

1 **Hydrological Drought Persistence and Recovery in the CONUS: a Multi-stage Framework**
2 **Considering Water Quantity and Quality**

3 Behzad Ahmadi^{1*}, Ali Ahmadalipour², and Hamid Moradkhani²

4 ¹ Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Portland State University, Portland, OR
5 97201, USA

6 ² Center for Complex Hydrosystems Research, Department of Civil, Construction and
7 Environmental Engineering, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487, USA

8 * Corresponding author

9

10

11 **Abstract**

12 Hydrological droughts have considerable negative impacts on water quantity and quality, and
13 understanding their regional characteristics is of crucial importance. This study presents a multi-
14 stage framework to detect and characterize hydrological droughts considering both streamflow
15 and water quality changes. Hydrological droughts are categorized into three stages of growth,
16 persistence, retreat, and water quality variables (i.e., water temperature, dissolved oxygen
17 concentration, and turbidity) are utilized to further investigate drought recovery. The framework
18 is applied to 400 streamflow gauges across the Contiguous United States (CONUS) over the
19 study period of 1950-2016. The method is illustrated for the 2012 US drought, which affected
20 most of the nation. Results reveal the duration, frequency, and severity of historical droughts in
21 various regions as well as their spatial consistencies and heterogeneities. Furthermore, duration
22 of each stage of drought (i.e., growth, persistence, and retreat) is also assessed and the spatial
23 patterns are diagnosed across the CONUS. Considering the water quality variables, increased
24 water temperature (4°C on average) and reduced dissolved oxygen concentration (2.5 mg/L on
25 average) were observed during drought episodes, both of which impose severe consequences on
26 ecology of natural habitats. On the contrary, turbidity was found to decrease during droughts,
27 and indicate a sudden increase when drought terminates, due to increase in runoff. Varied
28 drought recovery durations are perceived for different water quality variables, and in general, it
29 takes about two more months for water quality variables to recover from a drought, following the
30 hydrological drought termination.

31

32 **Keywords:** Drought, Drought recovery, Turbidity, Dissolved oxygen, Water temperature,
33 CONUS.

34 **1 Introduction**

35 Drought is among the most devastating natural disasters, which imposes severe impacts on
36 various environmental and ecological aspects of the affected region (Van Loon and Van Lanen,
37 2012; Mishra et al., 2017). Despite its distinction as a climatic extreme event, there is no
38 unanimous definition for drought because of its different types and distinct origins
39 (Ahmadalipour and Moradkhani, 2017). Meteorological droughts start when precipitation drops
40 below normal level and may lead to hydrological imbalances, which disturbs the normal
41 environmental functioning of a region (Van Loon and Laaha, 2015; Heudorfer and Stahl, 2016).
42 Crausbay, et al. (2017) defined ecological drought by combining drought impacts from ecologic,
43 climatic, hydrologic, socioeconomic, and cultural aspects. In ecological drought, water deficit is
44 defined such that it drives ecosystems beyond their threshold of vulnerability, influencing the
45 ecosystem services and triggering feedbacks in natural and human systems.

46 Several studies have discussed that the severity and frequency of droughts have increased in
47 many parts of the world as a consequence of the changes in rainfall and streamflow patterns,
48 which may be associated with anthropogenic activities and climate change (Karamouz et al.,
49 2012; Ahmadalipour et al., 2017a, 2017b). Thus, a systematic framework for detecting drought
50 onset-termination can mitigate drought impacts (Karamouz et al., 2011; 2013; Yan et al., 2017).

51 Although it is necessary to understand drought recovery mechanism and duration, few studies
52 have investigated these topics over large spatial domains. (Pan et al., 2013; DeChant and
53 Moradkhani, 2014), while others elaborated on restoring function in plants (Martorell et al.,
54 2014; Secchi et al., 2014). Schwalm et al. (2017) stated that recovery time is the duration that
55 “an ecosystem requires to revert to its pre-drought condition”. Ecological drought recovery was
56 presumed to coincide with hydrological drought termination (Anderegg et al., 2015). In riverine

57 ecosystems, water quality is an important ecological factor, which has been neglected in the
58 majority of drought recovery assessments. Understanding drought recovery duration is essential;
59 if a region experiences a new drought episode before complete recovery from an antecedent
60 drought event, the ecosystem would experience more severe ecological impacts (Sawada and
61 Koike, 2016). Categorizing a drought episode into different stages can shed light on drought
62 propagation and provide a better understanding of drought recovery. There have been few
63 attempts to utilize variable spatiotemporal thresholds for categorizing droughts into different
64 stages (Bonsal et al., 2011; Parry et al., 2016a, 2016b). Most of the assessments merely focused
65 on water availability (quantity), while the recovery of water quality has not been investigated.
66 More specifically, the possible lag time between drought recovery in terms of water quantity and
67 quality has not been studied.

68 The fresh water quality is correlated to streamflow, biogeochemical, and anthropogenic
69 influences. Several studies explored water quality variations during hydrological drought
70 episodes at different spatial scales (Van Vliet and Zwolsman, 2008; Hrdinka et al., 2012;
71 Hellwig et al., 2017). Mosley (2015) outlined three driving forces for water quality changes
72 during a drought episode, explicitly, 1) hydrological drivers, dilution, and mass balance, 2) the
73 role of increased temperature, and 3) increased residence times. Many studies concluded on
74 increasing water temperature during hydrological drought episodes (Sprague, 2005; Baures et al.,
75 2013; Hanslík, et al., 2016). Higher water temperature intensifies biological activity, leading to a
76 higher rate of nutrient uptake and more oxygen release. Drought or low flow condition cause
77 higher water temperature and less nutrient inflow to water bodies (Hellwig et al., 2017; Mosley
78 2015). This leads to favorable changes in physical and hydrological conditions for biological
79 growth increasing the likelihood of eutrophication. Thus, eutrophication will increase not only

80 due to changes in nutrient concentration, but also due to hydrological and physical conditions
81 becoming more suitable. Recently, Sinha et al. (2017) showed that the precipitation changes
82 induced by climate change will substantially increase the riverine total nitrogen loading across
83 the U.S., which will exacerbate eutrophication, especially over the northeastern parts. The
84 solubility of gasses, such as oxygen, depends on water temperature and theoretically, higher
85 temperature causes less solubility of oxygen. Previous studies showed that in most cases when
86 water temperature increases, dissolved oxygen decreases, indicating solubility is the dominant
87 process for the concentration of dissolved oxygen (Mulholland et al., 1997; Mimikou et al.,
88 2000; Murdoch et al., 2000). Additionally, decreased streamflow during hydrological drought
89 episodes causes lower velocities and longer residence times (Mosley 2015). Therefore,
90 sedimentation and higher interaction of groundwater and surface water lead to lower turbidity
91 during drought episodes (Hrdinka et al., 2012; Mosley et al., 2012). Most of the above-
92 mentioned analyses have been carried out at regional scales, and there have been just few
93 attempts for investigating water quality changes during drought episodes over the CONUS.

94 There are two primary groups of drought identification methods, both of which require long time
95 series of hydro-meteorological data. The first method is the probabilistic-based approach, which
96 provides drought intensity according to the deviation from normal condition. Most of the
97 standardized drought indices follow this approach, which have been employed in numerous
98 studies (McKee et al., 1993; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010; Irannezhad et al., 2017). The second
99 drought identification method is the threshold-based approach: drought onset happens when the
100 variable of interest falls below a predefined threshold (KO and Tarhule, 1994; Shiau and Shen,
101 2001; Wong et al., 2013). Moreover, there are two threshold level families: the constant (i.e., a
102 constant percentile of annual long-term cumulative frequency distribution) and the variable

103 threshold level. The variable threshold method is more appropriate when seasonal patterns
104 should be taken into account, and is broadly used in recent studies (Sung and Chung, 2014; Van
105 Loon and Laaha, 2015; Heudorfer and Stahl, 2016). Since the environmental functions are
106 related to seasonal cycles, droughts are considered as deviations from seasonal cycles and the
107 variable threshold method is implemented in this study.

108 This paper integrates hydrological drought concepts and its environmental impacts, and
109 represents a multi-stage framework to detect and characterize hydrological droughts considering
110 water quality parameters. The overarching objectives of this study are to fill the following gaps,
111 which have not been adequately addressed in previous assessments:

- 112 1) Developing a framework for hydrological drought detection, and categorizing drought
113 episodes into different stages of growth, persistence, and retreat.
- 114 2) Investigating water quality variations during hydrological drought episodes.
- 115 3) Analyzing drought recovery considering both water quality and quantity criteria.
- 116 4) Assessing spatiotemporal and probabilistic characteristics of hydrological drought
117 including frequency, severity, and recovery duration.

118 **2 Materials and Method**

119 In hydrological drought studies, drought recovery is defined as the time when the hydrological
120 variable of interest reverts to its normal condition (Mo, 2011; Pan et al. 2013; DeChant and
121 Moradkhani, 2014). The ecological perspectives reveals that a complete drought recovery may
122 require longer time, and it is essential to consider more criteria in addition to water quantity for
123 drought recovery. In this study, drought recovery is defined as a phase starting within the
124 drought episode and extending beyond drought termination until the riverine ecosystem reverts

125 to its pre-drought condition. To capture drought recovery duration, drought episodes should be
126 identified. Figure 1 presents the methodology, which consists of three main steps explained in
127 the following sections.

128 **2.1 Hydrological drought threshold determination**

129 The characteristics of a region, data availability, and the study objectives are the factors
130 which affect the threshold calculation method. Daily quantile based on the long time series is
131 considered as the optimum value for streamflow threshold because it is capable of capturing
132 the low flow regime of a basin (Heudorfer and Stahl, 2016). To calculate daily streamflow
133 threshold level, daily quantiles are computed for the streamflow duration curve over the
134 entire observation period (1950-2016). Kjeldsen et al. (2000) suggested the range of 70th-95th
135 percentile as the threshold level. In this study, the 80th percentile (Fleig et al., 2006;
136 Heudorfer and Stahl, 2016) is considered as the threshold level and the time series of the 365
137 threshold levels are generated. In other words, a set of 365 80th percentile values are
138 calculated from the available observed data for each station. This threshold level is applied
139 for all the stations to maintain the comparability of characteristics of detected droughts over
140 the study area. Applying the 80th percentile threshold may result in many short periods of
141 streamflow deficit, which are not necessarily separate drought episodes. Therefore, a
142 centered moving average of 30 days is applied to smooth the jagged threshold curve
143 (Heudorfer and Stahl, 2016).

144 **2.2 Identifying drought stages**

145 Comparing the daily observed flow with the threshold to detect hydrological droughts may
146 cause a sequence of short drought episodes, which are not separated (Tallaksen et al., 1997;
147 Van Loon and Laaha, 2015). Many studies eliminated any drought event shorter than 15 days

148 (Hisdal et al., 2004; Fleig et al., 2006). Additionally they applied a pooling method with the
149 inter-event period of 10 days to integrate separate events (Tallaksen et al., 1997; Fleig et al.,
150 2006), which was found to be not effective, and failed in detecting multi-seasonal drought
151 events. Therefore, a method is developed here to unify these discrete events by categorizing a
152 hydrological drought episode into three stages of growth, persistence, and retreat (combining
153 the methods utilized by Bonsal et al., 2011 and Parry et al., 2016a). The drought persistence
154 period is the main criterion for hydrological drought assessment. Having identified drought
155 persistence, drought growth and retreat can then be investigated. The following steps explain
156 each hydrological drought stage (see supplementary Figure S1):

- 157 • **Persistence:** the period that streamflow remains below the normal threshold level for
158 at least 30 consecutive days. If there are more than one period fulfilling this
159 condition during a drought episode, the longest period is considered as the drought
160 persistence stage.
- 161 • **Growth:** moving backwards from the beginning of drought persistence, drought
162 onset is the point when streamflow falls below the threshold level for less than 15
163 days in a T-day window (explained in the drought recovery section). Drought growth
164 stage starts from drought onset until the beginning of drought persistence.
- 165 • **Retreat:** moving forward from the end of drought persistence stage, drought
166 termination is the time when streamflow falls below the threshold level for less than
167 15 days in a T-day window (explained in the drought recovery section). Drought
168 retreat stage starts following the end of drought persistence until drought termination.

169 **2.3 Drought recovery**

170 In this study, drought recovery starts from the beginning of the retreat stage and continues
171 until T-day after drought termination. The T-day after drought termination (when streamflow
172 has reverted to its pre-drought condition) is added to drought retreat for drought recovery,
173 because the basin needs more time to meet normal water quality condition. The T-day period
174 is defined as the required time for all water quality parameters to recover (to revert to their
175 normal conditions). Thus, a river is assumed to recover from a drought when the streamflow
176 and water quality parameters return to their normal (i.e., pre-drought) condition. Water
177 quality is assumed recovered when there is no significant difference between the median of
178 variable of interest and its threshold (combining methods by [Caruso, 2001, 2002](#); and [Van
179 Vliet and Zwolsman, 2008](#)). The Kruskal–Wallis test ([Kruskal and Wallis, 1952](#)), as a
180 nonparametric method, is employed at 0.05 significance level to investigate such difference.
181 The historical hydrological droughts in each streamflow station were considered, and the T-
182 day period is calculated in order to comply with the regional characteristics of each basin.
183 Like streamflow threshold, the normal water quality condition (threshold) is defined as the
184 long-term daily average of each water quality variable for the study period, which is then
185 smoothed by thirty-day centered moving average.

186

187 **Figure 1** – The framework for analysis of drought recovery given water quantity and quality
188 parameters

189 -----

190 **2.4 Study Area and Data**

191 The Contiguous United States (CONUS) is selected as the study area because of its widely
192 variable climate, which leads to the existence of perennial and ephemeral rivers in different
193 regions. There are eighteen river basins across the CONUS, which are delineated based on the
194 USGS 2-digit hydrologic unit codes (excluding Alaska, Hawaii, and Caribbean) as shown in
195 Figure 2. Hydrologic Units (HU) are areas of land from which surface water drains to a
196 particular point. Among all the streamflow stations across the CONUS, a small fraction of them
197 monitor water quality parameters. We considered all the stations operated by USGS over the
198 CONUS and selected the ones that meet our criteria. The criteria for selecting stations are as
199 follows:

- 200 1- Streamflow data availability for at least 30 consecutive years during the study period
201 (1950-2016);
- 202 2- Recording at least one water quality parameter with 5 consecutive years of observed data
203 and total duration of 10 years; and
- 204 3- Being least affected by anthropogenic influences (i.e., dams, abstraction and return flows)

205 Assessing all stations for the above criteria, we included all the active stations with over 30 years
206 of streamflow observation that collects at least one of the water quality parameters. Therefore,
207 400 USGS (the US Geological Survey) stations were selected considering the study period
208 (1950-2016), recording at least one water quality parameter, and being least affected by
209 anthropogenic influences (such as dams, abstractions, and return flows from irrigation systems
210 and power plants). Water temperature, dissolved oxygen, and turbidity are assessed as vital water
211 quality parameters (SWAMP, 2010), and rest of the water quality parameters are neglected due

212 to their short record or poor spatial coverage. Missing data for streamflow and water quality
213 parameters are estimated by the USGS therefore significant gaps of observed data are filled.
214 Figure 2 shows the location of the 400 selected stations, all of which measure water temperature;
215 whereas some stations do not record either dissolved oxygen or water turbidity.

216

217 **Figure 2-** Study area, river basin boundaries, and location of the selected streamflow/water
218 quality stations. All the stations record streamflow observations, and the water quality variables
219 are specified using three colors.

220 -----

221

222 **3 Results**

223 **3.1 Verification of the hydrological drought detection framework: The 2012 US drought**

224 The drought detection method applied in this study is verified for the historic drought event
225 ([Rippey, 2015](#)). An unusually dry winter in 2011-2012 coincided with warm and dry spring and
226 summer, and affected most parts of the CONUS. It led to catastrophic drought impacts over the
227 affected states and caused \$40 billion damage, mostly due to agricultural losses ([Rippey, 2015](#)).
228 Nearly two-thirds of the nation dealt with drought on September 2012 according to the US
229 Drought Monitor (USDM). The USDM ([Svoboda et al., 2012](#)), detected a severe to extreme
230 drought episode affecting all over the CONUS with higher persistence duration in south and
231 Midwest. The results of our analysis also detect a hydrological drought event in 38 states, with a
232 duration of 11 months on average (ranging from 4 to 15 months). The onset, termination, and
233 duration of the 2012 US drought are shown in Figure 3 for each of the affected states. Figure 3

234 shows that in Midwestern and Southeastern states, the 2012 drought tended to persist longer and
235 drought recovery took more time for these regions, while drought recovery in the Pacific
236 Northwest took shorter time.

237 In this study, drought growth is defined as the period that the hydrological variable (e.g.,
238 streamflow) falls below threshold for at least 15 days in 60 days. Drought persistence is the
239 period that streamflow remains below the threshold for over 30 consecutive days. In other words,
240 drought growth focuses on capturing the onset of a drought and its initial stages, whereas drought
241 persistence is the period that drought intensifies and lasts until amelioration and then proceeds to
242 the recovery stage. Therefore, the persistence period of drought is generally longer than the
243 growth stage. For example, in the 2012 US drought, prolonged period of high air temperature in
244 late spring resulted in soaring atmospheric evaporative demand in central US that quickly
245 translated to severe and extreme drought conditions, drying the soil moisture and substantially
246 reducing the streamflow, especially in central US (Hobbins et al., 2016; Otkin et al., 2017).
247 Therefore, for the 2012 drought the growth stage was very short, making its detection very
248 challenging and subsequently causing considerable impacts (McEvoy et al., 2016; Yan et al.,
249 2017).

250

251 **Figure 3** – Chronology of drought stages for the 2012 drought over the affected US states.

252 -----

253 A thorough examination of water quality changes over this drought episode is executed. Water
254 temperature shows the maximum deviation from threshold occurred in the river basins that are
255 located in lower latitude (see Figure S2). Additionally, Figure 3 reveals that in the states that are

256 located in lower latitudes, drought persistence tends to be longer. Dissolved oxygen shows the
257 same pattern where California, Arizona, Texas and South Carolina experienced the most
258 deviation from the normal condition with relatively longer persistence. On the other hand,
259 turbidity tends to deviate most for this drought episode in mountainous areas that are located in
260 dry climate. Southeast US and generally the areas located on east coast show the least deviation
261 of turbidity compared to other regions.

262 **3.2 Spatial analysis of drought stages**

263 Figure 4 (top) shows the number of hydrological drought episodes over the CONUS during the
264 study period (1950-2016). It is worth mentioning that, in order to keep the maps easier to follow,
265 all the presented results are interpolated using inverse distance weighted interpolation method.
266 The figure reveals that generally, the Pacific Northwest, Mid-Atlantic, and Great lakes basins
267 experienced droughts more frequently than other basins. The Upper Colorado and Ohio River
268 basins also experienced relatively frequent drought episodes. In general, Western US indicates a
269 tendency towards more frequent hydrological drought events. Another drought characteristic
270 investigated in the figure is drought duration. Figure 4 (bottom) shows the average duration of
271 drought over the CONUS. Texas, South Atlantic and Missouri show longer drought duration
272 compared to other regions. Comparing drought frequency and drought duration, the regions with
273 more frequent droughts tend to have shorter drought episodes.

274

275 **Figure 4-** Spatial distribution of number of drought (top) and average drought duration in days
276 (bottom) during the historical period of 1950-2016.

277 -----

278 Besides the total duration of drought (shown in Figure 4), the duration of each stage of drought is
279 also assessed. Figure 5 illustrates the duration of drought growth, persistence, and recovery
280 across the CONUS for the study period. Figure 5a shows the average duration of drought growth
281 (days). As seen in this figure, the South Atlantic, Texas gulf, and Missouri basins indicate longer
282 drought growth duration compared to other regions. Generally, prolonged drought growth
283 periods cause drought identification complex, since the streamflow deviation is not significant
284 and it usually does not get attention until it reaches the persistence period. Another parameter
285 presented in the figure is duration of drought persistence (Figure 5b). The figure illustrates that
286 drought, on average, persists less than 2 months in most of the Eastern US. Whereas in
287 California, Upper Colorado, Texas, and Souris-Red-Rainy basins, droughts tend to persist more
288 than three months. Lastly, mean drought recovery duration is presented in Figure 5c. It can be
289 seen that there are regions located in South Atlantic, mid-Atlantic, Texas, and Arkansas River
290 basins with average drought recovery duration of 6 months. Whereas, California, Pacific
291 Northwest, Great lakes, and Ohio River basins tend to recover from drought in less than 4
292 months. Comparing the average duration of drought stages (Figure 5a, b, and c) discloses that
293 drought recovery takes longer time than drought growth and persistence. Moreover, the regions
294 corresponding to longer drought growth require more time for drought recovery.

295

296 **Figure 5-** Mean duration (in days) of a) drought growth; b) persistence; and c) recovery in the
297 historical period of 1950-2016.

298 -----

299

300 **3.3 Drought impacts on water temperature**

301 Figure 6 shows temporal changes of water temperature, dissolved oxygen, and turbidity during
302 three hydrological drought episodes affecting three selected stations in South Carolina in 2009,
303 Kansas in 2014, and Oregon in 2012. These stations are chosen since they represent the mean
304 pattern of the river basin they are located, and they provide the same length of records for water
305 quality. A statistical analysis on all stations reveals that a hydrological drought is associated with
306 an increase in water temperature (see Table 1). Kruskal–Wallis test is applied to detect whether
307 there is a significant difference (at $p\text{-value} < 0.05$) between the median of water temperature
308 during a drought episode and the water temperature threshold level. Additionally, Figure 6
309 reveals that water temperature threshold follows a seasonal pattern and it tends to be higher
310 (/lower) in the warmer (/colder) seasons. It is worth mentioning that the same pattern is seen all
311 over the study area. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that for most drought episodes
312 (more than 85% of all stations) there is a significant difference between water temperature during
313 drought episodes and the normal water temperature threshold. Additionally, the mean, median
314 and the maximum water temperature in all stations were higher than the mean, median and the
315 maximum water temperature threshold, respectively. Figure 6 (first column) shows that water
316 temperature during 2-month (/4-month) drought episodes in South Carolina and Oregon
317 (/Kansas) are mostly above the normal water temperature threshold level (normal condition). The
318 figure illustrates that water temperature reverts to its normal range 42, 68, and 27 days after
319 drought termination in South Carolina, Kansas, and Oregon, respectively. On average, among all
320 stations over the CONUS, water temperature reverts to its pre-drought normal state 52 days after
321 drought termination (the required time for water temperature to recover from a hydrological

322 drought). The spatial distribution of the average time required for water temperature to recover
323 from a hydrological drought is presented in Figure 7-a.

324

325 **Figure 6-** Drought impacts on water temperature, dissolved oxygen, and turbidity during three
326 hydrological drought episodes occurred in South Carolina in 2009 (first row), Kansas in 2014
327 (middle row), and Oregon in 2012 (bottom row). The red bar shows drought duration (onset to
328 termination) and the green bar indicates the required time for water quality to recover.

329 -----

330

331 **Table 1 –** Minimum, median, and maximum deviation of water temperature, dissolved oxygen,
332 and water turbidity during drought for each river basin.

333 -----

334 This study showed that water temperature increased during hydrological drought episodes, which
335 is in agreement with many previous assessments ([Chessman and Robinson, 1987](#); [Caruso, 2001](#);
336 [Zielinski, 2009](#)). Our analyses on all studied stations demonstrated that water temperature
337 considerably increases from the beginning of the persistence stage of drought and it remains
338 above the normal threshold even after drought termination. If the growth stage lasts for more
339 than 40 days, water temperature may increase even during the growth stage. In most cases, water
340 temperature reaches its maximum deviation when the maximum departure is happened in
341 streamflow. The minimum, median, and maximum deviation of water temperature from the
342 normal threshold for each river basin are presented in Table 1. The table shows that the basins

343 located in lower latitudes experienced higher water temperature rise. It is worth mentioning that
344 the maximum water temperature increase coincided with the most severe drought episode in all
345 river basins.

346

347 **Figure 7-** Spatial distribution of average time needed for; a) water temperature, b) dissolved
348 oxygen, and c) turbidity to recover from drought after the hydrological drought termination (i.e.
349 after the streamflow has reached normal conditions).

350 -----

351 **3.4 Drought impacts on turbidity**

352 Decreased turbidity is detected during drought episodes using the Kruskal–Wallis test (Figure 6
353 right column). The test indicated that for most of the stations (90% of them), the median
354 observed turbidity during drought was significantly lower (p-value <0.05) than the normal
355 turbidity threshold. There were few stations that the difference between the medians was not
356 significant. However, for all stations, the mean and median of observed turbidity during drought
357 episodes were lower than the mean and median of the normal turbidity threshold, respectively
358 (see Table 1). Low turbidity is generally desired for most water consumption purposes
359 (specifically domestic demand). On the other hand, since drought terminations mostly coincide
360 with a sudden increase of flow (i.e. higher runoff causes higher turbidity), the turbidity thrusts up
361 during the drought termination. This implies that more time is required for the turbidity to
362 recover after hydrological drought termination. Figure 6 (right column) shows that after a 2-
363 month (/4-month) drought episodes in South Carolina and Oregon (/Kansas), turbidity needs 67
364 and 24 (/40) days to recover, respectively. On average, among all stations over the CONUS,

365 turbidity requires 42 days to recover after hydrological drought termination. Spatial distribution
366 of turbidity recovery time reveals that it takes less than 60 days for most of the regions to recover
367 from drought (Figure 7c). There are some scattered areas in Arkansas, Pacific Northwest,
368 southeast Missouri, and great Lakes river basins with recovery times more than 60 days.

369 Our analysis detected that turbidity is usually lower than the normal threshold during
370 hydrological droughts, which is in agreement with the findings of several previous studies
371 (Caruso, 2001, 2002; Golladay and Battle, 2002; Goransson et al., 2013). The improvement of
372 water turbidity can be attributed to less storm events that causes decreased runoff, which is
373 associated with less erosion of solid transports to the watercourses during drought. Lower
374 streamflow during the hydrological drought also causes slower velocity, which increases
375 sedimentation and decreases turbidity. Table 1 showed that for the river basins located in dry
376 climate with mountainous characteristics (e.g. Lower Colorado and Great basins), the maximum
377 deviation of turbidity is higher than other river basins. Such higher deviation implies the
378 tendency of these basins to terminate droughts with a sudden increase in streamflow (Paulson et
379 al., 1985; Mensing et al., 2008; Asadi Zarch et al. 2011). It has been discussed that turbidity can
380 have various impacts on ecology and natural habitats. High concentration of particulate matter
381 during drought recovery period decreases light penetration, and consequently reduces
382 productivity and natural habitat quality. It also increases sedimentation, which makes siltation
383 more likely, and can result in harming the habitat for fish and aquatic life (Lake, 2011).

384 **3.5 Drought impacts on dissolved oxygen**

385 Dissolved oxygen alteration is investigated in all stations using the Kruskal–Wallis test to
386 examine if the median of observed dissolved oxygen is significantly different from the threshold.
387 The test shows that there is a significant difference between the medians of dissolved oxygen

388 during drought episodes and the normal dissolved oxygen threshold (p-value < 0.05). During
389 drought, the mean and median of dissolved oxygen in all stations were lower than the mean and
390 median of dissolved oxygen threshold, respectively (see Table 1). Figure 6 (middle column)
391 illustrates that after a drought episode with 2 (/4) months duration, dissolved oxygen recovery
392 lasts for 15 and 64 (/47) days in south Carolina and Oregon (/Kansas), respectively. On average,
393 among all stations over the CONUS, dissolved oxygen requires 51 days to recover after
394 hydrological drought termination. Dissolved oxygen recovery takes more than 2 months in
395 southeast Missouri, Texas, and South-Atlantic river basins (see Figure 7b). Moreover, Figure 6
396 shows that the dissolved oxygen follows a seasonal pattern and it reaches to the lowest (/highest)
397 level during warmer (/colder) seasons. This pattern is seen all over the study area. This diagram
398 shows the reverse relationship between water temperature and dissolved oxygen and explains the
399 decreases of dissolved oxygen level during drought episodes due to the increases in temperature.

400 Our analysis also identified a decline in dissolved oxygen when a hydrological drought takes
401 place, which is in agreement with findings of many studies showing a decrease in dissolved
402 oxygen during hydrological droughts (Boulton and Lake, Ylla et al., 2010; 1992; Hellwig et al.,
403 2017). Generally, in river basins with perennial rivers and higher streamflow, the variability
404 range of dissolved oxygen is limited due to the deeper flow in rivers, which leads to less
405 reaeration. On the other hand, most ephemeral rivers with shallow flow are located in lower
406 latitude. Dissolved oxygen requires longer recovery time in these river basins because of higher
407 water temperature and less oxygen solubility in spite of better reaeration. Therefore, in most river
408 basins, water temperature is the dominant process (rather than reaeration and biological activity)
409 that controls dissolved oxygen level. During drought persistence stage, dissolved oxygen shows a
410 similar pattern to water temperature, and the maximum deviation of dissolved oxygen happens in

411 the persistence stage. Many aquatic species can survive only within a specific temperature range
412 and a minimum dissolved oxygen level. Therefore, considering dissolved oxygen and water
413 temperature is essential for maintaining the ecology and biology of water resources systems
414 (Mathews and Marsh-Mathews, 2003; Lake, 2011). Droughts have caused flora and fauna
415 fatalities in different parts of the world, for instance in Australia (Leigh et al., 2015), southern
416 US (Buskey et al., 2001), and California (Brumbaugh et al., 1994; Israel and Lund, 1995). The
417 reported reasons for aquatic fatalities due to droughts were decline in dissolved oxygen level,
418 vanishing the natural habitat of species, loss of streams connectivity, and alteration of food (Lake
419 2003, 2011; Leigh et al., 2015).

420 **4 Discussion**

421 Applying the hydrological drought detection method, a total of 9247 drought episodes were
422 identified in 400 stations across the CONUS during 1950-2016. Figure 8 shows the relationship
423 between drought duration, recovery time (required time for streamflow and water quality to
424 revert to its pre-drought state), and annual flow across three different river basins with diverse
425 climate (i.e. Pacific Northwest, Arkansas, and South Atlantic). The figure illustrates that there is
426 a significant inverse relationship between drought duration and the annual flow in all three river
427 basins ($R^2 > 0.5$ and $p\text{-value} < 0.05$). Therefore, annual streamflow deficits are probably more
428 intense during prolonged drought events compared to shorter drought episodes. Similar results
429 are found for recovery time and annual flow, and severe annual streamflow deficits are more
430 likely to result in longer recovery time. However, recovery time is positively correlated to
431 drought duration for these river basins ($R^2 > 0.5$ and $p\text{-value} < 0.05$), and similar pattern is found
432 in all the river basins over the CONUS. The positive correlation found between drought duration
433 and annual flow is in agreement with the findings of Spinoni et al. (2014) and Austin et al.

434 (2018). These studies also showed that if a drought episode lasts longer, drought severity
 435 increases and the affected area deals with exacerbated water stress. Thomas et al. (2014)
 436 investigated hydrological droughts and recovery time for south and southeastern USA, and
 437 concluded that for longer and more severe hydrological droughts, longer drought recovery
 438 duration should be expected. These findings are in consensus with the findings of the present
 439 study, indicating an inverse relationship between recovery time and annual flow and a direct
 440 relationship between drought duration and recovery time.

441

442 **Figure 8** – Relationship between drought duration and annual flow (left), recovery time and
 443 annual flow (middle), and drought duration and recovery time (right) over the Pacific Northwest
 444 (top), Arkansas (middle) and South Atlantic (bottom) river basins.

445 -----

446 Figure 9 shows hydrological drought severity over the CONUS for the study period. Severity
 447 indicates the ratio of accumulated streamflow deficit to streamflow in normal condition during
 448 drought episodes (elaborated in equation 1).

$$Drought\ Severity = \frac{\sum_{i=onset}^{Termination} Observed\ Streamflow_i - Threshold_i}{\sum_{i=onset}^{Termination} Threshold_i} * 100$$

449 *if (Observed Streamflow_i – Threshold_i) < 0* (Equation 1)

450 The figure shows that California, Great basin and South Atlantic river basins experienced more
 451 severe droughts during the study period. Texas and Souris basins also experienced severe
 452 droughts. Comparing Figure 9 (drought severity) and Figure 4 (number of droughts) reveals an
 453 inverse relation between drought severity and frequency in areas located in the Pacific

454 Northwest, California, Great Basin, Upper Colorado, Texas, Arkansas, Ohio, New England,
455 Upper Mississippi, and Mid-Atlantic river basins. This inverse relationship implies that the
456 regions affected by more frequent droughts, experienced less severe droughts, in general. This is
457 found in the Pacific Northwest, Upper Colorado, and mid-Atlantic river basins. Whereas, those
458 parts of the CONUS that experienced less frequent droughts (e.g. California, Texas and South-
459 Atlantic river basins), suffered from more severe droughts. [Griffin and Anchukaitis \(2014\)](#)
460 showed that for the period of 2012-2014, California experienced the most severe drought
461 condition in the last century. Our analysis also finds Southern California among the regions that
462 the most severe hydrological droughts have happened during the study period. Additionally,
463 California experienced a hydrological drought in 2012, which lasted for almost a year (Figure 3),
464 and that drought episode was accompanied by two major hydrological droughts in the following
465 years. [Anderson et al. \(2013\)](#) and [Long et al. \(2013\)](#) showed that Southern US experienced more
466 severe drought episodes compared to Northern regions during the period of 2000-2012. Figure 9
467 also corroborates that these areas (i.e. Florida, Southern Plains, and Southwestern US)
468 experienced more severe hydrological droughts compared to the rest of the US.

469

470 **Figure 9** – Spatial distribution of normalized drought severity over the CONUS during 1950-
471 2016. Severity is defined as the ratio of accumulated streamflow deficit to streamflow in normal
472 condition during drought episodes

473 -----

474 Figure 10 illustrates the correlation between the deviation of water quality parameters (during
475 drought episodes) and drought severity over 18 river basins. In general, water temperature and

476 dissolved oxygen are more correlated with drought severity than turbidity. Dissolved oxygen and
477 drought severity are highly correlated in California, Lower Colorado, Texas, Rio Grande and
478 South Atlantic river basins, all of which are located in the lower latitudes. Turbidity and drought
479 severity correlation is the highest in Missouri and Arkansas, both located in arid climate.
480 Comparing Figure 10 with Figure 7 reveals that in the river basins that require longer recovery
481 time for dissolved oxygen, the correlation between dissolved oxygen and drought severity is
482 highest. Similar pattern is found for turbidity recovery time in the Great Lakes, Missouri, and
483 Arkansas, where the correlation between drought severity and turbidity is the highest, compared
484 to other water quality parameters. Figure 10 shows that the southern US regions (basins 2-7 and
485 16) indicate higher correlation between water quality variations and drought severity, with
486 dissolved oxygen indicating the highest correlation, which reveals the higher vulnerability of
487 aquatic life to drought severity in southern US.

488

489 **Figure 10** – The correlation coefficient between drought severity with water temperature,
490 dissolved oxygen, and turbidity variations and over 18 river basins of the U.S.

491 -----

492 The empirical cumulative distribution functions (CDFs) are developed to probabilistically
493 analyze drought duration in the study period. Figure 11 shows the CDF of drought duration for
494 Ohio, Missouri, and South Texas-Gulf river basins. These river basins are selected as they show
495 the lowest, highest, and mean drought duration, respectively. The figure shows that with 75%
496 probability, drought durations are 180, 220, and 300 days in Ohio, Missouri, and Texas river
497 basins, respectively. Additionally, historical hydrological droughts indicated a median (50%

498 probability) duration of 110, 125, and 140 days for Ohio, Missouri and Texas river basins,
499 respectively. In another interpretation, if a drought episode begins in these river basins, it is 55,
500 68 and 75% probable that it lasts for 200 days or less in Texas, Missouri and Ohio, respectively.
501 In conclusion, it is more likely for Texas to experience more long-term drought events compared
502 to other river basins.

503

504 **Figure 11-** Cumulative probability distribution (CDF) of drought duration in Ohio, Missouri, and
505 South Texas-Gulf coast basins, representing least, most, and mean drought duration among all
506 US basins, respectively

507 -----

508 **5 Summary and Conclusions**

509 It is essential to understand drought impacts on freshwater resources quality and their recovery
510 duration. To this end, this study developed a framework for hydrological drought detection in
511 order to categorize droughts into three stages of growth, persistence, and retreat, investigated
512 water quality variations during droughts, analyzed recovery time for each water quality
513 parameter, and finally assessed spatiotemporal and probabilistic characteristics of drought
514 episodes. The method was applied on 400 streamflow and water quality stations over the
515 CONUS with daily observation. The historic 2012 US drought was selected to validate the
516 presented methodology. On average, drought persistence was found to last less than 2 months in
517 most of the Eastern US. Whereas in California, Upper Colorado and Texas river basins, drought
518 tends to persist more than three months. Results showed that, drought frequency is negatively
519 correlated with drought severity and duration, whereas drought duration and recovery time are

520 positively correlated. In terms of water quality, results showed that increased temperature,
521 decreased turbidity, and lower dissolved oxygen were observed during hydrological droughts.
522 Average recovery time for water temperature, turbidity and dissolved oxygen were 52, 42 and 51
523 days following hydrological drought termination, respectively. Furthermore, turbidity recovery
524 time was found to be less than 60 days after drought termination for most of the CONUS,
525 whereas, dissolved oxygen recovery indicated to be more than 2 months (maximum 69 days) in
526 the lower latitude river basins.

527 **Acknowledgement**

528 Partial financial support for this project was provided by the National Science Foundation Cyber-
529 Innovation for Sustainability Science and Engineering (CyberSEES), Grant No. CCF-1539605
530 and by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Modeling, Analysis,
531 Predictions, and Projections (MAPP) (Grant No. NA140AR4310234).

532 **References:**

- 533 Ahmadalipour, A., Moradkhani, H., (2017). Analyzing the uncertainty of ensemble-based gridded
534 observations in land surface simulations and drought assessment. *J. Hydrol.* 555, 557–568.
535 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.10.059>
- 536 Ahmadalipour, A., Moradkhani, H., Demirel, M.C., (2017a). A comparative assessment of projected
537 meteorological and hydrological droughts: Elucidating the role of temperature. *J. Hydrol.* 553, 785–797.
538 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.08.047>
- 539 Ahmadalipour, A., Moradkhani, H., Svoboda, M., (2017b). Centennial drought outlook over the CONUS
540 using NASA-NEX downscaled climate ensemble. *Int. J. Climatol.* 37, 2477–2491.
541 <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.4859>
- 542 Anderegg, W.R.L., Schwalm, C., Biondi, F., Camarero, J.J., Koch, G., Litvak, M., Ogle, K., Shaw, J.D.,
543 Shevliakova, E., Williams, A.P., Wolf, A., Ziaco, E., Pacala, S., (2015). Pervasive drought legacies in
544 forest ecosystems and their implications for carbon cycle models. *Science* (80-). 349, 528–532.
545 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aab1833>
- 546 Anderson, M.C., Hain, C., Otkin, J., Zhan, X., Mo, K., Svoboda, M., Wardlow, B., Pimstein, A., (2013).
547 An Intercomparison of Drought Indicators Based on Thermal Remote Sensing and NLDAS-2 Simulations
548 with U.S. Drought Monitor Classifications. *J. Hydrometeorol.* 14, 1035–1056.
549 <https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM-D-12-0140.1>

550 Asadi Zarch, M.A., Malekinezhad, H., Mobin, M.H., Dastorani, M.T., Kousari, M.R., (2011), Drought
551 Monitoring by Reconnaissance Drought Index (RDI) in Iran, *Water Resour Manage* 25: 3485.
552 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11269-011-9867-1>

553 Austin, S.H., Wolock, D.M., Nelms, D.L., (2018). Variability of hydrological droughts in the
554 conterminous United States, 1951 through 2014: U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report
555 2017–5099, 16 p., <https://doi.org/10.3133/sir20175099>.

556 Baurès, E., Delpla, I., Merel, S., Thomas, M.-F., Jung, A.-V., Thomas, O., (2013). Variation of organic
557 carbon and nitrate with river flow within an oceanic regime in a rural area and potential impacts for
558 drinking water production. *J. Hydrol.* 477, 86–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2012.11.006>

559 Bonsal, B.R., Wheaton, E.E., Meinert, A., Siemens, E., (2011). Characterizing the surface features of the
560 1999–2005 Canadian prairie drought in relation to previous severe twentieth century events. *Atmosphere-
561 Ocean* 49, 320–338. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07055900.2011.594024>

562 Boulton, A.J., Lake, P.S., (1992). The ecology of two intermittent streams in Victoria, Australia: II.
563 Comparisons of faunal composition between habitats, rivers and years. *Freshw. Biol.* 27, 99–121.
564 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2427.1992.tb00527.x>

565 Brumbaugh, R., Werick, W., Teitz, W., Lund, J., (1994). Lessons Learned from the California Drought
566 (1987-1992): Executive Summary, IWR Report 94-NDS-6, Institute for Water Resources, U.S. Army
567 Corps of Engineers, Alexandria, VA.

568 Buskey, E.J., Liu, H., Collumb, C., Bersano, J.G.F., (2001). The decline and recovery of a persistent
569 Texas brown tide algal bloom in the Laguna Madre (Texas, USA). *Estuaries* 24, 337–346.
570 <https://doi.org/10.2307/1353236>.

571 Caruso, B.S., (2001). Regional river flow, water quality, aquatic ecological impacts and recovery from
572 drought. *Hydrol. Sci. J.* 46, 677–699. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626660109492864>.

573 Caruso, B.S., (2002). Temporal and spatial patterns of extreme low flows and effects on stream
574 ecosystems in Otago, New Zealand. *J. Hydrol.* 257, 115–133. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-
575 1694\(01\)00546-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-1694(01)00546-7)

576 Chessman, B.C., Robinson, D.P., (1987). Some effects of the 1982-83 drought on water quality and
577 macroinvertebrate fauna in the lower La Trobe River, Victoria. *Mar. Freshw. Res.* 38, 289–299.

578 Crausbay, S.D., Ramirez, A.R., Carter, S.L., Cross, M.S., Hall, K.R., Bathke, D.J., Betancourt, J.L., Colt,
579 S., Cravens, A.E., Dalton, M.S., (2017). Defining ecological drought for the 21st century. *Bull. Am.
580 Meteorol. Soc.* <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-16-0292.1>

581 DeChant, C.M., Moradkhani, H., (2014). Analyzing the sensitivity of drought recovery forecasts to land
582 surface initial conditions. *J. Hydrol.* <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2014.10.021>

583 Fleig, A.K., Tallaksen, L.M., Hisdal, H., Demuth, S., (2006). A global evaluation of streamflow drought
584 characteristics. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. Discuss.* 10, 535–552. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-10-535-2006>.

585 Golladay, S.W., Battle, J., (2002). Effects of flooding and drought on water quality in gulf coastal plain
586 streams in Georgia. *J. Environ. Qual.* 31, 1266–1272.

587 Göransson, G., Larson, M., Bendz, D., (2013). Variation in turbidity with precipitation and flow in a
588 regulated river system—river Göta Älv, SW Sweden. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 17, 2529–2542.
589 <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-17-2529-2013>.

590 Griffin, D., Anchukaitis, K.J., (2014). How unusual is the 2012-2014 California drought? *Geophys. Res.*
591 *Lett.* 41, n/a-n/a. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GL062433>

592 Hanslík, E., Marešová, D., Juranová, E., Vlnas, R., (2016). Dependence of selected water quality
593 parameters on flow rates at river sites in the Czech Republic. *J. Sustain. Dev. Energy, Water Environ.*
594 *Syst.* 4, 127–140. <https://doi.org/10.13044/j.sdewes.2016.04.0011>.

595 Hellwig, J., Stahl, K., Lange, J., (2017). Patterns in the linkage of water quantity and quality during low
596 flows. *Hydrol. Process.* 31, 4195–4205. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.11354>.

597 Heudorfer, B., Stahl, K., (2016). Comparison of different threshold level methods for drought propagation
598 analysis in Germany. *Hydrol. Res.* DOI: 10.2166/nh.2016.258.

599 Hisdal, H., Tallaksen, M., Clausen, B., Peters, E., Gustard A., (2004). *Hydrological Drought*
600 *Characteristics*, Elsevier Science B.V., Amsterdam, the Netherlands, *Developments in Water Science*, 48,
601 2004, Chapter 5, pp. 139–198. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2014.10.059>.

602 Hobbins, M., Wood, A., McEvoy, D., Huntington, J., Morton, C., Verdin, J., Anderson, M., Hain, C.,
603 (2016). The Evaporative Demand Drought Index: Part I-Linking Drought Evolution to Variations in
604 Evaporative Demand. *J. Hydrometeorol.* 17, 1745–1761. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM-D-15-0121.1>.

605 Hrdinka, T., Novický, O., Hanslík, E., Rieder, M., (2012). Possible impacts of floods and droughts on
606 water quality. *J. Hydro-environment Res.* 6, 145–150. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jher.2012.01.008>.

607 Irannezhad, M., Ahmadi, B., Kløve, B., Moradkhani, H., (2017). Atmospheric circulation patterns
608 explaining climatological drought dynamics in the boreal environment of Finland, 1962–2011. *Int. J.*
609 *Climatol.* 37, 801–817. <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.5039>

610 Israel, M., Lund, J.R., (1995). Recent California water transfers: Implications for water management. *Nat.*
611 *Resour. J.* 1–32.

612 Karamouz M, Yazdi MSS, Ahmadi B, Zahraie B (2011), A system dynamics approach to economic
613 assessment of water supply and demand strategies. *EWRI Proceedings of the 2011 World Environmental*
614 *and Water Resources Congress* 1194–1203, [https://doi.org/10.1061/41173\(414\)123](https://doi.org/10.1061/41173(414)123)

615 Karamouz, M., Ahmadi, A., Yazdi, M.S.S., Ahmadi, B., (2013). Economic assessment of water resources
616 management strategies. *J. Irrig. Drain. Eng.* 140, [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)IR.1943-4774.0000654](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)IR.1943-4774.0000654).

617 Karamouz, M., Ahmadi, B., Zahmatkesh, Z., (2012). Developing an agricultural planning model in a
618 watershed considering climate change impacts. *J. Water Resour. Plan. Manag.* 139, 349–363.
619 [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)WR.1943-5452.0000263](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)WR.1943-5452.0000263).

620 KO, M.-K., Tarhule, A., (1994). Streamflow droughts of northern Nigerian rivers. *Hydrol. Sci. J.* 39, 19–
621 34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626669409492717>

622 Kruskal, W.H., Wallis, W.A., (1952). Use of ranks in one-criterion variance analysis. *J. Am. Stat. Assoc.*
623 47, 583–621.

624 Lake, P.S., (2011). *Drought and aquatic ecosystems: effects and responses*. John Wiley & Sons.

625 Lake, P.S., (2003). Ecological effects of perturbation by drought in flowing waters. *Freshw. Biol.* 48,
626 1161–1172. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2427.2003.01086.x>

627 Leigh, C., Bush, A., Harrison, E.T., Ho, S.S., Luke, L., Rolls, R.J., Ledger, M.E., (2015). Ecological
628 effects of extreme climatic events on riverine ecosystems: insights from Australia. *Freshw. Biol.* 60,
629 2620–2638. DOI: 10.1111/fwb.12515

630 Long, D., Scanlon, B.R., Longuevergne, L., Sun, A.Y., Fernando, D.N., Save, H., (2013). GRACE
631 satellite monitoring of large depletion in water storage in response to the 2011 drought in Texas.
632 *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 40, 3395–3401. <https://doi.org/10.1002/grl.50655>.

633 Martorell, S., DIAZ-ESPEJO, A., Medrano, H., Ball, M.C., Choat, B., (2014). Rapid hydraulic recovery
634 in *Eucalyptus pauciflora* after drought: linkages between stem hydraulics and leaf gas exchange. *Plant.*
635 *Cell Environ.* 37, 617–626. DOI:10.1111/pce.12182

636 McEvoy, D.J., Huntington, J.L., Hobbins, M.T., Wood, A., Morton, C., Verdin, J., Anderson, M., Hain,
637 C., (2016). The Evaporative Demand Drought Index: Part II—CONUS-wide Assessment Against Common
638 Drought Indicators. *J. Hydrometeorol.* 17, 1763–1779. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM-D-15-0122.1>

639 McKee, T.B., Doeskin, N.J., Kleist, J., (1993). The relationship of drought frequency and duration to time
640 scales, in: 8th Conf. on Applied Climatology. Anaheim, Canada OR - Am. Meteorol. Soc., pp. 179–184.

641 Mensing, S., Smith, J., Norman, K.B., Allan, M., (2008). Extended drought in the Great Basin of western
642 North America in the last two millennia reconstructed from pollen records. *Quat. Int.* 188, 79–89.
643 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quaint.2007.06.009>.

644 Mimikou, M.A., Baltas, E., Varanou, E., Pantazis, K., (2000). Regional impacts of climate change on
645 water resources quantity and quality indicators. *J. Hydrol.* 234, 95–109. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-1694\(00\)00244-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-1694(00)00244-4)

647 Mishra, A., Vu, T., ValiyaVeetil, A., Entekhabi, D., (2017). Drought Monitoring with Soil Moisture
648 Active Passive (SMAP) Measurements. *J. Hydrol.* 552, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.07.033>

649 Mo, K.C., (2011). Drought onset and recovery over the United States. *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.* 116.
650 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2011JD016168>

651 Mosley, L.M., (2015). Drought impacts on the water quality of freshwater systems; review and
652 integration. *Earth-Science Rev.* 140, 203–214. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2014.11.010>

653 Mosley, L.M., Zammit, B., Leyden, E., Heneker, T.M., Hipsey, M.R., Skinner, D., Aldridge, K.T.,
654 (2012). The impact of extreme low flows on the water quality of the Lower Murray River and Lakes
655 (South Australia). *Water Resour. Manag.* 26, 3923–3946. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11269-012-0113-2>

656 Mulholland, P.J., Best, G.R., Coutant, C.C., Hornberger, G.M., Meyer, J.L., Robinson, P.J., Stenberg,
657 J.R., Turner, R.E., VERA-HERRERA, F., Wetzel, R.G., (1997). Effects of climate change on freshwater
658 ecosystems of the south-eastern United States and the Gulf Coast of Mexico. *Hydrol. Process.* 11, 949–
659 970. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-1085\(19970630\)11:8<949::AID-HYP513>3.0.CO;2-G](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1085(19970630)11:8<949::AID-HYP513>3.0.CO;2-G)

660 Murdoch, P.S., Baron, J.S., Miller, T.L., (2000). Potential effects of climate change on surface-water
661 quality in North America. *JAWRA J. Am. Water Resour. Assoc.* 36, 347–366.
662 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1752-1688.2000.tb04273.x>

663 Otkin, J.A., Svoboda, M., Hunt, E.D., Ford, T.W., Anderson, M.C., Hain, C., Basara, J.B., (2017). Flash
664 droughts: A review and assessment of the challenges imposed by rapid onset droughts in the United
665 States. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.* <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-17-0149.1>

666 Pan, M., Yuan, X., Wood, E.F., (2013). A probabilistic framework for assessing drought recovery.
667 *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 40, 3637–3642. <https://doi.org/10.1002/grl.50728>.

668 Parry, S., Prudhomme, C., Wilby, R.L., Wood, P.J., (2016a). Drought termination: Concept and
669 characterisation. *Prog. Phys. Geogr.* 40, 743–767. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0309133316652801>

670 Parry, S., Wilby, R.L., Prudhomme, C., Wood, P.J., (2016b). A systematic assessment of drought
671 termination in the United Kingdom. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 20, 4265. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-20-4265-2016>.

673 Paulson Jr, E.G., Sadeghipour, J., Dracup, J.A., (1985). Regional frequency analysis of multiyear
674 droughts using watershed and climatic information. *J. Hydrol.* 77, 57–76.

675 Rippey, B.R., (2015). The US drought of 2012. *Weather Clim. Extrem.* 10, 57–64.
676 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wace.2015.10.004>.

677 Sawada, Y., Koike, T., (2016). Towards ecohydrological drought monitoring and prediction using a land
678 data assimilation system: A case study on the Horn of Africa drought (2010–2011). *J. Geophys. Res.*
679 *Atmos.* 121, 8229–8242. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JD024705>.

680 Schwalm, C.R., Anderegg, W.R.L., Michalak, A.M., Fisher, J.B., Biondi, F., Koch, G., Litvak, M., Ogle,
681 K., Shaw, J.D., Wolf, A., (2017). Global patterns of drought recovery. *Nature* 548, 202.

682 Secchi, F., Zwieniecki, M.A., (2014). Down-regulation of PIP1 aquaporin in poplar trees is detrimental to
683 recovery from embolism. *Plant Physiol.* pp-114. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.114.237511>

684 Shiau, J.-T., Shen, H.W., (2001). Recurrence analysis of hydrologic droughts of differing severity. *J.*
685 *Water Resour. Plan. Manag.* 127, 30–40. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)0733-9496\(2001\)127:1\(30\)](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9496(2001)127:1(30))

686 Sinha, E., Michalak, A. M., & Balaji, V. (2017). Eutrophication will increase during the 21st century as a
687 result of precipitation changes. *Science*, 357(6349), 405-408

688 Spinoni, J., Naumann, G., Carrao, H., Barbosa, P., Vogt, J., (2014). World drought frequency, duration,
689 and severity for 1951–2010. *Int. J. Climatol.* 34, 2792–2804. <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.3875>

690 Sprague, L.A., (2005). Drought effects on water quality in the South Platte River Basin, Colorado.
691 *JAWRA J. Am. Water Resour. Assoc.* 41, 11–24. DOI: 10.1111/j.1752-1688.2005.tb03713.x

692 Sung, J.H., Chung, E.-S., (2014). Development of streamflow drought severity–duration–frequency
693 curves using the threshold level method. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 18, 3341–3351.
694 <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-18-3341-2014>

695 Svoboda, M., LeCompte, D., Hayes, M., Heim, R., Gleason, K., Angel, J., Rippey, B., Tinker, R., Palecki,
696 M., Stooksbury, D., Miskus, D., Stephens, S., (2002). The drought monitor. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*
697 83(8). DOI: 10.1175/1520-0477(2002)083<1181:TDM>2.3.CO;2

698 SWAMP, (2010), The Clean Water Team Guidance Compendium for Watershed Monitoring and
699 Assessment State Water Resources Control Board, Section 3, Introduction to vital signs (SOP 3.1.0).

700 Tallaksen, L.M., Madsen, H., Clausen, B., (1997). On the definition and modelling of streamflow drought
701 duration and deficit volume. *Hydrol. Sci. J.* 42, 15–33. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626669709492003>

702 Thomas, A.C., Reager, J.T., Famiglietti, J.S., Rodell, M., (2014). A GRACE-based water storage deficit
703 approach for hydrological drought characterization. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 41, 1537–1545.
704 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GL059323>

705 Van Loon, A.F., Laaha, G., (2015). Hydrological drought severity explained by climate and catchment
706 characteristics. *J. Hydrol.* 526, 3–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2014.10.059>

707 Van Loon, A.F., Van Lanen, H.A.J., (2012). A process-based typology of hydrological drought. *Hydrol.*
708 *Earth Syst. Sci.* 16, 1915. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-16-1915-2012>

709 Van Vliet, M.T.H., Zwolsman, J.J.G., (2008). Impact of summer droughts on the water quality of the
710 Meuse river. *J. Hydrol.* 353, 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2008.01.001>

711 Vicente-Serrano, S.M., Beguería, S., López-Moreno, J.I., (2010). A Multiscalar Drought Index Sensitive
712 to Global Warming: The Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index. *J. Clim.* 23, 1696–1718.
713 <https://doi.org/10.1175/2009JCLI2909.1>

714 Wong, G., Van Lanen, H.A.J., Torfs, P., (2013). Probabilistic analysis of hydrological drought
715 characteristics using meteorological drought. *Hydrol. Sci. J.* 58, 253–270.
716 <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626667.2012.753147>

717 Yan, H., Moradkhani, H., Zarekarizi, M., (2017). A probabilistic drought forecasting framework: A
718 combined dynamical and statistical approach. *J. Hydrol.* 548, 291–304.
719 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.03.004>

720 Ylla, I., Sanpera-Calbet, I., Vázquez, E., Romaní, A.M., Muñoz, I., Butturini, A., Sabater, S., (2010).
721 Organic matter availability during pre-and post-drought periods in a Mediterranean stream. *Hydrobiologia*
722 657, 217–232. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10750-010-0193-z>.

723 Yu, Z., Wang, J., Liu, S., Rentch, J.S., Sun, P., Lu, C., (2017). Global gross primary productivity and
724 water use efficiency changes under drought stress Global gross primary productivity and water use
725 efficiency changes under drought stress. *Environ. Res. Lett.* 12. [https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-](https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aa5258)
726 [9326/aa5258](https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aa5258)

727 ZIELIŃSKI, P., Gorniak, A., Piekarski, M.K., (2009). The effect of hydrological drought on chemical
728 quality of water and dissolved organic carbon concentrations in lowland rivers. *Pol. J. Ecol* 57 No.2
729 pp.217-227 ref.28.

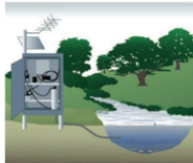
730

731 **Figure S1-** A conceptual diagram of drought growth, persistence, retreat, and recovery stages. In
732 this study, persistence is when the flow remains below threshold for 30 days or more; moving
733 backward/forward from persistence begin/end, drought onset/termination is when there is 15 or
734 less days with flow below the threshold level in a T-day window ($T = 60$ days for this study).
735 The gray shaded area shows streamflow deficit.

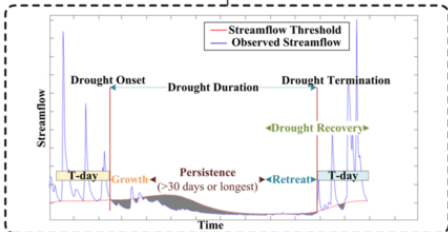
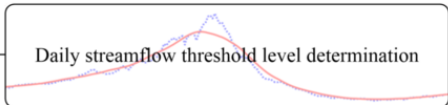
736 -----

737 **Figure S2-** Spatial distribution of water temperature, dissolved oxygen and turbidity deviations
738 from thresholds over the 2012 drought episode

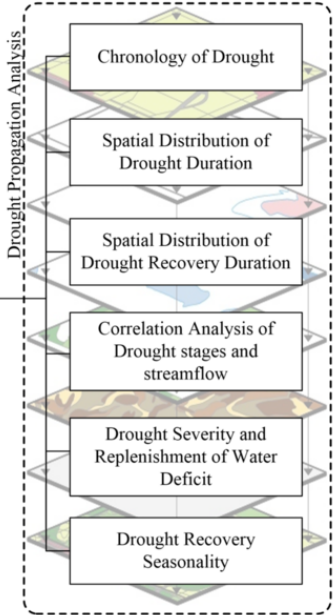
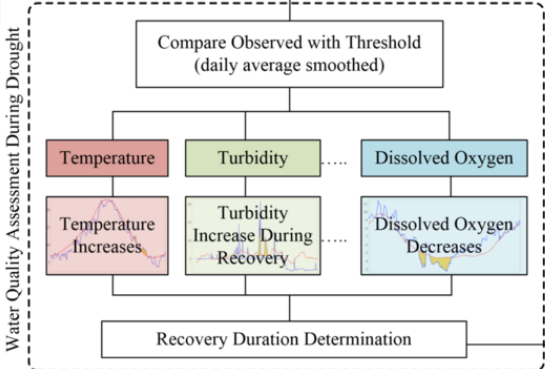
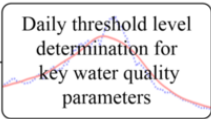
739

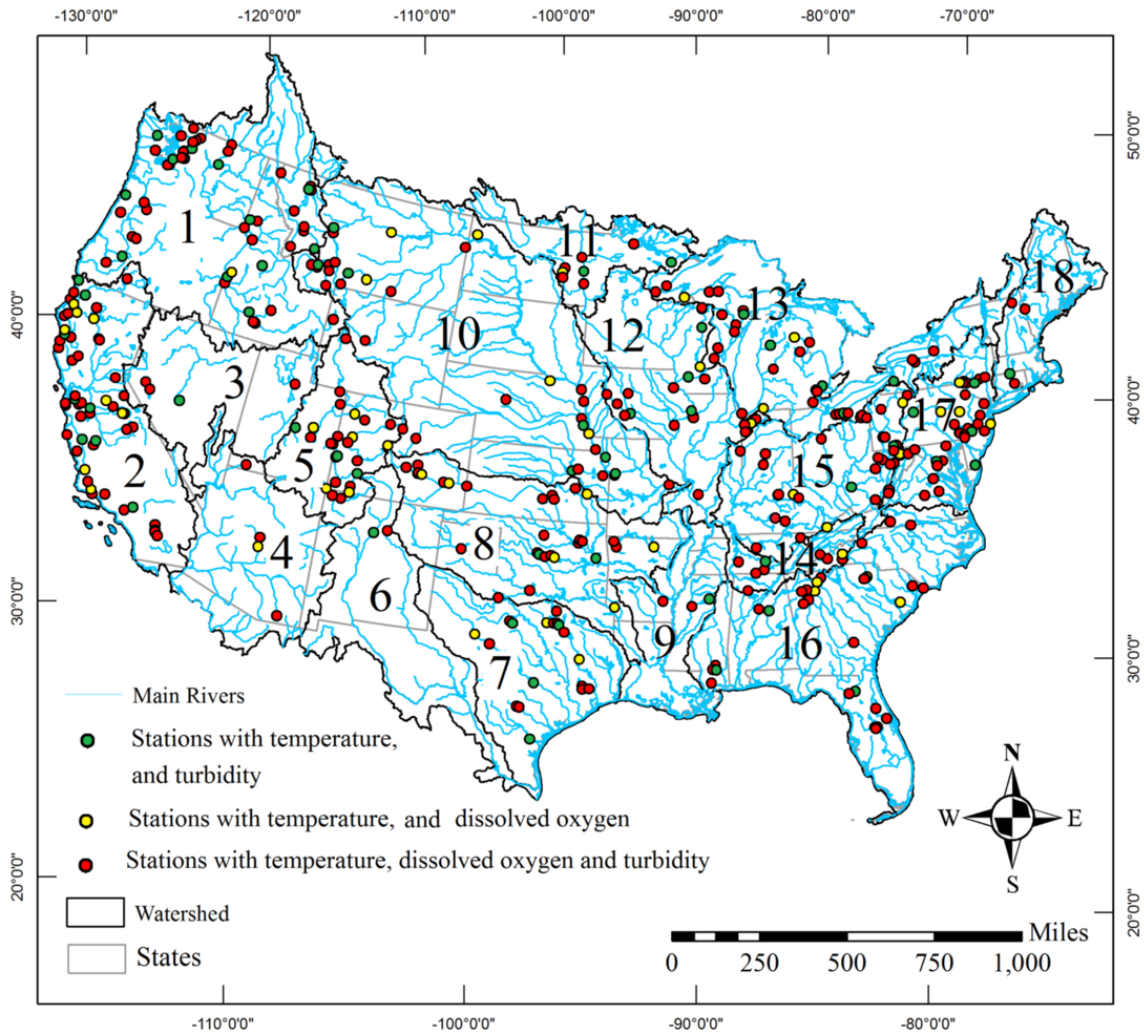


Streamflow



Water Quality

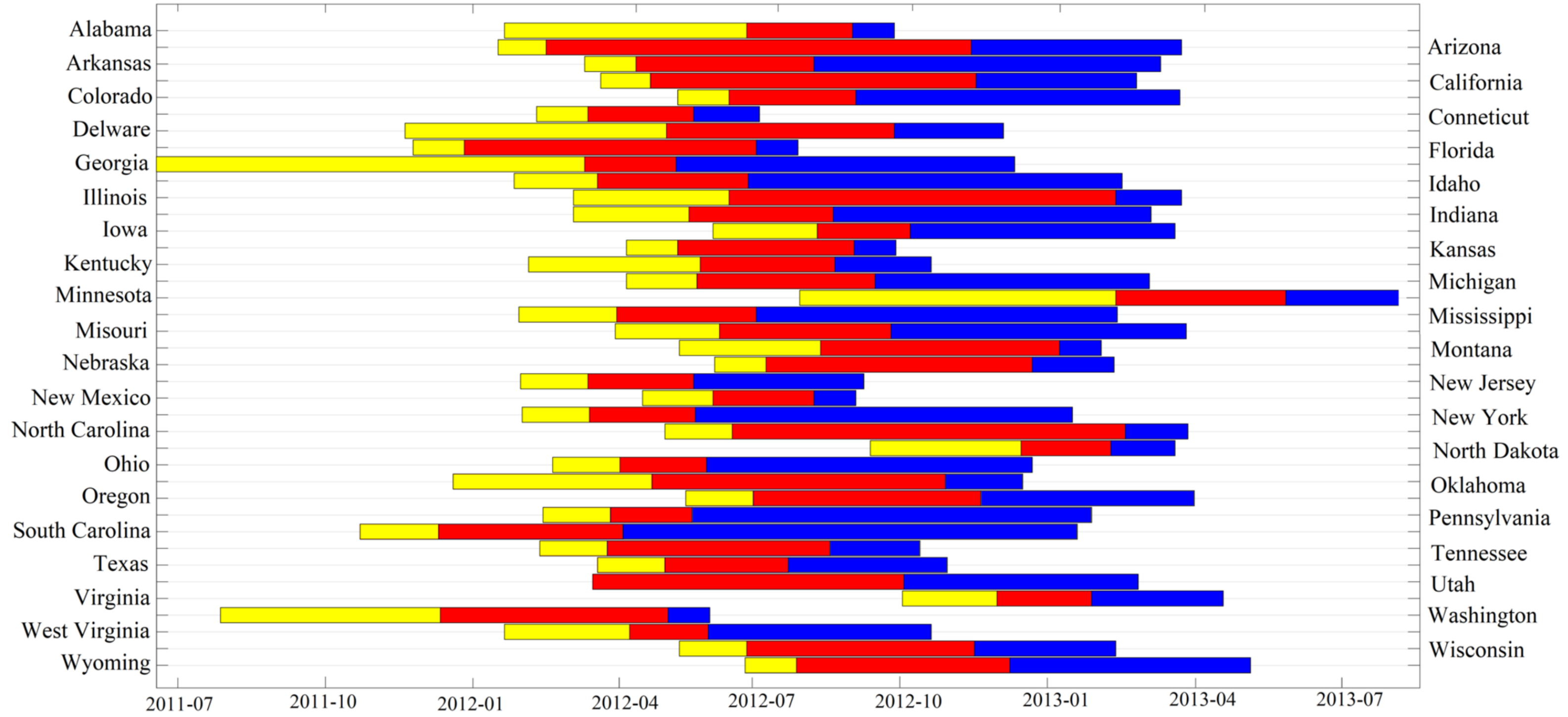


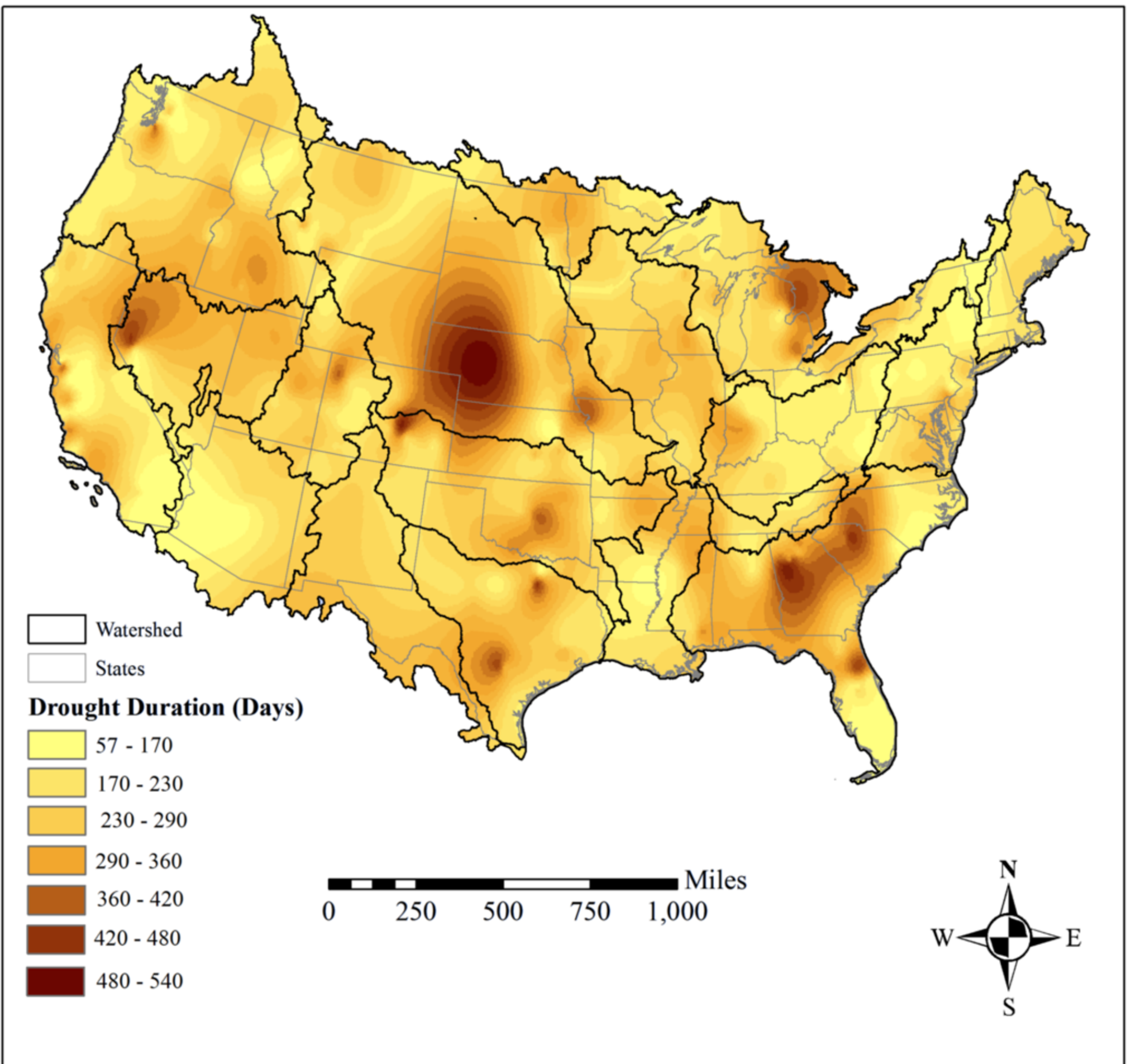
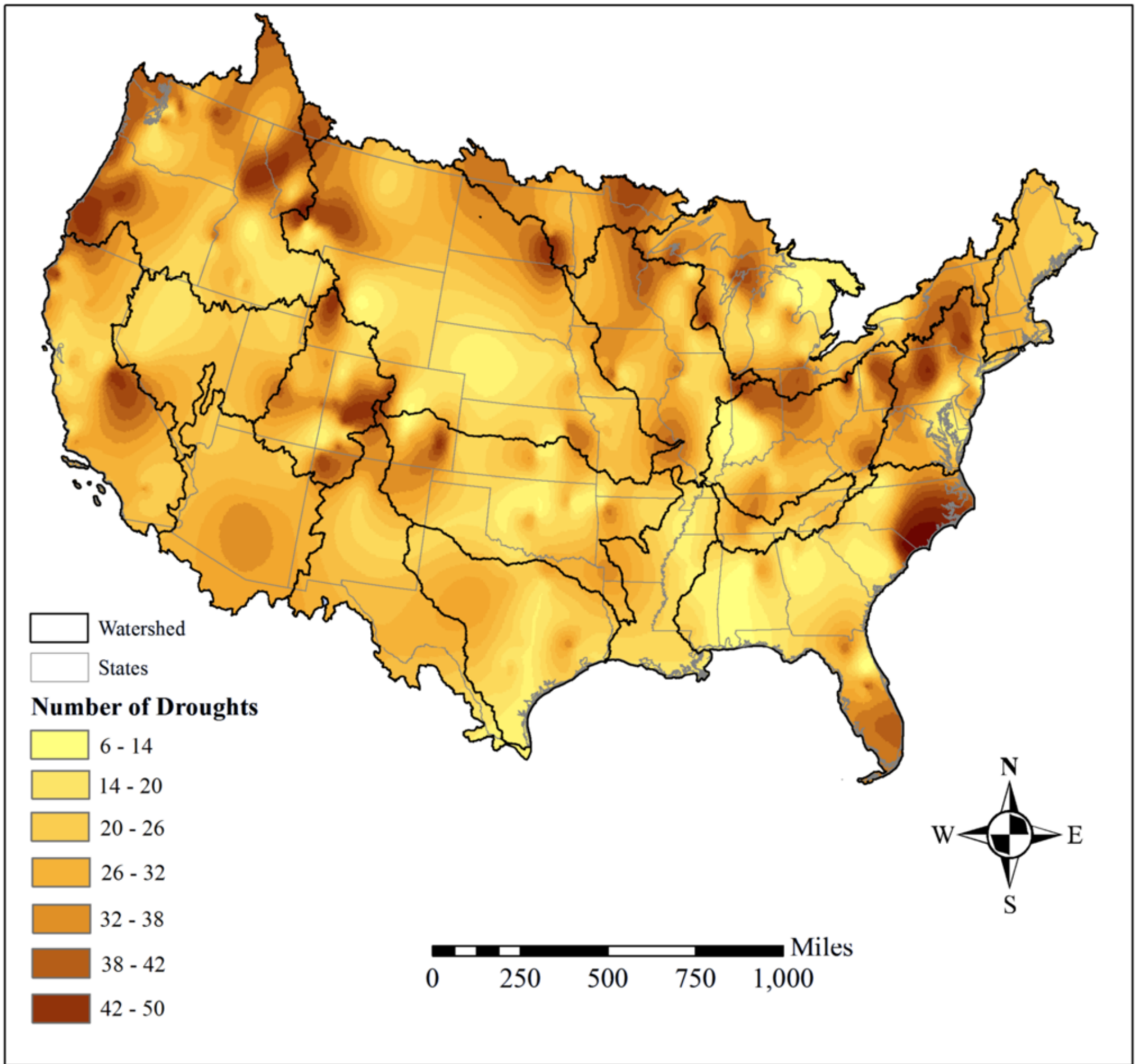


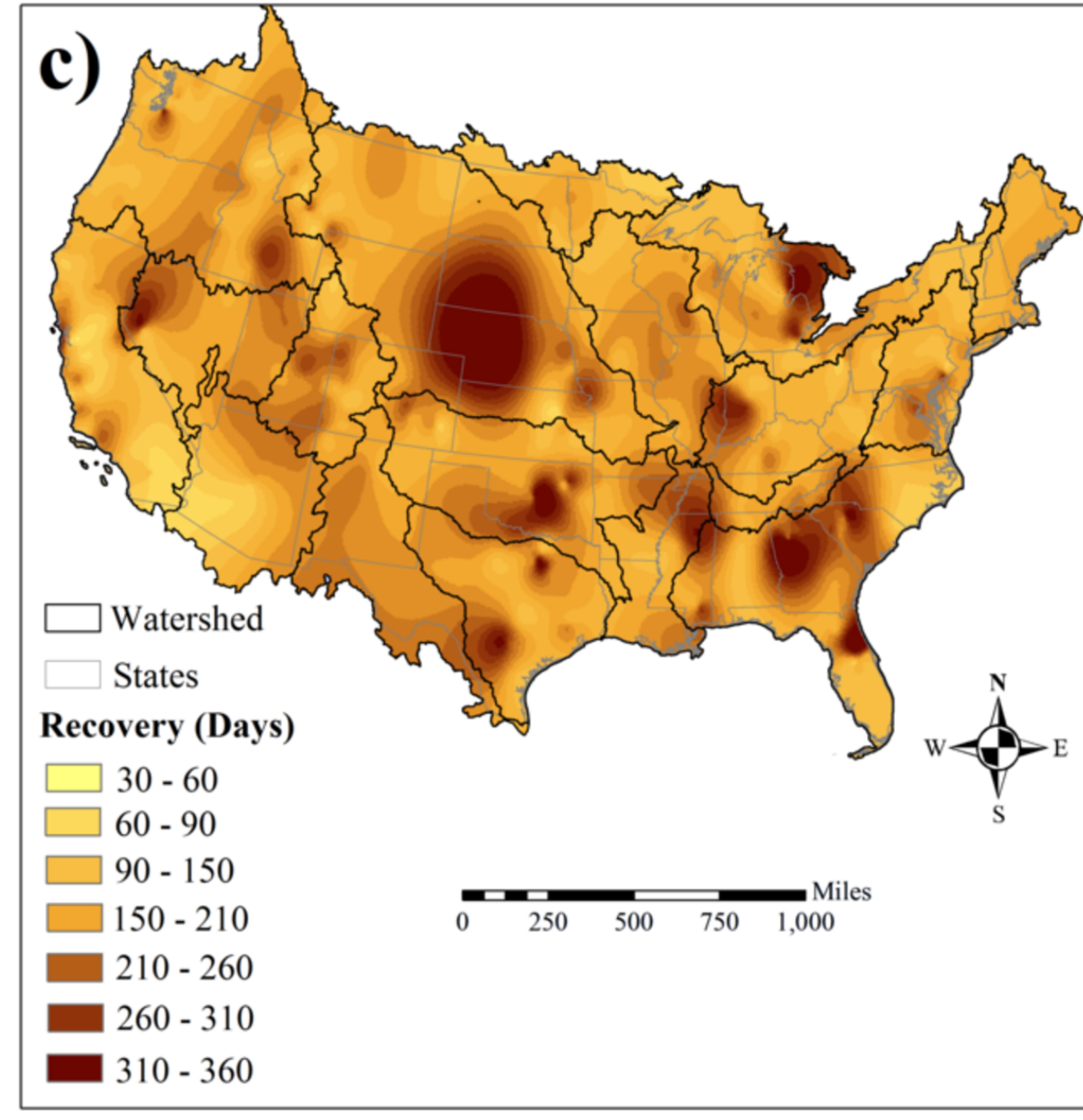
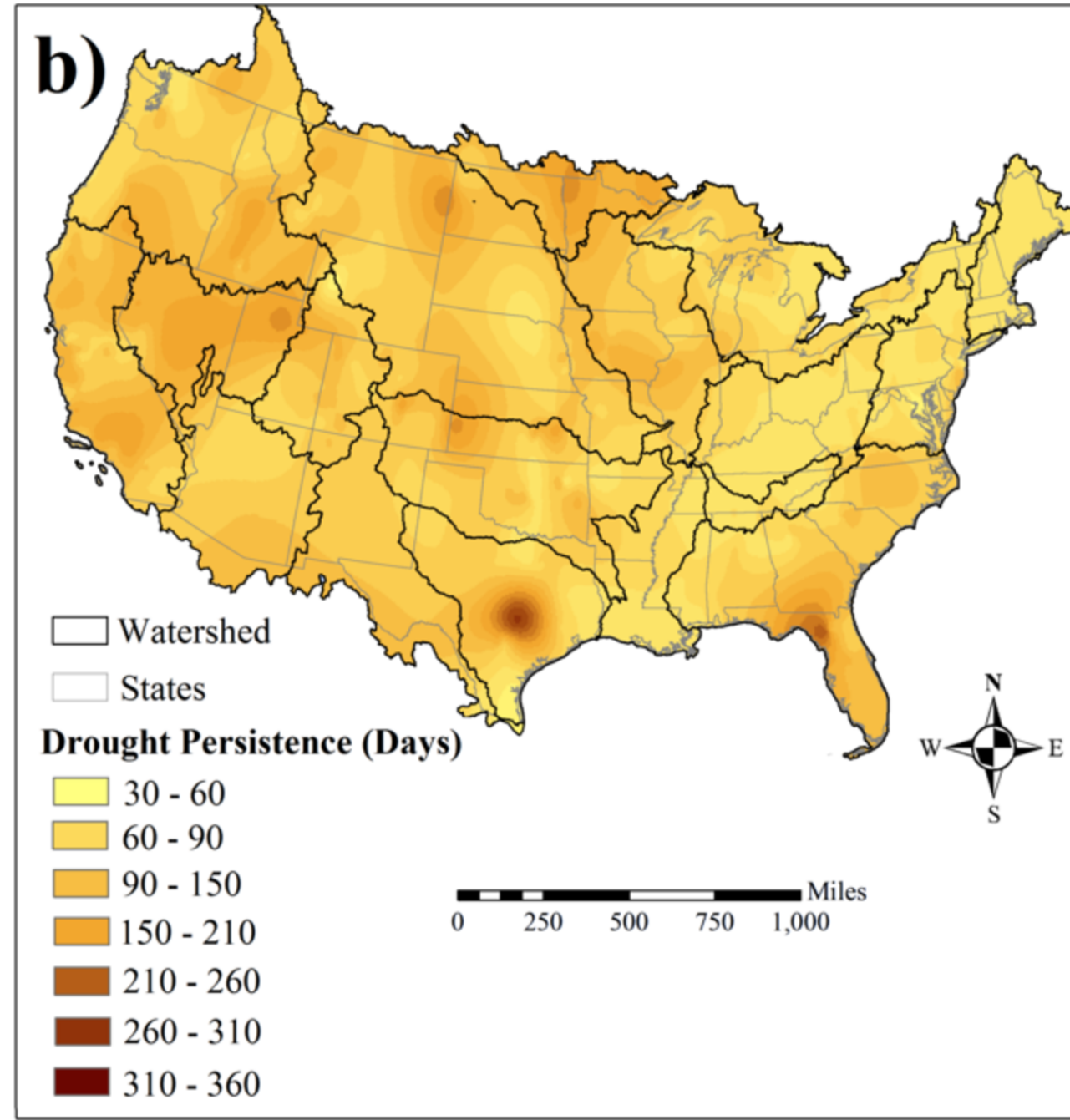
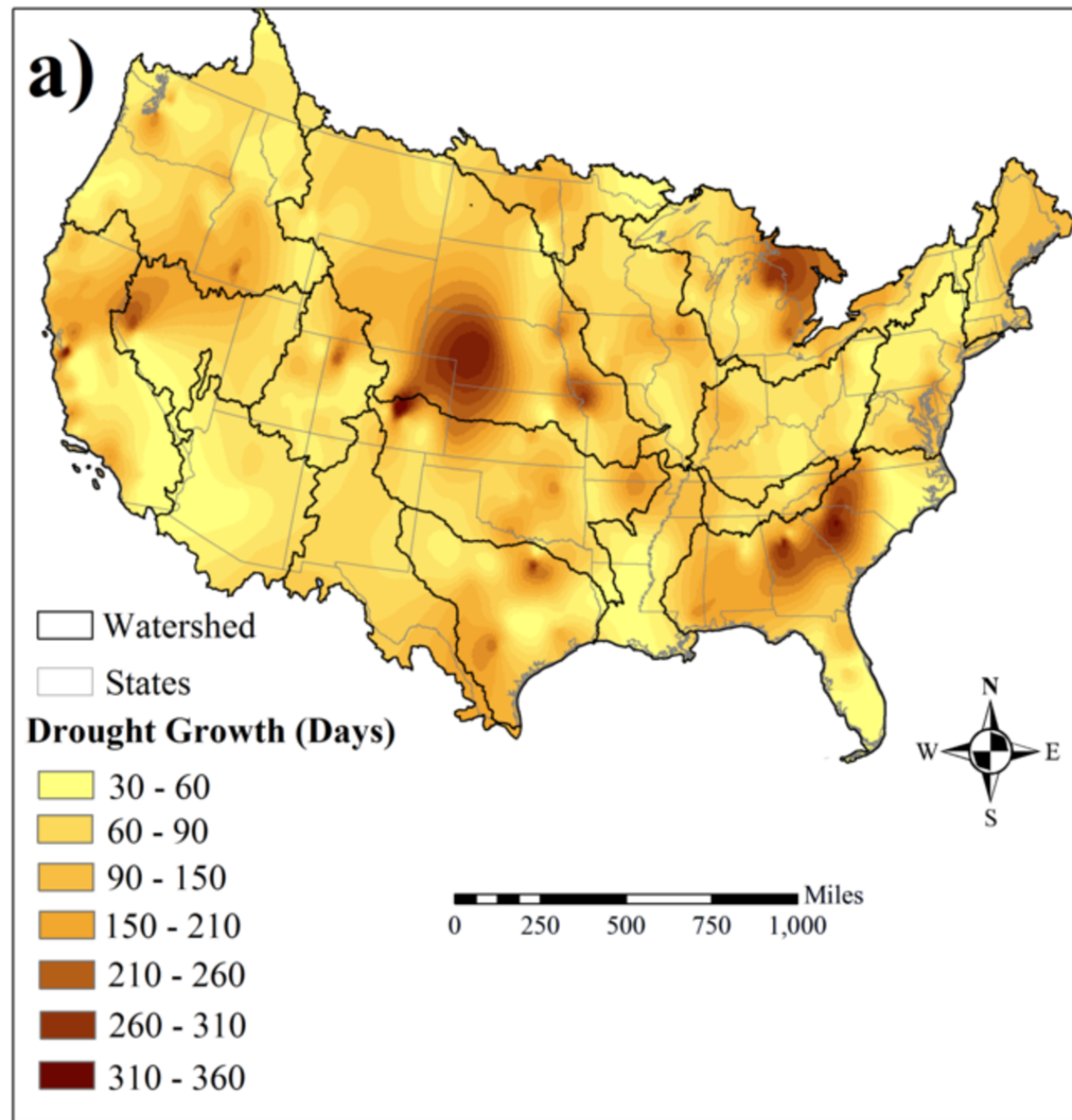
1 Pacific Northwest Basin
 2 California Basin
 3 Great Basin
 4 Lower Colorado Basin
 5 Upper Colorado Basin

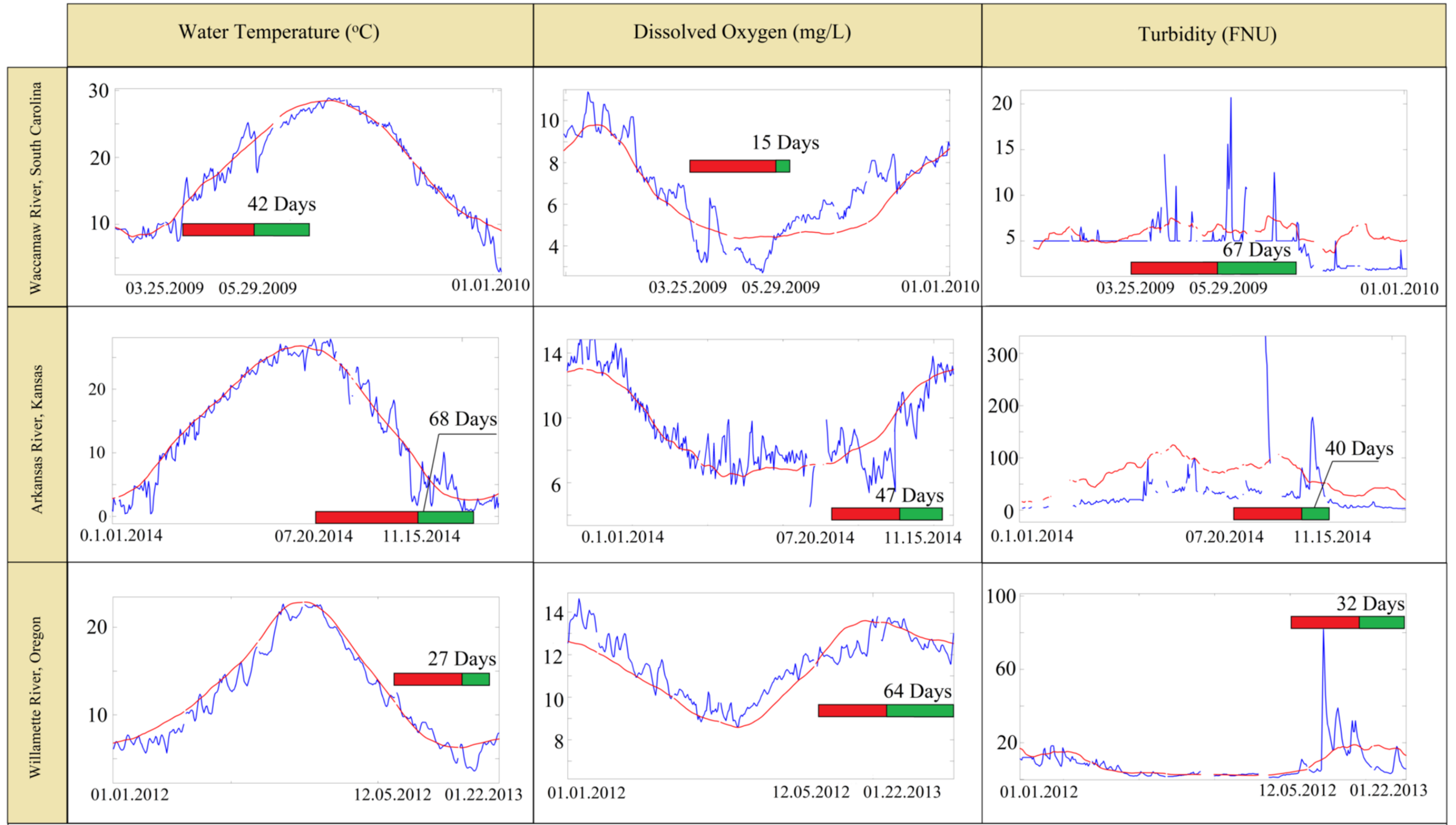
7 Texas Gulf Coast Basin
 8 Arkansas-White-Red Basin
 9 Lower Mississippi Basin
 10 Missouri Basin
 11 Souris-Red-Rainy Basin

13 Great Lakes Basin
 14 Tennessee Basin
 15 Ohio Basin
 16 South Atlantic-Gulf Basin
 17 Mid-Atlantic Basin



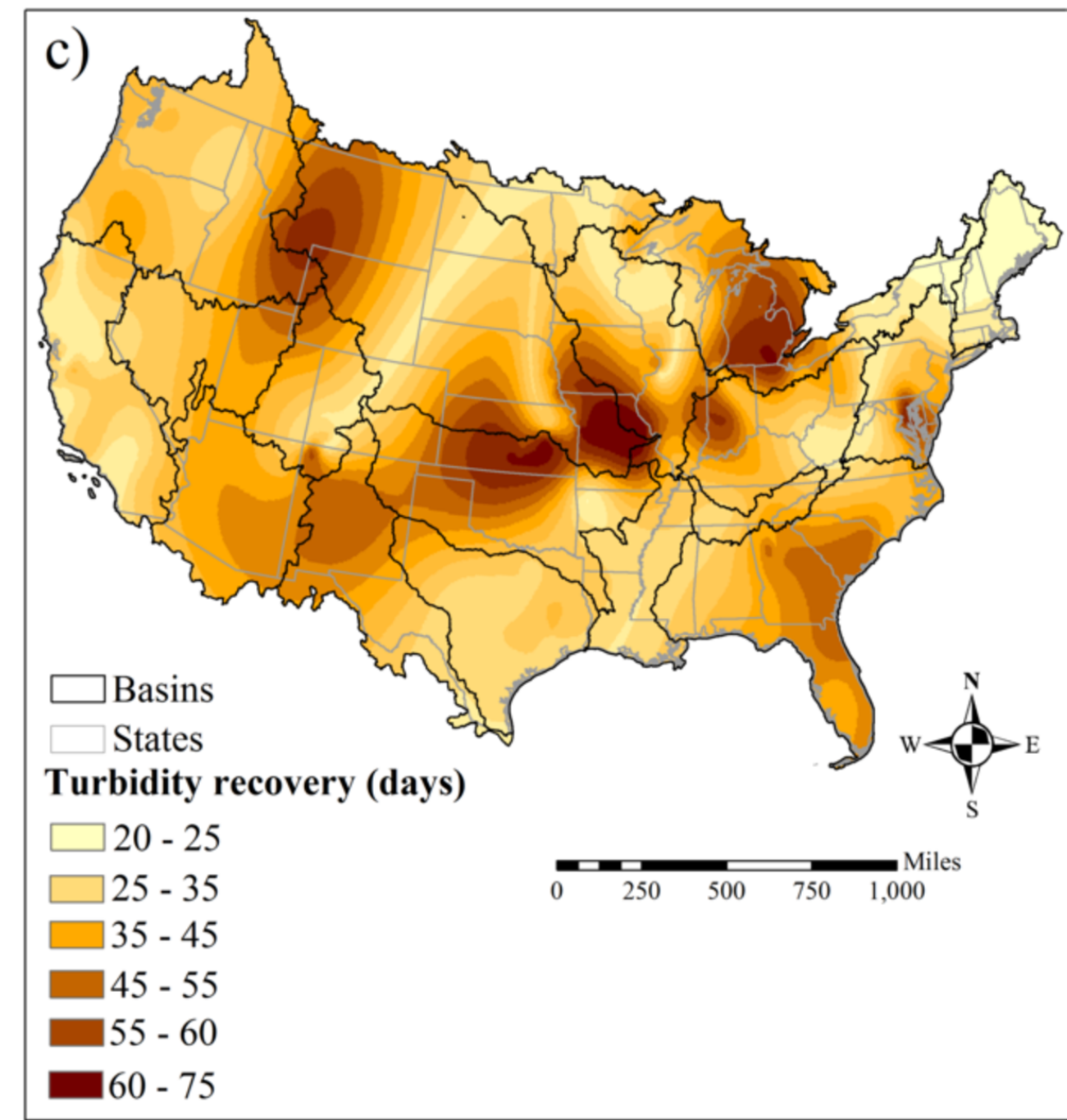
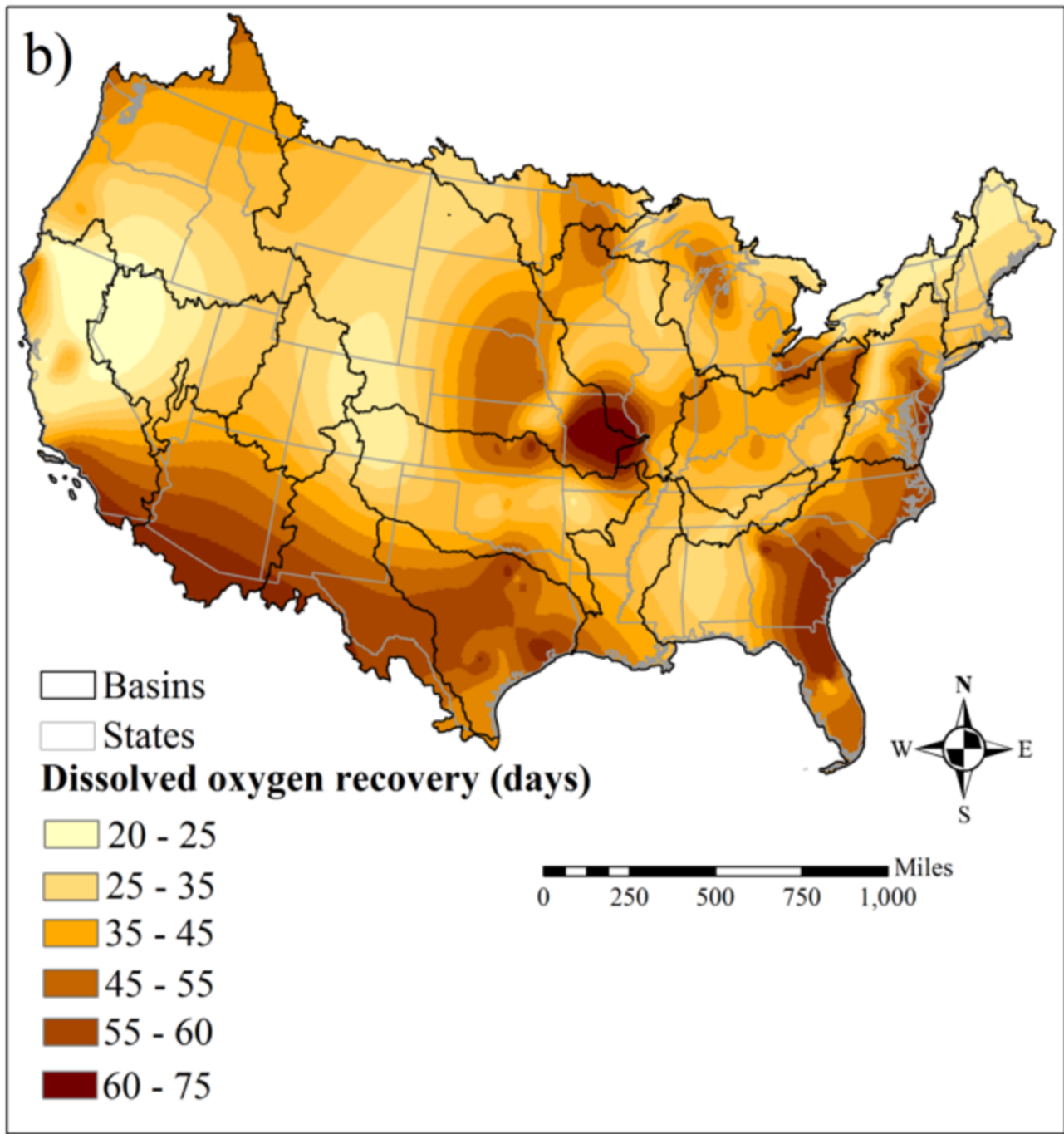
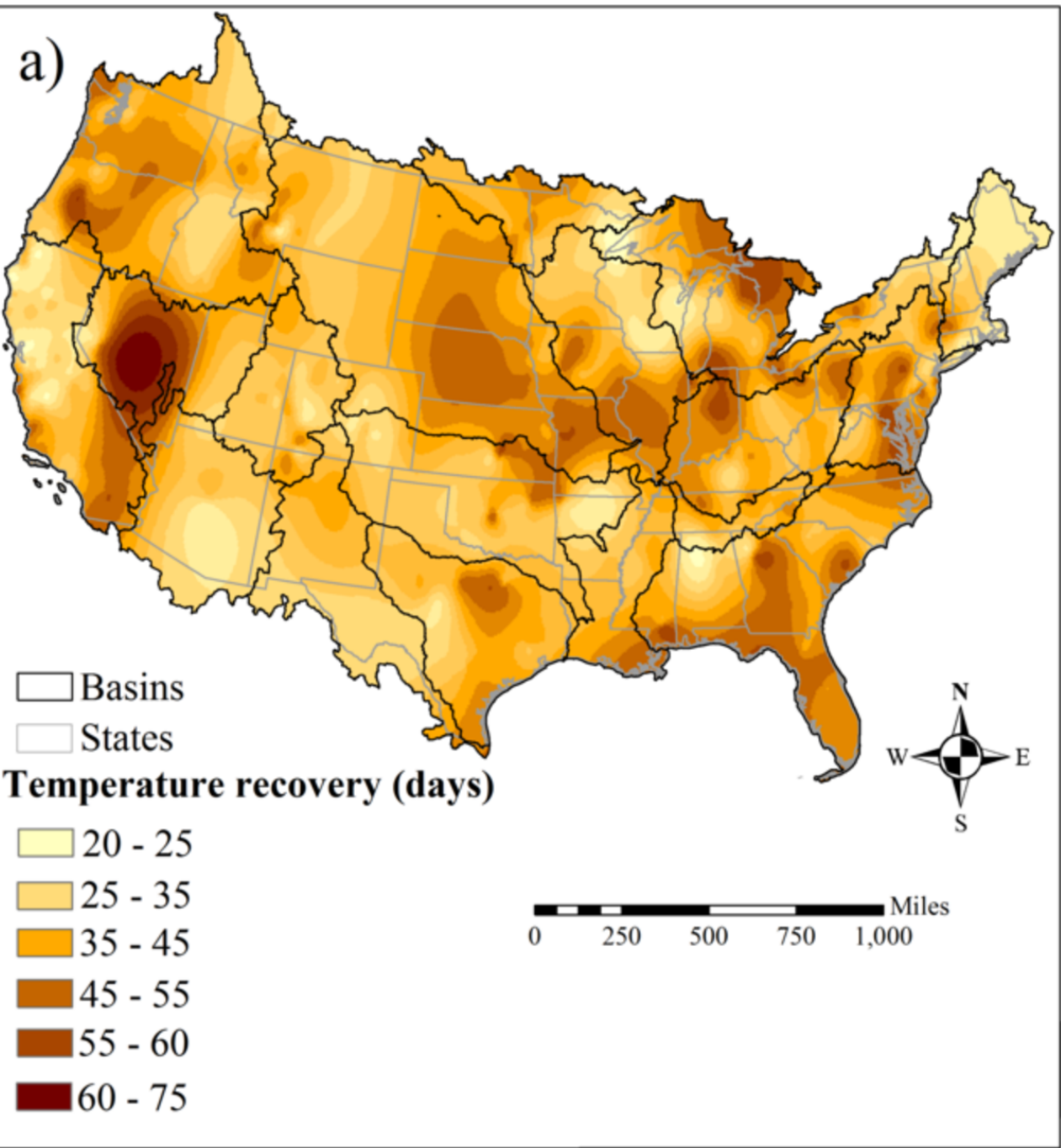




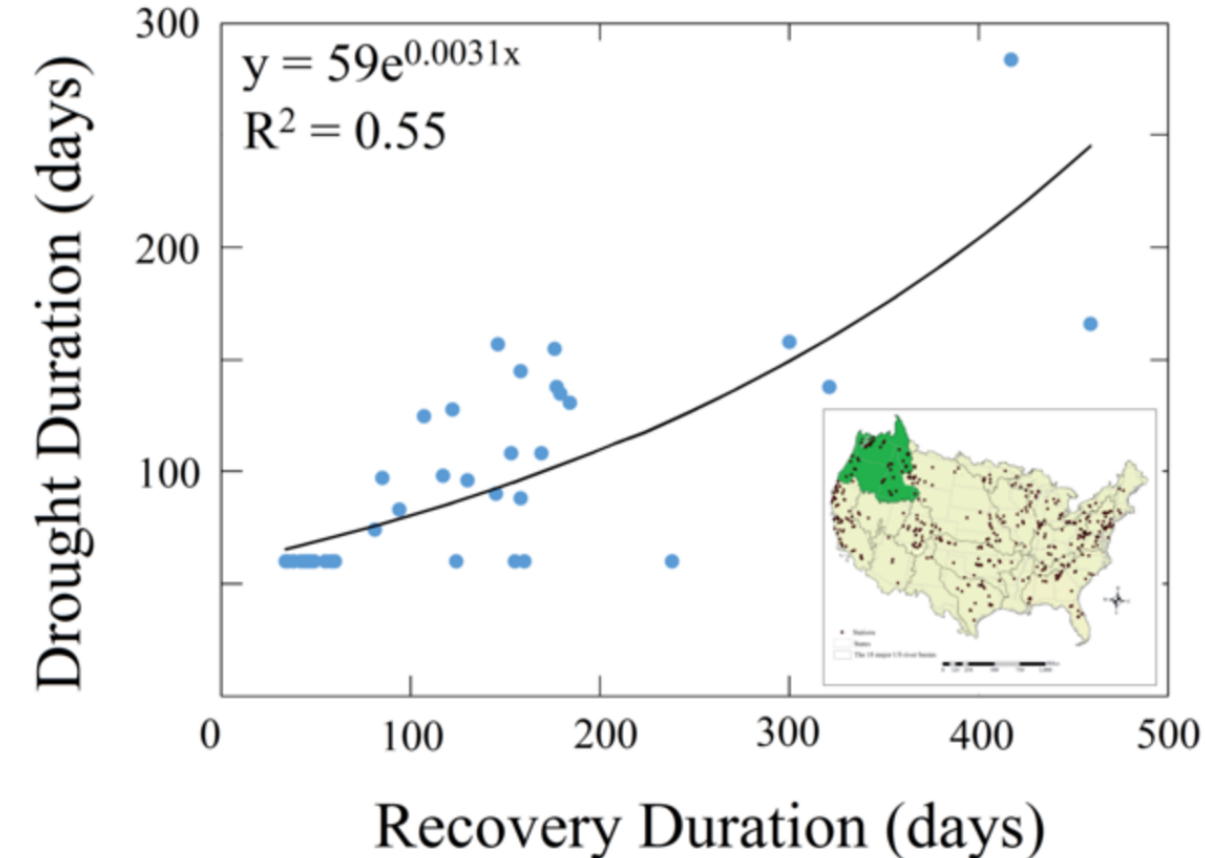
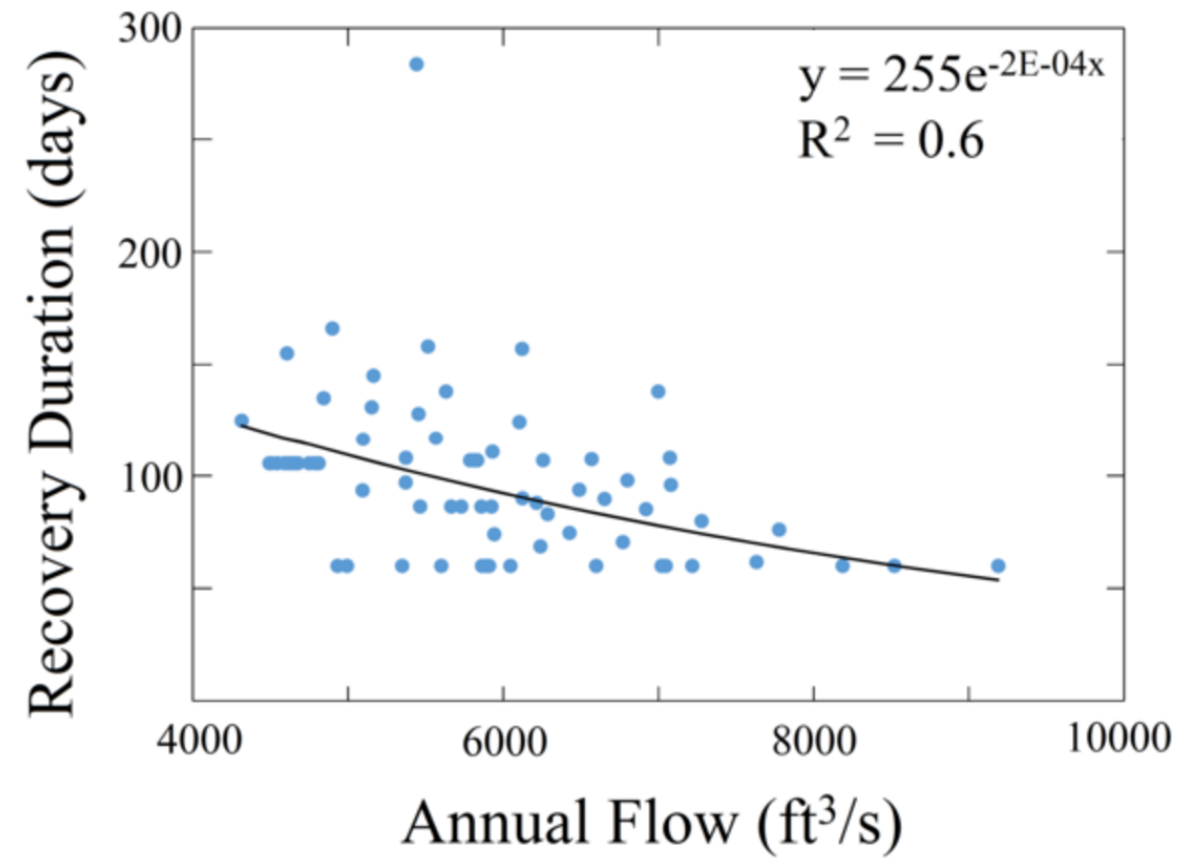
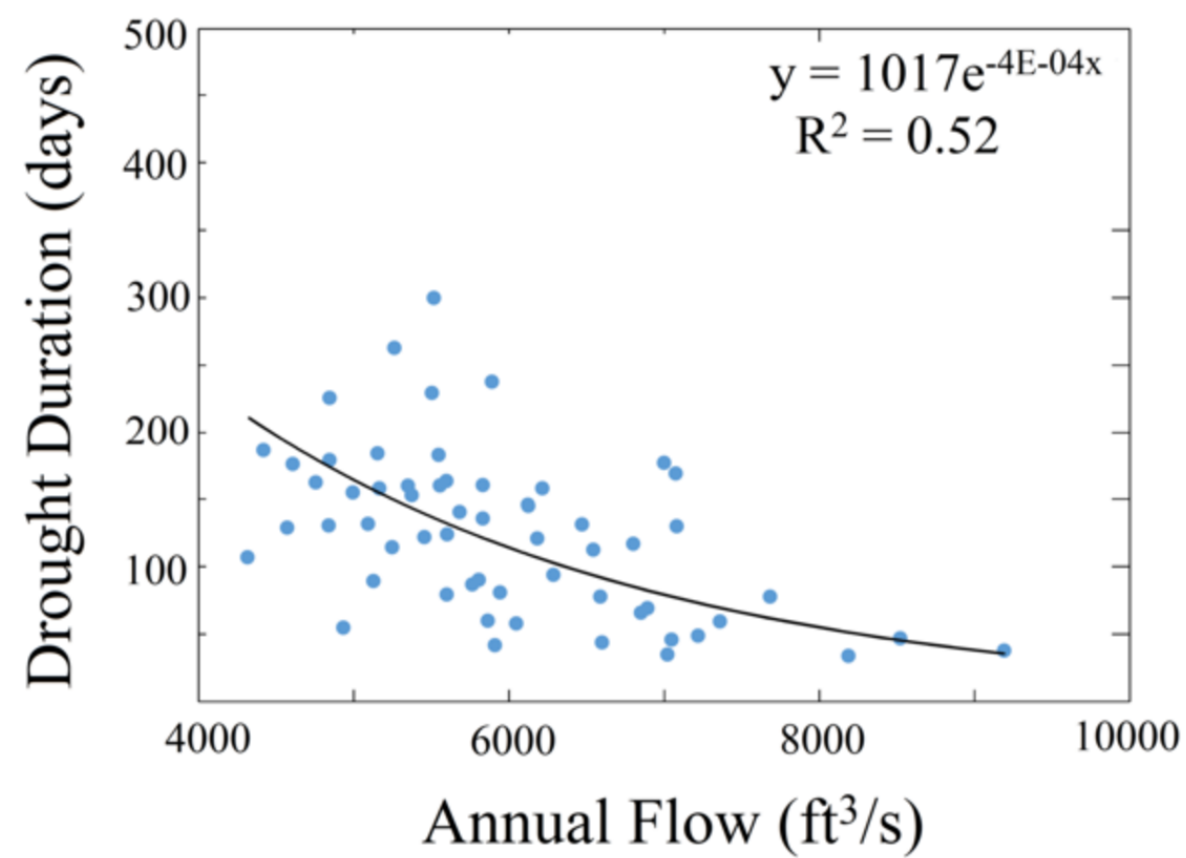


— Observed Water Quality Parameter

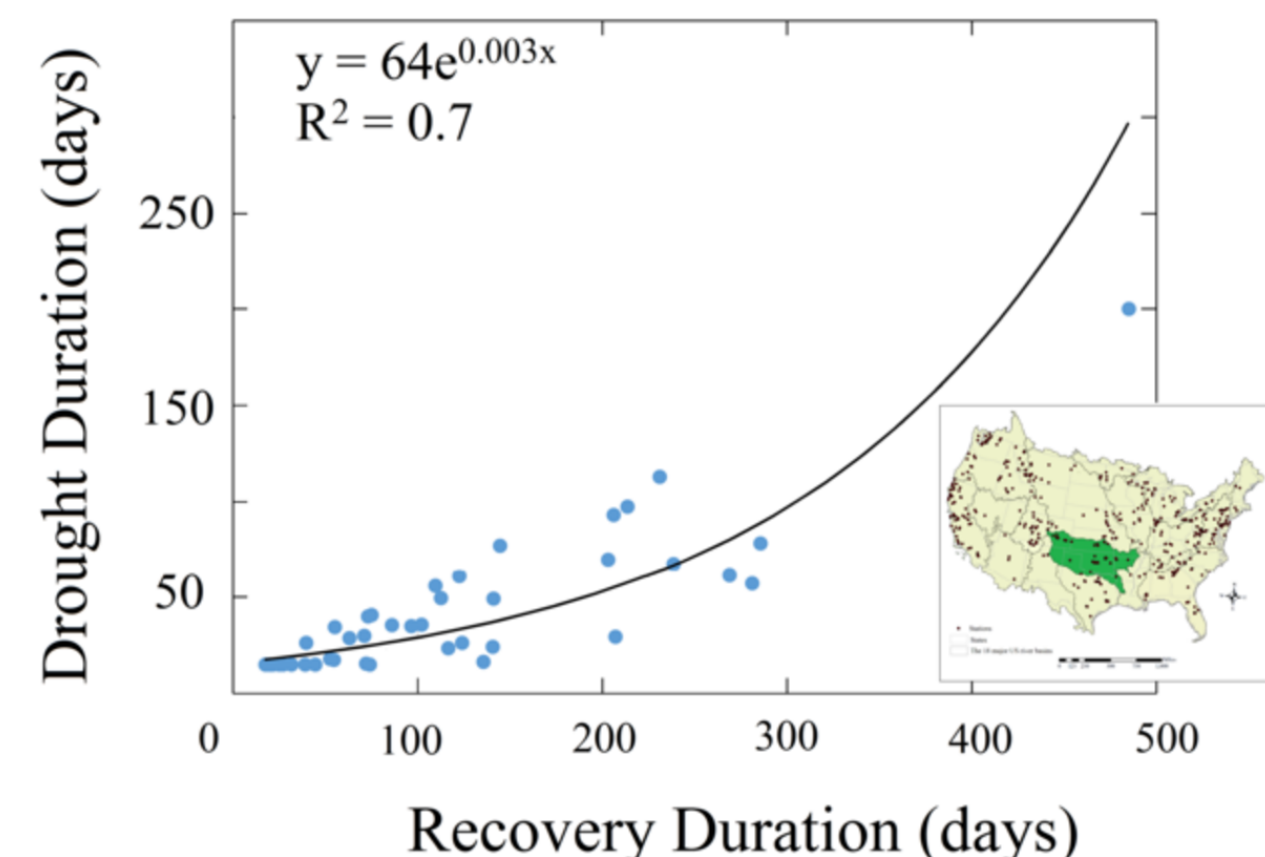
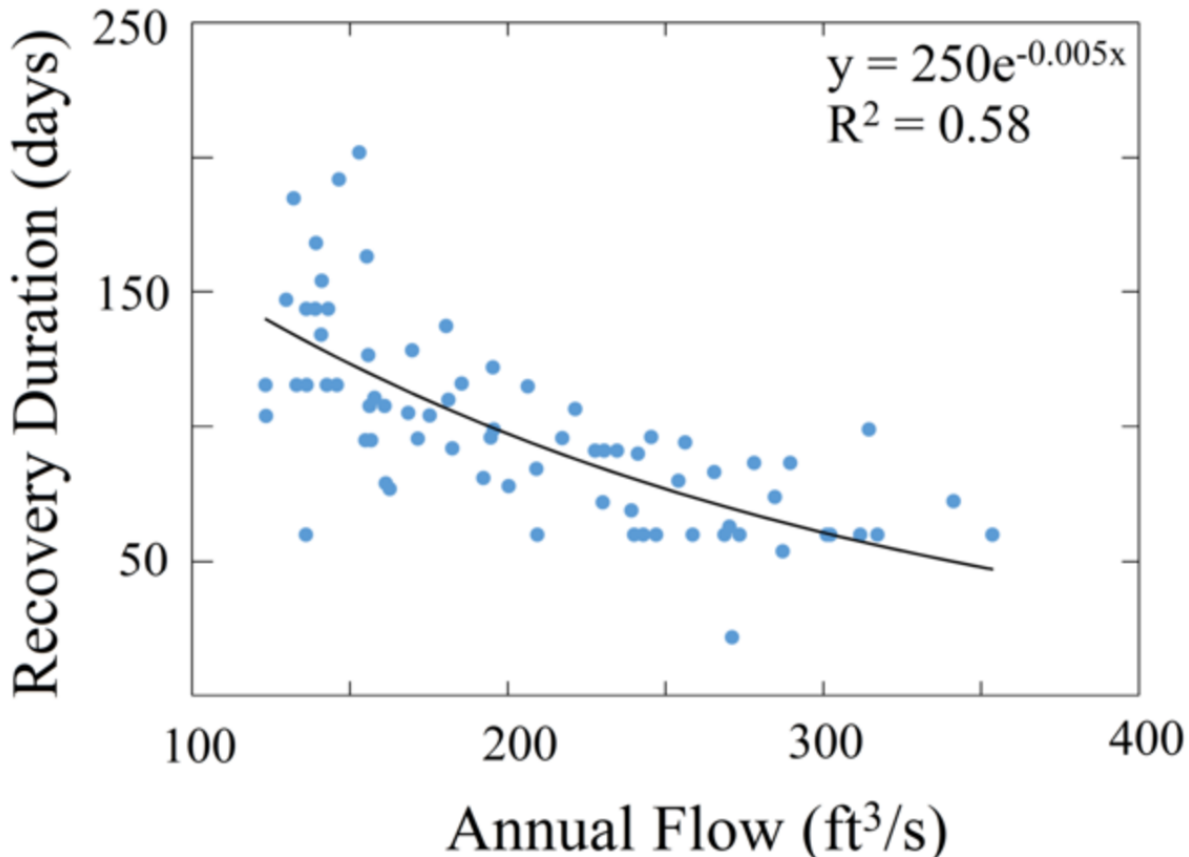
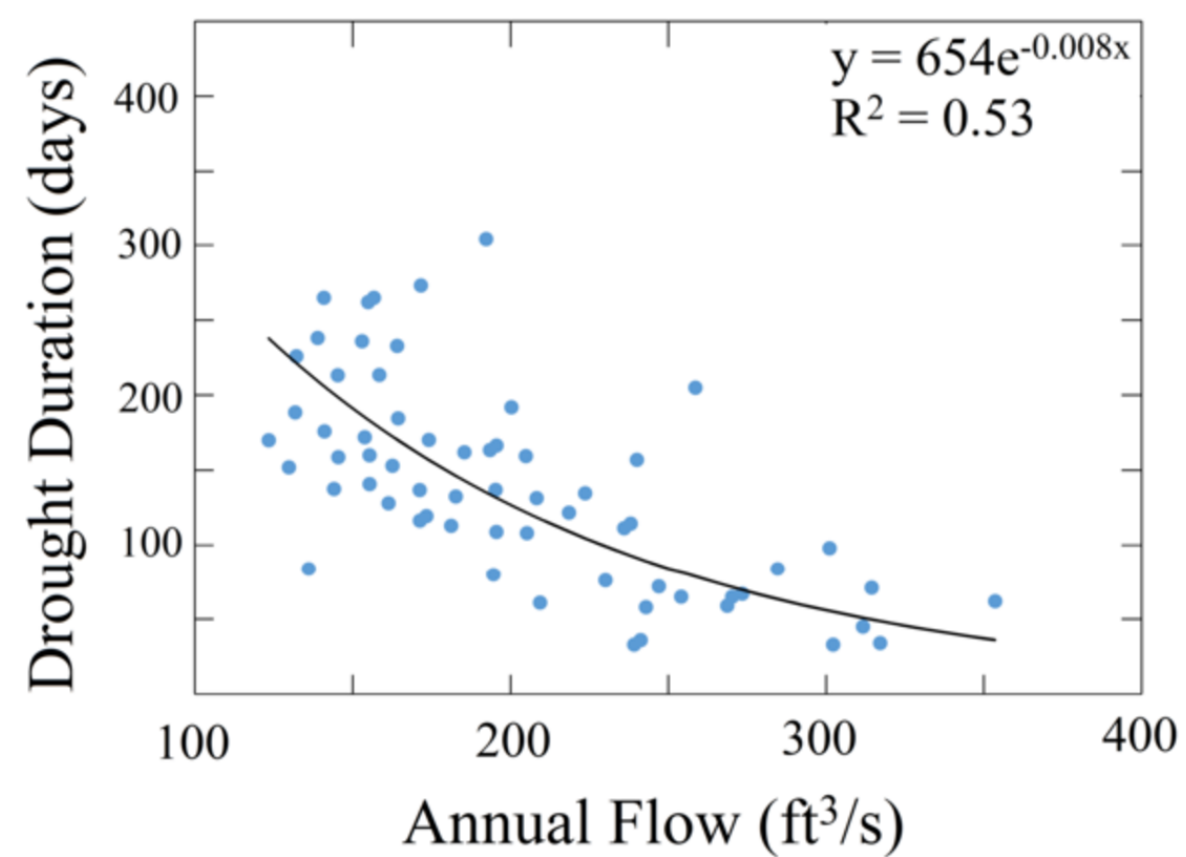
— Threshold of Water Quality Parameter



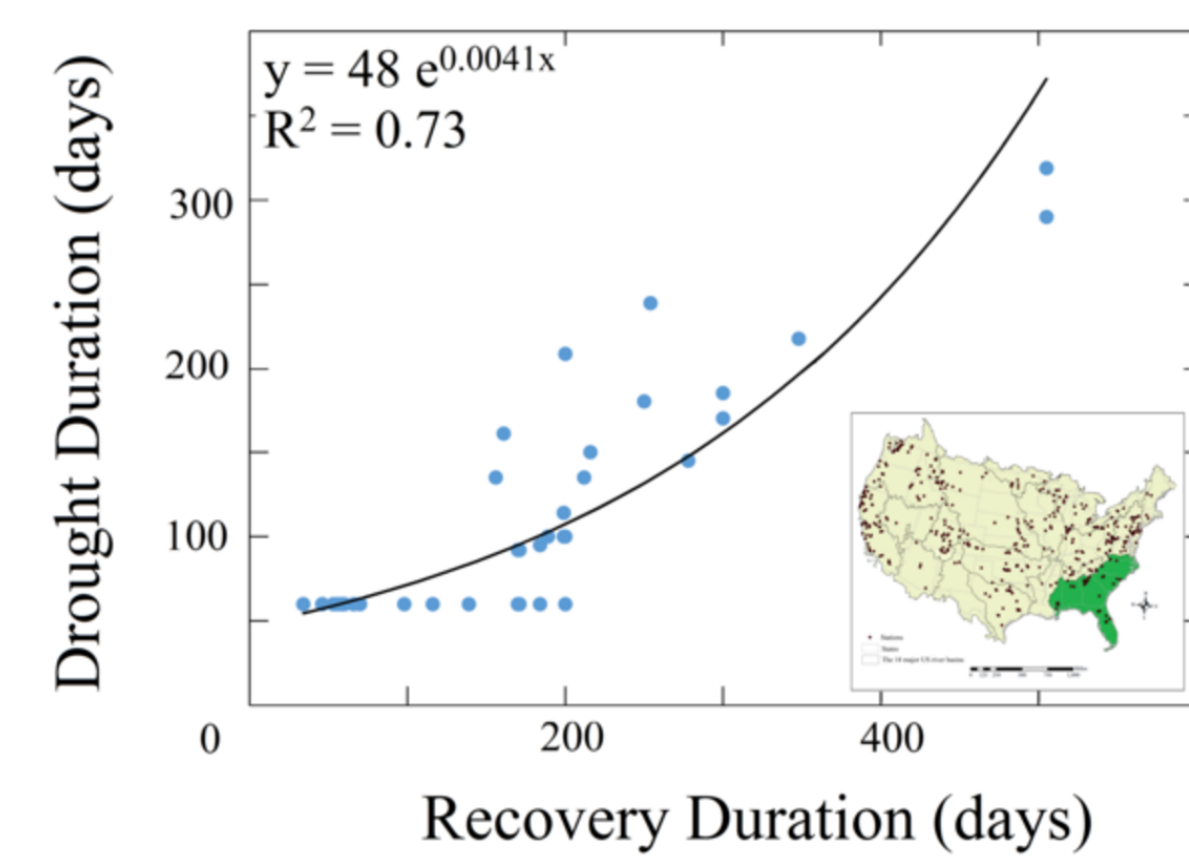
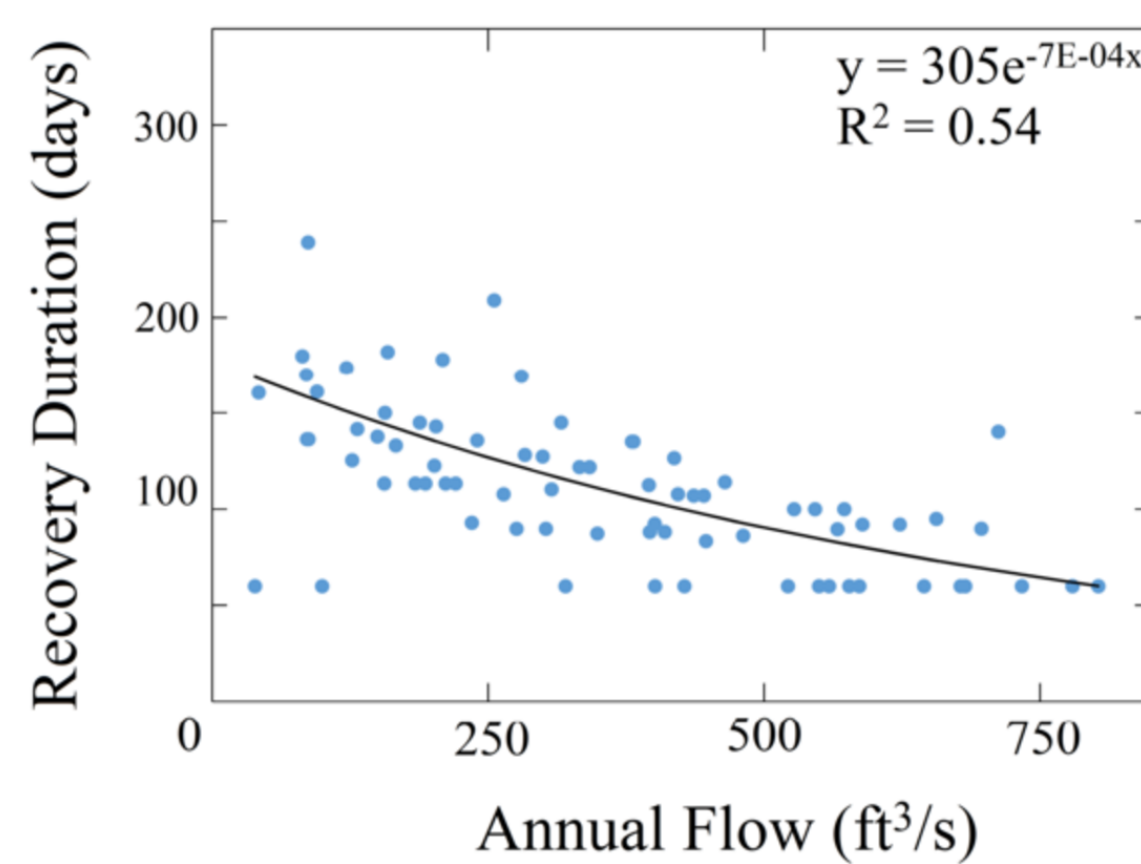
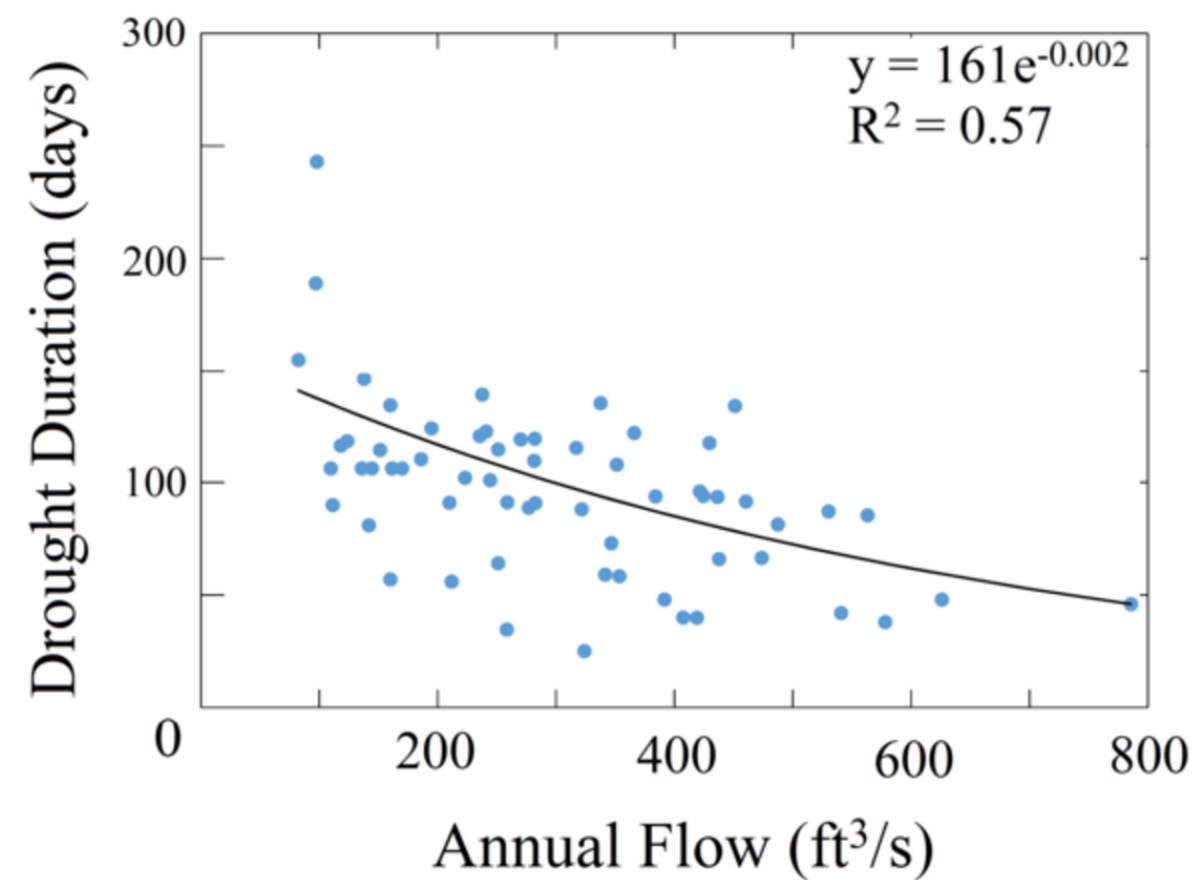
Pacific Northwest Basin

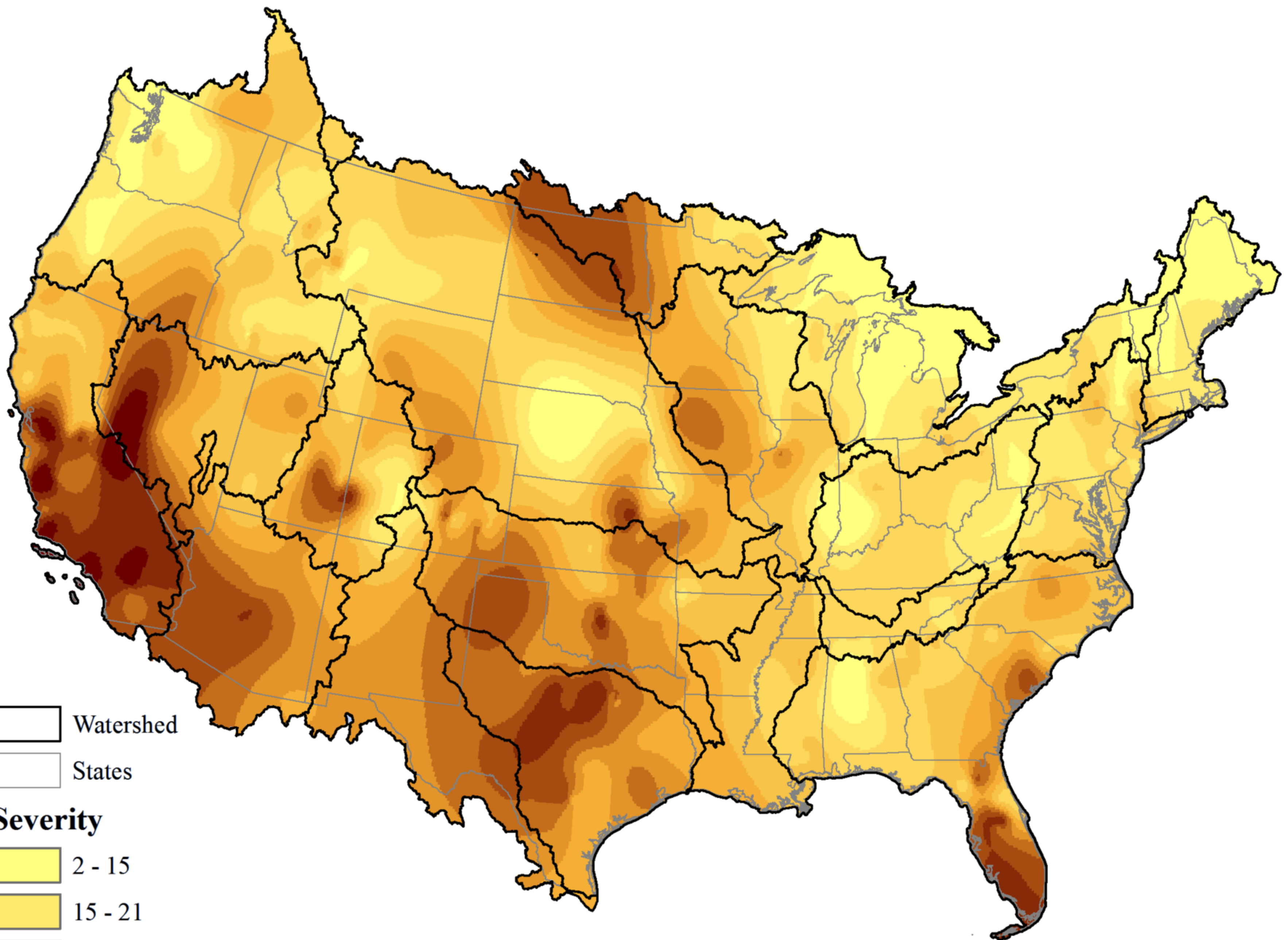


Arkansas White-Red Basin



South Atlantic-Gulf Basin

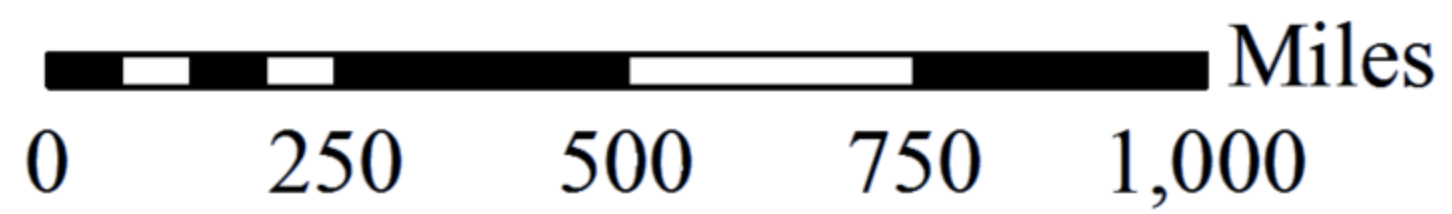
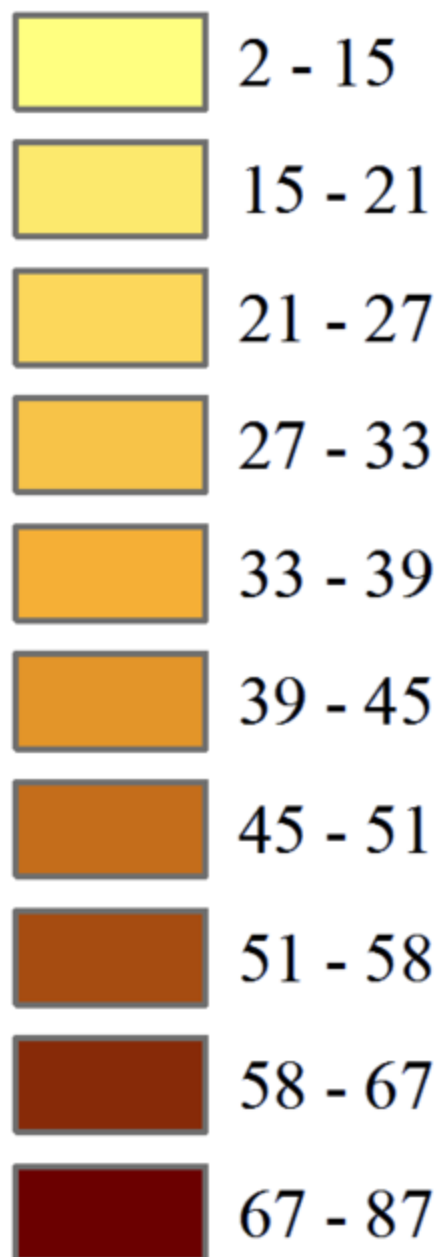


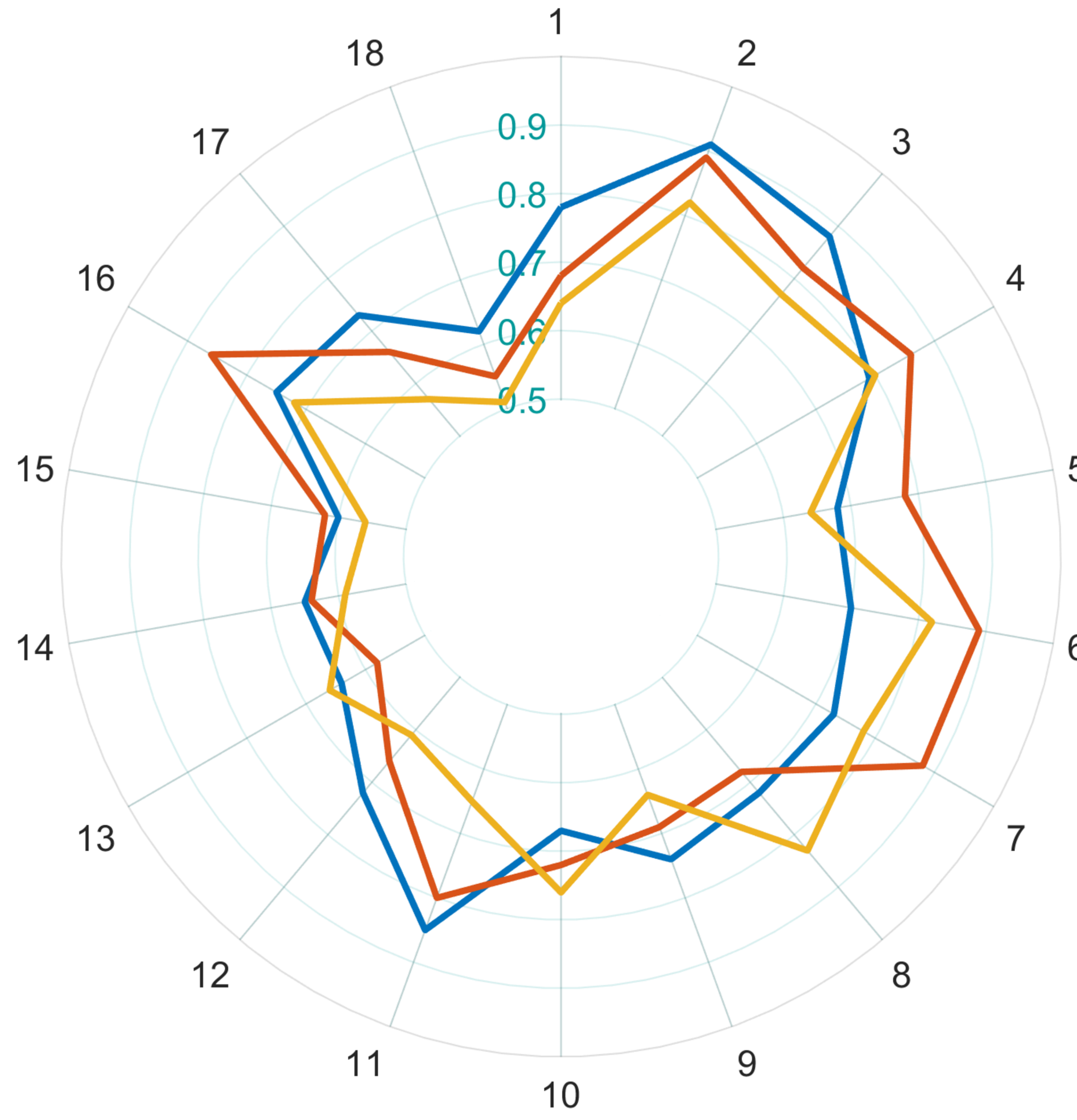


Watershed

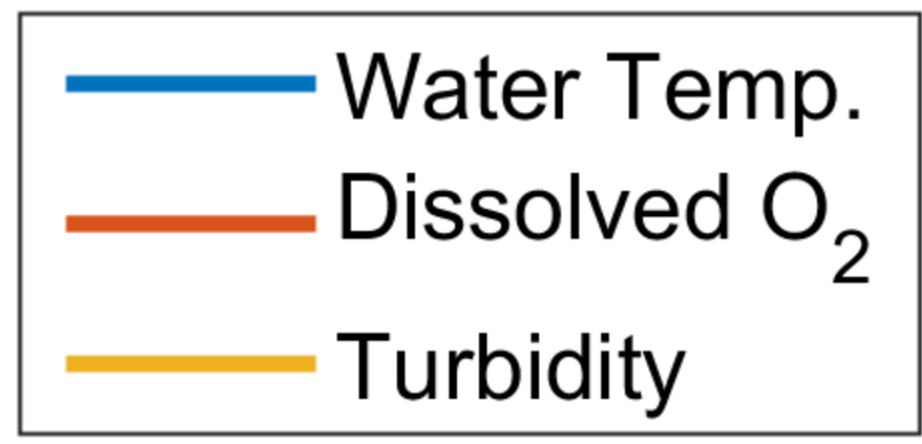
States

Severity





1. Pacific Northwest
2. California
3. Great Basin
4. Lower Colorado
5. Upper Colorado
6. Rio Grande
7. Texas Gulf
8. Arkansas
9. Lower Mississippi
10. Missouri
11. Souris-red-Rainy
12. Upper Mississippi
13. Great Lakes
14. Tennessee
15. Ohio
16. South Atlantic
17. Mid-Atlantic
18. New England



CDF of Drought Duration

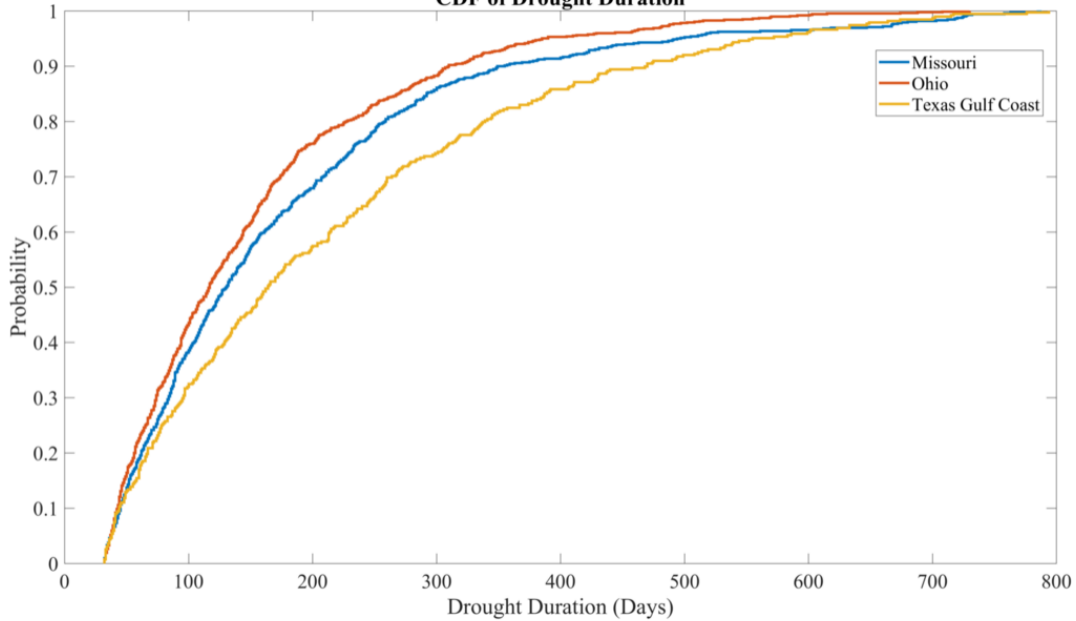


Table 1 – Minimum, median, and maximum deviation of water temperature, dissolved oxygen, and water turbidity during drought for each river basin.

	Temperature (°C)			Dissolved Oxygen (mg/L)			Turbidity (FNU)		
	Min	Median	Max	Min	Median	Max	Min	Median	Max
1. Pacific Northwest	1	1.5	2.8	1	1.5	2.3	14	25	50
2. California	2	2.8	5.8	1.3	1.8	2.8	18	32	55
3. Great Basin	2	2.5	4.8	1.2	1.6	2.7	36	68	110
4. Lower Colorado	2.2	3	5.6	1.4	1.7	2.8	40	72	95
5. Upper Colorado	1.5	2	3.2	1.1	1.5	2.3	35	68	114
6. Rio Grande	2.2	3.2	5.7	1.4	1.8	2.6	42	61	103
7. Texas Gulf	2.1	3	5.9	1.3	1.7	3	29	36	68
8. Arkansas	1.5	1.9	5.5	1	1.4	2.8	33	66	120
9. Lower Mississippi	2.5	3	4.8	1.3	1.6	2.6	15	29	48
10. Missouri	1.3	2.8	4.3	1.2	1.5	2.2	44	72	113
11. Souris-Red-Rainy	1.2	1.9	2.8	1.1	1.4	1.8	16	30	62
12. Upper Mississippi	1.5	1.9	3	1.2	1.5	2.1	18	28	52
13. Great Lakes	1.4	2.1	2.7	1	1.4	2.2	17	31	56
14. Tennessee	2	3	3.3	1.2	1.6	2.5	14	26	50
15. Ohio	1.2	2.2	3	1.1	1.4	2.3	11	26	46

16. South Atlantic	2.2	2.9	4.9	1.4	1.9	2.9	10	21	39
17. Mid-Atlantic	1.5	2.3	3.1	1.2	1.5	2.3	11	20	44
18. New England	1.2	1.8	2.6	1.1	1.4	2.1	15	31	56