



## Water erosion research in China: A review

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**Abstract.** China, among other countries, suffers severe soil loss. Water erosion studies in China have been conducted since 1922, and great achievements have since been obtained. Promoting water erosion research in China and globally requires a systematic review of water erosion studies in China. This paper reviews the history, major achievements of water erosion research in China as well as its influencing factors, water erosion processes, changing mechanisms, sediment source identification, global changes, and water erosion impacts on water pollution and crop yield, and research needs in future water erosion study. Threshold slope lengths and water erosion gradients must be considered in hydrologic/erosion models to accurately estimate water erosion. Sedimentation information has been well-mined using chronological tracers and rainfall characteristics in China, which help offset the lack of monitored data in understudied regions. Physical water erosion models that have been well developed in China however should be programmed, promoted, and continuously updated to promote global accessibility. Tracers are used to estimate water erosion, and the efficiency of elemental selection and result confirmation is significant when fingerprinting methods are used to identify sediment sources. Climate change and land use models should be coupled with water erosion models to predict global change impacts on water erosion. In future water erosion research, extreme rainstorm impact on water erosion, water erosion impact on crop yield, smart soil and water conservation, and ecological



24 service-oriented water erosion in China should be evaluated in depth. This review is intended to  
25 present water erosion research over approximately 100 years in China to provide future directions  
26 and highlight the need for ongoing water erosion research in China and other countries.

27 **Keywords:** China, water erosion history, achievement, research need

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## 30 **1 Introduction**

31 Water erosion is an expansive environmental problem with significant ecological  
32 implications (Wuepper et al., 2020). It is associated with on-site land degradation,  
33 off-site sediment siltation in rivers, reservoirs, and lakes, and water pollution (Fang et  
34 al., 2018a; Wei et al., 2019). Thus, it directly and indirectly influences water, soil, and  
35 organism health as well as other earth surface processes (Borrelli et al., 2017).

36 China experiences severe water erosion (Yang, 2011; Li et al., 2020), mainly  
37 distributed in northeastern, eastern, and southern China (Fig. 1). According to the  
38 fourth national soil erosion survey in 2011, the total are of soil loss in China exceeded  
39 1,293,200 km<sup>2</sup> (Liu et al., 2020).

40 **Fig. 1. is about here**

41 Water erosion research in China has spanned approximately 100 years, some  
42 research progress has been reviewed. For example, the causes of water erosion and  
43 the main soil control measures implemented in the black soil region of northeastern  
44 China were reviewed by Xu et al. (2010) and Liu et al. (2011). Achievements of soil  
45 erosion research in the Karst area were summarized by Lv et al. (2007). Soil control



46 measures on the Loess Plateau and their ecological functions were presented by Wen  
47 and Zhen (2020). Application conditions of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in China were  
48 reported by Wang and Pu (2002). The major water erosion models applied on the  
49 Loess Plateau and in China were also reviewed (Wang et al., 2004; Li et al., 2017;  
50 Zhang et al., 2009). In the red soil erosion region of southern China, water erosion  
51 characteristics, types, and vegetation restoration approaches were discussed by Lv et  
52 al. (2003). Impacts of terraces on soil loss in China were also reviewed by Chen et al.  
53 (2017). These reviews predominately focused on specific regions, methods, or notable  
54 findings. Some reviews on a national scale have also been conducted. For example,  
55 Chen and Jiang (1983) reviewed soil loss situations and denoted several issues that  
56 should be resolved. Zheng et al. (2008a) reviewed Chinese water erosion history and  
57 presented implications. Li et al. (2009) introduced notable achievements on coarse  
58 sediment source areas of the Yellow River basin, wind erosion, desertification control,  
59 and soil erosion environmental changes. Shi et al. (2020) reviewed some research  
60 hotspots of water erosion over the past ten years. These reviews improve our  
61 understanding of the progress achieved in Chinese water erosion research; however,  
62 there have not been any comprehensive reviews of national-scale water erosion  
63 research. To clarify the progress of water erosion research in China and improve  
64 future research, a systematic review of the past 100 years of water erosion research in  
65 China is urgently required.

66 The aims of this review article are to (i) present the developing stages of water  
67 erosion research over the study period; (ii) examine the main achievements of water



erosion research in China; and (iii) identify future research needs and directions.

## 2 Water erosion research stages

Based on study approaches, study content, and the number changes in publications, water erosion study in China can be divided into three stages (Fig. 2).

**Fig. 2. is about here**

### 2.1 Initial stage (1922–1980)

Water erosion research was first undertaken in 1877 in Germany and 1912 in the United States (Xie et al., 2003). The first water erosion study result in China was published in 1922, focusing on building runoff plots in Shanxi Province and Shandong Province (Xie et al., 2003; Zheng et al., 2008a). In 1941, Longnan and Guanzhong Soil and Water Conservation Experimental Stations were built in Gansu Province and Shaanxi Province, respectively. The Xifeng experimental station in Gansu Province and Suide experimental station in Shaanxi Province were built in 1951. Subsequently, an increasing number of experimental sites were built (Zuo and Guo, 2016), among which Soil and Water Conservation Experimental Station in Ansi County, Shaanxi Province is the most representative site that is still in use today.

This stage was characterized by the establishment of experimental sites at which large-scale investigation could be performed and basic data on water erosion could be collected. During 1952–1958, the first scientific investigation of soil loss on the Loss Plateau was conducted, and the national water erosion statistical survey was completed in 1955 (Fig. 2). Several pioneering studies were conducted, including the characterization of water erosion types and regional divisions of water erosion for the



90 Loess Plateau and China as a whole (Chen and Jing, 1983). For example, Huang  
91 (1955) initiated research on zoning soil erosion for the Loess Plateau, followed by  
92 Zhu (1958) and Luo and Zhu (1965). For China, water erosion sub-regions were  
93 described in several studies (Xin and Jiang, 1982; Chen and Zhu, 1989; Tang, 2004;  
94 the Ministry of Water Resources of the People's Republic of China, 1997). The  
95 regional divisions greatly facilitated further water erosion research and soil loss  
96 control in China.

97 In this period, studies primarily focused on the impacts of factors such as slope  
98 gradient, slope length, vegetation coverage, and soil conservation measures on soil  
99 loss. Some empirical models were established to estimate water erosion and sediment  
100 yield (Zhao et al., 2019). At this stage, the number of published articles is relatively  
101 low. Using the phrase “soil erosion” as a key word in the China National Knowledge  
102 Infrastructure (CNKI) database, no papers were found before 1948, and 36 papers  
103 were published during 1948–1980 (Fig. 3a).

104 **Fig. 3. is about here**

## 105 2.2 Rapid development stage (1981-2000)

106 After 1980, water erosion research in China developed rapidly. In 1982, the “Law on  
107 Soil and Water Conservation” was promulgated (Fig. 2), which stipulated the  
108 guidelines, departments, and study scope of soil and water conservation. In 1985, the  
109 first national soil erosion survey was initiated (Fig. 2), and water erosion type,  
110 intensity, and spatial distribution were characterized (Hu et al., 2002). During this  
111 stage, researchers began to evaluate the historical process of water erosion and its



112 influencing factors. Cai and Chen (1986; 1989) pioneered the research on raindrop  
113 erosion in China, making important progress on slope water erosion and its related  
114 influencing factors such as slope length, slope gradient, rainfall characteristics, soil  
115 properties, and soil crust (Chen, 1989). In addition, the concept of "small watershed  
116 comprehensive management" was formally proposed in 1980, and notable  
117 achievements have since been obtained for small watershed management (Cui, 2007).

118 The disciplined development of soil and water conservation also began to garner  
119 attention. Before 1983, Beijing Forestry University was the only provider of an  
120 undergraduate degree in soil and water conservation. By 1998, ten universities in  
121 China offered this program, and Beijing Forestry University established a college for  
122 this research field (Wu and Wang, 2006). Following the increase in students pursuing  
123 these programs, publications in the field sharply increased. The number of published  
124 Chinese papers in the CNKI database increased from 12 to over 250 from 1980 to  
125 2000 (Fig. 3a). However, searching the Web of Science database with the key words  
126 "soil erosion" or "sediment yield" resulted in fewer than 10 papers, and only 4 papers  
127 were found when "Loess Plateau" was added to the search (Fig. 3b).

128 During this period, large areas of soil loss control strategies were implemented.  
129 Since 1983, the Ministry of Water Resources had successively carried out the "Eight  
130 Large Regions" soil loss control project, covering the Sanchuan River basin,  
131 Huangfuchuan River basin, Wuding River basin, Dingxi County in the Yellow River  
132 basin, Yongding River upper reaches in the Haihe River basin, Liuhe River basin  
133 upstream of the Liaohe River, Gezhouba reservoir area, and Xingguo County in the



134 Yangtze River basin (Department of Rural Water Conservancy and Soil Conservation,  
 135 Ministry of Water Resources, 1992), the "Changzhi Project" upstream of the Yangtze  
 136 River, and the large-scale "Grain to Green" program in 1999 (Lin et al., 2020). At this  
 137 stage, the scope of water erosion research expanded, new approaches were employed,  
 138 water erosion models were constructed (Tables 1 and 2), and more soil erosion  
 139 investigations were conducted (Fig. 2).

140 **Table 1 is about here**

141 **Table 2 is about here**

### 142 2.3 Stable development stage (2001–present)

143 Since 2001, water erosion research in China has steadily developed. In 2005 – 2007, a  
 144 large-scale comprehensive scientific investigation of soil erosion was conducted by  
 145 the Ministry of Water Resources of the Peoples' Republic of China, Chinese Academy  
 146 of Sciences, and Chinese Academy of Engineering, involving 86 institutes and  
 147 schools and 251 professors and encompassing 27 provinces. A sound monitoring  
 148 system for soil erosion has been established that involves a four-grade monitoring  
 149 network of soil and water conservation, including one national soil and water  
 150 conservation monitoring center, six large-river (i.e., Songhua-Liao R., Haihe R.,  
 151 Huaihe R., Yellow R., Yangtz R., Zhujiang R.) and one lake (Tai lake) controlled  
 152 catchment monitoring centers, thirty provincial soil and water conservation  
 153 monitoring stations, and their substations (Fig. 4). The numbers of universities with  
 154 soil and water conservation programs also increased to twenty-two, and more papers  
 155 on water erosion have been published. For example, 740 papers were found when



156 “soil erosion” or “sediment yield” were searched in CNKI (Fig. 3a). The number of  
157 published SCI papers searched with the key words of “soil erosion or sediment yield”  
158 and “China” increased significantly during this period (Fig. 3b).

159 **Fig. 4. is about here**

160 In this stage, new approaches were employed to study water erosion. In addition  
161 to traditional methods such as runoff plots, rainfall simulation, and small catchment  
162 monitoring, high-resolution remote sensing images (Wang et al., 2012; Duan et al.,  
163 2020), unmanned air vehicles UAV (Yang et al., 2019a), three-dimensional laser  
164 scanning (Fang et al., 2015), high-accuracy photogrammetry (Yao et al., 2019; Jiang  
165 et al., 2020), and compound fingerprinting technology (Chen et al., 2019) were  
166 introduced. International cooperation became more frequent as well. For example,  
167 published SCI papers in 2001–2019 in Web of Science with “soil erosion” or  
168 “sediment yield” as key words and “Loess Plateau” included research from 22  
169 countries (Fig. 3b). Furthermore, more studies focused on large-scale land use and  
170 climate change impact on soil erosion and sediment yield (i.e., regional or national  
171 scales). In recent years, over 200 papers are published in relation to climate change  
172 impact on water erosion per year (Li and Fang, 2016).

### 173 **3 Achievements**

174 The achievements of water erosion research in China during the nearly past 100 years  
175 mainly include five aspects, which are described below.

#### 176 **3.1 Water erosion divisions**

177 Under the background of water erosion research in the world, soil erosion regional





divisions were done because it facilitates the study of soil erosion characteristics and implementation of soil conservation measures. Based on the major external force leading to soil erosion, China was divided into water, wind, and freeze-thaw erosion regions. Six water erosion sub-regions were further categorized according to soil erosion characteristics, topography, and soil colors (Xin and Jiang, 1982; Fig. 1). Similar classifications were also presented by Tang (2004). Chen and Zhu (1989) divided the water erosion region into eight sub-regions. In contrast, five water sub-regions were outlined by the Ministry of Water Resources (1997). Although these classification systems were not exactly the same, the dividing boundaries between water erosion region and other two soil erosion types agree with each other in general. The water erosion classification method by Xin and Jiang (1982) has been used in several studies in China (Li et al., 2009; Cai et al., 2012). Soil erosion zoning was further conducted in the northwestern Loess Plateau that has been introduced in Section 2.1.

### 3. 2 Erosion process and variation mechanism

Water erosion and sediment yield vary with time and space, and their influencing factors, erosion and transport processes, and variation mechanisms have been obtained on slope and catchment scales.

#### 3.2.1 Water erosion on slopes

Water erosion characteristics on slopes and its influencing factors, including slope gradient, slope length, soil properties, rainfall characteristics, vegetation cover, and soil conservation measures (Liu, 1953; Cai, 1989; Yu et al., 2006; Yu et al., 2009;



200 Chen et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2019c; Zhu et al., 2020; Sang et al., 2020) as well as  
201 changes of soil surface (Zhang, 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Shi et al., 2020.) were  
202 studied, and meaningful results have been obtained. The most significant  
203 contributions to the scientific community with regard to water erosion are the impacts  
204 of slope length and slope gradient on runoff and water erosion (Shi et al., 2020). The  
205 impact of slope length on water erosion was focused on in 1936 (Cook, 1936), and  
206 more studies were conducted later. In the 1950s, different conclusions had been  
207 obtained through analyzing recorded runoff and sediment data from runoff plots in the  
208 world, and it was found that water erosion can positively or negatively correlate with  
209 slope length (Kong et al., 2001), or do not change apparently with increasing slope  
210 length (Luo, 1958; Zheng et al., 1989). Based on experimental studies, a nonlinear  
211 relation in Fig. 5a between runoff amount and slope length was identified by Cai  
212 (1998). This conceptual model clearly shows changing threshold values of runoff  
213 amount with different rainfall intensities. Under the same rainfall characteristics, the  
214 threshold values of water erosion intensity occurred earlier on longer slopes (Fig. 5b),  
215 due to the interactions between soil crust and rill development (Fang et al., 2008b;  
216 Fang et al., 2015). Based on the interaction of crusted soil and rill development which  
217 dominate at different time period, a conceptual model that shows the mechanism of  
218 threshold value was built (Fig. 5c). The time and magnitude of rill occurrence  
219 determined the threshold value of water erosion rate, depending on slope length, slope  
220 gradient, soil properties, vegetation cover, and rainfall characteristics (Cai, 1998).

221 **Fig. 5. is about here**



222 Research on the impact of slope gradient on water erosion began in 1936, when  
223 Renner (1936) first studied the changes of runoff with slope gradient and identified a  
224 threshold value of water erosion rate with increasing slope gradient. In China,  
225 systematic studies on threshold gradient were first conducted in the 1950s. Guo (1958)  
226 found that the threshold slope gradients ranged from 35 to 50 degree. On the loess  
227 slopes in Lishi and Suide, the range of threshold slope gradient from 25 to 28 degree  
228 was identified by Chen et al. (1983). Jin (1995) reported the same range. The critical  
229 values of 41.4 or 45 degree were also obtained by Cao (1993). The threshold values  
230 were determined once more to be from 41.5 to 50 degree (Liu et al., 2001). According  
231 to published studies, a conceptual model of critical slope gradient was developed and  
232 presented by Qian (1989). The existence of threshold values of slope gradient results  
233 from the interaction of runoff generation and its carrying capacity (Chen et al., 2010;  
234 Zheng et al., 2015) and can also be explained by the dynamic changes of topsoil  
235 crusting formation, destruction, and rill development during water erosion process  
236 (Fang et al., 2008b; 2015). Incorporating these dynamic development processes of soil  
237 crust and rill along slopes can improve the estimation accuracy of water erosion  
238 models such as WEPP.

### 239 3. 2.2 Water erosion in catchments

240 A small catchment is regarded as the basic unit for implementing soil conservation  
241 measures in China. Since the 1980s, a large number of small catchments have been  
242 monitored to study water erosion and their responses to the implemented soil  
243 conservation measures (Chen, 1983; Zheng et al., 2008a). Using the recorded runoff



244 and sediment data from small catchments, the changes of runoff, sediment,  
245 runoff-sediment relationship, and their relations to topography, land use, rainfall were  
246 studied (e.g., Zhao et al., 1980; Zheng et al., 2008b; Li et al., 2017). Based on water  
247 erosion characteristics in catchments, a “Three Defense Lines” tridimensional  
248 protection system for each water erosion sub-region was established to effectively  
249 control catchment soil loss in China (Cai et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2012).

250 In recent years, sediment deposited in dams was used as important data source to  
251 determine sediment yield history and response to land use and climate change based  
252 on tracer technology (Hou et al., 2007; Fang, 2015; Zhao et al., 2017). The derived  
253 data have been used as input data for water erosion models (e.g., Fang and Sun, 2017).  
254 This makes up for the lack of data over longer time spans or in understudied regions.  
255 Runoff and sediment data monitored at hydrological stations in China have also been  
256 used to analyze sediment yield changes, identify sediment source, and study their  
257 responses to anthropogenic activities and climate change (Ran et al., 2013; Wang et  
258 al., 2015). For example, through analyzing sediment concentration and water  
259 discharge at hydrological stations in the Yellow River basin, the major sediment  
260 source areas (i.e., coarse sediment area CSA with particle size  $> 0.05$  mm in diameter  
261 and fine sediment area FSA) of the Loess Plateau were identified (Fig. 6a). This  
262 finding greatly helped for implementing soil conservation measures on the Loess  
263 Plateau and greatly reduced sediment yield of the Yellow River (Fig. 6b; Wang et al.,  
264 2015). The monitored data were also be used to disclose sediment transport dynamics  
265 at different time scales (e.g., Fang et al., 2008a; Hu et al., 2019). Changes of sediment



266 yield with spatial scales—for example, from slopes to catchments—were also studied,  
 267 and factors affecting their changes were identified (Fang et al., 2007; 2011). The work  
 268 greatly improves our understanding of soil erosion processes and mechanisms of  
 269 change.

270 **Fig. 6. is about here**

### 271 3. 3 Water erosion modeling

272 Water erosion modeling in China was first implemented in the 1950s, and many  
 273 models have been established to study soil erosion processes, identify sediment  
 274 sources, and analyze influencing factors. Since 2000, due to intense human activities  
 275 and climate change, an increasing number of studies were conducted using models to  
 276 clarify their contributions to water erosion and sediment yield in combination with  
 277 land use and climate change modeling (Fig. 7). Except for some empirical and  
 278 physically-based based models established in China (Table 2), many models from  
 279 abroad, including the soil and water assessment tool (SWAT; Yu et al., 2009; Lin et al.,  
 280 2020), Water and Tillage Erosion Model/Sediment Deposition Model  
 281 (WaTEM/SEDEM; Feng et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2009; Shi et al., 2012; Fang and Sun,  
 282 2017; Fang, 2020), Water Erosion Prediction Project (WEPP; Yu et al., 2009; Zhang  
 283 et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2020), and RUSLE (Teng et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019) are  
 284 used in China to study water erosion and sediment yield. Among these models, SWAT  
 285 and RUSLE are the mostly widely used in China. The SWAT is also used in Chinese  
 286 inland regions but not the six water erosion sub-regions (e.g., Chen, 2006). Based on  
 287 the classifications of soil conservation measures in China (the established CSLE) by



288 Liu (2001) has been used in some regions (Liu et al., 2020; Liu and Liu, 2020). This  
289 is the most widely used empirical water erosion model in China. However, RUSLE is  
290 still widely used owing to the ease with which C and P factors can be calculated using  
291 this model. RUSLE is a slope based model, however, it is widely used at catchment  
292 and/or regional and global scale. A combination of RUSLE with gully-estimated  
293 models should be done in China and in the world.

294 **Fig. 7. is about here**

295 Monitored data at gauging stations is commonly used to calibrate and validate  
296 models. In recent years, sediment yield derived from deposits in dams and water  
297 erosion intensity from  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  methods have been used to calibrate and validate water  
298 erosion models. For example, the mean annual sediment yields from the 25 reservoir  
299 catchments in Baiquan County were used to run WaTEM/SEDEM in the black soil  
300 region of northeastern China (Fang and Sun, 2017; Fang, 2017). Water erosion  
301 intensities on the slopes from  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  technique were also used as input data to  
302 WaTEM/SEDEM (Li and Fang, 2015). The data derived from sediment deposits  
303 greatly makes up for the lack of monitored data in ungauged regions.

304 Although models are widely used in China to study water erosion, these studies  
305 have focused on different regions. In comparison to detailed studies in Europe  
306 (<https://esdac.jrc.ec.europa.eu>), more systematic work is required in China, including  
307 detailed model factor study such as RUSLE-C and -P, spatiotemporal characteristic  
308 analysis, and future conditions estimation with different global change scenarios.

309 3.4 Sediment source identification



310 Research on sediment sources began in the early 20th century. The major methods to  
311 identify sediment sources include hydrological data analysis, fingerprinting tracers,  
312 and modeling methods (Table 1).

313 Whether the sediment on the Loess Plateau mainly came from slopes or gullies  
314 was the focus of debate in the 1980s (Chen and Wang, 1990). The debate stimulated  
315 the sediment source study. Hydrological data from runoff plots and gauged catchment  
316 are often used to identify sediment sources (e.g., Jiang et al.; 1966; Zhang et al., 1990;  
317 Chen, 1999). For example, the contribution of gully erosion to catchment sediment  
318 yield was obtained through monitored data from runoff plots and gauged catchments  
319 (Chen, 1999; Wei, 2002). The main sediment source areas of the Loess Plateau were  
320 also obtained through comparing runoff and discharge data at the hydrological  
321 stations in the Yellow River basin (e.g., Shi and Wang, 2003; Fig. 6a). A lot of work  
322 has also been done on the Loess Plateau and in other places using fingerprinting  
323 method (Fang, 2015). For example, based on magnetic characteristics of debris flow  
324 sediments and source soils, Jia and Wei (2009) quantified the contributions of  
325 different land use types to catchment sediment yield. Yang et al. (1999) pointed out  
326 that the gullies on the Loess Plateau were the main sediment source in the Yellow  
327 River. Zhang et al. (1992) presented the source area of fine-grained material in debris  
328 flow in northeastern Yunnan using  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ . Based on  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  tracers, Zhang et al.  
329 (2004) reported that agricultural slopes accounted for 46% of the catchment sediment  
330 yield. Some studies (i.e., Chen et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019) also use compound  
331 fingerprint tracers to identify multiple sediment sources. Selecting multiple tracers is



the key to employing fingerprinting technology. Models, including the multivariate mixed model, Monte Carlo model, Bayesian model, and Generalized Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation (GLUE), are required to ascertain the contributions of different sediment sources (Walling, 2013; Chen et al., 2019). Different results arise when different fingerprints and models are used. In the current study, the obtained results usually lack efficient verification, leading to great uncertainty (Chen et al., 2016a; 2019). As methods that discriminate sediment sources are multiple, mutual confirmation is required in future studies when the fingerprinting method is used.

Identification of sediment source can be judged through field survey by manual or remote sensing technology (Li and Fang, 2016). For example, a large-scale survey started in the 1950s on the Loess Plateau, and the national soil erosion surveys in 1999 and 2001 were conducted through remote sensing investigations (Liu et al., 2020).

As mentioned above, methods used to identify sediment source and soil erosion are multiple, different methods yield different results. These methods should be coupled together when one work is done which can yield a more accurate result.

### 3. 5 Global change and water erosion

Global change includes both land use and climate change (Zhang et al., 2005; Luetzenburg et al., 2020). The impacts of climate change on water erosion have been reported since the 1940s (Bryan and Albritton, 1943). They can directly or indirectly affect water erosion through altered rainfall characteristics, temperature, vegetation cover, land use, crop management, and anthropogenic and socio-economic factors as





well as their interactions (Li and Fang, 2016; Peng and Li, 2018). The complex relationships between these factors and water erosion should be carefully studied. The number of publications associated with the keywords "soil erosion," "sediment yield," "climate change," and "China" has increased yearly (Fig. 3c). Similar results were also found for land use change impact on water erosion (Fig. 3d). This changing trend also was also reported in other countries by Batista et al. (2019). However, these studies mainly focus on the impact of past climate and/or land use changes on water erosion. Furthermore, these works were mainly conducted on the Loess Plateau (e.g., Zhang and Liu, 2005; Zhang et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2020) and less studies in other regions (e.g., Li and Fang, 2017; Teng et al., 2018). With increasing climate change and intense anthropogenic activities, more work should be done in relation to future global change impact on water erosion in China.

### 3. 6 Impacts of water erosion

In China, soil erosion is both an environmental and ecological problem. Studies on the impact of water erosion mainly include local crop yield and water pollution.

#### 3. 6.1 Impact on crop yield

Water erosion can cause soil loss, destroy soil structure, and reduce soil nutrition (Li et al., 2007; Fang et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2015), resulting in degraded land and reduced crop yield. Wu (1982) pointed out the research prospects of the effects of soil erosion on soil productivity. In recent years, an increasing number of studies have been conducted on crop yield impact in China (Table 3). Studies have employed experimentation (Zhang et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2009; Liu and Wei, 2014; Gao et al.,



2015), modeling (Duan et al., 2011; Li et al., 2011; Gu et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2019),  
and field sampling (Sun et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2016; 2019) to evaluate water  
erosion impact on crop yield. However, most research has focused on the black soil  
region in northeastern China, likely because it is the most important grain base in the  
country (Fang et al., 2013). However, most studies were conducted on a small scale  
(i.e., local experiments or runoff plots) with field experiments or empirical models.  
These methods are often used in other countries as well (den Biggelaar et al., 2003).  
Water erosion–derived crop yield loss depends on topography, soil, precipitation, crop  
type, and other factors. A combination of physically-based water erosion models and  
crop yield models can better estimate water erosion impact on crop yield (Loo et al.,  
2017), as performed by Li et al. (2011). Further research could also couple with land  
use and climate change models to predict future water erosion impact on crop yield at  
a larger spatial scale (Fig. 7).

**Table 3 is about here**

### 3. 6.2 Impact on water pollution

Pollutants can be carried by both water and sediment. The fine sediments represent an  
important diffuse source pollutant because they can absorb nutrients, heavy metals,  
pesticides, and other organic contaminants due to high specific surface areas and  
charge densities (Walling and Collins, 2008). Furthermore, sediment is also regarded  
as a priority pollutant because a large amount of sediment in water systems can  
change water turbidity, light penetration, water temperature, and biologically available  
oxygen (Watts et al., 2003; Bilotta et al., 2010). These pollutants run downstream with



runoff and sediments, causing eutrophication and water pollution. With socioeconomic development, soil loss-induced environmental problems become increasingly prominent. Although sediment in surface water is an important pollutant (Walling and Collins, 2008; Rickson, 2014), most studies on water pollution only considered dissolved pollutants in runoff (Ouyang et al., 2020; Hua et al., 2019), with a few exceptions (e.g., Tang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020). More and detailed research of soil loss related water pollution should be conducted in China.

#### 4. Research needs

As mentioned above, although notable achievements of water erosion research in China have been obtained, there is scope for future research to enhance existing models and promote further understanding, including the following four aspects.

##### 4.1 Extreme rainstorm impact

Large-scale soil conservation measures have been implemented in China, greatly reducing soil loss (Fig. 6b). However, their control efficiency can decrease sharply or even be completely destroyed when extreme rainfall occurs. For example, the “7-26” extreme rainstorm in 2017 destroyed many check dams and caused serious soil erosion on the Loess Plateau (Bai et al., 2020). Similarly, severe damage to soil conservation measures under the extreme rainstorm on August 10, 2019 also occurred in Shandong Province (Han et al., 2020). The magnitude and frequency of extreme rainfall events have begun to increase in relation to continuing global climate change (Li and Fang, 2016). Research on water erosion characteristics under extreme rainstorms and corresponding countermeasures is critical in China.



420 4.2 Water erosion, soil quality, and crop yield

421 China is a large agricultural country, and crop yield is crucial to the national economy  
422 and residents' livelihoods (Liu, 2020). Although some studies in relation to water  
423 erosion and crop yield have been conducted (Table 3), most work was conducted in  
424 the black soil region in northeastern China, and large-scale spatial variations of soil  
425 quality and crop yield derived by water erosion are few. Specifically, future human  
426 activities could be more intense, and rainfall amount, extreme rainfall event frequency,  
427 and rainfall pattern will change in future (Li and Fang, 2016). These changes will  
428 greatly influence soil loss, soil nutrients, and crop yield. The impact of future water  
429 erosion on soil quality and crop yield should be fully considered to facilitate the  
430 development of management and mitigation strategies.

431 4.3 Smart soil and water conservation

432 In recent years, new methods and technologies such as UAV-based monitoring  
433 technology, artificial intelligence, and information clouds, have been used to study  
434 water erosion. These technologies can automatically measure and/or monitor water  
435 flow velocity, water depth, sediment concentration, and related parameters. They can  
436 thus smartly recognize and mirror water erosion processes and characteristic variation,  
437 guiding the implementation of soil and water conservation measures. Similar to smart  
438 agriculture (Tsige, et al., 2020) and smart forestry (Bowditch, et al., 2020), smart soil  
439 and water conservation should be focused on in future water erosion research in China  
440 and globally.

441 4.4 Ecological service-oriented soil conservation



442 With ongoing socioeconomic development, ecological security has attracted more  
443 attention. Soil erosion can result in many environmental problems (Liu et al., 2020)  
444 and pose a severe risk to ecological security. Therefore, the final aim of soil loss  
445 control in China is to improve the catchment and/or regional ecological service  
446 function and environmental health (Hu et al., 2019). The concept “Green Water and  
447 Green Mountains are Golden and Silver Mountains,” as strengthened by President Xi  
448 in September 2019, is closely related to ecological service-oriented water erosion. In  
449 July 2020, the special projects for “Ecological Protection and Sustainable  
450 Development Mechanism in the Yellow River,” released by the National Natural  
451 Science Foundation of China, also indicates the need to conduct ecological  
452 service-oriented water erosion research.

## 453 **5. Conclusions**

454 Water erosion research in China has been undertaken for approximately 100 years and  
455 can be divided into three stages from 1922 onward. The initial stage spans 1922 to  
456 1980, the rapid development stage spans 1981 to 2000, and the steady progress stage  
457 spans 2001 to the present day, and great achievements have been obtained. On slopes,  
458 threshold values of soil loss occurred with increasing slope length or gradient, and a  
459 conceptual model was established to explain the formation mechanism of the  
460 threshold values. Regional and national water erosion zones were established through  
461 large-scale field surveys in the past decades. Deposited sediments were used to restore  
462 the soil erosion history and used as validated data for water erosion models, which  
463 offset the lack of data in understudies or unmonitored areas in Chinese water erosion



464 study. Consideration of gravitational erosion in water erosion models improved  
465 modeling accuracy of water erosion on the Loess Plateau. Ongoing validation and  
466 modification are required to increase the applicability of these models. Multiple  
467 methods have been used to identify sediment sources, and results from compound  
468 fingerprinting method should be confirmed by other methods to guarantee accuracy.

469 To adapt to socioeconomic development and global change, impacts of water  
470 erosion on crop yield and environmental pollution should be strengthened, and  
471 physically-based water erosion and crop yield models and climate change models  
472 should be coupled to predict water erosion impact on soil quality and crop yield. To  
473 address the issues expected to emerge with global climate and social changes, new  
474 methods and technologies should be employed to cope with extreme rainfall events  
475 impact on water erosion, promote smart soil control, and guarantee regional  
476 ecological service function.

477 **Data availability.** All the dataset can be obtained from internet, “CNKI” database and  
478 the “Web of Science”.

479 **Author contributions.** Haiyan Fang collected data, designed the study, and wrote the  
480 manuscript.

481 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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872 **Table 1.** Main methods used to study water erosion in China.

Type	Method	Simple description
Hydro-sedimental monitoring	Runoff plot	Traditional method for studying water erosion. There are over 1000 runoff plots in China
	Rainfall simulation	A common method used in laboratory and field conditions to study the impact of a specific treatment on water erosion
	Small catchment monitoring	A basic unit for implementing soil conservation measures and evaluating soil erosion control efficiency
	Hydrological station monitoring	Use record sediment concentration and runoff to study large catchment water erosion and sediment yield; a dense hydrological station network in China facilitates water erosion study
Topographical Measurement	Artificial measurement	Measure soil surface changes or sedimentation bodies with erosion pins, stylus plate, or meter ruler to estimate water erosion rate
	Remote sensing	New approaches, including photogrammetry, UAV-based sensing, and remote sensing with different spatial resolutions for water erosion estimation
Tracing method	Different types of tracers	Mainly include radionuclides, magnetic minerals, REEs, geochemical elements, biomarkers, and soil nutrients; these tracers can be absorbed onto soils and sediments and moved with them
Modeling	Water erosion modeling	Mainly include physically-based and empirical models; widely used to evaluate or predict water erosion under different scenarios

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879 **Table 2.** Some physically-based water erosion models established in China.

No.	Developers	Input variables	Characteristics	Remarks
1	Cai et al., 1996	Climate, soil, topography, land use, vegetation cover; soil moisture, soil crust and rill conditions, runoff, and sediment record	Contains slope, gully, and channel sub-modules; Considers gully/channel, gravitational, and cave erosion	Event-based, catchment model
2	Tang, 1996	Rainfall characteristics, soil, topography, stream flow, sediment record, and sediment availability	Considers splash erosion and slope erosion	Event-based, catchment model
3	Qi et al., 2004	Rainfall characteristics, soil, topography, land use, vegetation cover, runoff, and sediment record	Considers inter-rill and rill erosion	Sub-event based, small catchment model
4	Jia et al., 2004	Rainfall characteristics, soil, topography, vegetation cover, land use, runoff, and sediment record	Considers splash, sheet, rill, gully, and channel erosion types	Event-based, catchment model
5	Zhang et al., 2004	Climate, topography, soil, land use, vegetation cover, monthly runoff and sediment record, sediment texture, and sediment grading data	Considers slope erosion and channel sediment transfer	Monthly scale, catchment model
6	Wang et al., 2007	Climate, topography, soil, land use, and vegetation cover	Considers slope, gravitational erosion, and channel sediment transport	Daily scale; catchment model
7	Yang et al., 2012	Rainfall, topography, soil, land use, vegetation cover,	Considers slope erosion, gully erosion,	Event-based, catchment model



		runoff, and sediment record	and groove erosion	
8	Tian et al., 2015	Precipitation, topography, soil, land use, and vegetation cover	RULSE-based, consider slope, and ephemeral gully erosion	Multi-annual based, catchment model
9	Si et al., 2017	Rainfall, topography, soil, land use, and vegetation cover	Considers slope, gully, and river sub-modules	Sub-event based, catchment model
10	Cai et al., 2020	Rainfall, topography, soil, land use, and vegetation cove	Considers slope and gravitational erosion	Daily based, catchment model

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**Table 3.** Papers published on water erosion impact on crop yields in China.

No.	Method	Study region	Simple description	Authors
1	Experiment	NEC	Impact of different erosion levels on dry maize material and its yield	Zhang et al., 2007
2	Experiment	NEC	Water erosion impact on soil properties and bean yield	Wang et al., 2009.
3	Crop yield and $^{137}\text{Cs}$ sampling	Sichuang province	Field slopes; relations of soil erosion rate and crop yield	Su et al., 2010
4	Modified productivity index	NEC	Water erosion impact on crop production	Duan et al, 2011
5	Climate model and WEPP model	The Loess Plateau	Runoff plot and models; future relations of runoff, soil loss, and crop yield under different cultivation measures	Li et al., 2011
6	Experiment	NEC	Impact of different erosion levels on soil properties and bean yield	Liu and Wei, 2014
7	Experiment	NEC	Measure the impact of water erosion levels on bean yield	Gao et al, 2015
8	Crop yield and soil sampling method	NEC	Relation of crop yield and soil quality	Yang et al., 2016
9	Experiment	NEC	Water erosion impact on soil properties and crop yield	E, 2018
10	Productivity index model	NEC	Spatial variations of crop yield in relations to water erosion	Gu et al., 2018
11	Crop yield and $^{137}\text{Cs}$ sampling	NEC	Relation of $^{137}\text{Cs}$ -estimated water erosion and crop yield	Yang et al., 2019b
12	Agriculture Land Management Alternatives with Numerical Assessment Criteria model	NEC	Impact analysis of water erosion level on crop yield	Lin et al., 2019



888 **Figure captions:**

889 **Fig. 1.** Divisions of water erosion regions in China and dynamically monitored runoff plots and

890 small catchments (Data source: the Soil and Water Conservation Monitoring Center of the

891 Ministry of Water Resources)

892 **Fig. 2.** Chronology of and important events in water erosion studies in China (1922–present). Note:

893 NSES represents the National Soil Erosion Survey

894 **Fig. 3.** Number of publications by year: (a) in the “CNKI” database with the key word “soil

895 erosion,” (b) in the “Web of Science” with the key words “soil erosion or sediment yield” and the

896 address “China,” (c) in the “Web of Science” with the key words “soil erosion or sediment yield”

897 and “climate or climate change” and with the address “China,” and (d) in the “Web of Science”

898 with the key words “soil erosion or sediment yield,” “land use,” and the address “China.” Note: S

899 I, S II, and S III represent three developing stages of water erosion study in China.

900 **Fig. 4.** The four-grade monitoring network for soil and water conservation in China. Note: the

901 SWCMC and MWR represent the Soil and Water Conservation Monitoring Center of the Ministry

902 of Water Resources (Grade I); rivers’ and lake’s names represent their catchment monitoring

903 centers (Grade II), smaller circles along the second large circle represent provincial monitoring

904 stations (Grade III), and needle signs represent their sub-station (Grade IV). The numbers of

905 provincial monitoring stations and their sub-stations on the circles just display levels and not the

906 actual amount.

907 **Fig. 5.** Threshold slope lengths of runoff (a), threshold values of water erosion intensity on

908 different slopes with rainfall durations (b), conceptual model showing the formation mechanism of

909 threshold value of water erosion intensity (c), and threshold values of slope gradients in relation to



910 water erosion intensity (d). Note: (a) was adapted from Cai (1998a), within which the figures were  
 911 the maximum 30-min rainfall intensity ( $I_{30}$ ); (b) was adapted from Cai (1998b), and (d) was  
 912 adapted from Qian (1989).

913 **Fig. 6.** Sediment source area identification of the Loess Plateau ((a) modified from Xu, 2002) and  
 914 temporal changes of sediment load monitored at three hydrological stations ((b) modified from  
 915 Wang et al., 2015). Note: H, CSA, FSA, and YLQ represent low sediment concentration area in  
 916 the upstream of the Yellow River, coarse sediment area, fine sediment area, and low sediment  
 917 concentration areas in the Yiluohe and Qinhe River basins. The hydrological stations Lijin,  
 918 Huayuankou and Toudaoguai in (b) are labeled in (a).

919 **Fig. 7.** Diagram showing the impacts of land use and/or climate change on water erosion are  
 920 studied. RCM represents regional climate model.

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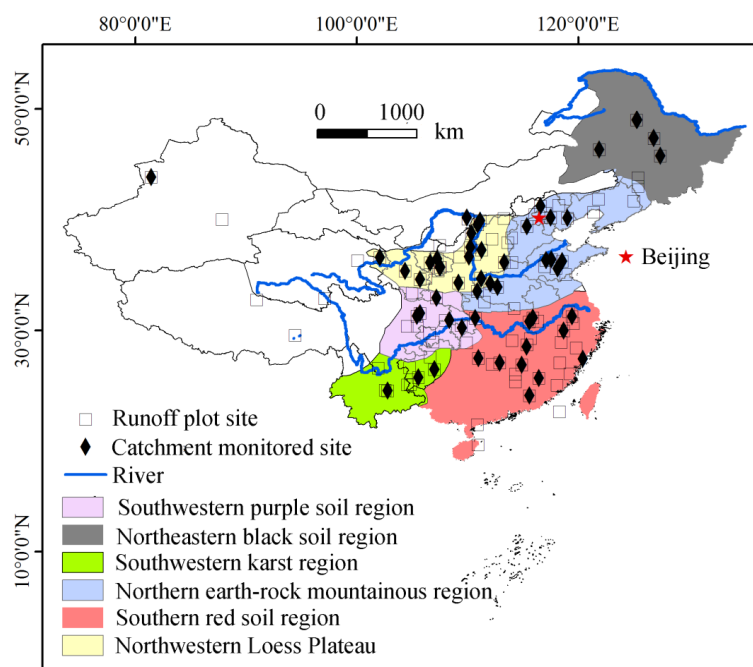


Fig. 1.



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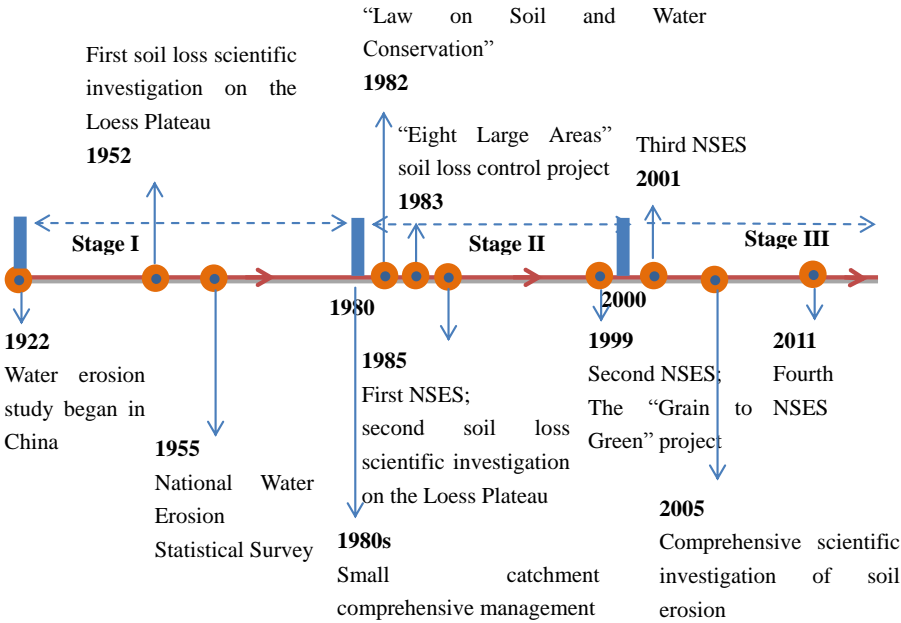


Fig. 2.

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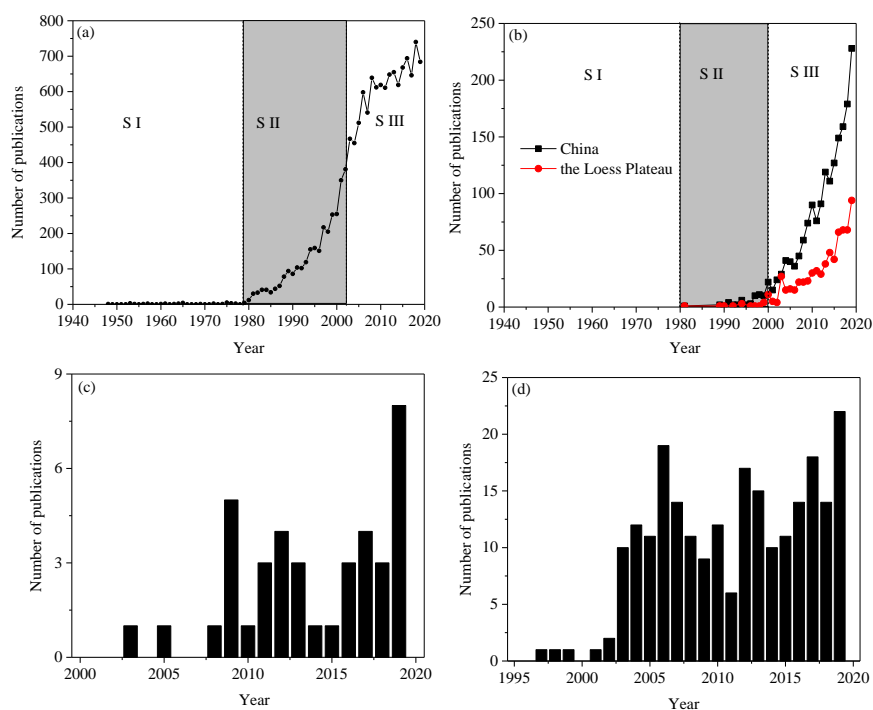


Fig. 3.

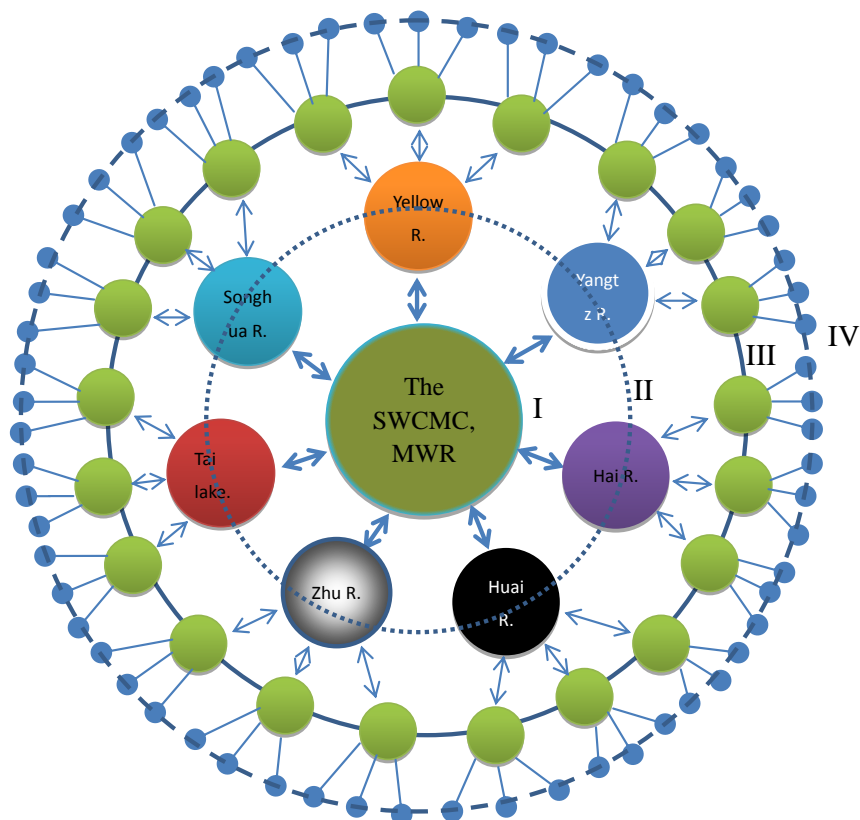


Fig. 4.

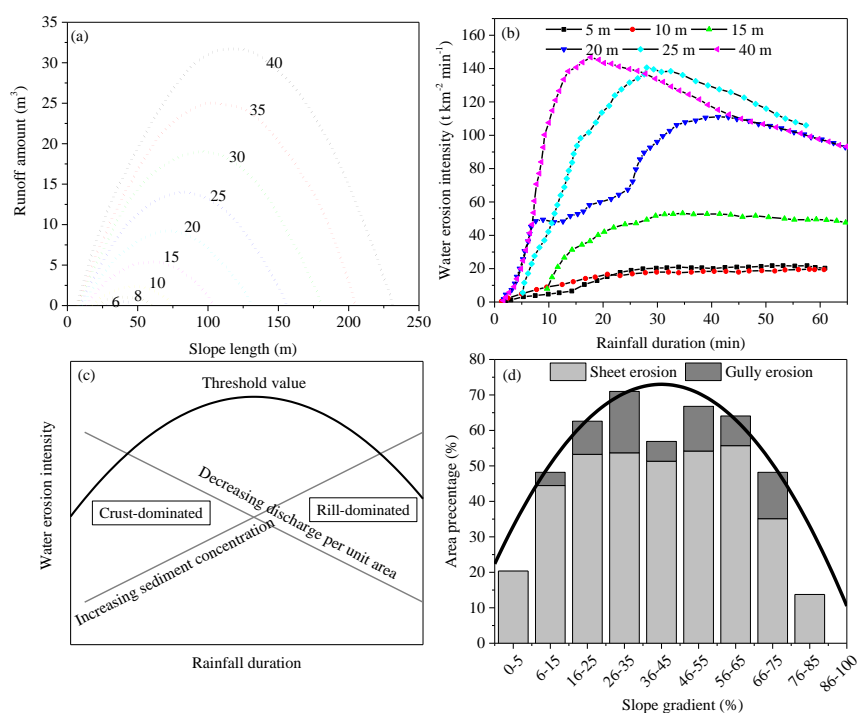


Fig. 5.

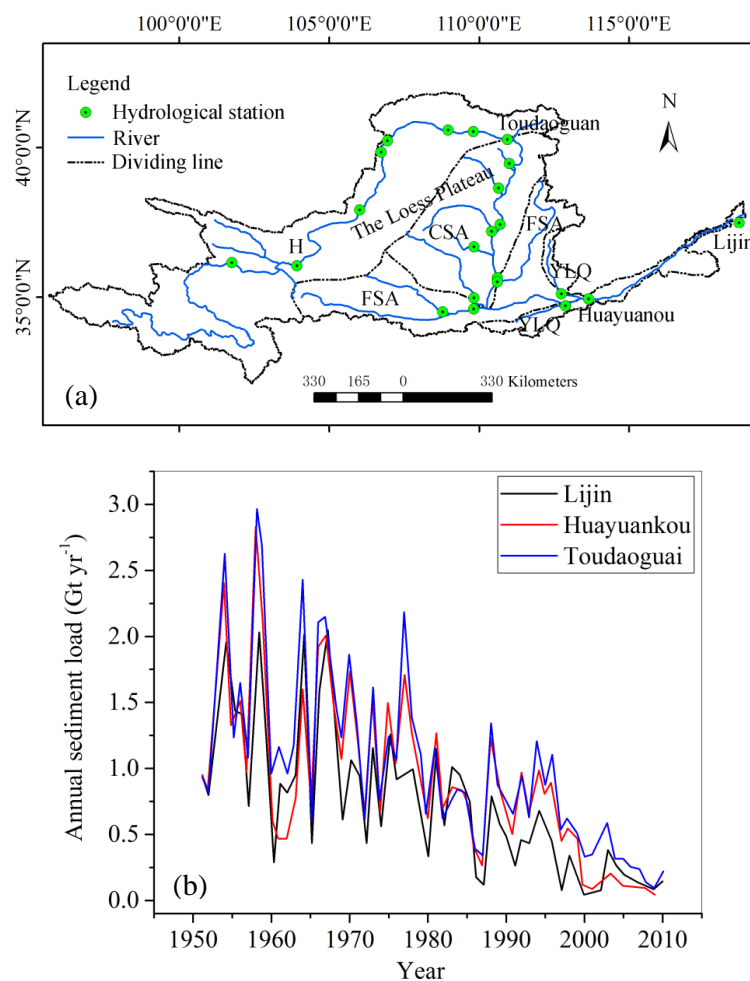


Fig. 6.

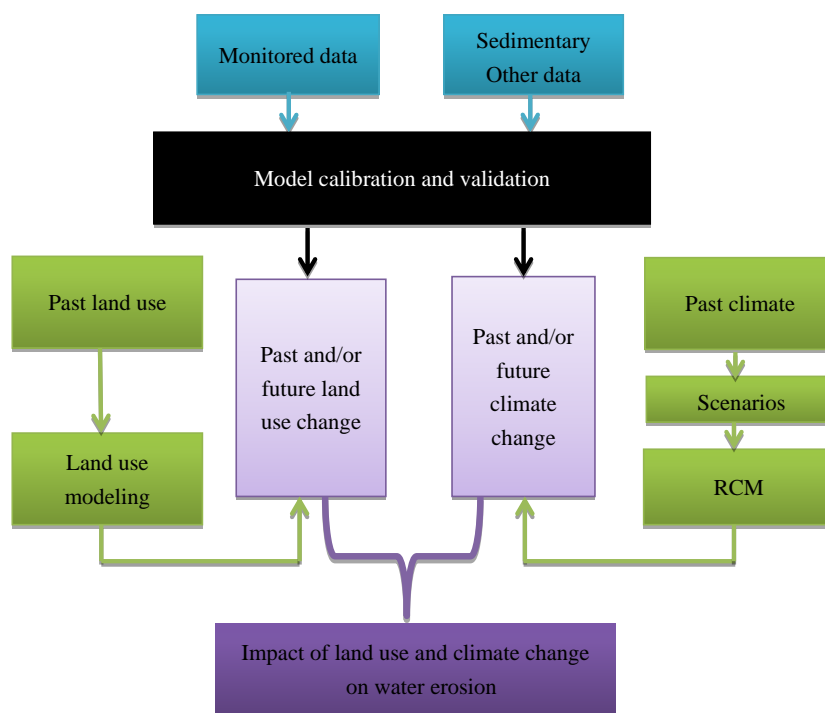


Fig. 7.