

# *The impact of tropical cyclones on drought alleviation in the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts*

*P. Fitzpatrick, C. Hill, and Y. Lau - Mississippi State University*

*H. Jiang – Florida International University*

*P. J. Klotzbach - Colorado State University*

*D. Roth – NOAA Hydrometeorological Prediction Center*

- *Background on hurricane rainfall*
- *Research results*

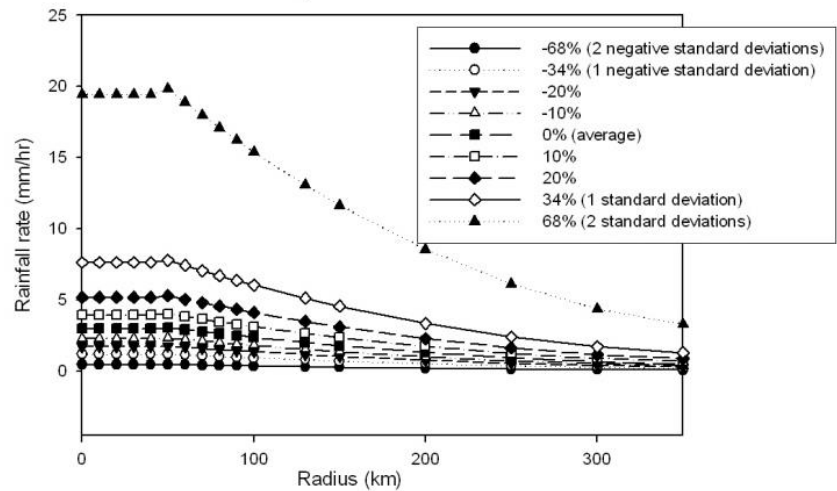
# Background on hurricane rainfall

## Monthly and seasonal rainfall contributions from hurricanes

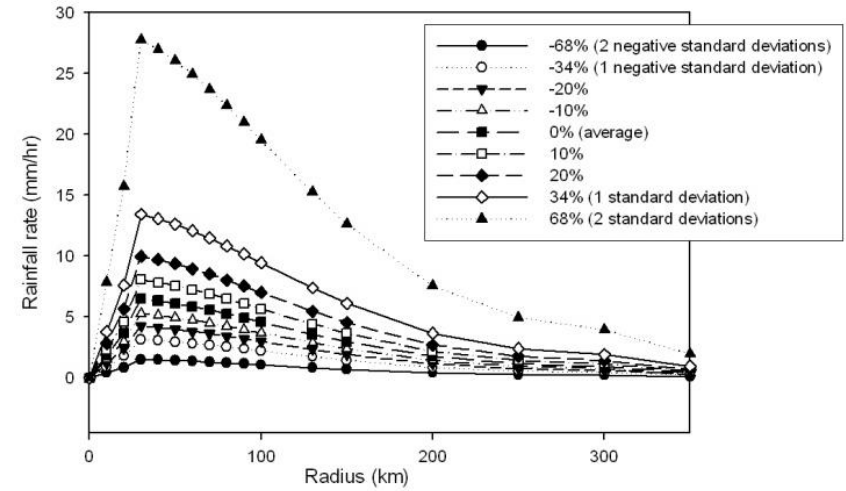
- Landfalling hurricanes contribute 15-20% of rainfall along Gulf Coast coast (Larson et al. 2005)
- Wide yearly contributions along East Coast of 3-16% (Nogueira and Keim 2010)
- Atlantic hurricanes contribute 8-9% of seasonal rainfall in that basin (Jiang and Zipser 2010)
- However, during the peak season, Atlantic hurricanes contribute 20% to that basin, suggesting they can end droughts at opportune times (no other ocean basin has a higher percentage)

Average rainfall is 3, 6, and 11 mm/hr for TS, Min Hurr, and Major Hurr – but large spread!

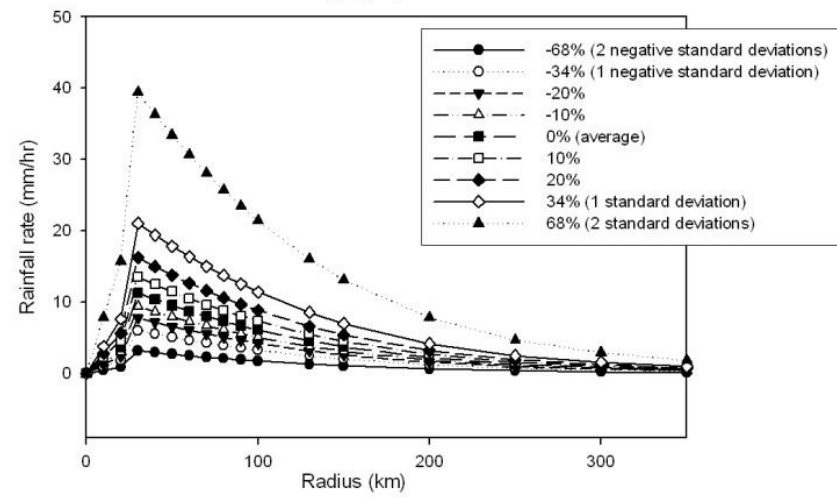
Radial structure of rainfall rate probability distribution functions for tropical storms



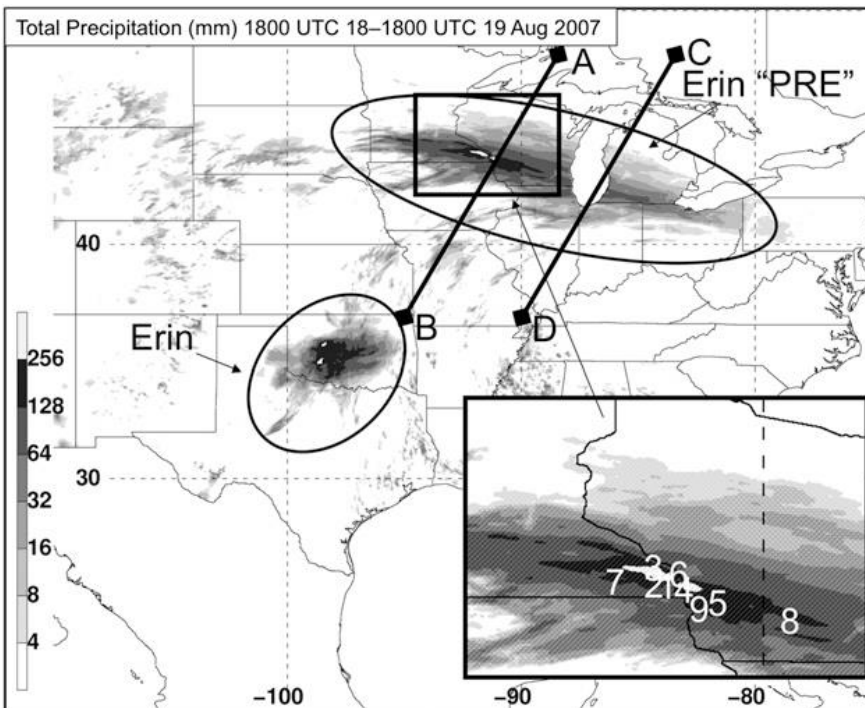
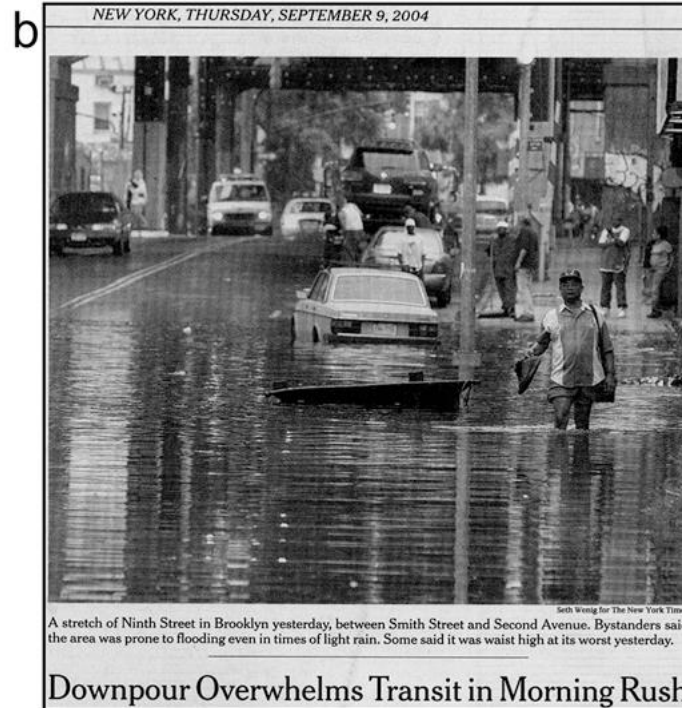
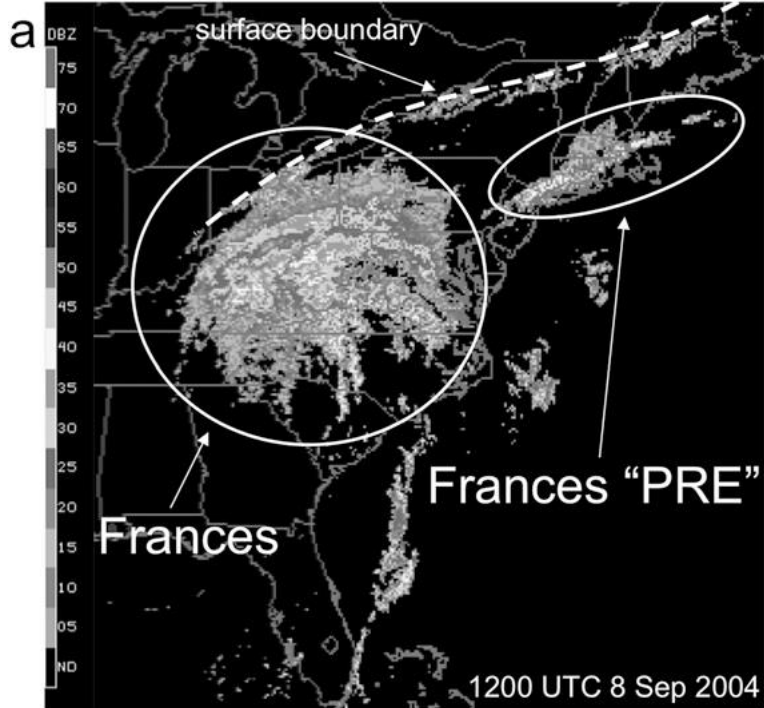
Radial structure of rainfall rate probability distribution functions for Category 1 or 2 hurricanes



Radial structure of rainfall rate probability distribution functions for Category 3, 4 or 5 hurricanes



From Fitzpatrick and Lau (2011)  
Based on Lonfat et al. (2007)



Can also have precursor rain events (Galarneau et al. 2010)

# Drought busting hurricane results

Hill and Fitzpatrick (2012)

Maxwell et al. (2012)

Sugg (1968)

# Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI)

Function of:

- Rainfall totals
- Potential moisture balance (evapotranspiration, soil water recharge, runoff)
- Recursive (influence by previous monthly PDI)
- Adjusted using a “climatic characteristic” coefficient to account for regional and seasonal variations for relatively homogenous regions

Assuming large monthly changes of PDSI are due to rainfall totals

## What constitutes drought alleviation?

### Palmer Drought Severity Index (Palmer 1965)

---

$PDSI \leq -4.0$	extreme
$-4.0 < PDSI \leq -3.0$	severe
$-3.0 < PDSI \leq -2.0$	moderate
$-2.0 < PDSI \leq -1.0$	mild
$-1.0 < PDSI \leq -0.5$	incipient
$PDSI \geq -0.5$	normal or wet conditions

---

PDSI is calculated monthly at each state climate division

An alleviated drought event (ADE) is defined here as:

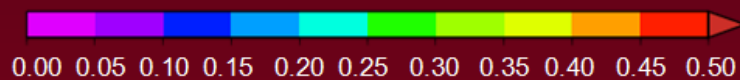
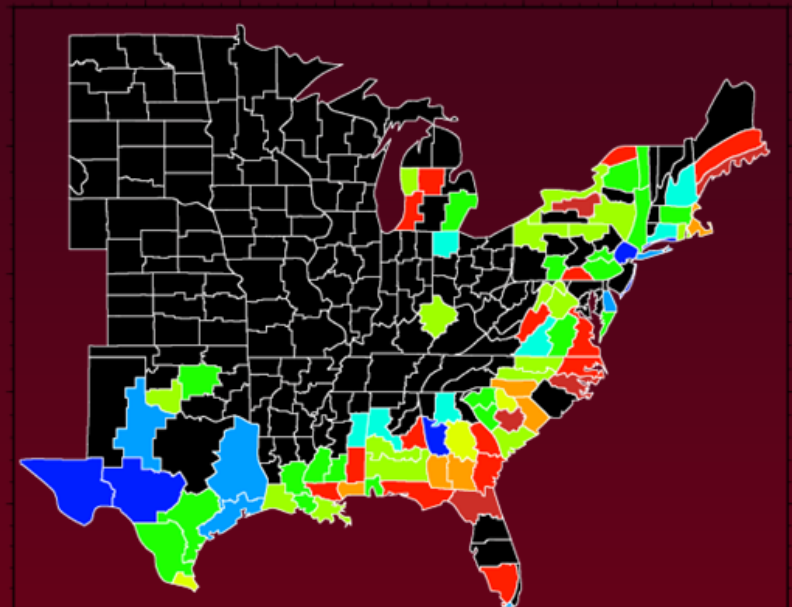
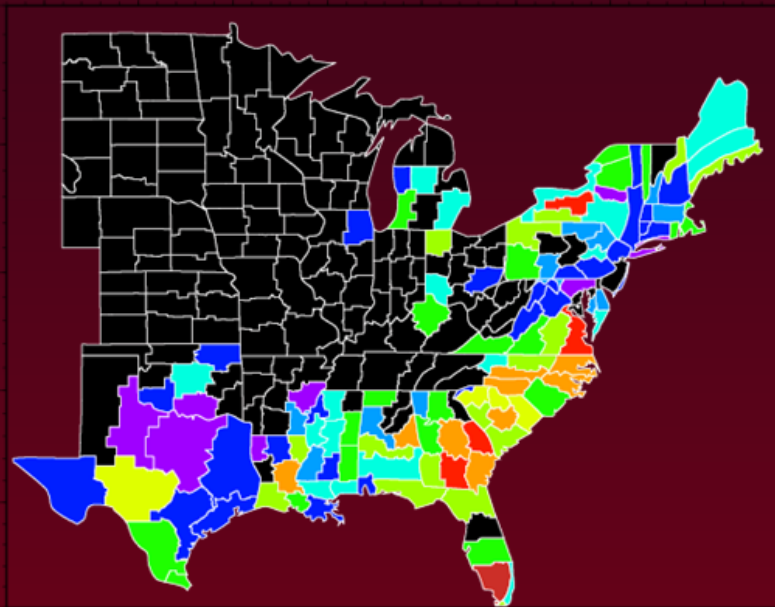
initial  $PDSI < -2.0$  (moderate drought or worse)  
increasing by  $+1.0$  or more (one or more categories)  
over the course of one month



# Percentage of droughts ended by tropical storms or hurricanes

TC-affected ADE frequency  
(150 km range)  
1960 - 2010

TC-affected ADE frequency  
(R34 range)  
1988 - 2010



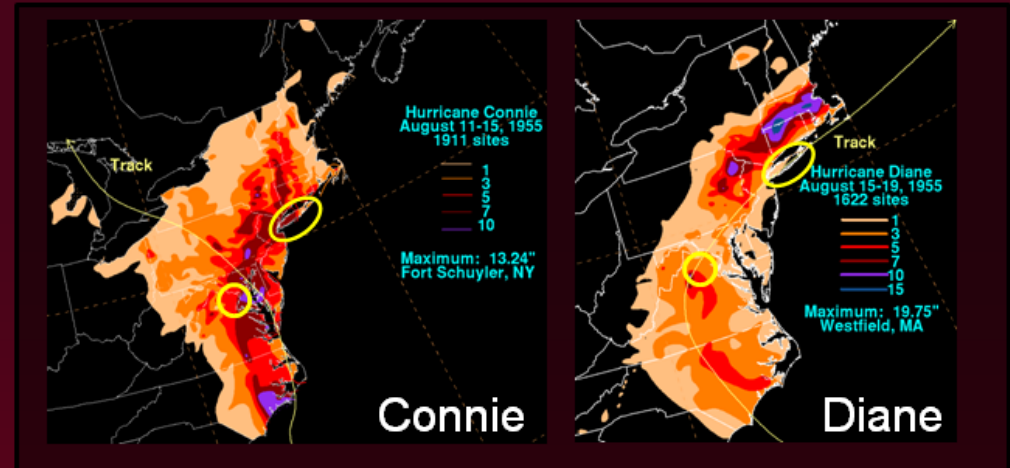
The frequency of ADEs contained within the {R = 150 km} circulation area of TC.

The frequency of ADEs contained within the R34 circulation area of TCs.

# Examples of significant drought alleviation by tropical cyclones

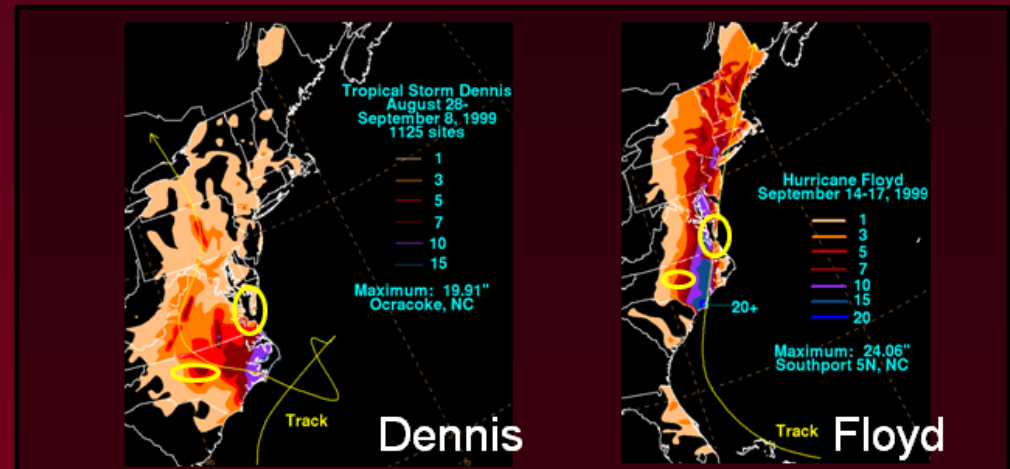
Connie was followed one week later by Diane during August 1955.

PDSI	VA-04	NY-04
July	-2.53	-3.27
August	2.69	2.06
<b>change</b>	<b>+5.22</b>	<b>+5.33</b>



Dennis was followed within two weeks by Floyd during September 1999.

PDSI	VA-01	NC-04
August	-2.34	-3.77
September	3.95	2.24
<b>change</b>	<b>+6.29</b>	<b>+6.01</b>



tropical cyclone rainfall data compiled by NOAA/NCEP/HPC

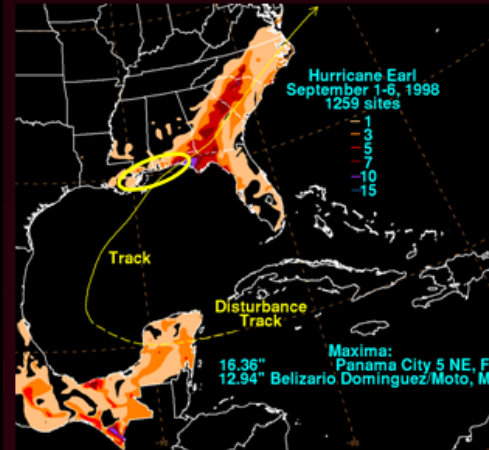
# Examples of significant drought alleviation by tropical cyclones

September 1998

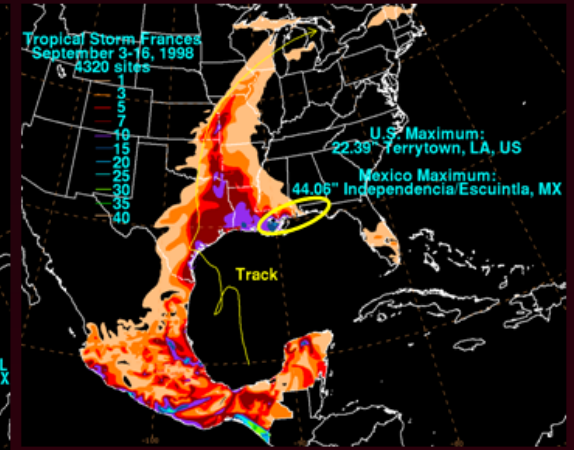
Four tropical cyclones contributed to the alleviation of a wide ranging drought along the Gulf Coast.

PDSI	LA-09	MS-10
August	-2.42	-2.17
September	2.51	2.81
<b>change</b>	<b>+4.93</b>	<b>+4.98</b>

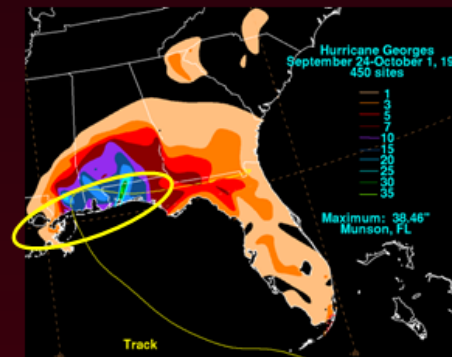
PDSI	FL-01	AL-08
August	-3.38	-2.14
September	2.94	2.61
<b>change</b>	<b>+6.32</b>	<b>+4.75</b>



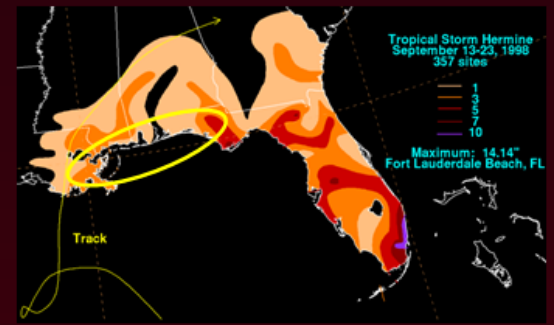
Earl



Frances



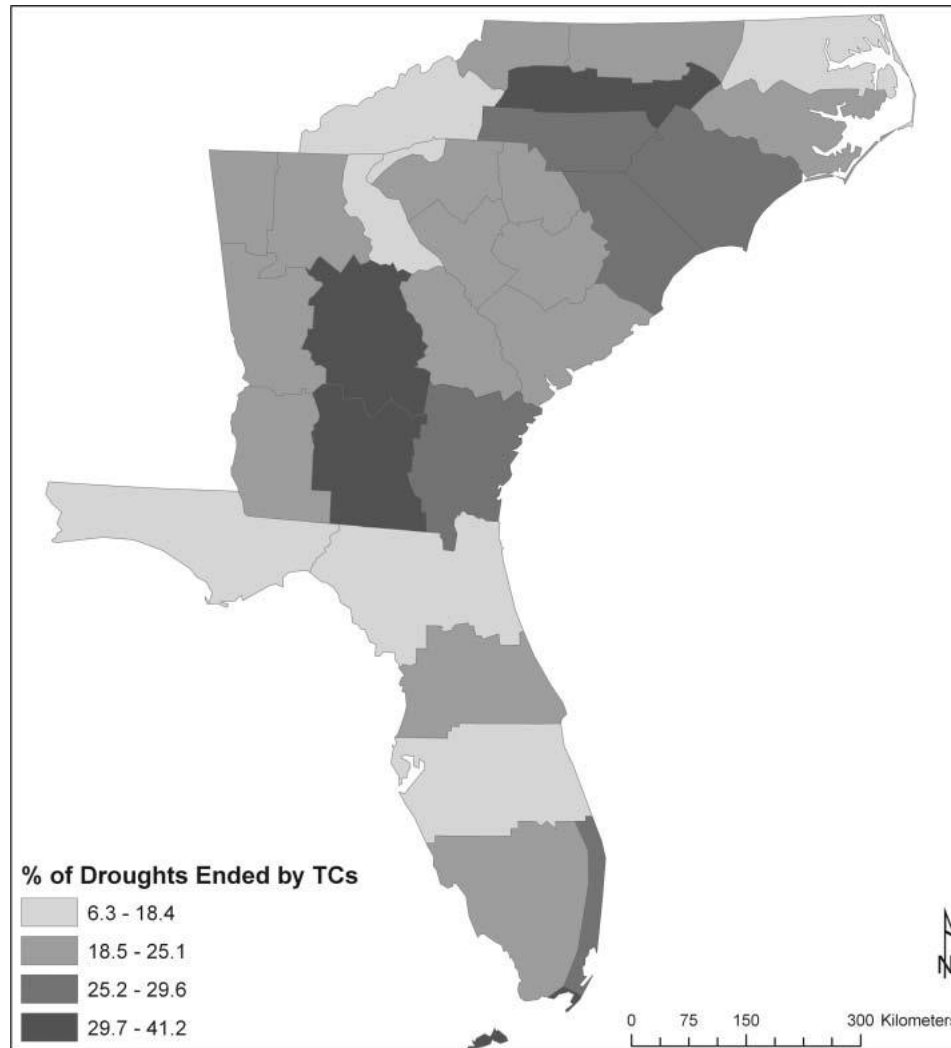
Georges



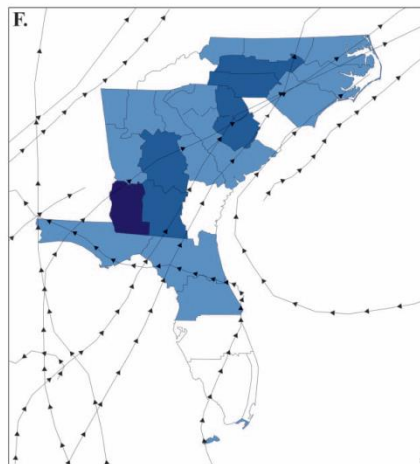
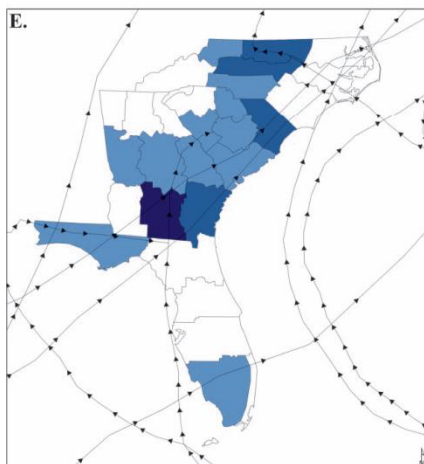
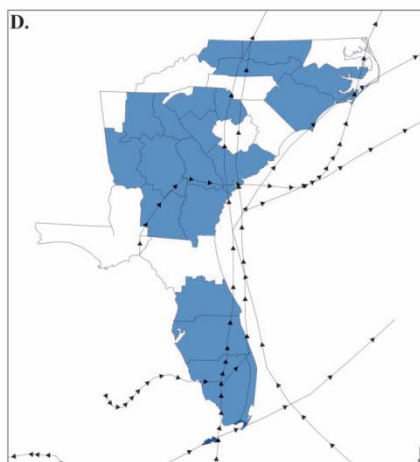
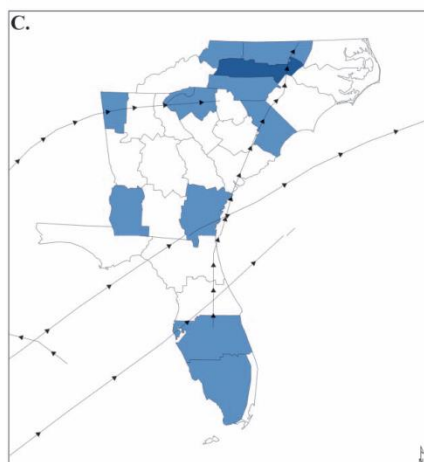
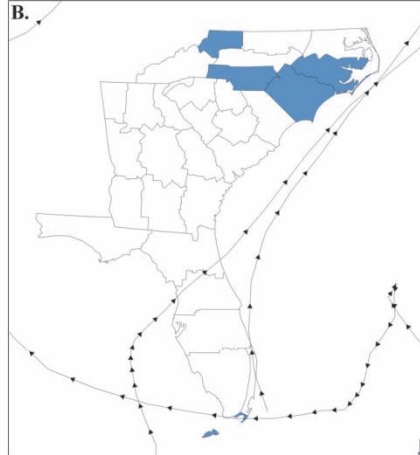
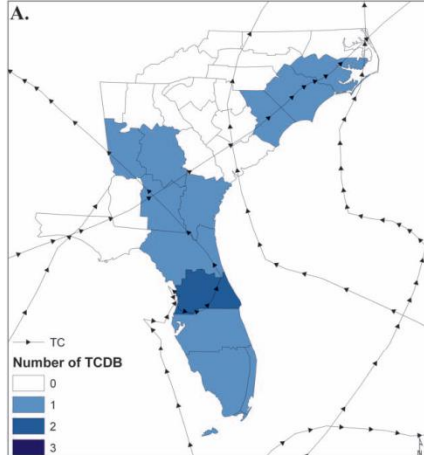
Hermine

tropical cyclone rainfall data compiled by NOAA/NCEP/HPC

# Percentage of droughts ended by tropical storms or hurricanes in SE U.S. (Maxwell et al. 2012)



*Note: they use a PDSI change to  $> -0.5$  (near normal) .*

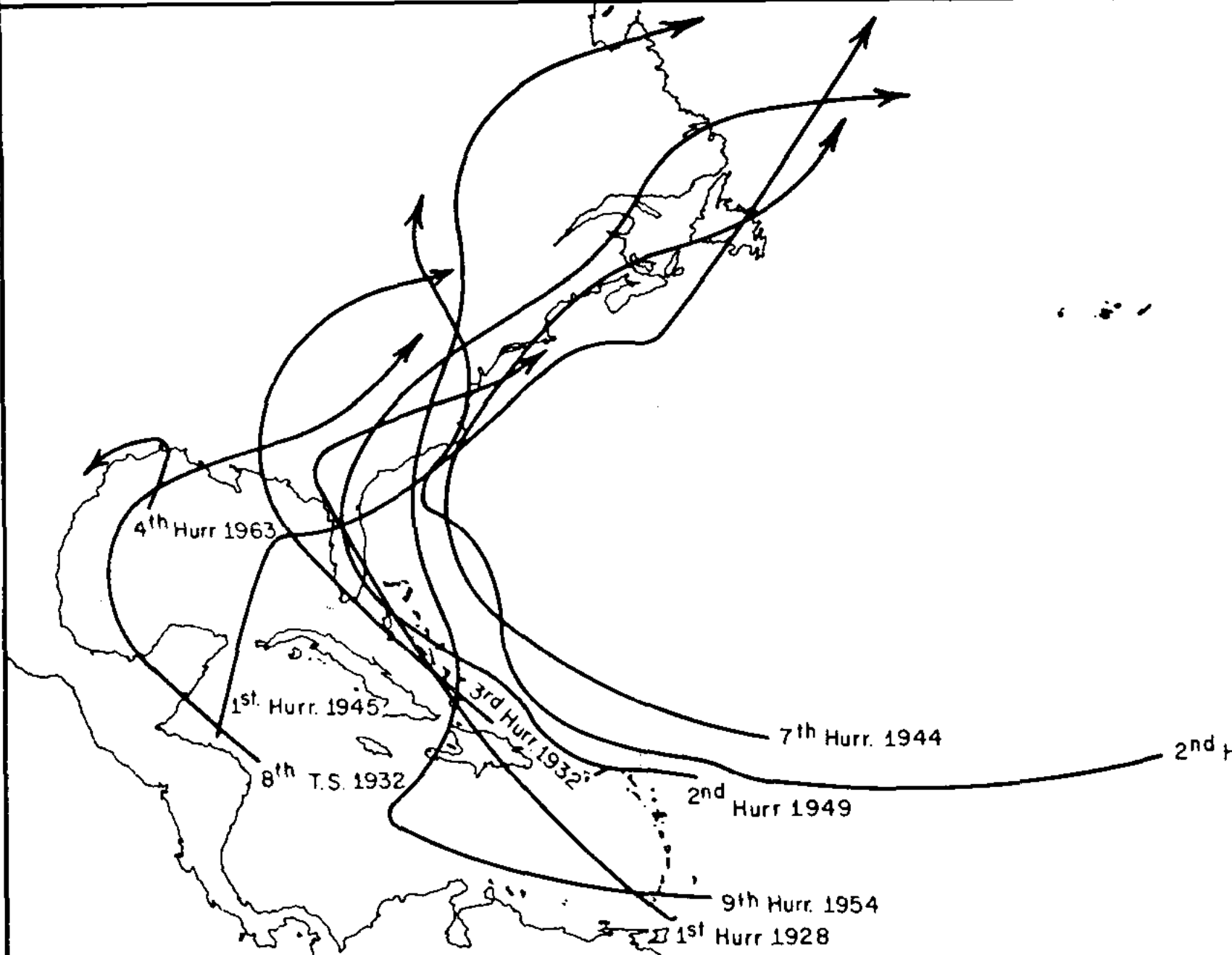


# Summary

- Geographic patterns exist for hurricanes ending drought
  - Highest percentage (20-50%) in southeast US and NC
  - Fewer in Texas
  - Northeast is unclear
  - Interior U.S. apparently rarely have droughts ended by hurricanes
- Length of drought did not influence the ability of tropical cyclones to end drought. Long (> twelve months), medium (three–twelve months), and short (< three months) droughts were ended by tropical cyclones during the last sixty years (Maxwell et al. 2012)
- Seasonal forecast skill of drought-busting hurricanes may be possible. Proposal submitted.

Additional slides

# TROPICAL CYCLONES WHICH HAVE TERMINATED DROUGHT CONDITIONS





Penman-Monteith PE (PE<sub>pm</sub>, based on equation (4.1.14) of Shuttleworth [1993]), referred to as PDSI<sub>pm</sub> and sc\_PDSI<sub>pm</sub> hereafter, additional data for surface net radiation, humidity, wind speed, and air pressure are needed. There are no station-data-based analysis products for these variables, except for surface humidity for which CRU has created a 0.5° product from 1901 to 2002 for surface vapor pressure [Mitchell and Jones, 2005]. However, many land areas in the CRU product had no observations and were filled with long-term mean values. Furthermore, the station data used for the 0.5° CRU product were not as vigorously checked for temporal inhomogeneity as for the CRUTEM3 data set. For these reasons, I simply used the gridded data from 1948 to 2008 for surface-specific humidity, wind speed, and air pressure from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCEP/NCAR) reanalysis [Kalnay et al., 1996]. In addition, we used surface net solar radiation from the Community Land Model version 3 (CLM3) simulation [Qian et al., 2006], in which observed cloud cover [from Qian et al., 2006] was used to estimate surface downward solar radiation. Surface net longwave radiation was estimated using surface air temperature, vapor pressure, and observed cloud fraction [Dai et al., 2006] based on equation (4.2.14) of Shuttleworth [1993]. Since data before 1948 for these additional surface variables are not readily available over most land areas, I simply used the long-term mean values for years before 1948. Thus, the PDSI<sub>pm</sub> and sc\_PDSI<sub>pm</sub> before 1948 contain no additional variations compared to PDSI<sub>th</sub> and sc\_PDSI<sub>th</sub>, respectively. I realize that large uncertainties likely exist in these surface data, especially for surface wind speed and radiation, as high-quality data for these fields are unavailable over the global land. Because of this, the PDSI<sub>pm</sub> and sc\_PDSI<sub>pm</sub> results may not fully reflect the impact of the actual changes in wind speed [Roderick et al., 2007] and radiation on aridity [Donohue et al., 2010] since 1950.

[17] As in the studies by Dai et al. [1998, 2004], I used the soil texture-based estimate of the water-holding capacity map from Webb et al. [1993]. Tests showed [Dai et al., 1998] that the PDSI is not sensitive to the holding capacity values, presumably due to the normalization used in the Palmer model.

[18] Drought is often associated with dry soils and below-normal streamflow [Dai, 2011]. Thus, I evaluate the performance of the PDSI and sc\_PDSI as a measure of drought by correlating area-averaged PDSI and sc\_PDSI values with

[19] Here I briefly describe the relevant aspects of the PDSI and sc\_PDSI formulations. More details can be found in the studies by Palmer [1965], Alley [1984], Karl [1986], and Wells et al. [2004].

[20] Besides P, Palmer [1965] considered four other surface water fluxes: E, recharge to soils (R), runoff (RO), and water loss to the soil layers (L), and their potential values PE, PR, PRO, and PL, respectively. Then Palmer introduced the concept of the climatically appropriate for existing conditions (CAFEC) values. To do that, he first defined the following water-balance coefficients calculated using local climate (often over a calibration period, which is 1950–1979 in this study) for each month  $i$ :

$$\alpha_i = \frac{\bar{E}_i}{\overline{PE}_i} \quad \beta_i = \frac{\bar{R}_i}{\overline{PR}_i} \quad \gamma_i = \frac{\overline{RO}_i}{\overline{PRO}_i} \quad \delta_i = \frac{\bar{L}_i}{\overline{PL}_i}, \quad (1)$$

where the overbar indicates averaging over the calibration period. Thus, these coefficients represent the ratio of the long-term mean values between a water flux and its potential value. The CAFEC values are simply the product of the potential value of a water flux times its coefficient, e.g.,  $\alpha_i PE$  for CAFEC evapotranspiration. In particular, the CAFEC precipitation ( $\hat{P}$ ), which represents the amount of precipitation needed to maintain a normal soil moisture level for a given time, is defined as

$$\hat{P} = \alpha_i PE + \beta_i PR + \lambda_i PRO - \delta_i PL. \quad (2)$$

The difference between the actual precipitation in a given month and the computed  $\hat{P}$  for the same month is the moisture departure ( $D = P - \hat{P}$ ) for the month. Obviously, a given value of  $D$  can have different meanings for the surface water balance at different locations and different times of the year. To correct that, Palmer multiplied  $D$  by a climatic characteristic coefficient  $K$  to derive the moisture anomaly index or the  $Z$  index ( $Z = DK$ ), where  $K$  for month  $i$  is defined by Palmer using data from the central United States as follows:

$$K_i = K_o K'_i = \frac{17.67}{\sum_{i=1}^{12} \bar{D}_i K'_i} K'_i \quad \text{and} \quad K'_i = 1.5 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\overline{PE_i + R_i + RO_i} + 2.8}{\overline{P_i + L_i}} \right) + 0.5. \quad (3)$$

1996] that the PDSI is not sensitive to the holding capacity values, presumably due to the normalization used in the Palmer model.

[18] Drought is often associated with dry soils and below-normal streamflow [Dai, 2011]. Thus, I evaluate the performance of the PDSI and sc\_PDSI as a measure of drought by correlating area-averaged PDSI and sc\_PDSI values with

$$K_i' = 1.5 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{D}_i K_i'}{\frac{PE_i + \bar{R}_i + \bar{R}O_i}{P_i + L_i} + 2.8} \right) + 0.5. \quad (3)$$

4 of 26

DI2115

DAI: PDSI AND SC\_PDSI DURING 1900–2008

DI2115

The Z index is then used to compute the PDSI value for time  $t$  ( $X_t$ ):

$$X_t = p X_{t-1} + q Z_t = 0.897 X_{t-1} + Z_t/3, \quad (4)$$

where  $X_{t-1}$  is the PDSI for the previous month. The use of  $K_i$  is to allow comparisons of PDSI values over different time and space. The  $p$  and  $q$  coefficients in (4) are called duration factors, which determine how sensitive the PDSI is to the monthly moisture anomaly  $Z_t$  and how much autocorrelation the PDSI has. Palmer [1965] derived the values of  $p = 0.897$  and  $q = 1/3$  using the linear slope between the length and severity of the most extreme droughts that he studied in Kansas and Iowa.

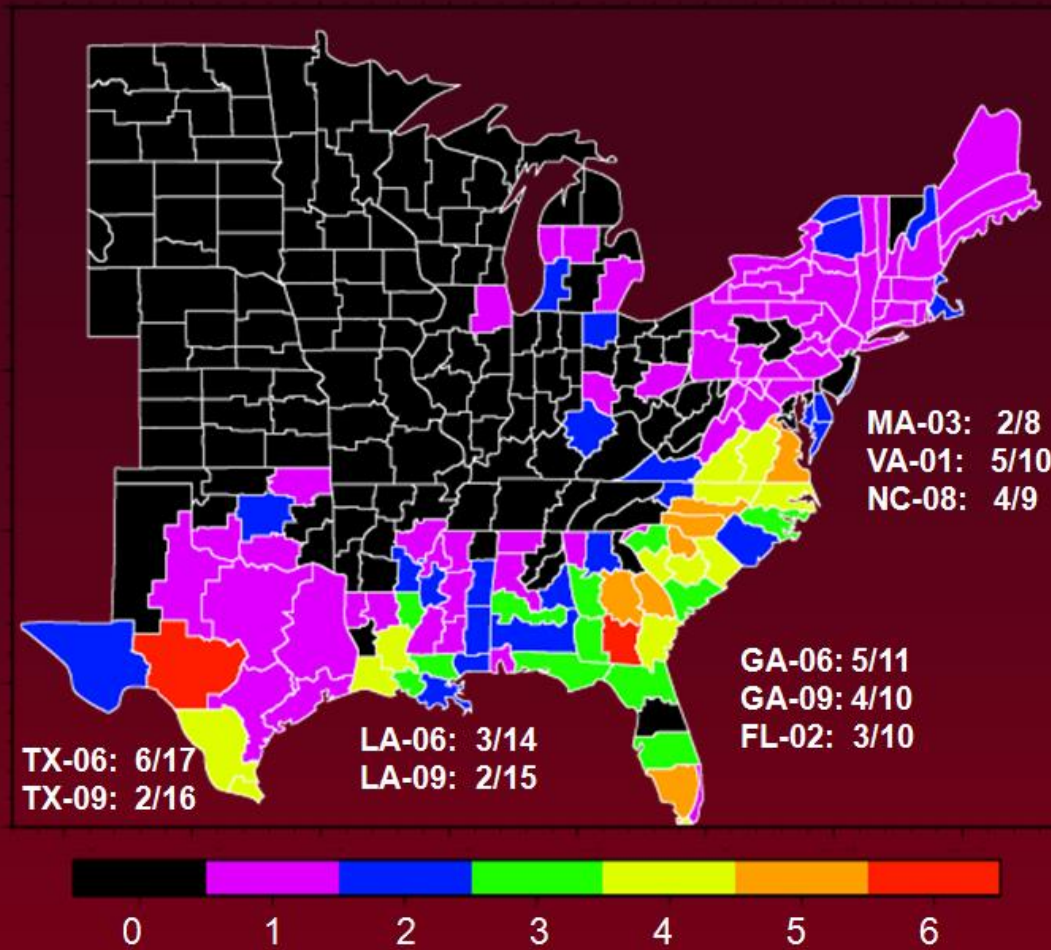
[21] To make the PDSI more comparable spatially, Wells *et al.* [2004] proposed a new method to calculate  $K$  (more specifically,  $K_o$  in (3)),  $p$ , and  $q$  using local climate conditions, so that the PDSI has more comparable histograms across different locations and the duration factors  $p$  and  $q$  reflect the local slope between the length and severity of the most extreme droughts. However, one still needs to make certain choices regarding the exact length over which the regression for the slope is done and how the extreme drought spells are selected. Wells *et al.* [2004] did not discuss these issues. I tested three different methods for doing the length versus severity regression that determines the  $p$  and  $q$  values and found that the results are not very sensitive to the choices. A similar result was found by Dai [2006] and van der Schrier *et al.* [2011], who also found that the PDSI of the 20th century was similar when either PE\_th or PE\_pm was used.

with conclusions of Burke *et al.* [2006] and van der Schrier *et al.* [2011], who also found that the PDSI of the 20th century was similar when either PE\_th or PE\_pm was used.

### 3.3. Histograms of the PDSI

[24] Figures 2 and 3 compare the histograms of the monthly PDSI\_pm and sc\_PDSI\_pm, respectively, at nine grid boxes around the world during 1900–1979. Some boxes may not have data for the earlier decades of the period, and years after 1979 are not included because of the recent drying trend. Histograms for PDSI\_th (sc\_PDSI\_th) are not very different from those for PDSI\_pm (sc\_PDSI\_pm) at most of the locations. It can be seen that the PDSI and sc\_PDSI ranges vary from location to location, and the shape of the distributions can differ substantially from Gaussian at some locations such as the Amazonian and southern Indian boxes. The normalization to local climate in sc\_PDSI improves the symmetry of the distributions, but it is still not Gaussian at some locations (e.g., the Amazon), and this problem exists even for the histograms of the calibration period (1950–1979). The value range of the sc\_PDSI becomes more comparable among the different locations, generally within  $-6$  to  $+6$ , whereas the range for the original PDSI varies considerably from one location to another, making it less comparable spatially. Thus, the sc\_PDSI is indeed improved over the original PDSI in terms of spatial comparability, but it is still not symmetrically distributed around the neutral (i.e., zero) line at some locations.

# ADEs with tropical cyclone within 150 km 1960 - 2010



tropical cyclone  
center distance  
determined from  
HURDAT

CD-00: # / #

# of TC-affected ADEs /  
# of total ADEs







