

1 Article

2 Multi-Indicator Evaluation of Extreme Precipitation 3 Events in the Past 60 Years over the Loess Plateau 4 Based on Copula method

5 C.X. Sun ¹, G.H. Huang ^{2,*} and Y. Fan ³

6 ¹ Institute for Energy, Environment and Sustainability Research, UR-NCEPU, North China Electric Power
7 University, Beijing 102206, China

8 ² Center for Energy, Environment and Ecology Research, UR-BNU, Beijing Normal University, Beijing
9 100875, China

10 ³ College of Engineering, Design and Physical Sciences, Brunel University, London, Uxbridge, Middlesex,
11 UB8 3PH, United Kingdom

12 * Correspondence: G.H. Huang, Tel: +13065854095; Fax: +13063373205; Email: huang@iseis.org

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14 **Abstract:** The unique characteristics of topography, landforms and climate in the Loess Plateau
15 make it especially important to investigate its extreme precipitation characteristics. Daily
16 precipitation data of Loess Plateau covering a period of 1959–2017 are applied to evaluate the
17 probability features of five precipitation indicators: The amount of extreme heavy precipitation
18 (P95), the days with extreme heavy precipitation, the intensity of extreme heavy precipitation (I95),
19 the continuous dry days and the annual total precipitation. In addition, the joint risk of different
20 combinations of precipitation indices is quantitatively evaluated based on the copula method.
21 Moreover, the risk and severity of each extreme heavy precipitation factor corresponding to 50-year
22 joint return period are achieved through inverse derivation process. Results show that the
23 precipitation amount and intensity of the Loess Plateau vary greatly in spatial distribution. The
24 annual precipitation in the northwest region may be too concentrated in several rainstorms, which
25 makes the region in a serious drought state for most of the year. At the level of 10-year return period,
26 more than five months with no precipitation events would occur in the Northwest Loess Plateau.
27 While P95 or I95 event of 100-year level may be encountered in 50-year return period and in the
28 southeastern region, which means there are foreseeable long-term extreme heavy precipitation
29 events.

30 **Keywords:** Loess Plateau; Extreme Precipitation; Joint Risk; Copula

31

32 1. Introduction

33 In the past half century, extreme precipitation events have increased remarkably and may be
34 more frequent and severe over the mid-latitudes in the context of global warming [1,2,3]. Extreme
35 precipitation events contain extreme strong precipitation and extreme weak precipitation. Large
36 amounts of precipitation due to heavy precipitation can converge rapidly in steep slope areas, which
37 often bring floods, mudslides and other secondary disasters [4]. Extreme weak precipitation is the
38 occurrence of no precipitation or very little precipitation for a long time, which can cause long-term
39 droughts to the region. Both extreme heavy rainfall and drought events can cause severe agricultural,

40 environmental and socio-economic losses and may pose a serious threat to human life. Therefore, it
41 is very valuable to address the extreme precipitation, identify the areas where floods and droughts
42 may occur, and reveal their occurrence rules. All these efforts can provide priceless support for
43 reasonable disaster mitigation measures and water resources management [5,6].

44 Recently, properties of extreme precipitation have been extensively explored in many places of
45 the world. The commonly used techniques to identify the extreme precipitation events are the
46 absolute threshold method and the percentile method, in which the extreme precipitation events are
47 identified by a fixed value and a certain percentile value of precipitation sequence, respectively [7,8,9].
48 In general, many research studies analyzed the spatial and temporal differences in terms of number
49 of days with extreme precipitation, the amount of extreme precipitation and extreme precipitation
50 intensity [7,10,11]. These studies can reveal the features of single precipitation factors and also
51 indicate that extreme precipitation events are affected by many indicators [11]. However, traditional
52 approaches are generally subjective and cannot quantitatively assess the risk of extreme precipitation.
53 In addition, the correlated features of different extreme precipitation indicators are often ignored.
54 Therefore, it is necessary to explore the relationship between the representative combinations of
55 extreme precipitation factors, identify their characteristics and quantitatively evaluate their
56 individual and joint risks.

57 The joint behavior of different risk indicators has been paid widespread attention and studied
58 in various fields, especially in hydrology [12-15]. As a powerful multi-dimensional statistical analysis
59 method, copulas have a wide range of applications in various fields and are commonly used to assess
60 the joint probabilistic behaviors of hydrological or meteorological features in hydrometeorological
61 studies [16-18]. The copula function permits modeling the individual behaviors and dependence
62 structures separately and the marginal distributions of individual indicators do not need to be unified
63 [11]. The joint probability distributions of different risk indicators and the joint return periods of
64 extreme events at different severity are often presented as quantitative risk assessment results [19,20].
65 However, by giving fixed extreme indicator values of certain recurrence periods, the obtained joint
66 return periods based on copulas ways tend to be too small or too large [21,22]. Smaller ones do not
67 accurately reflect the severity of the incident, while too large values, such as the joint recurrence
68 period of hundreds of years or even thousands of years, make the results meaningless. In addition,
69 an extremely large joint return period also indicates that this event is too close to the tail of the joint
70 distribution, which makes the calculation results unreliable. Therefore, it is desirable to obtain the
71 severity of the event under a large joint recurrence period within a reasonable range, so that the
72 severity of the extreme event can be accurately assessed while ensuring that the assessment results
73 are credible. This prompted us to propose a climate risk assessment framework, using copula-based
74 methods to reveal the intrinsic characteristics of variables and establish a reverse calculation process
75 to evaluate the severity of indicators given the joint return period of interest.

76 Being located in the north central part of China, the Loess Plateau is selected as the research area
77 because of its several unique characteristics: First, the topography of the Loess Plateau is complex,
78 which is characterized by steep slopes, high mountains, and crisscross network of ravines with the
79 extreme heavy precipitation rapidly converging [23,24]. Second, the spatial distribution of
80 precipitation on the Loess Plateau is severely uneven and the climate changes from arid to semi
81 humid along the direction of the northwest-southeast [24]. In addition, the trend of the topography
82 shows a decline from the northwest to the southeast, which makes water resources more unbalanced
83 in this region. The study of the extreme precipitation characteristics over the Loess Plateau is
84 particularly helpful to analyze the risk of drought and flood in this area. Third, being covered by the
85 largest loess layer in the world, the thick and loose loess has made this region the world's most severe
86 soil erosion area, and soil erosion caused by a strong storm can account for 60-90% of soil erosion
87 throughout the year [24,25,26]. All these reasons above make it necessary to analysis the features of
88 extreme precipitation in this area.

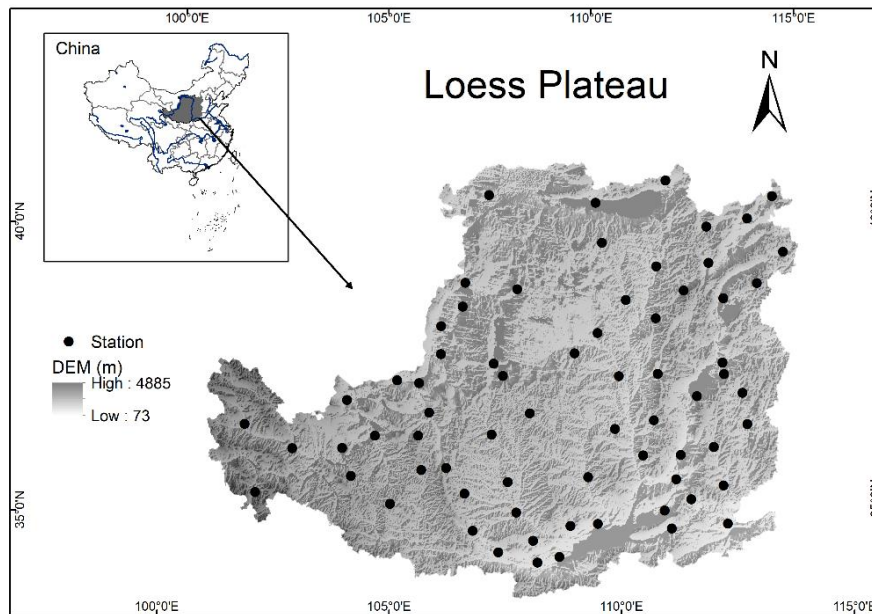
89 The purpose of this paper is to quantitatively evaluate the joint risk of multiple extreme
90 precipitation indicators in the Loess Plateau and make a comprehensive description of the multi-type
91 risks. In order to achieve this goal, different marginal distribution functions are employed to fit the
92 distributions of the extreme precipitation indicators and different copulas are applied to establish
93 their joint probability distributions. The risk of single indicators and multiple indicator combinations
94 at different severity levels are quantitatively evaluated. The risk and severity of each extreme heavy
95 precipitation index are obtained through inverse derivation process from a reasonable given joint
96 return period of interest.

97 2. Study Area and Data

98 The Loess Plateau is located in the north central part of China (as shown in Figure 1), with a total
99 area of about 6.4×10^5 km² [24]. In terms of topography, most areas of the hilly-gullied Loess Plateau
100 are between 1000-1500 m above sea level [27]. The overall trend of the topography over the Loess
101 Plateau is mainly characterized by a wavy decline from the northwest to the southeast. In terms of
102 landforms, except for a few stony mountainous, the Loess Plateau has the most widely distributed
103 loess landform. The thickness of loess is generally between 50 and 80 meters, and the maximum
104 thickness part is 150 to 180 meters. The slope terrain with loose structure and low vegetation coverage
105 make the soil erosion intensive and the ecological environment fragile.

106 Being located on the edge of the warm temperate monsoon climate zone and affected by the
107 semi-arid continental monsoon climate, the Loess Plateau is cold and dry in winter, and warm and
108 rainy in summer. From southeast to northwest, the Loess Plateau would experience warm temperate
109 semi-humid climates, semi-arid climates and arid climates in turn. The average annual temperature
110 of the Loess Plateau is 8-14 °C, and the annual precipitation is 600-800 mm of which more than 60%
111 is concentrated in July-September [28]. The average relative variability of annual precipitation is
112 between 20-30%, the total amount of precipitation in the wet years may be several times or even
113 dozens of times of the total precipitation in the dry years. The quantity of precipitation throughout
114 seasons is uneven, the precipitation in winter would generally accounting for only 3-5% of the total
115 annual precipitation, and the precipitation in summer and autumn would account for 60-80% of the
116 total annual precipitation.

117 The time series of daily precipitation data for 69 weather stations across the Loess Plateau
118 (Figure 1) are obtained from the China Meteorological Administration (<http://cdc.cma.gov.cn>),
119 covering the period from 1959 to 2017. The spatial distribution of the selected stations is relatively
120 uniform, and the obtained data have been checked for homogeneity based on Relative Homogeneity
121 test [29]. Missing data, especially in rainy season, would affect the calculation of extreme precipitation
122 indexes. The ratio of missing precipitation data in rainy season of July-September over all stations is
123 from 0.07% to 0.5%, with an average of 0.21%. The missing data are replaced by average precipitation
124 of adjacent stations, and thus the calculation of extreme indexes in this study would be very little
125 affected [30]. The days with precipitation < 1 mm are considered as no-rain days and the days with
126 precipitation ≥ 1 mm are considered as rainy days.



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Figure 1. Geographical location and 69 meteorological stations of the Loess Plateau.

129 3. Method

130 3.1. Marginal distribution and univariate return period

131 To quantify the probabilistic feature for a particular random variable, on account of the selection
 132 criteria, the marginal distribution is usually constructed by choosing the best fitted distribution
 133 among a set of pre-assigned distributions such as Pearson type III (P3), lognormal (LN), Log Pearson
 134 type III (LP III) [20,31]. In this study, the general extreme value (GEV) distribution, Gamma, P3, LN,
 135 LP III and Weibull distributions are the candidate models which are applied to quantify the
 136 probabilistic characteristics for different extreme precipitation indicators. The unknown marginal
 137 distribution parameters are estimated through the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method.
 138 The root mean square error (RMSE), Kolomogorov-Smirnov (KS) test and Akaike's information
 139 criteria (AIC, [32]) are used for testing and selecting the best fitted marginal distribution among the
 140 pre-assigned marginal distributions. The AIC and RMSE can be obtained as follows

$$141 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N (x_i^e - x_i^o)^2 \\ AIC = N * \log(MSE) + 2k \\ RMSE = \sqrt{MSE} \end{array} \right. \quad (1)$$

142 where MSE is the mean square error, N is the length of the random variable; k represents the number
 143 of the unknown parameters in the distribution models; x_i^e denote the theoretical values obtained
 144 from the fitted distribution; x_i^o stands for the non-exceedance probabilities derived from the
 145 Gringorten plotting position formula [33] which is expressed as:

$$146 P(L \leq l) = \frac{l - 0.44}{N + 0.12} \quad (2)$$

147 where l stands for the l th smallest observation and the observations are arranged in an ascending
 148 order.

149 Once the marginal distributions are fitted for the extreme precipitation indicators, the risk of
 150 extreme precipitation indices can be quantitatively assessed based on the univariate return period
 151 (RP). The RP of an extreme precipitation index is described as the time between two consecutive
 152 events. The formula of single variable return period that used in this study is shown as:

$$153 \quad \begin{cases} T_1 = \frac{1}{1 - F(x)} \\ T_2 = \frac{1}{F(x)} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

154 where $F(x)$ is the cumulative distribution functions (CDF) of precipitation indicator and ranges
 155 between 0 and 1; T_1/T_2 represents the RP of precipitation indicator with value greater/less than or
 156 equal to a certain value of x .

157 3.2. Construction of joint distribution of extreme precipitation indicators

158 In reality, precipitation events tend to show diverse characteristics, which are described by
 159 different indicators. Also, these indicators of precipitation always have correlation in different
 160 degrees. The separated analysis of multiple indicators often can neither reveal the correlation among
 161 them, nor quantify the joint risk of the correlated indicators. In this study, copula functions are
 162 considered to build interdependence relationships between different precipitation indicators. The
 163 copulas are powerful techniques which can flexibly construct multivariate joint distribution based on
 164 the marginal distributions of related variables. Based on the theory of copula function proposed by
 165 Sklar [34], the joint probability distribution of two correlated random variables can be expressed as
 166 [35]:

$$167 \quad F(x, y) = C(F_x(x), F_y(y)) \quad (4)$$

168 where x, y are the values of random variables X and Y , respectively; F_x and F_y refer to marginal CDFs
 169 of the random vector (X, Y) . A copula function C exists when the marginal distributions are
 170 continuous and it can be expressed as [36]:

$$171 \quad C(u, v) = F(F^{-1}(u), F^{-1}(v)) \quad (5)$$

172 where $u = F(x)$ and $v = F(y)$, ($u, v \in [0, 1]$). Nelsen [35] gives more details on the characteristics of
 173 copulas.

174 Many copula families, including elliptical, Archimedean, and extreme value copulas can be
 175 applied in practical multivariate analysis. The well-known Gaussian copula, t copula which belong
 176 to elliptical family and four Archimedean copulas (Joe, Gumbel, Clayton, and Frank) are adopted in
 177 this study [37]. These copulas are employed due to their capabilities of capturing various kind of
 178 dependence structures. In case of the precipitation indicators, different precipitation indices show
 179 distinct relationships (positively or negatively correlated) and the chosen copulas are able to reflect
 180 these complex interrelationships [21]. The parameters of copula functions are estimated through the
 181 MLE approach. The KS test, AIC and RMSE measures are then used for testing and selecting the best
 182 fitted copula.

183 3.3. Bivariate return periods of extreme precipitation indicators

184 The mathematical calculation of RP for single variable is given in Equation 3, which is used to
 185 calculate the theoretical recurrence time periods for each precipitation index corresponding to
 186 different severity. For multiple correlated variables, once the marginal distributions and joint
 187 distributions are obtained, the joint RPs can be estimated based on the different combination types of
 188 the variables. Salvadori and de Michele [38] have introduced and discussed the concept of bivariate

189 RPs. In this study, the following three kinds of joint RPs are investigated for different combinations
 190 of correlated variables:

$$191 \quad T_{\{X>x, Y>y\}} = \frac{1}{P(X > x, Y > y)} = \frac{1}{1 - F(x) - F(y) + F(x, y)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - u - v + C(u, v)} \quad (6)$$

$$192 \quad T_{\{X>x \text{ or } Y>y\}} = \frac{1}{P(X > x \text{ or } Y > y)} = \frac{1}{1 - F(x, y)} = \frac{1}{1 - C(u, v)} \quad (7)$$

$$193 \quad T_{\{X>x, Y \leq y\}} = \frac{1}{P(X > x, Y \leq y)} = \frac{1}{F(y) - F(x, y)} = \frac{1}{v - C(u, v)} \quad (8)$$

194 where $T_{\{X>x, Y>y\}}$ represents the bivariate RP when both X and Y exceeding the specific values (i.e.
 195 $X \geq x$ and $Y \geq y$); $T_{\{X>x \text{ or } Y \geq y\}}$ denotes the RP with X exceeding the threshold of x or Y exceeding the
 196 threshold of y . $T_{\{X>x, Y \leq y\}}$ represents the joint RP of the event that X is higher than a certain threshold
 197 x and Y is smaller than and equal to a certain value y .

198 It is worthy to notice that previous studies have often calculated the joint risk using specific
 199 values of marginal CDFs and thus the calculated joint RPs of all stations in the region are often too
 200 small or too large. Excessive return periods often indicate that the critical events under current
 201 selected severity are extremely unlikely to happen or the results are not credible because the CDF
 202 values are too close to the tail. Although a very small bivariate RP indicates that the event is at a high
 203 risk of joint occurrence, it cannot provide the severity of the event corresponding to a larger joint
 204 recurrence period within a reasonable range, and thus may underestimate the severity of the joint
 205 risk. In this case, the severity of the event should be quantitatively estimated under a selected joint
 206 return period. Here the inverse calculation processes corresponding to Equation 6-8 are respectively
 207 shown as:

$$208 \quad u + v - C(u, v) = 1 - \frac{1}{T_{\{X>x, Y>y\}}} \quad (9)$$

$$209 \quad C(u, v) = 1 - \frac{1}{T_{\{X>x \text{ or } Y>y\}}} \quad (10)$$

$$210 \quad v - C(u, v) = \frac{1}{T_{\{X>x, Y \leq y\}}} \quad (11)$$

211 As can be seen from the formulas above, in the case when the joint RPs are known, the right side of
 212 the formulas can be known and infinite combinations of u and v can then be obtained. In the case the
 213 univariate return periods are set equal to each other, the fixed marginal CDF values can be derived
 214 based on golden section search and parabolic interpolation method [39]. The univariate return period
 215 and the specific variable values corresponding to the marginal distributions can then be calculated.

216 4. Method Application and Results Analyses

217 To quantify the multiple characteristics of extreme precipitation in the study area, a set of
 218 suitable indices are desired. Many candidate extreme precipitation indices have been used in the past
 219 research works [40]. Considering the fact that precipitation in the Loess Plateau is generally low but
 220 concentrated in the rainy season, the selected indicator set is expected to contain both indices that
 221 could describe the severity of drought and indices that could reflect extreme heavy rainfall. For the
 222 objective of this, the potential indices of the amount of extreme heavy precipitation (P95), the days

223 with extreme precipitation (D95) and the intensity of extreme heavy precipitation (I95) are used to
 224 reflect extreme heavy rainfall. The continuous dry days (CDD) would be selected as the index to
 225 reflect the degree of drought. In addition, the annual total precipitation PRTOT is also chosen because
 226 it can flexibly reflect the degree of drought and humidity of the climate. These chosen indicators have
 227 been widely used in the study of precipitation extremes. Detailed definitions of the five precipitation
 228 indices are shown in Table 1.

229 **Table 1.** Definitions of five precipitation indices that used in the study.

Indices	Abbreviations	Definitions	Unit
PRTOT	PRTOT	The amount of annual total precipitation	mm
Number of extreme heavy precipitation days	D95	Number of days with precipitation exceeding the 95 th percentile of precipitation series (daily precipitation ≥ 1 mm) during 1971–2000.	days
The amount of extreme heavy precipitation	P95	Annual total amount of precipitation with daily precipitation exceeding the 95 th percentile of precipitation series during 1971–2000	mm
The intensity of extreme heavy precipitation	I95	Mean daily precipitation intensity of extreme heavy precipitation	mm/day
Consecutive dry days	CDD	Maximum number of consecutive dry days (days with precipitation < 1 mm)	days

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231 4.1. Univariate analysis

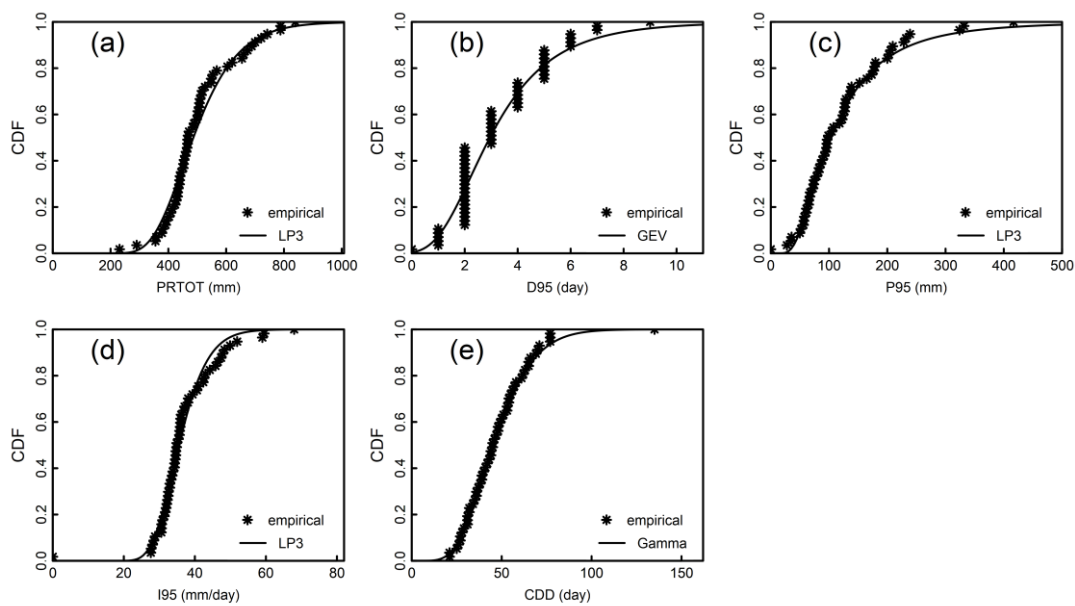
232 After calculating the results of the five selected precipitation indices for each station, the
 233 marginal distributions of those precipitation indices would be constructed. Taking Qindu station as
 234 an example, the best fitted marginal distributions for the five indices, including the parameter values
 235 of each fitted distribution, KS test results, RMSE and AIC values are shown in Table 2. It can be seen
 236 from the table that PRTOT, P95 and D95 are all fitted by the LP III distribution, I95 is fitted with GEV
 237 distribution, and gamma distribution is more suitable for CDD index. From the p values of KS test
 238 results, it can be concluded that all fitted distributions prove to be effective in describing the
 239 probabilistic features of the indicators (with $p > 0.05$). The graph-based verification method is used:
 240 Figure 2 compares the theoretical cumulative probability distribution to the empirical cumulative
 241 probability distribution for each indicator. This figure shows that the fitted CDF curves of the five
 242 indexes are very close to the observed values. For some indicators, we focus on the analysis of their
 243 upper tail performance (the top right end of the curve), such as I95, D95, P95, and CDD, because the
 244 closer the corresponding events of these indicators are to the upper tail end, the more serious these
 245 events are. PRTOT is a comprehensive evaluation index. The events close to the upper tail indicate
 246 that the annual precipitation is abundant, while the events close to the lower tail indicate that the
 247 annual precipitation is less. However, each fitting distribution performs well in the tail of interest,
 248 which shows that the risk inference results of extreme cases (high recurrence time period events)
 249 according to different indicators in the study are reliable.

250 **Table 2.** Statistical test results for marginal distribution of five precipitation indices of Qindu station.

Indices	Marginal distribution	a	b	α	K-S test		RMSE	AIC
					T	P-value		
PRTOT	LP III	118.81	44.46	3.52	0.10	0.63	0.0458	-339.14
D95	GEV	0.11	1.52	2.38	0.17	0.10	0.0655	-299.34
P95	LP III	26.73	8.47	1.53	0.05	0.99	0.0194	-435.49
I95	LP III	163.79	72.20	1.31	0.11	0.53	0.0485	-332.81
CDD	Gamma	7.59	0.16	–	0.05	0.99	0.0521	-471.51

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Notes: Parameters of marginal distribution functions: For LP III and GEV distributions, a, b and α represent the shape, scale and location parameter, respectively; For Gamma distribution, a and b indicate the shape and rate parameter, respectively.

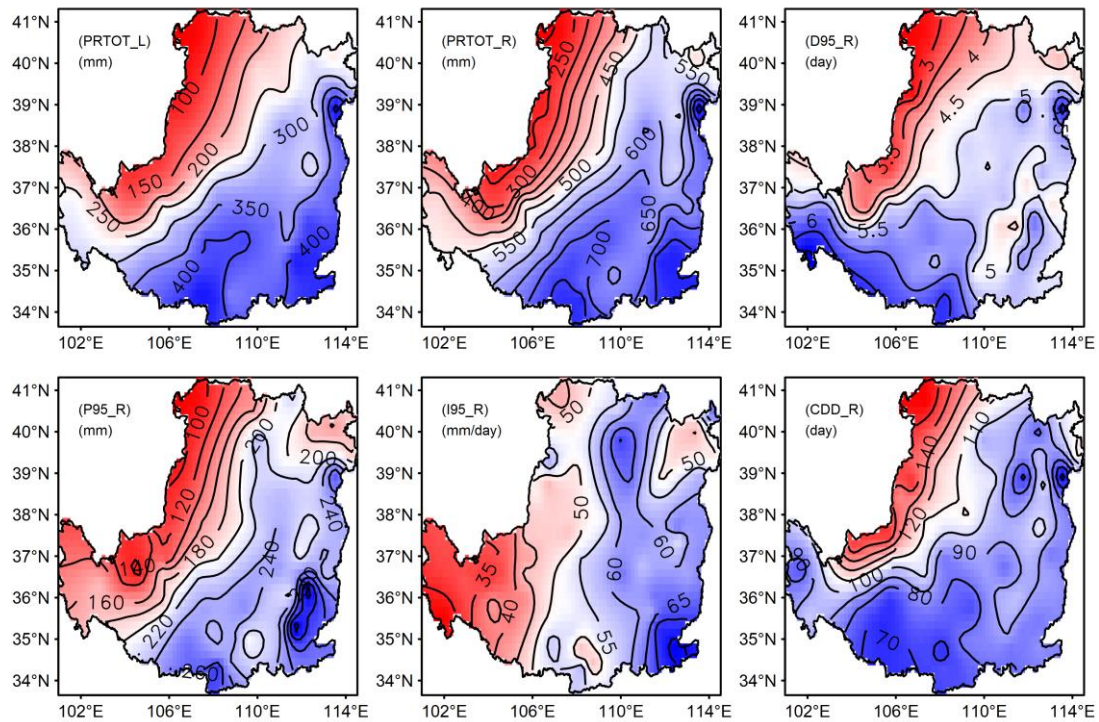


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Figure 2. Comparison of the empirical distributions and best fitting distributions for five precipitation indices in Qindu station.

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Since the event with indicator at the upper tail (i.e. the event with indicator $X > x$) is located at the right tail of cumulative probability distribution, we mark it as the form of X_R . For the corresponding indices of I95, D95, P95, and CDD, they are marked as I95_R, D95_R, P95_R, and CDD_R, respectively. While the events of the PRTOT indicator at the upper and lower tail (i.e. the events with index $X \leq x$) are separately marked as PRTOT_R and PRTOT_L. After getting the fitted marginal distributions of all indices, the recurrence information of each indicator upon different tails can be obtained based on the Equation 3. Given the specific return period value, the corresponding indicator value can also be calculated. Taking the 10-year return period as an example, the values of the 6 indices for all stations corresponding to events of PRTOT_R, PRTOT_L, I95_R, D95_R, P95_R and CDD_R are estimated.



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Figure 3. The values of 6 marked indexes at 10-year return period over the the Loess Plateau.

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Figure 3 shows the computational results of 6 marked indices at 10-year return period over the Loess Plateau in the form of interpolation maps with contour lines. The color gradients are utilized to visually distinguish the differences of each indicator in different regions. Due to the spatial transition characteristics of precipitation over the Loess Plateau, Figure 3a-e shows a gradient increasing trend from northwest to southeast in the Loess Plateau, while Figure 3f (CDD_R) shows a gradient decreasing trend. The differences of 10-year return period values between PRTOT_R and PRTOT_L vary greatly, which shows a range of 127-373 mm at different stations and an average difference of 265 mm over the whole region. The PRTOT_R in the arid area can even reach 3.03 times higher than PRTOT_L. The comparison of P95_R and PRTOT_L shows that the extreme rainfall in wet year is only slightly lower than the annual precipitation in the dry year. The minimum value of I95_R appears in the high mountain area of the southwestern Loess Plateau, while in the northwest region with the least annual precipitation, the I95_R is merely slightly lower than the southeast region with the most precipitation. In addition, the value of D95_R in the northwest region is very low, which indicates that the annual precipitation in Northwest China may be highly concentrated in several heavy rainfall events and makes the region into severe drought for most of the year. This conclusion can also be obtained from the performance of CDD_R in this area, the duration of continuous drought of 10-year return period can even reach 160 days.

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Table 3. The indicator combinations with their definitions.

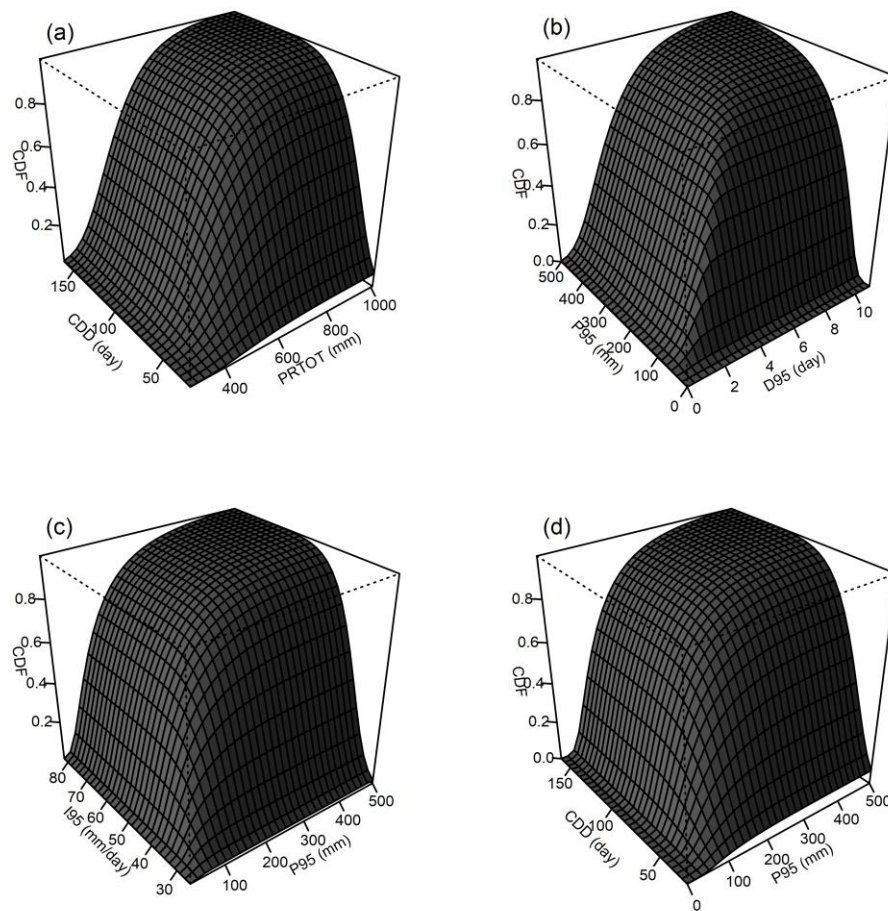
ID	Combinations	Return periods (years)	Variables (X, Y)
1	{PRTOT_L, CDD_R}	$T_{\{X \leq x \text{ and } Y > y\}}$	PRTOT, CDD
2	{PRTOT_R, CDD_R}	$T_{\{X > x \text{ and } Y > y\}}$	PRTOT, CDD
3	{D95_R, P95_R}	$T_{\{X > x \text{ and } Y > y\}}$	D95, P95
4	{P95_R, I95_R}	$T_{\{X > x \text{ and } Y > y\}}$	P95, I95
5	{P95_R or I95_R}	$T_{\{X > x \text{ or } Y > y\}}$	P95, I95
6	{P95_R, CDD_R}	$T_{\{X > x \text{ and } Y > y\}}$	P95, CDD

288 *4.2. Bivariate Analysis*

289 The combined events of X and Y are denoted as {X, Y} and {X or Y}, which respectively represents
 290 the concurrence of X and Y events, and the occurrence of X or Y event. The recurrence periods of the
 291 two combinations are labeled as $T_{\{X, Y\}}$ and $T_{\{X \text{ or } Y\}}$, respectively. For the five climate indicators, the joint
 292 performance of six combinations are studied, namely {PRTOT_L, CDD_R}, {PRTOT_R, CDD_R},
 293 {D95_R, P95_R}, {P95_R, I95_R}, {P95_R or I95_R} and {P95_R, CDD_R}. The definitions of joint RPs
 294 of precipitation indicators are listed in Table 3. $T_{\{PRTOT_L, CDD_R\}}$ indicates the joint return period of
 295 PRTOT less than and equal to a specific value and CDD exceed its specific threshold, which means a
 296 long period of continuous drought appears in a dry year. $T_{\{PRTOT_R, CDD_R\}}$ denotes the joint RP of long-
 297 term continuous drought occurs even when the annual precipitation is sufficient, indicating
 298 consecutive PRTOT and CDD exceed their specific thresholds simultaneously. {D95_R, P95_R}
 299 indicates a strong precipitation event with the precipitation amount and precipitation duration
 300 exceed their specific thresholds. {P95_R, I95_R} / $T_{\{P95_R \mid I95_R\}}$ signifies an extreme heavy
 301 precipitation event in which precipitation and / or precipitation intensity exceeds the thresholds. As
 302 a combination of extreme heavy precipitation and continuous drying indicators, {P95_R, CDD_R}
 303 implies the concurrence of floods and droughts in the same year.

304 It can be seen from Table 3 that although joint RPs of six indicator combinations are going to be
 305 addressed, only the joint probability distributions of four combinations need to be quantified, namely
 306 {PRTOT, CDD}, {D95, P95}, {P95, I95}, and {P95, CDD} (see last column). By using the best fitted
 307 marginal distribution functions, the joint probability distributions of four combinations can then be
 308 obtained by copulas. The KS test and the indices of RMSE, AIC are also applied to select the best
 309 performed copulas for different indicator combinations. Four bivariate CDF graphics based on the
 310 best fitted copulas at Qindu Station are presented in Figure 4. The numerical variation ranges of the
 311 two indicators for each combination is given on the x-axis and the y-axis, and the [0, 1] interval of the
 312 joint CDF is given on the z-axis.

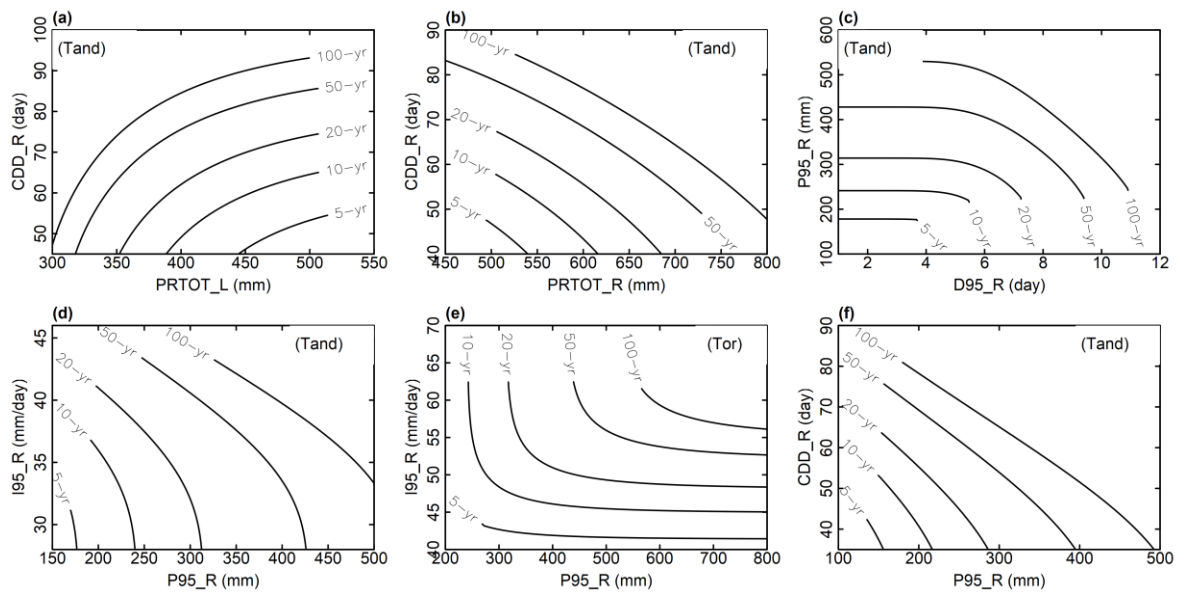
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315 **Figure 4.** Joint CDFs based on the best fitted copulas for four indicator combinations of
 316 {PRTOT,CDD},{D95, P95}, {P95, I95}, and {P95, CDD} at Qindu Station.

317 According to Equations (6)-(8), the value of return period is determined by two dependent
 318 variables, and thus it is possible to get the same return period value with different combinations of
 319 the variables. Figure 5 shows the contour maps of the joint return period of 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 years
 320 under different combinations of six precipitation indicators. We can quantitatively reflect the joint
 321 risk of simultaneous occurrence of different precipitation extremes corresponding to their numerical
 322 combinations. Each index gradually tends to be less likely to occur along the direction of increasing
 323 joint return period, that is, the return period of single variable in this direction also gradually
 324 increases. It can be seen from the figure that the contour line of recurrence period presents three
 325 different forms: Figure 5a is obtained by Equation (8), and the joint recurrence period gradually
 326 increases in the direction in which the PRTOT tends to the lower tail and the CDD tends to the upper
 327 tail. Figure 5(b-d and f) are achieved through the Equation (6) and the joint RP of each group would
 328 gradually increase in the direction of the upward tail of both variables. Figure 5e is obtained from
 329 Equation (7). Compared with Figure 4, it can be seen that for two climate indicators with same
 330 numerical combination, Figure 5e always shows a smaller return period, that is, the events with
 331 relationship of 'or' is more likely to occur.



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Figure 5. The joint return period of 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 years under different combinations of six climate indicators.

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Figure 6 shows the joint RPs of each combination group under the condition of given 10-year return periods for two single indicators (corresponding to Figure 3). Figure (6a) to Figure (6f) respectively denote the six combinations of ID1-ID6 in Table 3 and the values of the recurrence periods vary directly proportional to the size of the solid circles in the figure. By comparing the joint return periods of Figure 6a with Figure 6b, it can be seen that the return period values of Figure 6b are always larger (58.5 years larger on average) than that of Figure 6a. The results of the study area as a whole are consistent with our general perception that wet years are less prone to prolonged continuous drought. It is worthy to notice that there are still 17 stations with $T_{\{PRTOT_L, CDD_R\}}$ larger than $T_{\{PRTOT_R, CDD_R\}}$. This is because the annual precipitation of these stations is more concentrated in few extreme precipitation events, and CDD is less affected by the annual precipitation, and thus the two precipitation indicators even show a certain degree of negative correlation.

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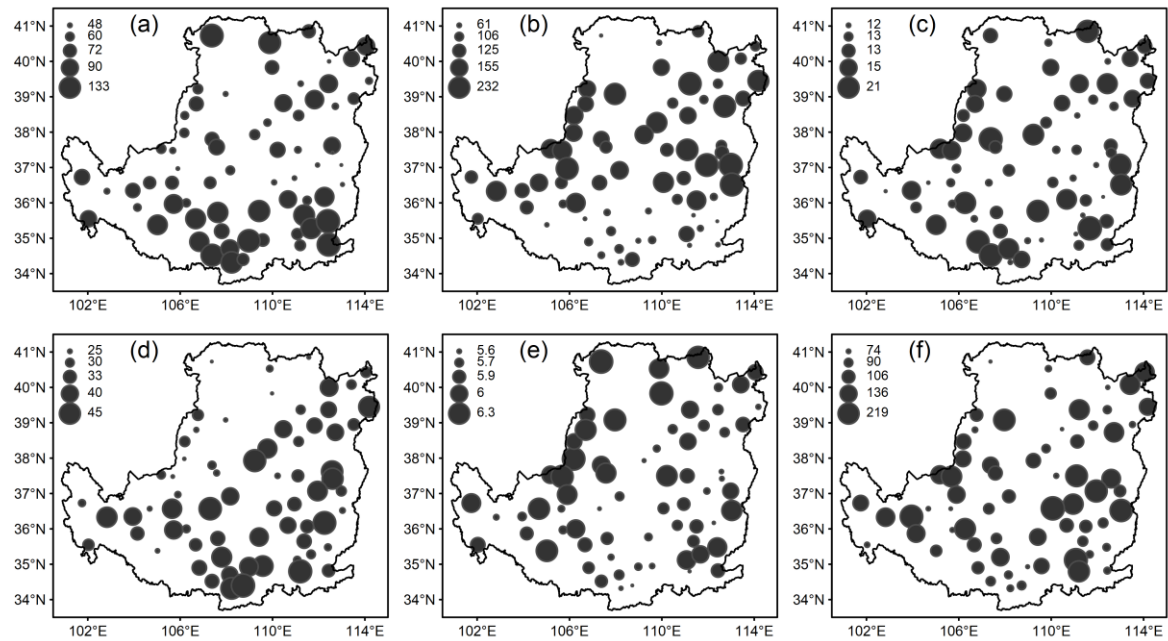
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From the spatial distribution of RPs, the size of the circles in Figure 6a and Figure 6b in the whole region is basically opposite, which means that the events of $\{PRTOT_L, CDD_R\}$ are hard to happen at the stations where the events of $\{PRTOT_R, CDD_R\}$ are relatively easy to occur. The spatial distribution of circles of different sizes in Figure 6f is similar to that in Figure 6b, that is, the events of $\{PRTOT_R, CDD_R\}$ and $\{P95_R, CDD_R\}$ show some degree of convergence. This is because the annual precipitation for this condition is too concentrated. Figure 6(c-e) show the joint return periods of different combinations of the three extreme heavy precipitation indicators. The corresponding joint return periods are all relatively smaller than other combinations, which is because the three indicators are strongly correlated.



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Figure 6. The joint returns periods of each combination group under the condition of 10-year return periods of two single indicators. Figure 6 a-e represent six combinations of events: {PRTOT_L, CDD_R}, {PRTOT_R, CDD_R}, {D95_R, P95_R}, {P95_R, I95_R}, {P95_R or I95_R} and {P95_R, CDD_R}.

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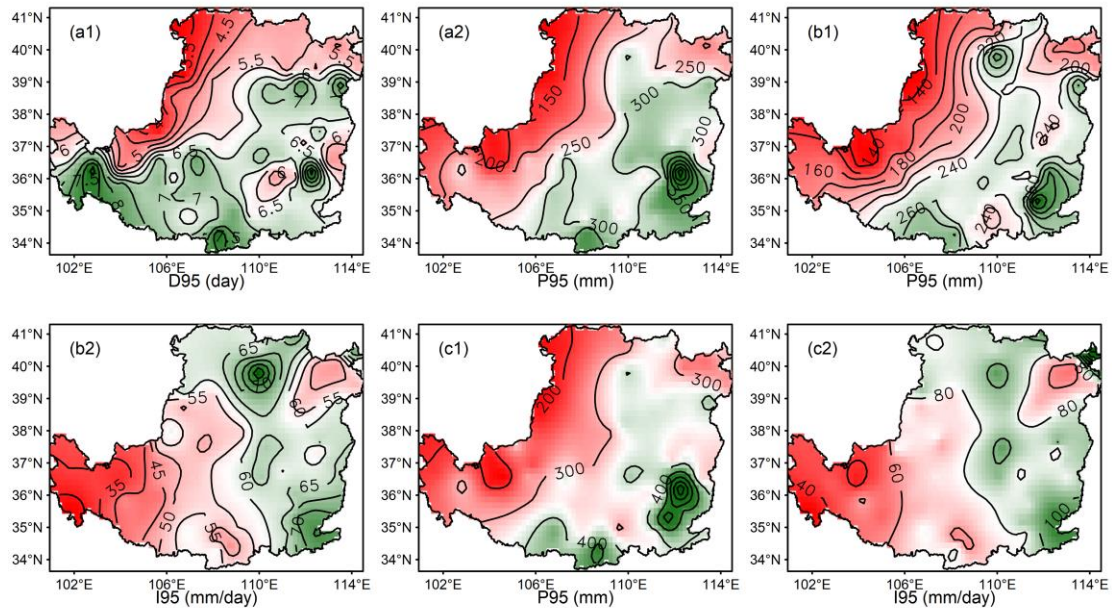
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The average return periods of all stations in Figure 6a, 6b, and 6f are 85.2, 143.8, and 126.2, respectively. These results demonstrate that the three compound events with two indicators corresponding to the 10-year return period are difficult to occur simultaneously in the same year. However, the quantitative calculation results are greatly affected by the selection of different models since the joint probabilities of these events are very close to the tails, which suggest that the quantitative results will show great uncertainty. Correspondingly, the joint RP values of Figure 6c-e are too small to exhibit their extreme risk situations, especially for Figure 6c and Figure 6e. This requires a balance that allows the assessment to calculate the degree of extreme risk that may occur within its credible return periods. For the time series of precipitation data used in this paper is about 60 years, the return period of individual extreme indicators with a joint RP of 50 years corresponding to Figure 6c-e are considered to be calculated. Under the condition of two univariate return period values are set to be equal to each other, by using Equations 9-11, and then the specific values for each individual indicator (Figure 7) and the corresponding return periods (Figure 8) are obtained.



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Figure 7. The specific values for each individual indicator under joint return period of 50 years corresponding to 3 combination groups: Figure 7 a1 and Figure 7 a2 are corresponding to {D95_R, P95_R} event; Figure 7b1 and Figure 7 b2 are corresponding to {P95_R, I95_R} event; Figure 7 c1 and Figure 7 c2 are corresponding to {P95_R or I95_R} event.

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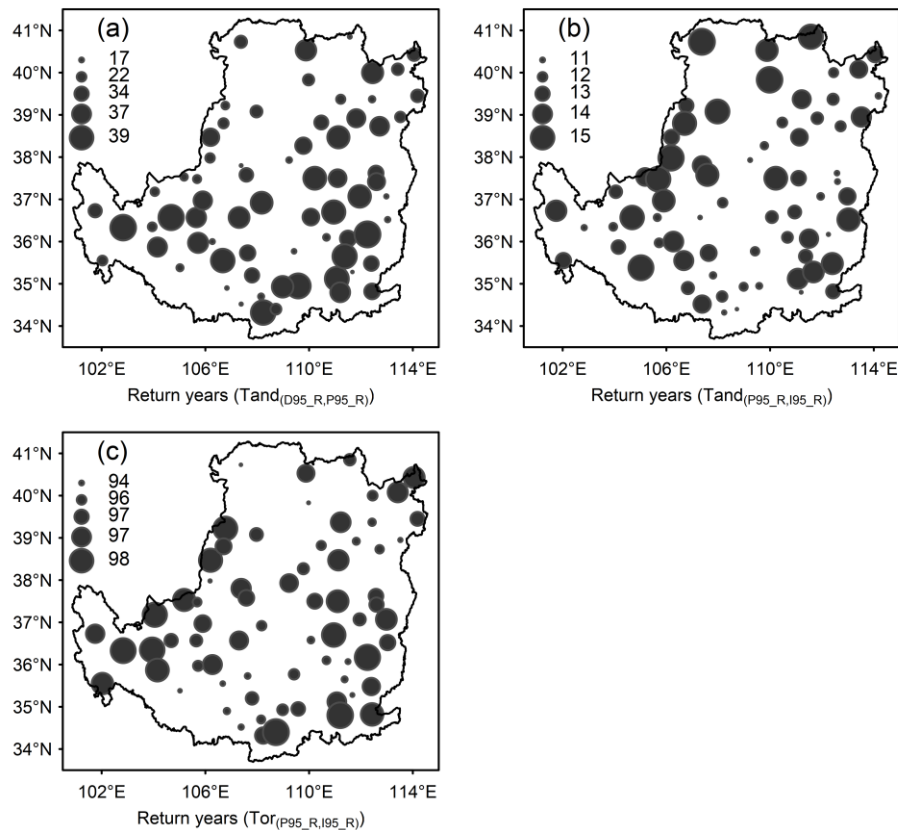
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Figure 7(a1) and 7(a2) are individually the interpolation maps of D95 and P95 with the joint return period of 50 years for events of {D95_R, P95_R}. The results show that spatial distribution of the two indicators is very similar to each other, and the overall values are higher than the values of the 10-year return period in Figure 3. The corresponding return period of single variable ranges from 15.7 to 44.4 years, with an average of 29.1 years (Figure 8a). Similarly, Figures 7(b1,b2)-8(b) and 7(c1,c2)-8(c) show the respective indicator values in the events of {P95_R, I95_R} and {P95_R or I95_R}, respectively. It can be seen that the indicator values of {P95_R or I95_R} events are much higher than those of {P95_R, I95_R} events, in which the P95 is 112.3 mm higher on average, and I95 is 19.9 mm/day higher on average. The return periods of P95_R and I95_R in events of {P95_R or I95_R} are close to 100 year. In terms of probability, the 100-year RP of the P95 event or the 100-year RP of the I95 event can be encountered in 50 years. Heavy rainfall events are especially serious in the south and northeast of the Loess Plateau. The station with the most amount of extreme heavy rainfall shows a P95 of 931 mm, and the I95 is 97 mm/day.



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391 **Figure 8.** The univariate return period values for each individual indicator under joint return period
 392 of 50 years corresponding to 3 combination groups: Figure 8 a1 and Figure 8 a2 are corresponding to
 393 {D95_R, P95_R} event; Figure 8b1 and Figure 8 b2 are corresponding to {P95_R, I95_R} event; Figure
 394 8 c1 and Figure 8 c2 are corresponding to {P95_R or I95_R} event.

395 5. Conclusions and Discussions

396 Based on the daily precipitation data of past six decades, the probability characteristics of five
 397 extreme precipitation indices in the Loess Plateau are studied. Moreover, the joint risk of different
 398 combinations of precipitation indexes is quantitatively evaluated. Specifically, six marginal
 399 distribution functions are applied to fit each precipitation index and six copula models belonging to
 400 the elliptic copula and Archimedes copula family are selected to fit the joint distributions of six
 401 indicator combinations. The RMSE, AIC, KS test were used to evaluate the performance of marginal
 402 and joint distributions. The index values corresponding to the 10-year return period of each
 403 precipitation indicator are calculated, and the joint return periods of all combinations under the
 404 condition of 10-year return period for single variables are calculated. Finally, the indicator values
 405 with their RPs of three extreme heavy precipitation index combinations are calculated under the
 406 condition of 50-year joint return period.

407 Main findings of the present study are summarized as follows: The study of single indicators
 408 shows that the extreme precipitation in wet years is almost equal to the annual precipitation in dry
 409 years over the Loess Plateau. The Northwest Loess Plateau with least amount of annual precipitation
 410 shows extreme precipitation intensity is only slightly lower than that in humid southwest area. It is
 411 also found that the $T_{\{PRTOT_L, CDD_R\}}$ is greater than $T_{\{PRTOT_R, CDD_R\}}$ at 17 stations, which is also because
 412 the precipitation of these stations is mostly concentrated in a few extreme precipitation events, while
 413 CDD is less affected by the annual precipitation, and the two precipitation indicators even show a
 414 certain degree of negative correlation. In terms of probability, P95 or I95 event of 100-year level can
 415 be encountered in 50-year return period over the Loess Plateau. The precipitation amount and

416 intensity of the Loess Plateau vary greatly in spatial distribution. The 10-year return period in the
417 northwestern region can occur for more than five months with no precipitation events. In the
418 southeastern region, there are foreseeable long-term extreme precipitation events.

419 Previous studies on the risk assessment of extreme precipitation often ignored the correlated
420 characteristics of different precipitation indicators and could not quantitatively evaluate the joint risk
421 of different indicators. Few studies have analyzed the joint risks of different indicators, however they
422 are all aimed at the forward calculation process, that is, by giving fixed indicator values of certain
423 recurrence periods to calculate the joint return period. The disadvantage of this scheme is that the
424 obtained joint return periods always tend to be too small or too large. Too small a recurrence period
425 does not reflect the severity of the event, and too large a recurrence period means that event is very
426 close to the tail of the distribution and the result is unreliable. In this study, the univariate and joint
427 risks of different extreme precipitation indexes in the Loess Plateau are synthetically studied by
428 forward and reverse calculations, and the RPs of univariate indicators based on joint RPs of 50 years
429 is calculated.

430 The Loess Plateau is located on the edge of different climatic regions, which results in the serious
431 imbalance of the spatial and temporal distribution of precipitation. The annual precipitation in the is
432 highly concentrated in rainy seasons, which makes the region in a serious drought state for most of
433 the year, especially for the northwest region, while the Southwest Loess Plateau is prone to very
434 heavy rainfall. Therefore, it is necessary to develop effective management plan for water resources
435 system and environment. A systematic plan for water storage in flood season and water resources
436 allocation in dry season is essentially needed.

437

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