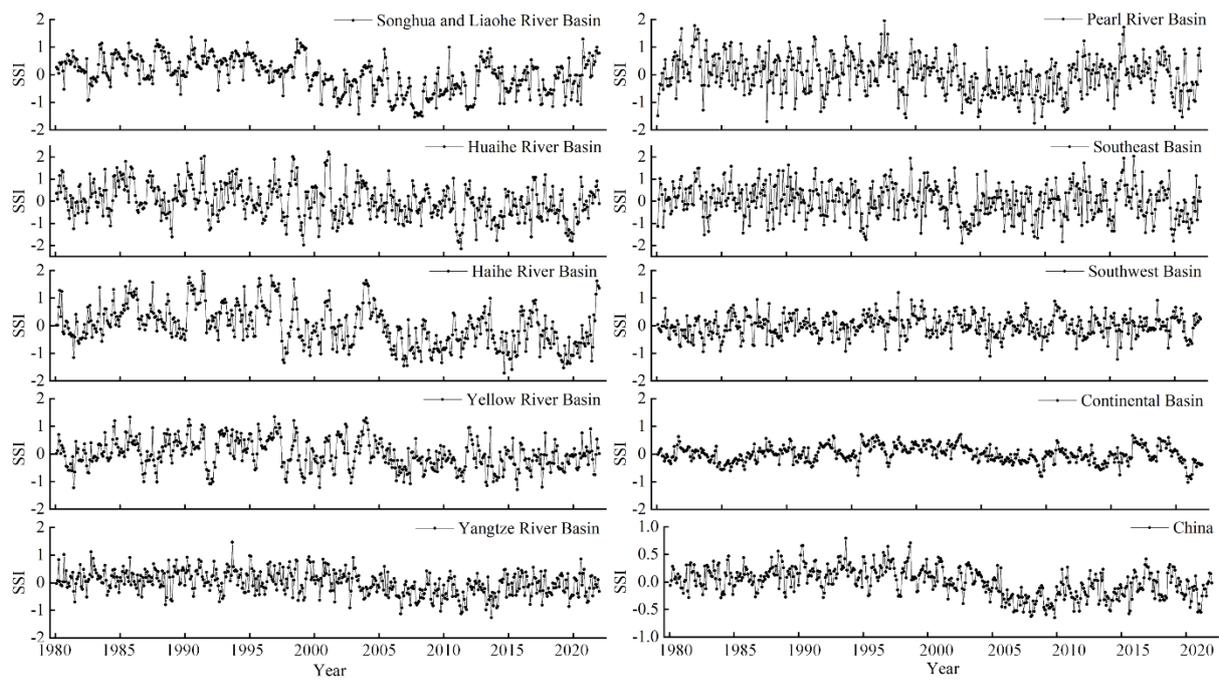


Fig.3 Temporal variation of SSI on the scale of nine basins and China from 1980 to 2021

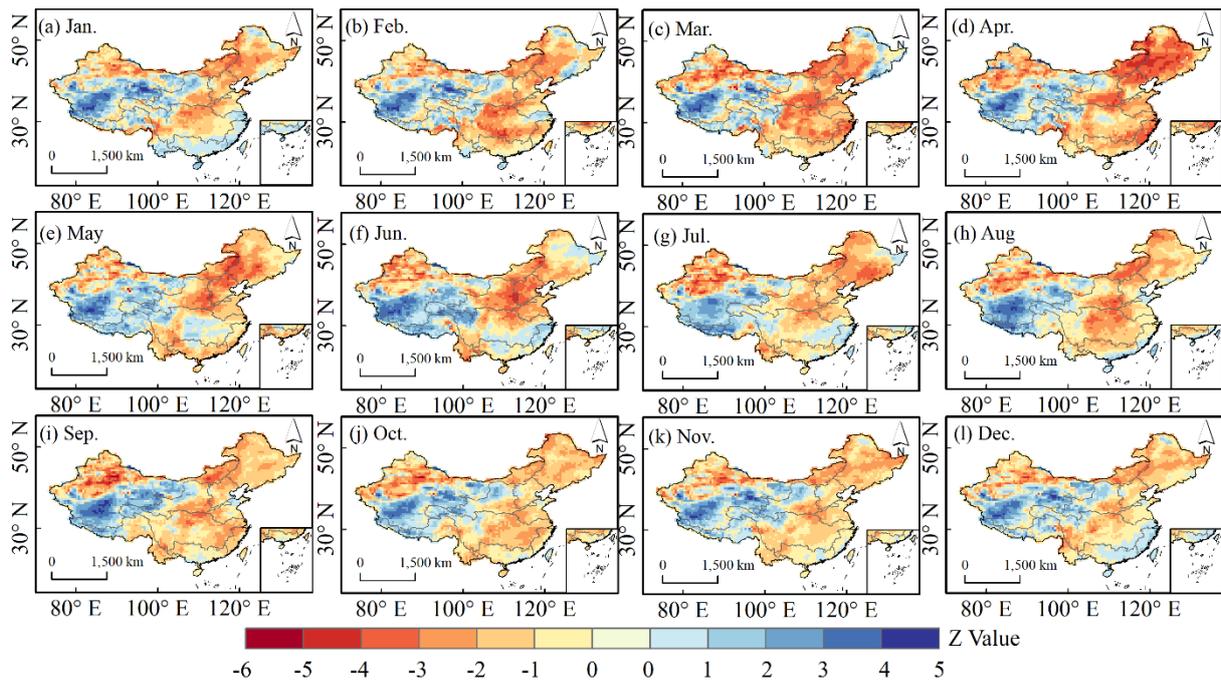


Fig.4 Spatial variation trend of monthly SSI in China from 1980 to 2021

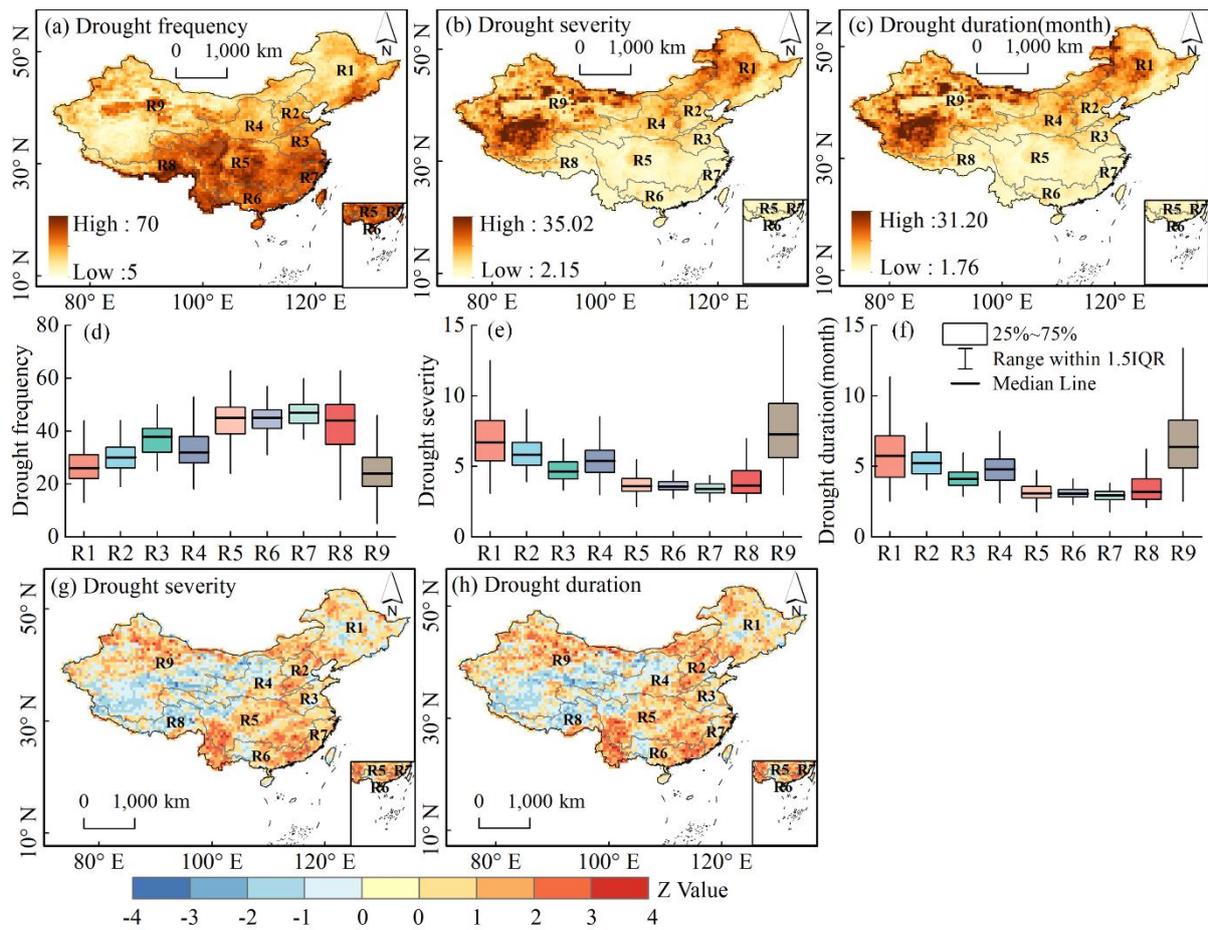


Fig. 5 Spatial distribution of agricultural drought characteristics and their changes in China (a-c) drought frequency, severity, and drought duration, (d-f) drought characteristics of the basin, (g-h) drought characteristics trend.



Fig. 6 Importance of drivers at the basin scale.

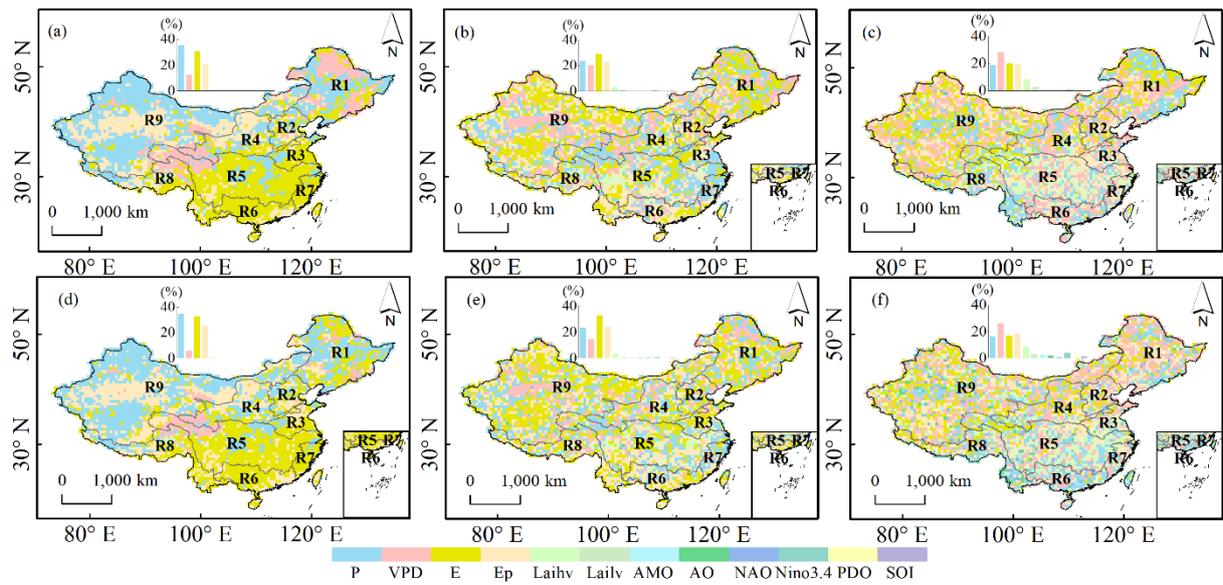


Fig. 7 Driving factors based on SHAP values. (a-c) the most, the second most, and third most important factor for drought duration, (d-e) the most, the second most, and third most important factor for drought severity.

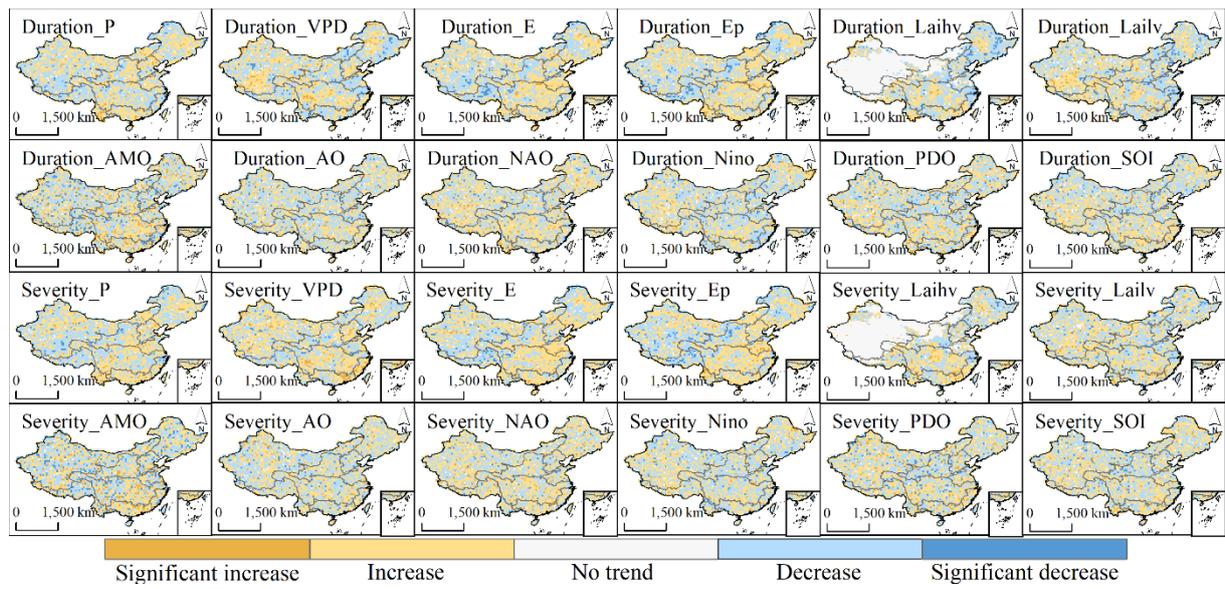


Fig.8 Trend of SHAP value of each factor

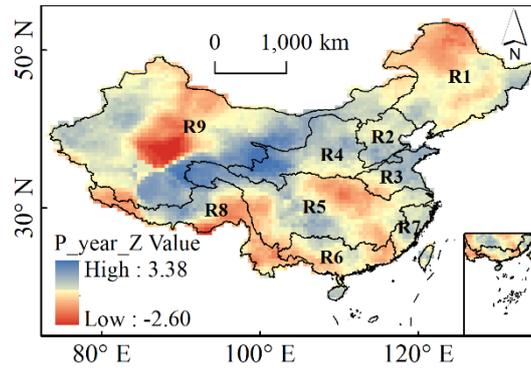


Fig.9 Spatial distribution of regional annual precipitation trends in China

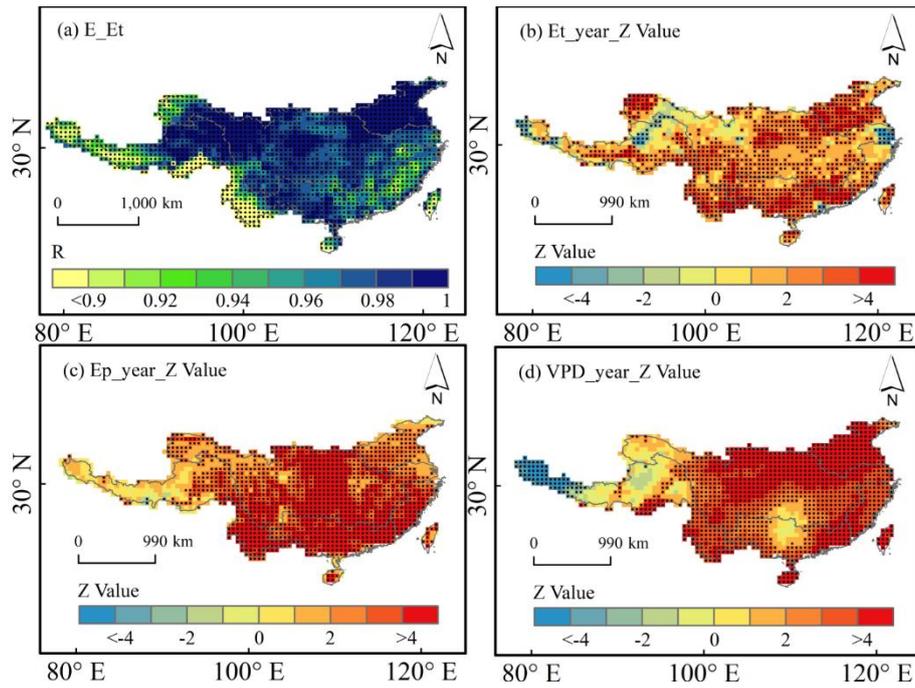


Fig. 10 Spatial distribution of factors in southern basins of China (a) correlation analysis of vegetation transpiration (Et) and actual evapotranspiration (E), (b-d) inter-annual variation of Et, E and VPD. Black dots indicate passing the significance test of $P < 0.05$