

The most extreme rainfall erosivity ~~event~~ ever recorded in China: The “7.20” ~~rainstorm~~ in Henan ~~Province~~

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Abstract. Severe water erosion occurs during extreme storm events. Such an ~~exceedingly severe~~ ~~extreme~~ storm occurred in Zhengzhou in central China on 20 July 2021 (the “7.20” ~~rainstorm~~). The magnitude and frequency of occurrence of this storm event were examined in terms of ~~how erosive it was~~ ~~its erosivity values~~. To contextualize this extreme event, hourly rainfall data from 2420 automatic meteorological stations in China from 1951 to 2021 were analyzed to: (1) characterize the spatial and temporal distribution of rainfall ~~amount~~ and rainfall erosivity of the “7.20” ~~rainstorm~~, (2) evaluate the average recurrence interval of the maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity, and (3) establish the geographical distribution of the maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity in China. The center of the “7.20” ~~rainstorm~~ moved from southeast to northwest in Henan province, and the most intense period of rainfall occurred in the middle and late stages of the storm. Zhengzhou meteorological station happened to be aligned with the center of the storm, with a maximum daily rainfall of 552.5 mm and a maximum hourly rainfall intensity of 201.9 mm·h⁻¹. The average recurrence intervals of the maximum daily rainfall erosivity (43,354 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹) and the maximum event rainfall erosivity (58,874 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹) ~~was/were~~ estimated to be ~~about 109,079~~ ~~10,000~~ and ~~23,100~~ ~~154,154~~ years, respectively, assuming the ~~log Pearson type III generalized extreme value~~ distribution, and these were the maximum rainfall erosivity ever recorded among 2420 meteorological stations in mainland China. The “7.20” ~~rainstorm~~ suggests that the most erosive of storms does not necessarily occur in the wettest places in southern China, and it can occur in mid-latitude around 35 °N with a moderate mean annual ~~precipitation rainfall~~ of ~~549.2~~ ~~566.7~~ mm in Zhengzhou ~~meteorological station~~.

Keywords. soil erosion, extreme rainfall, rainfall erosivity, ~~the~~ return period

1 Introduction

Soil erosion ~~is known~~ as a land degradation process that can affect food production, biodiversity, carbon stocks and ecosystem services (Kebede et al. 2021; Panagos et al., 2015). Soil erosion models are powerful tools to evaluate ~~the rate of~~ erosion ~~intensity~~ and the effect of soil and water conservation measures ~~for~~ decision makers. The Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE) (Wischmeier and Smith, 1965, 1978) and ~~the~~ ~~its~~ revised USLE (Renard et al., 1997; USDA–ARS, 2013), and the Chinese Soil Loss Equation (CSLE, Liu et al., 2002) are widely used empirical soil erosion ~~prediction~~ models for estimating the long-term average amount of soil loss. Rainfall erosivity quantifies the potential ability of rainfall and runoff to erode the soil and represents the climatic effect on soil erosion as one of the factors in the USLE, RUSLE and CSLE (Yin et al., 2017).

~~Research has focused on the calculation and estimation of rainfall erosivity, and its spatial and temporal variations (Yin et al., 2017). High temporal resolution data are often used to estimate the rainfall erosivity ranging between 1-min and 60-min intervals in most studies (Klik et al., 2015; Lu and Yu, 2002; Ma et al., 2014; Panagos et al., 2015, 2016; Xie et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2015). As rainfall data with high temporal resolution in most parts of the world are limited in terms of the record length and spatial coverage, it is often necessary to establish simple relationships between rainfall erosivity values based on data with~~

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40 finer and coarser resolutions, and then apply these relationships to regions with data in coarser resolution only (Xie et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2015; Zhu and Yu, 2015). Since soil erosion is difficult to measure at large scales, soil erosion models are often used for estimating soil loss by water erosion at regional, national and global scales. Rainfall erosivity maps can provide rainfall erosivity values with rainfall observations and without observations and the generation of erosivity maps is one of necessary procedures for estimation of soil loss using most empirical soil erosion models (Bezak et al. 2021, 2022; McGehee et al., 2022; Yue et al., 2022). Rainfall erosivity maps were usually generated by the interpolation of rainfall erosivity values from at-site
45 rainfall observations by geostatistics techniques, such as the inverse distance weighting, ordinal Kriging and so on (Panagos et al., 2015; Sadeghi et al., 2017; Yin et al., 2019). Available gridded rainfall data, such as satellite precipitation products and climate reanalysis data can also be used to generate rainfall erosivity maps (Panagos et al., 2017; McGehee et al., 2022; Yue et al., 2022). Auerswald et al. (2019) used 1 km resolution radar rainfall data to produce the average rainfall erosivity maps with 1 km in resolution in Germany from 2001 to 2017. Temporal variations in rainfall erosivity are important for
50 understanding changes in soil erosion and assessing the future climate change impact on the land degradation. At present, research on the temporal change of rainfall erosivity mainly focuses on past changes (Cao et al., 2018; Qin et al. 2016; Wang et al., 2022; Yang, 2015; Zhang et al., 2010) and future projections (Kilic et al. 2021; Panagos et al., 2022).

Most studies have focused on the long-term average of rainfall and rainfall erosivity characteristics (Gu et al., 2020; Li et al., 2008; Liu et al. 2019, 2018; Yin et al., 2019), and have assessed the intensity and frequency of extreme rainfall events at the regional, national and global levels-scales (Alexander et al., 2007; Almagro et al., 2017; Evans et al., 2016; Nearing et al., 2004). However, there are have been few studies of rainfall erosivity of-during extreme events (Diodato et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2022). The long-term average value cannot fully reflect-represent the severity of the soil erosion process, and a few severe soil erosion events can contribute a great deal to the total amount of soil lost over many years (Bezak et al. 2021; Borrelli et al., 2016; Meusburger et al., 2012; Petek et al., 2018). For example, field observations at the plot scale in eastern Austria
60 showed that the three largest erosion events from 1994 to 2019 accounted for 79% of the total soil loss over the same period (Klik and Rosner, 2020). Zhou et al. (1992) reported that high-intensity, short-duration heavy precipitation events accounted for about 90% of the total annual soil erosion in the Loess Plateau region.

Extreme rainfall, which varies a great deal in space and time, can lead to severe flooding, with far-reaching implications for socio-economic and human activities (Fishman, 2016). With global warming, the frequency and intensity of extreme precipitation events are increasing in-most-mostly in mid-latitudes (Fang et al., 2017; IPCC 2021; Liao et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2017). Extreme rainfall, especially rainfall events with high intensity, is often more erosive (Fang et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2016a, 2016b, 2016c). Many studies reported that satellite-based products tended to underestimate the extreme rainfall, which can have an important effect on the estimation of rainfall erosivity based-on-using satellite-based products (Jiang et al., 2019; Palharini et al., 2020; Rahmawati and Lubczynski., 2018). For example, Bezak et al. (2022) showed CMORPH estimates had
70 a marked tendency to underestimate rainfall erosivity of-in highly erosive areas when compared to the the GloREDa estimates. In addition, underestimation of extreme rainfall from climate models will cause-lead to conservative projections of erosivity in highly erosive areas in the future (Panagos et al., 2022). Therefore, it is of great interest to examine the magnitude and frequency of occurrence of rainfall and rainfall erosivity of extreme storm events.

An extraordinarily heavy rainfall event occurred between 17th and 22th of July 2021 in Henan Province. Such a rare event was never experienced or recorded in recent times in China. Record daily rainfall was observed at 10 national meteorological observation-stations in Zhengzhou, Xinxiang, Kaifeng, Zhoukou, Luoyang and other cities in Henan Province. Zhang et al. (2021) reported that the storm was influenced by several weather systems including the eastward extension of the South Asian high, the abnormal northerly subtropical high, the Bengal Bay Depression at low latitude, the typhoon "Chapaca" Cempaka in the South China Sea and the typhoon "Fireworks" in the Western Pacific. The strengthened
80 and eastward extension of the South Asia high leads to an obvious divergence area of the upper atmosphere over Henan

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~~Province~~province, which is conducive to the upward movement of the lower atmosphere. The subtropical high, which is ~~stronger and~~ northward moving ~~and stronger~~ than ~~the same period in normal years~~usual for the same period, the No. 6 typhoon “Fireworks” and the No. 7 typhoon “Chapaca” in low latitudes, and the low pressure in Bengal Bay have led to the stable and lasting transmission of warm and humid air-flow to Henan ~~Province~~province (Zhang et al., 2021; Qian et al., 2022). Taihang Mountains and Funiu Mountains in the northwestern and western Henan ~~Province~~province blocked the air-flow, and a strong convergence formed in front of mountains, resulting in this extreme rainfall event.

The maximum hourly rainfall between 16:00 and 17:00 on 20 July reached 201.9 mm at Zhengzhou meteorological station, the highest ever recorded in China (Zhang et al., 2021). It has been widely reported that this extreme storm caused extensive flooding and landslides with damages to infrastructure and loss of human lives (Jin et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022). Event total rainfall, daily and hourly rainfall of the “7.20” ~~rain~~storm have been reported elsewhere (Zhang et al. 2021), ~~whereas rainfall erosivity associated with this extreme storm has not, but rainfall erosivity associated with this extreme storm is still unknown.~~ The “7.20” ~~rain~~storm presents a rare opportunity to examine the extreme rainfall erosivity in China. ~~Thus~~For this study, hourly rainfall data were used to evaluate the maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity, to estimate its average recurrence interval, to contextualize geographically the extreme erosivity of the “7.20” ~~rain~~storm, to demonstrate how extreme the erosivity value of the “7.20” ~~rain~~storm was and how large event rainfall erosivity could be in China, and to highlight the need to pay attention to extreme storm ~~events~~s and the huge erosion risk associated with them in the future.

2 Material and Methods

2.1 Data source and pre-processing

Observed hourly rainfall data from 1951 to 2021 for 2420 meteorological stations in China were ~~collected by siphon rain gauges or tipping bucket rain gauges.~~ The rainfall data acquired from China Meteorological Administration (CMA) and the data had been quality-controlled by CMA’s National Meteorological Information Center. ~~However, we found some unexpected errors in the data, so we checked hourly with daily observation from rain gauges. Hourly observations in early days were mainly digitized from precipitation autographic charts on paper. From 2000 to 2005, automatic weather stations were put into use and their introduction was gradually accelerated. Since 2005, nearly all observations were recorded with automatic weather stations.~~ Hourly rainfall data from ~~797-796~~ meteorological stations in Henan and its surrounding nine provinces (municipalities) from 20:00 (Beijing time) on 16 July and to 20:00 on 22 July 2021 were used to characterize the “7.20” ~~rain~~storm. Hourly rainfall data from 1951 to 2020 were ~~used to calculate the annual maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity as historical data.~~ In order to reduce the impact of missing values on the result, years with missing data were discarded. A year with missing data was defined as follows: if there were ~~4~~four or more hours of missing records on a given day, it was considered as a missing day and if the number of missing days in a month \geq ~~6~~six, it was considered as a missing month. Since most of the rainfall in the north of China (north of 32°N) is concentrated from May to September, the year with any month from May to September missing was defined as a missing year. In ~~the south of~~southern China (south of 32°N), the year with any month from April to October missing is defined as a missing year. ~~Missing years were removed, and Missing-missing~~ values in effective years are input as ~~0~~zero value.

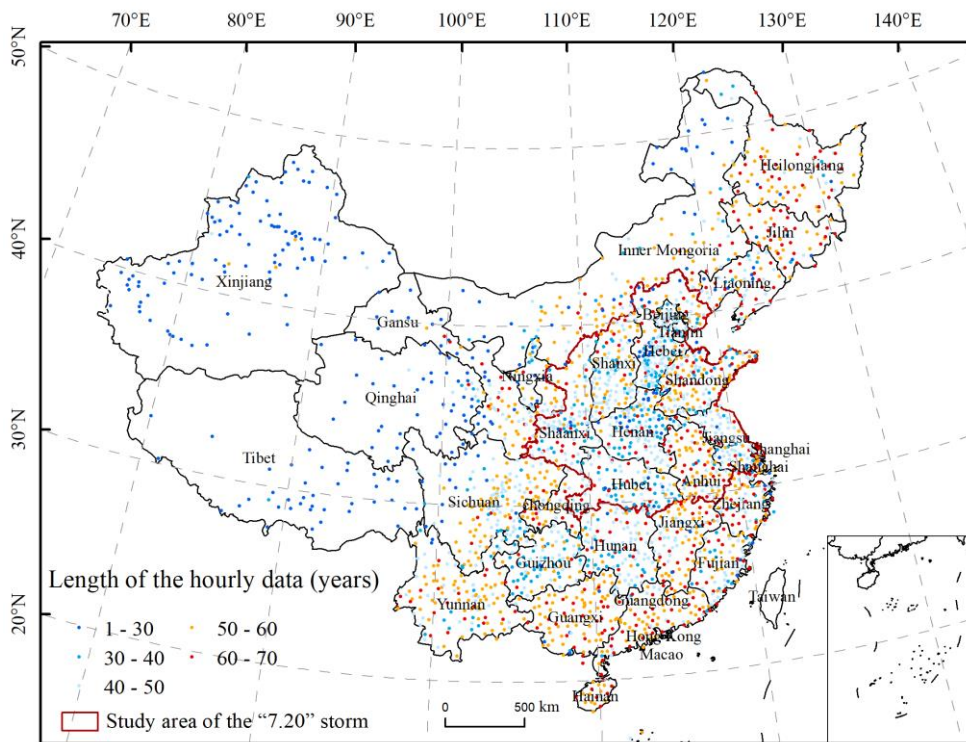


Figure 1. Spatial distribution of stations with hourly rainfall data and the record length.

2.2 Framework of study

2.2.1 Definition of rainfall events and rainfall parameters

An event was defined as the duration period of rainfall separated with dry periods less greater than “minimum inter-event time” (MIT). The MIT in the USLE and RUSLE2 was 6 six hours. In this study, MIT of six hours was used to define rainfall events, the storm was divided into events when the time of no rainfall was over 6 hours. The maximum event rainfall, maximum daily rainfall, maximum hourly rainfall and maximum event rainfall erosivity were computed following to the framework of shown in Fig. 2. Since There there were several erosive multiple events over the six six-day in period during the “7.20” rainstorm. F, the maximum event rainfall was the maximum rainfall amount of all events over the six-days period, associated with the erosive event with the maximum rainfall amount, and it was not the total rainfall amount over the 6 days. Maximum event rainfall erosivity was similarly defined.

2.2.2 Calculation of the energy and daily/event rainfall erosivity

Erosive events Hourly data were used to calculate the daily and event rainfall erosivity, EI_{30} ($\text{MJ}\cdot\text{mm}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) for each event, which is the product of the event energy and peak 30-min intensity. All the hourly data for day (8:00 pm to 8:00 pm) were used to compute daily rainfall erosivity.

Rainfall kinetic energy is used by most erosion models for assessing the capacity of rainfall to produce erosion. Rainfall kinetic energy is a function of raindrop size and falling velocity. Because the direct measurement of kinetic energy (KE) requires

complex and expensive instruments, many different estimation methods have been developed. These methods use logarithmic, exponential, or power law formulas to derive kinetic energy-intensity (KE-I) relationships. The most widely accepted kinetic energy-intensity relationship is the exponential model proposed by Kinnell (1981). The rainfall kinetic energy is calculated by Eq. (2), which includes the modification suggested by McGregor et al. (1995).

Rainfall kinetic energy is a function of raindrop size and falling velocity. The total energy (EN , $\text{MJ}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$) of an erosive event was estimated/computed using the following equations (USDA-ARS, 2013):

$$e_r = 0.29 \cdot [1 - 0.72 \cdot \exp(-0.082 \cdot i_r)] \quad (1)$$

$$EN = \sum_{r=1}^l (e_r \cdot P_r) \quad (2)$$

$$e_r = 0.29 \cdot [1 - 0.72 \cdot \exp(-0.082 \cdot i_r)] \quad (2)$$

where a rainfall event was divided into l periods, each with a constant intensity, i_r ($\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), for the r^{th} period, P_r (mm) was the rainfall amount for the r^{th} period and e_r ($\text{MJ}\cdot\text{mm}^{-1}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{mm}^{-4}$) was the unit energy per unit rainfall per unit area ($\text{MJ}\cdot\text{mm}^{-1}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$) for the r^{th} period. The event rainfall erosivity can be estimated with of EN and I_{1h} (USDA-ARS, 2013):

$$EI_{1h} = EN \cdot I_{1h} \quad (3)$$

$$EI_{30} = 1.489 \cdot EI_{1h} \quad (4)$$

where I_{1h} was the peak one-hour rainfall intensity for the erosive event, and the conversion factor of 1.489 was used to correct the bias of estimated in the rainfall erosivity using hourly rainfall data (Yue et al., 2020).

Total rainfall and energy over the six days of the "7.20" rainstorm for 796 stations were interpolated into grid data with 100 m spatial resolution, and regional averages of Henan province and the study area (Henan province and its surrounding nine provinces/municipalities) were calculated and compared with Zhengzhou meteorological station. We used inverse distance weighting (IDW) to interpolate point data to map rainfall erosivity distribution for the region.

2.2.3 Log Pearson type III distribution Generalized extreme value distribution model and parameter estimation

An annual series is defined here as a collection of maxima, one from each calendar year. Annual series of the maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity from the period 1951-2020 ($n = 67$ due to three missing years) for Zhengzhou meteorological station were sorted in a descending order with the largest assigned a rank of one. The empirical return period, or the average recurrence interval, of each observation in the annual series was calculated according to the following formula (Bobée and Robitaille, 1977):

$$RP = \frac{n+1}{m} \quad (5)$$

where RP is the empirical return period in years, n was the number of years or the sample size, and m was the rank ($m = 1$ for the largest).

The probability distribution used to fit the annual series was the log Pearson type III (LP-III) distribution. LP-III distribution is considered a suitable model for flood frequency estimation in many investigations (Bobée and Robitaille, 1977; England et al., 2003; England, 2019). The logarithms of the annual series of the maximum daily rainfall erosivity and the maximum event rainfall erosivity from 1951-2020 for Zhengzhou meteorological station were used to fit the Pearson type III distribution (P-III), respectively. The annual series of the maximum daily rainfall erosivity and the annual maximum event rainfall erosivity from 1951-2020 for Zhengzhou meteorological station were used to fit the Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distribution, respectively. The probability distribution function of GEV can be expressed (Li et al., 1988; Huang et al., 2020) as:

$$F(x) = e^{-\left(1 + k \frac{x - a_0}{\sigma}\right)^{-\frac{1}{k}}} \quad (6)$$

$$f(x) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} (x - a_0)^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta(x-a_0)} \quad x > a_0, \alpha > 0, \beta > 0 \quad (6)$$

$$F(x) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_{a_0}^x (x - a_0)^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta(x-a_0)} dx \quad (7)$$

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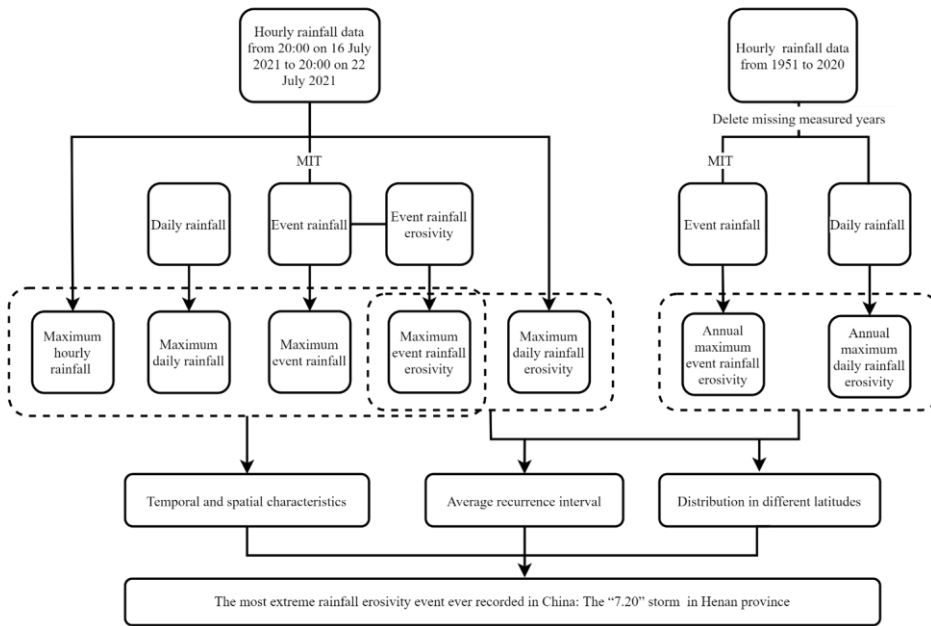
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where x is the random variable of interest, a_0 was the location parameter, α the shape parameter, and β the scale parameter. $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is the gamma function. The basic parameters, mean \bar{x} , coefficient of variation C_v , and skewness coefficient C_s , were used to estimate parameter a_0 , α and β (Viessman Jr. and Lewis, 2002) (Eq. 8-10), and the 95% confidence interval was also estimated (Kite, 1975), where k was the shape parameter, σ the scale parameter and μ the position parameter. The estimated value of rainfall erosivity with a return period T is x_T as follows:

$$\alpha = \frac{4}{C_s} \quad (8)$$

$$\beta = \frac{2}{\bar{x} C_s C_v} \quad (9)$$

$$a_0 = \bar{x} \left(1 - \frac{2C_v}{C_s}\right) \quad (10)$$



$$x_T = \begin{cases} \left\{ \mu + \frac{\sigma}{k} \left[1 - \left[-\log\left(1 - \frac{1}{T}\right) \right]^{-k} \right] \right\} & k \neq 0 \\ \left\{ \mu + \sigma \left[1 - \left[-\log\left(1 - \frac{1}{T}\right) \right] \right] \right\} & k = 0 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where \log is natural log. Method of L-moments was used for the parameter estimation (Hosking, 1990). L-moments is a linear combination of probability weighted moments (PWMs), and the estimated value has good robustness. Among them, the r^{th} -order probability weighted moment of random variable x is:

$$B_r = E[x \cdot F(x)^r] \quad (8)$$

By sorting sample of size n from the smallest to the largest, the following estimates can be obtained:

$$\hat{b}_0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \quad (9)$$

$$\hat{b}_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{(n-j)}{(n-1)} x_j \quad (10)$$

$$\hat{b}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-2} \frac{(n-j)(n-j-1)}{(n-1)(n-2)} x_j \quad (11)$$

$$\hat{b}_x = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-3} \frac{(n-j)(n-j-1)(n-j-2)}{(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)} x_j \quad (12)$$

L-moments can be obtained by a linear combination of the above estimates:

$$l_x = \hat{b}_u \quad (13)$$

$$l_x = 2 \cdot \hat{b}_x - \hat{b}_u \quad (14)$$

$$l_x = 6 \cdot \hat{b}_x - 6 \cdot \hat{b}_x + \hat{b}_u \quad (15)$$

$$l_x = 20 \cdot \hat{b}_x - 30 \cdot \hat{b}_x + 12 \cdot \hat{b}_x - \hat{b}_u \quad (16)$$

where τ_3 is l-skewness, τ_4 is l-kurtosis, which can be calculated with the ratio of L-moments:

$$\tau_3 = \frac{l_x}{l_x}, \tau_4 = \frac{l_x}{l_x} \quad (17)$$

From the set of equations above, parameters of the GEV distribution can be estimated:

$$\hat{\xi} = \frac{2}{3 + \tau_3} \frac{l_{x2}}{l_{x3}} \quad (18)$$

$$\hat{k} \approx 7.859 \cdot \hat{\xi} + 2.9554 \cdot \hat{\xi}^2 \quad (19)$$

$$\hat{\sigma} = \frac{l_x \hat{k}}{(1 - 2^{-\hat{k}}) \Gamma(1 + \hat{k})} \quad (20)$$

$$\hat{\mu} = l_x + \hat{\sigma} \frac{\Gamma(1 + \hat{k}) - 1}{\hat{k}} \quad (21)$$

where $\Gamma(\cdot)$ is the gamma function.

Figure 2. Study Framework for this study

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Temporal and spatial characteristics of the “7.20” rainstorm

3.1.1 Characteristics of the “7.20” rainstorm

The extreme event occurred in Henan Province between 20:00 on 16 July 2021 and 20:00 on 22 July 2021. The center of the storm center is mainly located around Zhengzhou. The storm duration was long and accumulated rainfall was huge. Spatial pattern of accumulated rainfall from 20:00 on 16 July 2021 to 20:00 on 22 July 2021 of the “7.20” storm is shown in Fig. 3a. The top three rainfall stations were Zhengzhou (817.3 mm), Huixian (755.2 mm) and Xinmi (723.5 mm). Additionally, among the 797 automatic meteorological stations in the study area, 58 meteorological stations have accumulated rainfall of more than 250 mm, of which 50 are located in Henan Province. Rainfall mass curves for these three stations are shown in Fig. 3b. Obviously, the rainstorm at Zhengzhou meteorological station and Xinmi station contributed more than 50 % of the rainfall in the middle period, while the rainstorm at Huixian station contributed more than 50 % of the rainfall in the last period. Wang et al. (2016) has have demonstrated that different rainstorm patterns with rainfall peak in the early, middle and late stages have different effects on soil erosion process, under the natural rainfall conditions. In that study, storms were classified into four patterns: the advanced, intermediate, delayed, and uniform depending when rainfall is most concentrated. The dimensionless durations were separated into three equal periods. Advanced pattern, intermediate pattern and delayed pattern when more than 40 % of the rainfall occurs in the first, second and third periods, respectively. The rainfall temporal distribution is regarded as the uniform pattern otherwise. Wang’s research showed that given the same EI30, the rainstorm pattern with rainfall peak at the later stage produced more soil loss than the other patterns (Wang et al., 2016). It showed that given the same EI30, the rainstorm pattern with rainfall peak at the later stage produced more soil loss than the other patterns.

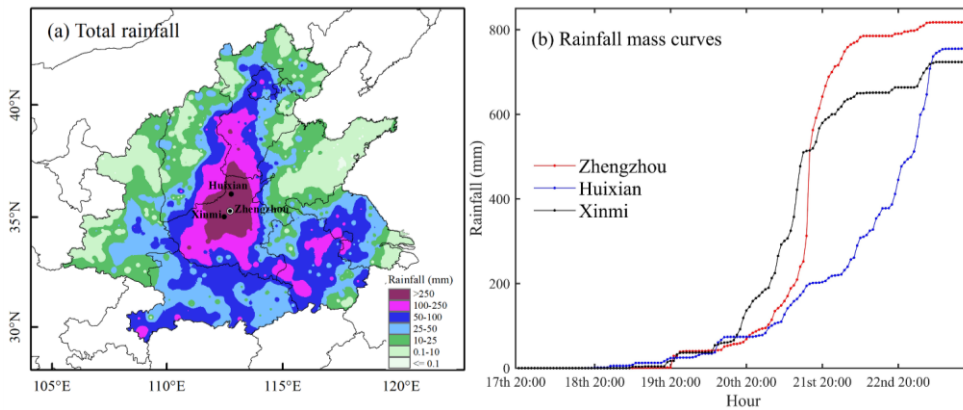


Figure 3. Distribution of total rainfall over the study area. Total rainfall over the study area from 20:00 on 16 July 2021 to 20:00 on 22 July 2021, and rainfall mass curves for 3-three stations with the largest rainfall totals.

Spatial pattern of daily rainfall in study area from 20:00 on 16 July 2021 to 20:00 on 22 July 2021 of the “7.20” storm in the study area is shown in Fig. 4. Heavy rainfall mainly occurred in the middle and late stages of the event. The maximum daily rainfall (Zhengzhou, 552.5 mm) occurred on 20 July (Fig. 4d), while the storm was most extensive on 21 July (Fig. 4e). The storm is initially concentrated in the southeast of Henan and Anhui Provinces (Fig. 4a), and then dispersed somewhat on 18 July (Fig. 4b). On 19 July, the storm re-appears in the central region of Henan Province (Fig. 4c). On 20 July, the storm began to intensify and expand its spatial extent (Fig. 4d). The daily rainfall at 39 meteorological stations exceeded 100 mm, and the daily rainfall of 7-seven meteorological stations exceeded 250 mm on 20 July. On 21 July (Fig. 4e), the center of the storm began to move northward, and the rainfall intensity started to dissipate, and the storm now covered a large area with storm center drifted north to Tangyin (388.2 mm), Henan Province, and recorded rainfall at 48 meteorological stations exceeded 100 mm and 6-six meteorological stations exceeded 250 mm. The rainfall decreased considerably by 22 July (Fig. 4f). The storm center was located in the north of Henan Province, and the rainfall at 16 meteorological stations exceeded 100 mm.

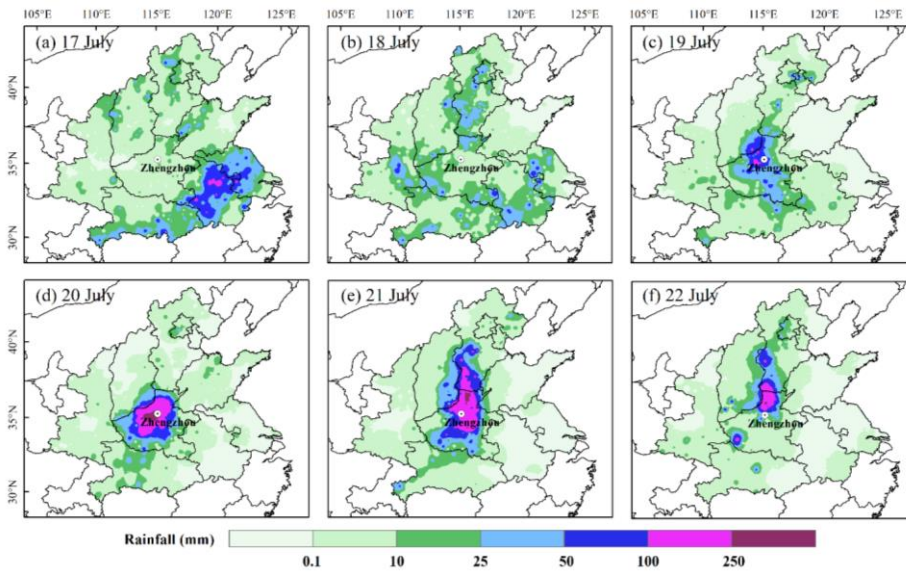


Figure 4. Spatial pattern of daily rainfall in the study area. Daily rainfall is rainfall accumulation over 24-hour period, e.g. daily rainfall on 20 July is the total rainfall from 20:00 on 19 July to 20:00 on 20 July.

3.1.2 The spatial distribution of rainfall parameters and rainfall erosivity

The spatial distribution of maximum daily and hourly rainfall amount, and maximum event rainfall and rainfall erosivity are shown in Fig. 5. At the center of the storm, a maximum event rainfall amount of 785.1 mm and a maximum daily rainfall amount of 552.5 mm on 20 July were recorded at Zhengzhou meteorological station. From 16:00 to 17:00 on 20 July, maximum hourly rainfall reached 201.9 mm at Zhengzhou meteorological station, and created a new hourly rainfall intensity record ($201.9 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) in mainland China. The maximum event rainfall erosivity in the area with Zhengzhou meteorological station has reached $58,874 \text{ MJ}\cdot\text{mm}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$.

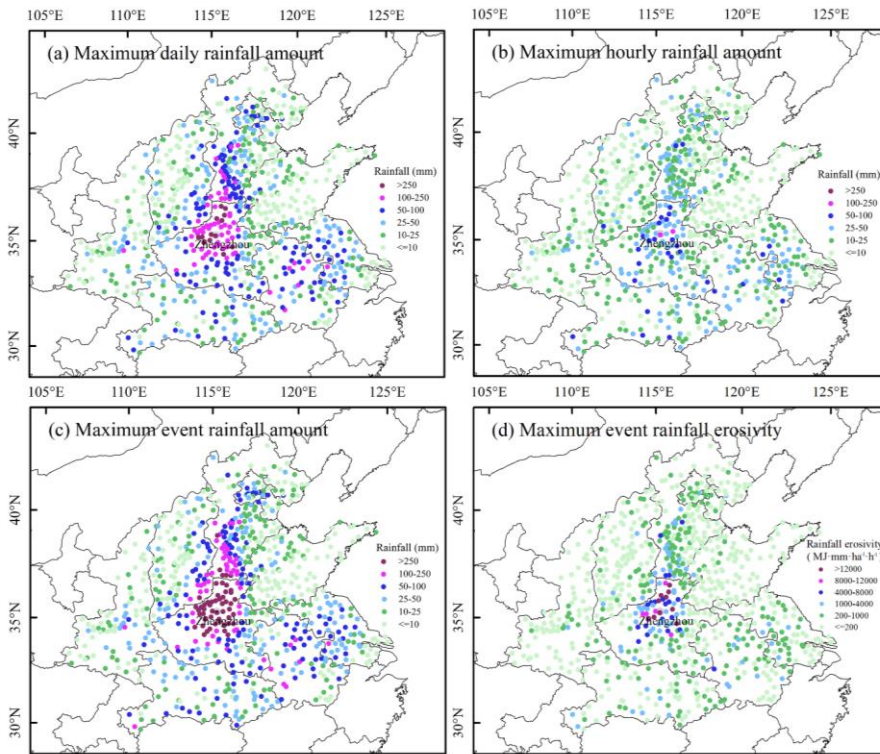


Figure 5. Spatial distribution of rainfall amount and rainfall erosivity associated with the “7.20” rainstorm.

3.1.3 Rainfall's total kinetic energy

Table 1. The composition of average rainfall and energy in different regions from 20:00 on 16 July 2021 to 20:00 on 22 July 2021

Region	Index	17 th	18 th	19 th	20 th	21 st	22 nd	Total
Study area (1.33×10^8 ha)	Mean rainfall (mm)	12.4	10.0	6.8	8.7	11.3	5.8	55.0
	EN ($MJ \cdot ha^{-1}$)	2.6	2.0	1.3	1.7	2.3	1.1	11.0
Henan province (1.66×10^7 ha)	Average rainfall (mm)	5.8	13.5	26.6	70.5	61.9	21.5	199.8
	EN ($MJ \cdot ha^{-1}$)	2.0	3.0	4.8	13.5	15.6	7.1	46.0
Zhengzhou meteorological station	Average rainfall (mm)	0.0	1.3	60.2	552.5	176.0	27.3	817.3
	EN ($MJ \cdot ha^{-1}$)	0.0	0.1	12.3	144.2	40.0	4.0	200.6

The detachment of soil particles from the soil mass and the transportation of detached particles by raindrop impact and surface water flow are two main processes of soil erosion. Rainfall energy reflects the impact of raindrop detachment on the soil. The average rainfall and energy for each meteorological day over different regions from 20:00 on 16 July 2021 to 20:00 on 22 July 2021 of “7.20” storm were listed in Table. 1. Comparing the three regions, the average rainfall and EN in the study area on 17 July are higher than those in Henan Province and Zhengzhou meteorological station, indicating that the rainstorm center may be outside Henan Province at this time. With the movement of rainstorm center, the average rainfall and EN of Henan Province and Zhengzhou meteorological station gradually increase. The average rainfall in Henan Province reached its peak on 20 July (70.5 mm), but EN reached its peak on 21 July (15.6 $MJ \cdot ha^{-1}$). The average rainfall and

EN of Zhengzhou meteorological station reached the peak on 20 July, which were 552.5 mm and 144.2 MJ·ha⁻¹ respectively. The energy of Zhengzhou meteorological station on 20 July is 11 times of average energy in Henan Pprovince. Land vegetation, including forests, shrubs and grass, provide the important protection from the direct detachment of raindrops.

In summary, an extraordinarily heavy rainfall event occurred in Henan province between 20:00 on 16 July 2021 and 20:00 on 22 July 2021. Among them, the observations of Zhengzhou Meteorological Station show that the maximum event rainfall is 785.1 mm, the maximum daily rainfall is 552.5 mm, the maximum hourly rainfall intensity is 201.9 mm·h⁻¹ and the maximum event rainfall erosivity is 58,874 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹. The storm is initially concentrated in the southeast of Henan and Anhui provinces, and the rainfall and rainfall intensity reached the peak on 20 July. At the same time, the rainstorm center moved to the north of Henan province with Zhengzhou as the center of the rainstorm. The EN of Zhengzhou Meteorological Station reached 144.2 MJ·ha⁻¹ on 20 July. It can be seen that the “7.20” storm has the characteristics of long duration, heavy cumulative rainfall, a wide range of heavy rainfall, and extremely strong short-term rainfall. It is a particularly serious natural disaster that caused serious urban waterlogging, mountain floods, landslides and other disasters, resulting in heavy casualties and serious economic losses.

3.2 How extreme is the event recorded at Zhengzhou meteorological station?

3.2.1 Frequency of occurrence the maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity

Annual maximum daily rainfall erosivity and the annual maximum event rainfall erosivity in Zhengzhou meteorological station from 1951 to 2020 are shown in Fig. 6 along with fitted GEV-LP-III distribution. It can be seen from Fig. 6 & 7 that the LP-III GEV-distribution fits the maximum daily rainfall erosivity and the maximum event rainfall erosivity well. Using the fitted LP-III GEV-distribution, the average recurrence interval of the maximum daily rainfall erosivity of the “7.20” rainstorm is estimated to be about 1-in-109,07923,100 years, and the ratio of the observed daily erosivity (43,354 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹) over 1-in-100-year daily erosivity (4798-7551 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹) is 9.045.74. Similarly, the average recurrence interval of the maximum event rainfall erosivity is estimated to be about 1-in-154,15410,000 years, the observed event erosivity of the “7.20” rainstorm (58,874 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹) is 9.456.17 times larger than the 1-in-100-year event erosivity (62295449 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹). Based on the 95% confidence interval for the LP-III distribution, the estimated return period of the maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity is most likely to be at least 785 and 516 years. Evidently, compared with observations in the past decades (1951-2020), the maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity of the “7.20” rainstorm in 2021 is extraordinary, and the event is so rare and extreme that it should be regarded as an outlier among observations in other years.

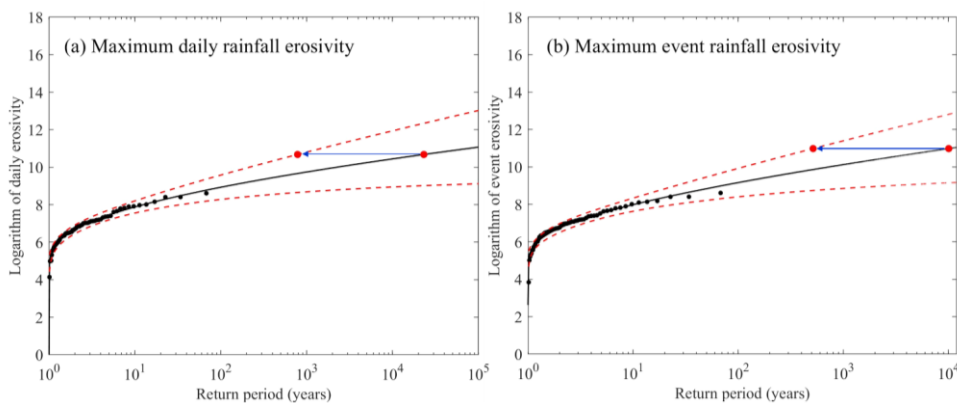


Figure 6. The logarithm of Observed-observed daily (a) and event (b) rainfall erosivity as a function of the empirically and-fitted return period at Zhengzhou meteorological station. Black solid circles are observations from the period 1951-2020, the red solid circles indicate the “7.20” storm in 2021, the red dotted line is the upper and lower limit of 95% confidence interval, and the solid lines in black represent the fitted P-III distribution using the logarithm of observations from 1951-2020, (black solid circles are observations from the period 1951-2020, the red solid circles indicate the “7.20” rainstorm in 2021, and the solid lines in black represent the fitted GEV distribution using observations from 1951-2020)

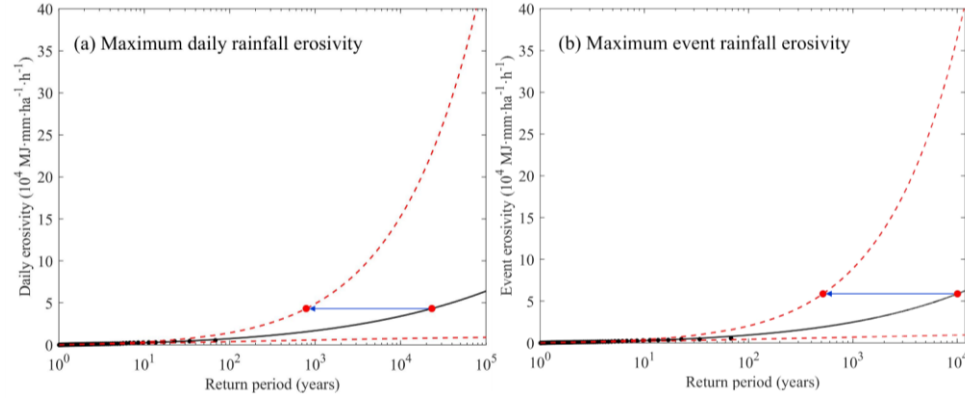


Figure 7. Observed daily (a) and event (b) rainfall erosivity as a function of the empirically fitted return period for Zhengzhou meteorological station (Perform anti-logarithm conversion for Fig. 6)

The map of the return period of maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity of the “7.20” storm in Henan province is shown in Fig. 8. Similar to Zhengzhou meteorological station, by fitting the LP-III distribution, the map of the return period of rainfall erosivity of “7.20” storm in the study area was drawn by fitting the LP-III distribution. The map shows that the return periods of daily (11 stations) and rainfall (16 stations) erosivity at some meteorological stations exceeded 1-in-100-year, mainly in the northern region of Henan province, with Zhengzhou meteorological station as the center of the “7.20” storm.

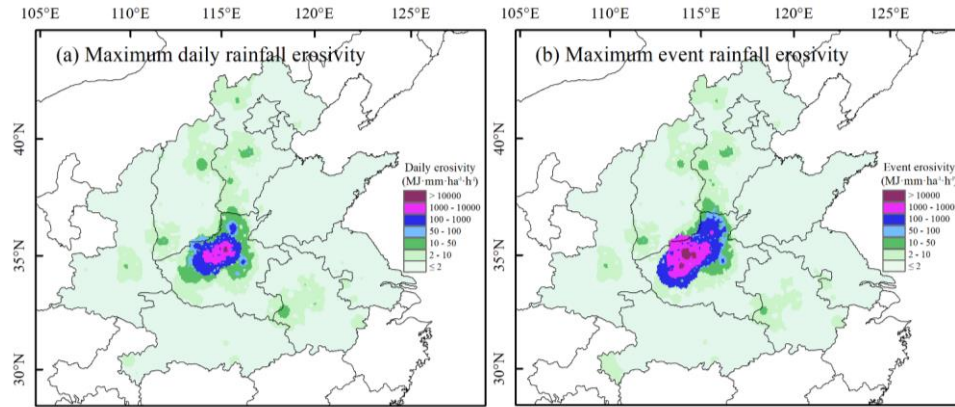


Figure 8. The return period of daily (a) and event (b) rainfall erosivity of the “7.20” storm in the study area.

3.2.2 Distribution of the maximum rainfall erosivity in different latitudes

Geographical distribution of the maximum daily rainfall erosivity ever recorded at each of 2420 meteorological stations in China is shown as a function of the latitude in Fig. 79. Envelope curves I and II are drawn for the scatter plot, and the stations and the corresponding daily rainfall and rainfall erosivity values that were used to define these envelope curves are given in

Table 2. The two envelope curves overlap at three stations at low latitude and one at high latitude, and the change from curve I to II in the middle latitude is entirely a result of the “7.20” rainstorm in 2021. Prior to the “7.20” rainstorm, curve I shows that the maximum recorded daily rainfall erosivity decreases from about 20°N as the latitude increases, and the maximum daily erosivity value was 39,345 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹, recorded Maoming meteorological station in Guangdong Province (21.75°N) on 5 June 2020. Post-Because of the “7.20” rainstorm, the maximum daily rainfall erosivity ever recorded was increased to 43,354 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹ or by more than 10 % at Zhengzhou meteorological station (34.72°N) on 20 July 2021.

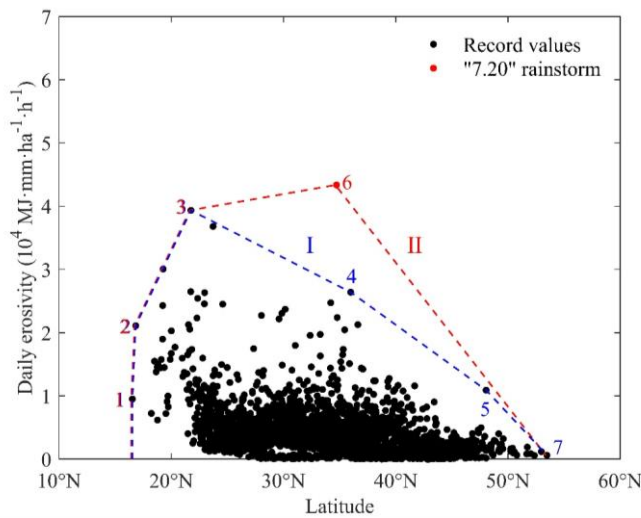


Figure 79. The maximum recorded daily rainfall erosivity as a function of latitude for China. The point enclosed by the envelope curve I is the maximum daily rainfall erosivity of each station from 1951 to 2020. The point enclosed by envelope curve II is the maximum daily rainfall erosivity of each station from 1951 to 2021.

Table 2. The mean annual rainfall, maximum daily rainfall and rainfall erosivity for stations to define envelope curves.

ID	Station ID	Station name	Latitude	Mean annual rainfall (mm)	Daily rainfall (mm)	Daily rainfall erosivity (MJ·mm·ha ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹)	Date	
								I
1	1	59985	Shanhu	16.53	1316.0	227.6	9512	1980-09-12
2	2	59981	Xisha	16.83	1467.9	585.6	21104	1995-09-05
3	3	59659	Maoming	21.75	1701.7	307.3	39345	2020-06-05
4		54848	Zhucheng	35.98	623.8	592	26398	1999-08-12
5		50658	Keshan	48.05	445.4	179.6	10909	1957-07-15
6		57083	Zhengzhou	34.72	566.7	552.5	43354	2021-07-20
7	7	50137	Beijicun	53.47	385.2	77.6	603	2010-07-31

Geographical distribution of the maximum event rainfall erosivity ever recorded at each of 2420 meteorological stations in China is shown as a function of the latitude in Fig. 810. Envelope curves I and II are drawn for the scatter plot, and the stations and the corresponding event rainfall and rainfall erosivity values that were used to define these envelope curves are given in Table. 3. The two envelope curves overlap at three stations at low latitude and one at high latitude, and the change from curve I to II in the middle latitude is entirely a result of the extreme “7.20” rainstorm in 2021. Prior to the “7.20” rainstorm, curve I shows that the maximum recorded event rainfall erosivity decreases from about 20°N as the latitude increases, and the maximum ever event erosivity value was 41,537 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹, recorded Maoming meteorological station in Guangdong Province (21.75°N) from 20:00 on 20 May 1987 to 18:00 on 22 May 1987. Post-Because of the “7.20” rainstorm, the

maximum event rainfall erosivity ever recorded was increased to 58,874 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹, or an increase of more than 40 % at Zhengzhou meteorological station (34.72°N) on 20 July 2021.

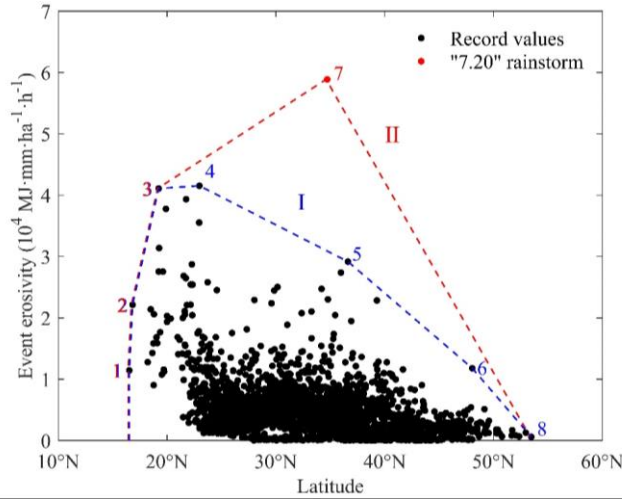


Figure 810. The maximum recorded event rainfall erosivity as a function of latitude for China. The point enclosed by the envelope curve I is the maximum event rainfall erosivity of each station from 1951 to 2020. The point enclosed by envelope curve II is the maximum event rainfall erosivity of each station from 1951 to 2021.

Table 3. The mean annual rainfall, maximum event rainfall and rainfall erosivity for stations to define envelope curves.

ID	Station ID	Station name	Latitude	Starting date and time	End date and time	Mean annual rainfall (mm)	Event rainfall (mm)	Event rainfall erosivity (MJ·mm·ha ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹)	
									I
1	1	59985	Shanhu	16.53	1980-09-11 11:00	1980-09-12 8:00	1316.0	288.2	11446
2	2	59981	Xisha	16.83	1995-09-05 8:00	1995-09-06 23:00	1467.9	625.5	22135
3	3	59855	Qionghai	19.23	2010-10-01 22:00	2010-10-08 15:00	2021.7	1433.3	41083
4		59500	Haifeng	22.97	1987-05-20 20:00	1987-05-22 18:00	2407.5	987.3	41537
5		53892	Handan	36.62	1963-08-03 3:00	1963-08-06 1:00	478.8	748.1	29174
6		50658	Keshan	48.05	1957-07-15 14:00	1957-07-15 24:00	445.4	199.5	11794
7		57083	Zhengzhou	34.72	2021-07-18 8:00	2021-07-21 10:00	566.7	785.1	58874
8		50137	Beijicun	53.47	2010-07-30 23:00	2010-07-31 14:00	385.2	77.6	603

A large number of studies have shown that the mean annual rainfall and rainfall erosivity, i.e. the R-factor, decrease from southeast to northwest in China (Yin et al., 2019; Yue et al., 2022), that is, the mean annual rainfall and rainfall erosivity *isare* the highest at low latitude in China. Like rainfall, the average rainfall intensity for given storm duration also tends to be high at low latitude, and low at high latitude in China (Kong et al., 2017 (Bureau of Hydrology et al., 2004)). Thus, one would expect that maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity tends to decrease with *the* latitude, a trend largely supported by the envelope curve I in Fig. 7-9 & 810. The “7.20” *rainstorm* may have fundamentally changed the nature and distribution of extreme daily and event erosivity in China as we knew them up to now. This is consistent with the research of Wang *et al. and Luo (20022006)*, and the *rainstorm* extreme value does not always conform to the pattern of decreasing from low latitude to high latitude. For

example, based on measured and surveyed rainfall records, the maximum 24-hour rainfall depth occurred at Linzhuang meteorological Station in Henan Province in the mid-latitude on 5–7 August 1975 (Ding, 2015; Wang et al., 2002). Occurrence of this “7.20” rainstorm event in 2021 around Zhengzhou has important implications. First, Figure 7–9 & 8–10 suggest that extreme event erosivity may be the highest in mid-latitude around 35°N despite the fact the mean annual rainfall and rainfall intensity are by no means the highest in mid-latitude in China. Second, the “7.20” rainstorm was so rare and freakish that the event was seemingly unrelated to the underlying climatology. Finally, the “7.20” rainstorm has led us to realize that such extreme erosive events could and may occur anywhere in eastern China with further implications for soil conservation planning.

4 Conclusions

This study assessed and evaluated the extreme rainfall events in Henan Province from 20:00 on 16 July 2021 to 20:00 on 22 July 2021, using hourly rainfall data from 796 stations in Henan and surrounding provinces. Based on hourly rainfall data of 2420 meteorological stations in China from 1951 to 2021, the annual maximum daily rainfall erosivity and the annual maximum event rainfall erosivity of Zhengzhou meteorological Station were fitted with the GEV-LP-III distribution to assess the magnitude and frequency of occurrence of this extreme event in terms of rainfall amount and erosivity values. The following conclusions can be drawn as follows:

(1) The maximum event rainfall (785.1 mm), maximum daily rainfall (552.5 mm), maximum hourly rainfall intensity (201.9 mm·h⁻¹) and maximum event rainfall erosivity (58,874 MJ·mm·ha⁻¹·h⁻¹) of “7.20” rainstorm all occurred and were recorded at Zhengzhou meteorological station. The period of the highest rainfall intensity was mainly concentrated in the middle and late stages of the storm, reaching its peak on 20 July, producing a daily total of 144.2 MJ·ha⁻¹ energy.

(2) Based on long-term observations in the past decades (for the period 1951–2020) and the fitted LP-III-GEV distribution, the “7.20” rainstorm was estimated to have an average recurrence interval in excess of 10,000 years, and the annual maximum daily and event rainfall erosivity were about 10–six times larger than 1-in-100-year erosivity values.

(3) This extreme event recorded at the Zhengzhou meteorological station has set a new record for daily and event rainfall erosivity values in mainland China. The “7.20” rainstorm in 2021 was so rare and freakish, and suggested to us that extreme erosive events could and may occur anywhere in eastern China, rather than in low latitude with high rainfall amount and rainfall intensity as we previously knew and expected.

Author contributions. ~~Not applicable. Observed hourly rainfall data from National Meteorological Information Center of the China Meteorological Administration (NMIC, <http://data.cma.cn>).~~

Author contributions. Y Xiao, S Yin and B Yu conceived and designed this study, developed the concepts of the manuscript. Y Xiao undertook data analysis and interpretation, prepared all the diagrams, and drafted the manuscript, conducted calculations and visualization, and wrote the first draft. S Yin and B Yu guided data analysis and interpretation, did methodology, review and editing. All authors reviewed and edited the manuscript. C Fan, W Wang and Y Xie did the review and editing.

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

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