

# Simple Short-Term Probabilistic Drought Prediction Using Mediterranean Teleconnection Information

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Mediterranean Teleconnection Information	2
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## Abstract

Timely forecasts of the onset or possible evolution of droughts is an important contribution to mitigate their manifold negative effects; therefore, in this paper, we propose a mathematically-simple drought forecasting framework gaining Mediterranean Sea temperature information (SST-M) to predict droughts. Agro-metrological drought index addressing seasonality and autocorrelation (AMDI-SA) was used in a Markov model in Urmia lake basin, North West of Iran. Markov chain is adopted to model drought for joint occurrence of different classes of drought severity and sea surface temperature of Mediterranean Sea, which is called 2D Markov chain model. The proposed model, which benefits suitability of Markov chain models for modeling droughts, showed improvement results in prediction scores relative to classic Markov chain model not including SST-M information, additionally. 

Keywords Drought Forecasting, Teleconnection, Markov Model, Mediterranean Sea, Model19Evaluation, Skill Score20

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Early warning/prediction of droughts is a significant contribution to drought preparedness. Statistical methods are routinely utilized for drought modeling and forecasting like other problems in hydrology and water resources. This is because most, if not all, hydrological processes such as extreme events have some degree of randomness. Most probabilistic methods used assume that the extreme hydrological values are stationary. However, research has shown that in some areas there are some types of Non-stationarities in hydrologic data (Salas and Obeysekera, 2014). Non-stationary may be due to normal changes in climate, particularly as a result of the low frequency components of climate change such as El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and ten years or even decades fluctuating components, such as Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO), the Pacific/North American Pattern (PNA) and Sea Surface Temperature (SST) in the Niño region or every other sea. These large-scale tele connections cause oscillations applied synchronously or with a delay in the amplitude of hydrologic events such as storms, floods, droughts and sea level (Biabanaki et al., 2014; Enfield et al., 2001; Jain and Lall, 2000; Jain and Lall, 2001; Meidani and Araghinejad, 2014; Park et al., 2010; Park et al., 2011). However, these components are used as an auxiliary tool in short term drought prediction in different studies using statistical methods such as linear regression (D'Arrigo and Wilson, 2008; Kumar and Panu, 1997; Wood and Lettenmaier, 2006; Yin, 1994), Artificial Neural Network (Hastenrath and Greischar, 1993; Silverman and Dracup, 2000), adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS) (Bacanli et al., 2009; Chang and Chang, 2006; Nayak et al., 2004) and Hidden Markov models (Kondrashov et al, 2004; Deloncle et al, 2007). Although some fairly complicated statistical methods were used, evidence of their superiority over a simple method which can gain teleconnection information was not presented. 

In Iran, Meidani and Araghinejad (2014) used time series of Mediterranean Sea surface 46 temperature (SST-M) to forecast river flows in south west of Iran. They showed that the use of 47 Mediterranean's information lead to improved results in comparison with using other common 48 indices, such as SOI, NAO or AMO (Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation). However, it is not 49 surprising, since Mediterranean Sea is the main source of moist air in Iran (Alijani and Harman, 50 1985). 51

Markov model is widely used for drought monitoring and prediction. The non-homogeneous 52 Markov chain approach was applied to time series of the Palmer Index for early warning aimed at 53 drought management (Lohani and Loganathan, 1997; Lohani et al., 1998). Cancelliere and Salas 54 (2004) used a Markov chain approach to study drought length properties. These studies show that 55 a stochastic approach may be useful for short term prediction and early warning as analyzed in 56 previous studies (Paulo et al., 2005; Paulo and Pereira, 2007). 57

During recent years, several studies were conducted to identify factors influencing the weather. In this regard, scientists have devoted much effort to find a mathematical relationship between climate variability with teleconnection information in order to alleviate some of the socially undesirable effects of sudden, unexpected occurrences of extremes such as droughts, floods, and widespread fires. El-Nino Southern Oscillation (ENSO), Southern oscillation index (SOI), Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), sea surface temperatures (SST), and geopotential height (GpH) vastly used to encourage investigation of the possibilities of forecasting rainfall and other elements of the weather. 

Here, values of Agro-Meteorological Drought Index addressing seasonality and autocorrelation
(AMDI-SA), showing drought severity, are categorized in 4 different classes and used in a Markov
framework. Additionally, joint occurrence of drought severity classes and Mediterranean Sea
68

surface temperature (SST-M) classes used to monitor and predict droughts in a two-dimensional69Markov chain model (2D-MCM) with 12 different transition classes. Since there is a time lag70between SST-M and correlated drought/wetness condition, prediction is made on the help of71known state of SST-M and previous state of drought.72

This research aims at modeling droughts in Urmia Lake basin, and predicting drought severity for73short lead times. The proposed framework easily exploits temperature information of the74Mediterranean Sea which is the original source of humidity in the region. It also provides75promising probabilistic predictions of droughts, conveying the prediction uncertainty information76which could be useful for operational drought management.77

#### 2 Material and Methods

#### 2.1 AMDI-SA

Having AMDI-SA, monthly soil moisture and precipitation data are used to calculate Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) and Standardized Soil-Moisture Index (SSI). SSI, see e.g., AghaKouchak (2014), can be defined in a similar way to SPI. In order to integrate the indices, copula framework is used. The Kendall distribution function of the fitted copula are normalized to construct AMDI-SA. For detailed procedure, see e.g. Bateni et al. (2018). Since AMDI-SA is a standardized index, it can be classified like SPI or other standardized indexes. In this study, 4 classes for droughts are used based on AMDI-SA values. Classes are descripted in table 1.

**Table 1** Classification of wetness/drought condition based on AMDI-SA values (modified from89

McKee	et	al.	(1993))
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Category	Description	Percentiles based on	Index Value

		Normal Distribution	
(1) N	Non Drought	50>	AMDI-SA≥0
(2) D0	Moderate Drought	16 to 50	-1 < AMDI-SA<0
(3) D1	Severe Drought	7 to 16	-1.5 < AMDI-SA≤-1
(4) D2	Extreme Drought	7>	-1.5≥AMDI-SA

AMDI-SA is a comprehensive agrometeorological drought index, which accounts seasonality and92autocorrelation. Since AMDI-SA is seasonally-adjusted, a single Markov model can be adopted to93model all its transitions. Moreover, time series of AMDI-SA values doesn't show high94autocorrelation, meaning that a first-order Markov model is adequate and the consideration of95higher-order models is not needed.96

## 2.2 Climate Teleconnection Indices

Accordingly, here Mediterranean Sea surface temperature is used as a climatic teleconnection index to predict droughts. In order to determine the time lag of influence of the teleconnection which is usually less than a year, eleven covariance matrices of teleconnection data for time lag of one to eleven months and AMDI-SA values are estimated. The covariance matrix which has the greatest (1st) norm, determines the time lag(D) of the influence of the teleconnection on the region. Since entire basin follow the same climate regime, the value of D is unique for basin as a whole. When the delay was determined, the teleconnection information for D months before, is used to model and predict current droughts. With the aim of compressing all spatial data covering Mediterranean Sea into one single value, Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) technique is used. According to the SVD procedure, a rectangular matrix A can be broken into the product of three 

$$\mathbf{A}_{mn} = \mathbf{U}_{mm} \mathbf{D}_{mn} \mathbf{V}_{n,n}^T \tag{1}$$

The columns of U are orthonormal eigenvectors of AA<sup>T</sup>; the columns of V are orthonormal 111 eigenvectors of A<sup>T</sup>A; and S is a diagonal matrix containing the square roots of eigenvalues from 112 U or V in descending order indicating the variance of linearly independent components along each 113 dimension. Firstly, two matrices including values of Mediterranean SSTs grid points and AMDI-114 SA were developed for 325 months. Then, the cross-covariance matrix for those was computed 115

$$Covvar = \frac{1}{n_{month}} \times \begin{pmatrix} SST - M_{1.1} & \dots & SST - M_{1.n_{month}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ SST - M_{m_g.1} & \dots & SST - M_{m_g.n_{month}} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} AMDI - SA_1 \\ \vdots \\ AMDI - SA_{n_{month}} \end{pmatrix}$$
(2) 116

By applying SVD decomposition for the covariance matrix,

$$SVD(Covvar) = \begin{bmatrix} U_{m_g.m_g} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} S_{1.1} & \cdots & 0\\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots\\ 0 & \cdots & S_{m_g.m_g} \end{pmatrix} \cdot V_{1.1}^T \end{bmatrix}$$
(3) 119

To have a single value for each time step, first Eigen value of the covariance matrix which has the120greatest contribution to justify variability is used. Therefore, the time series of SST-M to use as121teleconnection index is computed as follows:122

$$\begin{pmatrix} SST - M_1 \\ \vdots \\ SST - M_{n_{month}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} SST - M_{1.1} & \dots & SST - M_{1.m_g} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ SST - M_{n_{month} \cdot 1} & \dots & SST - M_{n_{month} \cdot m_g} \end{pmatrix} \times U(:.1)$$
(4) 123

As a useful measurement for comparing the relative importance of modes in the decomposition, 124 Bretherton et al. (1992) defines the Squared Covariance Fraction (SCF= $sv_i^2/\Sigma sv^2$ ) where  $sv_1^2$  125 represents each of the singular values. SCF is about 88% that shows possibility of the derived SST- 126 M values from SVD to show great share of variations of original information of SST-M for all grid127points. This quantity is an average for the whole basin which is more or less the same all over it.128Derived SST-M values are classified in two equiprobable classes to show cold and warm phases129of Mediterranean Sea.130

# 2.3 Markovian Modeling

A Markov process is a random process in which the future is independent of the past, given the 132 present. In discrete time, the process (X) is known as a discrete-time Markov chain which its 133 current state space  $(X_{t+1})$  depends only on a few limited number of its previous state  $(X_{t-k}, ..., X_{t-1}, 134$  $X_t$ ). Markov chain is defined by a set of finite numbers of classes (S), the probability of transition 135 between the states  $(Pr_{ij...u})$  and order of the chain (l). Hereafter, discussion is limited to first order 136 (l=1) Markov chains, used commonly in hydrological sciences. The independence of values that 137

are separated by more than one time period is not required by the first order Markov property. 138 Instead, it implies conditional independence of data values separated by more than one time period, 139 which means that the statistical dependence among elements of the time series decreases as time 140 lags increase (Wilks, 2011). 141

For a homogeneous Markov model, transition probabilities are independent of time. Elements of Transition matrix (T), which are probability of transitions, can be estimated by empirical relative frequency of class transitions. If the frequency distribution of modeled variable is known in advance, assumptions made to adopt a Markov chain model could be verified by comparing steady-state probability vector of modeled variable ( $\pi$ ) with the formerly known frequency distribution. However, in order to achieve a *limiting* steady-state distribution, the Markov chain process has to be regular which needs regularity of the transition matrix. Transition matrix (T) is called regular if, for some integer r, all entries of  $T^r$  are strictly positive. Therefore, for a regular transition matrix, 

- (1)  $T^n$  approaches  $T_{ST}$  as *n* approaches infinity, where  $T_{ST}$  is a matrix of the form 150  $[v_1, v_2, \dots, v_s]$  where each vector (v) has same repeating element. 151
  - (2) If  $X_i$  is any state vector, then as *n* approaches infinity,  $T^n X_i$  approaches  $\pi$ , where  $\pi$  is a fixed 152 probability vector (the sum of its entries is 1). 153

In drought modeling, the state space consists of different drought severity classes which are based 154 on values of an appropriate drought index. 155

Markov chain modeling allows the estimation of the drought class probabilities, which represent 156 the probabilities of occurrence of the various drought classes as an aid to water resources decision 157 makers. Besides, many other features of drought such as the expected residence time in each class 158 of severity and the expected first passage time could be evaluated using a Markov chain 159 framework. 160

#### 2.4 Evaluation of Probabilistic Forecasts

In order to address periodicity mainly caused by low-frequency components of climate variability, a 2D Markov chain model (2D-MCM) is proposed. Since AMDI-SA is not seasonal, a time-homogeneous framework is used for the chain. Joint occurrence of classes of SST-M, used as teleconnection information, and classes of drought severity, indicated by AMDI-SA values, consist classes of the Markov chain. Since there are 4 classes for drought severity based on AMDI-SA values and 3 classes for values of SST-M, 12 classes are made showing their joint occurrence conditioned the Markov chain model. It is worthwhile to mention that for example class number nine means that AMDI-SA shows severe drought (D1) while SST-M is in warm phase. As the teleconnection class is available for D months in advance and previous drought [severity] and transition probabilities are given before each time step, probabilistic prediction of AMDI-SA class is possible for the next month. In order to ensure about the adequacy of the model, the regularity 

#### 2.5 Evaluation of Probabilistic Forecasts

To evaluate the performance of the multicategory probabilistic forecasts of the models, accuracy 177 of probabilistic forecasts relative to polychotomous observations are measured. Furthermore, 178 sharpness of predictions and discrimination are also important attributes of a forecasting system to 179 be helpful as an aid for making decisions. 180

Here, Brier score, sharpness score and generalized discrimination score are used to evaluate181probabilistic forecast models adopted.182

#### 2.5.1 Brier Score (BS)

Brier Score proposed by Glenn W. Brier in 1950 (Brier, 1950), determines the magnitude of the184probability forecast errors. Brier score is used to evaluate accuracy of predictions, defined as185

$$BS = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{r=1}^{S} (p_{ir} - o_{ir})^2$$
(5) 186

where S is the number of classes, N is the total number of occasions,  $p_{ir}$  is the forecast probability187of rth class and  $o_{ir}$  is the observation probability of rth class (0 or 1), both at *i*th occasion. The188lower Brier score for a set of predictions, the better the predictions are calibrated. BS is Sensitive189to observational frequency of the event: the rarer an event, the easier it is to get a good BS without190having any real skill.191

## 2.5.2 Generalized Discrimination Score (GDS)

Generalized Discrimination Score shows the degree of correct probabilistic forecast 193 discrimination, even if the forecasts have biases or calibration problems. GDS is generalized to 194

encompass all forecast categories, produces values ranging from 0.5 for a set of probability scores without skill to 1 as the maximum perfect value (Mason and Weigel, 2009; Barnston et al., 2010). Let  $n_k$  and  $n_l$  be the number of observed events for category k and l, respectively. When S is the number of categories, GDS score is calculated as 

$$GDS = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{S-1} \sum_{l=k+1}^{S} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} \sum_{j=1}^{n_l} I(\boldsymbol{P}_{k,i}, \boldsymbol{P}_{l,j})}{\sum_{k=1}^{S-1} \sum_{l=k+1}^{S} n_k n_l}$$
(6) 199

where  $P_{k,i}$  is the vector of forecast probabilities for the *i*th forecast given category k, and 

$$I(\boldsymbol{P}_{k.i}, \boldsymbol{P}_{l.j}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } F(\boldsymbol{P}_{k.i}, \boldsymbol{P}_{l.j}) < 0.5\\ 0.5 & \text{if } F(\boldsymbol{P}_{k.i}, \boldsymbol{P}_{l.j}) = 0.5\\ 1 & \text{if } F(\boldsymbol{P}_{k.i}, \boldsymbol{P}_{l.j}) > 0.5 \end{cases}$$
(7) 201

The scoring rule  $F(\mathbf{P}_{k,i}, \mathbf{P}_{l,i})$  is defined as

$$F(\boldsymbol{P}_{k.i}, \boldsymbol{P}_{l.j}) = \frac{\sum_{q=1}^{S-1} \sum_{r=q+1}^{S} p_{k.i}(q) p_{l.j}(r)}{1 - \sum_{q=1}^{S} p_{k.i}(q) p_{l.j}(q)}$$
(8) 203

where  $p_{k,i}(q)$  is the forecast probability for the qh category, and for the *i*th observation in category k. The numerator of Eq. 6 sums the  $I(\mathbf{P}_{k,i}, \mathbf{P}_{l,i})$  outcomes over all qualifying pairs of forecasts; the denominator contains the number of pairs (Mason and Weigel, 2009). 

#### 2.5.3 Sharpness Score (SS)

Given two reliable forecast systems, the one producing the sharper forecasts is preferable to use. Analogous to formulation of coefficient of variation, a simple score is introduced here to compare the forecasting models: 

$$SS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{r=1}^{S} (p_{ir} - \mu_{ir})^2}$$
(9) 211

where  $\mu_{ir}$  is historical average probability of rth class at *i*th occasion. Values approaching 0 indicate an increasingly wider forecasts and values approaching  $\infty$  indicates increasingly sharper forecasts. 

 For all above scores, since nonzero values of predictions in both 1D and 2D cases are restricted to 215 number of drought classes, i.e. 4, *S* is assumed to be 4. 216

#### 2.6 Study Area

Urmia Lake basin is located between 37°4′ to 38°17′ latitude and 45°13′ to 46° longitude in 218 northwestern Iran (Fig. 1). The catchment area is shared between the three provinces West 219 Azerbaijan (21500 km<sup>2</sup>), East Azerbaijan (19000 km<sup>2</sup>) and Kurdistan (5000 km<sup>2</sup>) (Yekom 220 Consulting Engineer, 2005). The lake basin, as a unique socio-ecological region, is facing extreme 221 water shortages due to poor water governance and climate change (Alipour, 2006; Zarghami et al., 222 2009). Climate in the Urmia Lake basin is harsh and continental, affected mainly by the mountains 223 surrounding the lake (Ghaheri et al., 1999). The annual average precipitation is about 500 mm. 224

## **2.7 Data**

Because of the consistency and availability of the record for long-term, needed monthly 226 precipitation data for the basin is acquired from daily  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$  high resolution PERSIANN- 227 CDR (Ashouri et al., 2015) for the period 1983–2010. The accuracy of PERSIANN precipitation 228 data set family for Iran and Urmia Lake basin is demonstrated in some previous publications 229 (Moazami et al., 2013; Bodagh-Jamli, 2015; Ghajarnia et al., 2015; Katiraie-Boroujerdy et al., 231

In this paper, soil moisture is derived using ERA-Interim-Land surface fluxes and near-surface 232 meteorology to force the land surface model uses HTESSEL (Balsamo et al., 2015) for the period 233 of 1983–2010. It is considered that most of the roots vegetation distribution is in the first 3 layers 234 of soil in HTESSEL model (0-7cm, 7-28cm and 28-100cm). The 3 upper layers water content data 235 weighting averaged to have single value for each  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$  pixel. Both mentioned data sets are 236 global; however, the data of Urmia Lake basin are extracted and handled further, only. To consider 237

Monthly Mediterranean Sea surface temperature data which is used as a teleconnection information is obtained from NOAA Optimum Interpolation (OI) Sea Surface Temperature (SST) V2 for the period of 1983-2010 (NOAA\_OI\_SST\_V2) with resolution of  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ . Extracting the data of Mediterranean Sea and removing grids which are near coast to exclude ramifications of land disturbances, time series for 129 grid point are obtained. Performance evaluation of the forecasting system is done for the period of 2004-2010, which lake 

has been affected by prolonged droughts during that.

#### **3 Results**

The value of covariance is maximized when the teleconnection information corresponding to one month ago are considered in conjunction with the index of the current moment, i.e. the time lag D = 1 month.

To measure the ability of the forecasting system to detect droughts and discriminate between different classes of droughts, Brier Score (BS) and Generalized Discrimination Score (GDS) are evaluated for all data points in Urmia Lake basin. Furthermore, Sharpness Score (SS) adopted to assess the uncertainty of the model predictions are reported. To show the improvement contributed by the proposed model, average values of these scores for both case of all grid points for both 2D (including SST-M data) and 1D model (only AMDI-SA) are reported in Table 2. The spatial integration has the advantage of increasing the sample size used to build the scores. In case of BS and GDS, which score values are close, Fig. 2 and 3 shows spatial distributions of BS and GDS values for both 2D-MCM and 1D-MCM for all location points within the basin, 

respectively. Using Mediterranean-SST information, caused both BS and GDS to improve for 261 entire basin. As shown in Fig. 3, 2D-MCM leads to GDS values more than score of 0.5 (without 262 skill) for almost all points. 263

 BS
 GDS
 SS

 1D-MCM
 0.675
 0.531
 0.056

 2D-MCM
 0.653
 0.574
 0.072

**Table 2** Score values of the drought forecasting method for both 2D-MCM and 1D-MCM.264

The accordance of predicted state classes to observations is the main goal of any prediction 266 framework. In order to evaluate the accordance, frequency distribution of observed and predicted 267 class through performance evaluation period (2004-2010) for whole basin is showed in Fig. 4 and 268 5. Since, predictions are probabilistic vectors, probability values for each class are calculated by 269 element-wise averaging the vectors while empirical probability values are reported for 270 observations. 271

Transition probability matrix of both 1D and 2D Markov chain models are reported in Table 3 and
4. It can be shown all elements of 2nd power of both transition probability matrices are strictly
positive (regular matrix). Like previous studies using standardized drought indices (Paulo et al.,
274
2005), there is a strong diagonal tendency in Markov transition probability matrix. For 2D model,
275
since each 2 consecutive classes have the same drought severity, there is a 2-diagonal tendency.
276

State <i>i</i>		Sta	te j	
	1	2	3	4
1	0.810	0.155	0.021	0.014
2	0.221	0.681	0.080	0.018
3	0.125	0.293	0.432	0.151
4	0.095	0.149	0.231	0.525

**Table 4** Transition probability matrix of the 2D model (including SST-M data).

State	State j							
i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	0.594	0.228	0.097	0.040	0.015	0.008	0.012	0.007
2	0.264	0.531	0.054	0.123	0.006	0.014	0.001	0.008
3	0.196	0.077	0.423	0.212	0.043	0.029	0.012	0.008
4	0.052	0.125	0.210	0.508	0.033	0.056	0.007	0.009
5	0.099	0.035	0.275	0.111	0.191	0.152	0.070	0.068
6	0.043	0.073	0.073	0.158	0.126	0.360	0.055	0.111
7	0.087	0.024	0.151	0.069	0.172	0.059	0.262	0.177
8	0.039	0.044	0.041	0.062	0.079	0.148	0.152	0.438

# 4. Discussion

According to Table 2 and Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, the accuracy of prediction evaluated by Brier score is 283 significantly improved using teleconnection information of Mediterranean Sea surface 284



i.e. no changes of state are predictable.

**5.** Conclusions

temperature. The improvement is substantial for all location points within the Urmia basin. This highlights the fact that the main source of humidity in the basin is Mediterranean Sea. Both 1D and 2D Markov chain model do not show strong ability to discriminate between different classes of droughts (GDS<0.7) for most parts of the basin. However, 2D Markov chain model is more promising to discriminate. For a small share of location points within the basin, classical 1D model doesn't show any desirable skill to discriminate between drought classes, exceptionally. Comparison of Sharpness score for the proposed 1D and 2D Markov chain models indicate that 2D model produces sharper predictions. However, this attribute only matters when comparing two models of same accuracy. As indicated in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, since empirical probability of observed class number one (or one up to three in Fig. 5) is more than 0.5, the period of performance evaluation (2004-2010) is a wetter than normal period. Nevertheless, probability distributions of predictions produced by 1D and 2D models generally follow empirical distribution of observations. Diagonal tendency in transition probability matrices for both 1D and 2D models reflects the persistence of recent drought categories, more highlighted for classes with extreme drought severity: when the actual state is D2 the more probable state for a month ahead is the present state,

# This study was conducted to predict droughts, one of the world's natural hazards and controversial 304 issue. For this purpose, time series of an agro-meteorological drought index, namely AMDI-SA, 305 were used. The proposed Markov framework exploits the temperature information of the 306

Mediterranean sea - as the original source of humidity in the region - in order to perform the task	307
of prediction.	308
Application of Markov method provides a probabilistic qualitative model of droughts. On the other	309
hand, the nature of drought is qualitative. Therefore, probabilistic frameworks like Markov models	310
seem to be the most reasonable approach to model droughts.	311
Moreover, the probabilities of transition can be used in planning or operational mode for designing	312
mitigation measures as the drought evolves.	313
The prediction capability of the Markov models concerning short-term forecasts are limited by the	314
characteristics of the climate, which tends to be reproduced in these short-term forecasts. However,	315
taking advantage of teleconnection information improves performance of the drought early	316
warning system as well as enhancing the understanding of the evolution of drought events.	317
The proposed 2D Markov chain model, using teleconnection information, has promising values of	318
prediction evaluation scores. Since it doesn't have much mathematical burden, it is recommended	319
to use this model in all regions which its over-year variations certainly correlated to some climatic	320
teleconnections.	321
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NOAA_OI_SST_V2 data provided at their web site (NOAA, 2017).	323
Conflict of Interest	324
The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.	325
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 Fig. 1 Urmia Lake Basin in Iran

Fig. 2 Spatial Distribution of BS for Both 1D-MCM (left) and 2D-MCM (right) in Urmia Lake Basin

Fig. 3 Spatial Distribution of GDS for Both 1D-MCM (left) and 2D-MCM (right) in Urmia Lake Basin

**Fig. 4** Frequency Distribution of the Observed and the Model Predicted Classes for 1D Case (only AMDI-SA)

**Fig. 5** Frequency Distribution of the Observed and the Model Predicted Classes for 2D Case (including SST-M data)















