

¹ Drought indices of water demand and supply, soil moisture, vegetation, and
² its impact on LULCC in continental Chile

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⁴ **Abstract**

Human-induced greenhouse gas emissions have increased the frequency and/or intensity of weather and climate extremes. Central Chile has been affected by a persistent drought which is impacting the hydrological system and vegetation development. The region has been the focus of research studies due to the diminishing water supply, this persistent period of water scarcity has been defined as a “mega drought”. Nevertheless, our results evidence that the water deficit has expanded beyond. Our goal is to analyze the impact of drought, measured by drought indices of water supply/demand and vegetation status, in the LULCC (land use land cover change) over continental Chile. For the analysis, continental Chile was divided into five zones according to a latitudinal gradient: “Norte Grande”, “Norte Chico”, “Zona Central”, “Zona Sur”, and “Zona Austral”. We used monthly climatic re-analysis variables for precipitation, temperature and soil moisture for 1981-2023 from ERA5-Land; and MODIS (Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) product MCD12Q1 for land cover for 2001-2021, and the NDVI vegetation index from product MOD13A2 collection 6.1 for 2000-2023, both from collection 6.1. We estimated atmospheric evaporative demand (AED) by combining the Hargreaves-Samani equation with the ERA5-Land temperature. We derived the drought indices SPI (Standardized Precipitation Index), SPEI (Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index), EDDI (Evaporative Demand Drought Index), SSI (standardized anomaly of cumulative soil moisture), and the zcNDVI (standardized anomaly of cumulative NDVI). These indices were calculated for time scales of 1, 3, 6, 12, 24, and 36 months, except for zcNDVI (1, 3, and 6 months). We analyzed the temporal correlation of SPI, SPEI, EDDI, and SSI with zcNDVI to have insights into the impact of water supply and demand on vegetation. Our results showed that LULCC had an increasing trend of 412 [km²yr⁻¹] of forest expansion in the “Zona Sur”, together with a decreasing trend of 24 [km²yr⁻¹] of cropland contraction in the “Zona Central” meanwhile the “Zona Sur” showed an increase of 31 [km²yr⁻¹], and a contraction of 80 [km²yr⁻¹] of bare soil in the “Zona Austral”. The EDDI was the less correlated index for the five macro zones and the five types of land cover, showing that the temperature in Chile has little impact on vegetation. Higher r-squared values, between 0.5 and 0.8, were obtained at “Norte Chico” and “Zona Central” for the land cover types of savanna, shrubland, grassland, and croplands for the indices SPEI and SSI at time scales of 12 and 24 months. The forest type reaches a r-squared of ~0.5 for SSI of 12 months. The results indicate that the “Norte Chico” and “Zona Central” are the most sensitive regions to water supply deficits longer than a year, potentially explained by a low capacity of water storage in those zones that should be further investigated.

⁵ **Keywords:** drought, land cover change, satellite

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¹This is the first author footnote.

6 **1. Introduction**

7 The sixth assessment report (AR6) of the IPCC [1] indicates that human-induced greenhouse gas emissions
8 have increased the frequency and/or intensity of some weather and climate extremes, and the evidence has
9 been strengthened since AR5 [2]. There is high confidence that increasing global warming can expand the
10 land area affected by increasing drought frequency and severity [3]. Furthermore, drought increases tree
11 mortality and triggers changes in land cover and, consequently, land use, thus impacting ecosystems [4].
12 Nevertheless, there is a lack of understanding of how the alteration in water supply and demand is affecting
13 land cover transformations.

14 Precipitation is the primary driver of drought and is intensified by temperature [5]. Drought impacts soil
15 moisture, hydrological regimes, and vegetation productivity. Initially, drought was commonly classified as
16 meteorological, hydrological, and agricultural [6]. Lately, [7] and [8] have given an updated definition of
17 drought for the Anthropocene, suggesting that it should be considered the feedback of humans' decisions
18 and activities that drives the anthropogenic drought. Even though it has been argued that those definitions
19 do not fully address the ecological dimensions of drought. [4] proposed the ecological drought definition as
20 "*an episodic deficit in water availability that drives ecosystems beyond thresholds of vulnerability, impacts*
21 *ecosystem services, and triggers feedback in natural and/or human systems*". Moreover, many ecological
22 studies have misinterpreted how to characterize drought, for example, sometimes considering "dry" condi-
23 tions as "drought" [9]. On the other hand, the AR6 [1] states that even if global warming is stabilized at
24 1.5°–2°C, many parts of the world will be impacted by more severe agricultural and ecological droughts.
25 Then, there is a challenge in conducting drought research, especially to evaluate its impact on ecosystems.

26 Chile has been facing a persistent rainfall deficit for more than a decade [10], which has impacted vegeta-
27 tion development [11] and the hydrological system [12]. Current drought conditions have affected crop
28 productivity [13, 14], forest development [15, 16], forest fire occurrence [17], land cover change [18], water
29 supply in watersheds [19], and have had economic impacts [20]. In 2019–2020, the drought severity reached
30 an extreme condition in Central Chile (30–34°S) not seen for at least 40 years, and the evidence indicates
31 that the impact is transversal to the land cover classes of forest, grassland, and cropland [11]. The prolonged
32 lack of precipitation in Central Chile is producing changes in ecosystem dynamics that must be studied.

33 For the spatiotemporal assessment of drought impact (i.e., by water supply and demand) on land cover
34 changes, we need climatic reliable variables such as precipitation, temperature, soil moisture, land cover, and
35 vegetation status. For developing countries like Chile, the weather networks present several disadvantages,
36 such as gaps, a short history, and low-quality data. Reanalysis data, as the ERA5-Land (ERA5L) [21]
37 provides hourly climatic information (precipitation, temperature, and soil moisture) without gaps since
38 1950 with global extension. ERA5L has already been used for drought assessment using the Standardized
39 Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI) [22] and for flash drought [23] by analyzing soil moisture
40 and evapotranspiration. On the other hand, satellite remote sensing [24, 25] is the primary method to
41 evaluate how drought impacts vegetation dynamics. Vegetation drought indices (VDI) are commonly used
42 as proxies of productivity [26, 27], which can be derived from the MODIS (Moderate-Resolution Imaging
43 Spectroradiometer). Besides, land use and land cover (LULC) change can be driven by drought [28, 29]. To
44 analyze these changes, multiple LULC products exist [30], one of those that provides time series since 2001
45 is the MCD12Q1 [31] from MODIS. The variation in water supply and demand is finally reflected in the
46 total water storage (TWS). The TWS can be retrieved by the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment
47 (GRACE), which allows analyzing water availability changes at coarse resolution [32, 33]. We can use climatic
48 reanalysis (ERA5L) and vegetation data (MODIS) to derive drought indices of supply (i.e., precipitation)
49 and demand (i.e., temperature) and thus evaluate the impact of drought on LULC changes. Further, the
50 TWS can be assessed with regard to the changes in water supply and demand to gain insight into the impact
51 on water storage.

52 To evaluate meteorological drought (i.e., water supply), the World Meteorological Organization (WMO;
53 [34]) recommends the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI; [35]), a multiscalar drought index that allows
54 to monitor precipitation deficits from short- to long-term. Following the same approach, [36] incorporates

55 into the SPI the effect of temperature through the use of potential evapotranspiration, thus proposing the
56 SPEI (Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index). Similarly, to evaluate solely the evaporative
57 demand driven by temperature, [37] and [38] came up with the Evaporative Demand Drought Index (EDDI).
58 For vegetation, in a similar manner as the SPI, SPEI and EDDI; [14] proposed the zcNDVI, a standardized
59 anomaly of the cumulative Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), which could be accumulated
60 over the growing season or any period (e.g., months), resulting in a multiscalar drought index. For soil
61 moisture, several drought indices exist, such as the Soil Moisture Deficit Index (SDMI) a normalized index
62 [39] and the Soil Moisture Agricultural Drought Index (SMADI) [40] which is a normalized index using
63 vegetation, land surface temperature, and a vegetation condition index (VCI, [41]). From TWS, we can
64 estimate the standardized terrestrial water storage index (STI) [42], a standardized anomaly that follows
65 the methodology of the SPI, SPEI, EDDI, and zcNDVI. Thereby, we have drought indices for water supply,
66 demand, and storage, which can help to make a comprehensive assessment of drought.

67 In this research, we present the raster dataset DDS4Chl, which provides climate variables and drought
68 indices of water demand and supply and vegetation productivity for continental Chile since 1981 at a monthly
69 frequency. Those were gathered from the earth observation products ERA5-Land and MODIS. Then, we
70 used DDS4Chl to analyze the impact of drought on different types of land cover classes in continental Chile.
71 The specific objectives of the study are: i) to analyze the trend on multi-scalar drought indices for water
72 demand and supply, soil moisture, and vegetation productivity for 1981–2023/2001–2023; ii) to evaluate
73 LULC change for 2001–2021 and its relation to drought indices; iii) to analyze the relationship of a proxy
74 of vegetation productivity (zcNDVI) with drought indices of water demand and supply and soil moisture;
75 and iv) to assess if the observed changes in the drought indices are linked to TWS.

76 2. Study area

77 Continetal Chile has a diverse climate condition from north to south and east to west [43] (Figure 1), which
78 determines its great ecosystem diversity (Figure 2). The Andes Mountains are a main factor in latitudinal
79 variation [44]. To describe the climate and ecosystem of Chile, we use the Koppen-Geiger release by [45] and
80 the landcover type persistance of 80% of times for 2001–2022, from the IGBP classification scheme [31] (see
81 Section 3.4). “Norte Grande” and “Norte Chico” predominate in an arid desert climate with hot (Bwh) and
82 cold (Bwk) temperatures. At the south of “Norte Chico,” the climate changes to an arid steppe with cold
83 temperatures (Bsk). Mainly, the land is barren, with a minor surface of vegetation types such as shrubland
84 and grassland. In the zones “Centro” and the north half of “Sur,” the main climate is Mediterranean, with
85 warmer to hot summers (Csa and Csb). In “Centro,” there is a major proportion (~50%) of chilean matorral
86 (shrubland and savanna.[?]), followed by grassland (~16%), forest (8%), and croplands (5%). The south
87 part of “Centro” and the north part of “Austral” are dominated by an Oceanic climate (Cfb). Those zones
88 are high in forest and grassland. The southern part of the country has a tundra climate, and in Patagonia,
89 it is a cold semi-arid area with an extended surface of grassland.

90 3. Materials and Methods

91 3.1. Software and packages used

92 For the downloading, processing, and analysis of the spatio-temporal data, we used the open source software
93 for statistical computing and graphics, R [46]. For downloading ERA5-Land, we used the {ecmwfr} package
94 [47]. For processing raster data, we used {terra} [48] and {stars} [49]. For managing vectorial data, we
95 used {sf} [50]. For the calculation of AED, we used {SPEI} [51].

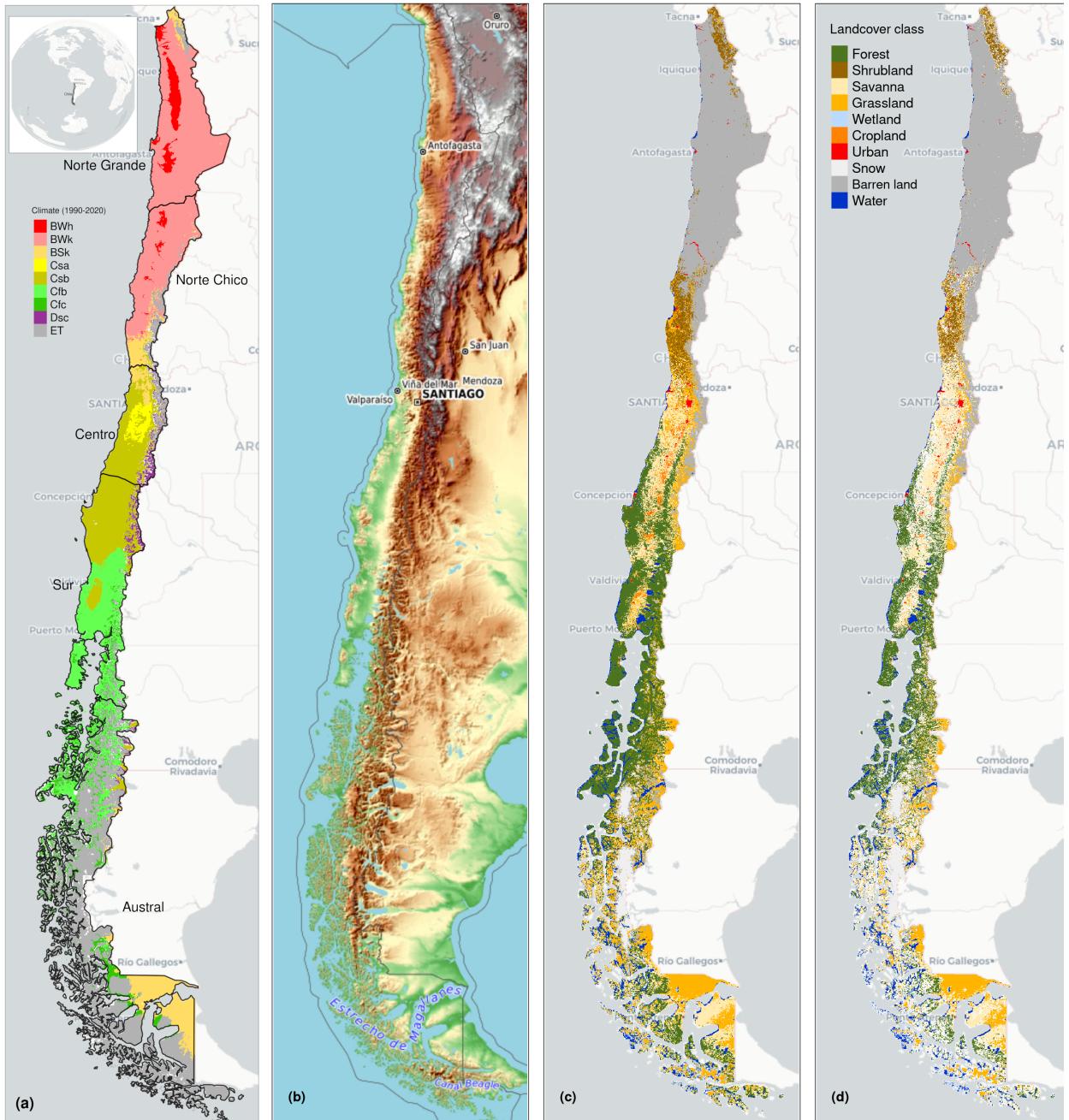


Figure 1: (a) Chile with the Koppen-Geiger climate classes and the five macrozones “Norte Grande”, “Norte Chico”, “Centro”, “Sur”, and “Austral”. (b) Topography reference map. (c) Land cover classes for 2022. (d) Persistent land cover classes (> 80%) for 2001-2022

96 *3.2. Data*

97 *3.2.1. Earth observation data*

98 For water supply and demand variables, we used ERA5-Land [21], a reanalysis dataset that provides the
99 evolution of land variables since 1950. It has a spatial resolution of 0.1° , hourly frequency, and global

100 coverage. We selected the variables for total precipitation, 2 meter temperature maximum and minimum,
 101 and volumetric soil water layers between 0 and 100cm of depth (layer 1 to layer 3). The data was downloaded
 102 using the Copernicus Climate Data Store (CDS) Application Program Interface (API) implemented in
 103 `{ecmwf}` [47].

104 To derive a proxy of vegetation productivity, we used the product MOD13A3 collection 6.1 from MODIS
 105 [52]. It provides vegetation indices (NDVI and EVI) at 1km of spatial resolution and monthly frequency. The
 106 MOD13A3.061 and MCD12Q1.061 were retrieved from the online Data Pool, courtesy of the NASA EOSDIS
 107 Land Processes Distributed Active Archive Center (LP DAAC), USGS Earth Resources Observation and
 108 Science (EROS) Center, Sioux Falls, South Dakota, <https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/tools/data-pool/>.

Table 1: Description of the earth observation data used

Product	Sub-product	Variable	Spatial Resolution	Period	Units	Short Name
ERA5-Land		Precipitation	0.1°	1981-2023	mm	P
		Maximum temperature			°C	T_{max}
		Minimum temperature			°C	T_{min}
		Volumetric Soil Water Content at 1m			m3/m3	SM
MODIS	MOD13A3.061	Atmospheric Evaporative Demand	1 km	1981-2023	mm	AED
		Normalized Difference Vegetation Index			2000-2023	NDVI
		Landcover IGBP scheme			2001-2022	Landcover

*Derived from ERA5-Land with Eq. 1.

109 3.2.2. *in-situ* data

110 3.3. Drought Indices

111 We derived the drought indices of water supply and demand, soil moisture from the ERA5-Land dataset,
 112 and vegetation from the MODIS product, all at monthly frequency.

113 For the indices EDDI and SPEI that use water demand, first we have to calculate the AED. For this, we
 114 used the method of Hargreaves [53]:

$$AED = 0.0023 \cdot Ra \cdot (T + 17.8) \cdot (T_{max} - T_{min})^{0.5} \quad (1)$$

115 where Ra ($MJ\ m^2\ day^{-1}$) is extraterrestrial radiation; T , T_{max} , and T_{min} are mean, maximum, and
 116 minimum temperature ($^{\circ}C$). We calculate the centroid coordinates per pixel and use the latitude to estimate
 117 Ra .

118 To evaluate water demand, we chose the *EDDI* [37, 38] index, which uses the *AED*. For supply, we used
 119 the index recommended by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) for monitoring drought, the *SPI*
 120 [35]. We calculated the *SPEI*, which used a balance between *P* and *AED*, in this case, an auxiliary variable
 121 $D = P - AED$ is used. In this study, we used the *SSI* (standardized soil moisture index at 1 m) [54, 55],
 122 which uses *SM*. Finally, for the proxy of productivity, *zcNDVI*, we used the *NDVI*. Before using the *NDVI*,
 123 it was smoothed following the procedure described in [14] and [13].

124 All the indices are multi-scalar and were calculated for time scales of 1, 3, 6, 12, 24, and 36 months, except
 125 for *zcNDVI*, which was calculated for 6 months. The goal is to be able to evaluate short- and long-term
 126 droughts in water demand and supply and soil moisture. This is particularly important for central Chile
 127 because it has suffered from a prolonged decrease in precipitation for more than 12 years [56, 12, 10].

¹²⁸ To calculate the drought indices, first we must calculate the accumulation of the variable. In this case, for
¹²⁹ generalization purposes, we will use V , referring to P , AED , D , $NDVI$, and SM (Table 1). We cumulated
¹³⁰ each V over the time series of n values, and for the time scales s :

$$A_{si} = \sum_{i=n-s-i+2}^{n-i+1} V_i \quad \forall i \geq n - s + 1 \quad (2)$$

¹³¹ It corresponds to a moving window (convolution) that sums the variable for s starting for the last month
¹³² n until the month, which could sum for s months ($n-s+1$). Once the variable is cumulated over time for
¹³³ the scale s , we used a nonparametric approach following [37] to derive the drought indices. Thus, the
¹³⁴ empirically derived probabilities are obtained through an inverse normal approximation [57]. Then, we
¹³⁵ used the empirical Tukey plotting position [58] over A_i to derive the $P(A_i)$ probabilities across a period of
¹³⁶ interest:

$$P(A_i) = \frac{i - 0.33}{n + 0.33} \quad (3)$$

¹³⁷ The drought indices SPI , $SPEI$, $EDDI$, SSI , and $zcNDVI$ are obtained following the inverse normal
¹³⁸ approximation:

$$DI(A_i) = W - \frac{C_0 + C_1 \cdot W + c_2 \cdot W^2}{1 + d_1 \cdot W + d_2 \cdot W^2 + d_3 \cdot W^3} \quad (4)$$

¹³⁹ DI is referring to the drought index calculated for the variable V . The values for the constats are:
¹⁴⁰ $C_0 = 2.515517$, $C_1 = 0.802853$, $C_2 = 0.010328$, $d_1 = 1.432788$, $d_2 = 0.189269$, and $d_3 = 0.001308$. For
¹⁴¹ $P(A) \leq 0.5$, $W = \sqrt{-2 \cdot \ln(P(A_i))}$, and for $P(A_i) > 0.5$, replace $P(A_i)$ with $1 - P(A_i)$ and reverse the sign
¹⁴² of $DI(A_i)$.

¹⁴³ 3.4. LULC change for 2001-2022 and its relation with water supply and demand, and soil moisture

¹⁴⁴ To analyze the LULCC, we use the IGBP scheme from the MCD12Q1 collection 6.1 from MODIS. This
¹⁴⁵ product has a yearly frequency from 2001 to 2022. The IGBP defines 17 classes; from these, we regrouped
¹⁴⁶ into ten macroclasses for forest, schrublands, savannas, grasslands, wetlands, croplands, urban, snow and
¹⁴⁷ ice, barren, and water bodies. To validate the IGBP MODIS, we compare the macroclasses with the ones
¹⁴⁸ of a more detailed landcover map made by [?] for Chile for the years 2013–2014 (LCChile). The later has
¹⁴⁹ a spatial resolution of 30 m and three levels of defined classes; from those, we used level 1, which fits with
¹⁵⁰ the macroclasses derived from the IGBP MODIS. We chose the years 2013 and 2014 from MODIS IGBP
¹⁵¹ because the LCChile was made with data acquired in 2013 and 2014. We resampled LCChile to the spatial
¹⁵² resolution of the IGBP MODIS using the nearest neighbor method. Then, we took a random sample of 1000
¹⁵³ points within continental Chile and extracted the classes that fell within each point for LCCHILE, IGP2013,
¹⁵⁴ and IGP2014. Finally, we applied a confusion matrix and estimated the accuracy and F1 score as metrics
¹⁵⁵ of performance.

¹⁵⁶ Later, with the goal of analyzing vegetation areas less affected by landcover change, we calculated a raster
¹⁵⁷ mask for IGBP MODIS considering the classes that remain for more than 80% of the years (2001–2022),
¹⁵⁸ which allows us to identify the areas with no landcover change for the macroclasses. Figure 2 shows the
¹⁵⁹ summary of the proportion of surface per landcover class and macrozone, derived from the mask over
¹⁶⁰ continental Chile.

¹⁶¹ Further, we calculated the surface occupied per landcover class into the five macrozones (“Norte Grande”
¹⁶² to “Austral”) per year. After that, we calculated the trend’s change in surface; we used the Sen’ slope [59]
¹⁶³ based on Mann-Kendall [60]. This way, we obtain a matrix of trends of 5 x 5 (macrozones x landcover).

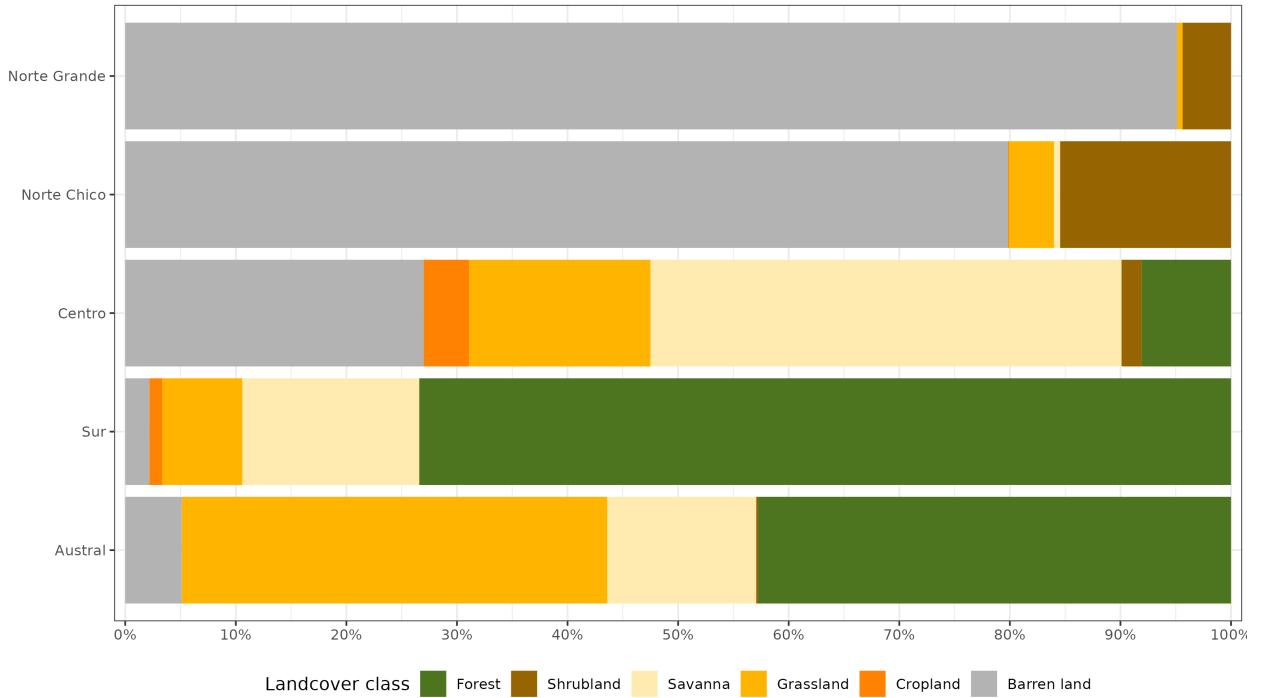


Figure 2: Proportion of land cover class from the persistent land cover for 2001-2022 (>80%) per macrozone

164 We will explore if the trend in landcover classess is associated to trend of the drought indices. For this
 165 we will use the regularizations techniques of Lasso [61] and Ridge regression [62]. Also, we will test random
 166 forest for this purpose [63].

167 3.5. Trend of drought indices for water demand and supply, soil moisture, and vegetation productivity

168 To estimate if there are significant positive or negative trends for the drought indices, we used the non-
 169 parametric test of Mann-Kendall [60]. To determine the magnitude of the trend, we used Sen's slope [59].
 170 One of the advantages of applying this methodology is that the Sen's slope is not affected by outliers as
 171 regular regression does. We applied both to the six time scales from 1981 to 2023 (monthly frequency) and
 172 the indices SPI, EDDI, SPEI, and SSI. In the case of zcNDVI (six months) was for 2000 to 2023. Thus,
 173 we have 31 trends. Also, we extracted the trend aggregated by macrozone and landcover class, obtaining a
 174 table of 31x5x5 (drought indices trends x macrozone x landcover class). We will use this data in Section 3.4
 175 to analyze if there is a strong relationship between the trends of drought indices and land cover surface
 176 within continental Chile.

177 For zcNDVI, we want to remove the effect of the Andes's mountain and mask out trends that were at an
 178 elevation above 1500m because there is scarce vegetation.

179 [64] made a global analysis of the drought's severity trend using SPI, SPEI, and the Standardized Evap-
 180 otranspiration Deficit Index (SEDI; [65]) to evaluate AED. They indicate that the increase in hydrological
 181 drought has been due to anthropogenic effects rather than climate change. This is because the global in-
 182 crease in AED did not explain the change in the spatial pattern of the hydrological drought. Also, they state
 183 that "*the increase in hydrological droughts has been primarily observed in regions with high water demand*
 184 *and land cover change*". We will contrast this hypothesis with what is occurring in Chile. To achieve this,
 185 we will use the landcover class type that remains more than 80% of types for 2001–2022 to evaluate the
 186 trend on zcNDVI and use this as a mask where there are low changes.

187 *3.6. Impact for water supply and demand, and soil moisture in vegetation productivity within landcover types*

188 The aim of this section is to analyze the drought indices of water demand and supply and soil moisture
 189 against vegetation to address: i) if short- or long-term time scales are most important in impacting vegetation
 190 through Chile; and ii) the strength of the correlation for the variable and the time scale. Then, we will
 191 summarize for each landcover class and macrozone. Thus, we will be able to advance in understanding how
 192 climate is affecting vegetation, considering the impact on the five macroclasses: forest, cropland, grassland,
 193 savanna, and shrubland.

194 To assess how water demand and supply and soil moisture are related to vegetation productivity (zcNDVI),
 195 we analyze the linear correlation between the indices SPI, SPEI, EDDI, and SSI for 1, 3, 6, 12, 24, and 36-
 196 month time scales against zcNDVI. We followed a similar approach to that used by [66] when using the SPI
 197 for meteorological drought against the cumulative FAPAR (Fraction of Absorbed Photosynthetically Active
 198 Radiation) as a proxy for vegetation productivity. We made a pixel-to-pixel linear correlation analysis per
 199 index. First, we calculate the Pearson coefficient of correlation for the six time scales and let the time scale
 200 that reaches the maximum correlation be significant ($p < 0.05$). Then, we extracted the Pearson correlation
 201 value corresponding to the time scales that reached the maximum value. Thus, we derived two raster maps
 202 per index, the first with the time scales and the second with the correlation value.

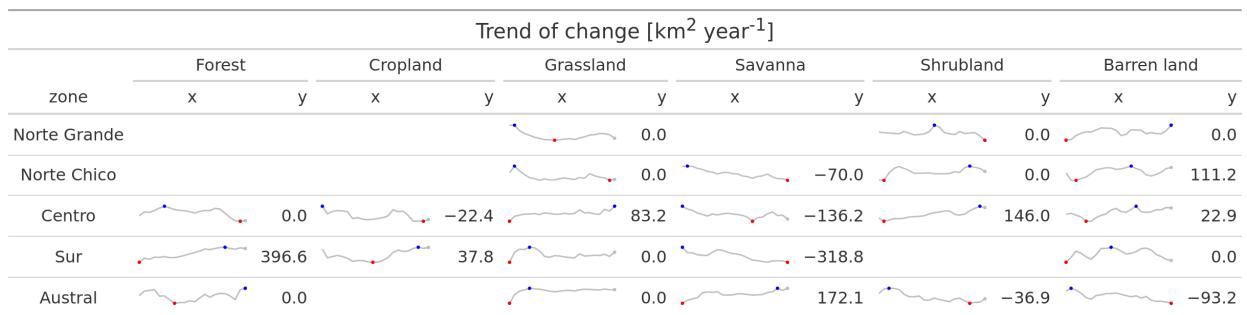
203 *3.7. Validation of ERA5-Land variables*

204 **4. Results**

205 *4.1. LULC change for 2001–2022 and its relation with water supply and demand, and soil moisture*

206 Figure 3 and ?? show that the macrozones with major LULCC were “Sur” and “Centro” with % and
 207 % of surface evidenced change, respectively. The “Norte Chico” shows an increase in barrend land of 111
 208 $km^2 year^{-1}$ and a reduction in the class savanna $-70 km^2 year^{-1}$. In the “Centro” and “Sur” there are changes
 209 in the chilean matorral, with an important reduction in savanna (-136 to $-318 km^2 yr^{-1}$), and an increase
 210 in shrubland and grassland. Showing a change for more dense vegetation types. It appears to be a change
 211 from the surface occupied by cropland from the “Centro” to the “Sur.” Also, there is a high increase in
 212 forest ($397 Km^2 yr^{-1}$) in the “Sur,” replacing the savanna lost.

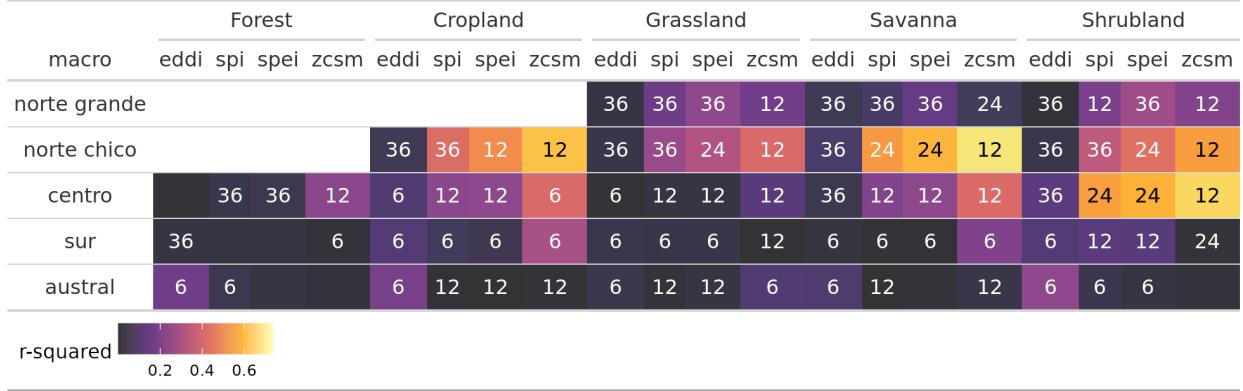
Table 2: The value of Sen’s slope trend next to the time-series plot of surface per landcover class (IGBP MCD12Q1.016) for 2001–2022 through Central Chile. Values of zero indicate that there was not a significant trend. Red dots on the plots indicate the maximum and minimum values of surface.



213 *4.2. Trend of drought indices for water demand and supply, soil moisture, and vegetation productivity*

214 Regarding vegetation productivity aggregated through the macrozones, there is a negative trend in four
 215 macrozones; only “Norte Grande” shows a positive trend of 0.07 per decade (z-score). zcNDVI reached a
 216 trend of -0.07 per decade in the “Centro” and “Norte Chico,” followed by “Sur” with -0.05 and “Austral”

Table 3



217 with -0.03 (Figure 3). This could be associated either with a reduction in vegetation surface, a decrease in
 218 biomass, or browning [?]. It reached its lowest values since the year 2019, reaching an extreme condition in
 219 early 2020 and 2022 in the “Centro.” If we observe the spatial variation in Figure 3 a, despite the fact that
 220 “Norte Grande” has a positive trend, it can be noticed that the south part has a cluster with a negative
 221 trend. The negative trend is most noticeable in “Norte Chico” and the northern part of “Centro,” but
 222 from there to the south, there is an extensive surface of change in landcover class where the trend was not
 223 calculated.

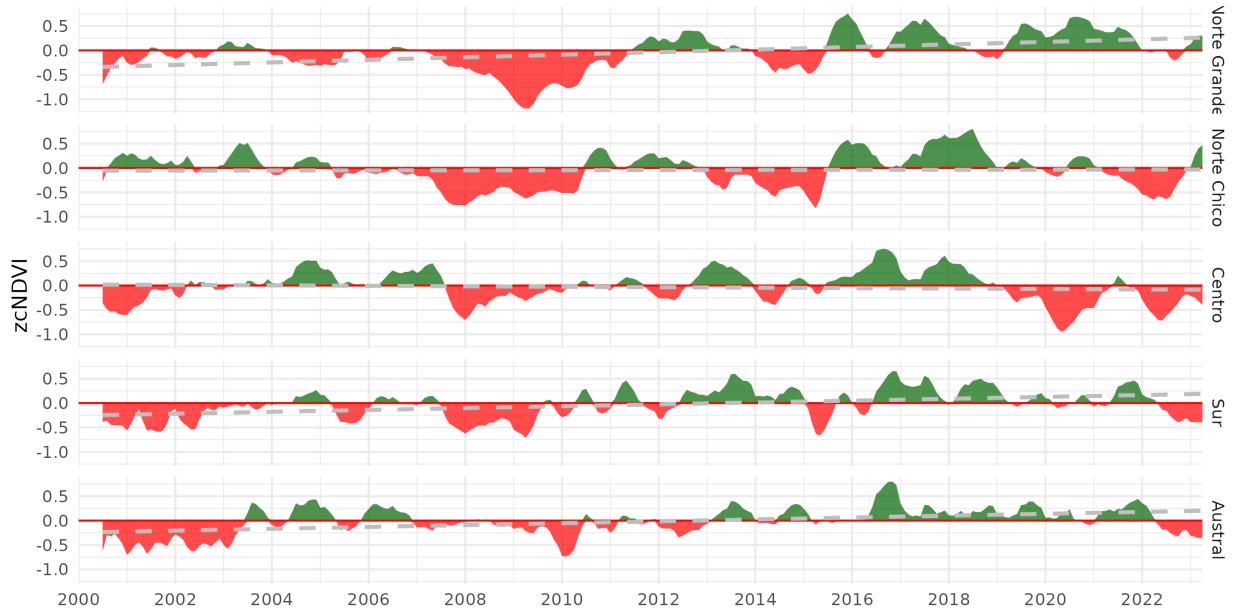


Figure 3: (a) Map of the linear trend of the index zcNDVI-6 for 2001–2023. Greener colors indicate a positive trend and an increase in vegetation development; redder colors correspond to a negative trend and a decrease in vegetation development. (b) Temporal variation of zcNDVI-6 aggregated at macrozone level within continental Chile. Each horizontal panel corresponds to a macrozone from ‘norte grande’ to ‘zona austral’.

224 Analyzing the water supply in the macrozones “norte chico,” “central,” and “sur,” the SPI shows a de-
 225 creasing trend that increases at longer time scales due to the prolonged reduction in precipitation. It reaches
 226 a trend of -0.056 (z-score) per decade (Figure 4) for time scales of 36 months. In the case of water demand,

227 we analyze the EDDI. It shows a positive trend, caused by an increase in AED. The trend on EDDI reaches
228 a maximum of 0.053 per decade in the macrozones “norte grande” and “norte chico” (229?@**fig-trendEDDI**).
230 The behavior is similar to SPI, having close trends with opposite signs. Nevertheless, the spatial patterns
231 are different. The maximum trend for SPI-36 is in “norte chico” and “zona central.” For EDDI-36, the
maximum trend is from “northe grande” to “zona central.”

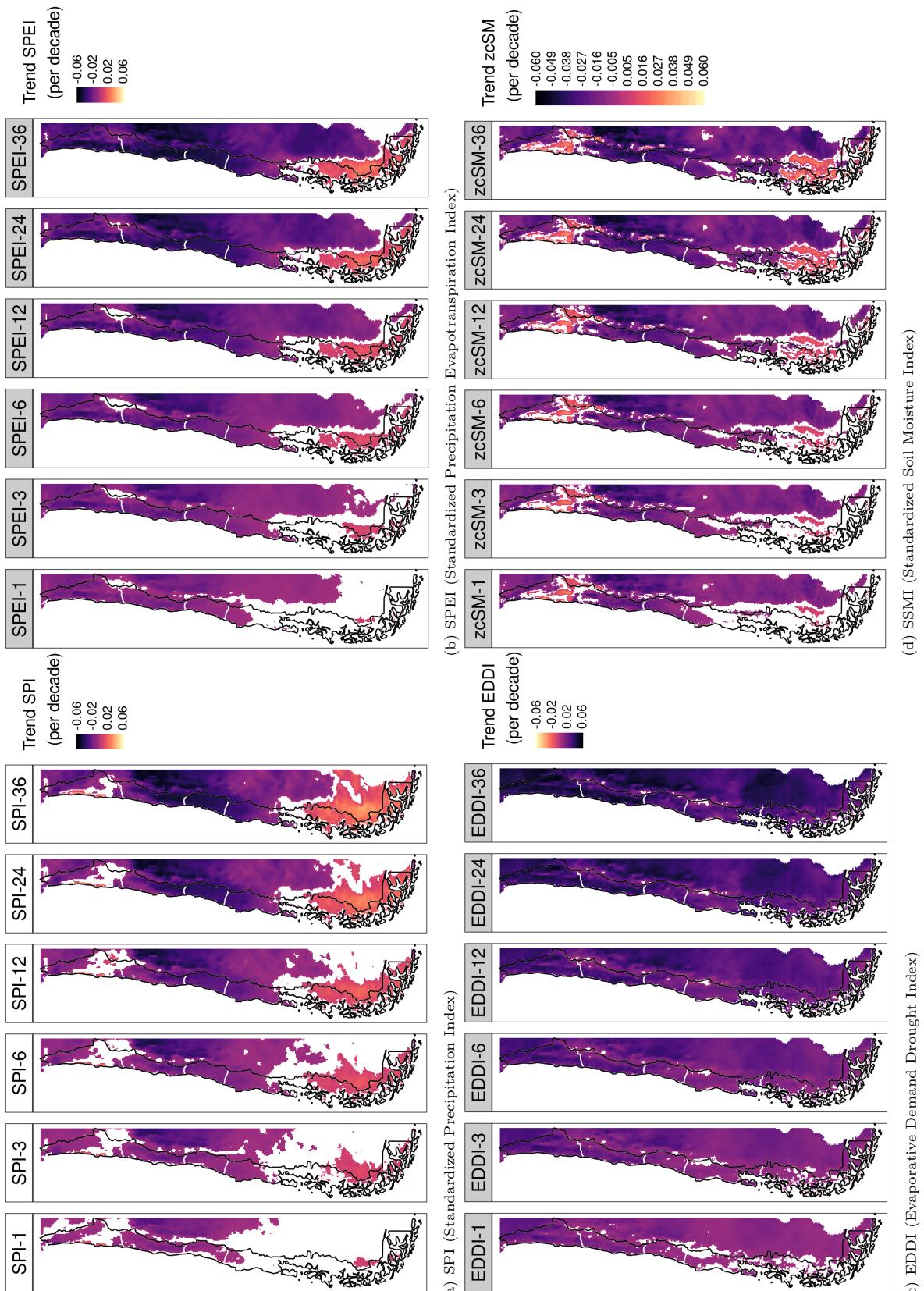


Figure 4: Linear trend of the drought index (*) at time scales of 1, 3, 6, 12, 24, and 36 months for 1981-2023

232 The correlation between zcNDVI-6 and drought indices shows that time scales higher than six months
 233 are predominant over continental Chile in explaining vegetation variability (Figure 5). Pearson correlations
 234 between 0.6 and 0.9 are concentrated in the “norte chico” and “zona central” for SPI and SPEI. Soil moisture
 235 reached a correlation of 0.6–0.9 that extended north and south with respect to SPI.

236 *4.3. Impact for water supply and demand, and soil moisture in vegetation productivity*

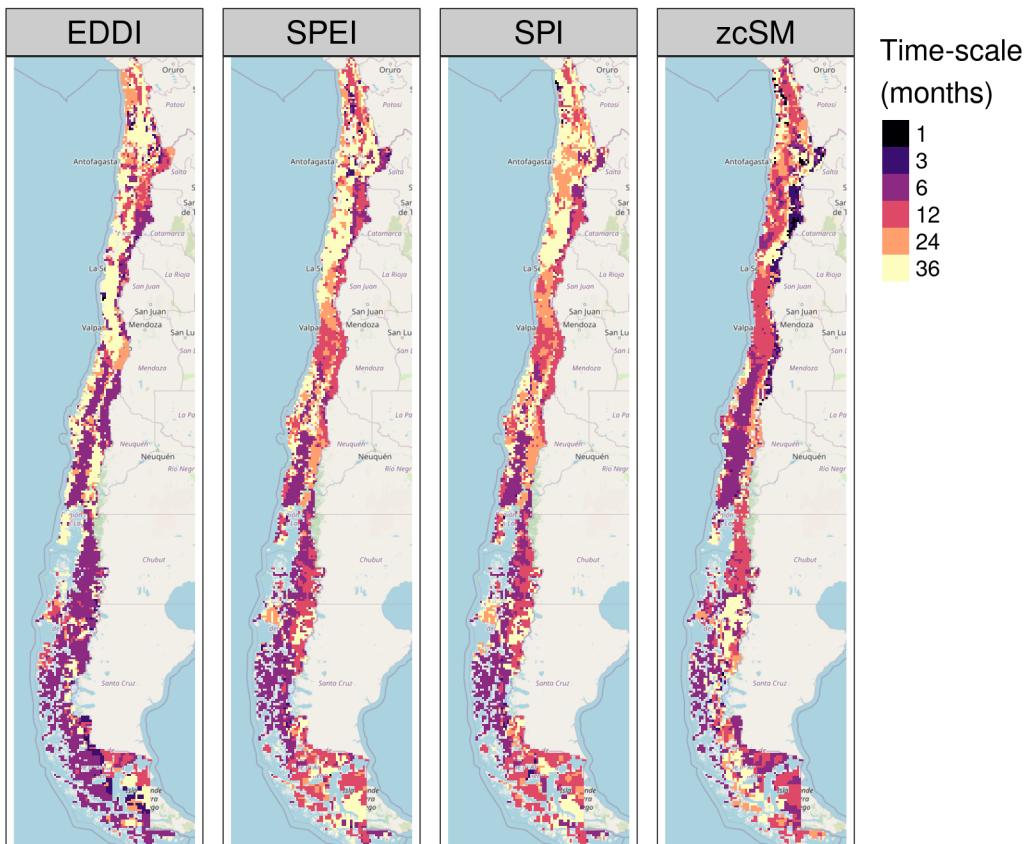


Figure 5: Time scales per drought index that reach the maximum coefficient of determination

237 *4.4. Total water storage (TWS) and drought indices*

238 *4.5. Validation of ERA5-Land variables*

239 **5. Discussion**

240 **6. Conclusion**

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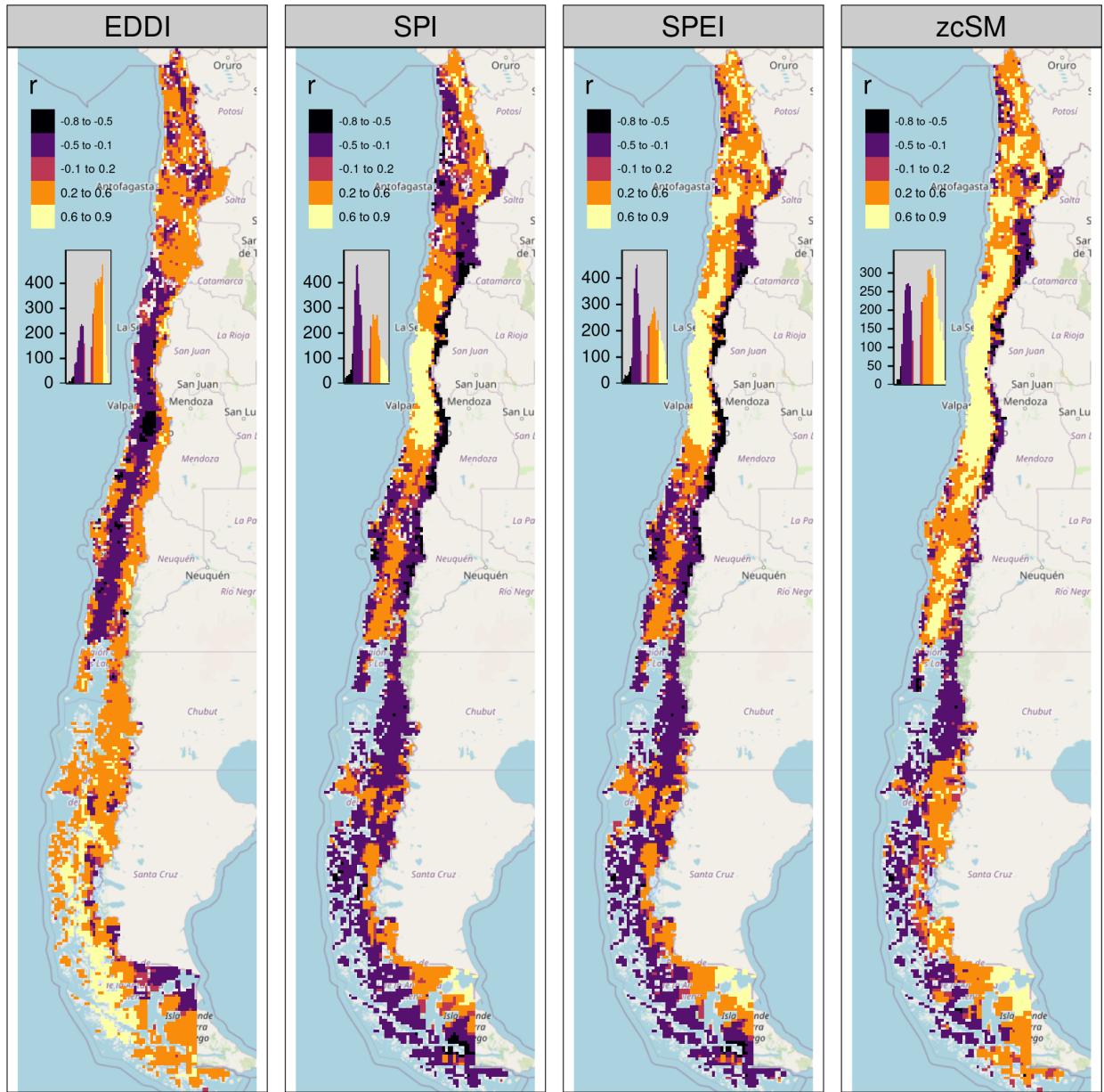


Figure 6: Pearson correlation value for the time scales and drought index that reach the maximum coefficient of determination

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