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## 6 Abstract

Under the backdrop of global climate change, the increasing intensity and frequency of anomaly climate events have led to a rise in compound extreme events. China's large population exacerbates the pressure of agricultural production, and compound drought and extreme rainfall events (CDER) can cause considerable damage to soil structure, thereby disrupting normal agricultural activities. Previous studies have revealed the impacts of the individual event, but the spatiotemporal characteristics of CDER and their effects on agricultural production remain obscure. This study focuses on compound disaster events in China's nine major agricultural regions, where drought and extreme rainfall events occur within 5 days. The results show that compound disasters are mainly concentrated in the northwest, southwest, and northern regions. The impact area of compound disasters is largest in summer, and the frequency and intensity of drought-rainfall events are higher than those of rainfall-drought events. Further analysis at the crop growth stage scale reveals the exposure of the three major cereal crops (rice, wheat, and maize) during their growth stage. The study reveals that maize generally has the highest and most variable disaster risk, rice has the lowest risk with minimal fluctuations, and wheat has moderate risk with large variations. The risk evolution in each agricultural region follows a universal pattern of "first rising and then declining", with the peak occurring around 2010. This study elucidates the spatiotemporal distribution patterns of this novel compound disaster and provides constructive insights for disaster prevention and mitigation through more refined risk assessments.

**Keywords:** compound drought and extreme rainfall events; crop maturity exposure; nine major agricultural regions in China; spatiotemporal distribution characteristics

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## 28    **1. Introduction**

29        Climate change is one of the most serious threats to human society in the 21st century  
30        and may generate more extreme weather events and show an increasing trend at regional and  
31        global scales under anthropogenic climate change (AghaKouchak et al., 2014; Leonard et al.,  
32        2014; Zscheischler et al., 2020). With the intensification of global warming, the frequency,  
33        intensity, and compound effects of extreme rainfall and drought events have shown  
34        significant increases (Fang et al., 2025; Hao et al., 2018; Walz et al., 2021). The Sixth  
35        Assessment Report of the IPCC indicates that the frequency of compound drought and  
36        extreme rainfall events globally increased by 34% between 1980 and 2020 compared to pre-  
37        industrial levels (Anon, n.d.). Farmers are constantly dealing with and managing various  
38        agricultural risks that may have compound effects (Van Winsen et al., 2013; Wauters et al.,  
39        2014). Compound extreme events can exacerbate the damage caused by individual events  
40        and push global socio-economic systems to tipping points (Dickinson et al., 2016). This is  
41        because the combined stressors can overwhelm the capacity of exposed natural and human  
42        systems to cope with extreme conditions (Jayaraman et al., 2025; Ruess et al., 2025). The  
43        hazards of compound drought and extreme rainfall events (CDER) are not only reflected in  
44        the individual effects of drought or extreme rainfall but also in their combined effects. These  
45        events can cause significant damage to soil structure: extreme rainfall-induced soil erosion  
46        leads to an annual loss of 240 billion tons of topsoil globally (Borrelli et al., 2017), while  
47        anomaly drought can reduce soil organic matter content by 40-60%. Extreme rainfall events,  
48        characterized by high intensity and short duration, can induce severe soil erosion through  
49        processes such as splash erosion and overland flow (Quansah, 1981; Wang, et al., 2021). The  
50        resultant detachment and transport of soil particles not only degrade soil fertility but also  
51        contribute to sedimentation in water bodies, exacerbating water quality issues. This alarming  
52        rate of soil erosion underscores the vulnerability of agricultural lands and natural ecosystems  
53        to hydrological extremes. Conversely, prolonged drought conditions impose distinct yet  
54        equally detrimental impacts on soil structure (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2020). Droughts reduce  
55        soil moisture levels, which are critical for maintaining soil aggregate stability and porosity.  
56        The desiccation of soil organic matter (SOM) under drought stress leads to its accelerated  
57        decomposition, resulting in a significant reduction in SOM content—often by 40-60%



58 (Goebel et al., 2011; Yang and Liu, 2020). This decline in SOM not only diminishes soil  
59 fertility but also compromises the soil's ability to retain water and nutrients, further  
60 exacerbating its susceptibility to erosion during subsequent rainfall events. Additionally,  
61 drought-induced changes in soil structure can reduce hydraulic conductivity, impairing water  
62 infiltration and increasing runoff generation during rainfall events, and the water-replenishing  
63 effect of rainfall is further limited (Caplan et al., 2019).

64 The combined effect of these two factors can reduce soil productivity by up to 75% (Lal,  
65 2015). Since the 1990s, the frequency of "drought-flood abrupt alternation" events in the  
66 South China and Southwest regions has significantly increased by over 40% (Hui et al., 2013;  
67 Shen, B.Z. et al., 2012; Wang, S. et al., 2009). These compound events pose a significant  
68 threat to China's agricultural production and ecological environment. Meanwhile, China, with  
69 only 7% of the world's arable land, must support 20% of the global population (Bongaarts,  
70 2021). Moreover, the economic losses caused by these events are substantial and widespread.  
71 For example, in 2011, after experiencing continuous drought in winter, spring, and summer,  
72 the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River suffered from heavy rainfall, resulting in  
73 over 2 million hectares of affected cropland and direct economic losses of 29.36 billion yuan  
74 (Meteorological Publishing House, 2012). Against this backdrop, the urgency of enhancing  
75 agricultural climate resilience is highlighted.

76 Existing studies have focused on the phenomenon of drought and extreme rainfall  
77 alternation, but most compound event identification studies are limited to provincial scales  
78 rather than national scales (Barriopedro et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2023). Some studies are  
79 motivated by the development of an integrated index to address the multidimensional nature  
80 of agricultural drought impacts, its spatial vulnerability perspective, and scale requirements  
81 (Murthy et al., 2015). Additionally, while some studies have quantified the risks of  
82 population and economic exposure to drought-flood abrupt alternation using shared socio-  
83 economic pathways (Meng, et al., 2024), the exposure risks of directly affected crops remain  
84 unclear. Most studies have used hydrological indices to characterize compound events,  
85 focusing on daily scales and using indices such as the standardized precipitation-  
86 evapotranspiration index. In contrast, this study uses soil moisture data to monitor compound  
87 events from an agricultural perspective rather than a hydrological one. Moreover,  
88 encountering compound events during critical crop phenological stages can amplify yield



89 losses by 3-5 times (Lesk et al., 2022). The impact of compound events on crops at different  
90 growth stages is significant, but current agricultural studies have focused more on the  
91 exposure analysis of individual extreme rainfall and drought events, with limited research on  
92 compound event exposure. From a developmental perspective, existing studies have  
93 identified and analyzed drought-flood abrupt alternation events in China from daily, monthly,  
94 and annual scales, forming four important research hotspots and frontiers: identification  
95 methods, causation analysis, evolution characteristics, and disaster damages (Shen et al.,  
96 2018; Yang and Liu, 2020). However, there is still a lack of comprehensive, national-scale  
97 analyses of secondary CDER in agricultural regions. The spatiotemporal distribution and  
98 evolution characteristics of drought-flood abrupt alternation events in China remain unclear,  
99 and research on crop exposure in the nine major grain-producing regions is still a blank space.

100 We define CDER as disaster events where drought and extreme rainfall occur within a  
101 5-day interval. Specifically, these can be divided into compound extreme rainfall-drought  
102 events  $CDER_{rd}$  (extreme rainfall followed by drought within 5 days) and compound drought-  
103 rainfall  $CDER_{dr}$  (drought followed by extreme rainfall within 5 days). The research  
104 statistically analyzes the frequency, intensity, monthly changes, and annual changes of these  
105 two types of events to reveal their spatiotemporal distribution characteristics  
106 comprehensively. Additionally, this study innovatively calculates the exposure of China's  
107 three major agricultural products (maize, wheat, and rice) during their maturation periods. By  
108 focusing on the crop growth stage, the study refines exposure calculations and trend analyses  
109 will aid in better disaster prevention and mitigation efforts based on an understanding of  
110 these compound disasters.

## 111 **2.Materials and Methods**

### 112 **2.1 Study Area**

113 China's agricultural regions are vast and geographically diverse, encompassing nine  
114 major agricultural zones that include plains, mountains, basins, and plateaus. These regions  
115 are crucial for grain production and span from 3°51'N to 53°33'N and 73°33'E to 135°05'E.  
116 The climate types are complex and varied, including tropical monsoon, subtropical monsoon,



temperate monsoon, temperate continental, and alpine climates. Crop maturity systems range from one harvest per year to three harvests per year. The agricultural zoning data of China are derived from the China Agricultural Comprehensive Zoning Map released by the National Agricultural Commission (Fig. 1), where C1 represents the Northeast China Region; C2 represents the Inner Mongolia and Great Wall Contiguous Region; C3 represents the Gansu-Xinjiang Region; C4 represents the Huang-Huai-Hai Region; C5 represents the Loess Plateau Region; C6 represents the Qinghai-Tibet Region; C7 represents the Middle-Lower Yangtze River Region; C8 represents the Southwest China Region; and C9 represents the South China Region).

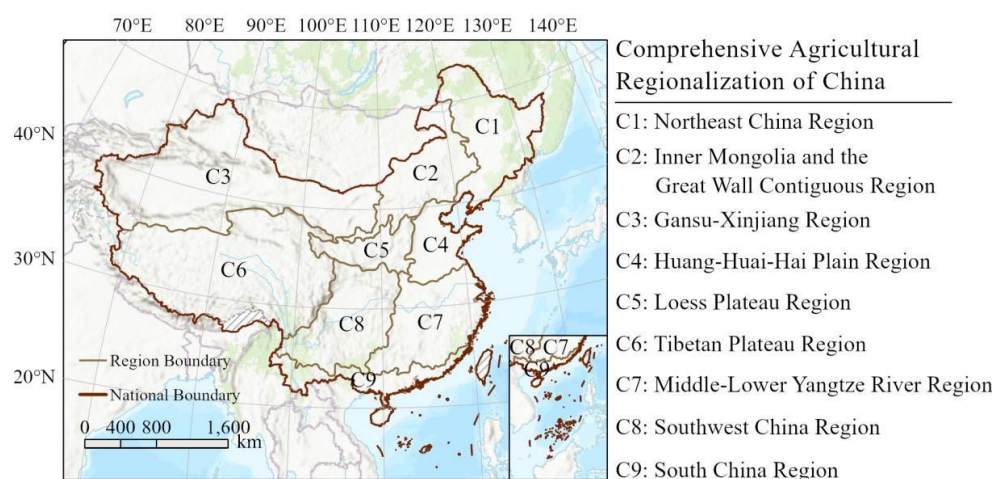


Fig.1 Agricultural Comprehensive Zoning(This map was created using Esri's ArcGIS® software. ArcGIS® and ArcMap™ are proprietary trademarks of Esri, used herein under license. © Esri. All rights reserved. For more information about Esri® software, please visit [www.esri.com](http://www.esri.com).)

## 2.2 Data

We utilized soil moisture data, precipitation data, and phenological data of the three major cereal crops. The soil moisture data were standardized to identify drought events; the 99th percentile of precipitation data for each grid cell with rainfall was set as the extreme rainfall threshold; and the phenological data of the crops were used to calculate the exposure during the maturity stage. The specific data details are as follows:

- (1) China 1km Soil Moisture Daily Dataset (2000-2022) based on station observations.



138 National Tibetan Plateau Data Center. (<https://cstr.cn/18406.11.Terre.tpd.272415>.)  
139 (2) China Daily Precipitation Dataset (1961-2022): China Daily Precipitation Dataset  
140 (1961-2022, 0.1°/0.25°/0.5°): National Tibetan Plateau Data Center.  
141 (<https://doi.org/10.11888/Atmos.tpd.300523>.[https://cstr.cn/18406.11.Atmos.tpd.300](https://cstr.cn/18406.11.Atmos.tpd.300523)  
142 [523](https://cstr.cn/18406.11.Atmos.tpd.300523).)  
143 (3) National Three Major Grain Crops 1km Planting Distribution Dataset (2000-2019):  
144 Luo Yuchuan; Zhang Zhao. National Three Major Grain Crops 1km Planting Distribution  
145 Dataset [DS/OL]. National Ecological Science Data Center.  
146 (<https://doi.org/10.12199/nescd.ecodb.rs.2022.016>.[https://cstr.cn/15732.11.nescd.ecodb.rs.20](https://cstr.cn/15732.11.nescd.ecodb.rs.2022.016)  
147 [22.016](https://cstr.cn/15732.11.nescd.ecodb.rs.2022.016).)

148 **Table 1 Data Sources**

Data Name	Time Span	Spatial resolution	Time resolution	Source
Soil Moisture	2000-2022	1km×1km	Daily	National Tibetan Plateau Data Center
Precipitation	1961-2022	9km×9km	Daily	National Tibetan Plateau Data Center
Crop Phenological Stages	2000-2019	1km×1km	Daily	National Ecological Science Data Center

149 **2.3 Methodology**

150 **2.3.1 Identification of CDER**

151 Compound events in this study are divided into two types: one is extreme rainfall  
152 followed by drought within 5 days ( $CDER_{rd}$ ), and the other is drought followed by extreme  
153 rainfall within 5 days ( $CDER_{dr}$ ) (Sun, et al., 2024). The intensity of compound drought and  
154 extreme rainfall events is composed of three parts: drought intensity, extreme rainfall  
155 intensity, and the interval time between the two events (**Eq. 1**). Extreme rainfall is defined as  
156 days with rainfall exceeding the 99th percentile threshold of the grid's rainfall days  
157 (Schillerberg and Tian, 2024). A drought event is defined as a day on which the standardized  
158 soil moisture index (SSMI) in the region falls below one negative standard deviation of the  
159 21 years mean value of this index. All extreme rainfall events are standardized and shifted to



160 ensure values are greater than or equal to zero to obtain extreme rainfall intensity. Drought  
161 events are identified using the standardized soil moisture index, with the average value  
162 during the entire drought duration representing drought intensity.

$$C = \frac{P \times D}{\Delta t} \quad (1)$$

163 Here  $C$  represents the compound event intensity,  $P$  represents the extreme rainfall  
164 intensity,  $D$  represents the drought intensity, and  $\Delta t$  represents the interval time between  
165 extreme rainfall and drought events.

### 166 **2.3.2 Mechanism of Soil Damage from CDER**

167 Compound events involving drought and extreme rainfall exert synergistic negative  
168 impacts on soil health and agricultural productivity. Extreme rainfall events induce severe  
169 soil erosion, resulting in the loss of fine particles and essential nutrients. Simultaneously,  
170 prolonged drought conditions accelerate the decomposition and depletion of soil organic  
171 matter (SOM), further weakening soil structure. Together, these processes significantly  
172 increase soil erosion susceptibility. Drought-induced degradation of soil aggregate stability  
173 reduces porosity and water retention capacity. When followed by intense, short-duration  
174 rainfall, the already-compromised soil structure is further damaged by surface runoff and the  
175 destruction of soil pores, leading to a sharp decline in the infiltration rate. As a result, the  
176 limited water that is delivered during extreme rainfall events fails to effectively rehydrate the  
177 soil, compounding the water deficit stress experienced by crops and impairing agricultural  
178 resilience.



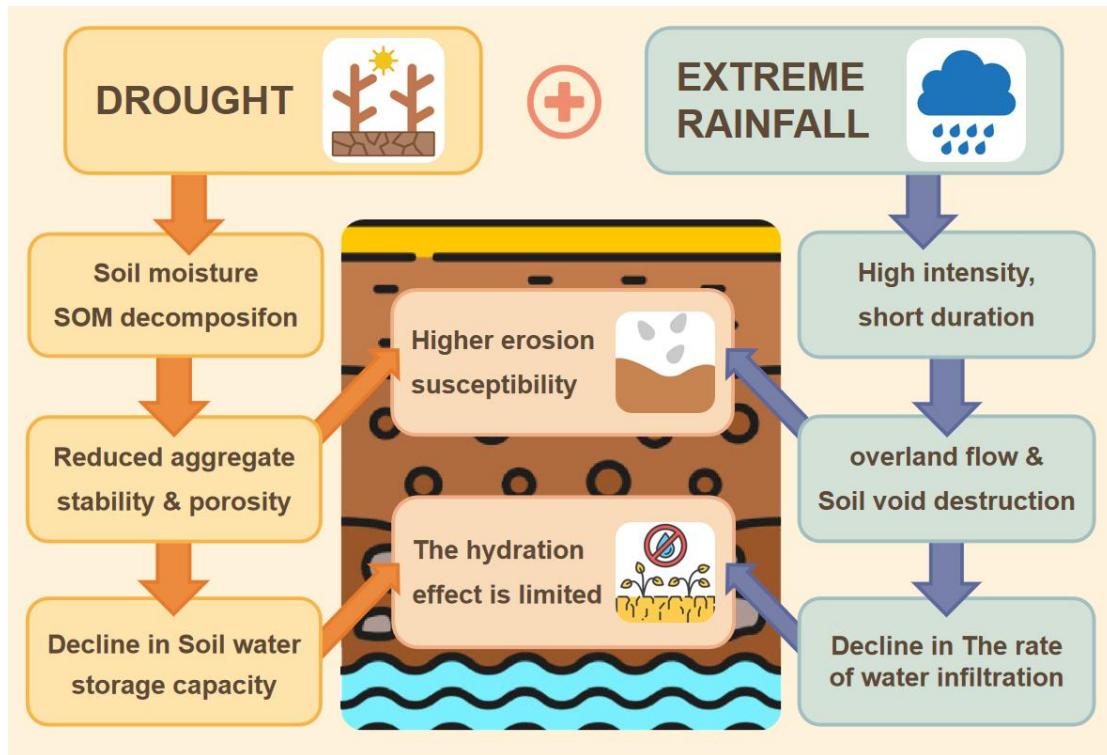


Fig.2 Schematic Diagram of Mechanism

### 2.3.3 Calculation of Crops Exposure to CDER

The exposure during the growth stage of each crop is calculated by multiplying the number of compound events occurring within the growth stage of each grid by the agricultural land area of that grid (Eq. 2). We use the crop maturity date in combination with the typical maturity period length of the three major crops to backtrack and determine the time window for the entire growing season, within which we count the occurrences of compound events to obtain  $f$ . Specifically, we select 130 days for maize, 100 days for rice, 300 days for winter wheat, and 100 days for spring wheat. In China, a large proportion of rice cultivation consists of double-cropping rice, which includes early rice and late rice. Due to its higher yield, better grain quality, greater economic value, and increased vulnerability to CDER, this study focuses exclusively on late rice.

$$Exp_{agr} = Agr \times f \quad (2)$$





192       Where  $f$  represents the frequency of compound events,  $\text{Exp}_{\text{agr}}$  represents the agricultural  
193       exposure, and  $\text{Agr}$  represents the agricultural land area.

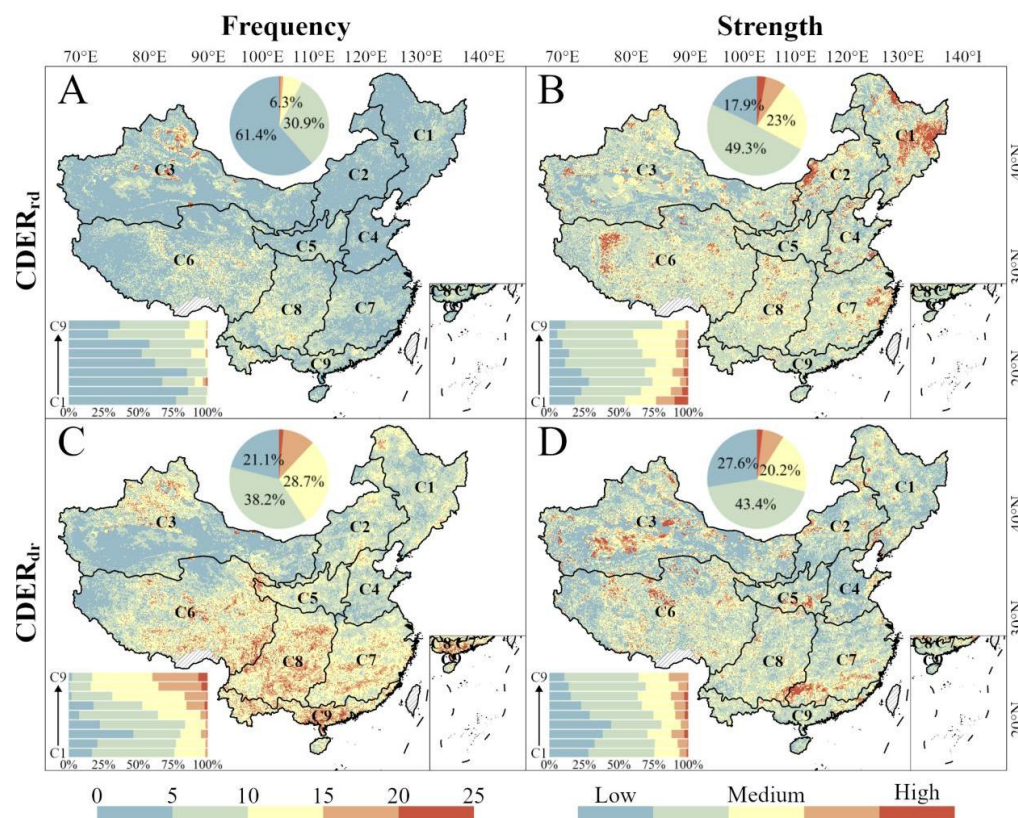
#### 194   **2.3.4 Other Statistical Methods**

195       This study employed several methods to analyze CDER. Soil moisture data are  
196       standardized to identify drought conditions by transforming them to a distribution with a  
197       mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. The Least Squares Method (LSM) is used to fit a  
198       linear trend and assess annual changes in the frequency of compound events. The K-Means  
199       clustering algorithm classifies event intensity into five levels based on data similarity. Loess  
200       regression is applied to model local trends in crop risk evolution, capturing non-linear  
201       patterns through weighted least squares within local neighborhoods. These approaches  
202       enabled a comprehensive analysis of extreme climate events in relation to crop phenology  
203       and soil moisture.

### 204   **3.Result**

#### 205   **3.1 Spatiotemporal Characteristics of CDER**

206       The spatial distribution of the frequency and intensity of compound drought-rainfall  
207       and compound rainfall-drought events across China is shown in [Fig.3](#). Overall, the  
208       frequency is higher in the northwest and southwest regions, particularly in the Hengduan  
209       Mountains and northern Xinjiang. The two types of compound disasters exhibit spatial  
210       heterogeneity. The high-intensity regions of compound drought-rainfall events are mainly  
211       concentrated in the northern areas, especially in parts of Northeast China and Inner  
212       Mongolia. In contrast, compound rainfall-drought events have high-intensity regions not  
213       only in the northeast but also in the south, particularly in South China and the Jianghuai  
214       region. Compared to  $\text{CDER}_{\text{rd}}$ , the frequency of  $\text{CDER}_{\text{dr}}$  is significantly higher.



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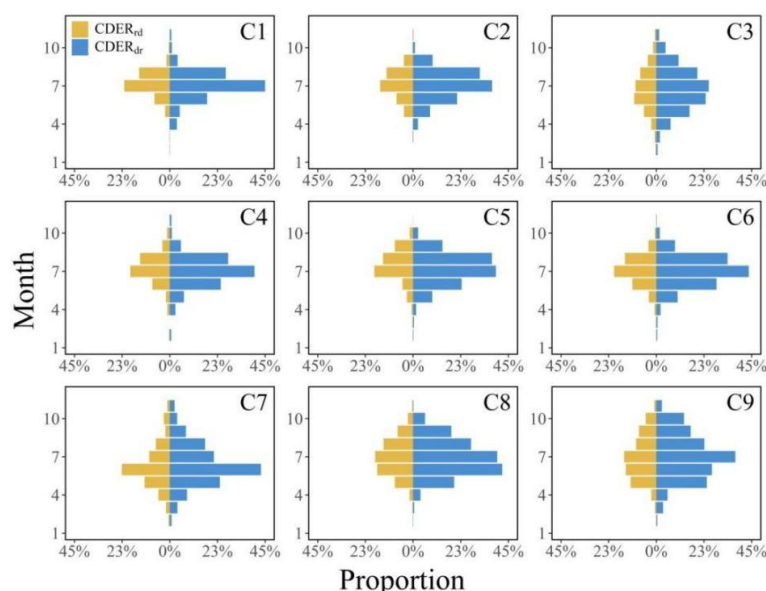
216 Fig.3 Spatial Distribution of Compound Drought and Extreme Rainfall Events(Figure A  
217 and B show the frequency and intensity of  $CDER_{rd}$ , respectively, while Figure C and D depict  
218 the frequency and intensity of  $CDER_{dr}$ . The bar charts represent the proportion of different  
219 color values within each region, while the pie charts show the proportion of each magnitude  
220 across the entire country.)

221  $CDER_{dr}$  and  $CDER_{rd}$  exhibit distinct seasonal differences. The monthly average  
222 affected area of  $CDER_{dr}$  and  $CDER_{rd}$  in the nine agricultural regions is shown in Fig. 4.  
223 The temporal trends are similar across regions, with no significant inter-regional  
224 differences. Overall,  $CDER_{dr}$  have the highest affected area during summer (June, July,  
225 and August), reaching over 20% of the total area. Each region's bar chart shows a  
226 unimodal distribution, with the northern regions (C1-C6) peaking in July and the  
227 southwest and south China regions (C7-C9) peaking in June. The affected area of  $CDER_{dr}$   
228 is almost zero from December to January, indicating that these events rarely occur in



229 winter and are mainly distributed in the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River,  
230 southwest, and south China regions.

231 Comparing the monthly changes in the affected areas of  $CDER_{dr}$  and  $CDER_{rd}$ , both  
232 show consistent monthly trends, with the highest occurrence in summer, followed by  
233 spring and autumn, and almost no occurrence in winter. However, the affected area of  
234  $CDER_{dr}$  is significantly higher than that of  $CDER_{rd}$ . The affected area of  $CDER_{dr}$  can reach  
235 up to 40%, while that of  $CDER_{rd}$  is around 20%. Overall, the affected area of  $CDER_{dr}$  is  
236 approximately twice that of  $CDER_{rd}$ . Additionally, in C9,  $CDER_{dr}$  shows a relatively high  
237 peak in July, while  $CDER_{rd}$  does not exhibit a significant peak.



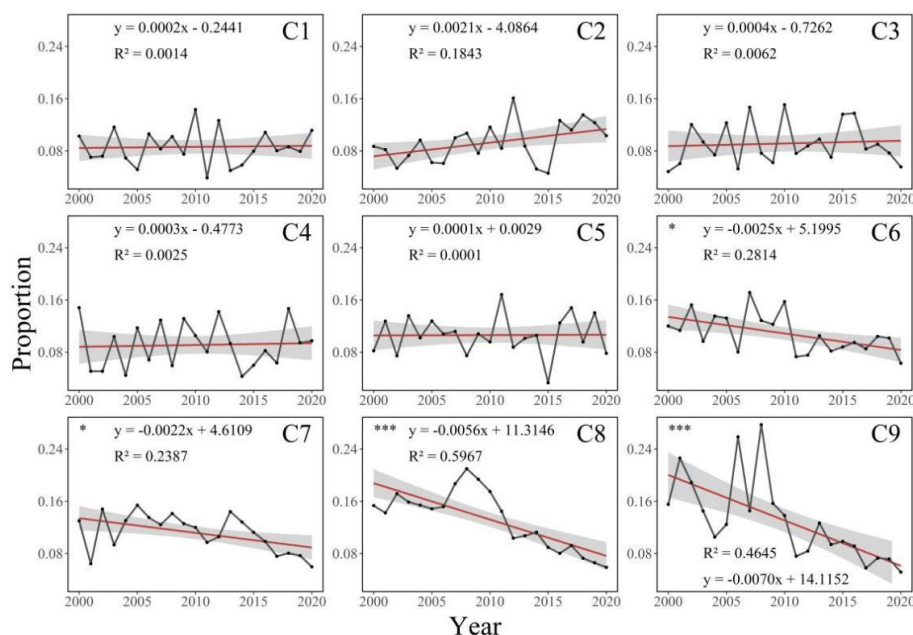
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239 Fig.4 Monthly Average Affected Area of Compound Drought-Rainfall Events (C1  
240 to C9 represent the nine major agricultural regions mentioned earlier, with yellow  
241 indicating  $CDER_{rd}$  and blue representing  $CDER_{dr}$ )

242 The annual changes in the affected area of the two types of compound events show  
243 certain regional differences. This study further analyzes the annual trends in the affected  
244 area of the two types of events in the nine agricultural regions from 2000 to 2020 (Fig. 5,  
245 Fig. 6). The distribution patterns are similar across regions, with significant differences  
246 mainly in C1, C2, C3, C4 and C5. Both types of compound events show an increasing



247 trend in these regions, with compound rainfall-drought events increasing more  
248 significantly. However, in C3 and C4, a slight decreasing trend was observed from 2018  
249 to 2020.  $CDER_{dr}$  only showed a significant increasing trend in C1, with no significant  
250 changes in other areas. In contrast, C7 and C9 showed a decreasing trend in both types of  
251 compound events, with  $CDER_{rd}$  decreasing more significantly.  $CDER_{dr}$  showed no  
252 significant trend in C7 and C8, with a peak in 2014 and a slight rebound around 2019.  
253 C9 showed a fluctuating decreasing trend, with an upward trend after 2017. C6 showed a  
254 unique pattern, with a decreasing trend in  $CDER_{dr}$  and an increasing trend in  $CDER_{rd}$ .



255

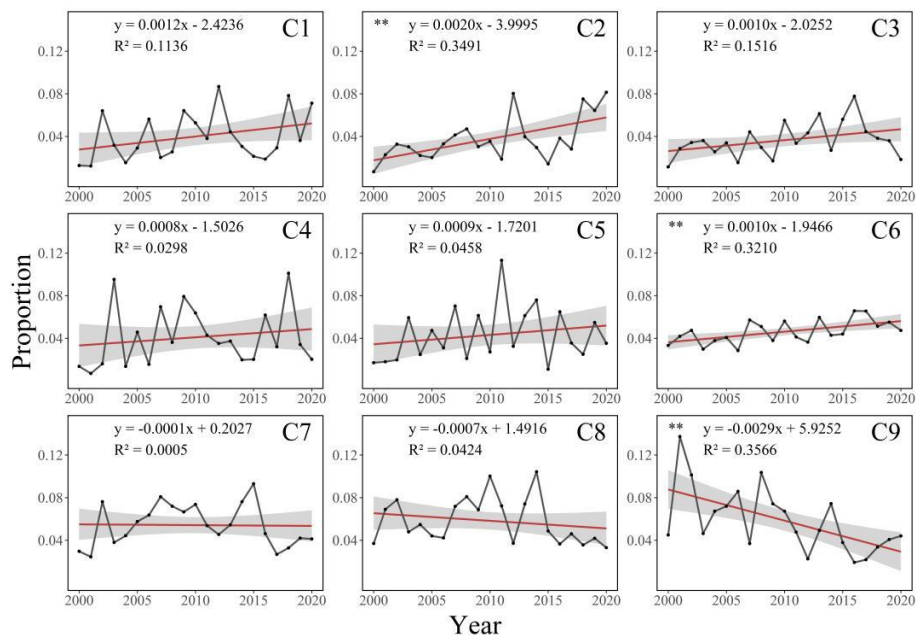
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258

259

Fig. 5 Annual Frequency of Compound Drought-Rainfall Events (Red line represents the fitted trend line, and the shaded area represents the confidence interval. One star indicates  $p < 0.05$ , two stars indicate  $p < 0.01$ , and three stars indicate  $p < 0.001$ )



260

261 Fig. 6 Annual Frequency of Compound Rainfall-Drought Events (Red line  
262 represents the fitted trend line, and the shaded area represents the confidence  
263 interval. One star indicates  $p < 0.05$ , two stars indicate  $p < 0.01$ , and three stars  
264 indicate  $p < 0.001$ )

### 265 3.2 Agricultural Production Exposure Analysis

#### 266 3.2.1 Spatial Distribution of Compound Event Risk in Nine Major Agricultural Regions

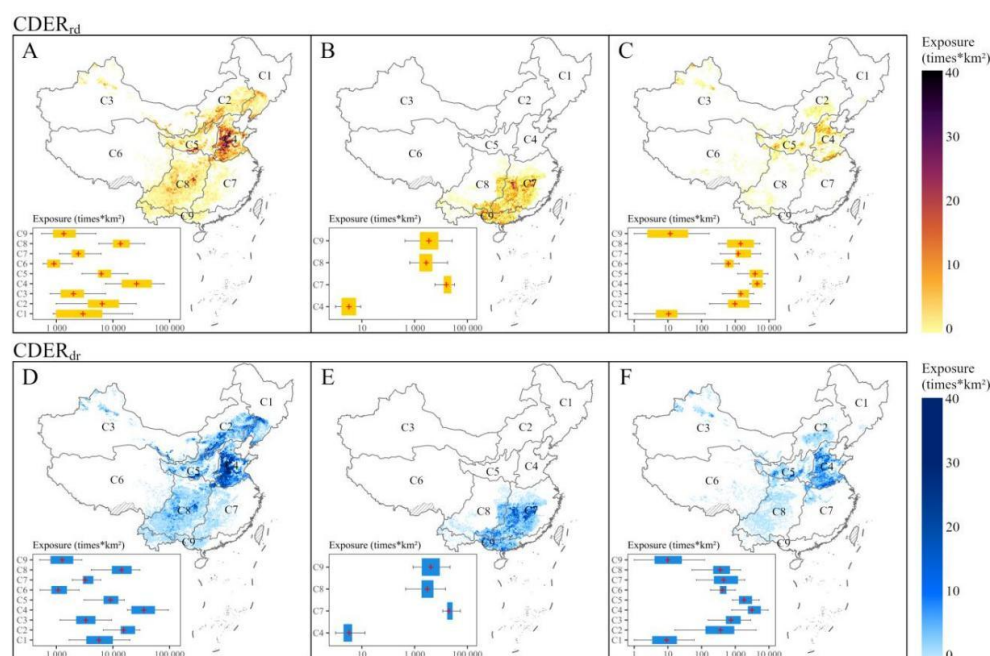
267 The boxplots of compound event risk for maize, rice, and wheat in the nine  
268 agricultural regions (Fig. 7) show significant differences in exposure across crops and  
269 regions, with noticeable fluctuations. Overall, C8 has the highest exposure for all crops,  
270 while regions with unique geographical environments, C1, C2, and C6, exhibit lower  
271 exposure. Among the three major crops, wheat has the highest average exposure,  
272 followed by maize, while rice has the lowest exposure due to its limited planting areas.

273 Specifically, maize has a high and highly variable disaster risk, particularly in C4  
274 and C5. The high risk in these areas may be due to the large maize planting areas and  
275 frequent disaster occurrences, resulting in higher exposure. In contrast, rice has a lower  
276 exposure with minimal fluctuations, likely due to its growth adaptability and relatively





277 stable local climate conditions. Although C7, C8, and C9 have higher exposure, the  
278 fluctuations are small, indicating that the growth risks of rice in these regions are  
279 relatively manageable. Wheat has a moderate exposure with large variations, especially in  
280 C4 and C5. The exposure for wheat in these regions are more dispersed and show  
281 significant differences. Comparing the risks across regions, C1 and C6 have low disaster  
282 risks for all three crops, but the reasons are different. The Northeast has a suitable climate  
283 for crop growth and fewer disasters, while the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau has low crop  
284 planting areas. The C8 shows a moderate to high disaster risk, indicating that climate  
285 change and disaster occurrences in this region may have a certain impact on crop planting.  
286 Overall, crop disaster risks are closely related to regional climate characteristics. Maize  
287 faces higher disaster risks in regions with severe climate change, while rice is relatively  
288 stable, and wheat shows significant regional differences.



289

290 Fig. 7 Boxplots and Spatial Distribution Maps of Exposure Risk for the Three Major  
291 Crops in the Nine Agricultural Regions (A1, A2, A3 represent the exposure during  
292  $CDER_{rd}$  for maize, rice, and wheat, respectively; B1, B2, B3 represent the exposure  
293 during  $CDER_{dr}$  for maize, rice, and wheat, The box plots display the distribution of  
294 exposure values across the different regions.)





### 3.2.2 Annual Changes in exposure of the Three Major Crops

Based on the exposure data of maize in the nine agricultural regions from 2000 to 2019, fitted curves were constructed (Fig. 8). Overall, the risk evolution in each agricultural region follows a universal pattern of "first rising and then declining," with the risk peak occurring around 2010. This is closely related to the high frequency and intensity of compound events in that year. Specifically, C1, C3, C5, and C7 show a three-stage characteristic of "rise-decline-rise." A significant trough was formed in 2013, followed by a risk rebound, especially in C5 and middle and lower reaches of C7. In contrast, C2, C4, C6, and C8 maintain a typical single-peak pattern, with no further breakthrough of the previous high point after 2010. Notably, C9 shows a unique trend of "first declining and then rising," which may be related to the expansion of maize planting areas in later years. In terms of regional risk levels, C4 has the highest risk value, followed by C2, C5, and C8, while C1, C3, C6, C7, and C9 have relatively lower risk values. Spatial heterogeneity analysis indicates that the differences in maize planting scales across agricultural regions are the key driving factors behind the formation of the risk distribution pattern.

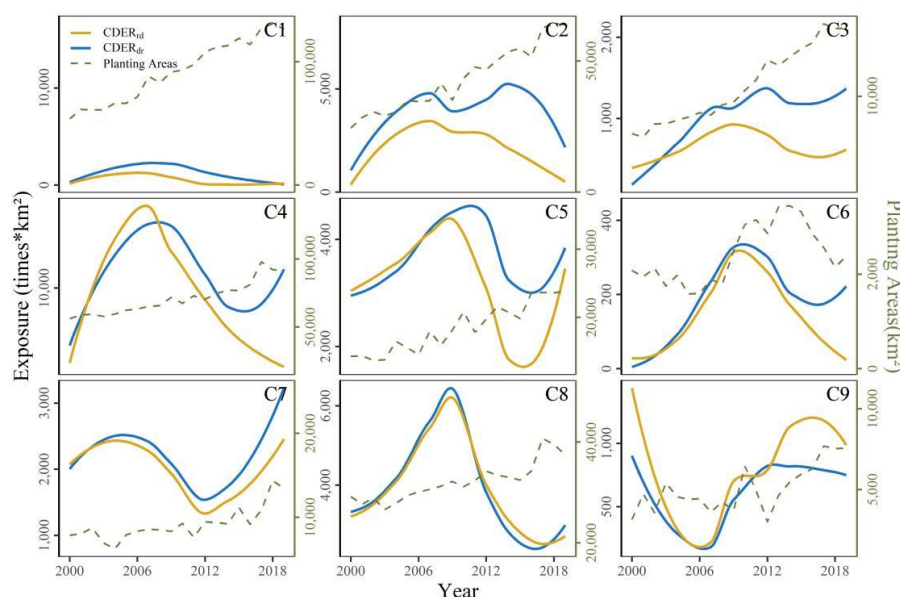
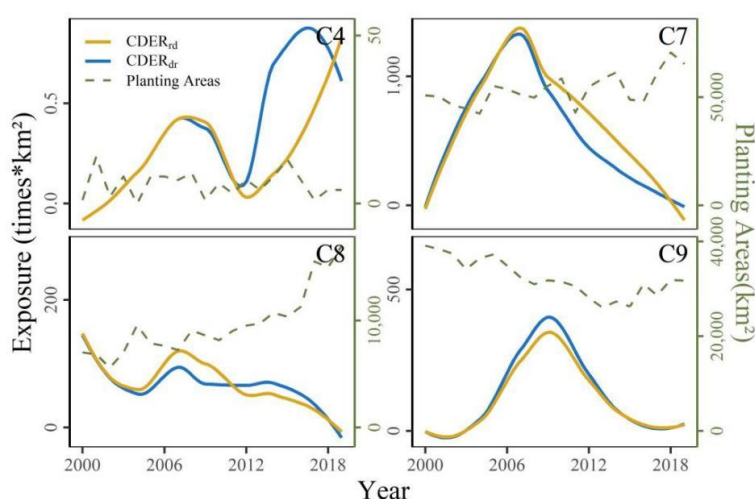


Fig. 8 Fitted Curve of Maize Exposure Risk During  $CDER_{rd}$  in the Nine Agricultural



Regions (2000-2019) (The yellow curve represents the annual exposure trend for  $CDER_{dr}$ , the blue curve represents the annual exposure trend for  $CDER_{rd}$ , while the green line shows the annual variation in planting area. )

The fitted curves of rice exposure risk in the nine agricultural regions from 2000 to 2019 were plotted (Fig. 9). Overall, the disaster risk in most regions remained stable during this period, with no significant fluctuations or upward trends. Specifically, C1, C2, C3, C5, and C6 had no rice planting, and thus the exposure risk remained zero. C9 showed a unique change, with relatively uniform distribution of data points and a small variation in the fitted curve. Only in 2009 and 2014 were there noticeable exposure risks, and each time the risk value was relatively high. In contrast, C4 showed a trend of first rising, then falling, and rising again, with an overall upward trend in risk, indicating that this region faced higher disaster risks over the past 20 years. C7 showed a trend of first rising and then falling, while C8 showed certain fluctuations with both increases and decreases in risk, but the overall exposure risk tended to decline. In terms of regional risk levels, C7 had the highest risk value, while other agricultural regions had generally low exposure risks.

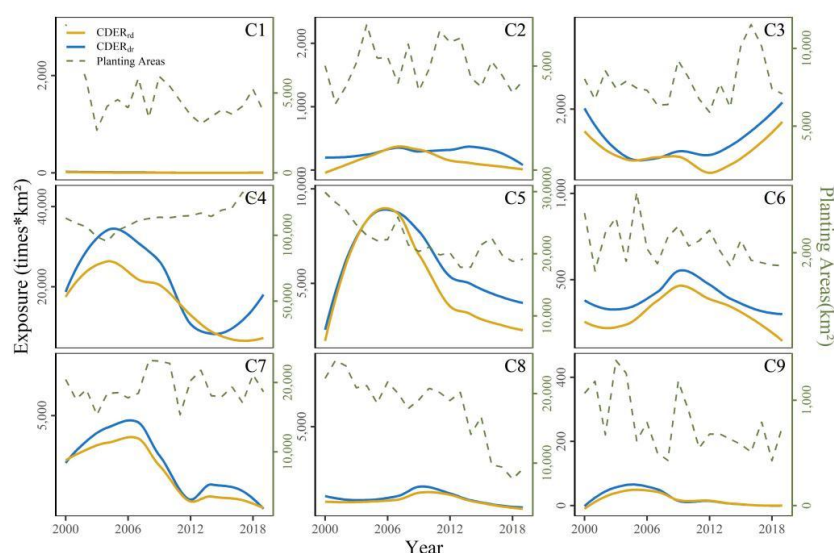


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Fig. 9 Fitted Curve of Rice Exposure Risk During  $CDER_{rd}$  in the Nine Agricultural Regions (2000-2019) (The yellow curve represents the annual exposure trend for  $CDER_{dr}$ , the blue curve represents the annual exposure trend for  $CDER_{rd}$ , while the green line shows the annual variation in planting area. )



334 The exposure risk of wheat in the nine agricultural regions from 2000 to 2019 was  
335 analyzed (**Fig. 10**). The results showed that the exposure risk of wheat remained stable in  
336 most agricultural regions. Specifically, C1, C2, C7, and C9 had almost zero exposure risk  
337 to compound events during the observation period. C1 had a slight risk value before 2010,  
338 which then completely declined to zero. C2, C7, C9 showed minor fluctuations but an  
339 overall decreasing trend in risk. Notably, C3 and C6 exhibited periodic fluctuations in  
340 exposure risk but remained at a basic risk threshold. C4 and C5 showed a significant  
341 "first rising and then declining" risk evolution pattern, with high risk indices. In terms of  
342 regional risk patterns, C4 had the highest risk index of 20,000, followed by C5 with  
343 10,000, while other agricultural regions had risk values generally below 6,000. As the  
344 core wheat-producing regions in China, the high-risk characteristics of the Huang-Huai-  
345 Hai and the Loess Plateau regions are significantly correlated with regional agricultural  
346 planting scales. Similarly, the comparison of exposure risks between the two types of  
347 compound events revealed that the exposure risk caused by compound drought-rainfall  
348 events is almost twice that of compound rainfall-drought events.



349

350 Fig. 10 Fitted Curve of Wheat Exposure Risk During  $CDER_{rd}$  in the Nine  
351 Agricultural Regions (2000-2019) (The yellow curve represents the annual exposure  
352 trend for  $CDER_{dr}$ , the blue curve represents the annual exposure trend for  $CDER_{rd}$ , while  
353 the green line shows the annual variation in planting area. )



354 For all types of grain crops, the exposure risk caused by  $CDER_{dr}$  is significantly higher  
355 than that caused by  $CDER_{rd}$ . However, this two-fold relationship is not always observed. The  
356 study found that in agricultural regions with larger crop planting areas, the ratio of exposure  
357 risk between the two types of compound events is closer to the two-fold relationship between  
358 the affected areas of drought-rainfall and rainfall-drought events. This phenomenon can be  
359 attributed to the geographical non-overlap between the occurrence of compound events and  
360 major crop planting areas. When the agricultural planting area expands, the spatial coupling  
361 degree between the compound event occurrence area and the crop planting area increases,  
362 leading to a gradual increase in exposure. Additionally, the blue lines reflecting the annual  
363 changes in crop planting areas in each agricultural region show two general scenarios when  
364 combined with the exposure risk calculation results: (1) Opposite trends, where an increase in  
365 planting area leads to a decrease in exposure risk or a decrease in planting area leads to an  
366 increase in exposure risk; (2) One remains stable while the other fluctuates, either with  
367 minimal changes in planting area but significant fluctuations in exposure or vice versa. Both  
368 scenarios suggest that the interannual changes in exposure risk are primarily the result of  
369 changes in compound drought and extreme rainfall events themselves.

## 370 4. Discussion

### 371 4.1 Consistency Analysis of the Spatiotemporal Characteristics of $CDER$

372 Numerous studies have focused on the distribution patterns and impacts of drought-  
373 flood abrupt alternation events. These events share similarities with the  $CDER_{dr}$  studied here,  
374 but they are typically approached from a hydrological perspective using runoff data, whereas  
375 our study focuses on the agricultural system using soil moisture data. Moderate rainfall  
376 following drought generally has a positive impact on agricultural production and the  
377 ecological environment. However, if drought abruptly turns into flooding, it can exacerbate  
378 soil erosion and other disasters, causing more severe impacts on crops and worsening water  
379 quality (Bi, 2022; Huang et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2022). In the field of  $CDER_{rd}$  and  $CDER_{dr}$ ,  
380 previous studies have indicated that in the Yangtze River middle and lower reaches, the  
381 frequency of  $CDER_{dr}$  is mainly concentrated in July and August each year, while the intensity



382 shows certain fluctuations. In the Jianghuai-Huai River Basin, the onset of the rainy season in  
383 drought-prone and semi-humid regions is delayed by 1–2 months compared to that in humid  
384 regions, making the semi-humid and humid areas high-incidence regions for drought-flood  
385 abrupt alternation events (Xue, et al., 2024). Additionally, studies in Fujian Province, China,  
386 have found that  $CDER_{rd}$  occur more frequently in February, July, and August, while  $CDER_{dr}$   
387 have a higher occurrence rate from June to October (Zhang et al., 2018). These findings are  
388 highly consistent with our results, further validating the spatiotemporal distribution  
389 characteristics of compound events in these regions.

390 However, due to significant differences in the identification methods, definition criteria,  
391 and time scales used in different studies, some discrepancies inevitably exist in the results.  
392 The study shows that  $CDER_{dr}$  have significantly higher frequency and intensity than  $CDER_{rd}$ ,  
393 with values approximately twice as high. Some studies using surface runoff data or the  
394 standardized precipitation index as indicators of compound events have found that the  
395 frequency and intensity of drought-flood and flood-drought events are comparable. Moreover,  
396 several scholars have explored the correlation between drought-flood abrupt alternation  
397 events and complex climate factors (Bian, 2023; Wang, et al., 2024), but the specific physical  
398 mechanisms behind these events are still under investigation, with no unified conclusions yet  
399 formed.

## 400 **4.2 Uncertainty in the Impact of CDER on Crop Growth Stages**

401 This study focuses on the maturity months of the three major grain crops and uses the  
402 monthly frequency of  $CDER_{rd}$  and  $CDER_{dr}$ , along with 1km spatial resolution crop planting  
403 data, to characterize the exposure scenarios of the three major grain crops during their  
404 maturation periods in China's nine agricultural regions. Previous studies on crop exposure  
405 have mostly used annual time scales, such as those calculating exposure of population and  
406 farmland on a global scale for historical and future periods (2005 and 2085) (Tabari and  
407 Willems, 2023). However, disaster occurrences throughout the year do not always coincide  
408 with agricultural activities, leading to overestimation of crop exposure. Our study, which  
409 refines the exposure assessment to the crop maturity period, overcomes this limitation and  
410 provides a more accurate exposure profile.

411 Studies have shown that drought stress significantly affects crop yield, with varying



412 impacts on different growth stages and species. For rice, drought during the reproductive  
413 stage causes a greater yield reduction compared to the early stages(Boonjung and Fukai et al.,  
414 1996). Similarly, wheat shows continuous yield reductions throughout its growth cycle.  
415 Maize is also more severely affected during the reproductive stage, with early-stage stress  
416 causing lasting damage to photosynthetic capacity(Daryanto et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2017).  
417 Overall, maize appears to be more sensitive to drought than wheat, with yield reductions of  
418 39.3% and 20.6%, respectively, under 40% water reduction(Daryanto et al., 2016). Therefore,  
419 failing to consider the sensitivity of different growth stages of crops to compound drought  
420 and extreme rainfall events can lead to overestimation or underestimation of risks. We  
421 suggest that future research should focus on designing experiments or other forms of  
422 investigation to explore the sensitivity of different growth stages of the three major grain  
423 crops to compound disasters. Based on this, key growth stages should be identified to  
424 incorporate the vulnerability of the affected bodies into more refined exposure risk studies.

## 425 5. Conclusions

426 This study defines compound drought and extreme rainfall events, including  $CDER_{dr}$   
427 and  $CDER_{rd}$ , and analyzes their spatiotemporal distribution in China's nine major agricultural  
428 regions. High-intensity  $CDER_{dr}$  are concentrated in the north, especially Northeast China and  
429 Inner Mongolia, while  $CDER_{rd}$  are widespread in the northeast and south, particularly South  
430 China and the Jianghuai region.  $CDER_{dr}$  occur with higher frequency and intensity, affecting  
431 up to 40% of the area, compared to 20% for  $CDER_{rd}$ . Both event types are most prevalent in  
432 summer, with regional differences observed in annual affected area changes, especially in the  
433 Northeast, Inner Mongolia, Great Wall, Gansu-Xinjiang, Huang-Huai-Hai, and Loess Plateau  
434 regions.

435 The study further refines the calculation of exposure to compound events for maize, rice,  
436 and wheat during their crop maturity periods. Results show significant regional differences in  
437 disaster risk, with C8 facing the highest risk for all crops, while regions like C1, C2, and C6  
438 experience lower risks. Among the crops, wheat faces the highest risk, followed by maize,  
439 while rice has the lowest exposure due to limited planting areas. The risk evolution across  
440 regions follows a common pattern of rising and then declining, with a peak around 2010,





coinciding with higher frequencies and intensities of compound events.

## Data availability

(1) China 1km Soil Moisture Daily Dataset (2000-2022) based on station observations. National Tibetan Plateau Data Center. (<https://cstr.cn/18406.11.Terre.tpd.c.272415>.)

(2) China Daily Precipitation Dataset (1961-2022): China Daily Precipitation Dataset (1961-2022, 0.1°/0.25°/0.5°): National Tibetan Plateau Data Center. (<https://doi.org/10.11888/Atmos.tpd.c.300523>.<https://cstr.cn/18406.11.Atmos.tpd.c.300523>.)

(3) National Three Major Grain Crops 1km Planting Distribution Dataset (2000-2019): Luo Yuchuan; Zhang Zhao. National Three Major Grain Crops 1km Planting Distribution Dataset [DS/OL]. National Ecological Science Data Center. (<https://doi.org/10.12199/nesdc.ecodb.rs.2022.016>.<https://cstr.cn/15732.11.nesdc.ecodb.rs.2022.016>.)

## Author contribution

**Hanming Cao:** Writing-original draft, Writing-review & editing, Conceptualization, Data curation, Investigation, Methodology, Validation. **Qiren Yang:** Writing-review & editing, Conceptualization, Visualization. **Wei Yang:** original draft & editing, Data curation, Methodology. **Lin Zhao:** Writing-review & editing, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Resources.

## Competing interests

The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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