

1 **LONG TERM CLIMATE VARIABILITY AND DROUGHT**
2 **CHARACTERISTICS IN TROPICAL REGION OF INDIA**

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18
19 **Abstract**

20 This work reports climate change signals and long-term trend analysis of climate variables,
21 meteorological drought, and extreme climate indices over the tropical state of Kerala in India. The
22 trend analysis reveals statistically significant decrease of annual and south-west monsoon rainfall
23 (as much as 63 mm and 55 mm per decade respectively). A decrease in number of annual rainy
24 days (up to 2.8 days/decade) is also reported. Temperature trend analysis indicates an increasing

25 trend with as high as 1.3°C/decade. The spatio-temporal variation of extreme climate indices
26 across Kerala shows a decreasing trend of extreme precipitation indices and an increasing trend of
27 extreme temperature indices. R95 and R95p decreased in northern and southern Kerala whereas
28 R5 index increased in central and southern regions. Warm days have significantly increased
29 whereas cold days exhibit a decreasing trend across the state. The increase in warmer nights is
30 statistically significant whereas colder nights are decreasing in central and southern regions.
31 Meteorological drought using Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) reveals increasing
32 occurrence of droughts in Kerala with higher frequencies over southern and central Kerala.

33

34 **Keywords:** Climate variability, Climate indices, Drought analysis, Kerala, Mann Kendall,
35 Standardized Precipitation Index, Sen's Slope Estimator, Trend analysis

36

37 **Introduction**

38 *Climate scenario*

39 India is highly dependent on monsoon rainfall for its agriculture (and allied sectors) which
40 accounts for ~33% of India's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) making it the single largest
41 contributor to the economy. Associated with global warming, there are indications of changes to
42 regional and global climate and these changes directly impact the agrarian dependent economy of
43 India. Several studies report the spatial and temporal variation of climatic variables worldwide
44 (Burn and Elnur 2002; Zhang et al. 2007; Penalba and Robledo 2010; Chu et al. 2010; Alexander
45 2016). Investigations on the trend of climatic variables in India indicate a decreasing trend in
46 monsoon rainfall and an increasing trend of temperature (Parthasarathy and Dhar 1974; Rao 1993;
47 Guhathakurta and Rajeevan 2008; Goswami et al. 2006; Krishnakumar et al. 2009; Pal and Al-
48 Tabbaa 2009; Kumar et al. 2010; Rana et al. 2012; Patra et al. 2012; Mondal et al. 2012). A
49 decreasing trend in extreme rainfall events during monsoon will lead to higher water scarcity

50 during the non-monsoon months and Kerala is highly susceptible to these changes (Pal and Al-
51 Tabbaa 2009). Parthasarathy and Dhar (1974) observed an increasing trend of annual rainfall in
52 Central India and a decreasing trend in parts of eastern India from 1901 to 1960. This highlights
53 the high spatio-temporal variability of the Indian climate and the pressing need to carry out our
54 present regional-scale study at different time steps.

55

56 The principal seasons for India are defined as south-west monsoon (June–September),
57 north-east monsoon/post-monsoon (October–November), winter (December–February), and
58 summer (March–May). From 1951 to 2000, central India has witnessed higher frequency and
59 magnitude of extreme rainfall events and fewer variations in moderate events (Goswami et al.
60 2006). A significant decrease in monsoon rainfall over various parts of India is reportedly
61 associated with more post-monsoon showers (Krishnakumar et al. 2009; Pal and Al-Tabbaa 2009;
62 Jagadeesh and Anupama 2014; Babar and Ramesh 2014). Interestingly, long-term seasonal
63 analysis over the 20th century (1901 – 2003) indicates increasing trends in summer rainfall in
64 southeast, north-east, and north-west India while a decreasing trend in the central region and the
65 western coast (Varikoden et al. 2013). This paper, therefore, attempts to examine the variability of
66 extreme events at different time steps over Kerala which is the entry point of south-west monsoon
67 in the Indian subcontinent.

68

69 Temperature plays a key role in the moderation of Indian south-west monsoon as high
70 temperatures in northern India during summer forms pressure gradient facilitating the entry of rain-
71 bearing clouds in the Indian subcontinent during monsoon (Bhutiya et al. 2007). The maximum,
72 minimum, mean, and diurnal temperature ranges have been observed to increase over the north-
73 western Himalayan region during the 20th century (Bhutiya et al. 2007). Also, the occurrence of
74 hot days and hot nights shows a widespread increasing trend over the entire India and its seven

75 homogeneous regions over the 20th century. However, this trend was found to be decreasing from
76 1970 to 2005 indicating temperature has higher temporal variability than spatial. Mean annual
77 temperatures over most parts of India (west coast, interior peninsula, north-central and north-
78 eastern regions) show an increase during the period 1901 to 1982 (Hingane et al. 1985; Rupa
79 Kumar et al. 2002). Consequences of warming temperatures are on biodiversity, increase in
80 precipitation extremes management of water resources (Paul et al, 2018; Mukherjee et al. 2018;
81 Rajulapati et al., 2020). Owing to limited studies of such nature in Kerala, this work attempts a
82 holistic approach and evaluates the long-term trend analysis of rainfall, temperature and drought
83 indices over the region.

84
85 Climate change signals are quantified using long-term trends of extreme events that carry
86 the fingerprint of climate change. The threshold values for detecting climate change signals are
87 carefully chosen based on the objectives of the studies. 95th percentile values are usually adopted
88 for upper thresholds and 5th percentile values are adopted for lower thresholds in climate change
89 studies globally (Karl et al. 1999; Haylock and Nicholls 2000; Zhang et al. 2005 a, b; Smith 2011;
90 Knapp et al. 2015; Alexander 2016; Kumar et al. 2020). The highlight of this study is an attempt
91 to comprehensively fingerprint climate change signals using six thresholds for catering to a wide
92 range of applications that readers deem appropriate. The extreme wet and warm years are
93 quantified using 99th, 95th, and 90th percentile values (as the higher threshold), and 1st, 5th, and 10th
94 percentile values are used for quantifying extreme dry and cold years (as the lower threshold).

95
96 *Drought*

97 The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) report on managing risks of
98 extreme events and disasters parallels drought to natural disasters (IPCC 2012). India is considered
99 to be one of the highly vulnerable drought-prone countries of the world (FAO 2017). This is owing

100 to the fact that a drought event is reported at least once in three years during 1951-2000 and the
101 frequency of droughts are increasing in recent times (Dash et al, 2007; Mishra and Singh 2010;
102 Sharma and Mujumdar 2017). The analysis of drought concerning rainfall (i.e., meteorological
103 drought) is thus crucial to the Indian subcontinent.

104

105 Although there are several categories of defining drought (such as meteorological,
106 hydrological, climatic, agricultural, and economic), prolonged low moisture in a region is termed
107 as drought (Palmer 1965; Wilhite and Glantz 1985; Dalezios et al. 1991). The intensity of drought
108 is directly dependent on the intensity of rainfall and the number of rainy days. Additionally, an
109 increasing temperature, lower relative humidity, changes in wind speed, and lag between rainy
110 seasons also define the drought (Bordi et al. 2001). Several indices such as Palmer Drought
111 Severity Index (PDSI), surface water supply index, crop moisture index, Standardized
112 Precipitation Anomaly Index (SPAI), Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) are used to detect
113 drought conditions (Palmer 1965; Palmer 1968; Shafer and Dezman 1982; McKee et al. 1993;
114 Chanda and Maity 2015). This paper adopts the SPI which examines the anomalies in regional
115 dryness or wetness and is based on the depth of rainfall over temporal scale (Tsakiris and Vangelis
116 2004; Cancelliere et al. 2007; Mishra and Singh 2010; Thomas et al. 2015).

117

118 Several studies have reported the suitability of SPI for the Indian subcontinent. Pai et al.
119 (2014) examine the district-wide drought climatology for the southwest monsoon over India and
120 the results show that the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) is a better drought index than
121 Percent of Normal Precipitation (PNP). Palchaudhuri and Biswas (2013) employ the SPI using
122 daily gridded precipitation data generated by the India Meteorological Department to study
123 severity and spatial pattern of meteorological drought in Puruliya district in West Bengal, India.

124 Mundetia and Sharma (2015) obtain the rainfall indices and SPI for the state of Rajasthan,
125 reporting a noticeable increase in the frequency of severe droughts on a longer time scale. SPI has
126 been used in the drought analysis of Parambikulam-Aliyar basin, Tamil Nadu. There are recent
127 instances where the India Meteorological Department (IMD) has declared drought in several
128 districts of Kerala and this work analyzes the drought occurrence in detail. Based on the stable
129 performance across various parts of India, the present study employs the SPI for analysis of
130 drought. Based on the review of literature, the objectives of the present study are thus defined as:
131 (1) to evaluate the long-term trend analysis of rainfall, temperature and drought indices over the
132 tropical state of Kerala; (2) to examine the variability of extreme climate events at different time
133 steps; (3) to analyse the intensity and frequency of drought in the region.

134

135 **Regional setting of the study area**

136 Kerala is located along the western portion of peninsular India ($8^{\circ} 15' N$ to $12^{\circ} 50' N$ and
137 $74^{\circ} 50' E$ to $77^{\circ} 30' E$) with a total area of 38,863 sq. km. Geographically, the state is divided into
138 three distinct regions which include the eastern highlands, the central midlands, and the western
139 lowlands. Considering the natural climatic zones (variability of rainfall and temperature), this
140 paper categorizes Kerala into three regions as northern Kerala (districts of Kasaragod, Kannur,
141 Wayanad, Kozhikode, and Malappuram), central Kerala (districts of Palakkad, Thrissur,
142 Ernakulam, Idukki and Kottayam districts) and southern Kerala (districts of Thiruvananthapuram,
143 Kollam, Alappuzha and Pathanamthitta districts) for the analysis [Figure 1 (a)].

144

145 **Data sources and methodology**

146 Daily gridded rainfall data of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ spatial resolution (65 grid points) for the period
147 from 1901 to 2018 and temperature data of $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ spatial resolution (5 points) for the period from
148 1951 to 2018 were procured from the IMD, Pune (Pai et al. 2014). The scatter plots were prepared

149 by averaging all the grid points in each region (24, 27 and 14 grid points for north, central and
150 south zones respectively) of Kerala for annual and seasonal time steps. The spatial variation of the
151 rainfall characteristics within each zone is neglected. The temperature data was not regridded (2, 2
152 and 1 for north, central and south zones respectively) as the spatial variation of temperature within
153 each zone of Kerala was not significant. The trend was detected at 5% significance level using the
154 Mann-Kendall trend test and the magnitude of the trend was quantified using the Sen's Slope
155 estimator. The long-term trends of seasonal and annual climate (rainfall, temperature) for the three
156 zones of Kerala were generated using daily recorded values of climatic variables for robustness.

157
158 In this study, 24 climate indices were evaluated on an annual basis based on daily climate
159 variables for the base period 1901-2018 to detect climate change signals and suit a wide range of
160 applications such as periods of dryness, wetness, heat or cold, periods of mildness as in the case
161 of the growing season. The climate indices were calculated following the guidelines provided by
162 the World Climate Research Programme (ETCCDI 2021). The thresholds for extreme climate
163 indices were chosen to indicate the number of days exceeding percentile thresholds and are more
164 meaningful since they are evenly distributed in space and time. These thresholds were set such that
165 the frequency of threshold crossing the base period is fixed. 90th, 95th, and 99th percentile values
166 were used to obtain the number of days having precipitation more than the upper limit threshold
167 and these indices are denoted as R90, R95, and R99 respectively. Precipitation contribution from
168 these days in each year was denoted as R90p, R95p, and R99p. Similarly, the number of days
169 having precipitation less than the lower limit threshold (1st, 5th, and 10th) for each year was
170 calculated (R1, R5, and R10) and precipitation contribution from these days in each year (R1p,
171 R5p, and R10p) was also determined.

172

173 Twelve extreme indices for temperature were adopted to understand the variation of
174 temperature indices among extreme and average years as per ETCCDI guidelines. TX90, TX95,
175 and TX99 (denoting warm days) were evaluated for the number of days having a maximum
176 temperature greater than the threshold value of 90th, 95th, and 99th percentile of daily time series.
177 Similarly, TX1, TX5, and TX10 (denoting cold days) were evaluated for the number of days in
178 each year when daily maximum temperature was less than 1st, 5th, and 10th percentile of daily time
179 series. TN1, TN5, and TN10 were denoted for cold nights having daily minimum temperature
180 below 1st, 5th and 10th percentile, and TN90, TN95, and TN99 were the warmer nights having a
181 daily minimum temperature greater than the threshold (90th, 95th, and 99th). The list of indices used
182 in this study and their definitions are available elsewhere (ETCCDI 2021).

183

184 The Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) used for quantifying meteorological drought in
185 this study was evaluated using long-term precipitation data for 118 years (1901-2018). For the
186 computation of SPI values, daily gridded rainfall data was integrated in to monthly scale and each
187 grid point is considered as a station. The precipitation data were fit into gamma distribution and
188 later transformed to normal distribution to ensure SPI for the desired location and period is zero
189 (Edwards and McKee 1997). A unix - style filter was used for the calculation of SPI values at
190 different time scales in the present study. This enabled SPI calculation for six-time scales at a given
191 time and location. To quantify the intensity of drought, consecutive negative SPI values up to -1
192 or less were considered as the occurrence of a drought event. Droughts were further classified as
193 Mild Drought (SPI of -0.5 to -0.99), Moderate Drought (-1.0 to -1.49), Severe Drought (-1.50 to -
194 1.99) and Extreme Drought (<-2) (McKee et al. 1993). The nonparametric Mann-Kendall test used
195 by many researchers (Taylor and Loftis 1989; Burn 1994; Burn et al. 2004; Thomas et al. 2015)
196 was applied to identify the trends in the SPI time series. The methodology of the present
197 investigation is shown in Figure 2.

198

199 **Results and Discussion**

200 *Trend Analysis*

201 *Rainfall*

202 The statistics for zonal average rainfall were obtained from the daily gridded data for the
203 period 1901 to 2018 and are presented in Table 1. It is evident that the annual average rainfall in
204 northern Kerala (3211mm) is more than the other two zones and the southern districts of Kerala
205 receive the least rainfall (2308mm). The north-east monsoon, winter and summer rainfall increase
206 towards the south in Kerala. The spatial distribution of rainfall showed a strong gradient in the
207 rainfall received by the three zones [Figure 1(b)] from the sea coast to the Western Ghats. The
208 immediate windward side of the Western Ghats receives less rainfall due to the higher altitude.
209 Thus, topography plays an important role in the distribution of precipitation over the region. The
210 temporal distribution indicates that southern Kerala receives more rainfall during winter and
211 summer seasons as compared to the other two zones. But the coefficient of variation was highest
212 in winter followed by the summer rainfall (Table 1). The topography of the Western Ghats plays
213 a role in intercepting rainfall and studies report the maximum rainfall occurs at a certain distance
214 on the windward side from the crest of the Western Ghats (fig. 1b) and depends on the mountain
215 barrier followed by the steepness of windward side slope and altitude of the mountain (Mudbhatkal
216 and Mahesha, 2018; Tawde and Singh 2015). Since the Western Ghats do not extend up to the
217 southern end, there could be the least interference on the north-east monsoon for southern Kerala.

218

219 The trend of rainfall over 118-years was analyzed on an annual and seasonal basis and
220 these trends are illustrated using scatter plots. From Figure 3 (a-e), it may be observed that rainfall
221 over all three regions of Kerala has been decreasing over time. The interannual/decadal variations
222 from the average rainfall exist but there is no clear evidence to suggest that the strength and

223 variability of the monsoon rainfall are dependent either on global warming or El Nino- Southern
224 Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon during the study period as was confirmed earlier (Kripalani et
225 al. 2003; Sameer et al. 2020). There was no change in the trend during the 1990s which was the
226 warmest decade of the previous century. A decreasing trend was observed for annual and seasonal
227 time steps and the magnitude of decrease in northern Kerala was more pronounced compared to
228 central and southern regions. The results of the Mann-Kendall trend test and Sen's slope estimator
229 are presented in Table 2. The decrease in annual rainfall is more in northern Kerala compared to
230 the other two regions. The magnitude of decrease in annual and south-west monsoon rainfall
231 northern Kerala was found to be 5 mm/year and 6 mm/year (at 5% significance level) respectively.
232 The south-west monsoon also shows a decrease of 3.36 mm/year in southern Kerala. Results for
233 central Kerala show a decrease but were found not to be significant statistically. The study on
234 subdivisions of India reported that annual rainfall in Kerala is decreasing at the rate of 1.3% of
235 mean/100 years (Kumar et al. 2010). North-east monsoon rains contribute to mean rainfall of 385
236 mm to 530 mm/year and a statistically significant decrease was found in northern Kerala and
237 central Kerala (1 mm/year). However, southern Kerala did not portray a significant trend which
238 could be due to the absence of Western Ghats barrier against the north-easterly winds. The winter
239 rainfall was found to decrease in all three zones with high statistical significance. It may be noted
240 that the mean rainfall during winter ranges from 36 mm/year (northern Kerala) to 94 mm/year
241 (southern Kerala). The summer rainfall of 293 mm/year (north Kerala) to 442 mm/year (south
242 Kerala) which is crucial in moderation of temperature in hot summer months did not exhibit a
243 significant decrease across the state. These findings were justified with earlier studies on the
244 analysis of monsoon rainfall with the ENSO phenomenon and Darwin Pressure Tendency (DPT)
245 (an index of ENSO) indicating that the relationship has changed sign around 1990 and showed
246 maximum positive relationship during the 1990s (Kripalani et al., 2003, Reddy and Ganguly,
247 2012).

248

249 The trend of rainy days (rainfall >2.5 mm/year) was further evaluated and a general
250 decrease in rainy days was observed [Figure 4 (a-e)]. The number of rainy days signifies the
251 intensity of rainfall and is a vital factor in runoff generation, deep percolation, and other aspects
252 of the hydrological cycle. The annual average rainy days experienced by northern Kerala, central
253 Kerala, and southern Kerala are 170, 180, and 180 days respectively. The results of the trend
254 analysis of rainy days across various seasons are presented in Table 3. The results show that the
255 number of annual rainy days is decreasing across all the three zones of Kerala but, the decrease
256 was significant in central and southern Kerala (2.8 days/decade). In the case of northern Kerala,
257 the decrease in the rainy days during the winter season was statically significant. All the seasons
258 in central Kerala show a significant decrease in rainy days especially during south-west monsoon
259 (1 day/decade) and north-east monsoon (0.7 days/decade). The decreasing rainy days in southern
260 Kerala during all the seasons except summer is significant. Extended dry spells and a decline of
261 agricultural production in Kerala have been reported in recent times (Guhathakurta and Rajeevan
262 2008; Pal and Al-Tabbaa 2009). The study carried out on increasing temperatures and precipitation
263 extremes (Mukherjee et al., 2018) indicated that anthropogenic warming contributes to an increase
264 in the frequency of precipitation extremes and may have implications on infrastructure, agriculture,
265 and water resources in India.

266

267 It is interesting to note that the decrease in rainy days is more pronounced in central and
268 southern regions of Kerala although total rainfall does not indicate a more pronounced decrease.
269 This leads to an inference that although there is a decrease in rainy days, central and southern
270 Kerala are receiving higher intensity of rainfall for shorter durations. This is in agreement that
271 extreme heavy events (>95th percentile) are increasing in intensity and/or frequency across
272 peninsular India (Bisht et al., 2018; Dash et al., 2009, 2011; Goswami, et al., 2006; Krishnamurthy

273 et al., 2009; Malik et al., 2016; Mukherjee et al., 2018; Rajeevan et al., 2008; Roy & Balling, 2004;
274 Vittal et al., 2013). These increasing extremes are dominated by an increase in short duration (≤ 4
275 days) but intense (>99 th percentile) rainfall spells (Dash et al., 2011; Vinnarasi and Dhanya, 2016)
276 since longer duration events are decreasing. A direct consequence of a high-intensity rainfall for
277 shorter durations is abnormal rainfall to runoff conversion triggering an increase in natural
278 disasters such as landslides. This is because high-intensity rainfall saturates soil on the slopes and
279 soils with higher clay content having more water retention capacity and low drainage result in high
280 pore pressure along the slopes. This is evident in the state of Kerala which has been witnessing
281 major monsoon-related landslides during the years 2018, 2019, and 2020 (NRDF 2019) which
282 experienced heavy rainfall (up to 164% excess of monthly average) occurred over a few days
283 during August. The issue is exacerbated by heavy loading on the slopes by buildings on the cut-
284 and-fill ground (usually without adequate protective measures on the uphill and downhill sides)
285 which may generally be observed in Kerala. It is also a general practice in Kerala to create small
286 pits (makeshift reservoirs) by altering hillslopes to store water for irrigation by obstructing natural
287 drainage. These reservoirs lead to increased infiltration and super saturation of soil along hillslopes
288 (Wadhawan et al. 2020).

289

290 *Temperature*

291 The spatial variation of mean annual temperature over Kerala is shown in Figure 1 (c) and
292 mean temperatures are higher towards the south. This study analyzed the mean, maximum, and
293 minimum temperature over Kerala on an annual and seasonal basis to evaluate climate change
294 signals and its effects in moderation of long-term climate. The scatter plots for long-term variation
295 of mean temperature for annual, south-west monsoon, north-east monsoon, winter, and summer
296 seasons are presented in Figure 5 (a-e). A continual rise in mean temperatures over time may be
297 observed across all the time steps. The increase in temperature was further quantified and the

298 results are shown in Table 4. Results indicate a higher rate of warming in northern Kerala at the
299 rate of 0.13°C/decade (statistically significant at 5%) and 0.12°C/decade in central and southern
300 Kerala. Increasing mean temperatures during south-west and north-east monsoon over the entire
301 state indicate overall warming. A recent study of borehole temperature profiles and surface air
302 temperature (SAT) profiles (Jha et al. 2020) over the Western Ghats of India also reports warming
303 of 0.8 ± 0.2 °C over the past 100 years in the region.

304
305 The rate of increase in annual maximum temperature was highest in southern Kerala
306 (0.21°C/decade), 0.20°C/decade in northern Kerala, and 0.18°C/decade in central Kerala (Table
307 S2). The results also reveal an increase in maximum temperature during south-west monsoon over
308 all the three zones (0.20, 0.20, 0.22°C/decade for northern Kerala, central Kerala and southern
309 Kerala respectively). The south-west monsoon season being the principal crop season of Kerala,
310 the increased temperature may implications on crop behavior and yield. The rate of increase in
311 minimum temperature is shown in Table S3. The increase of annual minimum temperature per
312 decade in northern, central, and southern Kerala was found to be 0.05°C, 0.06°C, and 0.06°C
313 respectively. Also, the minimum temperature during south-west monsoon and north-east monsoon
314 across Kerala were seen to increase. An increase in maximum and minimum temperatures at such
315 high rates is a cause of serious concern as it can be inferred as a 1°C rise in future temperature
316 within less than five decades. Studies have reported that increasing temperatures could lead to an
317 increase in the frequency of precipitation extremes especially in southern India (Mukherjee et al.
318 2018) and this is observed from the present study over Kerala which could be due to anthropogenic
319 warming and an increase in extreme precipitation over last few years.

320

321 *Extreme climate indices*

322 *Precipitation Indices*

323 The extreme precipitation indices were computed at the annual scale and results of trend
324 analysis of indices are presented in Table 5. The results suggest that trend of analysis of extreme
325 indices is not uniform over the entire state (Figure S1). It may be seen that dry days are increasing
326 at an alarming rate in all three regions of Kerala. The trend analysis was also carried out for a
327 higher threshold (90th and 99th percentile) and a significant reduction was observed over northern
328 and southern Kerala. R99 index was significant only in northern Kerala indicating a decrease in
329 extreme wet days [Figure S1 (a-b)]. The central region did not portray statistically significant
330 changes in high precipitation indices. The Mann-Kendall trend test and Sen's slope estimator
331 suggest that R95 and R95p [Figure S1 (c-d)] over northern Kerala and southern Kerala show a
332 strong and significant decreasing trend whereas the negative trend of R95 in central Kerala was
333 not statistically significant in central Kerala. Temporal variations in R95p were observed in
334 northern Kerala (decreasing from 1246 mm in 1901 to 120 mm in 2016). It may be observed that
335 the R5 index has increased all over Kerala [Figure S1 (g)] indicating the number of days where
336 the precipitation depth is less than the 5th percentile is increasing across Kerala. The increasing
337 trend in R5 was found to be significant over central and southern Kerala (55 to 103 days). At the
338 same time, R5 showed a weak and insignificant increase over northern Kerala but statistically
339 significant in central and southern Kerala.

340

341 *Maximum Temperature Indices*

342 The long-term scatter graphs of maximum temperature indices over Kerala are presented
343 in Figure S2. A dominant increasing trend of hot days over the entire state is indicated from the
344 analysis of temperature indices. TX95 which is a measure of hot days increased from 0 days in
345 1951 to 73 days in 2016 in northern Kerala which is a matter of concern. Also, in southern Kerala,
346 TX95 was found to have a prominent increasing trend (4.4 days/decade) compared to other parts
347 of the state. Figure S2 (e) depicts TX5 (lowest daytime temperature or cold days) trend over Kerala

348 which indicates a significant decreasing trend over the state. The TX5 index value was 15 in 1951
349 for northern Kerala and it has decreased to 3 in 2017. This reduction in the number of cold days in
350 northern Kerala is very alarming. The trend analysis results of maximum temperature indices are
351 tabulated in Table S3. The trend analysis was also carried out for other thresholds of extremes of
352 daily maximum temperature (90th and 99th percentile for higher threshold and 1st and 10th percentile
353 for the lower threshold).

354

355 *Minimum Temperature Indices*

356 Figure S3 shows the trends of minimum temperature indices over Kerala and results are
357 tabulated in Table S4. The results indicated a significant increase in TN95 throughout the state
358 except for southern Kerala and the number of warm nights has increased from 14 (1951) to 56
359 (2017) in northern Kerala. The value of TN95 has increased to a maximum of 1.6 days/decade in
360 north Kerala. The trend analysis was also carried out for 90th and 99th percentiles of daily minimum
361 temperature. It was found that TN90 is significantly increasing over the entire state whereas no
362 trend for TN99. Figure S2 (e) presents the trend of TN5 over Kerala which is a measure of coldest
363 nights. TN5 exhibited a significant decreasing trend over central and southern Kerala. TN5 index
364 for central and southern Kerala exhibits a significant decreasing trend. The number of cold nights
365 (TN5) has decreased from 12 (1951) to 0 (2016) in southern Kerala. The value of TN5 has
366 decreased by 1.3 days/decade in southern Kerala which is higher compared to other parts of the
367 state.

368

369 *Drought analysis*

370 In this study, SPI was calculated at 1-, 3-, 6- and 12-month time scales (SPI1, SPI3, SPI6,
371 and SPI12) for 65 grid points in Kerala to assess the anomalies of total rainfall over 1901 to 2018.
372 Shorter time steps (SPI1 and SPI3) reflect short-term conditions and immediate impacts such as

373 soil moisture and streamflow in small streams. SPI3 is effective in highlighting available moisture
374 conditions in primary agricultural regions such as India. Medium accumulation period (SPI6)
375 reflects changes to streamflow, reservoir levels, and is also effective in reflecting rainfall over
376 distinct seasons (seasonal estimation of precipitation). Longer accumulation period (SPI12)
377 reflects changes to groundwater recharge and reservoir storage and streamflow in rivers (WMO
378 2012). Kumar et al. 2010 suggest interpreting SPI with caution while assessing the intensity of
379 drought and therefore the results of SPI in this study were interpreted by comparing with trend
380 analysis of rainfall to ensure the correctness of the interpretation of SPI values.

381
382 Using the calculated SPI values, drought frequency was calculated as number of drought
383 events in each category over 1901-2018. The drought frequency expressed in terms of percentage
384 of occurrence was calculated for all 65 rainfall grid points and for the four time scales adopted in
385 this study (SPI1, SPI3, SPI6, and SPI12). The percentage of occurrence for all 65 rainfall grid
386 points was then interpolated to determine the spatial variation of drought frequency in each
387 category of drought. Figure 6 presents the maps of Kerala showing the frequency of three drought
388 categories (moderate, severe and extreme) for SPI1, SPI3, SPI6, and SPI12. It may be observed
389 from Figure 6 that the frequency/percentage of occurrence of moderate drought over the study area
390 was 9.62% and higher in the southern and central parts of Kerala for 1- month time step. But, in
391 3-, 6- and 12- month time scales, the occurrence of moderate drought was higher in central and
392 northern Kerala. The percentage of occurrence of moderate drought in a 12-month time scale was
393 15.3%. Severe droughts occur more in southern and central regions of Kerala as compared to the
394 north. Severe drought occurrence is higher on a 12-month time scale and the percentage drought
395 occurrence was found to be 8.02%. The frequency of extreme drought is low in the study area as
396 compared to moderate and severe droughts. The occurrence of extreme drought is more in the
397 southern and central part of Kerala.

399 *Detailed analysis of SPI3*

400 SPI3 was used to indicate the soil moisture availability during cropping season in Kerala
401 and long-term temporal variation of SPI3 was analyzed for all the grid points in the study area.
402 The trend analysis of SPI3 was carried out for June, July, August, and September for all the grid
403 points in the 14 districts of Kerala. Most of the stations indicate a significant falling trend at a 5%
404 level. The recent severmost drought was in the year 2015 followed by in 2016. A drought severity
405 map for SPI3 corresponding to August 2005 [Figure 1 (d)] shows most of Kerala is subjected to
406 extreme drought ($SPI < -2$) during August 2005. The drought severity map for other duration SPI
407 are shown in Fig. S4. The areal extent of doesn't show much difference with variation of SPI
408 duration and as duration SPI increased, the southern and south-eastern part of Kerala got relieved
409 from drought. The severity of drought for SPI3 on station-basis in August 2005 showed an SPI
410 value of -3.23. In Thiruvananthapuram district of south Kerala, the maximum SPI value (-4.53)
411 occurred during April 1983 (summer). In Kollam, Pathanamthitta, Alappuzha and Kottayam
412 districts, the highest severity of drought occurred in August 2005 at station 5 (-5.07), station 8 (-
413 4.24), station 14 (-4.61) and station 17 (-4.11) respectively. In Idukki district, maximum SPI3 value
414 was found in station 24 in August 1987 (-3.55). The results of SPI3 reveal that all other districts
415 in Kerala experienced extreme drought in August 2005 indicating a likely water-deficit in the state
416 of Kerala.

417

418 **Conclusions**

419 The investigations on trends of climate variables for the state of Kerala, India were carried
420 out considering its dependency on the monsoon rains. The declining trend of annual and seasonal
421 rainfall was detected for the entire state based on the long-term data for 118 years (1901 – 2018).
422 The south-west monsoon rainfall is predominantly decreasing in north Kerala compared to the

423 other two regions of the state. The declining trend of annual and south-west monsoon in northern
424 Kerala (63 mm/decade and 55 mm/decade) and southern Kerala (34 mm/decade and 24
425 mm/decade) were found to be significant. The monsoon rains being the major source of water, the
426 quantum of decrease would play a major in assessing the water availability for the entire year.

427
428 The average annual rainy days experienced by the northern, central, and southern Kerala
429 were 170 days, 180 days, and 180 days respectively. The results of the trend analysis of annual
430 and seasonal rainy days showed a decreasing trend for all the three regions of Kerala. The Mann-
431 Kendall analysis for the number of rainy days showed a declining trend of annual rainy days (2.76
432 and 2.76 days/decade), south-west monsoon (1.1 and 1.3 days/decade), north-east monsoon (0.7
433 and 0.5 days/decade) and winter (0.4 days/decade and 0.3 days/decade) in central and southern
434 Kerala. The decrease of annual and seasonal rainy days (except for winter) in northern Kerala has
435 no significance. Compared to the other zones, central Kerala experienced a maximum decrease in
436 the number of rainy days (annual). The decrease in rainy days is more during the south-west
437 monsoon all over the state. It is important to note that the implications of higher intensities of
438 rainfall over a shorter period (fewer rain days) are leading to faster filling up of makeshift
439 reservoirs/pits and major landslides in Kerala affecting human lives which were reported over the
440 recent years in central Kerala.

441
442 The average annual mean temperature during 1901-2018 for northern, central, and southern
443 Kerala was 24.3, 23.9, and 27 °C respectively. The temperature of central Kerala is comparatively
444 lesser than the other two regions with southern Kerala being the hottest region. The results indicate
445 that northern Kerala and southern Kerala have the highest rate of temperature rise. The increase of
446 annual mean temperature in northern Kerala is 0.13°C/decade and 0.12°C/decade in central and
447 southern Kerala. The regression and Sen's slope analysis for mean, minimum, and maximum

448 temperature shows an annual and seasonal increase for all three regions of Kerala. The increase of
449 annual, south-west, and north-east minimum temperature is statistically significant in all the three
450 regions. The increase in maximum temperature during the south-west monsoon season which is
451 the main cropping season may have implications on the crop characteristics and yield. The
452 minimum temperature during the winter and summer season is increasing whereas it has no
453 statistical significance in north Kerala.

454
455 The extreme climate indices R95 and R95p show a strong decreasing trend over northern
456 Kerala and southern Kerala. It may be observed that the R5 index (extreme dry days) has increased
457 overall the three parts of Kerala but significant in central Kerala and southern Kerala only. The
458 warm days (TX90, TX95, and TX99) have increased all over the state which is a matter of concern
459 due to the impact on the agricultural sector. Also, in southern Kerala TX95 showed the highest
460 increasing trend (4.4 days/decade) compared to other parts of the state. TX5 (cold days) exhibits a
461 significant decreasing trend in all over Kerala. This reduction in the number of cold days in
462 northern Kerala is very alarming with a reduction of 4.2 days/decade. The results indicated that
463 there is a significant increase in TN95 in northern Kerala and central Kerala. It is found that TN90
464 is significantly increasing over the entire state whereas increasing TN99 has significance in
465 northern Kerala. The index TN5 exhibited a significant decreasing trend in central Kerala and
466 southern Kerala. This increase in long-term temperature would have an impact on heatwaves,
467 reduction in annual water availability, sea-level rise, and loss of agricultural yield.

468
469 The frequency analysis of SPI values shows that the percentage of occurrence of moderate,
470 severe, and extreme drought in terms of SPI values is high and increases from SPI1 to SPI12. The
471 moderate, severe, and extreme drought occurred more in southern and central Kerala than in
472 northern Kerala. The trend analysis of SPI3 revealed that most of the stations in Kerala show a

473 significant falling trend in the SPI values indicating that, the severity of the drought is increasing
474 in the study area. From the trend analysis, it was found that all the stations in Kerala experienced
475 a drought of varying severities during the study period with extreme drought (SPI3<-2) in August
476 2005. Therefore, this paper concludes with an attempt to investigate and link several pressing
477 environmental issues in Kerala to climate change signals and to cater to a wide range of readership.
478 The outcomes of this investigation may be useful for sustainable regional planning.

479

480 **Data availability**

481 Some or all data, models, or code used during the study were provided by a third party. Direct
482 requests for these data may be made to the India Meteorological Department (IMD), Pune.

483

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