



# 1 **Climatology of Large Hail in Europe: Characteristics of** 2 **the European Severe Weather Database**

3  
4 Faye Hulton<sup>1,a</sup>, David M. Schultz<sup>1,2</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup> Centre for Atmospheric Science, Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Manchester,  
6 Manchester, M13 9PL, United Kingdom

7 <sup>2</sup> Centre for Crisis Studies and Mitigation, University of Manchester, Manchester, M13 9PL, United Kingdom

8 <sup>a</sup> Now at: MetDesk, Aylesbury, HP22 6NJ, United Kingdom  
9

10 Correspondence to: Faye Hulton, [faye.hulton@gmail.com](mailto:faye.hulton@gmail.com)  
11  
12  
13  
14

15 **Abstract.** Large hail (greater than 2 cm in diameter) can cause devastating damage to crops and property, and can  
16 even cause loss of life. Because hail reports are often collected by individual countries, constructing a European-  
17 wide large-hail climatology has been challenging to date. However, the European Severe Storm Laboratory's  
18 European Severe Weather Database provides the only pan-European dataset for severe convective storms. The  
19 database is comprised of 62,053 large-hail reports from 40 C.E. to September 2020, yet its characteristics have  
20 not been evaluated. Thus, the purpose of this study is to evaluate this database for the purposes of constructing a  
21 climatology of large hail. For the period 2000–2020, large-hail reports are most prominent in June, whereas large-  
22 hail days are most common in July. Large hail is mostly reported between 1300–1900 local time, a consistent  
23 pattern since 2010. The intensity, as measured by maximum hail size, shows decreasing frequency with increasing  
24 hailstone diameter, and no change over the 20-year period. The quality of reports by country varies, with the most  
25 complete reporting being from central European countries. These results suggest that despite its short record,  
26 many indications are that the dataset represents some reliable aspects of European large-hail climatology, albeit  
27 with some limitations.  
28

## 29 **1 Introduction**

30 Hail in Europe with a diameter of at least 2 cm in the longest direction is called *large hail*, and it can cause  
31 damage to crops, property, or even loss of life. Several recent studies have documented the occurrence and  
32 variability of large hail, with special emphasis on the United States and Europe where large hail is common (e.g.,  
33 Allen and Tippett 2015; Punge and Kunz 2016; Brooks et al. 2019; Púčík et al. 2019; Tang et al. 2019; Taszarek  
34 et al. 2020; Raupach et al. 2021). The strongest severe convective storms in Europe are often perceived to be less  
35 intense than the strongest storms in the United States, although they can be just as damaging. For example, one of  
36 the most devastating large-hail events took place over Germany on 28 July 2013 when two supercells formed  
37 almost simultaneously, producing hailstones of up to 10 cm in diameter and more than EUR 1 billion in insurance  
38 payouts (Kunz et al. 2018). Another similar event occurred over southern Germany on 10–12 June 2019,  
39 producing 6-cm hailstones and causing EUR 1 billion in damages (Wilhelm et al. 2021). More recently, several  
40 large-hail events were reported during summer 2021 in Poland, the Czech Republic, Germany, and Italy, with  
41 reported maximum hail sizes in excess of 7 cm (Associated Press 2021; Space 2021a,b,c). Although these extreme  
42 events are widely reported by the media, meteorological research on these storms may be hindered by the lack of  
43 ground-truth hail data, such as onset and ending times, duration, intensity, and hailstone size.



44 Such hail data in Europe is generally collected on a national scale, and hence most climatologies are  
45 produced on a country-by-country basis (e.g., Brooks et al. 2009). Given the relatively small sizes of many  
46 European countries, each country has a low probability of large hail occurring at any given time (e.g., Brooks et  
47 al. 2019). A summary table of past European hail climatologies can be found in Tuovinen et al. (2009), and a  
48 review was published by Punge and Kunz (2016). Because countries that have a similar spatial extent as Europe  
49 have produced their own climatologies—such as the United States (Tang et al. 2019), Canada (Etkin and Brun  
50 2001), and China (Zhang et al. 2008)—a pan-European large-hail climatology would be highly desired.

51 To create a pan-European dataset of severe convective storms (including large hail, tornadoes, and severe  
52 wind gusts), the European Severe Storms Laboratory formed the European Severe Weather Database (ESWD) in  
53 2006 (Dotzek et al. 2009; Groenemeijer et al. 2017). In addition to collecting contemporary data, the ESWD has  
54 an ongoing objective of synthesizing historical large-hail data which will help produce a longer and more complete  
55 climatology. Despite the tremendous potential value of the ESWD being the only pan-European large-hail dataset,  
56 its characteristics need to be examined to understand its suitability for answering certain scientific questions about  
57 large hail.

58 To this effect, Půčik et al. (2019) constructed a climatology of large hail from the ESWD. They examined  
59 hail size, occurrence, annual cycle, diurnal cycle, and societal impacts (e.g., damages, injuries) for the 13-yr period  
60 2006–2018. Although their work shed the first light on the pan-European distribution and characteristics of large  
61 hail and large-hail days, they concluded by foreseeing “an update to this study as the reporting homogeneity  
62 improves in future.” In the present article, we explore whether increasing the size of the dataset through lowering  
63 the quality-control levels of the reports and extending the period of analysis yields comparable results, increasing  
64 the generality of Půčik et al.’s (2019) results. In doing so, we also document the reporting characteristics of the  
65 database as a function of time both throughout the 20th century and within the last 20 years. In particular, we seek  
66 the possible existence of a relatively homogeneous period of time in the database that could be used as a baseline  
67 for climatologies and climate-change studies.

68 This article consists of nine sections. Section 2 describes the data from the ESWD used in the present study.  
69 Section 3 discusses the frequency of large-hail reports and days on decadal, annual, and diurnal time scales.  
70 Section 4 investigates the intensity distribution of large hail, as segregated into 1-cm diameter bins, and discusses  
71 how the frequency of large-hail size has changed over the past 20 years. Section 5 looks at the time accuracy of  
72 these reports, how it has changed over the past 20 years, and how it varies by individual countries. Section 6  
73 investigates the spatial distribution of reports by country. Because of the large number of reports from Poland  
74 during the 1930s to 1950s, section 7 focuses on the data from Poland, comparing the historical frequency of reports  
75 during this period to that from the period 2000–2020. Section 8 offers a discussion comparing our work to previous  
76 hail climatologies and reflects on the prospects of using the ESWD as a baseline for climate-change research.  
77 Section 9 summarizes the findings of this paper.

## 78 79 **2 Data and methods**

80 The climatology of European large hail in this present article is produced from the ESWD (Dotzek et al. 2009;  
81 Groenemeijer et al. 2017). Large hail in the ESWD is defined as hail with a diameter of at least 2 cm in the longest  
82 direction (Groenemeijer and Liang 2020), comparable to the severe-hail criterion of 0.75 inch (1.9 cm) in the  
83 United States. The current ESWD data on hail is a mixture of historical entries, insurance data information, reports



84 provided by storm-spotter organizations, national European meteorological organizations, and public entries via  
85 the ESWD website at [www.eswd.eu](http://www.eswd.eu) (Dotzek et al. 2009).

86 The ESWD consisted of 62,053 large-hail reports from 59 countries dating from 40 C.E. to 26 September  
87 2020. All reports with hail sizes less than 2 cm were removed. Of the 59 countries included with the initial dataset  
88 received from the European Severe Storms Laboratory, only 41 were in Europe. Of those removed, the highest  
89 reporting countries were Turkey, Armenia, and Azerbaijan. Reports from other countries that were removed  
90 included Morocco, Turkmenistan, Egypt, and Jordan. The Russian Federation was included in the present study,  
91 even though a small number of reports were from the Asian part of the country. A small part of Turkey is  
92 geographically in Europe, but their data was not included in this study.

93 We also examine two periods of time from the ESWD. The first period is the nearly 121-yr period from 1  
94 January 1900 to 26 September 2020 (when work on this research commenced). We hereafter refer to this period  
95 as 1900–2020, recognizing the omission of data from the last three months and four days of 2020. The second  
96 period is more focused on the most recent large-hail data for the nearly 21-yr period 1 January 2000 to 26  
97 September 2020, hereafter referred to as 2000–2020.

98 All data is imputed in a standard format and is given a quality-control level by the maintenance team (Dotzek  
99 et al. 2009). There are four quality-control levels given to these entries (Groenemeijer and Kühne 2014):

- 100 • Q0: “as received”, any report straight from the public,
- 101 • QC0+: “plausibility checked”, any report checked by staff at the European Severe Storms Laboratory or a  
102 partner organization,
- 103 • QC1: “report confirmed”, any report confirmed by a reliable source such as a national meteorological  
104 organization or storm-spotter network, and
- 105 • QC2: “event fully verified”, any report from an event that has been subject of a scientific case study.

106 As mentioned in section 1, Púčik et al. (2019) used only plausibly checked QC1 events. However, to see if the  
107 quality-control level affects the interpretation of the results, this present study uses QC0+. For the period 1900–  
108 2020, there were 9173 QC0+, 45,805 QC1, and 2391 QC2 reports, producing a total of 57,369 large-hail reports.  
109 For the period 2000–2020, there were 6330 QC0+, 20,585 QC1, and 1310 QC2 reports, producing a total of 28,225  
110 large-hail reports. Thus, the addition of the QC0+ reports increased the size of the 1900–2020 dataset by 19%  
111 and the 2000–2020 dataset by 29%.

112 With these two datasets constructed, we can then look at their characteristics. In particular, we are interested  
113 in the number of large-hail days, size of the large-hail reports, and time accuracy of the reports. The annual  
114 number of large-hail days was derived from the annual number of large-hail reports by removing duplicate dates.  
115 The size of the hail in each hail report was defined as the maximum hail diameter recorded in cm. Although the  
116 ESWD contains fields for the fall speed and density of the hailstones, these were infrequently reported and were  
117 not considered as part of the present article. To represent the size distribution of the reports, the reports were  
118 classified into 1-cm bins based on their maximum hail diameter, starting at the minimum threshold of large hail  
119 of 2 cm. The *time accuracy* of reports is a field in the ESWD that allows the user to know how reliable the  
120 reporting time of the large-hail report is. The time accuracy represents the total time window that a given report  
121 was recorded in. For example, a 30-min time accuracy would indicate that the hail fell in the window of 15 min  
122 before the recorded time to a maximum of 15 min after the recorded time. These and other characteristics of the  
123 large-hail dataset will be explored in subsequent sections.



124

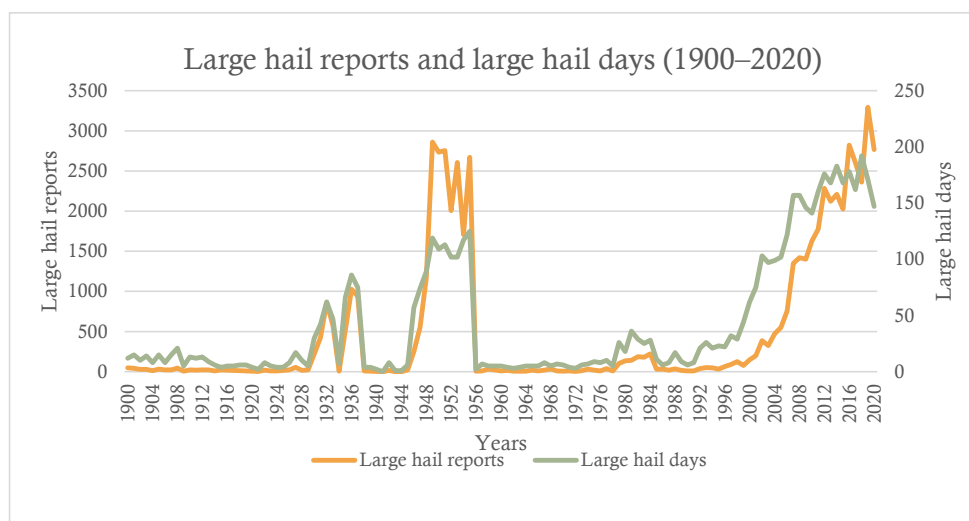
### 125 3 Frequency of large hail across Europe: 1900–2020

126 To understand the number of large-hail reports as a function of time, the annual number of large-hail reports  
127 and annual number of large-hail days were plotted versus year from 1900 to 2020 (Fig. 1). Throughout much of  
128 this period, the annual number of reports was quite small, with peaks during the 1930s, 1940s–1950s, and early  
129 1980s before a steady increase starting around 2000. These two peaks in the 1930s and 1940s–1950s were  
130 associated with a large number of reports from Poland and are investigated further in section 8. The lesser peak  
131 during the 1980s was associated with a number of reports from Italy, but is not considered further.

132 Figure 1 also shows the annual number of hail days from 1900 to 2020. The peaks in large-hail days during  
133 the 1930s and 1940s–1950s suggest that there were many large-hail events, not just many reports. Moreover, these  
134 periods illustrate that, while some periods and some locations may be well represented in the database, reporting  
135 of large hail throughout much of the 20th century in the ESWD is far from complete.

136 Focusing on the last 30 years, the number of reports increased starting around 2000 and continued to rise until  
137 2020. (Recall that the 2020 data was only available until 26 September, which may explain the fewer number  
138 reports, although most large-hailfall in Europe is reported between April and September.) In contrast, the number  
139 of large-hail days began rising a few years earlier in the late 1990s before reaching a plateau during the 2010s  
140 with around 175 annual large-hail days per year, similar to Taszarek et al. (2020, their Fig. 2a). This result suggests  
141 that the database grew around this time by first obtaining data from a larger number of days on which hail fell,  
142 followed by the database growing with a larger number of reports within the same day. The inconsistency in  
143 reports over time is also seen in other convective-storm research such as for tornadoes as described by Antonescu  
144 et al. (2017) and may be a reflection in scientific interest in severe convective storms, or due to economic or  
145 political changes.

146

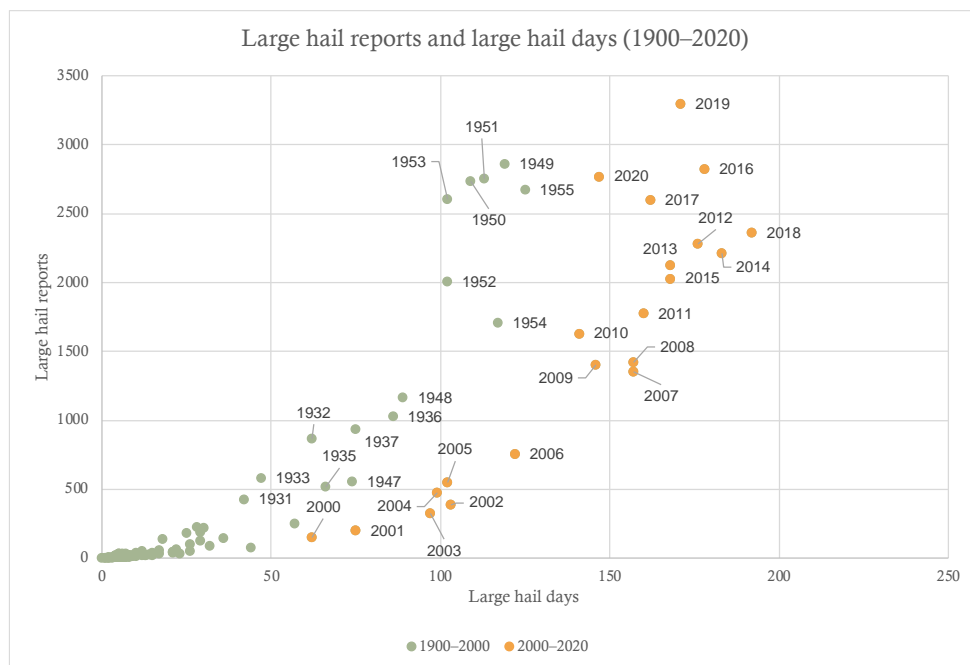


147

148 **Figure 1. Time series of annual numbers of large-hail reports (orange line) and large-hail days (green**  
149 **line) across Europe 1900–2020.**



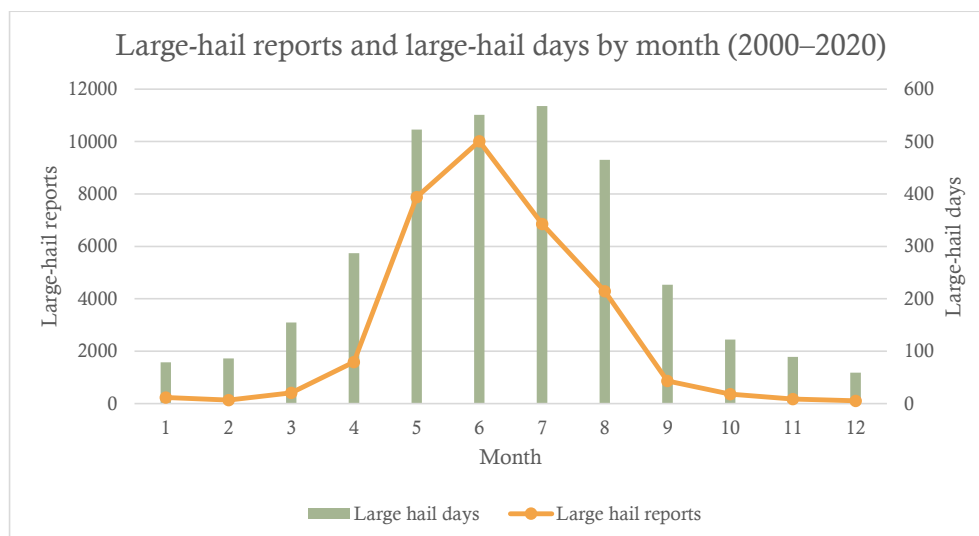
150 To show these data in a slightly different way, a scatterplot is created of the number of hail days versus  
151 number of hail reports for each year in the dataset, with different colors for the period before and after 2000 (Fig.  
152 2). The dataset from 1900 onwards suggests a positive linear relationship between large-hail reports and large-  
153 hail days; however, the spread is sometimes large. The high number of large-hail reports during 1949–1955  
154 (mostly from Poland, section 8) and early 1950s all congregate in one region of the graph and 2010–2020 also  
155 congregate in one region. As fewer reports are needed for a greater quantity of large-hail days, either areal extent  
156 of spotters has improved, the number of reporters has decreased in hail-prone regions, or the ESWD maintenance  
157 team have improved their ability to detect reports linked to the same event, and hence have removed duplicate  
158 events from the dataset. Thus, the 1950s are a time when reports mostly came from Poland (section 8) and captured  
159 a large number of large-hail days, indicating that certain periods of time can be fruitful for hail research using the  
160 ESWD. The spatial distribution of these reports is discussed in section 7.  
161  
162



163  
164 **Figure 2. Scatterplot of the annual number of large-hail days versus annual number of large-hail reports**  
165 **across Europe: 1900–2000 (green dots) and 2000–2020 (orange dots), with corresponding linear regression**  
166 **lines. These quantities are not divided by the number of years because of the incomplete data for the year**  
167 **2020.**



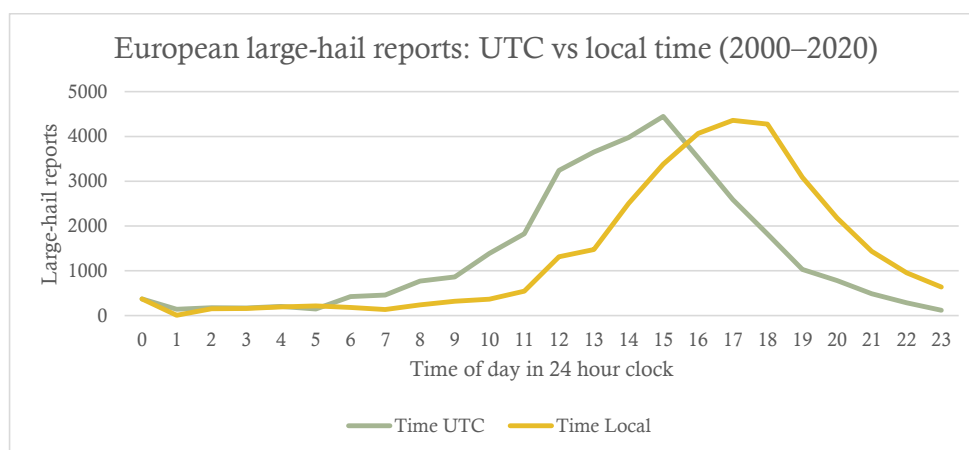
168 The average monthly distribution of the number of large-hail reports and large-hail days from 2000 to 2020  
169 is plotted in Fig. 3. The warm-season months of May, June, and July have the highest number of large-hail reports,  
170 and the cool-season months from October to March have the lowest. Whereas the month with the highest number  
171 of large-hail reports is June, the month with the highest number of large-hail days is July. Figure 3 can be compared  
172 to Púčik et al. (2019, their Fig. 4) who break down the annual cycle into the frequency of reports for the continental  
173 regions of Europe north of 46°N and the more Mediterranean-influenced regions south of 46°N. Despite these  
174 differences, these two distributions look similar, with the added information coming from the distribution of large-  
175 hail days in the present study. The distribution of large-hail days in Fig. 3 is more similar to the shape of the  
176 distribution of north of 46°N in Púčik et al. (2019, their Fig. 4), meaning that fewer reports occur later in the  
177 season although the number of large-hail days remains relatively high. These distributions are also similar to  
178 those from Kunz et al. (2020, their Fig. 2a) for hailstorms in central Europe using all quality levels from the  
179 ESWD, indicating that this larger dataset is a reliable source of large-hail data.  
180  
181



182  
183 **Figure 3. Histogram of the total monthly numbers of large-hail reports (orange line) and large-hail days**  
184 **(green bars) across Europe: 2000–2020. These quantities are not divided by the number of years because**  
185 **of the incomplete data for the year 2020.**



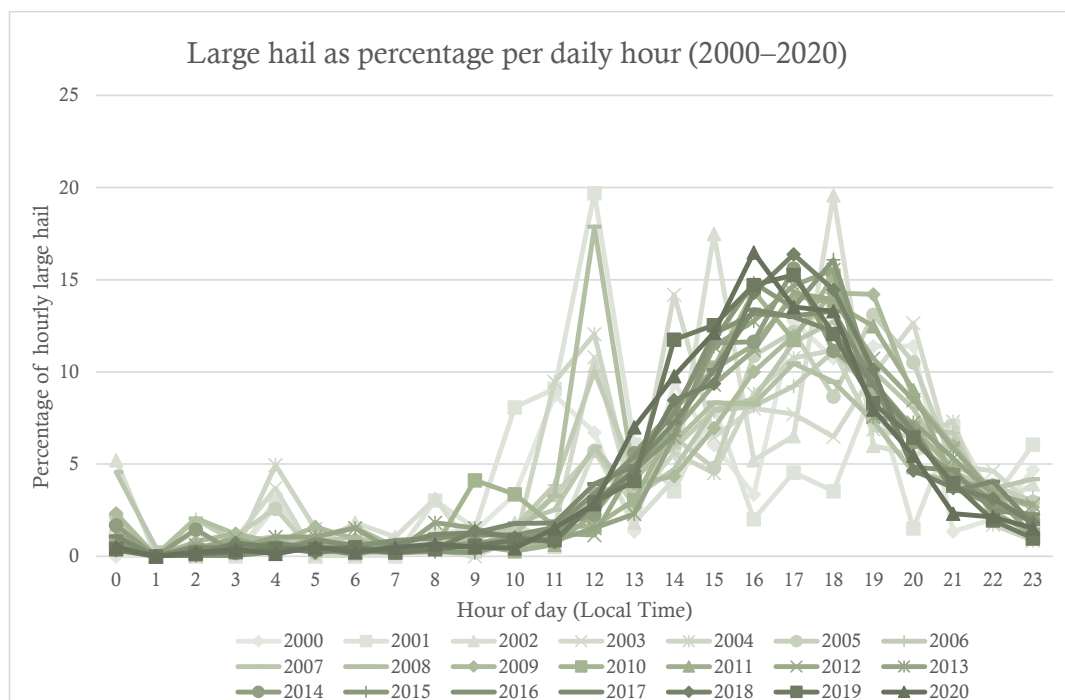
186 The average diurnal cycle for the number of large-hail reports between 2000 and 2020 is shown in Fig. 4.  
187 The hour 1500–1559 UTC (labelled 1500 UTC) was the most common time for large hail to be reported with a  
188 gentle rise and a slightly more rapid decline. When corrected for local time (LT), this peak shifts to 1700–1759  
189 LT because most of Europe is east of the Prime Meridian. Figure 4 can be compared to Půček et al. (2019, their  
190 Fig. 5), who also found a peak during the 1500-UTC hour. These distributions are also similar to those from Kunz  
191 et al. (2020, their Fig. 2b) who found a peak during 1500–1800 LT for hailstorms in central Europe using all  
192 quality levels from the ESWD. Thus, the QC0+ data over a longer period of time used in this study produces a  
193 similar climatology and is consistent with previously published research using a shorter period and more selective  
194 quality-control levels, indicating that this larger dataset is a reliable source of large-hail data.  
195  
196



197  
198 **Figure 4. Distribution of the hourly time of large-hail reports across Europe in UTC (green line) and local**  
199 **time (orange line): 2000–2020. Reports are associated with the starting hour (i.e., a report at 1515 UTC**  
200 **would be placed in the 1500-UTC bin).**



201 To examine the year-by-year consistency of the diurnal cycle, the distribution of large-hail reports as a  
202 function of local time for each year during the period 2000–2020 is plotted in Fig. 5. Each year mostly reproduces  
203 the diurnal cycle seen in Fig. 4. The exception is some years, particularly early during this period, that have  
204 unusual peaks at 1000–1200 UTC. These reports are associated with hail events in the early part of the database  
205 that occurred at an unknown time during the night or day were placed in 0000 UTC or 1200 UTC, respectively  
206 (Půčík et al. 2019, p. 3906). However, by 2010, the diurnal distributions seemed to have settled down to look like  
207 that in Fig. 4. The consistency after 2010 suggests the possibility that the dataset becomes more consistent in  
208 reporting events and could represent a stable period for documenting the present large-hail climate of Europe.  
209  
210



211

212 **Figure 5. Hourly percentage of large hail in local time across Europe in local time for each year 2000 to**  
213 **2020.**



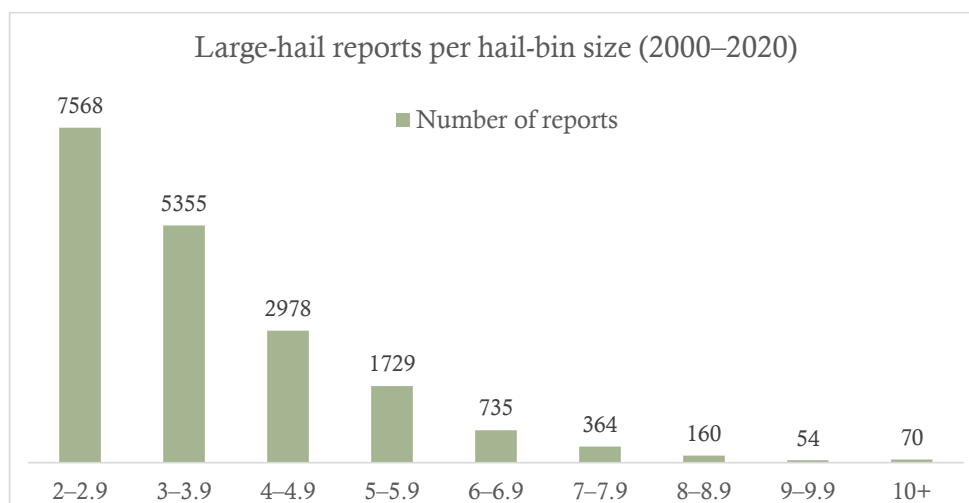


214 **4 Intensity of large hail: 2000–2020**

215 It is not just the frequency of an event that determines its impact on society, but also the intensity of the event,  
216 here represented by the maximum diameter of the hail associated with each report. Maximum hail size can be  
217 difficult to measure for several reasons as highlighted by Pilorz (2015). For example, as hail is often irregular in  
218 shape, the maximum diameter is actually the longest axis of the stone. Therefore, if a stone were more spherical,  
219 then its maximum diameter would be smaller than an oblate stone, even though it would have a larger volume.  
220 Furthermore, there is always the possibility that the largest hailstone from any given event has not been found or  
221 that it has partially melted before discovery.

222 For the 28,225 large-hail reports in the present study between 2000 and 2020, 18,132 (64%) had data for the  
223 maximum diameter. These reports were organized into 1-cm bins, ranging from 2.0–2.9 cm to 10+ cm. Frequency  
224 of hail reports decreased with increasing hail size (Fig. 6). The maximum hail size in the database from 2000 to  
225 2020 was 15 cm and was reported in Romania on 26 May 2016. This report was rated QC1, so has been plausibly  
226 checked. The second largest hail size was 14.1 cm and was reported in Germany on 6 August 2013. This particular  
227 hailstone set the record for the largest hailstone in Germany (ESKP 2013). This report is recorded as QC2 and  
228 includes additional information in the ESWD database, such as the average hailstone size being 8 cm.

229

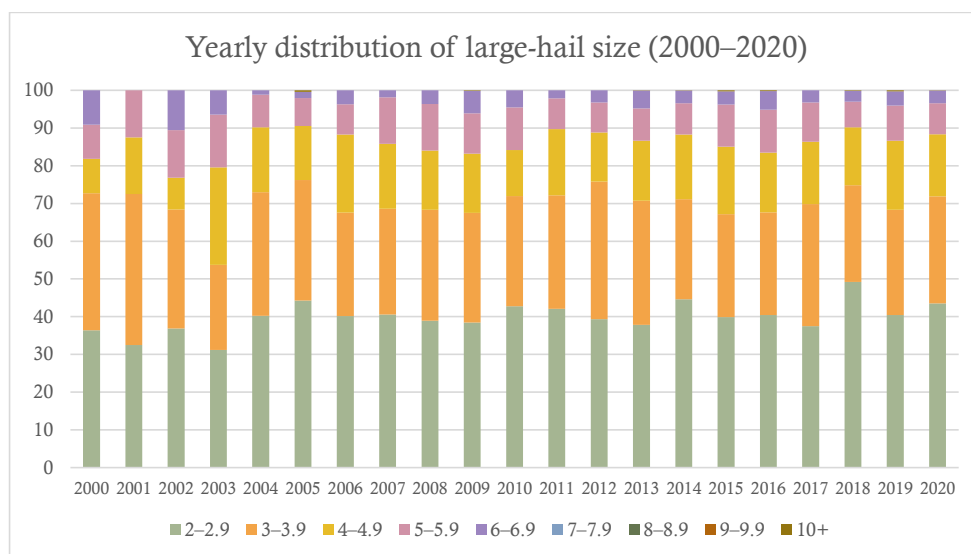


230

231 **Figure 6. Histogram of the number of large-hail reports across Europe by maximum diameter in 1-cm bins:**  
232 **2000–2020.**



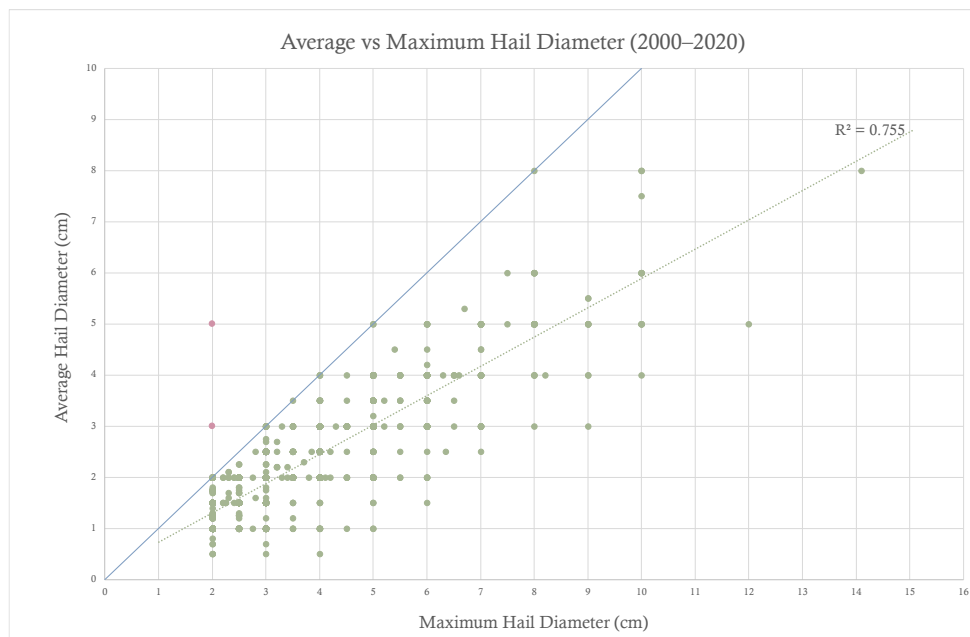
233 To investigate the distribution of large-hail size over time, Fig. 7 presents the percentage of each hail-size bin  
234 per year from 2000 to 2020. During this 21-yr period, the percentage of each bin size does not change dramatically.  
235 This distribution is similar to the 1989–2018 average from Púčik et al. (2019, their Fig. 7), with about 40% of  
236 large-hail reports being smaller than 3 cm, about 70% being smaller than 4 cm, and about 84% being smaller than  
237 5 cm. Therefore, the large-hail size distribution during 2000–2020 may represent a period of stability with little  
238 detectable change in large-hail size distributions in the ESWD dataset. For determining the present large-hail  
239 climate, the stability in the large-hail size distribution after 2000 represents a slightly longer period of record  
240 compared to that of the diurnal cycle, which stabilized after 2010 (Fig. 5).  
241



242  
243 **Figure 7. Time series of bar charts of the annual distributions of large-hail size across Europe in 1-cm**  
244 **diameter bins: 2000–2020.**



245 The ESWD has information on average hail size, although only 12% (2237 out of 18,132) of reports contain  
246 this information for 2000–2020. There is, however, a strong positive linear relationship between the average and  
247 maximum hail size recorded (Fig. 8). There were two outliers that are most likely data-entry errors, such as events  
248 with a 2-cm maximum size and 5-cm or 3-cm average size. Both were QC1. The linear relationship ( $R^2 = 0.76$ )  
249 between maximum and average hail size suggests that the entries that the average hail size is about 60% of the  
250 maximum hail size, although there is considerable spread around this line.

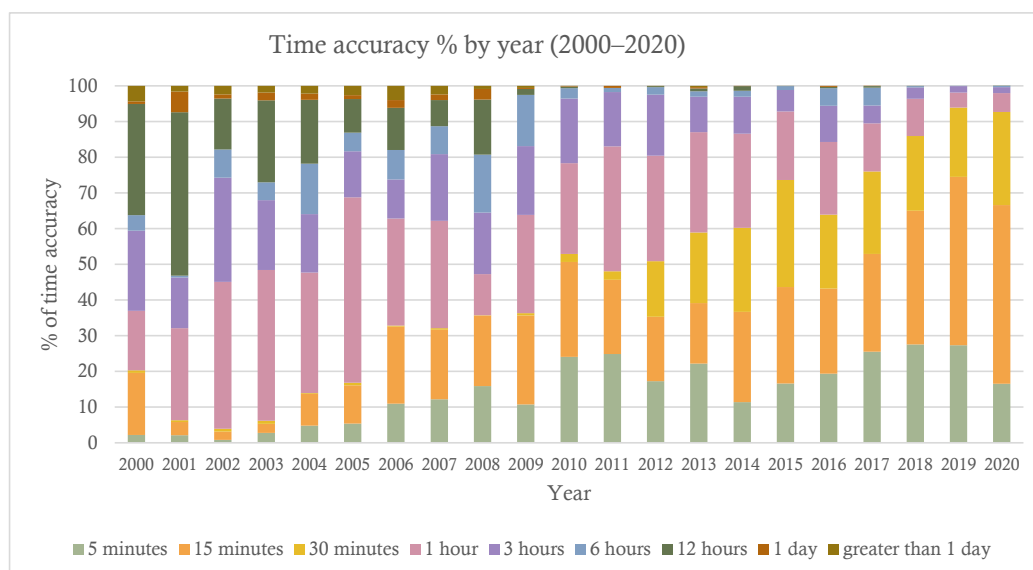


251  
252 **Figure 8.** Scatterplot representing 2237 hail reports of the maximum large-hail size versus average large-  
253 hail size across Europe during 2000–2020, with corresponding linear regression line (green dotted line).  
254 The 1:1 line is plotted as a blue line. Two red dots represent likely data-entry errors where the average  
255 diameter is greater than the maximum diameter.



256 **5 Time accuracy of reports: 2000–2020**

257 The ESWD includes a quantity called time accuracy, defined as the time interval over which the report could  
258 have occurred. For example, a time accuracy of 5 min would mean that the large hail fell within 2.5 min on either  
259 side of the time recorded in the ESWD. Groenemeijer and Liang (2020) specify ten categories of time accuracy:  
260 1 min, 5 min, 15 min, 30 min, 1 h, 3 h, 6 h, 12 h, 1 day, and greater than 1 day. The time accuracy of large hail  
261 in the ESWD has improved over time, with over 50% of reports having a time accuracy of 30 min by 2012,  
262 followed by 50% having a time accuracy of 15 min by 2017 (Fig. 9). Moreover, between 2009 and 2010, reports  
263 with a time accuracy of 30 min became more common, replacing some of the reports with time accuracy of 1 h,  
264 and time accuracy of 12 h and greater become negligible. Viewing the ESWD from 2000–2020 as a whole, these  
265 improvements in time accuracy means that the ESWD is becoming a more reliable source of data, with more  
266 highly temporally resolved data on hail occurrence.  
267

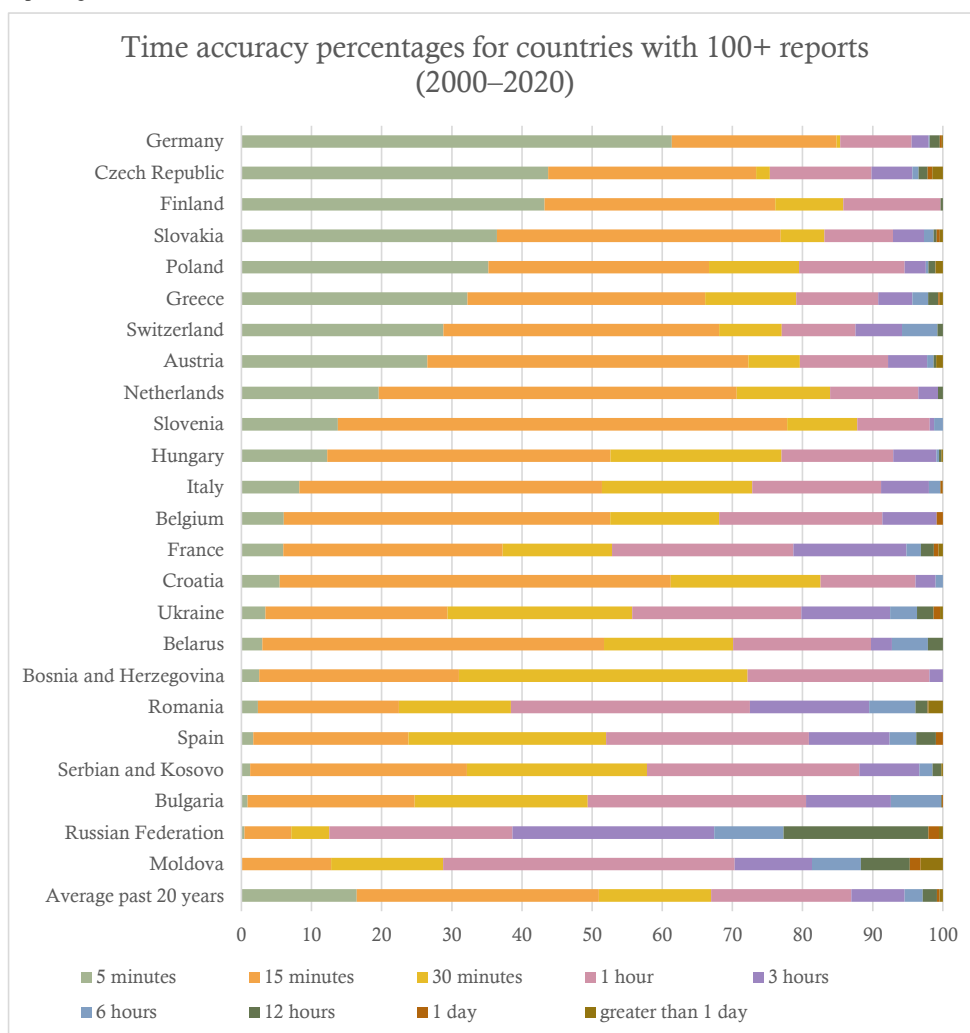


268

269 **Figure 9. Time series of bar charts of the annual distributions of time accuracy of reports across Europe:**  
270 **2000–2020.**



271 On the scale of individual countries, however, work remains to improve the quality of the ESWD. The  
 272 average time accuracy for each country with 100 or more reports during 2000–2020 is shown in Fig. 10. The  
 273 distribution of time accuracy varies considerably from among these 24 countries. Germany, Finland, and the  
 274 Czech Republic have more than 40% of their reports with time accuracy of 5 min, whereas Bulgaria, Russian  
 275 Federation, and Moldova have the lowest (1% or less). Figure 10 also indicates the countries perhaps requiring  
 276 greater support and mentorship from ESSL and other organizations to improve engagement in severe-weather  
 277 reporting.



278  
 279 **Figure 10. Horizontal bar charts of the time accuracy for countries with 100 or more reports: 2000–2020.**



280 **6 Spatial distribution by country: 2000–2020**

281 Hail reports across Europe are heterogenous, not just in time, but also in space. Countries such as Germany,  
282 Russian Federation, and Italy reported 4956, 4182, and 2447 large-hail events between 2000 and 2020, compared  
283 to others such as Switzerland, the UK, and Denmark only reporting 266, 85 and 31 cases, respectively (Table 1).  
284 Central and western European countries reported more large hail with 5 out of the top 10 countries located there  
285 (Table 1). Germany has more large-hail reports than the Russian Federation for fewer large-hail days, similarly to  
286 Poland having more reports than Italy, and Austria more reports than Greece.

287 Besides meteorological reasons for the variability, other reasons that may explain these reporting differences  
288 include the existence, size, and enthusiasm of spotter networks within each country; variations in the ability or  
289 enthusiasm of citizens to input into the ESWD; and the availability of information to quality-control reports. In  
290 fact, many central European countries have larger and more enthusiastic spotter networks [e.g., Poland, as  
291 discussed in Pacey et al. (2021) and section 7 of the present article] and are more likely to enter their reports into  
292 the ESWD. Population density and area of the country were considered as possible explanations for the number  
293 of hail reports varying by country, although neither had a statistically significant relationship with the number of  
294 hail reports (not shown). As with the time-accuracy data (section 5), greater engagement with some countries to  
295 encourage entering their reports into the ESWD would lead to a larger and more complete dataset.



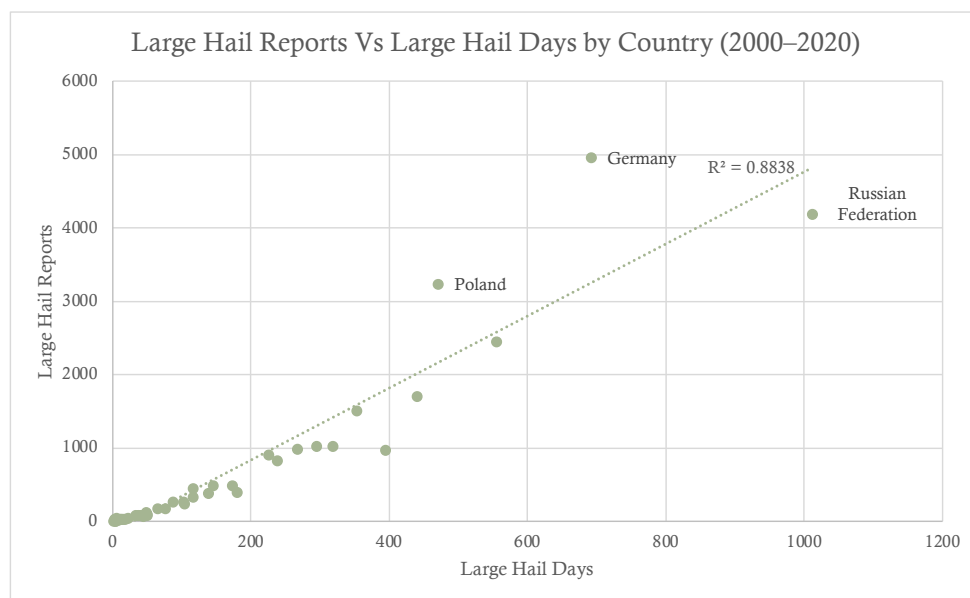
296 **Table 1. Number of large-hail days and large-hail reports by country: 2000–2020.**

Country	Number of large-hail reports	Number of large-hail days
Germany	4956	692
Russian Federation	4182	1012
Poland	3226	471
Italy	2447	555
France	1707	440
Austria	1502	353
Spain	1027	295
Ukraine	1021	319
Romania	983	267
Greece	975	395
Hungary	903	226
Bulgaria	820	238
Serbia and Kosovo	490	146
Czech Republic	490	174
Moldova	451	117
Croatia	399	181
Finland	382	139
Slovenia	332	116
Switzerland	266	87
Belarus	261	103
Slovakia	234	104
Bosnia and Herzegovina	169	65
Netherlands	165	76
Belgium	121	49
Latvia	86	50
United Kingdom	85	41
Estonia	79	38
Portugal	77	34
Sweden	74	50
Cyprus	68	45
Lithuania	42	23
Luxembourg	39	6
Denmark	31	18
Albania	22	12
Montenegro	21	3
North Macedonia	21	13
Norway	21	15
Malta	11	9
Andorra	6	4
Iceland	4	4
Ireland	2	2

297



298 Similar to Fig. 2 where the number of large-hail reports was plotted versus the number of large-hail days by  
299 year, Fig. 11 shows a scatterplot between the number of large-hail reports versus the number of large-hail days by  
300 country from Table 1. There is a positive linear relationship ( $R^2 = 0.88$ ) between large-hail reports and large-hail  
301 days by country (Fig. 11), suggesting that large-hail reports are proportional to large-hail days. This relationship  
302 would therefore implies that reporting frequency is similar across all hail frequencies and countries, except for  
303 Germany which has a much greater number of reports proportional to the number of days.  
304



305

306 **Figure 11. Scatterplot of the total number of large-hail reports versus large-hail days by country: 2000–**  
307 **2020.**





308 **7 Poland: 1900–2020**

309 As noted in association with Fig. 1, nearly all large-hail reports and large-hail days during the 1930s and  
310 1940s–1950s originated in Poland (Figs. 12a,b). Very few hail days were recorded between 1956 and 2000, before  
311 the general increase along with the rest of Europe for the last 20 years (Fig. 12). There appears to be far fewer  
312 large-hail days over the past 20 years in Poland (30–40 days a year) compared to the 1940s–1950s (100–120 days  
313 a year). With an overall increase in reporting numbers and accuracy, it would be unlikely that the current Polish  
314 reports are missing many events, and therefore the difference in annual numbers of large-hail days seems unlikely.

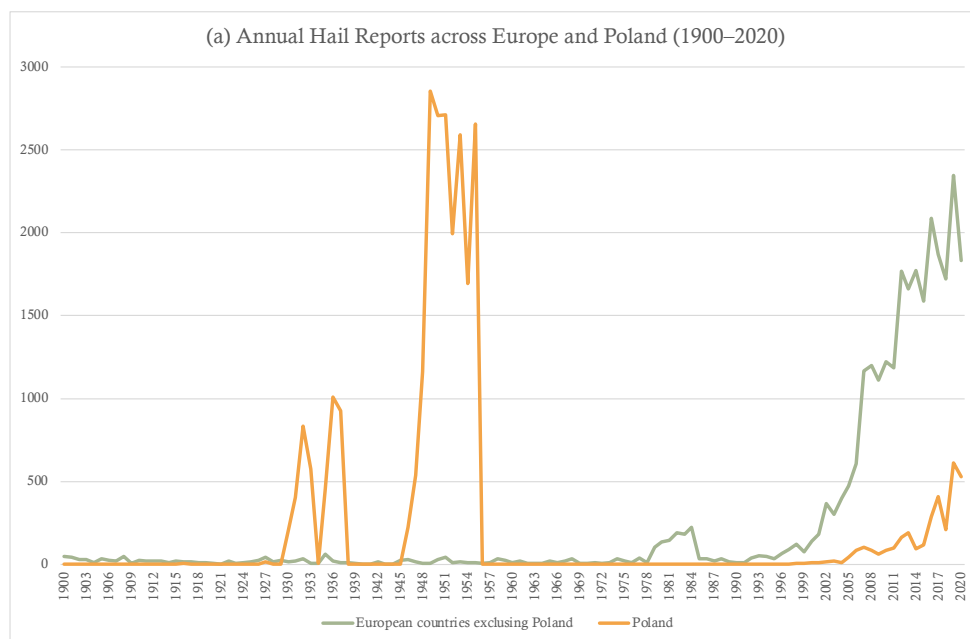
315 Suwała (2011) investigated Polish hail based on data from 23 meteorological stations recorded in the  
316 Meteorological Yearbooks published by the Institute of Meteorology and Water Management for the years 1973–  
317 1980 and the Polish National Climatic Data Centre for the years 1981–2009. They found that over the 37-year  
318 period, March was the month with the highest hail frequency across the country, followed by February and  
319 January. For individual stations, December and January recorded the highest hailfall, with the two stations along  
320 the Baltic coasts having a mean of 8 days. Overall, the Baltic coast showed the highest annual mean, whereas  
321 central Poland showed the lowest. This result contradicts the findings of Pilorz (2015) who investigated large hail  
322 in Poland for 2007–2015, concluding that southeast Poland had the greatest amount of storms and associated large  
323 hail events.

324 Furthermore, the warm months of June to September had the lowest mean hail frequency for all stations. This  
325 contradicts the results found in this study and those by Púčik et al. (2019), that hail is most frequent in the warm  
326 season, but also those by Taszarek and Suwała (2014) who investigated large hail in Poland in 2012. In addition,  
327 there appeared to be some cyclicity in frequency over the 37-yr period, although this cyclicity varied greatly when  
328 investigating individual stations, and no trends were observed. These results may explain why Poland possesses  
329 a different annual distribution to other locations.

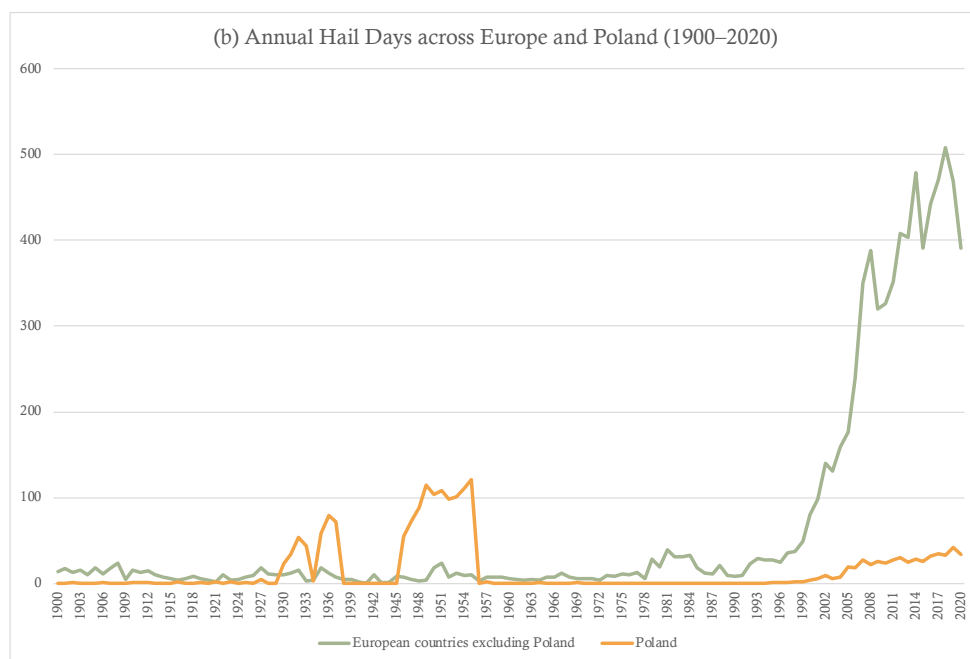
330 Suwała (2011) mentions previous hail studies in Poland, such Schmuck (1949), Koźmiński (1964), and  
331 Zinkiewicz and Michna (1955), which may offer an explanation on the high number of hail reports during the  
332 1930s and 1950s. Unfortunately, these are not currently available to read. Access to these historical studies may  
333 help explain the quantity of Polish entries in the ESWD during the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s. Moreover, an effort  
334 to retrieve and input the data from 1973 to 2009 into the ESWD would greatly help with the homogeneity of the  
335 Polish dataset. There remains the possibility that this data does not exist as the country suffered major economic  
336 difficulties during this period.



337



338



339

340

**Figure 12. Time series of annual numbers of (a) large-hail reports for Europe (green line) and Poland (red line), and (b) large-hail days for Europe (green line) and Poland (red line): 1900–2020.**

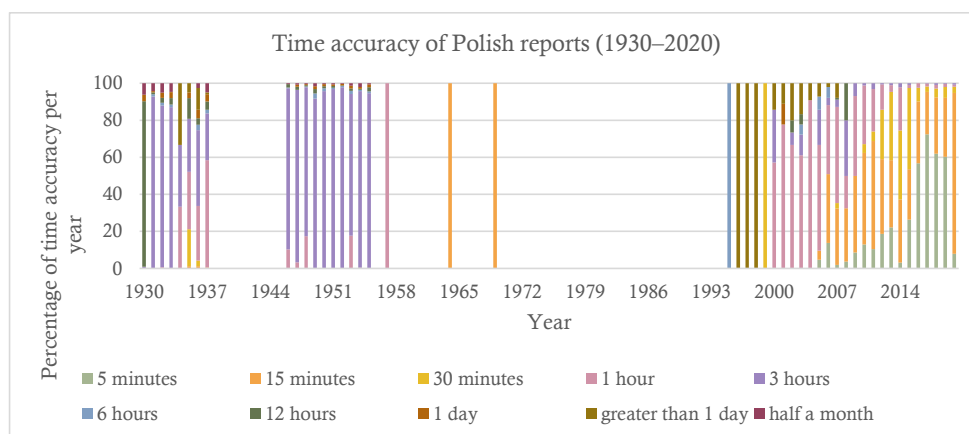


341 As in Fig. 9, the time accuracy of large-hail reports can be plotted as a function of time during 1930–2020 in  
342 Fig. 13. The time accuracy of reporting in Poland has improved over the past 20 years, with over half the reports  
343 having a time accuracy of 15 min by 2015 (Fig. 13). During the 1930s and 1950s, the time accuracy was much  
344 lower, around 3 h (Fig. 13). Although this result may suggest that reports were less reliable during this period, the  
345 consistency in time accuracy (especially during the 1950s) may also suggest that the data-collection methods were  
346 more consistent. These reports were later found to be based upon the Meteorological Yearbooks from the Polish  
347 National Institute of Meteorology (I. Laskowski 2022, personal communication). The yearbooks contained  
348 information on hail size, time of occurrence and storm direction based upon questionnaires posed to insurance  
349 companies, agricultural correspondents of the Polish Central Statistical Office alongside observations from  
350 meteorological stations. Laskowski also mentioned that yearbooks from the 1960s and 1970s also existed, but was  
351 currently unable to find any existing copies. Hence, such data – when it is found – remains to be entered into the  
352 ESWD.

353 In addition, the location accuracy was also investigated, with the most common distances being 1 and 3 km,  
354 similar to those found in the broader 2000–2020 dataset. This result reiterates the importance of these earlier  
355 reports in constructing a reliable hail climatology, and gives credit to the data-collection method.

356 The historical Polish datasets offer an insight into past hail frequency and reporting accuracies. Results by  
357 Suwała (2011) for the period 1973–2009 contradict those found for more recent time periods in terms of peak  
358 annual frequency and spatial distribution of large hail. The potential implications of these discrepancies may  
359 suggest that hail trends have changed over time and have not yet been established or studied due to the lack of  
360 historical pan-European data, highlighting the importance of building the ESWD further. Moreover, the existence  
361 of Meteorological Yearbooks in Poland could also suggest that other nations might hold similar records that  
362 remain to be analyzed and could contribute toward building a more complete climatology.

363



364

365 **Figure 13. Time series of bar charts the annual distributions of time accuracy of reports for Poland: 1930–**  
366 **2020.**



## 367 **8 Comparison to previous hail climatologies and prospects for a baseline for climate-change research**

368 The ultimate goal of severe-storm climatologies is to create a consistent and complete database in space and  
369 time. Consistent data acquisition methods throughout the study area and through time would assist in achieving  
370 this goal; however, consistency is not achievable across Europe. Punge and Kunz (2016) synthesized all European  
371 hail studies in their review, not just large hail. They concluded that not all regions have the same threat of hail,  
372 and efforts to report and record these events vary by country. They further concluded that there was insufficient  
373 evidence to determine any trends in hail events, both in terms of spatial and temporal extent, highlighting the need  
374 for the continuation of the ESWD to form a reliable climatology. Given that some studies are projecting increases  
375 in hailstorms in Italy (Piani et al. 2005), Netherlands (Botzen et al. 2010), and Germany (Mohr et al. 2015), as  
376 well as across much of Europe (Taszarek et al. 2021) with climate change, creating a robust climatology with a  
377 consistent record is needed.

378 Examining the evidence presented in the present article, we seek a stable time period during 2000–2020.  
379 Based on the number of large-hail reports, no stable time period exists (Fig. 1). Based on the number of large-  
380 hail days, the time period starts around 2012 (Fig. 1). Based on the diurnal cycle of large-hail reports, the time  
381 period starts around 2010 (Fig. 5). Based on the large-hail size distributions, the time period starts around 2004  
382 (Fig. 7). Based on the time accuracy of reports, the time period possibly starts around 2018 (Fig. 9). However, if  
383 one is prepared to accept an accuracy of 3 h or less, then the time period starts around 2010 (Fig. 9).

## 384 **9 Conclusion**

386 The ESWD provides the only pan-European dataset for large-hail reports. The frequency of reports is sporadic  
387 pre-2000, and hence the focus of this study is for the period 2000 to 2020. Hail reports have continuously increased  
388 since 2000. The annual number of large-hail days have remained steady after 2010 at around 175 days per year,  
389 although some interannual variability is still observed. Increased large-hail reports for similar large-hail days  
390 suggests that a greater spotter network is in operation, and that the engagement with the ESWD is increasing.

391 The warm season of May to August shows the highest number of large-hail reports and large-hail days, with  
392 June showing the highest large-hail reports and July the highest large-hail days. The number of large-hail reports  
393 decrease faster than large-hail days from June to September. The diurnal cycle shows that the peak hailfall time  
394 is 1500 UTC and 1700 local time.

395 The number of large-hail reports decreases with increasing diameter, and the percentage distribution of each  
396 large-hail size by year does not appear to have changed over the past 20 years. The possibility that hail-size  
397 distribution is changing remains, as smaller, less damaging hail size events are being recorded more regularly.

398 The diurnal cycle by year shows that for the past 10 years, a consistent pattern has emerged, with a rise in the  
399 early afternoon and a decline in the evening. Furthermore, the time accuracy of reports has improved with over  
400 50% of reports being reported to within a 30-minute window by 2012, followed by 50% being reported to within  
401 a 15-minute window by 2017. Not all countries display improved time accuracies. Germany, Finland, and the  
402 Czech Republic have the greatest proportions of 5-minute time-accuracy reports, whereas Russia, Moldova, and  
403 Bulgaria have the highest proportions of 1-h or greater time-accuracy reports. Efforts to improve monitoring and  
404 reporting in these regions is therefore suggested to improve the completeness of the ESWD.

405 Poland displayed anomalously large quantities of large-hail reports during the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s. The  
406 reason is linked to scientific interest in severe convective storms during these periods alongside a nationwide



407 effort by the Polish National Institute of Meteorology to record hail events via questionnaires. Yearbooks also  
408 exist for the 1960s and 1970s; however, copies are yet to be retrieved and entered into the database.

409 Even though the dataset remains too temporally incomplete to extract any trends in large-hail pattern  
410 distribution, the climatology presented here provides insight into which countries and geographical regions to  
411 target for improvements in data acquisition. This climatology also helps advance the idea that some time series  
412 are starting to show consistent behavior, suggesting their utility as climate-change baselines. Furthermore, the  
413 differences in both spatial and annual frequencies of hail in Poland over different time periods may suggest that  
414 hail trends have been changing, highlighting the importance of building and maintaining such climatologies.  
415 Therefore, the usefulness of the ESWD will only continue to expand and offer avenues for future severe  
416 convective storm research.

417

418 *Data availability.* The data were obtained from the European Severe Storms Laboratory European Severe Weather  
419 Database, in accordance with their data policies: <http://www.eswd.eu>.

420

421 *Author contributions.* FH performed the analyses and wrote the paper. DMS supervised the research, and helped  
422 write and edit the paper.

423

424 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

425

426 *Acknowledgments.* This article is derived from FH's BSc dissertation at the University of Manchester. We thank  
427 the European Severe Storms Laboratory for their kind access to the ESWD that made this work available. We  
428 thank Neil Mitchell for his comments on the dissertation.

429

430 *Financial support.* Schultz is partially supported by the Natural Environment Research Council grant numbers  
431 NE/N003918/1 and NE/W000997/1.

432

## 433 **References**

434

435 Allen, J. T., and M. K. Tippett: The characteristics of United States hail reports: 1955–2014. *Electron. J. Severe*  
436 *Storms Meteor.*, **10** (3), <http://www.ejssm.org/ojs/index.php/ejssm/article/viewArticle/149>, 2015.

437 Antonescu, B., D. M. Schultz, A. Holzer, and P. Groenemeijer: Tornadoes in Europe: An underestimated  
438 threat. *Bull. Amer. Meteorol. Soc.*, **98**, 713–728, 2017.

439 Associated Press, The: Storm floods German vaccine center, 5 injured by heavy hail. ABC News. Available at:  
440 [https://abcnews.go.com/International/wireStory/german-vaccine-center-flooded-injured-heavy-hail-](https://abcnews.go.com/International/wireStory/german-vaccine-center-flooded-injured-heavy-hail-78459538)  
441 [78459538](https://abcnews.go.com/International/wireStory/german-vaccine-center-flooded-injured-heavy-hail-78459538) (Accessed: 16 July 2021), 2021.

442 Brooks, H. E., Doswell, C.A. III, X. Zhang, A. A. Chernokulsky, E. Tochimoto, B. Hanstrum, E. de Lima  
443 Nascimento, D. M. Sills, B. Antonescu, and B. Barrett: A century of progress in severe convective storm  
444 research and forecasting. *Meteorological Monographs*, **59**, 18.1–18.41, 2019.



- 445 Botzen, W. J. W., L. M. Bouwer, and J. C. J. M. Van den Bergh: Climate change and hailstorm damage: Empirical  
446 evidence and implications for agriculture and insurance. *Resource and Energy Economics*, **32**, 341–362,  
447 2010.
- 448 Dotzek, N., P. Groenemeijer, B. Feuerstein, and A. M. Holzer: Overview of ESSL's severe convective storms  
449 research using the European Severe Weather Database ESWD. *Atmos. Res.*, **93**, 575–586, doi:  
450 10.1016/j.atmosres.2008.10.020, 2009.
- 451 ESKP: <https://www.eskp.de/en/natural-hazards/largest-hailstone-found-over-swabian-jura-935341/>. (Accessed  
452 25 March 2022), 2013.
- 453 Fluck, E., M. Kunz, P. Geissbuehler, and S. P. Ritz: Radar-based assessment of hail frequency in Europe. *Natural  
454 Hazards and Earth System Sciences*, **21**, 683–701, 2021.
- 455 Groenemeijer, P., M. Kuehne, Z. Liang, and N. Dotzek: New capabilities of the European Severe Weather  
456 Database. *5th European Conference on Severe Storms*, Landshut, Germany, 311–312, 2009.
- 457 Groenemeijer, P., and T. Kühne: A climatology of tornadoes in Europe: Results from the European Severe  
458 Weather Database. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **142**, 4775–4790, 2014.
- 459 Groenemeijer, P., T. Púčik, A. M. Holzer, B. Antonescu, K. Riemann-Campe, D. M. Schultz, T. Kühne, B.  
460 Feuerstein, H. E. Brooks, C. A. Doswell, H.-J. Koppert, and R. Sausen: Severe convective storms in Europe:  
461 Ten years of research and education at the European Severe Storms Laboratory. *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **98**,  
462 2641–2651, doi: 10.1175/BAMS-D-16-0067.1, 2017.
- 463 Groenemeijer, P., and Z. Liang: ESWD data format specification Version 1.60 and 1.60-csv. Revision 1. Tech.  
464 Report 2020-11, European Severe Storms Laboratory, 66 pp. Available at: [https://www.essl.org/cms/wp-  
465 content/uploads/ESSL-rep-2020-11.pdf](https://www.essl.org/cms/wp-content/uploads/ESSL-rep-2020-11.pdf), 2020.
- 466 Hand, W. H., and G. Cappelluti: A global hail climatology using the UK Met Office convection diagnosis  
467 procedure (CDP) and model analyses. *Meteorol. Appl.*, **18**, 446–4589, 2011.
- 468 Hawkins, E., D. Frame, L. Harrington, M. Joshi, A. King, M. Rojas, and R. Sutton: Observed emergence of the  
469 climate change signal: From the familiar to the unknown. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **47**, e2019GL086259, 2020.
- 470 Istrate, V., R. V. Dobri, F. Bărcăcianu, R. A. Ciobanu, and L. Apostol: A ten years hail climatology based on  
471 ESWD hail reports in Romania, 2007-2016. *Geographia Technica*, **12**, 110–118, 2017.
- 472 Kaonga, G.: BBC Weather: Europe braces for hail storms as heavy downpours to cover continent, Express.co.uk.  
473 Available at: [https://www.express.co.uk/news/weather/1454518/BBC-Weather-Europe-forecast-hail-  
474 storms-latest-June-2021-vn](https://www.express.co.uk/news/weather/1454518/BBC-Weather-Europe-forecast-hail-storms-latest-June-2021-vn) (Accessed: 16 July 2021), 2021.
- 475 Koźmiński, C.: Geograficzne rozmieszczenie większych burz gradowych zanotowanych na obszarze Polski w  
476 latach 1946–1956. [Geographical distribution of major hailstorms recorded in Poland in 1946–1956.] *Przegl.  
477 Geogr.*, **36** (1), 87–102, 1964.
- 478 Kunz, M., U. Blahak, J. Handwerker, M. Schmidberger, H. J. Punge, S. Mohr, E. Fluck, and K. M. Bedka: The  
479 severe hailstorm in southwest Germany on 28 July 2013: Characteristics, impacts and meteorological  
480 conditions. *Quart. J. Roy. Meteor. Soc.*, **144**, 231–250, 2018.
- 481 Kunz, M., J. Sander, and C. Kottmeier: Recent trends of thunderstorm and hailstorm frequency and their relation  
482 to atmospheric characteristics in southwest Germany. *Intl. J. Climatol.*, **29**, 2283–2297, 2009.
- 483 Kunz, M., J. Wandel, E. Fluck, S. Baumstark, S. Mohr, and S. Schemm: Ambient conditions prevailing during  
484 hail events in central Europe. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences*, **20**, 1867–1887, 2020.



- 485 Mohr, S., M. Kunz, and K. Keuler: Development and application of a logistic model to estimate the past and future  
486 hail potential in Germany. *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, **120**, 3939–3956, 2015.
- 487 Pacey, G. P., D. M. Schultz, and L. Garcia-Carreras: Severe convective windstorms in Europe: Climatology,  
488 preconvective environments, and convective mode. *Wea. Forecasting*, **36**, 237–252, doi: [10.1175/WAF-D-](https://doi.org/10.1175/WAF-D-20-0075.1)  
489 [20-0075.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/WAF-D-20-0075.1), 2021.
- 490 Piani, F., A. Crisci, G. De Chiara, G. Maracchi, and F. Meneguzzo: Recent trends and climatic perspectives of  
491 hailstorms frequency and intensity in Tuscany and Central Italy. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*, **5**, 217–224,  
492 2005.
- 493 Pilorz, W.: Very large hail occurrence in Poland from 2007 to 2015. *Contemporary Trends in Geoscience*, **4**, 45–  
494 55, 2015.
- 495 Púčik, T., C. Castellano, P. Groenemeijer, T. Kühne, A. T. Rädler, B. Antonescu, and E. Faust: Large hail  
496 incidence and its economic and societal impacts across Europe. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **147**, 3901–3916, 2019.
- 497 Punge, H. J., K. M. Bedka, M. Kunz, and A. Werner: A new physically based stochastic event catalog for hail in  
498 Europe. *Natural Hazards*, **73**, 1625–1645, 2014.
- 499 Punge, H. J., and M. Kunz: Hail observations and hailstorm characteristics in Europe: A review. *Atmos. Res.*, **176**,  
500 159–184, 2016.
- 501 Raupach, T. H., O. Martius, J. T. Allen, M. Kunz, S. Lasher-Trapp, S. Mohr, K. L. Rasmussen, R. J. Trapp, and  
502 Q. Zhang: The effects of climate change on hailstorms. *Nature Reviews Earth & Environment*, **2**, 213–226,  
503 2021.
- 504 Space: Weather Armageddon hits Poland: Huge hail and a powerful tornado. Earth Chronicles News. Available  
505 at: [https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/weather-armageddon-hits-poland-huge-hail-and-a-](https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/weather-armageddon-hits-poland-huge-hail-and-a-powerful-tornado.html)  
506 [powerful-tornado.html](https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/weather-armageddon-hits-poland-huge-hail-and-a-powerful-tornado.html) (Accessed: 16 July 2021), 2021a.
- 507 Space: Giant hail hits highway in Italy damaging hundreds of cars. Earth Chronicles News. Available at:  
508 [https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/giant-hail-hits-highway-in-italy-damaging-hundreds-of-](https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/giant-hail-hits-highway-in-italy-damaging-hundreds-of-cars.html)  
509 [cars.html](https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/giant-hail-hits-highway-in-italy-damaging-hundreds-of-cars.html) (Accessed: 31 July 2021), 2021b.
- 510 Space: Russia: Hail the size of a quail’s egg fell in the Kemerovo region. Earth Chronicles News. Available at:  
511 [https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/russia-hail-the-size-of-a-quails-egg-fell-in-the-kemerovo-](https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/russia-hail-the-size-of-a-quails-egg-fell-in-the-kemerovo-region.html)  
512 [region.html](https://earth-chronicles.com/natural-catastrophe/russia-hail-the-size-of-a-quails-egg-fell-in-the-kemerovo-region.html) (Accessed: 31 July 2021), 2021c.
- 513 Schmuck, A.: Burze gradowe. *Czas. Geogr.*, **20**, 260–267, 1949.
- 514 Suwała, K.: Hail occurrence in Poland. *Quaestiones Geographicae*, **30**, 115–126, 2011.
- 515 Suwała, K., and E. Bednorz: Climatology of hail in Central Europe. *Quaestiones Geographicae*, **32**, 99–110, 2013.
- 516 Tang, B. H., V. A. Gensini, and C. R. Homeyer: Trends in United States large hail environments and  
517 observations. *npj Climate and Atmospheric Science*, **2**, 1–7, 2019.
- 518 Taszarek, M., J. Allen, T. Púčik, P. Groenemeijer, B. Czernecki, L. Kolendowicz, K. Lagouvardos, V. Kotroni,  
519 and W. Schulz: A climatology of thunderstorms across Europe from a synthesis of multiple data sources. *J.*  
520 *Climate*, **32**, 1813–1837, 2019.
- 521 Taszarek, M., J. T. Allen, P. Groenemeijer, R. Edwards, H. E. Brooks, V. Chmielewski, and S. Enno: Severe  
522 convective storms across Europe and the United States. Part I: Climatology of lightning, large hail, severe  
523 wind, and tornadoes. *J. Climate*, **33**, 10239–10261, 2020.



- 524 Taszarek, M., J. T. Allen, H. E. Brooks, N. Pilguy, and B. Czernecki: Differing trends in United States and  
525 European severe thunderstorm environments in a warming climate. *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **102**, E296–  
526 E322, 2021.
- 527 Tuovinen, J. P., A. J. Punkka, J. Rauhala, H. Hohti, and D. M. Schultz: Climatology of severe hail in Finland:  
528 1930–2006. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **137**, 2238–2249, 2009.
- 529 Wilhelm, J., S. Mohr, H. J. Punge, B. Mühr, M. Schmidberger, J. E. Daniell, K. M. Bedka, and M. Kunz: Severe  
530 thunderstorms with large hail across Germany in June 2019. *Weather*, **76**, 228–237, 2021.
- 531 Zhang, C., Q. Zhang, and Y. Wang: Climatology of hail in China: 1961–2005. *J. Appl. Meteor. Climatol.*, **43**,  
532 795–804, 2008.
- 533 Zinkiewicz, W., and E. Michna: Częstość występowania gradów w województwie lubelskim w zależności  
534 od warunków fizjograficznych. [The frequency of hailstorms in the Lubelskie Province depending on the  
535 physiographic conditions.] *Annales UMCS B*, **10**, 223–300, 1995.