

1 Compound droughts and hot extremes: characteristics, drivers, 2 changes, and impacts

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20 **Abstract**

21 Compound droughts and hot events or extremes (CDHEs) may lead to larger
22 repercussions than do individual dry or hot extremes. Due to the disastrous impacts and
23 increased risk of these events under global warming, increased attention has been paid
24 to these events from both research and operational communities. This review provides a
25 synthesis of the literature on characteristics, physical mechanisms, changes (detection,
26 attribution, and projection), and the impact of CDHEs. Different characteristics of these
27 events (e.g., frequency, duration, and spatial extent) are first introduced based on dry
28 and hot indicators at different time scales. We then summarize multiple physical
29 mechanisms of CDHEs, including the atmospheric circulation (and modes of
30 variability) and land-atmosphere feedbacks across different regions. Evidence from
31 observations shows an overall increase in CDHEs in the past few decades at regional
32 and global scales, which mainly results from an increase in hot extremes and is likely
33 attributable to anthropogenic influences. Future projections indicate an increase in
34 CDHEs over most global land areas. Quantitative assessments of the influence of
35 CDHEs on different sectors (e.g., water resources, crop yield, vegetation) highlight
36 their amplified impacts compared with individual droughts or hot extremes. Several
37 challenges in the data availability, characterization, physical mechanism, simulation,
38 and impacts of CDHEs and opportunities to address these challenges are then discussed.
39 This study can be useful for better understanding, modeling and risk analysis of
40 compound extremes under global warming.

41 **Keywords:** compound event; drought; dry and hot; extreme; climate change

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43 **1 Introduction**

44 Global warming manifests in increased temperature and shifted precipitation regimes,
45 which are associated with an increase in the frequency and intensity of weather and
46 climate extremes (Coumou et al., 2013; Hansen et al., 2010; Jones et al., 1999; La
47 Sorte et al., 2021; Stocker et al., 2013), including droughts and hot extremes (Baldwin
48 et al., 2019; Dai, 2013; Gebremeskel Haile et al., 2019; Naumann et al., 2018; Perkins
49 et al., 2012; Trenberth et al., 2014). Increased weather and climate extremes may
50 induce huge repercussions on the ecosystem and society, hindering progress towards
51 sustainable development goals. For example, increased droughts and hot extremes
52 may deplete water resources, impair agriculture production, damage ecosystems,
53 increase energy demand, amplify wildfire risk, and affect human health (Ciais et al.,
54 2005; Schewe et al., 2019; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2020b; Vogel et al., 2021a; Watts et
55 al., 2015). Thus, it is important to improve our understanding and modeling of climate
56 extremes and their impacts.

57 A plethora of research has shown that combined extremes (e.g., droughts and hot
58 extremes) may lead to adverse impacts on water supply, crop yield, and livestock
59 mortality, which can be higher than the sum of their counterparts (Chen et al., 2018;
60 García-Herrera et al., 2010; Seneviratne et al., 2021; Teuling, 2018; Ward et al., 2022).

61 This phenomenon of large impacts from multiple variables, which refers to the
62 extremes occurring at the same or different locations with or without a time lag, is
63 commonly termed “compound events” (Hao et al., 2013; Leonard et al., 2014;
64 Seneviratne et al., 2012; Seneviratne et al., 2021; Zscheischler et al., 2018). Note that
65 there are other terms describing similar phenomena of compound events, including
66 combined, cascading, contemporaneous, coincident, simultaneous, concurrent, or
67 consecutive events or extremes (Cutter, 2018; de Ruiter et al., 2020; Drakes and Tate,

68 2022; Gill and Malamud, 2014; Hao et al., 2013; Hillier et al., 2020; Kappes et al.,
69 2012; Pescaroli and Alexander, 2018; Schauwecker et al., 2019; Tilloy et al., 2019).
70 Compound events are first defined in IPCC special report on Managing the Risks of
71 Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation (SREX) in
72 2012, which can be of different types (Seneviratne et al., 2012):
73 “(1) two or more extreme events occurring simultaneously or successively, (2)
74 combinations of extreme events with underlying conditions that amplify the impact of
75 the events, or (3) combinations of events that are not themselves extremes but lead to
76 an extreme event or impact when combined”. While the first and third component of
77 the definition is relatively straightforward, the definition of the second type of events
78 (e.g., underlying conditions) is less clear. Firstly the underlying conditions can be
79 interpreted as a mere amplification of an existing compound event and secondly they
80 could also be understood as parts of the compound event (Leonard et al., 2014).
81 Recently, Zscheischler et al. (2018) defined compound events as “the combination of
82 multiple drivers and/or hazards that contributes to societal or environmental risk”,
83 which is used in the latest IPCC AR6. Following Seneviratne et al. (2021), we use this
84 definition of compound events in this study, as it focuses on the risk framework in
85 IPCC and highlights the drivers of compound events are not necessary to be
86 dependent. Here the drivers refer to weather/climate processes, variables, or
87 phenomena spanning multiple temporal-spatial scales and the hazard (also termed
88 “climate impact-drivers”) can be potential occurrences of natural or human-induced
89 events or trends causing health impacts (e.g., losses of life, injury) as well as loss and
90 damage to the property, infrastructure, ecosystems, environmental resources and other
91 sectors (Field et al., 2012; Masson-Delmotte et al., 2021). Hazards can be caused by
92 one or more climate drivers and the risk here is defined as the product of the

93 probability of hazards and consequences (unfolding as a combination of the hazard,
94 vulnerability, and exposure instead) (Seneviratne et al., 2021; Zscheischler et al.,
95 2020). Note that even though the individual component may not be extremes
96 themselves (or record-breaking events), the combined events with deviation from the
97 mean state may cause cumulative and amplified extreme impacts (Hegerl et al., 2011;
98 Leonard et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2014; Rummukainen, 2012; Tschumi et al.,
99 2022b).

100 Droughts and hot extremes, which are among the most disastrous extremes, may occur
101 at a wide range of time scales and their concurrences can lead to disastrous impacts.

102 Droughts are often induced by precipitation anomalies or evaporative demand and may
103 persist from several months to years or decades (Dai, 2013; Hao et al., 2018e; Mishra
104 and Singh, 2010; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2020a; Zhang et al., 2022a), while high
105 temperature or heatwaves (usually associated with anticyclones) may last from weeks
106 to months (Di Luca et al., 2020; Merz et al., 2020). These two extremes usually

107 co-occur mainly due to land-atmospheric feedbacks (Seneviratne et al., 2021). Many
108 extreme impacts of droughts and heatwaves in recent decades, such as those during

109 summer 2003 in Europe and 2010 in Russia 2010 (as shown in Fig. 1), essentially

110 resulted from their concurrences (or hot droughts, warm droughts) (de Ruiter et al.,

111 2020; Geirinhas et al., 2021; Nguyen et al., 2021; Sedlmeier et al., 2018; Wu et al.,

112 2021e; Zscheischler and Fischer, 2020). In this study, we mainly focus on the

113 concurrent (simultaneous) occurrences of droughts and hot events at the same

114 geographical location, which is commonly evaluated in previous studies. Unless

115 otherwise specified, we will use the term “compound droughts and hot extremes or

116 events” (abbreviated as CDHEs) to describe this type of compound events throughout

117 this manuscript. Here the drought indicator and hot indicator are not necessary to be
118 extremes.

119 The amplified impacts of CDHEs have spurred increasing interest in understanding
120 these events. However, a synthesis of the recent advances and challenges in
121 understanding and modeling CDHEs is still lacking. Therefore, there is a pressing need
122 to review current progress in the study of CDHEs, including their characteristics,
123 drivers, changes (observation, attribution, and projection), and impacts, thereby
124 identifying research gaps and future opportunities. This synthesis is expected to aid
125 the scientific and operational communities to cope with CDHEs under global
126 warming.

127 **2 Identification and characterization of CDHEs**

128 **2.1 Identification**

129 Compound events can be identified as a subset of the two-dimensional probability
130 space defined by the underlying droughts and hot extremes indicators (X, Y), which
131 can be correlated or not. This subset can be defined in a simple way as (X, Y) in $[0, x]$
132 $\times [y, \infty]$ or by more complex functional relationships describing the adverse
133 impact I (loss in crop yield, reduced water resources) in terms of X and Y (using
134 precipitation and temperature as examples). In the following, we mainly introduce the
135 two approaches that have been commonly applied for identifying CDHEs in previous
136 studies.

137 **2.1.1. Combined thresholds approach**

138 The intuitive identification of CDHEs is based on the concurrence of dry and hot
139 events (e.g., concurrent low precipitation and high temperature) using selected
140 thresholds of individual variables or indicators. Specifically, the CDHEs based on

141 concurrences of exceedance or non-exceedance of two variables are commonly
142 defined as a binary variable Z:

$$Z = \begin{cases} 1, & X \leq x_0 \text{ and } Y > y_0 \\ 0, & \text{others} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

143 where X and Y are the indicators of dry conditions and hot conditions with thresholds
144 x_0 and y_0 , respectively.

145 A variety of dry indicators (e.g., relative humidity, precipitation, soil moisture, and
146 related indicators) and hot indicators (e.g., temperature or related indicators) of
147 different time scales have been employed to define CDHEs. For example, a large
148 body of drought indicators, such as precipitation, soil moisture, Standardized
149 Precipitation Index (SPI), Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI), Meteorological
150 drought Composite Index (MCI), Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index
151 (SPEI), have been used for defining CDHEs at the monthly/seasonal time scale,
152 weekly time scale (Mukherjee and Mishra, 2021) or daily time scale (Mo and
153 Lettenmaier, 2020; Tian et al., 2021; Yu and Zhai, 2020a; Yu and Zhai, 2020b). For
154 the indicator of hot extremes, previous evaluations are commonly based on daily
155 maximum temperature while nighttime temperature has also been employed (Feng et
156 al., 2021b; Wang et al., 2020a; Xu and Luo, 2019). In addition, there are different
157 ways to select the thresholds of individual indicators to define CDHEs, such as the
158 relative values (e.g., 90th percentile of temperature, 2 standard deviations, 100-year
159 return period) or absolute values (e.g., precipitation lower than 1mm as dry conditions,
160 a temperature higher than 35 degrees as hot conditions) (Barrucand et al., 2014;
161 Beniston, 2009; Estrella and Menzel, 2013; Fortin and Hétu, 2014; Keller et al., 2017;
162 Lemus-Canovas and Lopez-Bustins, 2021; Martin and Germain, 2017; McPhillips et
163 al., 2018; Ridder et al., 2020; Tilloy et al., 2021; Vogel et al., 2021a).

164 The copula-based joint distribution is an alternative way to define multivariate events
 165 or extremes among multiple variables, such as precipitation and temperature, based on
 166 certain thresholds (Bevacqua et al., 2017; Flach et al., 2017; Rana et al., 2017;
 167 Schoelzel and Friederichs, 2008; Serinaldi, 2016; Singh et al., 2020; Tilloy et al.,
 168 2020). It is advantageous in constructing the multivariate distribution independently
 169 of marginal distributions and can be employed to model flexible dependence
 170 structures of multiple variables, including the extremal dependence in the tail (or tail
 171 dependence), temporal dependence, and spatial dependence, based on a wide range of
 172 copula functions, such as Frank, Clayton, Gumbel, t, or Gaussian copula (Sadegh et
 173 al., 2018; Tootoonchi et al., 2022; Zscheischler et al., 2020; Zscheischler and
 174 Seneviratne, 2017). Recently, it has been employed for modeling the dependence of
 175 compound events, including the non-stationarity modeling under a changing climate
 176 (Brunner et al., 2021b; Sarhadi et al., 2018; Singh et al., 2021).
 177 For two random variables X and Y , the copula model can be expressed as (Nelsen,
 178 2006):

$$P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = C(Fx(X), Fy(Y); \theta) \quad (2)$$

179 where x and y are realizations of X and Y , respectively, which can be specified as
 180 certain thresholds; $Fx(X)$ and $Fy(Y)$ are the marginal probabilities of X and Y ,
 181 respectively; θ is the parameter of the copula. Note that the underlying variables (X, Y)
 182 of compound events do not have to be correlated.
 183 For example, the probability of the concurrence of low precipitation (X) and high
 184 temperature (Y) can be computed based on copula C as (Zscheischler and Seneviratne,
 185 2017):

$$p = P(X \leq x, Y > y) = u - C(u, v) \quad (3)$$

186 where $u=F_x(X)$ and $v=F_y(Y)$ are marginal probabilities. The probability p in
187 equation (3) has been commonly employed to evaluate the likelihood of CDHEs at
188 regional and global scales (AghaKouchak et al., 2014; Alizadeh et al., 2020; Lazoglu
189 and Anagnostopoulou, 2019; Ribeiro et al., 2020b).

190 **2.1.2. Indicator approach**

191 Compound events or extremes are usually associated with adverse impacts (though not
192 always). As such, a compound event based on indicators of droughts and
193 high-temperature extremes (X and Y) can be defined by:

$$I(X, Y) > c \quad (4)$$

194 where I could be the impacts resulting from droughts and hot extremes (e.g., loss in
195 crop yields, decreased water resources); c can be a critical threshold. This equation
196 identifies CDHEs based on the adverse impacts of (X, Y) greater than a critical threshold
197 c . For example, the CDHEs can be defined as the subset in the X - Y space where crop
198 yields are particularly low (resulting from droughts and hot extremes, but not from
199 other hazards or extremes). Here the indicator of the impacts $I(X, Y)$ can be obtained
200 from the crop model, vegetation model, hydrological model, or other impact models.
201 The indicator approach incorporates the two extremes into one index to assess the
202 statistical relationships between extremes and impact data (Potopová et al., 2020;
203 Vogel et al., 2021b; Zampieri et al., 2017; Zscheischler et al., 2017). In essence, the
204 expression of I can be any functional relationship from droughts and hot extremes (i.e.,
205 X and Y) to impacts.

206 In certain cases, the impact data may not be available, and some proxies (e.g., based
207 on the joint probability or return periods) can be used to develop indicators of
208 compound events, which turns compound event analysis into the univariate case (Hao
209 et al., 2020b; Li et al., 2021a; Zscheischler et al., 2017). A variety of indicators have
210 been developed to characterize CDHEs by integrating both droughts and hot
211 indicators (Abbasian et al., 2021; Hao et al., 2018d; McKinnon et al., 2021), which
212 can be constructed by combining multiple properties or events through statistical
213 approaches, such as linear regression model, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) or
214 joint distribution (Gallant and Karoly, 2010; Gallant et al., 2014; Hao et al., 2020b;
215 Zhang et al., 2020a).

216 **2.2 Characterization**

217 Based on the identification of CDHEs, different characteristics can be obtained
218 accordingly. These characteristics or properties include but are not limited to,
219 frequency, duration, timing, severity (or magnitude), and spatial extent, which are all
220 useful to characterize CDHEs, as shown in Fig. 2. Though it is generally
221 straightforward to define these properties of univariate extremes based on individual
222 variables or associated indicators (Brunner et al., 2021a; Brunner et al., 2021b; Feng et
223 al., 2020; Field et al., 2012; McPhillips et al., 2018), the characterization of CDHEs
224 based on these properties is not straightforward due to the involvement of multiple
225 contributing variables. In the following, we focus on several properties that have been
226 commonly assessed in previous studies.

227 **2.2.1. Frequency, duration, timing, severity, and spatial extent**

228 The frequency of CDHEs can be defined by any set A within the joint X - Y space (e.g.,
229 low precipitation and high temperature), where (X, Y) in A is counted as the

230 occurrence of a CDHE. These events can then be counted and divided by the length of
231 the total period considered. It is among the most commonly assessed characteristics of
232 CDHEs. For example, Fig. 3(a) shows the frequency of concurrent low precipitation
233 and temperature during the warm season, which is defined as June–July–August (JJA)
234 in the Northern Hemisphere and December–January–February (DJF) in the Southern
235 Hemisphere, based on Climatic Research Unit (CRU) data from 1951 to 2018. A high
236 frequency of CDHEs is shown during warm seasons over land areas, such as central
237 North America, Europe, and southeast Asia.

238 The duration of CDHEs is related to the frequency but with a focus on the length of
239 consecutive occurrences (Manning et al., 2019; Mazdiyasni and AghaKouchak, 2015).
240 A close concept to the duration is persistence, which has also been employed for the
241 characterization of compound events (Messori et al., 2021; Pfleiderer et al., 2019).
242 The impact of climate extremes on ecosystems is closely related to the timing
243 (Batibeniz et al., 2022; Flach et al., 2021; Sippel et al., 2016b), so as for the CDHEs
244 (Vogel et al., 2021a). This includes the time for the onset, succession, and recovery.
245 For example, the onset of CDHEs can be defined as the first day with the occurrence
246 of heatwaves during a dry period (Zhang et al., 2022c), as shown in Fig. 2.

247 The frequency, duration, and timing do not fully indicate how severe a compound event
248 is. The severity level of compound extremes is also of interest (Huang et al., 2021;
249 Manning et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019a). For example, a compound event with
250 precipitation of 5th percentile and temperature of 95th percentile is expected to be more
251 severe than that with precipitation of 25th percentile and temperature of 75th percentile.
252 The severity level of CDHEs can be characterized based on the functional relationships
253 of the properties of dry and hot indicators (shown in Fig. 2), such as the joint
254 probability (and its standardization) (Hao et al., 2018a; Hao et al., 2020b; Li et al.,

255 2018a; Li et al., 2020b; Li et al., 2021a), return period (Alizadeh et al., 2020), or
 256 product (Mukherjee and Mishra, 2021; Reddy et al., 2022). This characteristic of
 257 CDHEs is also termed “magnitude” in several studies (e.g., temperature properties
 258 during the dry periods) (Lemus-Canovas and Lopez-Bustins, 2021; Manning et al.,
 259 2019; Wu et al., 2019a). For example, a Dry-Hot Magnitude Index (DHMI) of CDHEs
 260 is developed recently by taking into account both the severity level of droughts and
 261 hot extremes, which can be expressed as (Wu et al., 2019a):

$$\text{DHMI} = \sum_{m=1}^M [P(\Delta T_m) \Delta DI_m] \quad (5)$$

262 where M is the number of periods (e.g., months) during which the DHMI is defined;
 263 ΔT_m is the temperature above a specific threshold for each period m ; $P(\Delta T_m)$ is the
 264 marginal distribution function of ΔT_m ; ΔDI_m is the difference between the drought
 265 indicator DI and a specified threshold for the period m with dry conditions.
 266 The spatial extent of compound events at regional or global scales can be defined as
 267 the area coverage of the occurrence of a compound event for each period. It can also
 268 be defined as the spatial extent or area coverage of severity higher than a threshold,
 269 duration longer than several days, or severity higher than certain values. In addition,
 270 there have been certain efforts in developing an extreme index based on the spatial
 271 extent to characterize multivariate extremes, such as the climate extreme index (CEI)
 272 (Karl et al., 1996) or their variants (Gallant and Karoly, 2010; Gleason et al., 2008)
 273 that combine the spatial extent of multiple extremes (e.g., an average of the spatial
 274 extent of different extremes, such as annual maximum temperature, annual PDSI, the
 275 proportion of heavy-rain days in a year, number of wet/dry days in a year) (Gallant et
 276 al., 2014).

277 **2.2.2. Dependence and joint return periods**

278 Dependence between dry and hot indicators (e.g., correlations between precipitation
279 and temperature) can affect the occurrence frequency of CDHEs, and thus a
280 multivariate perspective is important for assessing changes in extremes (Zscheischler
281 and Seneviratne, 2017). The negative precipitation and temperature correlations
282 during the warm seasons have been extensively explored in different regions
283 (Abatzoglou et al., 2020; Adler et al., 2008; Mahony and Cannon, 2018; Trenberth
284 and Shea, 2005), such as the United States (Koster et al., 2009; Madden and Williams,
285 1978; Zhao and Khalil, 1993), Canada (Singh et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2020), Europe
286 (Crhová and Holtanová, 2018; Lhotka and Kyselý, 2022; Rodrigo, 2015; Rodrigo,
287 2021), Mediterranean (Russo et al., 2019), and China (Du et al., 2013; He et al., 2015;
288 Wu et al., 2019b), as shown in Fig. 3(b). We select the monthly precipitation and
289 temperature data from 1901 to 2018 in southern Africa to demonstrate the dependence
290 (with the measure of Pearson's correlation coefficient) and joint return period of
291 CDHEs. The scatterplot of precipitation and temperature during the warm season (i.e.,
292 DJF) in southern Africa is shown in Fig. 4. The negative correlation coefficient
293 indicates that warm-dry events tend to occur, which results from both the
294 land-atmosphere interaction and atmosphere circulation anomalies (Feng and Hao,
295 2021; Lyon, 2009). The low precipitation and high temperature during DJF of
296 2015-2016 clearly show the concurrence of droughts and hot extremes during this
297 period (Hao et al., 2019a; Yuan et al., 2018; Zscheischler and Lehner, 2022), which

298 results from the influences of multiple factors such as strong El Niño or poleward
299 expansion of the subtropical anticyclones (or poleward expansion of the tropics)
300 (Burls et al., 2019; Sousa et al., 2018) .
301 The joint return period has been used for determining the rarity (or risk) of compound
302 extremes (including CDHEs), which is commonly achieved based on the joint
303 probability estimated from the copula-based multivariate distribution (AghaKouchak
304 et al., 2014; Alizadeh et al., 2020; Hao and Singh, 2020; Ridder et al., 2022a;
305 Zscheischler and Fischer, 2020). As an example, we use the 10th and 90th percentile
306 of precipitation and temperature, respectively, to define compound droughts and hot
307 extremes. The Likelihood Multiplication Factor (LMF), which is defined as the
308 likelihood of joint exceedance of precipitation and temperature (either estimated from
309 counting or parameter copula) divided by that of the independence case, is employed
310 here to demonstrate the impact of dependence on the likelihood and return period of
311 compound events (Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017). If we assume independency,
312 the joint probability of precipitation lower than 10th percentile and temperature higher
313 than 90th percentile is 0.01 and the joint return period would be 100 years (Singh et
314 al., 2021). We then use copula to model the joint distribution of precipitation and
315 temperature, in which the marginal distribution is estimated with the Gringorten
316 plotting position formula. Five commonly used copulas (Gaussian, t, Frank, Gumbel,
317 Clayton) were used as candidates, and the Gaussian copula was selected based on
318 Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) in the R package VineCopula (Nagler et al.,
319 2022). Based on the fitted copula, the joint probability of precipitation lower than
320 10th percentile and temperature higher than 90th percentile is 0.035, resulting in the
321 LMF=3.5, which is higher than 1 (or higher than that based on independent

322 assumption). In addition, the joint return period is estimated as 28 years, which is
323 much shorter than the independent case. The difference is related to the
324 precipitation-temperature correlations that reflects the interaction of droughts and hot
325 extremes.

326 **3 Physical drivers of CDHEs**

327 Persistent dry conditions could result from slow-moving (or stationary) weather
328 situations or recurrent large-scale circulation patterns that produce less precipitation
329 (Hao et al., 2018e; Herrera-Estrada et al., 2019; Kingston et al., 2015; Schubert et al.,
330 2016; Seager et al., 2015). Meanwhile, extreme heat is commonly controlled by
331 high-pressure systems (or anticyclonic circulations) and influenced by land surface
332 conditions (e.g., soil moisture), which is associated with subsidence of air (adiabatic
333 compression), clear skies (high insolations), and warm air advections (Horton et al.,
334 2016; Perkins, 2015). The interplay of multiple drivers or processes in the atmosphere,
335 land, and ocean, as well as the background of global warming manifests in a myriad
336 of ways in driving the concurrences of droughts and hot extremes (García-Herrera et
337 al., 2010; Gibson et al., 2017; Miralles et al., 2019; Sousa et al., 2020; Wehrli et al.,
338 2019). In general, CDHEs result from a variety of processes, such as stationary
339 anticyclones, soil moisture-atmosphere interactions, and large-scale mode of
340 variability, which spans different time scales (Hao and Singh, 2020; Seneviratne et al.,
341 2021; Zhang et al., 2021a; Zscheischler et al., 2020).

342 Atmosphere circulation patterns (e.g., high-pressure systems) can induce both
343 droughts and hot extremes, contributing to the concurrence of the two extremes at
344 shorter time scales (Fink et al., 2004; Ha et al., 2022; Miralles et al., 2019; Quesada et

345 al., 2012; Seager and Hoerling, 2014; Zscheischler et al., 2020). Typically,
346 high-pressure systems are often associated with descending air or reduced moist air
347 inflow (i.e., anomalous moisture from local recycling or advection from the ocean),
348 inhibiting moisture divergence and favoring drought conditions (Dong et al., 2018;
349 Fischer et al., 2007; Ionita et al., 2021; Liu and Zhou, 2021; Marengo et al., 2022;
350 Mukherjee et al., 2020; Schubert et al., 2014; Seo et al., 2021; Zampieri et al., 2009;
351 Zscheischler and Fischer, 2020); meanwhile, they are typically associated with air
352 subsidence (inducing adiabatic heating), increased clear-sky conditions (little cloud
353 cover) and shortwave radiations, resulting in surface warming (Berkovic and
354 Raveh-Rubin, 2022; Chang and Wallace, 1987; Fang and Lu, 2020; Horton et al.,
355 2016; Kornhuber et al., 2020; Kornhuber et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020d; Li et al., 2019a;
356 Wang et al., 2019a), which collectedly induce concurrences of droughts and
357 heatwaves. Large-scale circulation patterns, such as blocking highs, planetary wave
358 patterns, and monsoon failures, have been shown to induce CDHEs depending on
359 regions or seasons (Zhang et al., 2021a; Zscheischler et al., 2020). In the Northern
360 Hemisphere or midlatitude, anticyclonic circulation (embedded in large-scale
361 atmospheric wave trains or as blockings) can induce the occurrence or persistence of
362 CDHEs in multiple regions (Ali et al., 2021; Coumou et al., 2018; Kautz et al., 2022;
363 Röthlisberger and Martius, 2019), including North America (Cowan et al., 2017;
364 Dong et al., 2018), Europe (Ionita et al., 2021; Nagavciuc et al., 2022; Weiland et al.,
365 2021), Russia (Schubert et al., 2014), and northwestern China (Luo et al., 2020). For

example, in Europe, the hot and dry events during summers are generally associated with persistent high-pressure systems or atmospheric blocking circulations (i.e., steering hot and dry air northward) that reduce zonal flows and divert storm tracks (southward) (Ionita et al., 2021; Kautz et al., 2022; Lansu et al., 2020; Messori et al., 2021; Weiland et al., 2021). A telling example is the 2003 Europe heatwaves accompanied by droughts, which is shown to result from blocking patterns and warm horizontal advection (and heat accumulations) in the atmospheric boundary layer, under which local drying and enhanced sensible heat fluxes further amplify hot extremes (Hu et al., 2019; Miralles et al., 2014; Sousa et al., 2020; Zampieri et al., 2009). In India, the failure of the summer monsoon and associated atmospheric conditions (increased geopotential height, weak moisture transport) is shown to contribute to CDHEs (Mahto and Mishra, 2020; Mishra et al., 2021). In the Yangtze–Huaihe River Basin (YHRB) of China (or central-eastern China), during a strong East Asia summer monsoon (EASM), the western Pacific Subtropical High (WPSH) is usually located more to the north, leading to less monsoon rainfall and favoring the occurrence of CDHEs (Yao et al., 2022). The large-scale modes of variability, such as El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), are closely related to the formation of high-pressure systems or blocking highs and favor the concurrence of low precipitation and high temperatures (or droughts and hot extremes) at longer time scales (Hao et al., 2018c; Lyon, 2009; Mukherjee et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2021b). Typical modes of climate variability that lead to CDHEs include those associated with ENSO (seasonal-to-interannual time scales),

388 Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), and Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO)
389 (decadal and longer time scales) depending on regions and seasons (Hao et al., 2019b;
390 Lemus-Canovas, 2022; Mukherjee et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2021b).
391 ENSO has been shown to affect the seasonal occurrences of CDHEs across multiple
392 regions (Feng and Hao, 2021; Hao et al., 2018c; Mukherjee et al., 2020), such as
393 northern South America (Fasullo et al., 2018), southern North America (Livneh and
394 Hoerling, 2016), southern Africa (Archer et al., 2017; Lyon, 2009), India
395 (Bandyopadhyay et al., 2016; Mishra et al., 2020), Northeast China (Hao et al., 2021b;
396 Wu et al., 2021b), Australia, as partly demonstrated in Fig. 5. Other modes of climate
397 variability (e.g., NAO, PDO, AMO) have been shown to affect CDHEs depending on
398 regions, such as NAO for the Europe or Mediterranean areas (Bladé et al., 2012; Deng
399 et al., 2022; Ionita et al., 2017; López-Moreno et al., 2011; Li et al., 2020b; Wright et
400 al., 2014), AMO for northeastern China (Li et al., 2020b; Wu et al., 2021b), and
401 combined ENSO and Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) for Australia (Lim et al., 2019;
402 Loughran et al., 2019; Min et al., 2013; Reddy et al., 2022).
403 The soil moisture-temperature feedback can result in concurrent droughts and
404 high-temperature anomalies, which are connected through the soil moisture and
405 evaporation (or surface temperature), especially in water-limited areas (Bastos et al.,
406 2021; Benson and Dirmeyer, 2021; Berg et al., 2016; Dirmeyer et al., 2013;
407 Herrera-Estrada and Sheffield, 2017; Miralles et al., 2019; Osman et al., 2022;
408 Seneviratne et al., 2012; Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017). Soil moisture links the
409 water and energy cycles through the control of evaporation and affects many
410 processes relevant to anomalies of temperature (e.g., heat transport, solar radiation,
411 and sensible/latent heat flux exchange between atmosphere and surface) and
412 precipitation (e.g., local soil moisture deficits promoting rainfall deficits) (Berg et al.,

413 2015; Freychet et al., 2021; Gevaert et al., 2018; Schumacher et al., 2022; Seneviratne
414 et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2019). The interaction of droughts and heatwaves causing
415 CDHEs can be summarized as the following two processes (Miralles et al., 2019;
416 Seneviratne et al., 2010): (1) the drying-out of soil moisture and vegetation can limit
417 the evapotranspiration (and latent heat flux), which may also lead to precipitation
418 deficit, and induce increased sensible heat flux and surface temperature; (2) during
419 heatwaves, increased evapotranspiration resulting from high vapor pressure deficit
420 (VPD) or radiation could deplete soil moisture, inducing the soil moisture deficits or
421 dry conditions, as demonstrated in Fig. 6. During this self-amplifying process,
422 temperature extremes can both be the driver and response of droughts (Kiem et al.,
423 2016; Lockart et al., 2009; Miralles et al., 2019; Nicholls, 2004). At the global scale,
424 the land-atmosphere coupling between droughts and surface temperature extremes
425 have been explored from both observations and model simulations (Berg et al., 2016;
426 Gevaert et al., 2018; Miralles et al., 2012; Seneviratne et al., 2010; Zscheischler and
427 Seneviratne, 2017). Evidence has shown the important role of soil
428 moisture-temperature feedbacks in the concurrences of drought and hot extremes,
429 such as those in the United States (Benson and Dirmeyer, 2021; Su and Dickinson,
430 2017), Europe (Dirmeyer et al., 2021; Hirschi et al., 2011; Ionita et al., 2021; Liu et
431 al., 2020; Manning et al., 2018; Sousa et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022; Whan et al.,
432 2015; Xu et al., 2021), Brazil (Geirinhas et al., 2021; Geirinhas et al., 2022; Libonati
433 et al., 2022), and Asia (Seo et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020b).
434 Moreover, drought conditions in the upwind can lead to the advection of enhanced
435 sensible heat (or warmed air mass) downwind, where the land-atmosphere feedback in
436 nearby regions is stimulated and subsequently causes or enhances heatwaves (i.e.,
437 propagations from upwind droughts to downwind heatwaves)(Miralles et al., 2019;

438 Miralles et al., 2014; Schumacher et al., 2022; Schumacher et al., 2019; Sousa et al.,
439 2020; Zhou and Yuan, 2022), which can contribute to the occurrence of CDHEs in
440 downwind regions.

441 **4 Observed changes of CDHEs**

442 On the global scale, multiple lines of evidence indicate a robust increase in the
443 frequency of CDHEs defined in multiple time scales, which mainly result from the
444 increase in high-temperature extremes (Batibeniz et al., 2022; Hao et al., 2013;
445 Mukherjee et al., 2022; Raymond et al., 2022; Sarhadi et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021e;
446 Zhang et al., 2022d). Fig. 7 shows an increase in the annual frequency of CDHEs
447 across global land areas, including western and southern North America, northern
448 South America (e.g., Amazon), Europe, central and southern Africa, northern parts of
449 eastern Asia, southeast Asia, and northeastern Australia, which is consistent with
450 previous studies (Chiang et al., 2022b; Hao et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2021b; Wu et al.,
451 2021e). Increased severity/spatial extent and lengthened duration of CDHEs are
452 observed at the global scale as a whole, though there are regional variations (Feng et
453 al., 2020; Hao et al., 2018a; He et al., 2022a; He et al., 2022b; Lesk and Anderson,
454 2021; Mukherjee and Mishra, 2021; Wu et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2022d). Several
455 studies provide a systematic analysis of changes in multiple characteristics (frequency,
456 severity, duration, and magnitude) of CDHEs (Feng et al., 2020; Mukherjee and
457 Mishra, 2021), which found a higher frequency, long duration, higher severity level,
458 and larger spatial extent in large regions across the globe. At the continental or
459 regional scale, assessments of frequency changes of CDHEs point to an overall
460 increase in CDHEs across most regions. Following Seneviratne et al. (2021), these
461 assessments are summarized below.

462 In Asia, an increase in the frequency, duration, and spatial extent of CDHEs is
463 observed in recent decades. The frequency of CDHEs presents an overall increase in
464 East Asia or China (Chen et al., 2019a; Feng et al., 2021b; Hao, 2022; Kong et al.,
465 2020; Seo et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2019b; Yu and Zhai, 2020b). In China, the overall
466 increase in the frequency of CDHEs is generally consistent based on different
467 indicators of droughts (such as SPI, SPEI, or PDSI), though some discrepancies do
468 exist in certain regions (Chen et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2022c). Lengthened duration,
469 higher severity levels (or magnitude), and increased spatial extent of CDHEs are also
470 observed in China (Wu et al., 2019a; Wu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022c). However,
471 decreased frequency and duration are observed in some parts of China (e.g.,
472 central-east China) (Chen et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2022c; Zhou and Liu, 2018). In
473 South Asia or India, increased frequency and spatial extent in CDHEs are observed
474 (Ganguli, 2022; Guntu and Agarwal, 2021; Sharma and Mujumdar, 2017).
475 In Australia, the increase in the frequency of CDHEs is observed in recent decades,
476 though the trend may vary for different regions or study periods. An increase in
477 months with low precipitation and high temperature (or frequency of CDHEs) over
478 the past 150 years is observed in southeast Australia (Kirono et al., 2017). The
479 increase in the frequency of CDHEs is more remarkable in recent decades. For
480 example, the frequency of CDHEs is observed to be relatively stable during 1889-1989
481 but significantly increases between 1990 and 2019 in Australia (Collins, 2021).
482 Lengthened duration and increased severity are also observed in Australia during
483 1958-2019, especially in eastern regions (Reddy et al., 2022).
484 In South America, increased frequency of compound summer droughts and heatwaves
485 is observed in large regions during the past fourty years, including southeast Brazil
486 (Geirinhas et al., 2021) and Amazonia (Costa et al., 2022). For example, over

487 Amazonia, ten of the most extreme heat waves (longest and most intense) identified in
488 the southeastern Amazonia during 1979 to 2018 are all accompanied by an extreme
489 drying conditions (based on relative humidity and evaporative fraction anomalies),
490 and 9 of these extremes occurred in the last decade, implying increased frequency of
491 CDHEs (Costa et al., 2022). In the Pantanal, increased occurrences of individual
492 droughts and heatwaves in recent decades imply an increase in the frequency of
493 CDHEs during 2001–2020 (Libonati et al., 2022).

494 In Europe, an increased frequency of CDHEs is observed, especially in the central and
495 southern regions (Ionita and Nagavciuc, 2021). The probability of long dry periods
496 (days with precipitation below 1 mm) and high temperatures has increased (with
497 decreased return period) during 1984–2013 compared with the reference period 1950–
498 1979 in Europe (Manning et al., 2019). Over Spanish mountains, an increase in the
499 frequency of dry-warm days is observed from 1970 to 2007 (Morán-Tejeda et al.,
500 2013). At the decadal scale, an increase in the frequency of CDHEs is observed in the
501 period 2011–2020 compared with previous decades from 1951, especially in central
502 and south-eastern Europe (Ionita et al., 2021), such as Romania (Nagavciuc et al.,
503 2022). Over the Mediterranean region, available evidence indicates an increasing
504 trend in the frequency of CDHEs (De Luca et al., 2020; Lemus-Canovas, 2022; Vogel
505 et al., 2021a). However, in parts of northern Europe, a tendency of decrease in the
506 frequency of CDHEs is noted in several studies, which is likely associated with an
507 increasing precipitation trend (Bezak and Mikoš, 2020; Ionita et al., 2021; Wang et al.,
508 2021b).

509 In North America, there is evidence of increased frequency and spatial extent of
510 CDHEs in recent decades. An overall increase in the frequency of CDHEs (dry
511 condition based on precipitation) in recent decades from 1960 to 2010 is observed in

512 large parts of the United States, with regional differences (Mazdiyasni and
513 AghaKouchak, 2015). An increase in the frequency CDHEs with dry conditions based
514 on relative humidity from 1950 to 2019 is observed in the southwestern United States
515 (McKinnon et al., 2021). The increased frequency of CDHEs is more profound in the
516 past 50 years based on a long period of analysis (1896–2017) in the western United
517 States while insignificant changes are shown in eastern regions of the United States
518 (Alizadeh et al., 2020). The increased spatial extent is also observed in the United
519 States as a whole for different study periods (Alizadeh et al., 2020; Mazdiyasni and
520 AghaKouchak, 2015).

521 The changes in the dry-hot dependence (or correlations) can be just as important as
522 other properties if not more so. Several lines of investigations have evaluated changes
523 in the precipitation and temperature correlations (or co-variability) at the global scale
524 in observational periods (Hao et al., 2019c; Wang et al., 2021b), which is generally
525 more heterogeneous compared with changes in other properties. These studies
526 highlight the enhanced negative precipitation-temperature correlations over several
527 regions, such as western North America, southeast Europe, and parts of northeast Asia
528 (as shown in Fig. 8). At the regional scale, changed correlations between droughts and
529 temperature indicators has been evaluated in China (Wu, 2014; Zhang et al., 2022b),
530 the United States (Hao et al., 2020c), and Europe (Manning et al., 2019), which
531 contributes to observed changes in the frequency or probability of CDHEs.

532 The impact of compound extremes depends not only on the hazard but also the
533 exposure and vulnerability. The impacts from extremes or compound extremes would
534 be particularly severe if they occurred in main agricultural regions or regions with
535 higher population density (Vogel et al., 2019). Except for assessing changes in
536 CDHEs from the hazard perspective (e.g., frequency, severity), increased exposures

537 of cropland to CDHEs have been observed at the global scale (Lesk and Anderson,
538 2021; Sarhadi et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021c) and regional scales, including China
539 (Feng et al., 2021b; Lu et al., 2018). Recent studies also found increased exposure of
540 populations to CDHEs in recent decades at the global scales (Liu et al., 2021) and
541 regional scales, including China (Wu et al., 2021d) and India (Das et al., 2022).

542 **5 Climate model evaluation**

543 The evaluation of global and regional climate models in simulating the mean state
544 (i.e., climatology frequency or precipitation-temperature correlations) and historical
545 changes of CDHEs is important to obtain necessary confidence in the modeling of
546 chosen events or extremes, including attribution and projection analysis (Hao et al.,
547 2013; Zscheischler and Lehner, 2022). The overall pattern of the frequency of CDHEs
548 at a large scale can be generally reproduced by global climate models (GCMs) from
549 the Climate Model Intercomparison Project phase 5/6 (CMIP5/CMIP6) (Wu et al.,
550 2021c). The overall temporal increase in the frequency of CDHEs at large scales from
551 CMIP5/CMIP6 simulations was found to be consistent with observations (Sarhadi et
552 al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021e). At the spatial scale, the overall increase in CDHEs over
553 large land areas can be simulated relatively well from CMIP5 or CMIP6 models;
554 however, there are discrepancies in changing patterns or magnitude between
555 simulations and observations, with larger bias in certain land areas, such as Australia
556 (Hao et al., 2013; Ridder et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2021e).

557 The observed temperature-precipitation correlations is generally reproduced well by
558 climate model simulations (Hao et al., 2019c; Wu et al., 2013; Zscheischler and
559 Seneviratne, 2017). For around 75% of global land areas, the
560 precipitation-temperature dependence from observations falls within the 10th to 90th

561 percentile of that from CMIP5 model simulations (Zscheischler and Seneviratne,
562 2017). However, stronger seasonal precipitation-temperature dependence during the
563 warm seasons across land areas has been shown in climate model simulations (Hao et
564 al., 2019c; Rehfeld and Laepple, 2016; Wu et al., 2013), with large discrepancies in
565 the Southern Hemisphere, which may result from model biases or observational
566 uncertainties (Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017). Moreover, the observed changes
567 in the precipitation-temperature correlations is not well reproduced by climate models
568 (Hao et al., 2019c). The comparisons of the CMIP5 and CMIP6 in simulating the
569 CDHEs or precipitation-temperature correlations are still limited.

570 Regional climate models (RCMs) with high resolutions, such as those from the
571 Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment (CORDEX), generally
572 captured the observed frequency of (or changes in) CDHEs in central Europe
573 (Sedlmeier et al., 2018) and China (Lu et al., 2018). Based on simulations from
574 CORDEX over China, RCMs were found to broadly reproduce the spatial pattern of
575 climatology frequency of compound dry and hot days and also captured the overall
576 increase in frequency changes (except for southwest China) (Lu et al., 2018). Other
577 properties of CDHEs may not be captured well by RCMs. Over central Europe, the
578 duration or temporal succession of CDHEs was not captured well, which may be due
579 to the misrepresentation of internal variability (Sedlmeier et al., 2018). Though the
580 direction of precipitation and temperature dependence is generally captured by RCM,
581 the magnitude or strength of the dependence is not captured well, as shown in Canada
582 (Singh et al., 2021) and Europe (Crhová and Holtanová, 2018; Lhotka and Kyselý,

583 2022) with performance depending on regions and seasons. For the simulation of
584 precipitation-temperature correlations based on two RCMs from the EURO-CORDEX
585 project driven by four global climate models in Europe, Crhová and Holtanová (2018)
586 found that the simulated precipitation-temperature correlation patterns vary more
587 across the different RCMs than GCMs (Crhová and Holtanová, 2018). These results
588 highlight the usefulness of RCMs for assessing CDHEs; however, the assessment of
589 whether RCMs can provide added values in simulating the precipitation-temperature
590 correlations or likelihoods of CDHEs is still limited.

591 As shown in previous sections, due to the temporal/spatial discretization and
592 unresolved/unrepresented physical processes, system biases exist in simulations from
593 global and regional climate models (Cannon, 2016; Sippel et al., 2016a; Van de Velde
594 et al., 2022). Statistical bias correction methods (such as the quantile mapping method
595 that adjusts the full distribution of variables) have been commonly used in these
596 regional studies to correct simulations from climate models (Hao and Singh, 2020;
597 Sedlmeier et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2019). In contrast to univariate bias correction
598 methods with a focus on correcting a single variable, the multivariate bias correction
599 (MBC) method is capable of correcting the dependence of multiple variables, such as
600 precipitation and temperature (or other variables) (Cannon, 2016; Cannon, 2018; Li et
601 al., 2014; Piani and Haerter, 2012; Vrac and Friederichs, 2015; Vrac et al., 2022).
602 Since the impact of compound events may result from multiple variables, the bias
603 correction of model simulations needs to consider the dependence among multiple
604 variables (Cannon, 2018; François et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2021; Villalobos-Herrera
605 et al., 2021; Whan et al., 2021; Zscheischler et al., 2019). Recent studies have shown

606 that the MBC method could provide added values in improving simulations of
607 precipitation and temperature correlations and likelihoods or properties of CDHEs in
608 Europe (Lemus-Canovas and Lopez-Bustins, 2021), Canada (Singh et al., 2021), and
609 China (Meng et al., 2022a). For the impact models (e.g., dynamic vegetation models,
610 hydrological models) based on the outputs from climate models, a variety of studies
611 have assessed the performance of different multivariate bias corrections in simulating
612 impact variables (e.g., runoff simulations based on hydrological models)(Chen et al.,
613 2021a; François et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2020; Meyer et al., 2019; Singh and Reza
614 Najafi, 2020; Villalobos-Herrera et al., 2021). Albeit promising results in the MBC
615 compared with univariate bias correction methods, several studies did not find a
616 superior performance of the MBC, which may result from multiple factors such as the
617 bias non-stationarity (Meng et al., 2022; Van de Velde et al., 2022). Considering the
618 influencing factors or potential uncertainties in the simulations from the climate and
619 impact models, the added values of the MBC method for the compound impact
620 analysis should be further assessed to improve the impact modeling of compound
621 events (i.e., performance regarding the assumption, variable, and method).

622 **6 Attribution of changes to anthropogenic climate forcing**

623 Understanding anthropogenic influences on changes in extremes (including
624 compound extremes) is important for climate policy and adaptation planning (Bindoff
625 et al., 2013; NAS, 2016; Otto, 2017; Sarojini et al., 2016; Stott et al., 2016; Wang et
626 al., 2020a). Multiple approaches have been developed for the attribution of the trend
627 (or changes) in mean or extreme climate and specific events (i.e., event attribution)
628 (Hulme, 2014; Sun et al., 2022; Zhai et al., 2018). The comparison between
629 observations of current climate conditions and simulations from CMIP5/CMIP6 with

630 different experiments (Eyring et al., 2016), including historical simulations of natural
631 forcings (NAT) and all forcings (ALL), has been commonly used to evaluate
632 anthropogenic influences (Chiang et al., 2021; Knutson et al., 2017; NAS, 2016;
633 Wang et al., 2021a). The optimal fingerprinting method based on multivariate linear
634 regression is a well-established approach for the detection and attribution of trend in
635 climate extremes, which help answers the questions of whether climate has changed
636 in a statistical sense and how much the changes can be attributed to causal factors
637 with a statistical confidence (Zhai et al., 2018). For the anthropogenic influences on
638 specific extremes (i.e., event attribution), the commonly used probability-based
639 approach in the univariate case, including the Probability Ratio (PR) (Fischer and
640 Knutti, 2015) or Fraction of Attributable Risk (FAR) (Stott et al., 2016), can be
641 extended to the multivariate case for answering the questions of whether (and to what
642 extent) anthropogenic influences has changed the likelihood or probability of specific
643 CDHEs (Chiang et al., 2022b; Seneviratne et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2022; Zhang et al.,
644 2022d; Zscheischler and Lehner, 2022).

645 Attribution studies have revealed that the observed long-term increase in the
646 frequency of compound events at the global scale is largely due to anthropogenic
647 climate forcing (Chiang et al., 2022a; Chiang et al., 2022b; Sarhadi et al., 2018). For
648 example, based on monthly precipitation and temperature observations, including data
649 from the CRU, the University of Delaware (UDEL), and the Princeton Global Forcing
650 (PGF), the temporal change in the annual occurrences of CDHEs across the globe
651 based on observations and CMIP6 model simulations, which include all forcings (ALL)
652 and natural forcings (NAT) experiments, is shown in Fig. 9 (Zhang et al., 2022d). The
653 consistent increase in CDHEs between observations and ALL simulations, which
654 diverge substantially from the results of NAT simulations, indicates the dominant

655 effect of anthropogenic forcing on the increase of CDHEs in the past century. Despite
656 several challenges in the detection and attribution at regional scales (e.g., large
657 magnitude of natural variability), a large number of studies have been devoted to
658 assessing the influence of anthropogenic forcing on the long-term changes in the
659 likelihood of CDHEs (by comparing results from the historical and natural forcing
660 experiments) across different regions, such as China (Li et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2022c;
661 Wu et al., 2022), the United States (Cheng et al., 2016; Diffenbaugh et al., 2015), and
662 India (Mishra et al., 2021), which indicate human influences contribute to the
663 long-term increase in CDHEs at regional scales. For example, based on climate model
664 simulations of NCAR’s large ensemble (“LENS”), Diffenbaugh et al. (2015) showed
665 that anthropogenic warming increased the probability of the co-occurrence of
666 dry-warm years (defined as precipitation lower than -0.5 SDs and positive
667 temperature anomaly) in California. Based on the definition of indicators of CDHEs,
668 the detection and attribution analysis of CDHEs can be conducted using the optimal
669 fingerprinting method, as witnessed in several regions, such as northeast China (Chen
670 and Sun, 2017; Li et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2022c). Using the joint probability as the
671 severity indicator of CDHEs, Li et al. (2022c) found that anthropogenic impacts on
672 increase in CDHEs were robustly detected and anthropogenic forcings dominantly
673 contributed to observed changes in CDHEs during 1961–2014 over northeast China.
674 The evidence of human influences on specific CDHEs (or event attribution) in
675 historical periods has also been explored, highlighting the importance of
676 anthropogenic influences on the increased likelihoods. Examples of the event
677 attribution analysis include concurrent droughts and hot events based on specified
678 thresholds (e.g., precipitation lower than 10th percentile and temperature higher than
679 90th percentile) (Chiang et al., 2022b; Zhang et al., 2022d) or real cases, such as those

680 during 2019 in southwestern China (Wang et al., 2021c) and Western Cape regions
681 (Zscheischler and Lehner, 2022). Zhang et al. (2022d) found that anthropogenic
682 forcings caused a more than three-fold increase in the probability of CDHEs in the
683 tropics during 1951–2010. Zscheischler and Lehner (2022) showed that anthropogenic
684 climate change contributed at least 40% to the occurrence probability of concurrent
685 dry and hot conditions in the years 2017 and 2019 in the Western Cape region. The
686 impact of specific anthropogenic forcings (e.g., greenhouse gases, aerosols, land use)
687 on CDHEs has also been evaluated (Chiang et al., 2022a; Li et al., 2022c), which can
688 be achieved based on historical simulations from the Detection and Attribution Model
689 Intercomparison Project (DAMIP)(Gillett et al., 2016). By comparing simulations of
690 CDHEs in historical natural-only (hist-nat) experiment with four alternative
691 experiments (greenhouse gases only, aerosol only, land use-only, and all-forcing)
692 from the DAMIP of CMIP6, Chiang et al. (2022a) found greenhouse gases alone
693 amplified the natural frequency of CDHEs (based on 90th percentile of the joint
694 probability of precipitation and temperature) by 1.5–5 times in tropical and
695 extratropical regions and the aerosol effects reduced the natural frequency by
696 60%-100%. Many high-impact, low-probability (HILP) events or extremes related to
697 droughts or heatwaves (e.g., 2010 Russian heatwave), which can be assessed through
698 the lens of a compound perspective, have not been investigated based on the
699 multivariate attribution framework. Overall, these attribution studies indicate the
700 important role of anthropogenic climate change in the occurrence of many historically
701 unprecedented CDHEs in many regions across the globe.

702 7 Future projections of CDHEs

703 Climate projection of extremes under different emission scenarios provides useful
704 insights for developing mitigation strategies and climate policy. Projections studies of

705 CDHEs are mainly based on simulations from climate models, such as those from the
706 CMIP5 under different scenarios of Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs),
707 including the stringent mitigation scenario (RCP2.6), intermediate scenarios (RCP4.5
708 and RCP6.0), and the high emission scenarios (RCP8.5)(Taylor et al., 2012). More
709 recently, projections based on the latest generation of Global Climate Model
710 simulations from CMIP6 have become available with RCP projections assuming
711 certain underlying Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs)(Eyring et al., 2016).
712 Previous projection studies suggest that the frequency of CDHEs will generally
713 increase across the globe, which is overall consistent across different time scales,
714 including daily (Ridder et al., 2022b; Vogel et al., 2020), seasonal (Wu et al., 2021c;
715 Zhan et al., 2020; Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017), and annual time scales (Meng
716 et al., 2022b; Sarhadi et al., 2018). In many land regions across global land areas, the
717 frequency of extremely dry and warm seasons (based on 10th and 90th percentile of
718 precipitation and temperature, respectively) is projected to increase by a factor of 10
719 between the future period in the 21st century and the historical period 1870-1969
720 (Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017). Fig. 10 shows changes in the frequency of
721 CDHEs at the annual scale between the future period (2081-2100) and historical
722 periods (1986-2005) over global land areas, indicating increased frequency in regions
723 such as western North America, northern South America, Europe, the Mediterranean,
724 and southern Africa (Meng et al., 2022b). In addition, the enhanced
725 precipitation-temperature dependence is projected in large areas, such as northern
726 extra-tropics, Amazon region, and Indonesia (Berg et al., 2015; Mahony and Cannon,
727 2018; Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017), which is associated with increased
728 frequency of CDHEs in these areas in the future.

729 The Paris Agreement sets out the goal of limiting global warming to 2°C with an
730 inspirational goal to limit it to 1.5 °C. Multiple lines of evidence have indicate that
731 limiting the warming to 1.5 °C will reduce the risk of droughts and heatwaves
732 compared with that of 2 °C warming (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2019; Pfleiderer et al.,
733 2019). Meanwhile, a large increase in the CDHEs can be avoided by limiting the
734 increase of temperature to 1.5°C rather than 2°C in many regions across the globe.
735 For example, over central North America and central Europe, an increase of 10% in
736 dry-warm persistence was projected for 2 °C warming while no changes were shown
737 for the 1.5 °C scenario (Pfleiderer et al., 2019). An even higher increase in the
738 frequency of CDHEs was projected for the warming levels beyond the 2°C warming
739 (Batibeniz et al., 2022; Vogel et al., 2020). At the 3°C warming above preindustrial
740 levels, increased frequency of compound drought-heatwave extremes is projected
741 with a five-fold increase in tropical countries and an even higher increase in
742 subtropical countries (eight-folds) and northern middle and high latitude countries
743 (seven-folds) (Batibeniz et al., 2022).

744 Several regional studies also corroborated an increased frequency or probability of
745 CDHEs at regional scales. In Africa, an increase in the frequency of CDHEs (and
746 population exposure) is projected in simulations from regional CORDEX-CORE
747 models, with a higher increase under RCP8.5 than RCP2.6 (Weber et al., 2020). In
748 Asia, an increased frequency of concurrent heat waves and droughts is projected in
749 most regions in China based on simulations from CMIP5 (Lu et al., 2018; Sun et al.,
750 2017; Wu et al., 2021d), CMIP6 (Aihaiti et al., 2021), or other projections (Tang et al.,
751 2022; Zhou and Liu, 2018). Simulations by CMIP5 models project a consistent
752 pattern of increased frequency of CDHEs during summer seasons in China at global
753 warming levels of 1.5 °C and 2 °C (under the RCP 8.5 scenario) (Wu et al., 2021d).

754 Over India, an increased frequency of CDHEs is also projected (Das et al., 2022;
755 Mishra et al., 2020). For example, based on CMIP6 model simulations, Das et al.
756 (2022) projected an increase in the frequency of CDHEs across India for two future
757 periods (2021-2060 and 2061-2100) under SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, SSP5-8.5 scenarios.
758 In Australia, CMIP6 models project an increase in the frequency of co-occurring
759 heatwaves and droughts (decrease in the return periods) for 2066–2100 under
760 SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios (i.e., moderate and high emission scenarios,
761 respectively), especially in the south of Australia (Ridder et al., 2022a). In Europe, an
762 increased frequency of CDHEs is projected in the future in central and southern
763 regions, such as Germany (Estrella and Menzel, 2013). Over central Europe, the
764 high-resolution regional climate model COSMO-CLM projected an increase in the
765 frequency of CDHEs during summer for the future period 2021–2050 under RCP8.5,
766 with higher changes in the Czech Republic (Sedlmeier et al., 2018). Over the
767 Pyrenees region (transboundary areas between Andorra, France, and Spain), increased
768 magnitude and duration in the CDHEs are projected under the RCP8.5 scenario based
769 on the EURO-CORDEX projection (Lemus-Canovas and Lopez-Bustins, 2021).

770 **8 Impacts of CDHEs**

771 Both droughts and hot extremes have been shown to affect water supply, crop yield,
772 vegetation (or carbon cycle), and wildfire risk (Bevacqua et al., 2021; Byers et al.,
773 2018; Fink et al., 2004; Niggli et al., 2022; Ribeiro et al., 2019; Russo et al., 2017;
774 Tschumi and Zscheischler, 2019). Frequent occurrences of these extremes have
775 spurred interest in the impact of CDHEs on natural and human systems and have
776 gained increasing public awareness (Raymond et al., 2020a; von Buttlar et al., 2018;
777 Zscheischler et al., 2018). In the following, we focus on the current understanding of

778 the impact of CDHEs on water resources, crop yield, vegetation, and wildfire. We
779 stress that there is a large body of literature on the impacts of droughts and hot
780 extremes and we focus on those that specifically refer to CDHEs.

781 **8.1 Water resources**

782 Precipitation deficits (or meteorological droughts) directly cause shortages of water
783 resource by reducing streamflow or lake/reservoir levels (i.e., hydrological droughts)
784 (Ault, 2020). Except for precipitation deficits, the role of high-temperature anomalies
785 (or hot extremes) in causing agricultural droughts (Ault, 2020; Dai et al., 2018; Hao et
786 al., 2018b; Luo et al., 2017; Manning et al., 2018; Markonis et al., 2021; Weiss et al.,
787 2009) or hydrological droughts (Brunner et al., 2021c; Udall and Overpeck, 2017;
788 Woodhouse et al., 2016), by different processes such as atmospheric evaporative
789 demand (AED) or snowmelt seasonality, has received increasing attention. Specifically,
790 during summers or warm seasons, an increase in temperature leads to increased
791 atmospheric moisture demand, reducing streamflow through increased evaporation
792 (from open water bodies) or reduced soil moisture (e.g., increased evapotranspiration
793 from vegetation depleting soil moisture) (Brunner et al., 2021c; Cook et al., 2014; Dai
794 et al., 2018; Das et al., 2011; Floriancic et al., 2021; van Vliet et al., 2016). In addition,
795 the temperature can also affect snow accumulation or snowmelt seasonality in winter,
796 leading to hydrologic droughts in the following season (e.g., warmth in winter reduces
797 snow accumulation resulting in a time-lagged streamflow deficit) (Brunner et al.,
798 2021c; Bumbaco and Mote, 2010). Examples of the combined impacts of
799 precipitation deficits and high-temperature extremes on the decrease of streamflow in
800 recent decades have been shown in the Missouri River basin (2000-2010) and
801 Colorado River basin (2000-2014) in the United States (Brunner et al., 2021c; Hartick
802 et al., 2021; McCabe et al., 2017; Milly and Dunne, 2020; Udall and Overpeck, 2017).

803 Consequently, the combined impacts of reduced streamflow (hydrological droughts)
804 and high-temperature extremes exert pressing challenges to water planning and
805 management due to the resulting negative impacts on irrigation, water supply, and
806 water quantity (Martin et al., 2020), which may further affect the electricity supply or
807 hydropower generation (Qin et al., 2020; Turner et al., 2019; van Vliet et al., 2016).

808 Note that there are certain cases where dry and warm periods or conditions do not
809 always lead to negative impacts. For example, in glacier regions, the increased
810 water-melt due to warm periods can compensate for precipitation deficits (Slosson et
811 al.; Van Tiel et al., 2021).

812 The combined impact of the co-occurrence of precipitation deficits and warm periods
813 has been shown to induce reduced runoff (or river flow, water resources) at annual or
814 decadal scales (Brunner et al., 2021c; Hettiarachchi et al.; Martin et al., 2020;
815 Mastrotheodoros et al., 2020; Teuling et al., 2013; Udall and Overpeck, 2017; Van
816 Tiel et al., 2021; Zappa and Kan, 2007). Udall and Overpeck (2017) found that, for
817 the reduced annual flows from 2000 and 2014 in the Colorado River (associated with
818 precipitation deficit), about one-third of flow losses were induced by unprecedented
819 temperature. Under global warming, the role played by temperature in streamflow or
820 hydrological droughts has increased in certain areas. Brunner et al. (2021c) showed
821 that the spatial extent of streamflow droughts during 1981–2018 across the U.S. had
822 increased, for which the contribution of temperature became more important over
823 time. These impacts may further induce changes in groundwater. For example, rainfall
824 deficits and higher evapotranspiration induced by long-lasting heatwaves could lead
825 to the falling of groundwater levels during the recharge period, which is a
826 pressing issue in Sweden (Chen et al., 2020). With increased temperature (or
827 evapotranspiration) continuing in the coming decades, the impacts of increased

828 compound dry and warm years in the future may exacerbate the water scarcity in
829 certain regions (e.g., Nile Basin), despite a projected increase in precipitation (Coffel
830 et al., 2019).

831 **8.2 Vegetation**

832 Large impacts of CDHEs on the ecosystem have been reported in the summers
833 2003/2018/2019 in Europe and 2010 in Russia (Bastos et al., 2021; Buras et al., 2020;
834 Ciais et al., 2005; Flach et al., 2018; Grossiord et al., 2018; Obladen et al., 2021;
835 Tschumi et al., 2022b; Wang et al., 2020b). Droughts (or water stresses) affect
836 vegetation photosynthesis through eco-physiological changes (e.g., reductions in
837 stomatal conductance and enzymatic activity) or structural changes (e.g., reductions in
838 leaf area or changes in leaf orientation) (van der Molen et al., 2011; von Buttlar et al.,
839 2018). Temperature directly affects vegetation photosynthesis through carboxylation
840 and electron transport, both of which first increases with temperature and then
841 decrease beyond a certain temperature threshold (von Buttlar et al., 2018), and
842 indirectly affect vegetation growth through increasing vapor pressure deficit and
843 soil moisture deficit (Bastos et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2019c). Ample evidence has
844 suggested amplified impacts of compound droughts and heat stresses on vegetation
845 (e.g., growth, productivity, phenology) and carbon fluxes based on modeling,
846 observations, and control experiments (Allen et al., 2015; Ciais et al., 2005;
847 Dannenberg et al., 2022; Hao et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2020c; Li et al., 2021b; Mittler,
848 2006; Pan et al., 2020; Reichstein et al., 2007; Suzuki et al., 2014; von Buttlar et al.,
849 2018; Zhang et al., 2021b; Zhu et al., 2017; Zscheischler et al., 2014). For example,
850 based on the investigation of the forest response to the coincidences of low
851 precipitation and high temperature by measuring tree ring widths (TRW) in Europe,
852 Rammig et al. (2015) found that the percentage of years with TRW values below two

853 standard deviations was about 6%, 9%, and 13% for those with low precipitation, high
854 temperatures, and combined dry and hot extremes, respectively.

855 The impacts of CDHEs on the ecosystem depend on the extreme characteristics (e.g.,
856 duration, timing) (Sippel et al., 2018; Sippel et al., 2016b; von Buttlar et al., 2018),
857 regions (e.g., climate regimes) (Gampe et al., 2021; Hao et al., 2021; Pan et al., 2020;
858 Tschumi et al., 2022b), land cover types (e.g., forest and grasslands) (Flach et al.,
859 2021; Gampe et al., 2021; Hammond et al., 2022; Hao et al., 2021; Nicolai-Shaw et
860 al., 2017; O et al., 2022; Tschumi et al., 2022b) and time scales (Linscheid et al.,
861 2020), which sometimes differ due to differences in datasets (Pan et al., 2020; Stocker
862 et al., 2019) and models (Chen et al., 2019b). von Buttlar et al (2018) found a
863 remarkable reduction in gross primary production (GPP) and ecosystem respiration
864 for combined droughts and heat extremes lasting for more than 18 days, emphasizing
865 the crucial role of the duration of CDHEs. Based on dynamical vegetation models,
866 Tschumi et al. (2022b) found that the effect of changes in the frequency of extremes
867 (including compound drought-heat extremes) was more pronounced in extra-tropics
868 (or arid and semi-arid zones) than that in tropics (Pan et al., 2020). Considering the
869 higher increase in CDHEs in the extra-tropics under future global warming (Batibeniz
870 et al., 2022; Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017), vegetation in these regions is
871 expected to experience a higher risk of CDHEs in the future. The impacts of climate
872 extremes also depend on the resistance and resilience of different ecosystems
873 (Papagiannopoulou et al., 2017). Based on in-site and satellite GPP products, Flach et
874 al. (2021) found reduced GPP in grassland/agricultural areas under combined
875 droughts and heat conditions, while the GPP in the forest (considered globally) was
876 not sensitive to drought and heat events. The effect of dry-hot extremes on tropical
877 trees is relatively small, which may be related to the maintained evaporative cooling

878 in the tropical forests (Tschumi et al., 2022b) and trees are capable of obtaining water
879 from deep soil layers (Mu et al., 2021; Nicolai-Shaw et al., 2017; O et al., 2022).

880 Uncertainties exist in understanding the impact of CDHEs on vegetation due to
881 different datasets or models. Chen et al. (2019b) assessed the drivers (including
882 individual drivers, such as precipitation, temperature, soil moisture, and compound
883 drivers of compound precipitation and temperature) of negative extreme events on
884 GPP in China. They found that the GPP deficit driven by CDHEs was shown in most
885 regions of China based on the TRENDY models but only in Inner Mongolia based on
886 the Yao-GPP model.

887 Though a large number of studies have shown the negative impact of CDHEs on
888 vegetation, CDHEs do not always lead to negative impacts due to modulating effects
889 from other factors (Flach et al., 2021; Flach et al., 2018; Li et al., 2022b; Wang et al.,
890 2020b). Depending on the vegetation types, during dry periods (with less cloud cover
891 or rain), the accompanying high temperature and radiation may lead to increased
892 photosynthesis in certain regions (or precipitation indicates low solar radiation and
893 temperature, inhibiting vegetation growth), such as Amazon rainforest (Wu et al.,
894 2015; Zhang and Zhang, 2019). Antecedent moisture conditions may also modulate
895 the response of vegetation to compound dry and hot extremes. During the extreme
896 droughts and heatwaves across northern and central Europe in the summer 2018,
897 increased carbon sink was observed in the northern areas (most ecosystems are
898 forests), which is related to the spring legacy effect (i.e., preceding climate conditions
899 in the response of ecosystems to summer extremes) that offset the carbon loss during
900 summer CDHEs (Bastos et al., 2020). The elevated atmospheric CO₂ under global
901 warming may increase terrestrial ecosystem productivity (Alan Williams, 2014).
902 Recent analyses suggest that the effects of elevated CO₂ (and the associated increase

903 in water use efficiency) on the physiological responses of vegetation may not alleviate
904 the negative impacts of droughts and heatwaves (Allen et al., 2015; Birami et al.,
905 2020; Tschumi et al., 2022b).

906 **8.3 Crop yield**

907 Climate variability including precipitation and/or temperature could account for about
908 32–39% of observed global yield variability, which varies in different regions and
909 crops (Ray et al., 2015). Droughts and heatwaves are among the most detrimental
910 environmental factors to crop yield or growth (Ben-Ari et al., 2018; Glotter and Elliott,
911 2016; Jin et al., 2017; Lesk et al., 2021; Lesk et al., 2016; Luan and Vico, 2021;
912 Mahrookashani et al., 2017; Schuberger et al., 2021; Toreti et al., 2019; Troy et al.,
913 2015), which has been assessed at global scales (Heinicke et al., 2022) and regional
914 scales, including Europe (Brás et al., 2021). Based on the EM-DAT record, global
915 droughts and heat waves have caused a reduction of nationally reported maize yields
916 by 7% and 12%, respectively (Jägermeyr and Frieler, 2018). While sufficient water
917 supply is expected to mitigate heat effects on crop yield (Jägermeyr and Frieler, 2018;
918 Lobell et al., 2013; Schuberger et al., 2017; Schlenker and Roberts, 2009), the
919 simultaneous occurrences of water stress (droughts) and heat stress can be more lethal
920 to crops compared to a particular stress condition (Cohen et al., 2021; Goulart et al.,
921 2021; Haqiqi et al., 2021; Lesk and Anderson, 2021; Luan et al., 2021; Mittler, 2006).
922 The physiological impact pathway of droughts and heatwaves on crop yield differs at
923 different stages. Droughts can inhibit photosynthesis at the vegetative stage, reduce
924 peduncle length and slow grain development at the reproductive stage, and shorten
925 grain-filling period at the grain filling stage, leading to a reduction of carbon uptake
926 from photosynthesis and decreased crop yields (Kadam et al., 2014; Lesk and
927 Anderson, 2021). The high-temperature extreme has direct and indirect effects on

928 crop yields. The direct impacts refer to damaging photosynthetic machinery and
929 shorterning vegetative phase at the vegetative stage, decreasing rate of spikelet
930 production at the reproductive stage, and increasing rate of leaf senescence and
931 reducing kernel weight during the grain filling stage (Kadam et al., 2014), and the
932 indirect impacts refer to causing stomata closure (reduction in CO₂ uptake) and
933 enhanced root growth (reduced above-ground biomass) due to increased atmospheric
934 water demand and depleted soil water (Lesk and Anderson, 2021; Schauberger et al.,
935 2017; Siebert et al., 2017). Several unique physiological, molecular, and biochemical
936 aspects exist during droughts and heat stresses (Fahad et al., 2017), including the
937 compounding of high leaf temperature, high respiration, closed stomata, low
938 photosynthesis, and suppressed level of proline (important for protecting plant during
939 drought stress) (Matiu et al., 2017; Mittler, 2006; Rizhsky et al., 2002).
940 Different methods have been explored to quantify the relationship between CDHEs
941 and crop yield (Hamed et al., 2021; Luan et al., 2021; Zhu and Troy, 2018). A few
942 studies assessed the combined impact of droughts and hot extremes on crop yield
943 based on statistical approaches (Hsiao et al., 2019; Jägermeyr and Frieler, 2018;
944 Potopová et al., 2020), including the empirical analysis (Li et al., 2019b), regression
945 model (Haqiqi et al., 2021; Leng, 2019; Matiu et al., 2017), indicator approach
946 (Zampieri et al., 2017), and multivariate distribution (probabilistic approach) (Feng
947 and Hao, 2020; Hamed et al., 2021; Potopová et al., 2020; Ribeiro et al., 2020a), in
948 which a higher impact of CDHEs on crop yields is generally found in these studies
949 depending on seasons and crop varieties. Ribeiro et al. (2020a) quantified the impacts
950 of dry conditions, hot conditions, and CDHEs on crop yield in Spain based on the
951 multivariate distribution and found the probability of crop loss increased by 8 to 11%
952 under compound dry-hot conditions compared with moderate drought conditions only.

953 Fig. 11 demonstrates the compound dry-hot conditions induce higher probability of
954 crop yield losses than individual dry conditions or hot conditions across top 5
955 maize-producing countries (Feng et al., 2019). Irrigation has been an important way to
956 mitigate the negative impacts of droughts and heatwaves on agricultural production or
957 crop yield. Studies have shown that irrigation can lead to a decrease in compound low
958 soil moisture and high VPD, which is expected to mitigate the potential negative
959 impacts of CDHEs on vegetation and crops (Ambika and Mishra, 2021).

960 **8.4 Wildfires**

961 Wildfires can affect the carbon cycles with disastrous impacts on the composition and
962 function of terrestrial ecosystems and the resulting air pollution, combined with
963 heatwaves, can negatively affect human health with particular impacts on the
964 cardiovascular and respiratory systems (Vitolo et al., 2019). Wildfires occur under
965 three conditions, including fuel availability, fuel aridity (fire weather), and an ignition
966 source (Ruffault et al., 2020). Low precipitation (or soil moisture deficits) can
967 increase flammability or fuel aridity (Abatzoglou and Williams, 2016) and high
968 temperature (or VPD) can induce accelerated plant desiccation and mortality in short
969 periods (Allen et al., 2015; Ribeiro et al., 2022; Ruffault et al., 2020; Vitolo et al.,
970 2019). Consequently, the concurrence of droughts and hot extremes may amplify the
971 risk of wildfire (Crockett and Westerling, 2018; Libonati et al., 2022). A telling
972 example is the 2019–2020 bushfires in Australia, which were shown to be a
973 consequence of compound droughts and heatwaves (Gissing et al., 2022; Squire et al.,
974 2021), contributing to subsequent floods, soil erosion, and reduced water quality
975 (Kemter et al., 2021).

976 Droughts and hot extremes are important driving factors of wildfire activities in
977 several regions. For example, in the Mediterranean Basin, the most extreme wildfires
978 generally occur during periods of compound droughts and heatwaves (Ruffault et al.,
979 2020). Studies have assessed the spatial distribution pattern of wildfires and
980 compound droughts and heatwaves. Sutanto et al. (2020) explored the compound and
981 cascading hazards defined as the concurrence of dry conditions, hot conditions, and
982 fires at the pan-European scale. They identified a higher frequency of the concurrence
983 of droughts, heatwaves, and fires in the west, central, and east regions of Europe.
984 Several studies also explored the potential prediction of wildfires with multiple
985 variables including droughts and heatwaves. For example, combined with other
986 variables such as wind speed and relative humidity (RH), both drought and heatwaves
987 are shown to be important predictors for wildfire (Deb et al., 2020). Despite increased
988 attention to the relationship between wildfires and CDHEs, more efforts are needed to
989 bridge the gaps in the desiccation of live fuels during CDHEs to mitigate the risks of
990 wildfires (Allen et al., 2015; Ruffault et al., 2020).

991 **9 Discussions**

992 Albeit recent progress in the characterization, drivers, changes, and impacts of
993 CDHEs, there are still some conceptual and technical barriers in understanding and
994 modeling of CDHEs. In the following, we discuss several challenges and future
995 prospects for investigating CDHEs from the perspective of data, characterizations,
996 physical mechanisms, improved evaluation and simulations, and impact assessments
997 (as summarized in Table 1).

998 **9.1 Data availability and quality**

999 Data availability is an issue in extreme analysis since, without a sufficient sample size
1000 to extract large numbers of events, it is hard to identify long-term changes and
1001 perform robust statistical inferences (Seneviratne et al., 2012). Compound events or
1002 extremes are by definition less sampled than individual contributing variables
1003 (Messori et al., 2021). As such, even larger sample sizes are needed for the compound
1004 events analysis, since the characterization and modeling are usually conducted in
1005 higher dimensions (at least 2 dimensions) (Hao and Singh, 2020; Zscheischler and
1006 Lehner, 2022). For example, large sample sizes are generally needed to characterize
1007 droughts and high-temperature extremes to place them into a long-term context for
1008 return period analysis or risk assessments. However, the length of many data products
1009 are not sufficiently long, which may lead to large uncertainty in the analysis of
1010 compound events (e.g., change detection and attribution) (Hao and Singh, 2020).
1011 Moreover, analogues of a certain combination of extremes may be limited or even not
1012 exist in historical records (Gruber et al., 2021; Yiou and Jézéquel, 2020; Zscheischler
1013 et al., 2018), which hinders accurate estimation of the probability or risk of CDHEs,
1014 especially for those with low-probability and high-impacts. Data with finer
1015 resolutions are also important to characterize CDHEs across multiple time scales. For
1016 example, for heatwave-related extremes, the analysis is generally based on the
1017 weather or daily time scale (Seneviratne et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020a), which is
1018 also needed for investigating CDHEs. Currently, the availability of high-quality daily
1019 data is limited in large regions around the world, including parts of Africa, South
1020 America, and Asia, which hampers the investigation of extremes (Sillmann et al.,
1021 2017; Yin et al., 2014).

1022 Overall, the long-term and high-quality data are existing challenges faced in the
1023 assessment and modeling of compound events from multiple lines of evidence.
1024 Different approaches (e.g., process-based model simulations, reanalysis data, and
1025 large model ensembles) have been employed to overcome this problem (Batibeniz et
1026 al., 2022). For example, large climate model ensemble simulations, such as the single
1027 model initial-condition large ensemble (SMILE) (Deser et al., 2020), have been
1028 employed to assess changes in the statistics of weather and climate extremes
1029 (including compound events) and their impacts (Bevacqua et al., 2022; Lehner et al.,
1030 2020; Raymond et al., 2022; Sippel et al., 2016a; Tschumi et al., 2022b), which can
1031 cope with the challenge of limited datasets for model evaluation and attribution
1032 (Zscheischler and Lehner, 2022). Note that the different data sources may lead to
1033 differences in changes detection in droughts or hot extremes (Hoffmann et al., 2020;
1034 Mukherjee and Mishra) and attribution analysis (Zhang et al., 2022d), highlighting the
1035 importance of change assessments with different data sources. Besides the impact data
1036 in the EM-DAT database, the simulations from hydrologic models, crop models, and
1037 dynamic vegetation models can be used to address the challenge of the lack of
1038 long-term impact data. Overall, generating (i.e., mode simulations, expanding
1039 observation networks, or reconstruction), pooling, or assimilating data of multiple
1040 sources (e.g., remote sensing) is needed to increase the data length and accuracy to
1041 improve the modeling of compound events and their impacts (Brunet and Jones, 2011;
1042 Hao et al., 2018d; Sillmann et al., 2017; Xia et al., 2019; Zscheischler and Lehner,
1043 2022).

1044 **9.2 Characterizations from different perspectives**

1045 The suitable choices of variables/indicators and thresholds are challenges in
1046 characterizing and evaluating changes in CDHEs. There is still ambiguity in the

1047 definition of droughts, which hinders the characterization of CDHEs (Geirinhas et al.,
1048 2021). Most of the current analysis of concurrent droughts and high-temperature
1049 extremes is based on meteorological droughts (e.g., precipitation-related). Some
1050 sensitivities in drought changes resulting from the choice of different drought
1051 indicators have been shown in previous studies (Dai, 2013; Long et al., 2018;
1052 Sheffield et al., 2012), which makes the evaluation of CDHEs even more complicated.
1053 For example, for the frequency of compound meteorological droughts and hot
1054 extremes, the relative humidity (Yao et al., 2022), precipitation deficit/anomaly (Hao
1055 et al., 2013; Zhou and Liu, 2018), SPI (Geirinhas et al., 2021; Vogel et al., 2021a),
1056 and SPEI (Li et al., 2018b; Vogel et al., 2021a) have been employed. The impact of
1057 CDHEs may be placed on a variety of sectors, such as water supply, agriculture
1058 management, and human society. As such, CDHEs can be evaluated throughout the
1059 hydrological cycle by considering a wide range of indicators of different drought
1060 types (e.g., agricultural droughts, hydrological droughts) based on the impact
1061 concerned (Feng et al., 2022). For example, soil moisture can be used as a drought
1062 indicator to define CDHEs if the crop production or yield is of particular interest
1063 (Hamed et al., 2021; Hao et al., 2018b; Lesk and Anderson, 2021; Muthuvel and
1064 Mahesha, 2021; Sharma and Mujumdar; Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, though
1065 different combinations of thresholds have been employed for characterizing CDHEs,
1066 there is not a consensus on the selection of thresholds to define compound events.
1067 Previous studies also found certain sensitivities of changes in CDHEs due to selected
1068 thresholds of each variable (absolute or relative thresholds) or baseline periods to
1069 define the threshold (Feng et al., 2021a; Kirono et al., 2017; Sedlmeier et al., 2018).
1070 In addition to the definition of compound events from the statistical perspective (e.g.,
1071 percentile-based thresholds of hydroclimatic variables), it is critical to select the

1072 indictor or thresholds in terms of impacts, which can be achieved based on impacts
1073 models (e.g., crop models, vegetation models, hydrological models) or observational
1074 data (e.g., EM-DAT). These results imply that it is important to study the CDHEs
1075 from a multivariate approach or define compound events from an impact perspective.

1076 **9.3 Understanding mechanisms of combined physical processes**

1077 Apart from analogous challenges in understanding individual droughts and hot
1078 extremes, gaps still exist in the understanding of the underlying physical mechanisms
1079 of compound extremes (Geirinhas et al., 2021; Sillmann et al., 2017). The analysis of
1080 underlying mechanisms in previous studies is mostly focused on individual extremes
1081 while the processes or drivers leading to the concurrent or consecutive occurrences of
1082 both extremes are rather limited. For example, the summer weather anomalies (e.g.,
1083 hot-dry or cold wet) in Europe are closely associated with jet stream (either
1084 dominance of blocked flow or persistence of zonal jet); however, gaps still exist in
1085 our understanding of the dynamics of underlying jet-stream variability during summer
1086 seasons (a critical period of agricultural production)(Messori et al., 2021). The causing
1087 mechanism of CDHEs can differ at different time scales. At shorter time scales, the CDHEs
1088 can results from the blocking of anticyclones and soil moisture–temperature feedbacks,
1089 while at seasonal or longer time scales, the mode of variability play important roles in
1090 driving CDHEs (Kautz et al., 2022; Miralles et al., 2019; Röhlisberger et al., 2019;
1091 Zscheischler et al., 2020). In addition, the simultaneous occurrence of CDHEs across
1092 multiple regions (connected with economical activities or exporting countries of crop
1093 yields) can affect food security and deserves future investigations (Feng et al., 2021a;
1094 Raymond et al., 2022; Sarhadi et al., 2018). As such, the dynamical relationship
1095 between multiple driving factors and CDHEs at different time scales and spatial
1096 locations can be complex, posing challenges to the understanding of CDHEs. An

1097 integrated analysis of multiple components or process chains regarding the concurrent
1098 or consecutive droughts and high-temperature extremes across different
1099 temporal-spatial scales is needed, which relies both on the high quality and
1100 long-record observations (e.g., capturing historical events) and improved modeling
1101 strategies (e.g., representing blocking systems) (Kautz et al., 2022).

1102 **9.4 Improved model evaluation and simulations**

1103 Droughts and heatwaves are connected and propagated through a variety of physical
1104 mechanisms, including synoptic processes, land-atmosphere feedback, and recurring
1105 large-scale patterns. Good performance in simulating CDHEs necessitates the models
1106 to capture individual droughts, hot extremes (or heatwaves), and their interactions or
1107 dependence during the onset, development, and recovery of CDHEs (Hao et al., 2019c;
1108 Ridder et al., 2021). However, current studies on the evaluation of climate models in
1109 simulating compound events, including CDHEs, are still limited (Hao, 2022; Ridder
1110 et al., 2021; Villalobos-Herrera et al., 2021; Zscheischler et al., 2020), which hinders
1111 the understanding of model performances. This necessitates not only the evaluation of
1112 model performances in simulating both extremes but also compound events (or the
1113 interaction of multiple contributing variables) (Zscheischler and Lehner, 2022) and
1114 the relationship between driving factors and CDHEs as well (Manning et al., 2022;
1115 Röthlisberger and Martius, 2019). To this end, novel metrics to evaluate the ability of
1116 climate models in simulating compound events are needed (Messori et al., 2021;
1117 Zscheischler et al., 2021). Building on the climate model evaluation, the model
1118 selections based on performance or process-based analysis can aid the attribution or
1119 future projections of extremes (Fischer et al., 2021; Manning et al., 2022; Vogel et al.,
1120 2018), including CDHEs.

1121 In addition, the current capacity to simulate key processes (both regional processes
1122 and remote climate drivers or variability), such as atmospheric blocking, jet stream
1123 position and intensity, land-atmosphere interactions, and teleconnections, remains a
1124 major challenge. Regional changes in large-scale circulation features, such as changes
1125 in blocking frequency or warm horizontal advection would lead to changes in hot
1126 extremes; however, underestimation of blocking frequency exists for current climate
1127 models (Gibson et al., 2017; Scaife et al., 2010). In addition, the representation of the
1128 impacts of the land surface on precipitation and temperature extremes (or land
1129 atmosphere feedbacks) in climate models is still immature (Miralles et al., 2019;
1130 Santanello et al., 2018; Seneviratne et al., 2021; Sillmann et al., 2017). For example,
1131 previous studies have shown that land surface models tend to underestimate the latent
1132 heat flux during droughts, which leads to an overestimation of the heat extremes by
1133 land-atmosphere feedbacks in coupled models (especially in humid regions)(Sippel et
1134 al., 2017; Ukkola et al., 2016; Ukkola et al., 2018), implying large uncertainties in
1135 CDHEs characterizations from GCMs. The deficiencies in simulating key processes
1136 may lead to difficulties or uncertainties in understanding and modeling (e.g., attributing
1137 and projecting changes) of CDHEs (Bevacqua et al., 2022). For example, the
1138 uncertainty of precipitation changes attribution is shown to result from the limited
1139 model simulations (and observations) with impacts of large internal variability (Zhai
1140 et al., 2018), which add difficulties in the attribution CDHEs with high confidence.
1141 Overall, the large bias of the climate model in simulating these processes calls for
1142 theories/models to untangle complicated processes, increased model resolutions, and
1143 novel approaches for the parameterization of sub-grid scale (or fine-scale) processes
1144 (Bouwer et al., 2022; Coumou et al., 2018; Diffenbaugh et al., 2005; Meehl et al.,
1145 2021; Mueller and Seneviratne, 2014; Sillmann et al., 2017; Woollings et al., 2018).

1146 For example, the plant physiology and response to the CO₂ effect are important to be
1147 included in earth system models to capture land-atmosphere feedbacks and associated
1148 climate extremes including droughts and heatwaves (Anderegg et al., 2019;
1149 Lemordant et al., 2016; Miralles et al., 2019; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2022). Moreover,
1150 the interaction of the human activities with CDHEs (e.g., irrigation, land use changes)
1151 also calls for improved modeling of related natural processes and human activities in
1152 the Anthropocene (Hao, 2022; Zscheischler et al., 2018).

1153 **9.5 Impact assessments**

1154 The modeling of the impact of CDHEs relies on both accurate climate modeling and
1155 impact modeling. The definition of CDHEs could be done from an impact perspective
1156 by asking: what are the weather/climate conditions leading to extreme impacts? To
1157 model the complicated relationship between the physical environmental (including
1158 but not limited to droughts and hot extremes) and biophysical impacts (e.g., crop
1159 failure, extremely low flow events, wildfires), an integrated climate and impact
1160 modeling is desired in defining dry-hot events of high impacts (e.g., subsets of the
1161 T-P space with extreme impacts)(van der Wiel et al., 2020). Though higher impacts of
1162 CDHEs on different sectors have been highlighted and quantified, the role of
1163 individual extremes and their interactions causing impacts is largely unquantified. As
1164 such, disentanglement of the relative effect of individual/compound extremes leading
1165 to the impacts needs more effort (e.g., how droughts regulate the impact of
1166 temperature or vice versa) (Basso and Ritchie, 2014; Tschumi et al., 2022b). Building
1167 on previous studies of impact modeling based on climate simulations and impact
1168 models, the negative impacts result from different combinations of contributing
1169 variables can be quantified from statistical methods, process-based impacts models,
1170 and socio-physical approaches (Raymond et al., 2020a). Statistical methods (e.g.,

1171 conditional distribution, machine learning, or overlap in occurrences) hinge on the
1172 empirical relationship between contributing variables and the impact variable, which
1173 may fall short in characterizing the physical processes causing impacts on different
1174 sectors (Brunner et al., 2021c; Feng and Hao, 2020; Feng et al., 2019; Li et al., 2022a;
1175 Ribeiro et al., 2020a; Zhu et al., 2021). Process-based impacts models are established
1176 tools to estimate the impacts of changes in weather conditions on crop yields,
1177 vegetation, surface runoff, or river discharge, which can be employed to identify the
1178 critical hot-dry conditions leading to extreme impacts. For example, Tschumi et al.,
1179 (2022b) employed the dynamic global vegetation model from a large ensemble
1180 climate modeling experiment (Tschumi et al., 2022a) to disentangle the relative
1181 importance of extremes (e.g., dry, hot, and hot-dry) on vegetation composition and
1182 carbon dynamics. The storyline approach, which starts from a given impact and
1183 constructs a chain of events from the high impact to the driving factors (Pfleiderer et
1184 al., 2021; Shepherd et al., 2018; Sillmann et al., 2021; Zscheischler et al., 2018), can
1185 also be explored to disentangle the driving component (Goulart et al., 2021). This
1186 approach is useful in investigating the event in the tail distribution with the most
1187 catastrophic impacts (the probability may not be quantifiable in this case)(de Brito,
1188 2021; Zscheischler et al., 2018).

1189 **10 Conclusions**

1190 Compound droughts and hot events or extremes (CDHEs) have become an area of
1191 active research in recent decades due to their severe ramifications for hydrology,
1192 ecology, and natural resources management. These compound events have been
1193 characterized based on different properties (e.g., frequency, duration, severity, timing,
1194 spatial extent, and dependence) at different time scales. Multiple physical processes,

1195 including atmospheric circulations, modes of variability (or teleconnection patterns),
1196 and soil moisture-temperature feedback, are important driving factors in the
1197 occurrences of CDHEs depending on regions and seasons. Observations-based studies
1198 reveal an overall increase in the frequency and intensity of CDHEs across the globe
1199 (e.g., western and southern North America, northern South America, Europe, Africa,
1200 northern parts of eastern Asia, and northeastern Australia), which mainly results from
1201 the increased hot extremes. Climate model simulations from CMIP5/CMIP6 generally
1202 perform well in simulating the climatology frequency of CDHEs; however, large
1203 discrepancies in changing patterns of CDHEs in historical periods between
1204 simulations and observations are observed in certain regions (e.g., Australia).

1205 Multivariate bias correction (MBC) of climate model outputs is an useful approach to
1206 alleviate potential uncertainty or bias in model simulations of CDHEs. The overall
1207 increase of CDHEs at the global or continental scales can be attributed to
1208 anthropogenic forcings, which also contributes to increased likelihoods of certain
1209 specific events or extremes. In the future, increased CDHEs are projected over most
1210 global land areas, with higher increase in the western/southern North America,
1211 northern South America (e.g., the Amazon and Brazil), central/southern Europe, the
1212 Mediterranean region, and southern Africa. Impacts from CDHEs on different sectors,
1213 including water resources, crop yield, vegetation, and wildfires, have been quantified,
1214 which highlights the larger impacts of compound extremes than their individual
1215 counterparts.

1216 A few challenges exist in the data availability, characterization, mechanism, changes,
1217 and impacts of CDHEs. A long-term dataset with finer resolutions is needed to fully
1218 characterize CDHEs at different time scales, which necessitate generating and

1219 assimilating data from multiple sources (e.g., process-based model simulations, and
1220 reanalysis data). A consensus on the variables and thresholds to define CDHEs does
1221 not exist, which may lead to large uncertainties in the variability assessments of
1222 CDHEs. Selecting extreme indicators or thresholds based on impact data from model
1223 simulations (e.g., crop models, vegetation models, hydrological models) or
1224 observations (e.g., EM-DAT) is a promising and alternative approach. The dynamical
1225 relationship between multiple driving factors and CDHEs at different time scales and
1226 spatial locations can be complex and thus integrated analysis of multiple components or
1227 process chains with respect to droughts and hot extremes is needed to improve the
1228 physical understanding. The assessment of how climate models simulate CDHEs is
1229 rather limited, which calls for novel metrics for the model evaluation. In addition,
1230 deficiencies in simulating key processes of CDHEs still exist in climate models.
1231 Increased model resolutions and novel parameterizations of sub-grid scale are useful
1232 endeavors for future research in simulating CDHEs in the anthropocene. Building on
1233 improved model dynamics and resolutions, modeling complicated climate-impact
1234 interactions and disentangling the contribution of driving components is useful for
1235 impact assessments and developing mitigation measures for CDHEs.
1236 There are some limitations in this study. We focus on the concurrent droughts and hot
1237 events, while the occurrence of the two extremes at consecutive periods (temporal
1238 compounding) or at multiple locations (spatial compounding) (Feng et al., 2021a;
1239 Raymond et al., 2022; Sarhadi et al., 2018; Slater et al., 2021; Zscheischler et al.,
1240 2020) is not considered in this study. In addition, we mainly characterize CDHEs in
1241 the bivariate case with a focus on precipitation and temperature, while the inclusion of
1242 other variables, such as VPD, soil moisture, radiation, and wind speed, to assess

1243 CDHEs may also be needed (Hao et al., 2018b; Manning et al., 2018; Noguera et al.,
1244 2022; Qing et al., 2022; Tavakol et al., 2020a; Tavakol et al., 2020b). Nevertheless,
1245 this study bears potential for investigating other types of compound events with
1246 serious repercussions on agriculture, energy demand, ecosystem, and human health
1247 (Raymond et al., 2020a; Zscheischler et al., 2020). For example, several types of
1248 compound events are also related to droughts or hot extremes, such as compound low
1249 soil moisture-high VPD (Ambika and Mishra, 2021; Zhou et al., 2019), compound
1250 droughts-floods (He and Sheffield, 2020; Visser-Quinn et al., 2019), compound
1251 heatwaves-floods (Chen et al., 2021b; Wang et al., 2019b), compound heatwaves-
1252 tropical cyclones (Matthews et al., 2019), compound warm-wet events (Brouillet and
1253 Joussaume, 2019; Findell et al., 2017; Raymond et al., 2020b; Rogers et al., 2021;
1254 Tencer et al., 2016), compound high temperature-ozone pollution (Otero et al., 2022),
1255 and compound drought-river flow temperature (Liu et al., 2018; van Vliet et al., 2016).
1256 Results from this study may provide useful insights for investigating these compound
1257 events or extremes.

1258 Building on the synthesis in this study, a scientific consensus is emerging that the
1259 frequency and intensity of CDHEs have been increasing and may continue in the
1260 future. These results highlight the emergence of the development of buffering
1261 strategies for CDHEs (Overpeck, 2013), such as irrigation, forestation, or urban
1262 infrastructures (Ambika and Mishra, 2021; Hao, 2022; Seneviratne et al., 2021;
1263 Thiery et al., 2020; Wouters et al., 2022). It is therefore paramount to limit
1264 greenhouse gas emissions to reduce the risk of CDHEs under global warming. This
1265 study is expected to be useful for research and operational communities of a variety of

1266 sectors including climate, forest, agriculture, and human health sectors, to improve the
1267 resilience to cope with compound extremes under global warming.

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1276 Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) were obtained from the website:
1277 <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip6/>.

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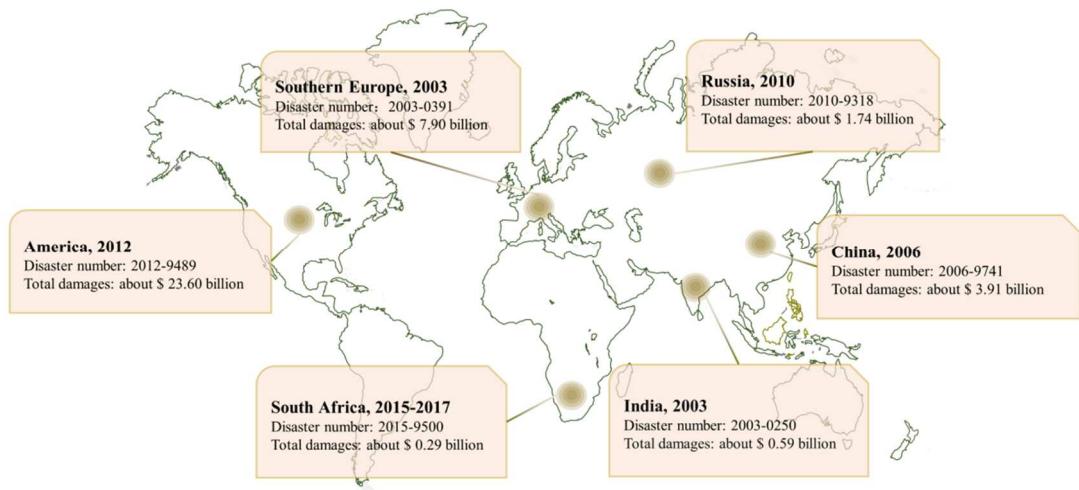
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2859 **13 Table 1 Advances, challenges, and future directions in studying compound dry and hot events.**

Topic	Advances	Challenges	Future directions
Data	Assessment with multi-source data (e.g., gauge observations, reanalysis, and remote sensing)	Lack of long-term and high-quality data	Generate or assimilate data from multiple sources
Characterization	Based on multiple properties, such as frequency, duration, severity, and timing	Lack of consensus on choices of indicators and thresholds	Indicator and threshold selection based on impacts
Drivers	Driven by atmospheric circulation (modes of variability) and land-atmosphere feedbacks	Complex relationships between driving factors and CDHEs at different temporal and spatial scales	Integrated analysis of process chains at multiple spatial-temporal scales
Changes	Detected, attributed, and projected increase in CDHEs across large regions	(1) Limited model evaluation in simulating CDHEs; (2) Immature representation of key processes affecting attribution and projection	(1) Develop metrics for evaluating compound events; (2) Performance-based model selection in attribution and projection studies; (3) improve resolutions and parameterizations
Impacts	Quantify impacts on water resources, vegetation, crop yield, and wildfires	Lack of understanding of individual extremes or their interactions causing impacts	Disentangle relative effects of individual and compound extremes

2860 **14 Figure**



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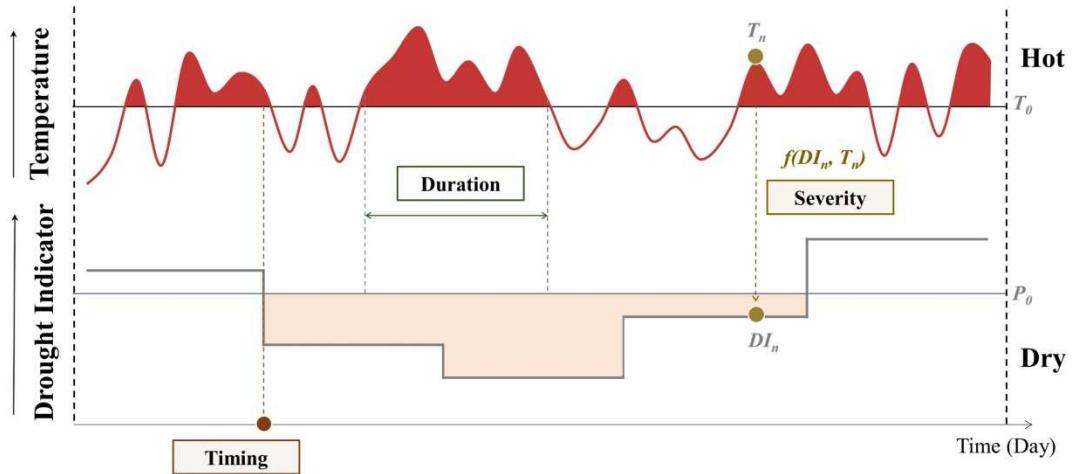
2862 Figure 1 Illustrations of several concurrences of droughts and hot extremes in the past
2863 few decades across the globe. These events are identified from the Emergency Events
2864 Database (EM-DAT).

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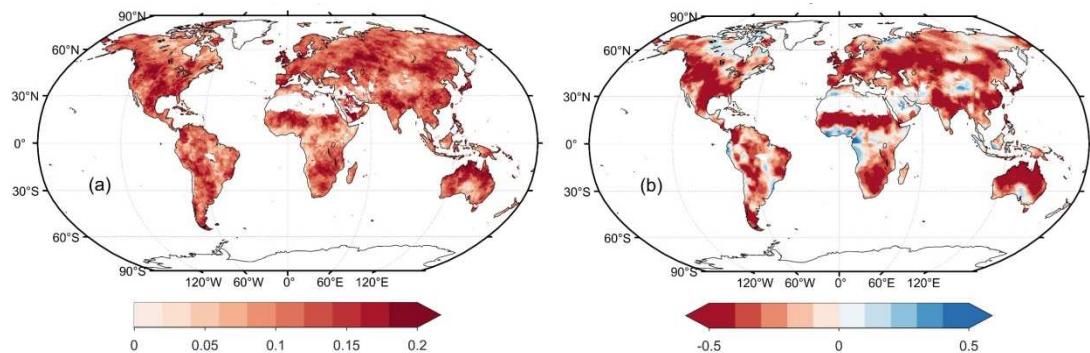
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2871 Fig. 2 Illustration of different properties of compound droughts and hot events
 2872 (CDHEs) including duration, timing, and severity based on drought indicator (DI) and
 2873 temperature. The severity is defined as the function of properties of drought indicator
 2874 (DI) and temperature (T).

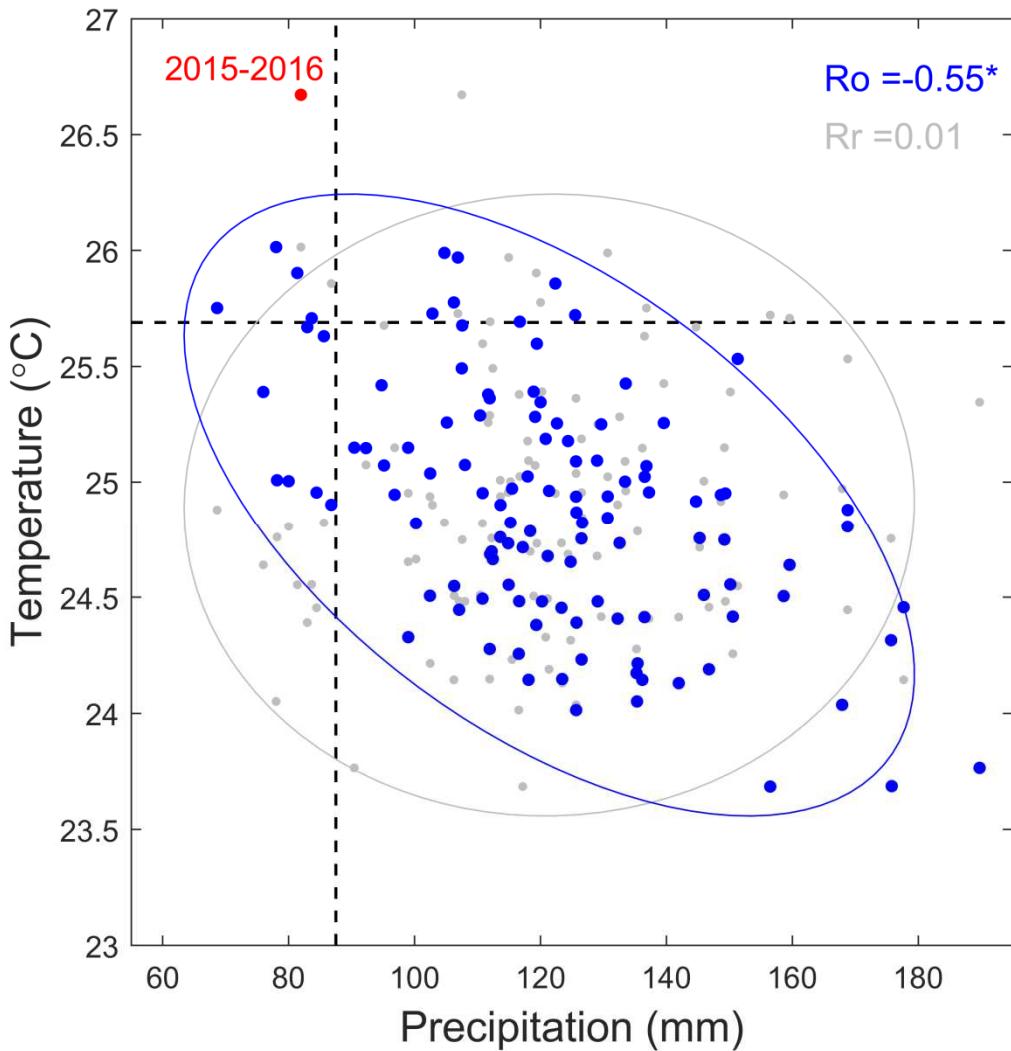
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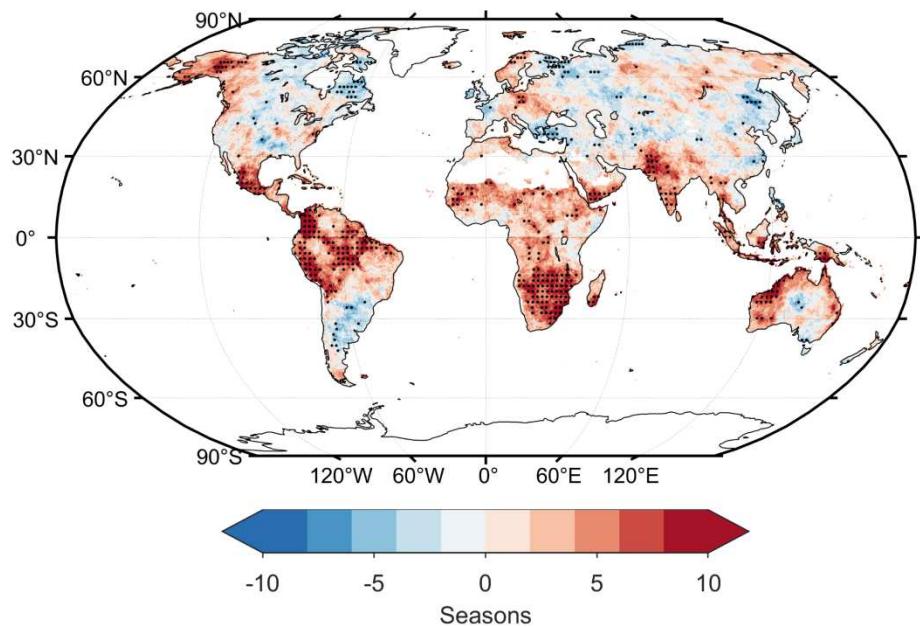


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2878 Fig. 3 Climatology frequency of CDHEs and precipitation-temperature dependence of
2879 the warm season (JJA for the Northern Hemisphere and DJF for the Southern
2880 Hemisphere) based on monthly precipitation and temperature data from Climatic
2881 Research Unit (CRU) for the period 1951-2018. The 30th percentile and 70th
2882 percentile of precipitation and temperature, respectively, are used as thresholds to
2883 define CDHEs. (a) Frequency of CDHEs. (b) Precipitation-temperature dependence.

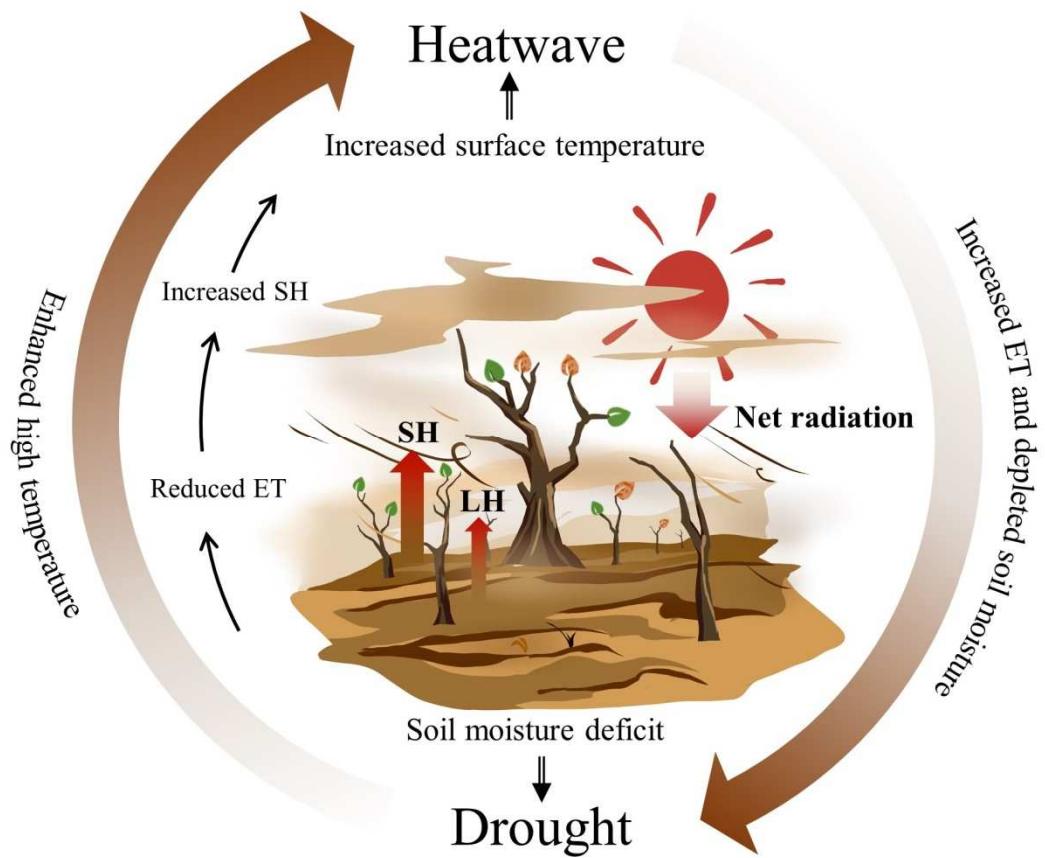
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2896 Fig. 5. Impact of ENSO on CDHEs during warm seasons (JJA for the Northern
 2897 Hemisphere and DJF for the Southern Hemisphere) based on composite analysis. The
 2898 monthly precipitation and temperature data are obtained from CRU for the period
 2899 1951-2018. The 30th percentile and 70th percentile of precipitation and temperature,
 2900 respectively, are used as thresholds to define CDHEs. Dotted regions indicate
 2901 significant impacts of ENSO on CDHEs at the 0.05 significance level.

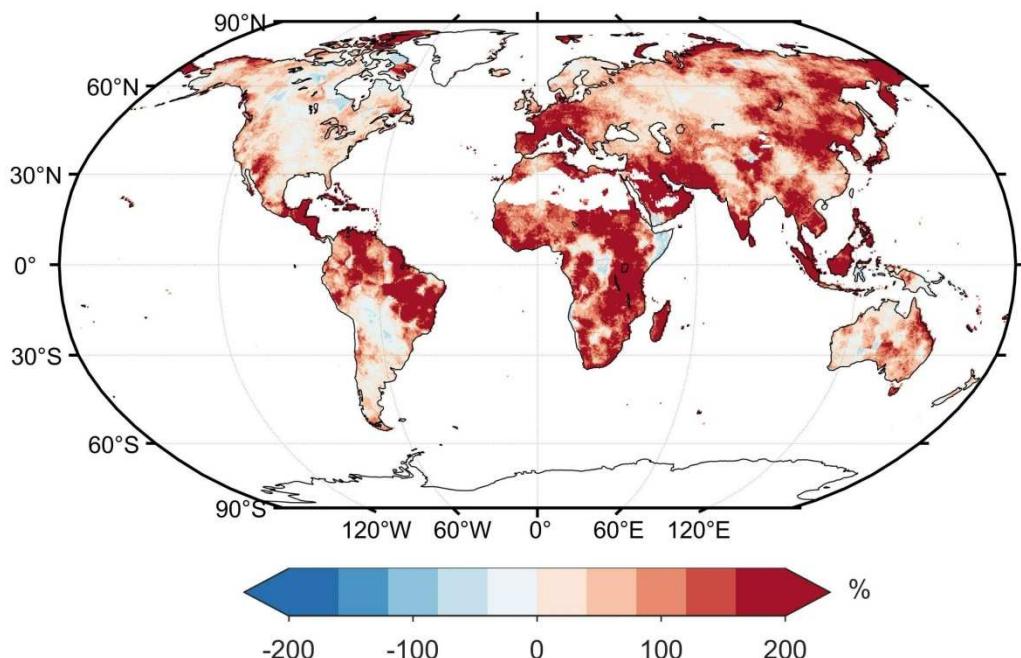


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2903 Fig. 6 Illustration of the occurrence of concurrent droughts and heatwaves from the
 2904 soil moisture-temperature feedbacks. Revised from Perkins (2015) and Alexander
 2905 (2011). ET, SH, and LH are the abbreviation of evapotranspiration, sensible heat, and
 2906 latent heat, respectively.

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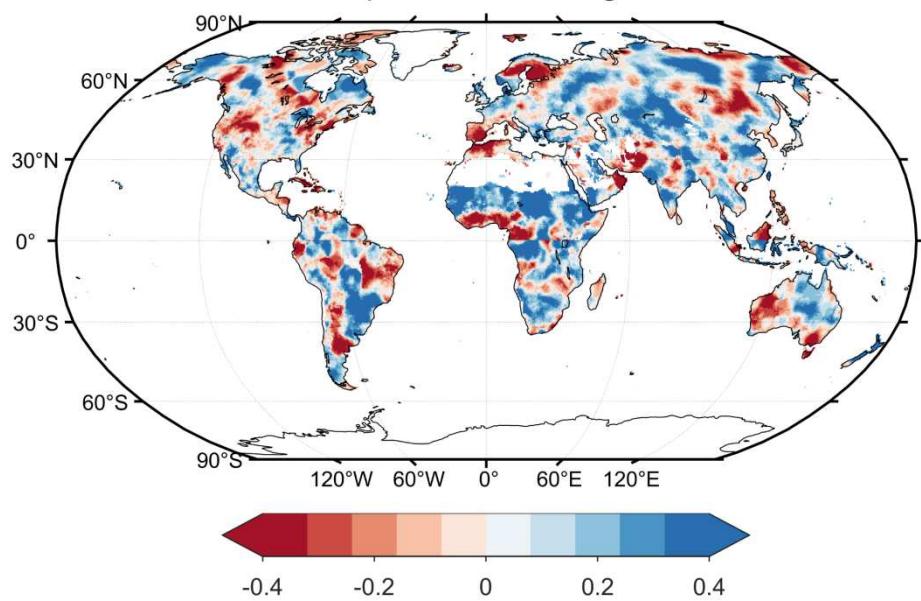


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2910 Fig. 7 Changes in the annual frequency of CDHEs between 1951–1984 and 1985–
2911 2018 based on monthly precipitation and temperature data from CRU. The 30th
2912 percentile and 70th percentile of precipitation and temperature, respectively, are used
2913 as thresholds to define CDHEs. Revised from Hao et al. (2013).

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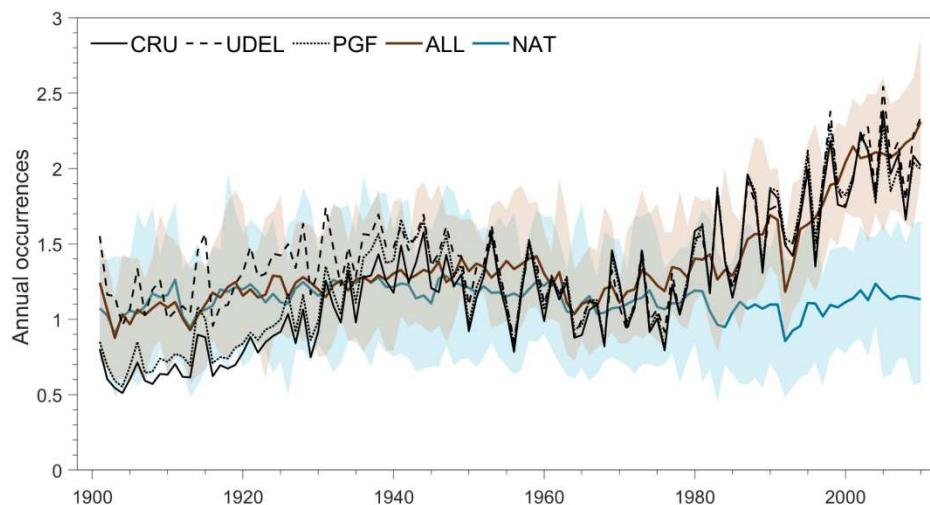


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2917 Fig. 8 Changes in the precipitation-temperature correlations of the warm season (JJA)
2918 for the Northern Hemisphere and DJF for the Southern Hemisphere) for two equal
2919 periods 1951-1984 and 1985-2018 based on the CRU data. Revised from Hao et al.
2920 (2019c).

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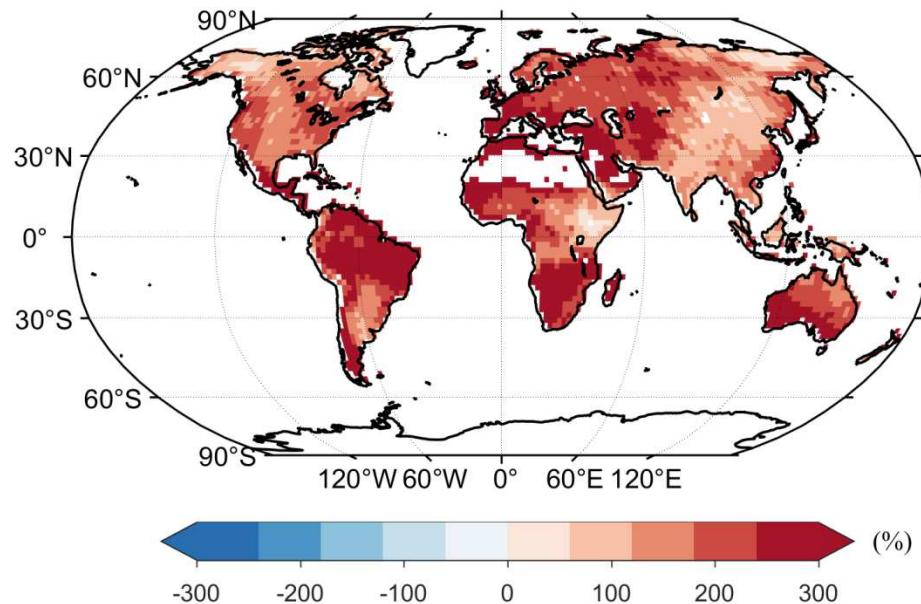
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2924 Fig. 9 Temporal change in annual occurrences of CDHEs (average number of events
2925 per years across the globe) based on observations and CMIP6 all forcings (ALL) and
2926 natural forcings (NAT) simulations for the period from 1901 to 2010. The observations
2927 of monthly precipitation and temperature data include those from CRU, the University
2928 of Delaware (UDEL), and the Princeton Global Forcing (PGF), respectively. Revised
2929 from Zhang et al. (2022d).

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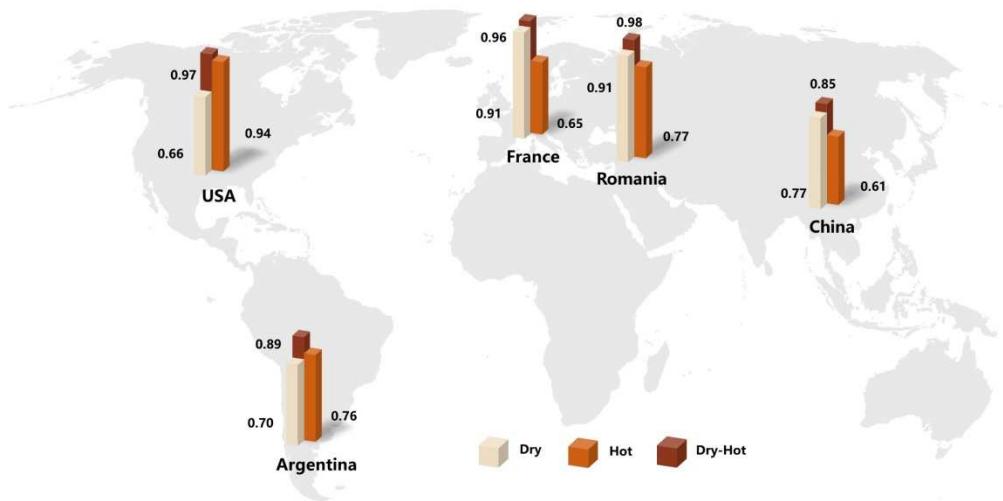
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2934 Fig. 10 Relative changes in the annual occurrences of CDHEs between 1986-2005
 2935 and 2081-2100 at the global scale based on CMIP6 simulations under SSP5-8.5.

2936 Revised from Meng et al. (2022b).

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2940 Fig. 11 The demonstration of the impact of CDHEs on crop yield for the top five
2941 maize-producing countries based on Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI),
2942 Standardized Temperature Index (STI), and Standardized Crop yield Index (SCI). The
2943 conditional probability of crop yield loss (SCI<0) given different conditions,
2944 including dry (SPI/STI=-1.6/0), hot (SPI/STI=0/1.6), and dry-hot conditions
2945 (SPI/STI=-1.6/1.6). Revised from Feng et al. (2019).

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