

1 FLASH DROUGHTS: A REVIEW AND ASSESSMENT OF THE CHALLENGES  
2 IMPOSED BY RAPID ONSET DROUGHTS IN THE UNITED STATES

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27

## Abstract

28           Given the increasing use of the term “flash drought” by the media and scientific  
29 community, it is prudent to develop a consistent definition that can be used to identify these  
30 events and to understand their salient characteristics. It is generally accepted that flash  
31 droughts occur more often during the summer due to increased evaporative demand;  
32 however, two distinct approaches have been used to identify them. The first approach  
33 focuses on their rate of intensification, whereas the second approach implicitly focuses on  
34 their duration. These conflicting notions for what constitutes a flash drought (e.g.,  
35 unusually fast intensification versus short duration) introduce ambiguity that affects our  
36 ability to detect their onset, monitor their development, and understand the mechanisms  
37 that control their evolution. Here, we propose that the definition for flash drought should  
38 explicitly focus on its rate of intensification rather than its duration, with droughts that  
39 develop rapidly identified as flash droughts. There are two primary reasons for favoring  
40 the intensification approach over the duration approach. First, longevity and impact are  
41 basic characteristics of a drought’s magnitude. Thus, short-term events lasting only a few  
42 days and having minimal impacts are inconsistent with the general understanding of  
43 drought and therefore should not be considered flash droughts. Second, by focusing on the  
44 rate of intensification, the proposed flash drought definition highlights the unique  
45 challenges faced by vulnerable stakeholders who have less time to prepare for its adverse  
46 effects when drought develops so quickly.

47 Drought is a naturally recurring feature of the climate system that affects virtually  
48 all regions of the world. Extreme drought events such as those that have occurred across  
49 various parts of the U.S. during the past decade have caused major societal disruptions,  
50 extensive damage to natural ecosystems, drawdown of surface and groundwater supplies,  
51 and sharp reductions in agricultural production. Because droughts occur across multiple  
52 time scales (weeks to decades) and exert diverse impacts on different socioeconomic  
53 sectors, landscapes, and components of the hydrological cycle, it is difficult to create a  
54 uniform definition for drought that applies to all situations. Drought has traditionally been  
55 categorized as one of four types: meteorological, agricultural, hydrological, and  
56 socioeconomic (Wilhite and Glantz 1985). Meteorological drought refers to a deficit in  
57 precipitation over some period of time, while taking into account differences in local  
58 climatology. If deficits in net water supply at the surface become large, hydrological  
59 drought can develop as reflected by groundwater, river, or reservoir levels dropping below  
60 normal. When plant water requirements are not met during the growing season, especially  
61 during certain periods critical for yield development, agricultural drought can result.  
62 Socioeconomic drought considers the impact of drought conditions on the supply and  
63 demand of economic goods and services. More recently, a fifth drought type referred to as  
64 ecological drought has been proposed (Crausbay, et al. 2017). This type of drought refers  
65 to an episodic deficit in water availability that drives ecosystems beyond thresholds of  
66 vulnerability, affects ecosystem services, and triggers feedback between natural and human  
67 systems. It should be noted that more than one drought type can occur at the same time at  
68 a given location and that droughts can transition from one type to another as conditions and  
69 impacts evolve with time.

70           In addition to these drought types, a potentially new drought type known as “flash  
71 drought” has entered the scientific and popular lexicons in recent years. Though a deficit  
72 in precipitation is a basic requirement for drought to develop, the speed with which it  
73 develops and its ultimate severity are also influenced by other environmental anomalies.  
74 For example, if below normal precipitation is accompanied by above normal evaporative  
75 demand due to high temperatures, low humidity, strong winds, and sunny skies,  
76 agricultural and ecological drought conditions signified by increasing soil moisture deficits  
77 and declining vegetation health can rapidly emerge. This scenario has occurred in dramatic  
78 fashion several times across the U.S. in recent years. In 2012, large precipitation deficits  
79 combined with record high temperatures and abundant sunshine led to very rapid drought  
80 development across the central U.S. According to the U.S. Drought Monitor (USDM;  
81 Svoboda et al. 2002), widespread areas experienced a 3, 4, or even a 5 category increase in  
82 drought severity over a 2-month period, which is a remarkable rate of intensification (Fig.  
83 1a). This means that locations that generally had near normal conditions at the end of May  
84 had fallen into extreme drought conditions only two months later. This flash drought had  
85 a substantial impact on prime agricultural lands, with losses estimated to be in excess of  
86 \$30 billion across the entire nation (NCEI 2017). Likewise, in 2016, extreme drought  
87 conditions rapidly developed during the fall across a large portion of the southeastern U.S.,  
88 with an extensive area experiencing up to a 4 category increase in drought severity over a  
89 3-month period (Fig. 1b). Similar to the 2012 event, this drought had a detrimental impact  
90 on agriculture and also led to an elevated fire risk, most notably represented by the  
91 devastating wildfires that occurred near Gatlinburg, TN in late November. The most recent  
92 example of rapid drought intensification in the U.S. occurred across the northern High

93 Plains in 2017, where warm and exceptionally dry weather during the spring and early  
94 summer led to up to a 4 category increase in drought severity over a 2-month period (Fig.  
95 1c) and sharply lower wheat yields across the region. These events demonstrate the  
96 suddenness with which extreme drought conditions can develop and the high impact that  
97 they have on the economy and local ecosystems. In this paper, we provide an overview of  
98 recent research on flash droughts and then present a proposed definition for flash drought  
99 and a checklist that can be used to track its development. We also discuss the importance  
100 of drought monitoring tools and forecasting methods that can quickly capture flash drought  
101 onset and predict its evolution over sub-seasonal time scales.

102

### 103 Flash drought literature review

104 Drought is often thought of as a slowly evolving climate phenomenon that takes  
105 many months or even years to reach its full intensity. However, recent events across the  
106 U.S. and elsewhere around the world have shown that droughts can develop very rapidly  
107 if extreme weather anomalies persist over the same region for several weeks to months.  
108 Though precipitation deficits over some time period are required for drought to develop,  
109 their presence alone is unlikely to lead to a flash drought because a lack of precipitation is  
110 only one of several factors that can lead to rapid drought intensification. For example,  
111 when precipitation deficits occur alongside other weather anomalies that enhance  
112 evaporative demand, such as high temperatures, low humidity, strong winds, and sunny  
113 skies, they can work together to quickly deplete soil moisture reserves due to increased ET  
114 (Otkin et al. 2013; Anderson et al. 2013). Persistence of such conditions for days to weeks  
115 can force a transition from energy-limited ET to water-limited ET, leading to rapid

116 increases in vegetation stress and the emergence of flash drought (Hunt et al. 2009, 2014;  
117 Mozny et al. 2012; Ford et al. 2015; Ford and Labosier 2017). Because this scenario is  
118 most likely to occur during the growing season when evaporative demand is  
119 climatologically highest, flash droughts tend to have their largest impact on agriculture  
120 (Otkin et al. 2013, 2016; Hunt et al. 2014; Anderson et al. 2016) and natural ecosystems  
121 (Crausbay et al. 2017). Perhaps the earliest mention of this type of phenomenon was made  
122 by Lydolph (1964) in reference to the Sukhovey, which is a wind accompanied by high  
123 temperatures and low relative humidity that originates in central Asia and primarily occurs  
124 during the growing season. Though the term refers to the wind rather than to drought, these  
125 events lead to rapid wilting of vegetation and have historically had a major impact on  
126 agriculture from Eastern Europe to central Asia.

127         In their introduction to the USDM, Svoboda et al. (2002) coined the term “flash  
128 drought” to draw attention to the unusually rapid intensification of some droughts and to  
129 better distinguish these events from traditional droughts that develop more slowly. Otkin  
130 et al. (2013) examined the salient characteristics of rapid onset flash drought events across  
131 the U.S. using the satellite-derived Evaporative Stress Index (ESI; Anderson et al. 2007),  
132 which depicts standardized anomalies in a normalized ET fraction given by the ratio of  
133 actual ET to potential ET (PET). A detailed analysis of four flash droughts revealed that  
134 rapid increases in moisture stress as depicted by rapid decreases in the ESI over several  
135 weeks were usually associated with higher air temperatures, fewer clouds, larger vapor  
136 pressure deficits, and stronger winds. Given adequate plant available soil moisture (i.e.,  
137 energy-limited conditions), rapid increases in both evaporative demand and ET will deplete  
138 soil moisture. However, if plant available soil moisture approaches the wilting point (i.e.,

139 water-limited conditions), such increases in evaporative demand will lead to dramatic  
140 decreases in ET and increasing vegetation moisture stress. For example, Hunt et al. (2014)  
141 showed that ET from adjacent rainfed and irrigated corn fields diverged significantly after  
142 plant available soil moisture in the rainfed crop dropped below 30%. Otkin et al. (2013)  
143 also showed that change anomalies depicting how rapidly the ESI is changing with time  
144 can provide early warning of flash drought development. Otkin et al. (2014, 2015a)  
145 subsequently developed the Rapid Change Index (RCI) to encapsulate the accumulated  
146 magnitude of moisture stress changes occurring over multiple weeks. These studies  
147 showed that droughts are more likely to develop when the RCI is negative and that this  
148 likelihood increases dramatically as the RCI becomes more negative.

149         Several studies have also examined how soil moisture conditions evolve before and  
150 during flash drought events. Hunt et al. (2009) developed a Soil Moisture Index (SMI),  
151 which is computed using soil moisture observations and estimated wilting and field  
152 capacity soil metrics, to examine changes in moisture stress during a flash drought over  
153 Nebraska. A subsequent study by Mozny et al. (2012) in the Czech Republic showed that  
154 the SMI provides valuable information about the effectiveness of recent rains that can be  
155 used to alert agricultural stakeholders about potential drought development. More recent  
156 studies by Hunt et al. (2014) and Ford et al. (2015) using soil moisture observations in  
157 Nebraska and Oklahoma, respectively, have shown that soil moisture rapidly decreases  
158 during the onset phase of a flash drought due to increased ET and that soil moisture  
159 anomalies tend to initially appear in the topsoil layer before moving deeper into the soil  
160 profile. A soil moisture deficit coupled with persistently elevated evaporative demand will  
161 eventually result in vegetation stress, and the potential development of flash drought. Ford

162 and Labosier (2017) have also recently shown that periods of rapid soil moisture depletion  
163 are typically associated with lower precipitation and humidity and increased solar radiation  
164 and temperature, which is consistent with the Otkin et al. (2013) study focusing on ET. By  
165 using logistic regression, Ford and Labosier (2017) determined that variables accounting  
166 for evaporative demand (PET and water vapor pressure deficit) or the balance between  
167 supply and demand of surface moisture (precipitation – PET) are better predictors of flash  
168 drought development than are temperature or precipitation alone.

169 A common theme of these studies is the requirement for the root zone soil moisture  
170 content to rapidly fall below a threshold associated with vegetation moisture stress for it to  
171 be considered a flash drought event. This transition from energy-limited to water-limited  
172 conditions is often necessary for soil moisture-atmosphere feedbacks to occur (Seneviratne  
173 et al. 2010). It also exemplifies the complex relationship between evaporative demand, soil  
174 moisture, and ET. Elevated evaporative demand coupled with initially adequate-to-surplus  
175 soil moisture content will result in increased ET and a subsequent depletion of soil moisture  
176 reserves. The transition from an energy-limited to water-limited regime occurs when a  
177 continuation of enhanced evaporative demand and concurrent decline in root zone soil  
178 moisture leads to vegetation moisture stress and a decrease in ET. Therefore, rapidly  
179 declining soil moisture content could potentially serve as a precursor for flash drought,  
180 particularly if plant available soil moisture is approaching critical levels such as the wilting  
181 point. The switch from adequate to deficit soil moisture conditions will also be evident in  
182 datasets such as the ESI as the vegetation responds to soil moisture restrictions by  
183 decreasing its ET.



184           In contrast to the above studies that have identified flash droughts based on an  
185 unusually rapid rate of intensification, several other studies have instead focused on their  
186 duration. For example, Mo and Lettenmaier (2015, 2016) used pentads (5-day periods) to  
187 identify flash droughts based on anomalies in modeled soil moisture, precipitation, ET, and  
188 temperature. They suggested that there are two types of flash droughts: “heat wave” flash  
189 droughts that are driven by high temperatures, and “precipitation” flash droughts that are  
190 driven by below normal precipitation. Heat wave flash droughts require temperature  
191 anomalies > 1 standard deviation above normal for a given pentad along with positive ET  
192 anomalies and soil moisture content below the 40<sup>th</sup> percentile. Precipitation anomalies for  
193 that pentad are allowed to be positive or negative. In this situation, the unusually high  
194 temperatures cause evaporative demand to increase, which in turn leads to either decreasing  
195 soil moisture in energy-limited conditions where there is adequate plant available soil  
196 moisture, or decreased ET in water-limited conditions where soil moisture is insufficient  
197 to meet the vegetation’s needs. Conditions for heat wave flash droughts are mostly likely  
198 to be met across the Midwest and Pacific Northwest where there is dense vegetation. A  
199 similar pattern was found by Wang et al. (2016) in which heat wave flash droughts occurred  
200 on average twice per year across densely vegetated areas of southeastern China. For  
201 precipitation flash droughts, temperature anomalies must again be at least 1 standard  
202 deviation above normal with soil moisture below the 40<sup>th</sup> percentile; however, for these  
203 events, precipitation is also required to be less than the 40<sup>th</sup> percentile and ET anomalies  
204 must be negative in order to distinguish them from heat wave flash droughts. In this case,  
205 the precipitation deficits lead to below normal ET and above normal temperatures. These  
206 conditions occur most often across the southern U.S. Overall, their results show that both

207 types in aggregate occur up to several times each year at a given location, with most events  
208 lasting no more than 2 pentads (10 days), thereby making them short, frequent events.

209

210 Proposed flash drought definition

211 As discussed in the previous section, there is currently a lack of consensus in the  
212 scientific community concerning the definition of flash drought; namely, whether it should  
213 be based on how rapidly a drought develops as originally proposed in Svoboda et al. (2002)  
214 or instead be based on its duration? Here, we argue that any definition of flash drought  
215 should inherently account for both its rapid intensification (i.e., the flash) and the actual  
216 condition of moisture limitation (i.e., the drought). We propose that flash droughts should  
217 be viewed as a subset of all droughts that are distinguished from more conventional slowly  
218 developing droughts by their unusually rapid rate of intensification. This definition can be  
219 seamlessly applied to all types of drought; however, this essay will focus on agricultural  
220 and ecological flash droughts given their large impact on crop yields, livestock forage  
221 production, and natural ecosystems. By focusing the definition on the development phase  
222 of a drought, this means that a flash drought that initially impacts agriculture can ultimately  
223 develop into long-term hydrological drought, such as occurred across the central U.S. in  
224 2012. That year, widespread areas experienced a flash drought during the first half of  
225 summer that reached its peak intensity by late summer, but then persisted for over a year  
226 in some locations following the end of the rapid intensification period. We do not propose  
227 that the entire event in such cases should be classified as a flash drought; rather, the term  
228 “flash drought” should be reserved for the time period during which the rapid  
229 intensification occurred.

230           Because the proposed flash drought definition focuses on the intensification rate, it  
231 is necessary to use metrics depicting changes in some quantity over a period of time to  
232 identify a flash drought. It is also important to account for seasonal or regional climate  
233 characteristics that may make rapid decreases in soil moisture or some other quantity more  
234 or less likely to occur during certain times of the year. This could be accomplished in a  
235 variety of ways, such as simply requiring an index expressed as a percentile to decrease by  
236 a certain amount over a specified time period. An alternative approach is to use  
237 standardized change anomalies that depict how rapidly an index is changing with time  
238 relative to the local climatology for that time of the year. The severity of the flash drought  
239 could then be determined based on the magnitude of the change anomalies each week or  
240 over an extended period of time, similar to the approach used in the RCI. Regardless, a  
241 key requirement for identifying a flash drought is to choose a drought index that can  
242 respond quickly to rapidly changing conditions. For agricultural and ecological flash  
243 droughts, this typically means choosing drought indices computed over short time periods  
244 (e.g., < 1 month) that are sensitive to soil moisture, ET, evaporative demand, or vegetation  
245 health, and then assessing changes in those indices during the past few weeks (Otkin et al.  
246 2013).

247           As a second requirement, we propose that the chosen index must actually fall into  
248 drought during the rapid intensification period in order for the event to be classified as a  
249 flash drought. To be consistent with existing drought definitions, this means that the index  
250 must fall below the 20<sup>th</sup> percentile for the event to be considered flash drought because that  
251 is when abnormally dry conditions begin to have a large impact on the environment  
252 (Svoboda et al. 2002). By design, this requirement will lead to the exclusion of short

253 periods characterized by rapid deterioration that do not actually lead to drought. Also, by  
254 not imposing a starting threshold on the drought index, a flash drought can initially develop  
255 even when the index originally depicts near normal conditions. For example, a region  
256 containing adequate soil moisture could experience flash drought if large precipitation  
257 deficits quickly develop or there is a prolonged period of excessive atmospheric demand  
258 that leads to a rapid transition to water-limited conditions and subsequent drought  
259 development.

260         Similar to other drought types, flash droughts are characterized by a range of  
261 intensities, with the magnitude of the flash drought and its impacts on both managed and  
262 natural ecosystems largely determined by how quickly drought conditions develop, the  
263 magnitude of the observed changes, and whether or not long-term drought develops after  
264 the period of rapid intensification ends. Therefore, to better capture the full range of flash  
265 drought intensities, we propose that a suite of different magnitude and temporal change  
266 thresholds rather than a single universal definition should be used to identify them and to  
267 characterize their overall severity. For example, with the USDM, a 2-category increase in  
268 drought severity over a 6-week period could be used to classify a flash drought as having  
269 moderate intensity, whereas a larger 4-category change over a similar time period would  
270 represent a more severe flash drought event. Another approach would be to define the flash  
271 drought intensity based on the magnitude of standardized change anomalies and their  
272 persistence over multi-week periods as is done when computing the RCI (Otkin et al. 2015).  
273 Likewise, Ford and Labosier (2017) chose to define flash droughts to be situations when  
274 soil moisture percentiles for a given location dropped from above the 40<sup>th</sup> percentile to  
275 below the 20<sup>th</sup> percentile over a 20-day period. That methodology could be expanded to

276 include additional percentile and temporal change thresholds to capture a broader range of  
277 flash drought events. In contrast, Mo and Lettenmaier (2015, 2016) mandate that soil  
278 moisture must be below the 40<sup>th</sup> percentile during a single 5-day period for flash drought  
279 to occur. Because their definition does not account for changes in soil moisture with time,  
280 nor is the threshold dry enough to actually be considered drought, we argue that their  
281 definition does not identify flash droughts and therefore its use should be discontinued.

282

283 Monitoring the evolution of a flash drought

284        Though the general characteristics of individual flash drought events, such as their  
285 intensification rate and severity, will vary from one event to another due to differences in  
286 the antecedent conditions and the strength and persistence of the atmospheric anomalies  
287 driving their evolution, some guidelines regarding their evolution can still be constructed  
288 using results from prior studies. Figure 2 provides a schematic overview of a typical flash  
289 drought event. To effectively capture the onset and evolution of a flash drought, it is  
290 necessary to use a variety of drought monitoring tools depicting anomalies in soil moisture,  
291 ET, evaporative demand, and vegetation health. In general, flash drought onset is more  
292 likely to occur when the evaporative demand is much higher than normal for several weeks.  
293 New drought monitoring tools such as the Evaporative Demand Drought Index (EDDI;  
294 Hobbins et al. 2016; McEvoy et al. 2016) can be used to identify regions experiencing  
295 excessive atmospheric demand over different time scales and has been shown to provide  
296 early warning of flash drought development. A key requirement for a flash drought to  
297 develop, however, is that the enhanced atmospheric demand is not compensated for by  
298 increased precipitation. Thus, to properly account for deficits in the balance between

299 supply and demand of surface moisture (e.g., precipitation – PET), tools such as the  
300 Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index (Vicente-Serrano et al. 2010) that  
301 combine anomalies in precipitation and evaporative demand should be used because  
302 assessing each component separately may provide an incomplete indication of drought  
303 severity. Indeed, it is the juxtaposition of near to below normal precipitation and above  
304 normal evaporative demand that leads to flash drought development.

305         During the onset phase of a flash drought, soil moisture deficits often develop in  
306 the topsoil layer first and then move deeper into the soil column; however, large deficits  
307 can also develop over a deeper layer if the vegetation has a deep root structure that can  
308 access subsoil moisture. Indeed, to cope with higher atmospheric demand, vegetation often  
309 accelerates flash drought development through a more rapid depletion of root zone soil  
310 moisture due to enhanced ET. Satellite microwave sensors sensitive to soil moisture in the  
311 top 5 cm of the soil profile provide valuable information about drought onset, albeit with  
312 coarse horizontal resolution (25-40 km) and with limited direct information about root zone  
313 moisture. Because of this, soil moisture monitoring networks and land surface models that  
314 provide soil moisture information over the entire root zone are critical for flash drought  
315 detection. Though ET may initially be enhanced due to high evaporative demand,  
316 vegetation will begin to curtail its water usage as the soil moisture continues to decrease,  
317 thereby leading to water-limited conditions. Because ET anomalies may change sign from  
318 positive to negative during the onset of a flash drought, a clearer signal of the worsening  
319 conditions can be obtained using tools such as the ESI that depict anomalies in the potential  
320 ET fraction (ET / PET). Tools such as the ESI and EDDI are complementary to each other  
321 because drought signals often emerge earlier in EDDI, but at the expense of a high false

322 alarm rate because not all regions with unusually high evaporative demand will experience  
323 drought. The ESI can be used to better delineate which areas within a broad region of  
324 increased evaporative demand are actually experiencing moisture stress conditions. This  
325 is aided by the coupling between increased moisture stress and elevated land surface  
326 temperatures observed in the thermal infrared imagery used to compute the ESI. As flash  
327 drought conditions continue to intensify, large soil moisture deficits develop over a deep  
328 layer of the soil column and often display a similar temporal evolution to the ESI given the  
329 tight coupling between soil moisture and ET.

330         As drought conditions become more severe, visible signs of moisture stress such as  
331 yellow or curled leaves become more apparent in the vegetation. These visible signs of  
332 deterioration tend to occur after the initial decreases in soil moisture and ET and are  
333 associated with decreases in leaf area index, gross primary productivity, and vegetation  
334 fraction. During severe drying, whereby the available water in the root zone is fully  
335 depleted, the vegetated canopy can experience temporary or permanent senescence, a  
336 dramatic reduction in ET, and due to the loss of evaporative cooling via ET, localized  
337 thermal anomalies that further perpetuate drought conditions via elevated sensible heating.  
338 A representative example illustrating the rapid deterioration of vegetation health during a  
339 flash drought is shown in Fig. 3 using phenocam images from the Marena, OK in situ  
340 sensor testbed (MOISST; Cosh et al. 2017). In this example, the 2012 flash drought caused  
341 the grasses to rapidly brown and go dormant over a 6-week period, which stands in sharp  
342 contrast to the continued greenness over the same time period in 2014. A wide assortment  
343 of satellite-derived tools, such as the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (Tucker  
344 1979), Enhanced Vegetation Index (Huete et al. 2002), or Land Surface Water Index (Xiao

345 et al. 2002) computed using visible and near infrared satellite imagery can be used to  
346 provide high-resolution estimates of vegetation health during flash drought events.

347 To summarize, a typical progression during either an agricultural or ecological flash  
348 drought given adequate-to-surplus soil moisture (i.e., energy-limited regime) is for an  
349 extended period of enhanced evaporative demand to initially cause an increase in ET as  
350 vegetation responds to the anomalous weather conditions, subsequently followed by a  
351 period of rapidly decreasing soil moisture content, a transition to water-limited conditions,  
352 reduced ET, and the subsequent emergence of visible signs of vegetation moisture stress.  
353 The intensification rate and final severity of a flash drought will be strongly influenced by  
354 the strength and persistence of the atmospheric anomalies forcing its evolution, the  
355 magnitude of the precipitation deficits, and the vulnerability of the crops or rangelands to  
356 drought. After the period of rapid intensification ends, a flash drought could potentially  
357 develop into hydrological drought or simply be terminated by a heavy precipitation event.

358

359 Concluding remarks

360 Though the term “flash drought” first entered the scientific lexicon in the early  
361 2000s to describe droughts that intensify more rapidly than conventional droughts, it did  
362 not become popularized until 2011 and 2012 when the media and scientific community  
363 began to extensively use the term when referring to the devastating droughts that affected  
364 parts of the central U.S. each of those years. Given its continued widespread use in the  
365 media to describe more recent droughts and its increasing use in journal articles, it is  
366 prudent to develop clear and consistent terminology that allows us to more effectively  
367 convey the characteristics of these events and the risks they may pose to vulnerable



368 stakeholders. In recent years, however, two separate approaches have been used to identify  
369 flash droughts: one that focuses on the rate of intensification and another that focuses on  
370 duration. These conflicting notions for what constitutes a flash drought – rapid  
371 development versus short duration – introduce ambiguity that affects our ability to detect  
372 their onset, monitor their development, and forecast their evolution and demise.

373         Here, we have proposed that the definition for flash drought should inherently focus  
374 on its rate of intensification rather than its duration, with droughts that develop more  
375 rapidly than normal being identified as flash droughts. By focusing on their unusually  
376 rapid rate of intensification, the definition clearly highlights their most salient characteristic.  
377 Given the spate of rapid onset flash droughts in recent years and their large impact on  
378 farming and ranching, there is also an urgent need to enhance our ability to forecast these  
379 events. To capture their rapid onset, it is necessary to generate drought intensification  
380 forecasts at weekly intervals that depict changes in drought conditions over sub-seasonal  
381 time scales. In addition to improvements to climate models, new empirical forecasting  
382 methods such as those presented by Lorenz et al. (2017a, b) that leverage the long-term  
383 memory of soil moisture and vegetation should be explored. Studies that increase our  
384 understanding of the role that atmosphere–land surface interactions play during flash  
385 drought development and the ability of land surface and climate models to depict their  
386 onset and evolution are also necessary. Finally, as discussed in Otkin et al. (2015b),  
387 stakeholder groups vulnerable to flash droughts desire monitoring and forecasting tools  
388 that are easy to use and deliver timely information. Having a consistent definition for what  
389 constitutes a flash drought enhances our ability to provide stakeholders useful information

390 and promotes a more thorough understanding of these important features of the climate  
391 system.

392

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498 Figure Captions

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500 Figure 1. Three examples illustrating rapid drought intensification, including (a) 8-week  
501 change in the USDM ending on 24 July 2012, (b) 3-month change in the USDM ending on  
502 29 November 2016, and (c) 8-week change in the USDM ending on 11 July 2017. The  
503 dark orange and brown colors indicate regions where flash drought occurred as signified  
504 by the large increases in drought severity over the specified time period. Change images

505 were obtained from the National Drought Mitigation Center.

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507 Figure 2. Schematic overview showing the typical evolution of a flash drought event. The  
508 schematic is based on Fig. 11.3 in Hobbins et al. (2017).

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510 Figure 3. Phenocam images taken at the Marena, OK in situ sensor testbed (MOISST)  
511 adjacent to the Marena Oklahoma Mesonet station on (a) 01 July 2012, (b) 11 August 2012,  
512 (c) 01 July 2014, and (d) 11 August 2014. All images were taken at 10:30 AM local time.

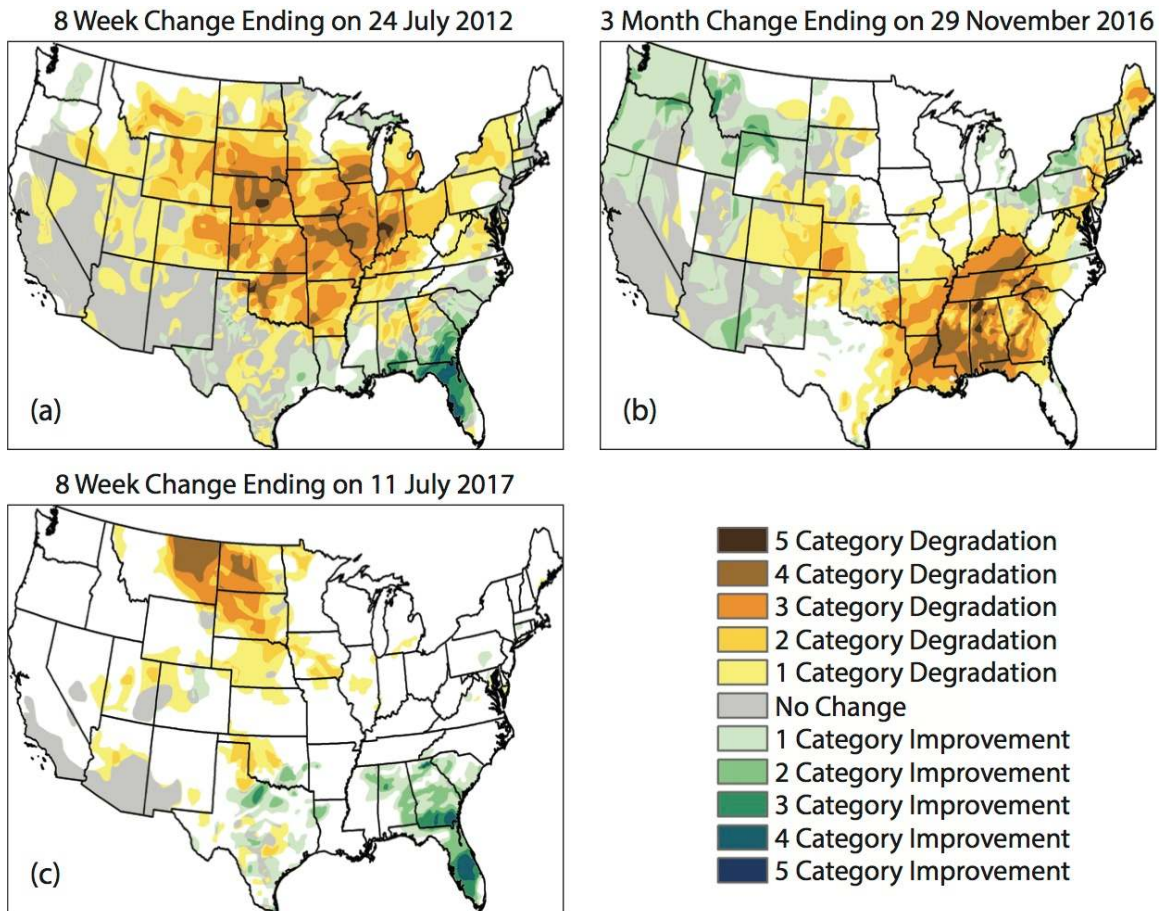


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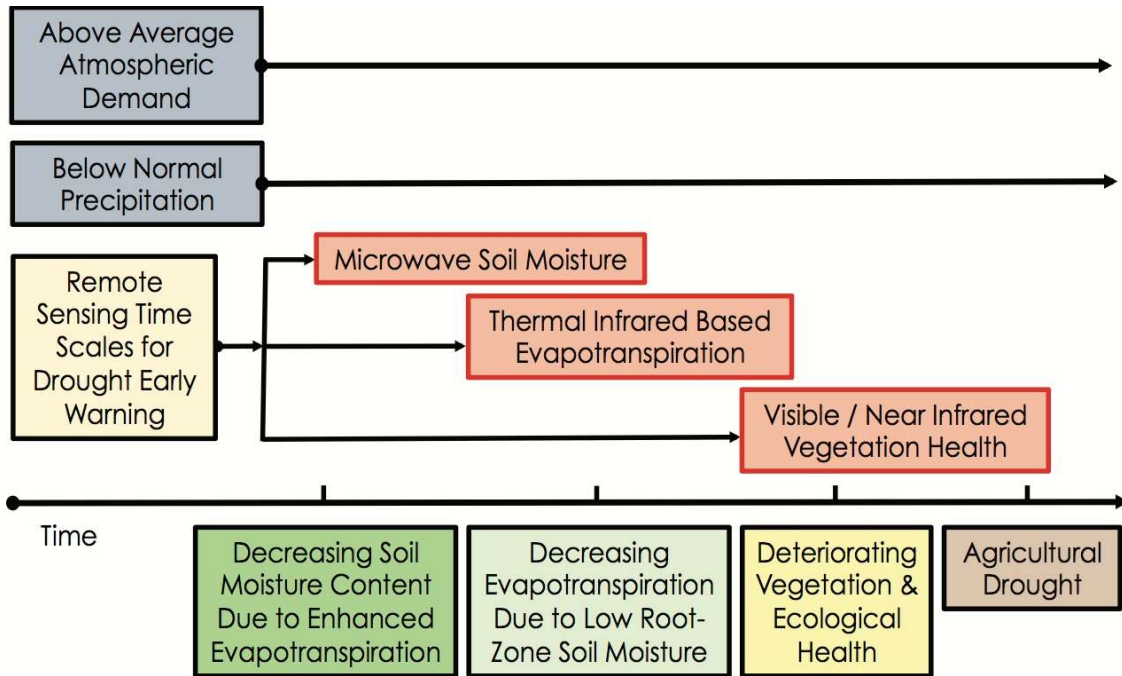


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Marena, OK Phenocam - 01 July 2012



Marena, OK Phenocam - 11 August 2012



Marena, OK Phenocam - 01 July 2014



Marena, OK Phenocam - 11 August 2014



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