

# *Anthropogenic influence on 2022 extreme January–February precipitation in Southern China*

Article

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**Anthropogenic Influence on 2022 Extreme January–February  
Precipitation in Southern China**

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## CAPSULE

20

21 The precipitation in January–February 2022 in Southern China was the second largest  
22 since 1961. Anthropogenic influence reduced the likelihood of extreme events like  
23 2022 by about 50% (55%) in HadGEM3 (CMIP6).

### 24 **1. Introduction**

25 From January to February (J–F) 2022, Southern China (SC) experienced  
26 abnormally heavy precipitation, with the regionally averaged total precipitation  
27 reaching 248 mm, making it the second-largest value since 1961. This extreme event  
28 resulted in significant damage to transportation, power supply, and crop production.  
29 About 6.092 million people and 422,300 hectares of crop area were affected, leading to  
30 a direct economic loss of 7.89 billion CNY. As a result, it was identified as one of the  
31 top ten natural disasters in 2022 by the Department of Emergency Management in  
32 China ([https://www.mem.gov.cn/xw/yjglbgzdt/202301/t20230112\\_440396.shtml](https://www.mem.gov.cn/xw/yjglbgzdt/202301/t20230112_440396.shtml)).  
33 This extreme precipitation event was attributed to the internal atmospheric dynamics  
34 (Ma et al. 2022). In this study, we assess how anthropogenic activity has changed the  
35 likelihood of extreme precipitation events similar to the J–F 2022 event over SC.

36 Previous studies have focused on summer extreme precipitation (Zhang et al. 2020;  
37 Li et al. 2021) and showed that anthropogenic warming has affected extreme  
38 precipitation over East Asia (Ma et al. 2017), intensifying the probability of short-term  
39 extreme precipitation events (Westra et al. 2014; Dong et al. 2020, 2021; Sun et al.  
40 2022), while less attention was given to winter counterparts over SC (Hu et al. 2021).  
41 The objective of this study is to investigate whether anthropogenic influence has altered  
42 the likelihood of unusual precipitation in the 2022 J–F.

### 43 **2. Data and methods**

44 Daily gauge precipitation observations from approximately 2400 stations across  
45 China were obtained from the China Meteorological Administration (CMA) for the  
46 period 1961–2022. Monthly wind and sea level pressure fields from the ERA5

47 reanalysis provided by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts  
48 (ECMWF) (Hersbach et al. 2020) were used to analyze circulation characteristics.

49 To assess anthropogenic and natural factors' influences on the probability of the  
50 exceptional precipitation event in SC during J–F 2022, we used the Met Office  
51 HadGEM3-GA6-N216 model (referred to as HadGEM3 hereafter) simulations at a  
52 horizontal resolution of  $0.56^\circ \times 0.83^\circ$  and 85 vertical levels (Ciavarella et al. 2018). The  
53 HadGEM3 model simulations are forced by observed sea surface temperature  
54 (SST)/sea ice extent (SIE) and therefore attribution of events is conditioned to SST/SIE.  
55 Both natural and anthropogenic forcing (ALL) and natural forcing (NAT) experiments  
56 were used. The details of the model can be found in Christidis et al. (2013). The  
57 ensemble simulations consisted of 15 members for 1960–2013 with ALL forcings, and  
58 525 members for 2022 with ALL and NAT forcings (ALL<sub>2022</sub> and NAT<sub>2022</sub>).

59 Meanwhile, we utilized simulations from climate models that participated in the  
60 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) and Detection and  
61 Attribution Model Intercomparison Project (DAMIP) (Eyring et al. 2016; Gillett et al.  
62 2016) under all anthropogenic and natural forcing combined (ALL), well-mixed  
63 greenhouse gas forcing (GHG), anthropogenic aerosol forcing (AA), and natural  
64 forcing (NAT) to assess the anthropogenic influence on the likelihood of the 2022 event  
65 (more details of model information are listed in Table ES1). CMIP6 model simulations  
66 are coupled model simulations and therefore we cannot use a specific year to represent  
67 2022. We specify a period around our target year to represent 2022. Since historical  
68 simulations stopped in 2014 in CMIP6 and therefore we need to merge historical  
69 simulations with SSP2-4.5 future scenario simulations for 2015 to 2026. But the NAT  
70 simulations (DAMIP) stopped in 2020 and therefore are no NAT future scenario  
71 simulations. Therefore, in order to have enough samples to give a robust estimate of  
72 PDFs, we used a 15-year window of 2006–2020 in ALL, GHG, AA, and NAT as  
73 ALL<sub>2022</sub>, GHG<sub>2022</sub>, AA<sub>2022</sub>, NAT<sub>2022</sub> in CMIP6/DAMIP simulations with a total 405  
74 sample points (see details in SI).

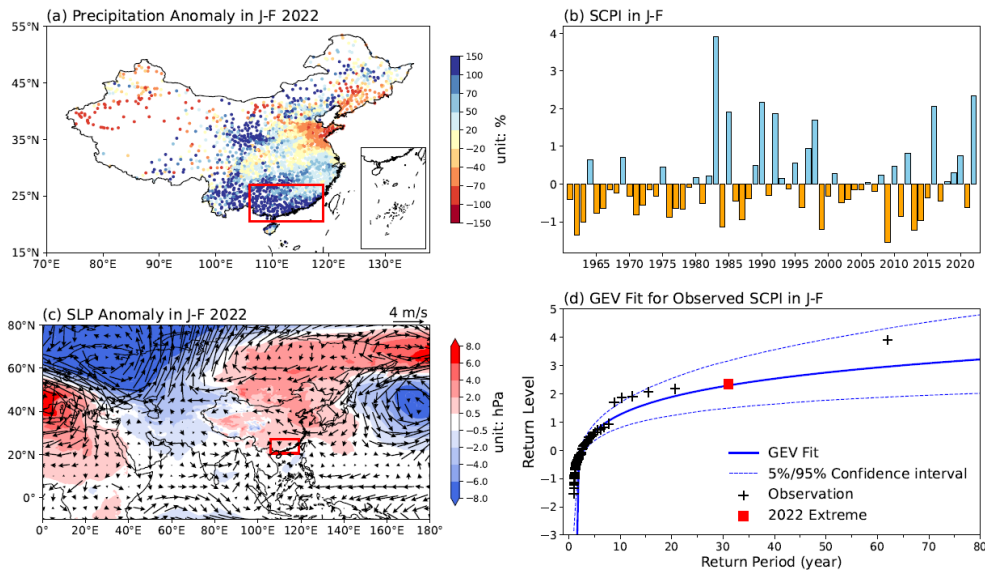
75 In the 2022 J–F, the excessive precipitation was mainly concentrated over the  
76 region of (20.5° – 27°N, 106° – 119°E) (Fig.1a). To evaluate the model performance,  
77 we calculated the SC precipitation index (SCPI), defined as the normalized regional-  
78 averaged precipitation anomaly in J–F with respect to the climatological period of  
79 1961–2005. Except for Quantile-Quantile (QQ) and Kernel Density Estimation (KDE)  
80 plot, a two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnoff (K-S) test with a significance level of 0.05  
81 was used to test whether the observed and simulated SCPI during 1961-2013 were from  
82 the same distribution.

83 The generalized extreme value (GEV) distribution was used to fit the precipitation  
84 indices and estimate the occurrence probability and return periods for both observations  
85 and simulations. The probability of an event, which is equivalent to or heavier than the  
86 J–F 2022 event, was defined as  $P_{ALL}$  and  $P_{NAT}$  for ALL and NAT, forcing experiments,  
87 respectively. The probability ratio ( $PR_{ALL} = P_{ALL}/P_{NAT}$ ) is calculated to quantify the  
88 anthropogenic influences. Similarly, we used  $PR_{GHG} = P_{GHG}/P_{NAT}$  and  $PR_{AA} = P_{AA}/P_{NAT}$   
89 to denote the GHG or AA forcing influences. The 90% confidence interval (90% CI)  
90 was obtained by using 1000 bootstrap resampling.

### 91 **3. Results**

92 The J–F time-averaged precipitation for 1961–2005 was about 117 mm in SC.  
93 However, during the J-F in 2022, the regional mean precipitation was about 248mm  
94 over SC and it was the second highest value since 1961 with the anomaly being about  
95 2.3 standard deviations ( $2.3\sigma$ , using as the threshold for the 2022 event) above the  
96 climatology in the period of 1961-2005 (Figs. 1a–b). There are two dynamical drivers  
97 for this precipitation anomaly. One is the wave train propagating along the South Asian  
98 jet that intensifies the India–Burma trough. It enhances the SCP through exciting  
99 anomalous strong moisture transport from the Bay of Bengal and ascending motion.  
100 The other is the positive geopotential height anomaly over eastern Siberia that prompts  
101 southward cold air intrusion and convergence over the SC region (Fig. 1c) (Ma et al.

102 2022). The observed SCPI in 2022 J–F corresponds to a 1-in-31-year (18-143 year)  
103 event (Fig. 1d).



104

105 Fig. 1. (a) Percentage anomalies of observed precipitation in 2022 J–F relative to the  
106 1961–2005 climatology. (b) Observed SCPI in each J–F for 1961–2022. (c) Spatial  
107 distribution of sea level pressure anomaly (shading, unit: hPa) and 850hPa wind  
108 anomaly (vector, unit: m/s). (d) GEV fit (blue solid line) of observed SCPI with 90%  
109 CI. The crosses are estimated from the empirical distributions of the observed  
110 precipitation index with the red square denoting the 2022 event.

111 Both the HadGEM3 and CMIP6 simulations reasonably well capture the variability  
112 of observed SCPI for the period 1961–2013, as shown in Figs. 2a–b, and probability  
113 density functions (PDFs) in simulations are comparable to that observed (Figs. 2c-d).  
114 Moreover, the observed precipitation indices fall within the range of those simulated  
115 by the models. We applied the QQ and KDE plots to test the distribution between the  
116 simulations and observations. Results show the simulations of HadGEM3 and CMIP6  
117 follow the same distribution as observations (not shown). PDFs of SCPI exhibit similar  
118 distributions between model simulations and observations (Figs. 2c–d) with p-values  
119 of 0.50 and 0.33, respectively, according to the two-sample K-S test. These results  
120 suggest that both HadGEM3 and CMIP6 models can be considered reliable for the

121 attribution of the 2022 J–F extreme precipitation event over SC.

122 Figures 2e–f show the GEV-fitted PDFs for the 2022-like event under different  
123 external forcings. In both two sets of model simulations, PDFs of SCPI exhibit a drying  
124 shift from NAT to ALL. This shift indicates that the observed extreme precipitation  
125 event like 2022 is less likely to occur with anthropogenic influence (Table 1). The  
126 estimated occurrence probability decreased from 1.3% (1.3%–1.7%) in NAT to 0.7%  
127 (0.6%–0.9%) in ALL, with a  $PR_{ALL}$  of 0.50 (0.41–0.60) in HadGEM3 simulations. The  
128 return period is significantly increased from ~77 years in NAT to ~143 years in ALL  
129 (Fig. 2g). Similarly, in CMIP6 simulations, the estimated occurrence probability  
130 decreased from 3.8% (2.6%–4.8%) in NAT to 1.7% (1.0%–2.4%) in ALL, with a  $PR_{ALL}$   
131 of 0.45 (0.38–0.53) and the return period increased from ~26 years in NAT to ~59 years  
132 in ALL (Fig. 2h). These results suggest that anthropogenic influence reduced the  
133 likelihood of extreme event like 2022 by about 50% (55%) in HadGEM3 (CMIP6).

134 Furthermore, the GHG forcing leads to a rightward shift of PDFs to a wetter climate  
135 relative to NAT(Fig.2f), while the AA forcing shifts to a drier world. The estimated  
136  $P_{GHG}$  and  $P_{AA}$  indicate that a ~26 years event becomes a ~15 years event with  
137  $PR_{GHG}=1.75(1.60–2.00)$  in GHG and a ~83 years event in AA with  $PR_{AA}=0.31 (0.24–$   
138  $0.37)$ .

139 Table 1. Attribution results for the 2022 J–F event with probability ratio ( $PR_{ALL}$ ,  $PR_{GHG}$   
140 and  $PR_{AA}$ ), exceedance probability from ALL ( $P_{ALL}$ ), GHG ( $P_{GHG}$ ), AA ( $P_{AA}$ ) and NAT  
141 ( $P_{NAT}$ ), and the 90% confidence intervals (CI) in the bracket in HadGEM3 and CMIP6  
142 simulations.

|               | HadGEM3         | CMIP6           |
|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| $PR_{ALL}$    | 0.50(0.41~0.60) | 0.45(0.38~0.53) |
| $PR_{GHG}$    | ——              | 1.75(1.60~2.00) |
| $PR_{AA}$     | ——              | 0.31(0.24~0.37) |
| $P_{ALL}(\%)$ | 0.7(0.6~0.9)    | 1.7(1.0~2.4)    |



|                      |              |              |
|----------------------|--------------|--------------|
| $P_{\text{GHG}}(\%)$ | ——           | 6.7(5.1~7.9) |
| $P_{\text{AA}}(\%)$  | ——           | 1.2(0.5~1.9) |
| $P_{\text{NAT}}(\%)$ | 1.3(1.3~1.7) | 3.8(2.6~4.8) |

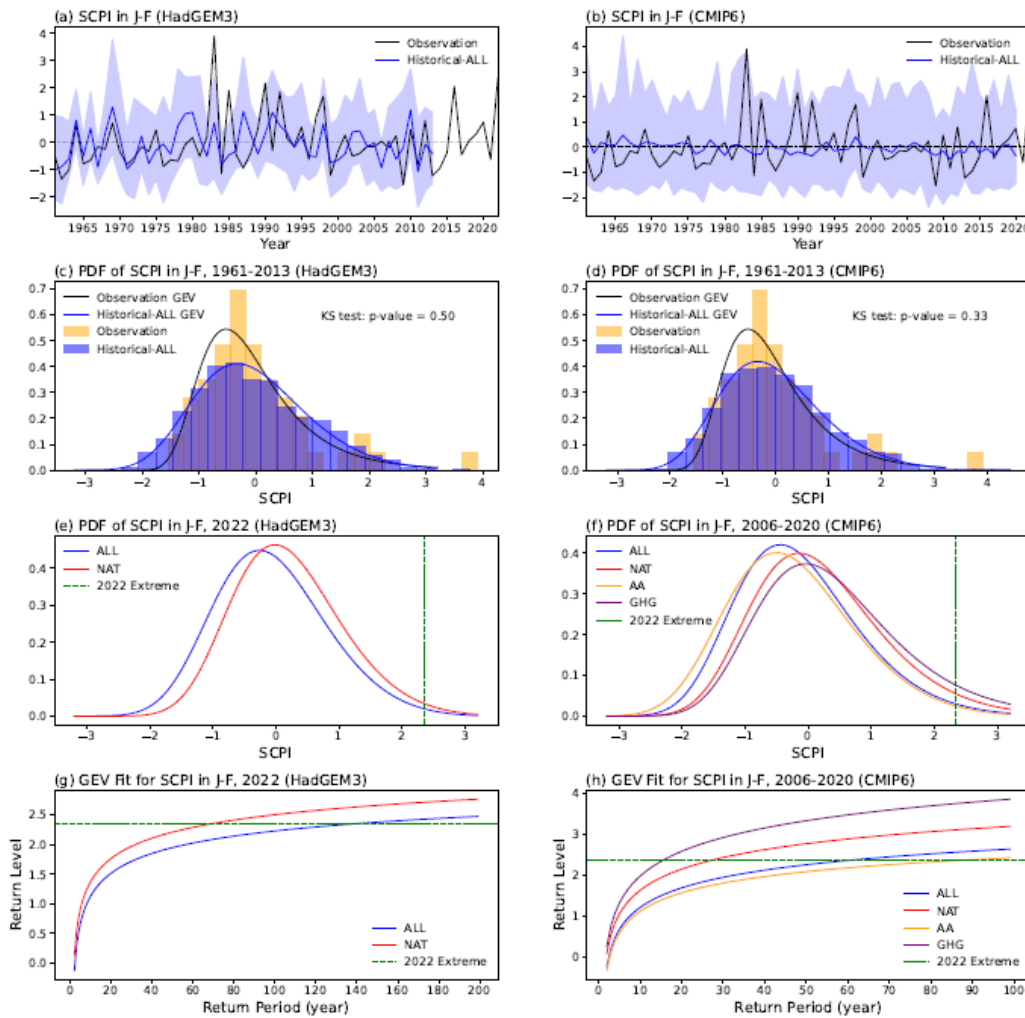
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143 How does anthropogenic influence reduce the likelihood of extreme events like  
144 2022? The J–F differences of ensemble mean precipitation and atmospheric circulations  
145 between ALL and NAT experiments are analyzed (Fig. ES1). Decreases in precipitation  
146 occur in both HadGEM3 and CMIP6 simulations over SC (Figs. ES1a–b), accompanied  
147 by anomalous positive sea level pressure (SLP) and an anomalous anticyclonic  
148 circulation over SC (Figs. ES1c–d).

149 The two most important anthropogenic forcings are greenhouse gases and  
150 atmospheric aerosols and they can have different effects on SC J–F precipitation.  
151 According to the CMIP6 results, compared to the NAT, the GHG simulation is shifting  
152 rightward to a wetter climate, while the AA distribution is marked by a flatter  
153 distribution with shifting to a drier region (Fig. 2f). A further comparison of AA and  
154 GHG with the NAT experiments reveals the impact of different anthropogenic forcings.  
155 Through aerosol radiation and cloud interactions, there is a positive SLP anomaly in  
156 most of the mid-high latitudes of East Asia, with an anomalously strong Siberian High  
157 together with changes in the Walker circulation over the eastern Indian Ocean, Maritime  
158 Continent and western Pacific Ocean (Takahashi et al. 2018) and with a weakening of  
159 anomalous anticyclonic circulation over the western North Pacific(WNP), which leads  
160 to anti-cyclone anomaly over the SC, so a reduction in J–F precipitation happened in  
161 SC (Fig. ES2a). On the other hand, over SC, the effect of non-absorbing aerosols is  
162 dominant. The solar flux at the surface is significantly reduced directly by the scattering  
163 of non-absorbing aerosols and indirectly by the intensification of short-wave cloud  
164 forcing. Accordingly, the surface air temperature in SC is reduced, which leads to the  
165 moisture transport decreasing, so the precipitation is also significantly reduced in South  
166 China (Huang et al. 2007; Jiang et al.2017) (Fig. ES2c).

167 On the other hand, GHG contributes to an increase in precipitation over SC (Fig.

168 ES2b). This is partly related to GHG induced increase of moisture in the atmosphere  
 169 associated with warming (Guo et al. 2023) and is also associated with an anomalous  
 170 negative SLP in the mid-latitudes, where the Baikal trough deepens and favors the cold  
 171 air to SC. The anomalous anticyclonic circulation in the WNP subtropical region,  
 172 caused the convergence of Had warm and moist air from the southern flank of the Philippine  
 173 high, contributing to SC precipitation increase (Fig. ES2d). The impacts from aerosols  
 174 overwhelm the impacts from GHG changes, leading to a decrease of precipitation from  
 175 NAT to ALL in CMIP6/DAMIP simulations.



176  
 177 Fig. 2. (a–b) Time series of observed (black) and simulated ensemble mean (blue)  
 178 SCPI for 1961–2022, with 15-member (a) and 27-member (b) spread shown as light  
 179 blue shading in HadGEM3 and CMIP6 simulations, respectively. (c–d) SCPI original

180 (bar) and GEV fitted PDFs (solid line) of observations (yellow bar and black line) and  
181 historical ALL simulations (blue bar and blue line) for 1961–2013 in HadGEM3 (c) and  
182 CMIP6 (d). The p-value for the K-S test is on the top right. (e–f) GEV fitted PDFs of  
183 SCPI in 2022 based on ALL (blue) and NAT (red) ensembles in HadGEM3, and ALL  
184 (blue), NAT (red), GHG (purple) and AA (yellow) in CMIP6 simulations. The dashed  
185 green line denotes the observed 2022 event. (g–h) As in (e–f) but for return periods.

## 186 **4. Conclusions**

187 We conducted an assessment of the anthropogenic influence on the likelihood of  
188 the 2022 extreme wet J–F in SC using two sets of model simulations. The analysis  
189 reveals that anthropogenic activities have reduced the likelihood of extreme events like  
190 2022 by about 50% (55%) in HadGEM3 (CMIP6) simulations. Analyses of single  
191 forcing experiments using CMIP6 model ensembles demonstrate different roles of  
192 changes in GHG and AA in J–F precipitation over SC with GHG forcing inducing an  
193 increase and AA forcing inducing a decrease, similar to previous studies in warm  
194 season ( Sun et al. 2022; Guo et al. 2023; Hu et al. 2023). However, the magnitude of  
195 AA-induced precipitation decrease is larger than that of GHG-induced increase (Cao et  
196 al.2022), leading to the reduced likelihood of the J–F precipitation event similar to that  
197 of 2022 in SC by the combined effect of anthropogenic forcing.

198

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205

206 *Data Availability Statement.*

207 The following data are available online: the CMIP6 GCM simulations ([https://esgf-](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip6/)  
208 [node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip6/](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip6/)), and the homogenized station data in China  
209 (<http://data.cma.cn/>).

210

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