

Is ENSO associated with Precipitation Patterns in Lake Valencia Venezuela?

José Hernández¹ and Luis-Ángel Rodríguez²

Departamento de Matemáticas, FACYT, Universidad de Carabobo, Venezuela.

¹ <josecampbell77@gmail.com>, ² <larodri@uc.edu.ve>

(Received: 13-Aug-2020. Published: 28-Oct-2020)

Abstract

The objective of this investigation is to determine if there exists an effect between El Niño phenomenon and the rainfall in the Lake Valencia basin. The Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI), is used to measure the different intensities of precipitation in the area of study. We implemented a Gaussian hidden Markov model (GHMM) to describe the temporal evolution of each rainfall regime. Autoregressive models are implemented to describe the monthly evolution of the different states of the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) and the Multivariate ENSO Index (MEI). Finally, the relationship between the Macroclimatic variables associated to the ENSO and the hydrometeorological variables associated to Lake Valencia basin, were calculated using the Pearson correlation coefficient (r).

Key words: Lake Valencia, Hidden Markov model, Autoregressive with Markov Regime (AR-RM), Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI), Gaussian hidden Markov model (GHMM), Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) and Multivariate ENSO Index (MEI).

Resumen

El objetivo de este trabajo es determinar si el fenómeno de El Niño influye o no en el régimen de precipitaciones de la cuenca del Lago de Valencia. Las precipitaciones en el área de estudio son estandarizadas por intensidades utilizando el índice SPI. Se implementa un modelo oculto de Markov Gaussiano para describir la evolución temporal del régimen pluviométrico. Modelos Autorregresivos con régimen de Markov son implementados para describir las distintas fases de los índices SOI y MEI. Finalmente, la relación entre las variables macroclimáticas asociadas al ENSO y las variables meteorológicas en la cuenca del Lago de Valencia es medida a través del cálculo del coeficiente de correlación de Pearson (r).

Palabras clave: Lago de Valencia, Modelo Oculto de Markov, Autorregresivos con régimen de Markov (AR-RM), Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI), Modelo oculto de Markov Gaussiano (GHMM, siglas en inglés), Southern Oscillation index (SOI) y Multivariate ENSO Index (MEI).

1. Introduction

The purpose of this work is to determine if there exists an effect of *El Niño-Southern Oscillation* (ENSO) with precipitation patterns in Lake Valencia, Venezuela. For this, we study the rainfall in the Lake Valencia basin and evolution of the different states of the Southern Oscillation index (SOI) and the Multivariate ENSO Index (MEI; Wolter and Timlin, 1993). The Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI), is used to measure the different intensities of rainfall data from a network of stations in Lake Valencia basin.

We fit Gaussian hidden Markov model (GHMM) to the SPI. This model provides a classification of meteorological regime (weather type). Such models are used to model rainfall, the basic idea consists of introducing an extra variable to describe the weather type, see Allard *et al.* (2015) and references. In fact, characterizing the intensities that could produce floods is of great interest in the study of lakes that

are located near to populations. In Lake Valencia, floods have been reported in its southern zone. These precipitations have caused disasters affecting the population and services, Arias *et al.* (2017).

The climatic phenomenon under study, ENSO, has two phases: the warm (El Niño) and the cold (La Niña). These phases occur alternatively with neutral conditions. The intensity of the phenomenon is usually measured using both the Multivariate ENSO index (MEI) and the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI). We propose to use an autorregressive process with Markov regime (AR-RM) to fit ENSO index and SOI index data. This modeling approach for this data type have been studied for example by Xuan (2004) and Cárdenas-Gallo *et al.* (2015). Finally, the relationship between the macroclimatic variables associated to the ENSO and the hydrometeorological variables associated to the Lake Valencia basin were calculated using the Pearson correlation coefficient (r).

This article is organized in seven main parts. In Section 2, we describe the data used for this work as well as the preliminary treatments. Section 3 provides a model for the precipitation. We proceed with classic time series analysis. Section 4 is devoted to calculating the SPI and using a Gaussian Hidden Markov model for classifying the levels of intensity of the precipitations. The ENSO phases are modeled by an AR-RM process in Section 5. A SAEM-type algorithm is used to estimate the parameters of process AR-RM. In Section 6, we compare the rainfall regime and the ENSO phenomenon. We carry out the comparison by calculating the correlation between the two series. Finally, Section 7 is devoted to the conclusion.

2. Data description

Lake Valencia 2943 km² basin lies between the Aragua Valley and Carabobo state at an elevation of 420 m asl, see Figure 1. This lake, also known as Tacarigua, is the largest endorheic freshwater body in Venezuela (Díaz *et al.*, 2010). Lake Valencia occupies a tectonic depression called *Graben de Valencia*, between the Cordillera de la Costa, at the north, and the Serranía del Interior, at the south. The body of the water of lake has a volume of 6.30 km³, an average depth of 18 m, and maximum depth of 39 m approximately. There are 18 sub-basins taxing in the lake (Trejo *et al.*, 2015).

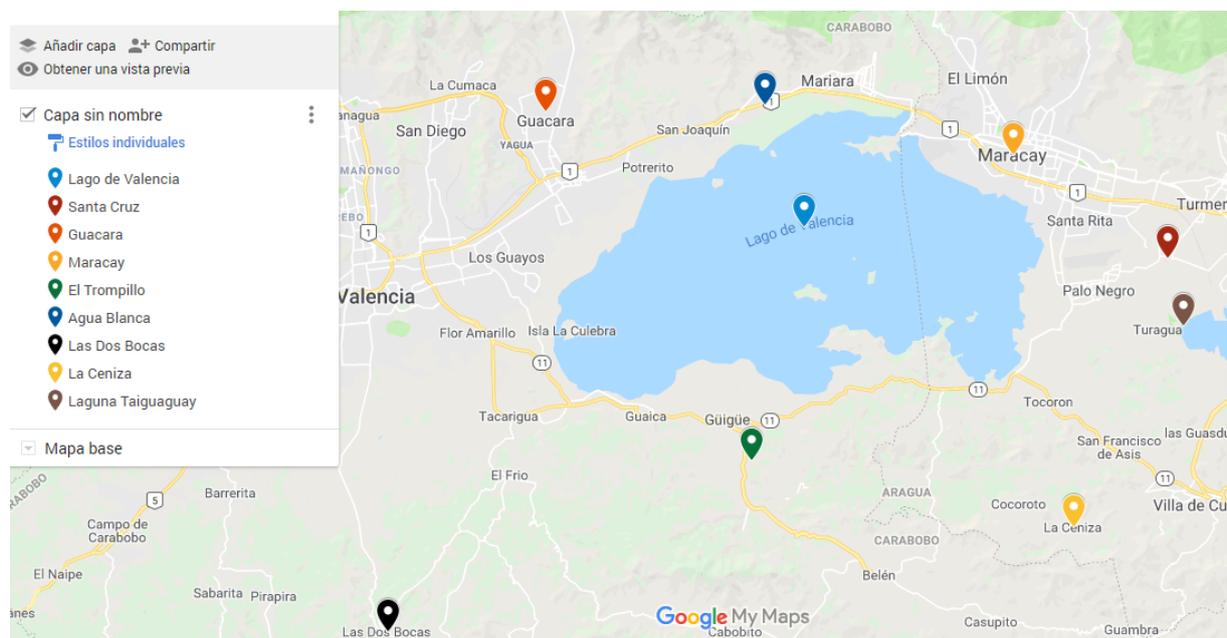


Fig. 1: Map of the studied area. (Source: Google maps.)

The database used for this article was provided by the Instituto Nacional de Meteorología e Hidrología (INAMEH). We used a small network of $J = 8$ rainfall stations located in the Lake Valencia basin. These stations represent a good spatial coverage across the region under study. The weather stations names, geographical positions and number of observed years are shown in Table 1.

The calculation of SPI requires that there are no missing data in the time series. Additionally, the data record length must be at least 30 years, according to the World Meteorological Organization (McKee *et al.*, 2012). The amount of precipitation was evaluated with regard to the monthly arithmetic means of daily precipitation. In this work we complete the data of missing periods by using a moving average process of order 3.

Table 1: Weather stations and years observed.

Station code	Locality name	Coordinates			Years		
		Lat	Long	Height	Period	Missing	Observed
417	Santa Cruz	10,167	-67,488	444	1966-1999	3	30
452	Guacara	10,236	-67,884	300	1949-1993	1	43
466	Maracay	10,25	-67,65	436	1934-1992	0	58
488	Colonia El Trompillo	10,061	-67,772	450	1960-1993	0	35
489	Agua Blanca	10,046	-67,838	515	1951-2005	3	68
491	Las Dos Bocas	9,961	-67,995	550	1949-2005	4	52
497	Las Cenizas	10,027	-67,599	670	1960-2003	3	43
1494	Embalse Taiguaguay	10,147	-67,5	438	1951-1999	3	45

We used the ENSO index series data as reported by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) on its World Wide site. We considered the SOI index and the MEI index over the period 1951-2017.

3. Precipitation Modeling

Let $Y_t(j)$ represent the observed precipitation amount on time t at station $j = 1, \dots, 8$. We will model $Y_t(j)$ as a random variable. We proceed with a classic time series analysis. First, the stationarity and stationality of the precipitation series were analyzed by the autocorrelation function and partial autocorrelation function methods. We investigated the series of the rainfall at each station. See Figure 2 for an example of such data series. The autocorrelation and the partial autocorrelation obtained indicated stationarity, as it is illustrated in Figure 3.

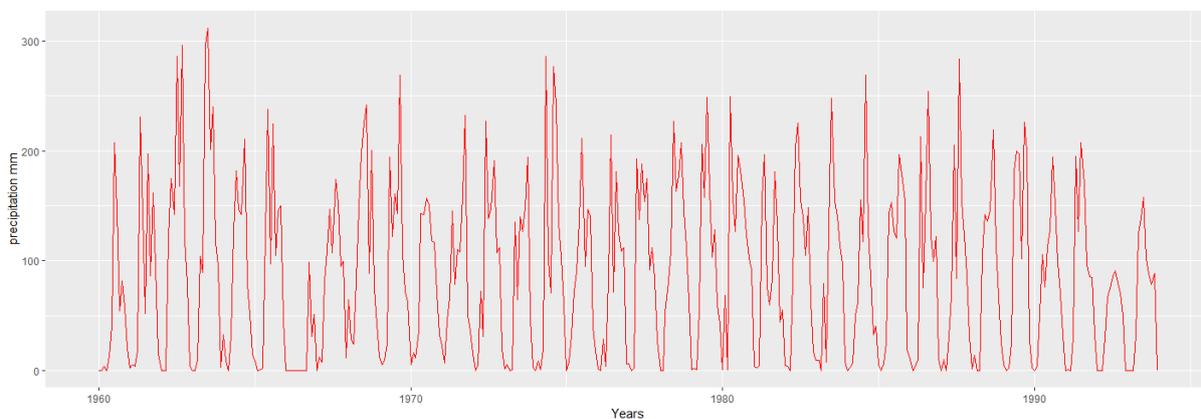


Fig. 2: Precipitation time series from station Agua Blanca.

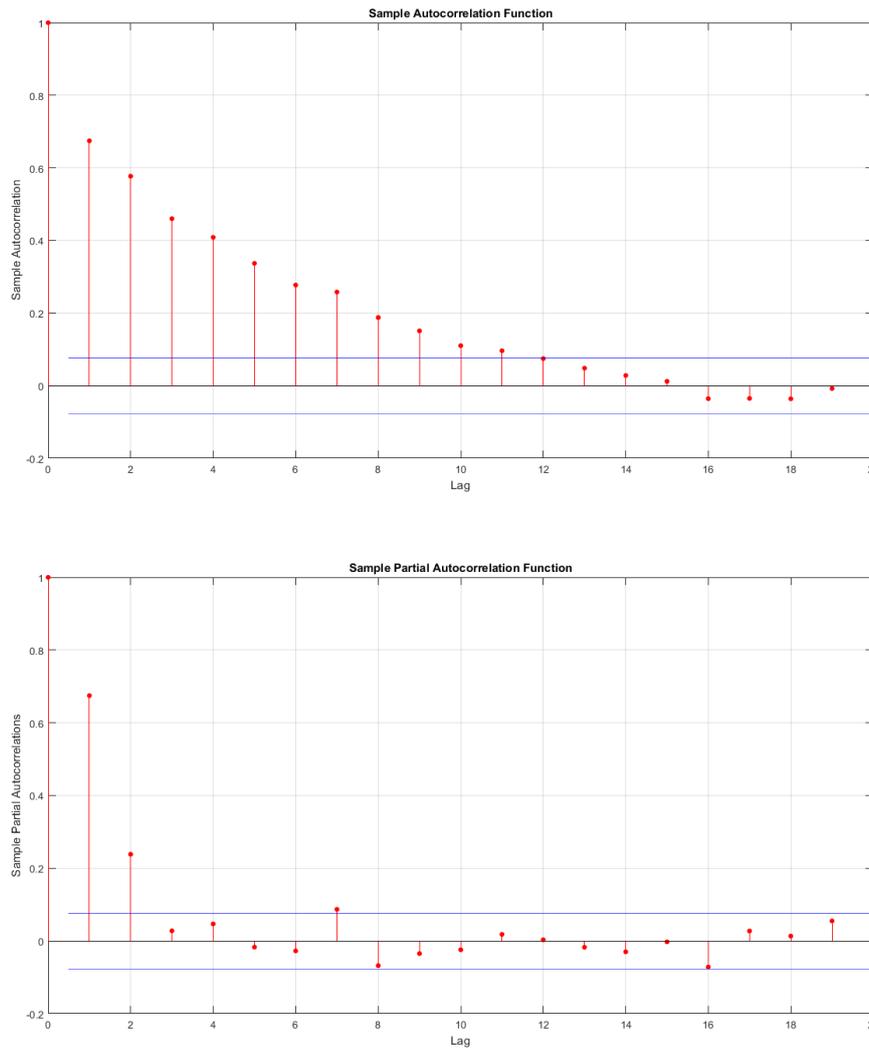


Fig.3: Autocorrelation (top) and partial autocorrelation (bottom) at Agua Blanca station.

Indeed, we distinguished two seasons, one dry and one wet. The graph of monthly averages shows that the months of January, February, March, April and December are the months of the lowest rainfall amounts. While the months between May and November are the months with the highest amount of rainfall (Figure 4).

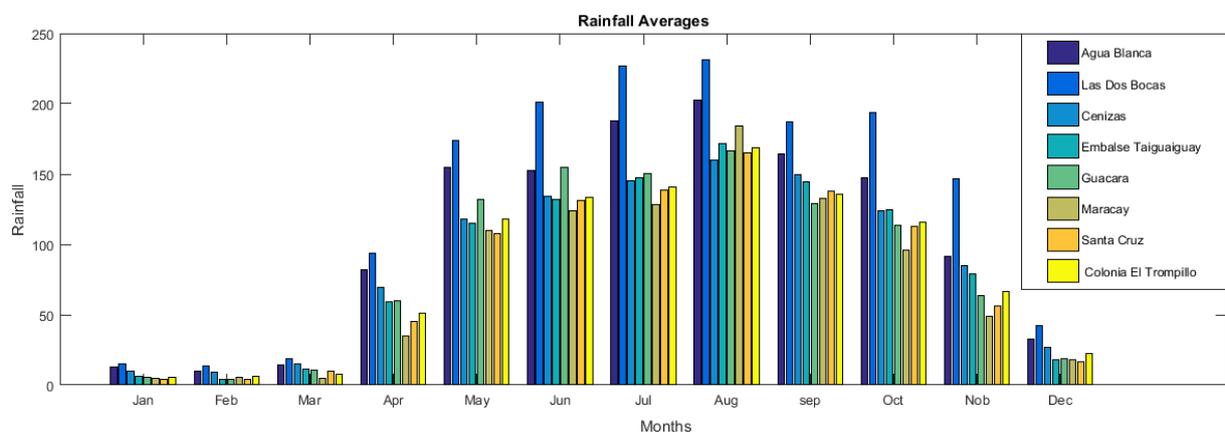


Fig. 4: Monthly average of rainfall by locality.

The partial correlation converges to 0, which is an indicative of stationarity. But, the tendency of the series is not clear. It is known, in the case of the autorregresive process with order p , (AR(p)), that we can study the stationarity by considering the associated characteristic polynomial, see Fermín *et al.* (2016). The test Dickey-Fuller, is used as an indicative of the stationarity. If the p-value is lower than the established $\alpha = 0,05$ level of confidence, the null hypothesis of a unit root is rejected. The result was that all stations are stationary with a p-value of 0.001 or lower.

Observing in the series of precipitation the maximums, minimums and averages values at each station, we obtain an indicative of the level of precipitation. The Table 2 shows the minimum and maximum rainfall (abbreviated as min ppn and max ppn, respectively) for each station in the study area. We computed the SPI to obtain a classification of the intensity levels of the series. We needed to complete the missing data, see Table 3. We adjust a moving average process of order 3 to the data. In this way, we completed and smoothed the data. Then we proceeded to calculate the SPI, using the 'spi' library of the statistical package R, see Neves (2015).

Tabla 2: Maximum and minimum recorded precipitation at the stations.

Locality	Period-years	Minimum (mm)	Maximum (mm)
Santa Cruz	1966-1999	0	351
Guacara	1949-1993	0	419,9
Maracay	1934-1992	0	454
Colonia El Trompillo	1960-1993	0	311,7
Agua Blanca	1951-2005	0	633,6
Las Dos Bocas	1949-2005	0	475,5
Las Cenizas	1960-2003	0	446,6
Embalse Taiguaiguay	1951-1999	0	334,6

4. A Gaussian Hidden Markov model for SPI

In this section we calculate the SPI index, after using the Gaussian hidden Markov Model, intensity levels are classified. The SPI classification scheme used is

- 'EW'=Extremely Wet
- 'VW'=Very Wet
- 'MW'=Moderality Wet
- 'N'=Normal
- 'MD'=Moderality Dry
- 'VD'=Very Dry
- 'ED'=Extremely Dry

For each locality under study in Table 3, we classify the intensities according to the previous scheme, writing in the table Yes or NO if there was an occurrence. We observe in this table that 100 % of the locations have intensity level precipitation of the type (EW, VW, MW, N). While 62.50 % presented a moderately dry intensity (MD) and only 12.50 % presented a very dry precipitation (VD). Special focus was made on the intensities (EW, VW, MW, N).

Table 3: Intensity Levels at the stations.

Localidad	EW	VW	MW	N	MD	VD	ED
Santa Cruz	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NO	NO
Guacara	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NO	NO	NO
Maracay	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NO	NO
Colonia El Trompillo	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NO	NO
Agua Blanca	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NO	NO
Las Dos Bocas	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NO	NO	NO
Las Cenizas	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NO
Embalse Taiguaguay	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	NO	NO	NO

Let $Z_t(j)$ be the SPI index value on time t at station $j = 1, \dots, 8$. In the following expression, the index j that indicates the station is omitted, with the purpose of simplifying the notation. The GHMM is defined by

$$Z_t = \mu_{X_t} + \sigma_{X_t} e_t \quad (1)$$

where $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a homogeneous discrete Markov chain, the space state is the discrete set $\{1, \dots, m\}$. Assume that $\{e_t\}$ is a Gaussian standard independent observation. The unknown parameters are the intensity levels μ_i , the noisy variance σ_i^2 in each regime, with $i = 1, \dots, m$, as well as the state transition probability distribution $A = \{a_{ij}\}$, with transition probability defined by $a_{ij} = \mathbb{P}(X_t = j | X_{t-1} = i)$, $i, j = 1, \dots, m$.

We assume that m is known. In fact, the previous analysis, done using the SPI, leads us to consider $m = 4$, then $\mu_i \in \{N, MW, VW, EW\}$, $i = 1, \dots, 4$. Hence, the parameters to be estimated are,

$$\Psi = (A, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_4, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_4).$$

To estimate Ψ , we considered the maximum likelihood estimator. The log-likelihood of the model can be written in the following form:

$$L(\Psi) = \sum_{X_{1:T}=x_{1:T}} \sum_{t=1}^T \log(\psi(Z_t - \mu_{x_t}, \sigma_{x_t}) a_{x_t, x_{t-1}} \pi_{x_t})$$

where $\psi(x, v)$ is a density $\mathcal{N}(0, v^2)$. The log-likelihood estimator of $L(\Psi)$ is a root of the equation $\nabla L(\Psi) = 0$. The solution of this equation can be computed efficiently with an EM algorithm, see Fermín *et al.* (2016) and its references. The EM algorithm is divided into two stages: the expectation stage (E) and the maximization stage (M). In the step E, we calculate the expectation of the log-likelihood of the complete data conditioned on the observed data. In the next step M, this function is maximized. This procedure is repeated iteratively.

In order to illustrate the results when modeling the SPI with a GHMM, we chose the Trompillo locality. This station has the shortest historical period and more Extremely Wet (EW) rainfall was recorded. This locality will be representative when calculating the correlation with the ENSO events.

The results of estimation by means of the EM procedure in Trompillo station are: transition matrix,

$$\hat{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0,8875 & 0,08571429 & 0,01071429 & 0,01607143 \\ 0,76666667 & 0,11666667 & 0,06666667 & 0,05 \\ 0,54545455 & 0,27272727 & 0,09090909 & 0,09090909 \\ 0,84615385 & 0,15384615 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

intensity levels μ and variance σ^2 ,

$$\hat{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.064991721582782 \\ 1.237921717425580 \\ 1.859111513498231 \\ 2.200000000000000 \end{bmatrix} \quad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.064991721582780 \\ 0.000000000000002 \\ 0.000000000000004 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The Figure 5 shows the percentages of the precipitation states of the Trompillo locality. It was observed that more than 8.3544 % of rainfall were Extremely Wet (EW), 7.3417 % were Very Wet (VW), 9.1139 % MW (MW), 12.92 % of moderately dry intensity (MD) and the 62.27 % were rainfall with normal intensities (N).

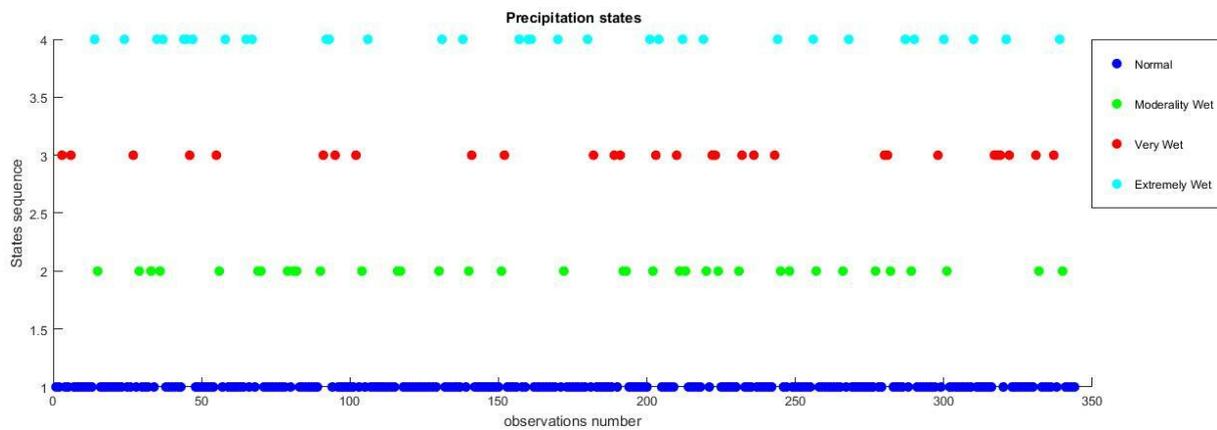


Fig. 5: Intensity levels at the Trompillo station.

We build a plot with the classified precipitation series according to their levels. This allows us to have a complete idea of the intensities, in a single graphic representation (Figure 6).

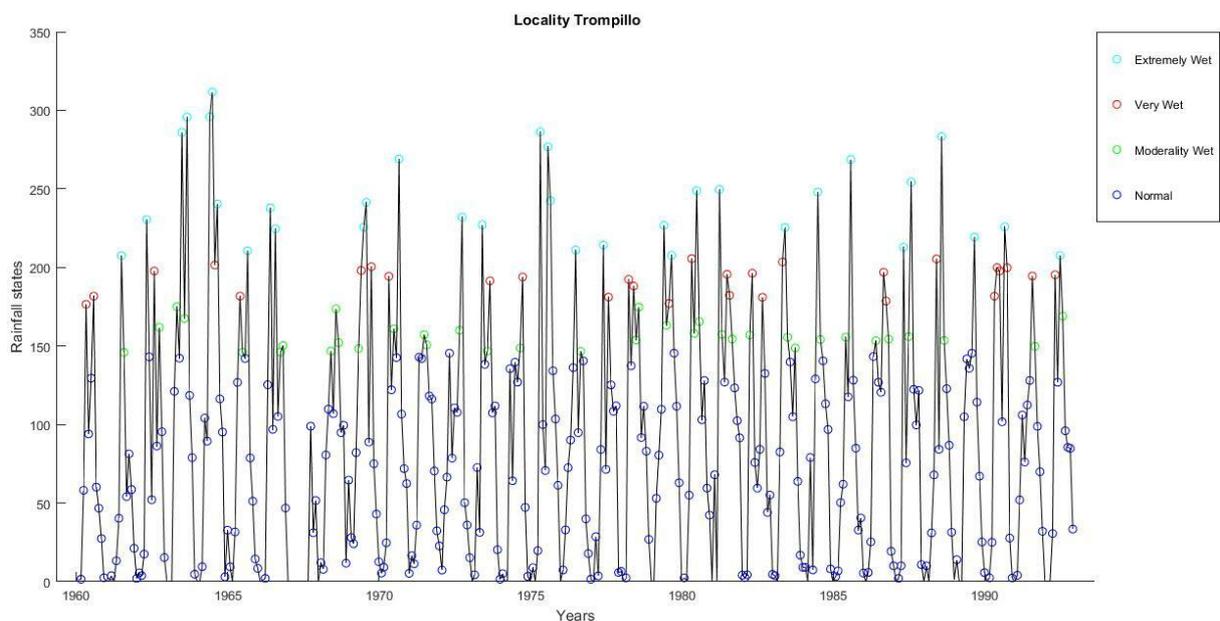


Fig. 6: Intensity levels and clasification of rainfall at the Trompillo station.

Now, we consider to separate the models for each intensity level, in the equation (1) the state is fixed,

$$Z_t = \mu_i + \sigma_i e_t \quad (2)$$

for $i = 1, \dots, 4$. We represent each equation separately. This allows us to observe how each state of precipitation evolves over time, without having to study all precipitation phases simultaneously. The results are shown in Figure 7. The advantages of applying the models (GHMM) over the index under study (SPI) are shown.

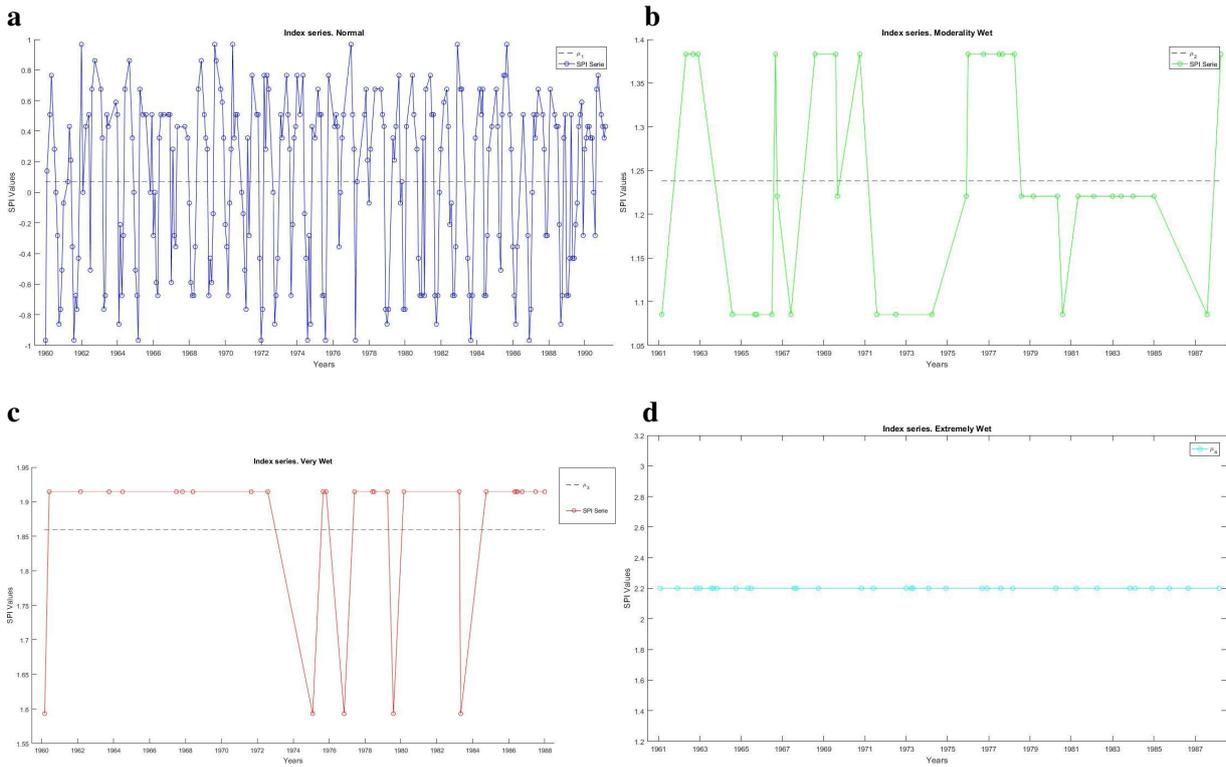


Fig. 7: SPI series states: Normal (a); Moderately Wet (b); Very Wet (c); Extremely Wet (d).

5. AR-RM for SOI

ENSO is a cyclical phenomenon in which it is possible to identify two regimes over time (La Niña and El Niño). The behavior patterns during each of the two phases are opposite and differentiable. On the other hand, the duration and the change between regimes is variable over time. These types of models for the ENSO phenomenon have been used for example by Xuan (2004) and Cárdenas-Gallo *et al.* (2015).

An autorregressive process with Markov Regime is defined for the SOI by

$$Y_t = \rho_{X_t} Y_{t-1} + b_{X_t} + \sigma_{X_t} e_t \quad (3)$$

where $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a homogeneous discrete Markov chain, the space state is the discrete set $\{1, \dots, m\}$. Assume that $\{e_t\}$ is a Gaussian standard independent observation. The unknown parameters are the ρ_i , b_i , the noisy variance σ_i^2 in each regime, with $i = 1, \dots, m$, as well as the state transition probability distribution $A = \{a_{ij}\}$, with transition probability defined by $a_{ij} = \mathbb{P}(X_t = j | X_{t-1} = i)$, $i, j = 1, \dots, m$. We assume that the state number is $m = 3$. We consider three states X_t , since ENSO is divided in three phases: El Niño, La Niña, and the transition state we call Normal.

Hence, the parameters to be estimated are,

$$\Psi = (A, \rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3, b_1, b_2, b_3, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3).$$

To estimate Ψ , we considered the maximum likelihood estimator. The log-likelihood of the model can be written in the following form:

$$L(\Psi) = \sum_{X_{1:T}=x_{1:T}} \sum_{t=1}^T \log(\psi(Z_t - \rho_{x_t} - b_{x_t}, \sigma_{x_t}) a_{x_t, x_{t-1}} \pi_{x_t})$$

where $\psi(x, \nu)$ is a density $\mathcal{N}(0, \nu^2)$. The log-likelihood estimator of $L(\Psi)$ is a root of the equation $\nabla L(\Psi) = 0$. In order to avoid local minima in the solution of this equation, we have used a stochastic approximation of the EM algorithm, the SAEM algorithm, see Fermín *et al.* (2016) and its references. The E stage in the algorithm EM is replaced by a simulation stage and an approximation procedure.

The results when modeling the SOI with an AR-RM. The parameters estimated are the transition matrix, the slope,

$$\hat{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4274 & 0.4597 & 0.1129 \\ 0.1976 & 0.5836 & 0.2188 \\ 0.0426 & 0.5674 & 0.3901 \end{bmatrix} \quad \hat{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.7113 \\ 0.0237 \\ 0.7486 \end{bmatrix}$$

the variance, and the intercept

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.998952924206662 \\ 0.968681703610350 \\ 0.602621116771551 \end{bmatrix} \quad \hat{\rho} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.98520 \\ -0.472054506176259 \\ 0.7486 \end{bmatrix}$$

In the 1951-2017 period, 20.84% of El Niño events were observed, 54.45% normal periods and 23.86% of La Niña phenomenon. A graphic representation of these results are shown in Figure 8.

6. Correlation

In this section, we analyze if there is a correlation between the rainfall regime and the ENSO phenomenon. Recall that the climate regime was classified by intensities through the SPI index denoted by Z_t . While ENSO occurrences are characterized by the SOI index denoted by Y_t . In Table 4 we show the results. For the calculation, only the months with intensities EW and MW and with the presence of the El Niño phenomenon were considered.

Table 4: Correlation between SPI and SOI.

Locality	Time period	Correlation
Santa Cruz	1966-1999	-0,1580
Guacara	1951-1993	0,0463
Maracay	1951-1992	-0,13285057
Colonia el Trompillo	1960-1993	-0,02018438
Agua Blanca	1951-2005	0,0716
Las Dos Bocas	1951-2005	-0,0475
Las Cenizas	1960-2003	-0,11028861
Embalse de Taiguaiguay	1951-1999	-0,02881114

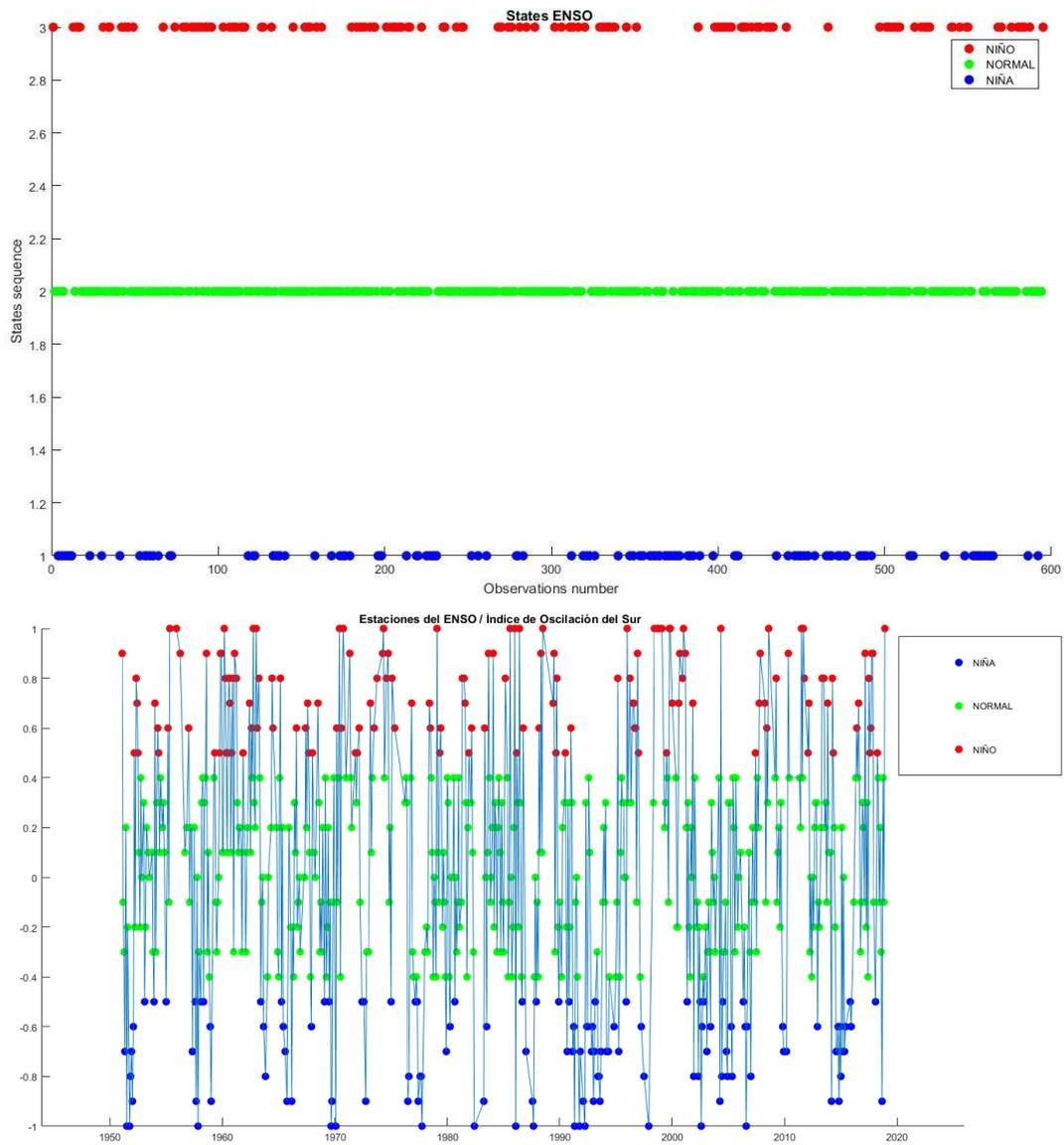


Fig. 8: States (top) and classified (bottom) SOI series.

The statistical significance of the correlation between the phenomena is measured by calculating the Pearson test. The correlation coefficients were computed using the MATLAB software, in particular the command “corrcoef”. The results displayed in Table 5 show that in 7 of the 8 locations there is no correlation between the SOI and the MEI index.

Table 5: Pearson test with level of confidence $\alpha = 0.05$.

Locality	p-value (SOI)	p-value (MEI)
Santa Cruz	0,0022	0,2194
Guacara	0,2994	0,2994
Maracay	0,0028	0,8668
Colonia El trompillo	0,8596	0,9362
Agua Blanca	0,1043	0,0908
Las dos Bocas	0,2600	0,0002
Las Cenizas	0,0156	0,1483
Embalse Taiguaguay	0,5089	0,1520

The ENSO phases calculated with the SOI index, can be visualized for each state by considering equation 3 separately for $i = 1, 2, 3$

$$Y_t = \rho_i Y_{t-1} + b_i + \sigma_i e_t,$$

Figure 9 shows the results.

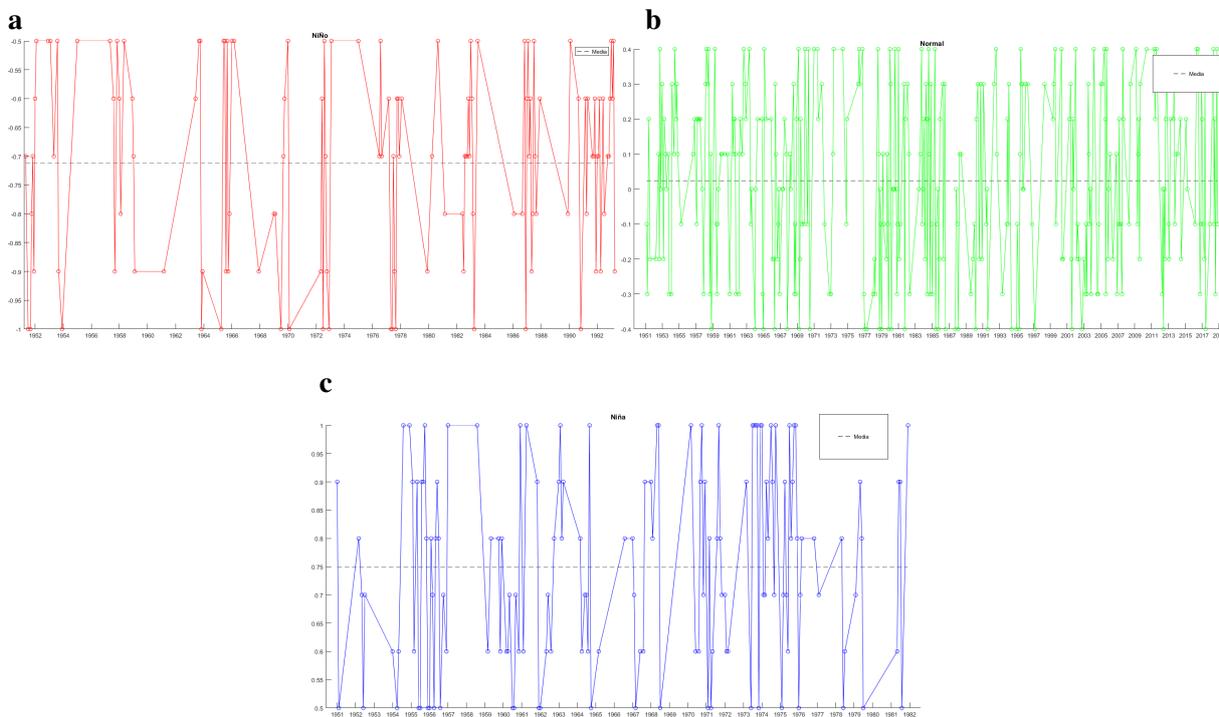


Fig. 9: ENSO phases: El Niño (a); Normal (b); La Niña (c).

In 5 of the 8 localities, the null correlation hypothesis is rejected. Therefore in these locations there is no evidence of an interrelation between the two phenomena.

In order to corroborate the results obtained, the experiments were repeated considering the MEI index for the ENSO phenomenon. In Table 6 the calculation of the correlation taking the values of the MEI are shown.

Table 6: Correlation between the SPI and the MEI.

Locality	Time period	Correlation
Santa Cruz	1979-1999	-0,1182
Guacara	1979-1993	0,1351
Maracay	1979-1992	-0,0130
Colonia el Trompillo	1979-1993	-0,0649
Agua Blanca	1979-2005	0,1217
Las Dos Bocas	1979-2005	-0,2298
Las Cenizas	1979-2003	-0,1298
Embalse de Taiguaiguay	1979-1999	0,0678

Table 7 shows the coincidences in dates of the Extremely Wet rainfall with the ENSO stations in the Colonia el Trompillo locality. We observe that precipitation with Extremely Wet intensity occurs on 15.15% of the months where El Niño events occurred, while La Niña events occurred in 21.21% stations and 63.63% were normal events.

Table 7: ENSO phases at extremely wet months in the Colonia el Trompillo station.

Month	ENSO	Month	ENSO	Month	ENSO
Jul-1960	Niña	Aug-1969	Normal	Jul-1980	Niño
May-1962	Niño	Sep-1970	Normal	Apr-1981	Niño
Jul-1963	Normal	Oct-1972	Normal	Jun-1983	Normal
Sep-1963	Normal	Jun-1973	Niña	Jul-1984	Niña
Jun-1964	Niña	May-1975	Normal	Aug-1985	Niña
Jul-1964	Normal	Aug-1975	Normal	May-1987	Normal
Sep-1964	Normal	Sep-1975	Normal	Aug-1987	Normal
Sep-1965	Normal	Jul-1976	Normal	Aug-1988	Niño
Jun-1966	Normal	Jun-1977	Normal	Sep-1989	Niño
Aug-1966	Niña	Jun-1979	Normal	Sep-1990	Normal
Jul-1969	Normal	Sep-1979	Niña	Jul-1992	Normal

7. Conclusion

From the results of the data analysis, we could see that rainfall shows a seasonal behavior. The months of precipitation in the lake basin show a unimodal distribution with two periods clearly differentiated, one period is characterized by above average rainfall, and occurs between May and October; the rainfall in the other period is below average, occurring between November and April. The maximum rainfall value is presented in August and the minimum in March. The intensities, in the area of study, were classified as normal, moderately wet, very wet and extremely wet. Dry periods were recorded but only in 50 % of the localities, the most observed rainfall intensity is normal. This is one of the indicators taken into account that shows the presence of the phenomenon, since in the entire series of precipitation there were occurrences of very wet and extremely wet intensities. These occurrences were less than 7.3417 % and also 9.1139 % respectively.

On the other hand, the previous analysis does not guarantee that the phenomenon is present or not. The contribution of the models with hidden variables allowed us to study individually each phase of the ENSO and rainfall, as well as its temporal evolution. We observed that the occurrences of El Niño were 20.84 % throughout the period of study. Likewise in the locality El Trompillo, used as a reference for the other localities in the Extremely Humid precipitation series, there were coincidences with the dates only 15.15 % of the time.

The analysis of the correlation between the ENSO phenomenon and rainfall patterns in most places, shows us that for the data studied there is no statistical evidence revealing a correlation of rainfall patterns in the basin of Lake Valencia and the ENSO. This could be due to the fact that there exists a marked microclimate behavior in this basin.

Acknowledgments

We thank the editor, José Guijarro, and anonymous referees for their insightful comments that greatly contributed to the improvement of this article.

J. Hernández is thankful to Instituto Nacional de Meteorología e Hidrología (INAMEH) by data provided.

References

- Allard D, Ailliot P, Monbet V, Naveau P (2015): Stochastic weather generators: an overview of weather type models. *Journal de la Société Française de Statistique*, 156:101-113.
- Arias A, Sáez V, Siso E (2017): Inundaciones ocurridas entre 1970 y 2005 y su relación con la precipitación del percentil 25 %. Región Central de Venezuela. *Terra Nueva Etapa*, 53:33-48.

Cárdenas-Gallo I, Akhavan-Tabatabaei R, Sánchez-Silva M, Emilio Bastidas-Arteaga (2015): A Markov regime-switching framework to forecast El Niño Southern Oscillation patterns. *Natural Hazards*, 81:829-843.

Díaz E, Pérez R, Armas M (2010): Propuesta de los actores claves del plan de educación ambiental en la cuenca del lago de Valencia. *Observatorio laboral revista Venezolana*, 3:43-59.

Fermín L, Rodríguez LA, Ríos R (2016): *Modelos de Markov Ocultos*. XXIX Escuela Venezolana de Matemáticas, EMALCA-Venezuela, Mérida, Venezuela.

Neves J (2015): *Compute the SPI index using R*. <https://cran.r-project.org/package=spi>

McKee TB, Doesken NJ, Kleist J (2012): *Índice normalizado de precipitación. Guía del usuario*. Organización Meteorológica Mundial, Ginebra, Suiza.

SOI. Índice de Oscilación del Sur. National Centers For Environmental Information. <https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/teleconnections/enso/indicators/soi/>

Trejo P, Guevara Pérez E, Barbosa Alves H, Uzcátegui Briceño C (2015): Tendencia de la precipitación estacional e influencia de el niño – oscilación austral sobre la ocurrencia de extremos pluviométricos en la cuenca del lago de Valencia-Venezuela. *Tecnología y ciencias del agua*, 6:33-48.

Wolter K, Timlin MS (1993): Monitoring ENSO in COADS with a seasonally adjusted principal component index. In: *Proceedings of the 17th Climate Diagnostic Workshop*, Norman, Oklahoma, pp. 52-57.

Xuan T (2004): *Autoregressive Hidden Markov Model with Application in an El Niño Study*. University of Saskatchewan Saskatoon.

