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Gravity Waves Enhance the Extreme Precipitation in Henan, China, July 2021

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Key Points:

- The gravity waves associated with banded convection southwest of the rainfall center enhance extreme precipitation.
- The gravity waves originated from a mountain and propagated through a stable wave duct at altitude of 5 to 9 km.
- The downward wave energy from these gravity waves interact with the upward wave energy from gravity waves excited by latent heating.

16 **Abstract**

17 This study utilizes radar, sounding observations, and convective-permitting simulations with a
18 non-hydrostatic mesoscale model to investigate the effects of gravity waves originating from the
19 southwest mountain on the intensification of the extreme precipitation event occurred in Henan
20 Province, Central China, in July 2021 (referred to as the "21.7" event). The gravity waves have
21 wave speeds of approximately 11.5 m s^{-1} and wavelengths ranging from 60 to 90 km. These
22 gravity waves are generated by the interaction between a northwest-southeast direction mountain
23 (Funiu Mountain, FNM) and a southwesterly flow originated from the mesoscale convective
24 vortex (MCV) developing from an inverted trough southwest of the rainfall center. Then, these
25 waves propagate northeastward through a wave duct featuring a stable layer between 5 and 9 km
26 altitude, capped by a low-stability reflecting layer with a critical level. As they propagate, these
27 waves trigger banded convective cells along their path. Upon the arrival of gravity wave peaks at
28 the rainfall center, they induce the downward energy flux of gravity waves from high
29 troposphere levels ($\sim 7 \text{ km}$). The downward wave energy dynamically interacts with the upward
30 wave energy from gravity waves excited by latent heating at the lower tropospheric level (~ 1
31 km). This synergistic effect intensifies the ascending motion and results in a precipitation
32 increase of over 20% at the rainfall center. This study highlights the significance of orographic
33 gravity waves in shaping extreme precipitation events.

34 **Plain Language Summary**

35 On July 20, 2021, the city of Zhengzhou, China, experienced an unprecedented and
36 exceptionally intense rainfall event, setting a new record for mainland China. The presence of
37 banded convection suggests that gravity waves likely played a significant role in contributing to
38 this extreme rainfall. These gravity waves originate from a mountain and propagate horizontally
39 towards the rainfall center in the plain area on the leeward slope. Upon the arrival of the gravity
40 wave at the rainfall center, the downward wave energy interacts with the upward wave energy
41 from gravity waves excited by latent heating, resulting in the intensification of low-level upward
42 motion and convection. In essence, this process underscores the notable role played by
43 orographic gravity waves in amplifying extreme precipitation events.

44 **1 Introduction**

45 Heavy rainfall is one of a frequently occurred extreme weather phenomena that
46 contributes significantly to urban waterlogging, floods, and debris flows (Tao, 1980). They are
47 often generated by mesoscale convective systems (MCS), particularly quasi-stationary
48 convective systems (QSCS), that exhibit a tendency to produce extremely large precipitation
49 over a small area (Ding et al., 1978; Schumacher & Johnson, 2005; Schumacher, 2009;
50 Schumacher & Rasmussen, 2020; Bai et al., 2021; Fu et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2023). The
51 behavior of MCS, including their triggering, maintenance, and enhancement can be related to
52 gravity waves (Zhang et al., 2001; Garvert et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2016; Hua et al., 2020).

53 In July 2021, an extreme heavy precipitation event occurred in Henan Province, central
54 China, resulted in significant casualties and property damage (Su et al., 2021). Notably, on July
55 20, the Zhengzhou National Meteorological Observation Station recorded record-breaking hourly
56 rainfall of 201.9 mm, surpassing previous records in mainland China (Su et al., 2021). Studies
57 consensus attributed this exceptional rainfall to a QSCS above the rainfall center (Ran et al.,
58 2021; Chyi et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2023). The formation and sustenance of this QSCS were

59 influenced by multiple mesoscale systems, including the southwest airflow generated by the
60 Mesoscale Convective Vortex (MCV) located west of the rainfall center (Fu et al., 2022), the
61 expansive southeast low-level jet (Luo & Du, 2022), the mesoscale northeast barrier jet
62 developed by the eastern slopes of the Taihang Mountain obstructing the easterly flow (Wei et
63 al., 2023), and the northerly downslope gravity current caused by nocturnal radiative cooling on
64 the southern slopes of the Taihang Mountain (Sun et al., 2023). Both the low-level jet and barrier
65 jet are linked to terrain-blocking effects, while the south-west flow in front of the MCV may be
66 influenced by terrain as it passes through the FNM. Thus, these converging airflows from various
67 mesoscale systems were key contributors to the formation of QSCS.

68 To enhance the comprehension of the mechanisms underpinning the extreme rainfall
69 event, extensive analysis has been carried out on the relationship between the QSCS evolution
70 and convective cells southwest of the rainfall center. Ran et al. (2021) suggested that on July 20,
71 a stable mesoscale cloud cluster was observed over the rainfall center, with small cloud clusters
72 to continuously converging from the southwest, subsequently reinforcing the stable mesoscale
73 cloud cluster. This stable mesoscale cloud cluster corresponded to the QSCS, while the small
74 cloud clusters are associated with convective cells originating from the southwest (Ran et al.,
75 221; Liang et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2022). Through radar reflectivity analysis, it has been
76 revealed that these convective cells initiate at the Funiu mountain (FNM) and progress
77 northeastward towards the rainfall center, resulting in the generation of southwest-northeast-
78 oriented banded convection between the terrain and the center of rainfall. The merging of these
79 convective cells with the QSCS leads to enhanced convection and extreme precipitation (Liang
80 et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2022; Chyi et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2023). These results have
81 consistently implied that orographic effects of FNM could be important for precipitation
82 intensity. However, the mechanisms of orographic effects behind the extreme precipitation
83 remain not clear, especially for their impacts on the formation and development of these
84 convective cells.

85 Several studies have highlighted three key characteristics of the convective cells
86 southwest of the rainfall center (Liang et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2022; Chyi et al., 2022; Wei et
87 al., 2023). Firstly, during their propagation, these convective cells give rise to a band of
88 convection oriented southwest-northeast. Secondly, the convective cells originate from the FNM.
89 Thirdly, once these convective cells reach the rainfall center, the QSCS was significantly
90 amplified (Ran et al., 2021; Huang, 2022; Wei et al., 2023). Band-like convective activities are
91 commonly influenced by gravity waves (Lindzen & Tung, 1976; Zhang et al., 2001; Kirshbaum
92 et al., 2007a; Kingsmill et al., 2016; Du & Zhang, 2019; Bai et al., 2021). Gravity waves can be
93 excited by terrain (Scorer, 1949), and the vertical disturbances induced by gravity waves have
94 the potential to trigger convection (Hua et al., 2020) and enhance precipitation (Wu et al., 2016).
95 It is, therefore, plausible to assume that the convective cells southwest of the rainfall center are
96 associated with gravity waves generated by the FNM. As these convective cells approach the
97 rainfall center, the QSCS and precipitation may intensify due to the vertical disturbances induced
98 by gravity waves.

99 The aforementioned studies provided evidence indicating the potential significant role of
100 gravity waves in the "21.7" heavy rainfall event. The issue we concerned is: how do gravity
101 waves contribute to precipitation in the center of "21.7" heavy rainfall? To address this issue,
102 sensitivity simulations shall be conducted to examine the characteristics of convective cells

103 southwest of the rainfall center, explore their potential correlation with gravity waves, and
 104 investigate the effects of gravity waves on precipitation during the "21.7" event.

105 The rest of this paper is arranged as follows: section 2 introduces data, methods,
 106 experiment design. Section 3 provides a brief overview of the "21.7" event, and validates the
 107 simulation results. In section 4, the relationship between convective cells (manifested as band
 108 convection) located southwest of the rainfall center and gravity waves, the mechanisms of
 109 gravity wave excitation and propagation, and the impact and mechanism of gravity waves on
 110 extreme precipitation will be investigated. Conclusion is summarized in section 5.

111 2 Data, methods and experiment design

112 2.1. Data

113 Composite radar reflectivity mosaics are used to analyze the spatiotemporal variations of
 114 convective cells. The fifth generation ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather
 115 Forecasts) atmospheric reanalysis (ERA5) data (Hersbach et al., 2020) is used to drive WRF
 116 model. The *in-situ* soundings and synoptic surface observation are assimilated to improve the
 117 initial conditions. To analyze the rainfall, the hourly precipitation data from automatic stations,
 118 and the gridded hourly precipitation dataset from the CMA Land Data Assimilation System
 119 (CLDAS-V2.0) (Sun et al., 2020) were utilized. The above rainfall data, radar observations, and
 120 surface station data were obtained from the China Meteorological Data Service Center (CMDSC).

121 2.2. Methods

122 To diagnose the excitation of gravity wave, the moist Brunt-Väisälä frequency was used
 123 to assess the hydrostatic stability of the analyzed moist air. For unsaturated air, it is defined as:

$$124 \quad N_m^2 = g \frac{d \ln \theta_v}{dz} \quad (1)$$

125 where $\theta_v = \theta(1 + 0.608q)$ is virtual potential temperature, and q is the water vapor mixing
 126 ratio. For saturated moist air, based on the work of Durran and Klemp (1982), it is defined as:

$$127 \quad N_m^2 = g \left\{ \frac{1 + (Lq_s/RT)}{1 + (\epsilon L^2 q_s / c_p R T^2)} \times \left(\frac{d \ln \theta_v}{dz} \frac{L}{c_p T} \frac{dq_s}{dz} \right) - \frac{dq_w}{dz} \right\} \quad (2)$$

128 where T and θ are the sensible and potential temperatures of the atmosphere, g is gravitational
 129 acceleration, L is latent heat of vaporization, q_s is the saturation mixing ratio, q_w is the total
 130 water mixing ratio, R is the ideal gas constant for dry air, R_v is the gas constant for water vapor,
 131 $\epsilon = \frac{R}{R_v}$, c_p is the heat capacities of dry air. The square of the Scorer parameter l^2 defined as
 132 follows:

$$133 \quad l^2 \approx \frac{N_m^2}{(\bar{u}-c)^2} - \frac{U_{zz}}{(\bar{u}-c)} \quad (3)$$

134 where N_m^2 is the saturated Brunt-Väisälä frequency squared, U_{zz} is the second derivative of \bar{u} ,
 135 and c is the gravity wave phase speed (Yang and Houze, 1995; Fovell et al., 2006). The first term
 136 represents stability and usually dominates, but the second term (shear curvature) can be of
 137 similar magnitude when vertical wind shear changes sharply with height (Ghanmi et al., 2020).
 138 The Froude number Fr can be used to identify the relationship between gravity waves and
 139 terrain, defined as:

140
$$Fr = \frac{U}{Nh} \quad (4)$$

141 where U is the wind speed passing through the terrain and N represents the Brunt-Väisälä
 142 frequency. Resonance will occur and large-amplitude mountain waves will be excited when
 143 airflow passes over terrain with Fr close to 1 (Hunt, 1980; Chu and Lin 2000; Xu et al. 2021).

144 To diagnose the propagation of long-lasting, horizontally gravity waves, the atmospheric
 145 conditions must align with the wave-ducting hypothesis (Lindzen and Tung, 1976). Wave-
 146 ducting refers to gravity waves traverse horizontally within a stable atmospheric stratum, flanked
 147 by two reflective surfaces. The ducting of gravity waves is termed the ducting stable layer,
 148 characterized by enhanced stability. The upper reflective boundary is denominated the reflecting
 149 layer, which possesses comparatively weaker stability than the ducting layer, while the lower
 150 reflective boundary typically represents the ground. The reflecting layer reflects the upward-
 151 transmitted wave energy downward, while the ground reflects downward-propagating wave
 152 energy upwards, enabling the gravity waves to propagate horizontally with minimal energy
 153 dissipation. Moreover, if a critical layer (where wave speed approximates the primary flow
 154 velocity) or a Richardson number, Ri is less than 0.25 exists in the reflecting layer, it will
 155 enhance the reflection of wave energy and further reduce the energy of gravity waves spreading
 156 outward (Booker and Bretherton, 1967; Lindzen and Tung, 1976). The intensity of turbulence is
 157 represented by the local gradient Richardson number Ri , with a smaller Ri indicating stronger
 158 turbulence. It is defined as:

159
$$Ri = \frac{N_m^2}{\left(\frac{\partial \bar{U}}{\partial z}\right)^2} \quad (5)$$

160 where N_m^2 is the moist Brunt-Väisälä frequency squared and \bar{U} is the mean wind speed along the
 161 wave propagation direction. The intrinsic phase speed in wave-ducting is defined as:

162
$$C_{d,n} = \frac{N_m D}{\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + n\right)} \quad (6)$$

163 where n indicates different vertical wave modes and D is the depth of the lower stable layer.

164 To calculate the momentum, energy, and heat fluxes generated by gravity waves, we
 165 follow the method proposed by Kruse & Smith (2015). First, the 2D meteorological fields are
 166 decomposed into background and disturbance fields to remove non-periodic synoptic-scale
 167 variations. Second, a high-pass filter with a cutoff wavelength of 200 km is applied to obtain the
 168 perturbation field specific to gravity wave activity scale. Third, gravity wave fluxes are
 169 computed by multiplying disturbance quantities at each grid point. Last, to reduce noise, a low-
 170 pass filter with a cutoff wavelength of 50 km is subsequently applied to the computed gravity
 171 wave fluxes. The vertical momentum flux (MF_z), energy flux (EF_z), and heat flux (HF_z) of
 172 gravity waves are defined as:

173
$$MF_z = \bar{\rho} u' w' \quad (7)$$

174
$$EF_z = p' w' \quad (8)$$

175
$$HF_z = \bar{\rho} c_p (w' T') \quad (9)$$

176 where u' , w' , p' , and T' represent disturbances in horizontal wind, vertical wind, pressure, and
 177 temperature obtained from the second step, ρ is air density. For stable linear mountain waves,
 178 domain-averaged gravity wave energy and momentum fluxes satisfy the following relationship:

$$179 \quad \overline{EF}_z(z) = -\overline{u}(z)\overline{MF}_z \quad (10)$$

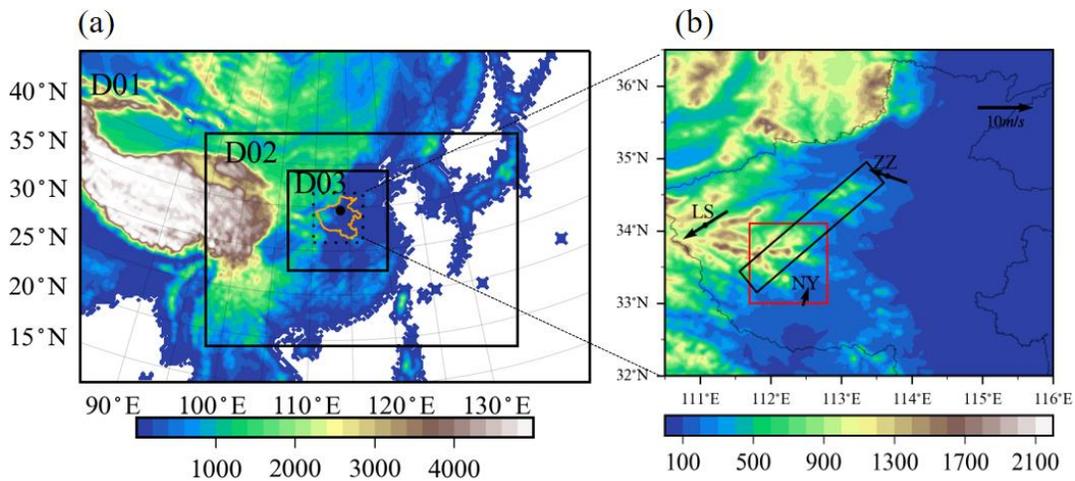
180 According to equation (10), $\overline{EF}_z(z)$ will vary with height, proportional to $\overline{u}(z)$.
 181 Therefore, differentiating the above equation with respect to height z gives the relationship
 182 between energy flux divergence and background wind shear:

$$183 \quad \frac{d\overline{EF}_z}{dz} = -\overline{MF}_z \cdot \frac{d\overline{u}}{dz} \quad (11)$$

184 When the wind shear $\frac{d\overline{u}}{dz} > 0$, if the wave causes upward momentum transfer ($\overline{MF}_z > 0$), it will
 185 lead to the convergence of gravity wave energy flux ($\frac{d\overline{EF}_z}{dz} < 0$), which causes energy to be
 186 converted from perturbation wave energy to mean kinetic energy (Zhang et al., 2001).

187 2.3. Experiment Design

188 The WRF model version 4.3.1 (Skamarock et al. 2021) is employed in this study. The
 189 simulation period was from 20 UTC 19 July to 20 UTC 20 July 2021. The three nested
 190 simulation domains are shown in Figure 1a, with horizontal resolutions of 27, 9, and 3 km
 191 respectively. The orange line on the map represents Henan Province, and the black dot indicates
 192 the location of the rainfall center (Zhengzhou station). There were 51 vertical levels, with the
 193 highest level at 50 hPa. The parameterization schemes employed in this study are the WSM6
 194 microphysics (Hong and Lim 2006), YSU planetary boundary layer (Hong et al. 2006), RRTMG
 195 shortwave and longwave radiation (Iacono et al. 2008), and Kain-Fritsch cumulus schemes
 196 (applied only in D01 and D02) (Kain, 2004; Wang et al., 2019).



197

198 **Figure 1.** WRF model domain configuration and research area. (a) Configuration of the WRF
 199 model domains (D01, D02, and D03) and terrain elevation distribution (m; shaded) within the
 200 region, with the orange solid line representing main precipitation area (the range of Henan
 201 Province) and the black dot signifying the location of the precipitation center of Zhengzhou; (b)
 202 Terrain elevation (m; shaded) of heavy rain region (Henan Province), with black arrows
 203 indicating the wind speed and direction at a 900hPa height before the extrem hourly precipitation
 204 occurred (July 20, 2021, 08:00). The sounding station location of Zhengzhou, Lushi, and
 205 Nanyang are denoted by “ZZ”, “LS”, and “NY”, respectively. The black box emphasizes the area
 206 of band rainfall, as the red box marks a particular region, Mountain Funiu, utilized in the terrain
 207 sensitivity experiments addressed later.

208 To obtain better understand of heavy rainfall evolution, the three-dimensional variational
 209 assimilation system of WRF was used to assimilate the sounding and surface observation data
 210 from China meteorological stations in the initial condition. To enhance the depiction of terrain
 211 accuracy, the high-resolution terrain is substituted with SRTM (Shuttle Radar Topography
 212 Mission) version 4.1 Digital Elevation Model (DEM) data, which boasts a resolution of
 213 approximately 90 meters. To account for sub-grid scale vertical momentum transport caused by
 214 sub-grid terrain, we activated the gravity wave drag option (gwd_opt=3) in the boundary layer
 215 scheme. This option comprehensively accounts for the effects of sub-grid scale gravity wave
 216 drag, blocking drag, small-scale gravity wave drag, and turbulent form drag (Beljaars et al. 2004;
 217 Kim and Doyle 2005; Kim and Arakawa 1995; Steeneveld et al. 2008).

218 To quantify the effects of gravity waves on extreme rainfall, two sets of terrain sensitivity
 219 experiments (Table 1) were designed. In these experiments, the terrain elevation of the FNM
 220 (indicated by the red box in Figure 1b) in WRF was altered to 1.5 or 0.5 times its original value
 221 to generate different intensities gravity waves.

222 **Table 1.** Experiments design

Experiment	Terrain	Purpose
CTL	Model default terrain	The model's capacity to replicate extreme precipitation
Terrain1.5	The terrain elevation was increased by a factor of 1.5	The impact of orographic gravity waves
Terrain0.5	The terrain elevation was reduced to 50% of its original height	The impact of orographic gravity waves

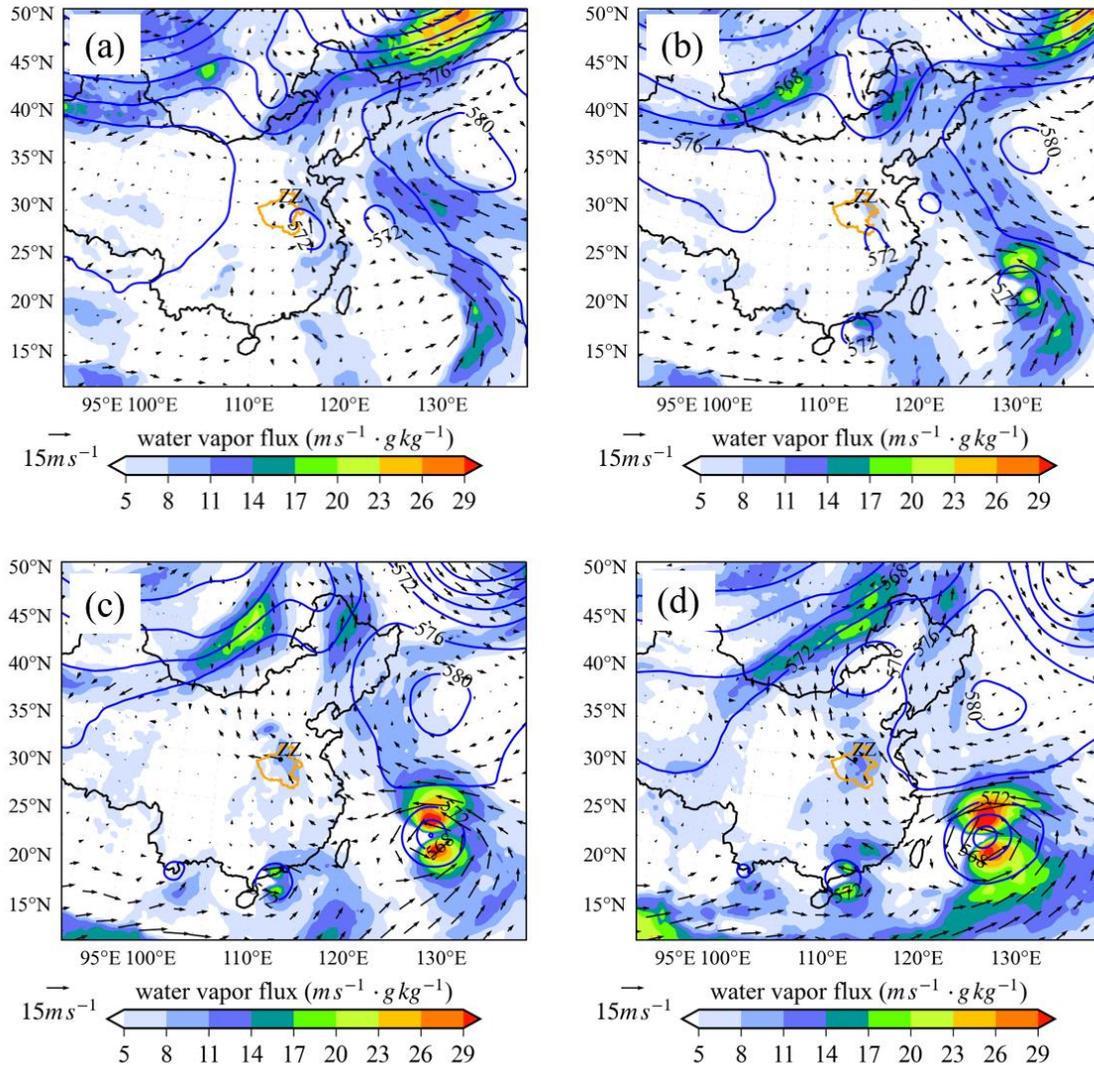
223 3 Convection and gravity wave activities

224 Figure 2 illustrates the circulation and low-level water vapor transport of the “21.7” event
 225 based on ERA5 data, from 08:00 on July 17, 2021, to 08:00 on July 20, 2021 (China Standard
 226 Time, CST). The analysis of the 500 hPa geopotential height field indicates a stable large-scale
 227 circulation situation from the 17th to the 20th July during the event, the western Pacific sub-
 228 tropical high and continental high pressure formed a steady saddle-shaped field around Henan
 229 province, which was conducive to sustainable precipitation. The strong pressure gradient
 230 between the western Pacific sub-high and the typhoon "In-fa" led to a robust southeast airflow,
 231 resulting in the transportation of water vapor from the Pacific region towards Henan. On the 20th
 232 July, this water vapor transport reached its peak. These stable circulation patterns and efficient
 233 water vapor transport provided the favorable background conditions to the occurrence of super-
 234 strong rainfall in the Henan area.

235 Figure 3a and 3b show the observed and simulated (from the CTL experiment)
 236 cumulative rainfall distribution of July 20, 2021. The observed precipitation primarily
 237 concentrated in the central and northern parts of Henan province, Zhengzhou city, where the
 238 heaviest daily rainfall exceeded 600 mm. Additionally, a band-like distribution precipitation
 239 (indicated by the black rectangle in Figure 3a) exists on the southwest side of the precipitation
 240 center. The CTL experiment successfully simulated the extreme precipitation at the rainstorm
 241 center and the band-like precipitation southwest of the rainfall center (indicated in the black
 242 rectangle in Figure 3b). Figure 3c provides the time series of the precipitation. The observed
 243 precipitation at the Zhengzhou station peaked at 201.9 mm between 16:00 and 17:00 on the 20th
 244 July, breaking the record for rainfall intensity in inland China. In terms of the area mean
 245 precipitation (the area indicated by the blue rectangle in Figure 3a), the observed rainfall (the

246 black contour lines in Figure 3c) exceeded 25mm between 14:00 and 15:00. The simulated
 247 rainfall (the black dashed line in Figure 3c), exhibiting a relatively close magnitude to the
 248 observations, although with slightly advanced occurrence time. The CTL experiment effectively
 249 reproduced the spatial and temporal distribution characteristics of the "21.7" event.

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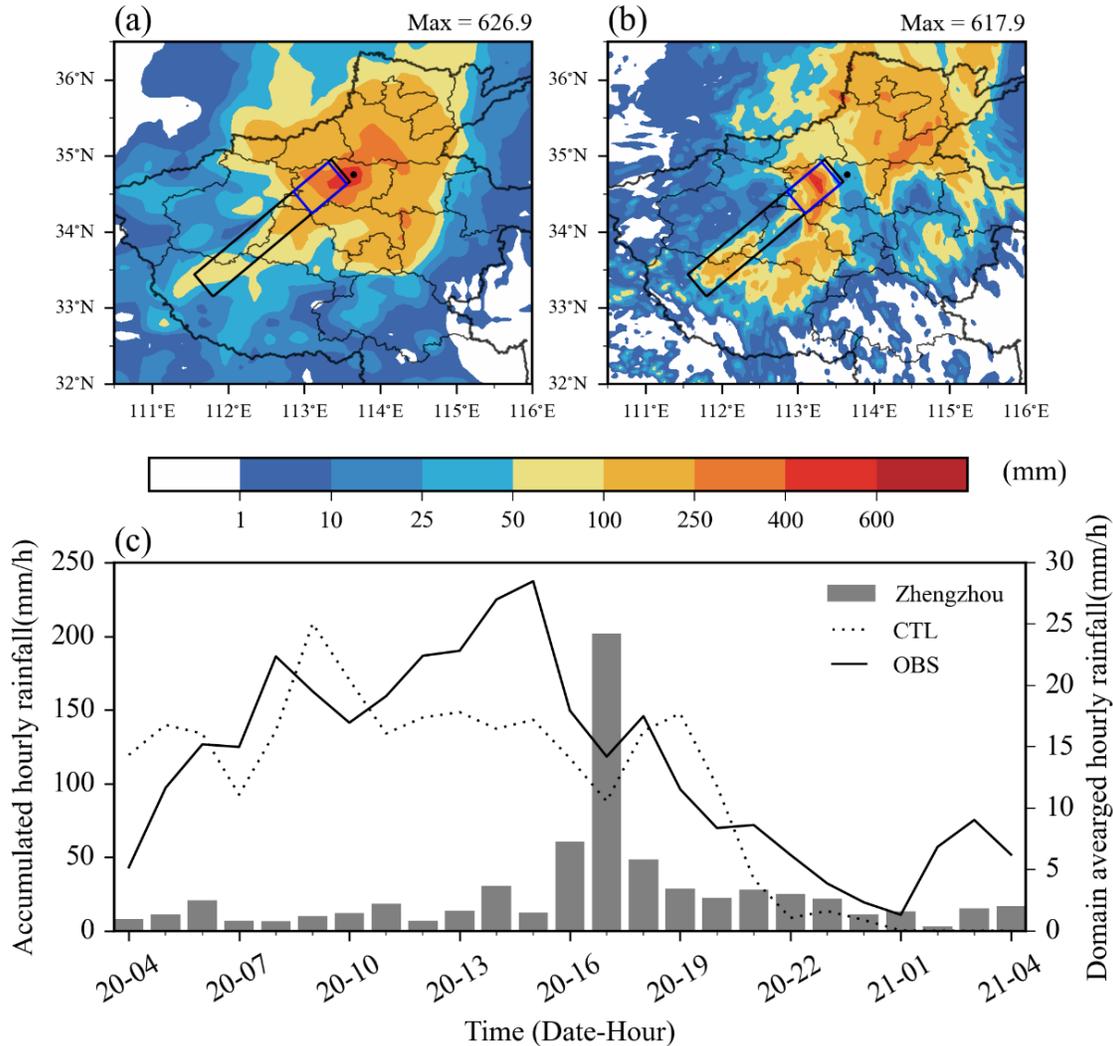


251

252 **Figure 2.** Evolution of atmospheric circulation during the "21.7" rainstorm. The geopotential
 253 height at 500 hPa (blue contours), wind vectors and moisture flux values (shaded) at 850 hPa at
 254 08:00 CST on (a) July 17, (b) July 18, (c) July 19, and (d) July 20, 2021. The orange outline
 255 denotes the boundary of Henan Province (the main precipitation area for the rainstorm), while
 256 the black dot marked "ZZ" denotes Zhengzhou city's location (the center of the rainstorm).

257 To understand the convective activity during the rainstorm, Figure 4 presents the
 258 evolution of radar composite reflectivity from 12:00 to 17:00 on July 20, 2021. As seen in
 259 Figure 4, the QSCS (>50 dBZ) initially occurred in the center of the heavy rainfall event
 260 (indicated by black dot in Figure 4) at 12:00 on the 20th July, and reached its peak from 16:00 to
 261 17:00. Concurrently, convective cells began to form southwest of the rainstorm center (south

262 west of the black rectangle in Figure 4). The convective cells gradually developed to the
 263 northeastern direction, displaying a band-like convection (Figures 4b, c, and d). Then, the
 264 convective cells merged with the QSCS in the rainfall center from 16:00 to 17:00 (Figures 4e and
 265 f). The combination of the convective cells and the QSCS is crucial to the enhancement and
 266 maintenance of the QSCS (Wei et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2023). Therefore, the focus of this study
 267 will be on the development of this band convection activity, which started at 12:00 and gradually
 268 subsided after 17:00, lasting for over 5 hours.

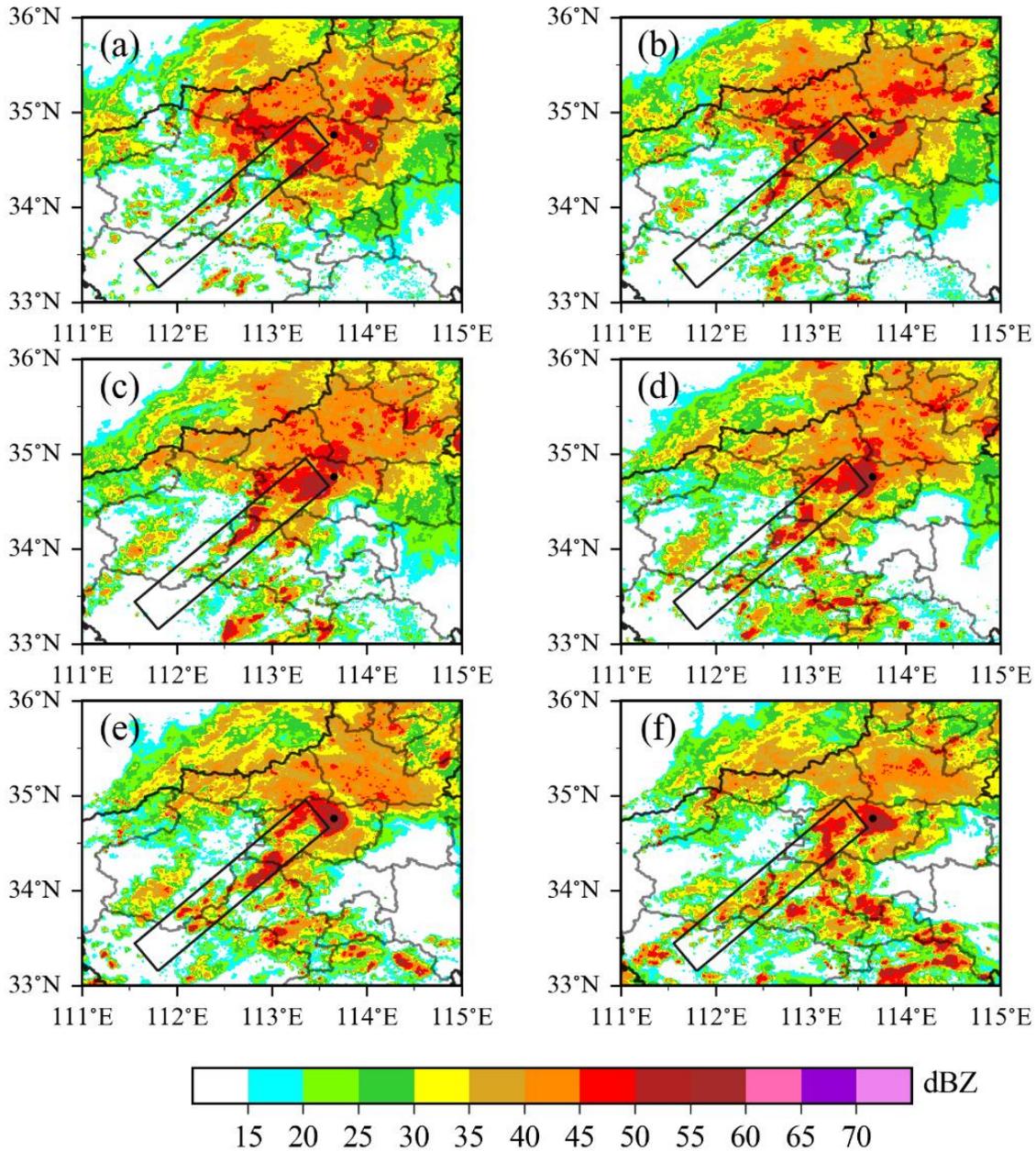


269
 270 **Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of accumulated precipitation and hourly rainfall time series. (a)
 271 Observed and (b) CTL experiment's spatial distribution of accumulated precipitation (contour
 272 fill) over a 24-hour period from 08:00 CST on July 20 to 08:00 CST on July 21, 2021. (c) Time
 273 series of hourly rainfall (mm h^{-1}) at the Zhengzhou station (bar graph) and in the core area of
 274 rainfall (line graph). The black and blue box in Figure 3a and 3b denotes the band rainfall region,
 275 and the core rainfall area, respectively.

276 Figure 5 shows that the simulated horizontal distribution and evolution characteristics of
 277 radar composite reflectivity from the CTL experiment. Spatially, the CTL experiment
 278 successfully reproduces the QSCS in rainfall center and the band convection southwest of the

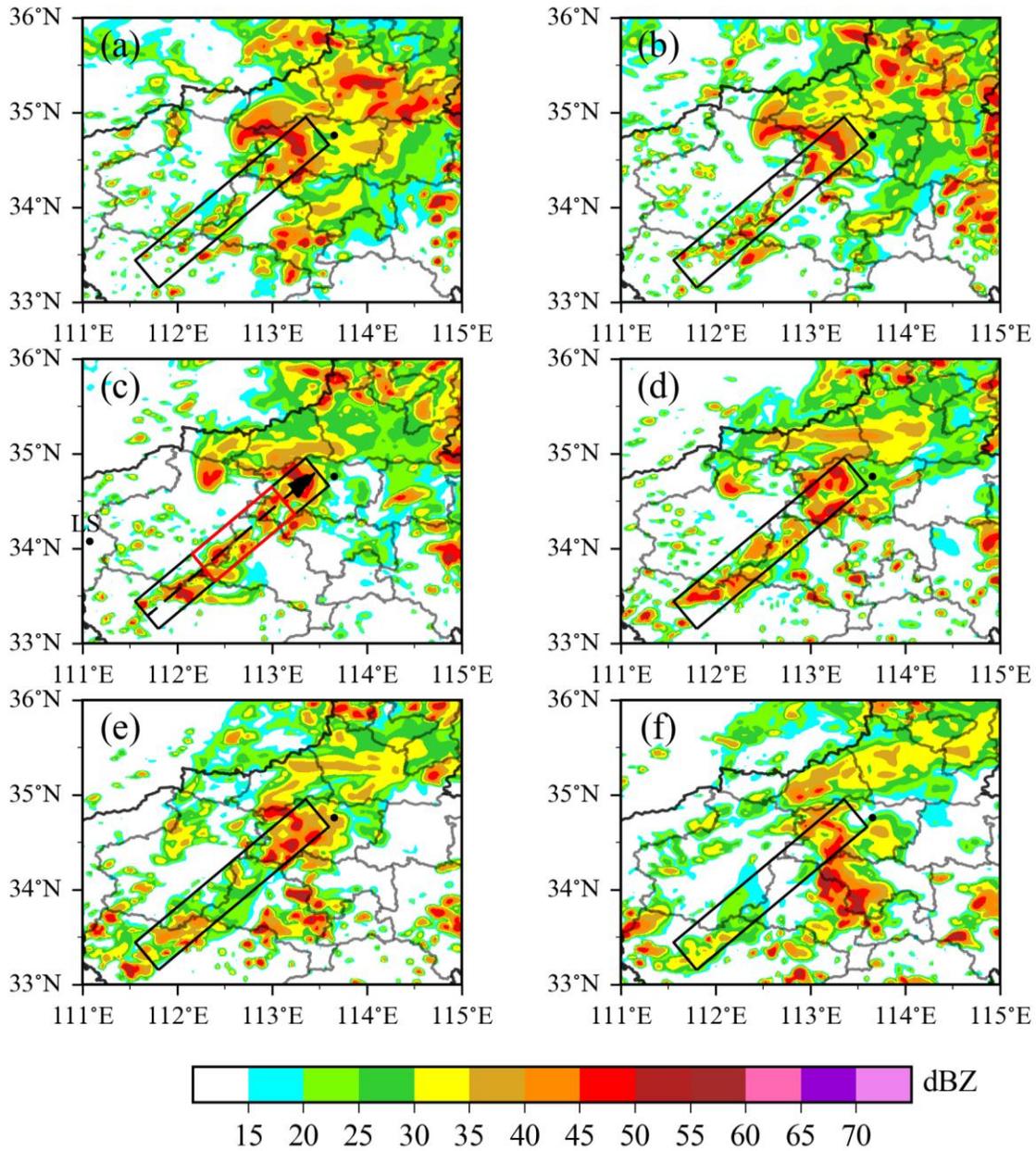
279 rainfall center, with a slightly southwest location bias. Temporally, the convection initiated at
 280 12:00 (Figure 5a) and gradually moved to the northeastern, eventually dissipating at 17:00
 281 (Figure 5f). The evolution of the simulated convective cells is in accordance with observation,
 282 with a few hours advanced. Overall, the CTL experiment effectively simulated the progression of
 283 precipitation and convective systems throughout the "21.7" event.

284



285

286 **Figure 4.** Evolution of observed composite radar reflectivity (shading, units: dBZ) in heavy
 287 rainfall region (Henan Province) at (a) 1200, (b) 1300, (c) 1400, (d) 1500, (e) 1600, and (f) 1700
 288 CST on July 20, 2021. The black box (same as in Figure 3a) indicates the area of the convective
 289 bands, the black line represents the border of Henan Province, the black point indicates the
 290 location of Zhengzhou City.



291

292 **Figure 5.** Simulated radar composite reflectivity (shading, units: dBZ) over research area at (a)
 293 1200, (b) 1300, (c) 1400, (d) 1500, (e) 1600, and (f) 1700 CST on July 20, 2021. The black box
 294 highlights the same area as shown in Figure 4. The red rectangle in Figure 5c indicate the
 295 primary of the gravity activity.

296 **4 Case overview and simulation**

297 Section 3 indicates that, as the convective cells propagate, a band-like convection
 298 between the FNM and the rainfall center was triggered. Due to the band-like convection is
 299 probably related to gravity wave activity. This section will firstly concentrate on the movement
 300 characteristics of the band-like convection, aiming to explore the relationship between gravity
 301 waves and the convective cells southwest of the rainfall center. Subsequently, an assessment of

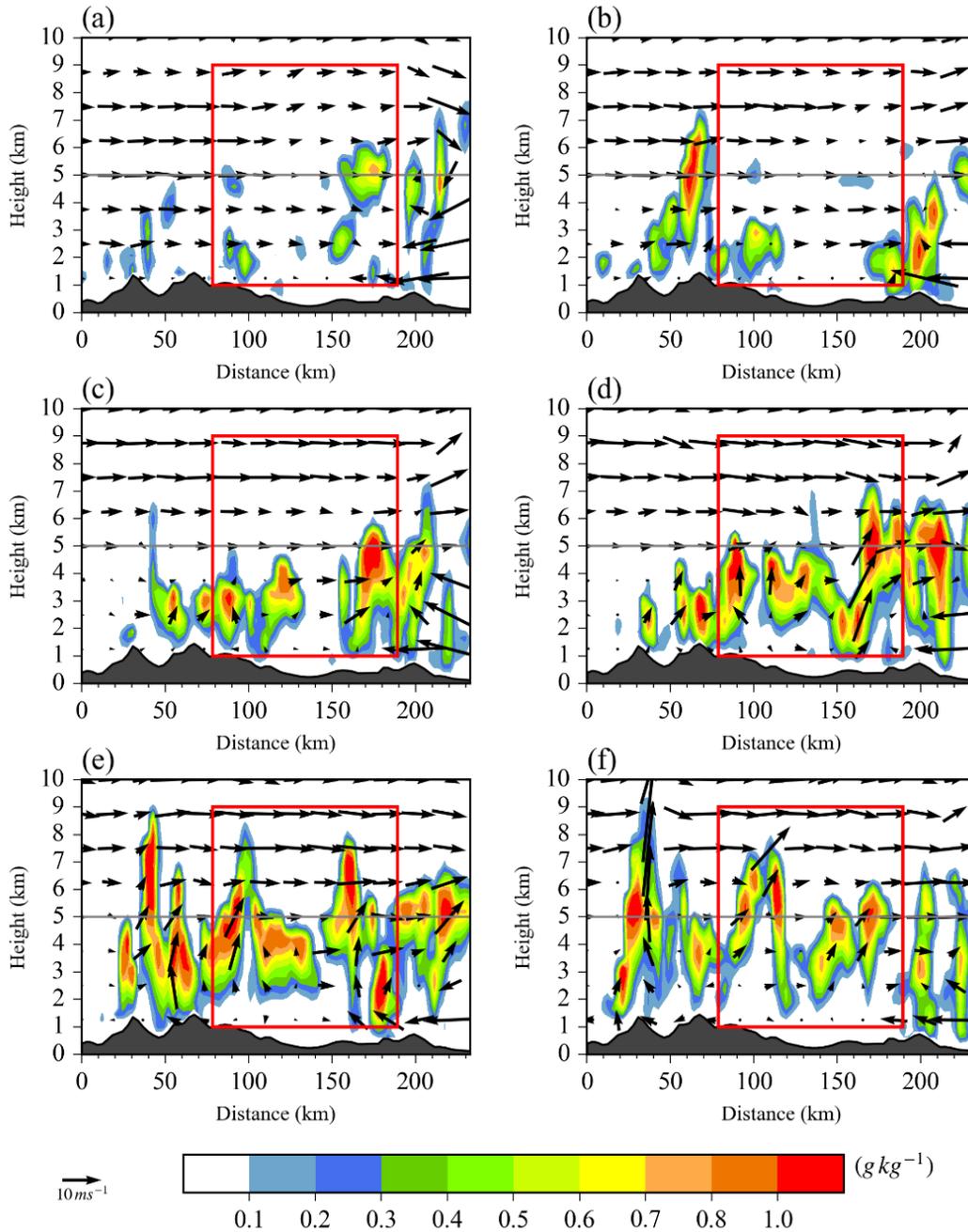
302 atmospheric stability conditions will be conducted to ascertain their conduciveness to the
303 triggering and propagation of gravity waves. Finally, the influence of the gravity wave on the
304 extreme precipitation will be discussed.

305 4.1. Banded convection

306 To understand the relationship between gravity wave activity and the convective cells
307 southwest of the rainfall center, the vertical structure of band convection related to the
308 convective cells was analyzed. Figure 6 illustrates the distance-height vertical cross-section of
309 cloud-water mixing ratio from the CTL experiment. Within the red rectangular frame in Figure
310 6e, two convective systems extending beyond 6 km can be seen. The convective regions situated
311 between the terrain and the rainfall center with horizontal spacing distance about 60 km for one
312 convective region located 100 km from the starting point of the profile and another at 160 km.
313 The convection initiation occurred at 12:00 on July 20, 2021, originating from the FNM (Figure
314 6a). Subsequently, it gradually deepened and propagated northeastward (Figure 6b~e), and
315 started to dissipate at 18:00 on July 20, 2021 (Figure 6f). The banded convection between the
316 terrain and the rainfall center persisted for over 6 hours and extending over 60 km, which could
317 potentially be attributed to the vertical airflow induced by gravity wave activity.

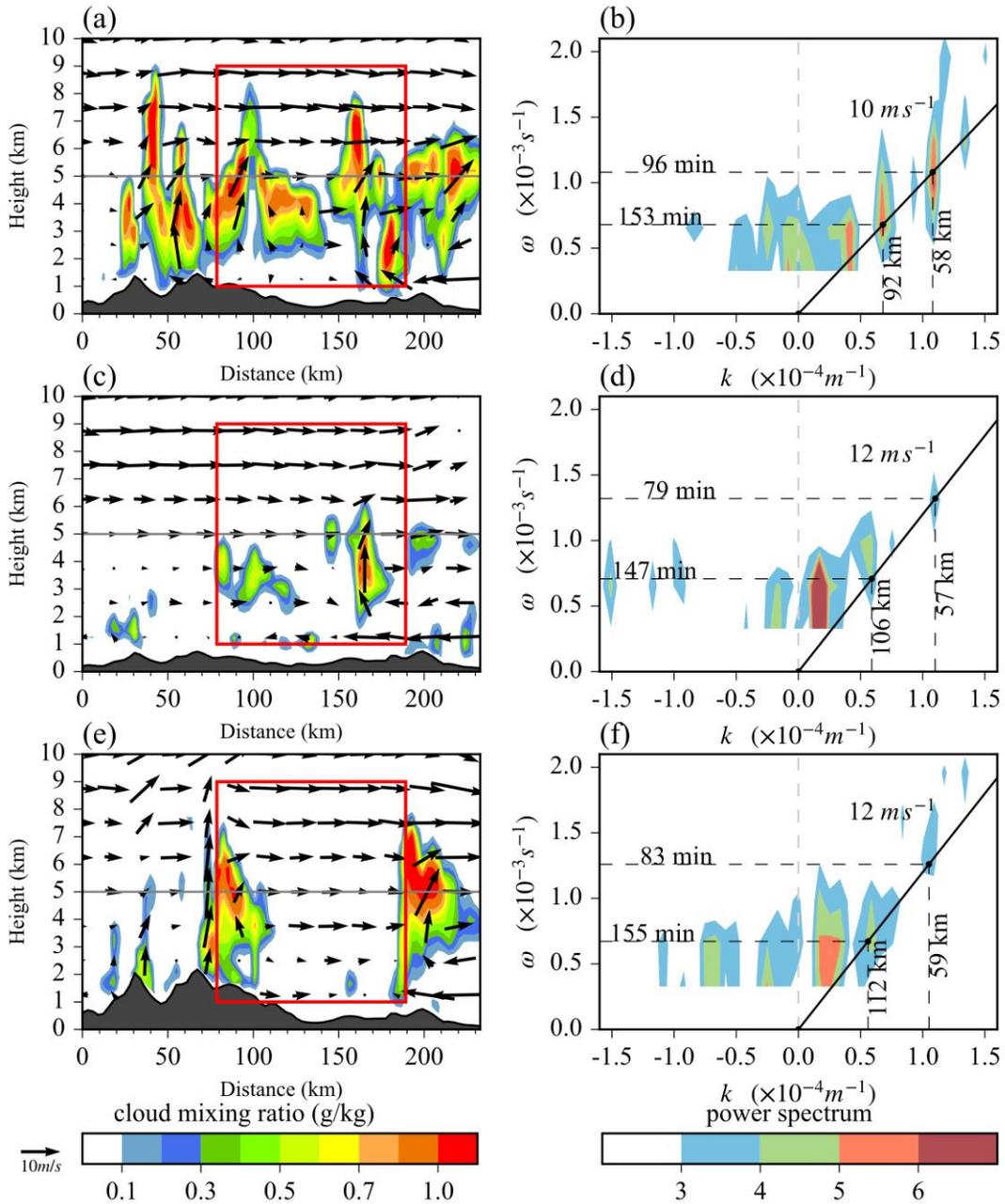
318 To understand the wave characteristics of the convective cells southwest of the rainfall
319 center, following Wheeler and Kiladis (1999), the frequency-wavenumber spectrum of the cloud
320 water mixing ratio at a height of 5 km is calculated (Figure 7). From Figure 7b, it can be
321 observed that the phase speed c of the gravity activity is approximately 10 m s^{-1} , the wavelength
322 is about 60-90 km, and the period is about 90-160 min. In addition, the wave speed c is unrelated
323 to the horizontal wavelength (wavenumber k), indicating that this wave is a non-dispersive wave.
324 These two characteristics are consistent with the characteristics of mesoscale gravity waves
325 (Nappo, 2013; Buijsman et al., 2019), suggesting that the convective cells are related to
326 mesoscale gravity waves.

327 Analysis in section 4.1 reveals that the banded convection composed by convective cells
328 between the rainfall center and the terrain is related to mesoscale gravity wave activity. The
329 vertical updraft of the convective cells exhibits wave-like features, with a phase speed of
330 approximately 10 m s^{-1} , a wavelength of 60-90 km, and a period of 90-150 minutes.



331

332 **Figure 6.** Temporal evolution of the vertical cross-section of cloud water mixing ratio (color-
 333 filled; $g\ kg^{-1}$) and synthesized wind (vertical speed magnified 5 times; $m\ s^{-1}$) in the CTL
 334 experiment at (a) 1000, (b) 1100, (c) 1200, (d) 1300, (e) 1400, and (f) 1500 CST on July 20,
 335 2021. The alignment of the cross section follows the direction of the black dashed arrow in
 336 Figure 4c. The red rectangle, consistent with Figure 4c, indicates the primary locations of gravity
 337 wave activity.



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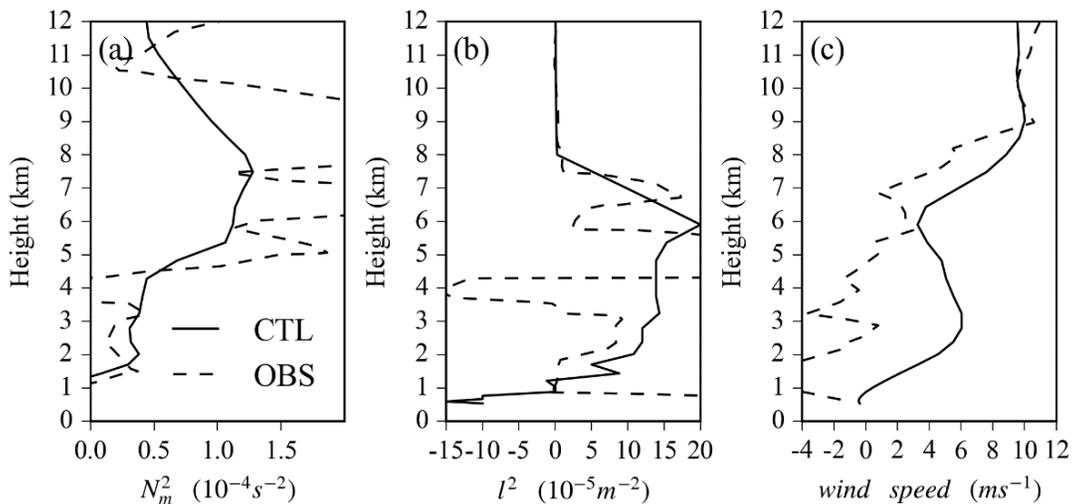
339 **Figure 7.** Comparative analysis of gravity wave intensity and phase speed across different terrain
 340 height sensitivity experiments. The wave-parallel vertical cross-sections of cloud water mixing
 341 ratio (shading; g kg^{-1}) and wind component along the same cross-section as in Figure 5 at 1400
 342 CST on July 20, 2021 are presented in experiments (a) CTL, (c) Terrain05, and (e) Terrain15.
 343 The power spectra of the cloud mixing ratio at an altitude of 5 km along the same line are
 344 displayed in experiments (b) CTL, (d) Terrain05, and (f) Terrain15. In Figure 7b,d,f, the solid
 345 black line represents the phase speed ω/k , the black dashed lines indicate the horizontal
 346 wavelengths and wave periods corresponding to the peaks.

347

348 4.2. Gravity wave generation and propagation

349 In section 4.1, banded convection south west of the rainfall center was considered related
 350 to the gravity wave, which persisting for over 6 hours and extending over 60 km. However, the
 351 triggering and propagation mechanisms of these long-lasting, horizontally propagated gravity
 352 waves remain unclear. Therefore, we will diagnose the atmospheric conditions to assess if the
 353 gravity wave could be excited, then explore the mechanisms of gravity wave propagation.

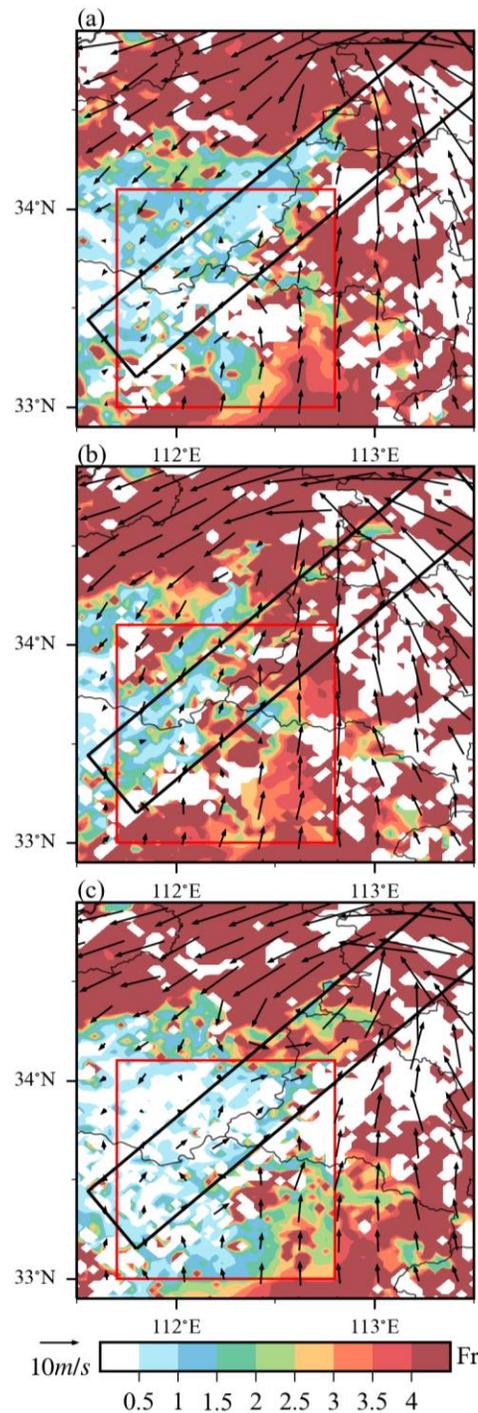
354 To diagnose the excitation of gravity wave, Figure 8 illustrates the vertical profiles of
 355 atmospheric stability conditions between the FNM and rainfall center during the event. The area-
 356 averaged moist Brunt-Väisälä frequency squared N_m^2 (Figure 8a), the squared Scorer parameter
 357 l^2 (Figure 8b), and the wind speed parallel to wave propagation \bar{u} (Figure 8c), within the gravity
 358 wave activity area (indicated by the red rectangle in Figure 5c) are shown. These profiles are
 359 based on the results of the CTL experiment and observations from the "Lushi" sounding station.
 360 The abrupt increase in wind speed \bar{u} with height, resulting in strong vertical wind shear (Figure
 361 8c), and the significant decrease in l^2 between 6-8 km altitude (Figure 8b), suggesting that
 362 atmospheric conditions favor the triggering of horizontally propagating gravity waves.
 363 Additionally, the N_m^2 peaks between heights of 5-9 km (Figure 8a), indicating a relatively more
 364 stable atmosphere in this range, conducive to the formation of ducted gravity waves.



365
 366 **Figure 8.** Diagnosis of stability conditions during the excitation of gravity wave. Vertical
 367 profiles of (a) square of moist Brunt-Väisälä frequency, (b) the scorer parameter and (c) wind
 368 speed in southwesterly direction averaged in red region of Figure 5c. The solid line represent the
 369 results calculated from CTL experiment at 1400 CST 20 July 2021, while the dashed line
 370 represents observation from Lushi station (indicated as "LS" in Figure 5c) at 0800 CST.

371 Although the atmospheric conditions were favorable for the excitation of gravity wave,
 372 the source of the gravity wave during the "21.7" event remains unclear. One possible source of
 373 the gravity wave is the FNM, for the gravity wave just located at the lee ward slope of the
 374 terrain. To investigate the connection between the gravity wave and the terrain, we calculated the
 375 Froude number (Fr) using Eq. (4). Figure 9 presents the Fr distribution for different terrain
 376 height sensitivity experiments. For the CTL experiment (Figure 9a), the Fr ranges from 0.5 to
 377 1.5 over the FNM, indicating a favorable condition for mountain wave excitation (Hunt, 1980;
 378 Chu and Lin, 2000; Xu et al., 2021). Considering the strong vertical wind shear shown in Figure

379 8c, it can be suggested that when the southwest flow in front of the MCV passes through the
 380 northwest-southeast direction FNM, the strong vertical wind shear and buoyancy disturbances
 381 would be generated, and subsequently the quasi-steady orographic gravity waves (mountain
 382 waves) would be triggered.

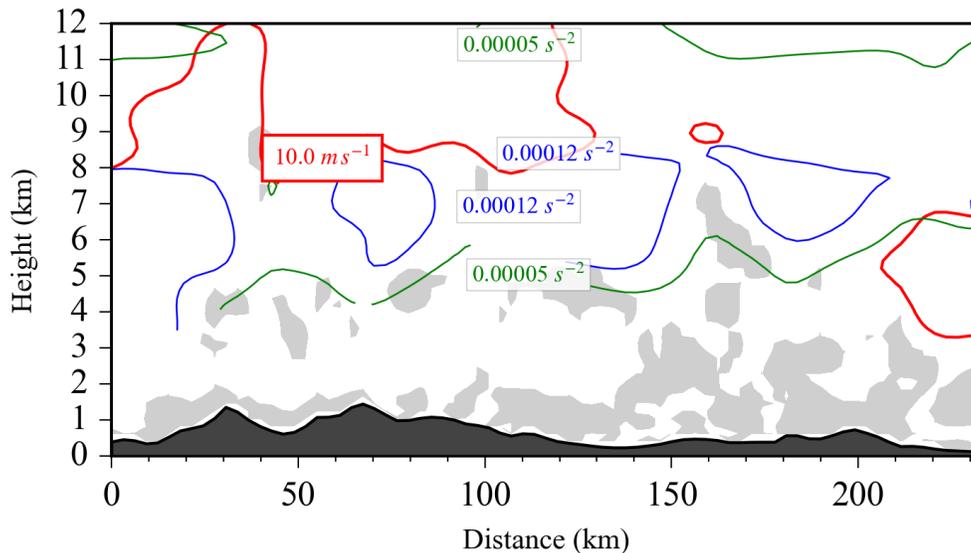


383

384 **Figure 9** Comparative analysis of spatial distribution of Froude number Fr across different
 385 terrain height sensitivity experiments. (a) CTL, (b) Terrain0.5, (c) Terrain1.5 experimen's
 386 Froude number (shaded) and wind vector (vectors; units: $m s^{-1}$) at 1200 CST on July 20, 2021.

387 The Froude number estimated from the altitude range of 500m to 1500m. The black and red box
 388 are same as in Figure 1b.

389 To analyze the propagation of the gravity wave, wave-ducting hypothesis should be
 390 satisfied, for the gravity waves are long-lasting, horizontally propagated waves during "21.7"
 391 event (Lindzen and Tung, 1976; Bosart et al., 1998; Kusunoki et al., 2000). To analyze whether
 392 the wave-ducting hypothesis is satisfied, atmospheric stability along the gravity wave
 393 propagation path was diagnosed. Figure 10 illustrates the vertical cross-section of the moist
 394 Brunt-Väisälä frequency (green and blue contour lines), the critical layer (red contour line), and
 395 $Ri < 0.25$ area (gray shading). The position and direction of the cross-section indicated by the
 396 dashed arrows in Figure 5c. The results reveal the existence of a relatively stable atmospheric
 397 layer (ducting stable layer) between 5-9 km altitude along 50-170 km horizontal distance. Above
 398 the ducting layer lies a reflecting layer which has low stability, extending above 8 km and
 399 reaching approximately the top of the tropopause. In addition, in the reflecting layer, there are
 400 also exists critical layers (red contour line at approximately 8 km altitude) and areas with $Ri <$
 401 0.25 (gray shaded area), which enhance the reflection effect of reflecting layer.



402

403 **Figure 10.** Wave-parallel vertical cross-section of the square of moist Brunt-Väisälä frequency
 404 N_m^2 (s^{-2} ; contour) along the wave-fronts depicted by the dashed black arrow showed in Figure 4c
 405 at 1400 CST 20 July 2021. The gray shading indicates Richardson number $Ri < 0.25$ and the red
 406 line shows the critical level (wave speed equals to the horizontal wind speed), assuming the
 407 wave speed is 10 m s^{-1} .

408 According to Eq. (6), under the primary mode ($n = 0$), given the depth of the stable layer
 409 D is 1 km and the averaged N_m in the stable layer is 0.011 s^{-1} (Figure 8). Considering the
 410 calculated ground-relative wave phase speed is $\sim 6.9 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Figure 9a), the mean background
 411 wind in the wave-parallel direction in the stable layer is $\sim 4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Figure 9c), the relative ground
 412 wave velocity is calculated to be 10.9 m s^{-1} , which is consistent with the simulated ground-
 413 relative wave phase speed of around 10 m s^{-1} (Figure 7b). The inherent wave velocity of the
 414 wave channel matches the actual wave velocity, providing further confirmation of the existence
 415 of wave-ducting in the troposphere in the "21.7" process. These conditions are favorable for

416 wave-ducting (Lindzen and Tung, 1976), therefore, it can be considered that the stability
417 conditions are conducive to the long-lasting, horizontally propagated gravity wave.

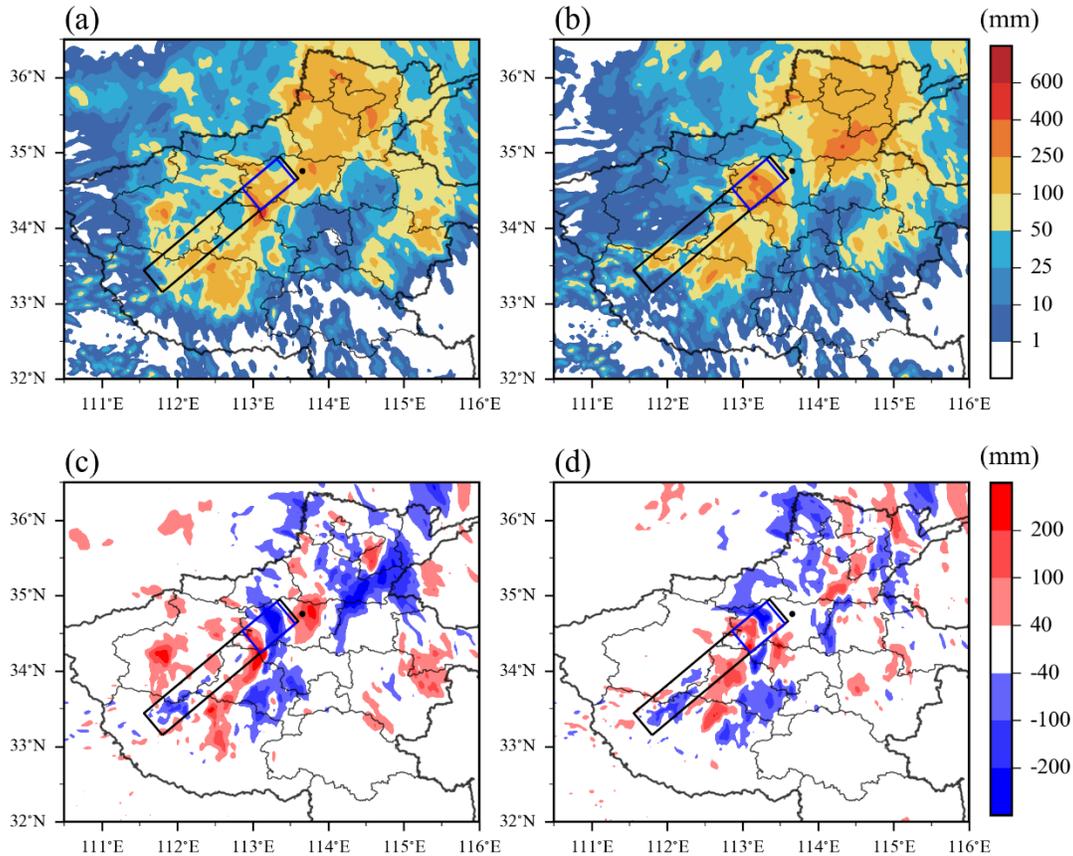
418 The stable atmospheric stratification during the "21.7" event was favorable for the
419 excitation and horizontal propagation of the quasi-steady gravity waves. The environment
420 provides a wave duct for these gravity waves, with a thick stable layer between 5-9 km. This
421 gravity wave is a type of orographic gravity waves. The process of these gravity waves
422 generation and propagation can be summarized as follows: when the southwest airflow in front
423 of the MCV passed through the FNM, a strong wind shear was created for the friction and
424 blocking effects of the terrain. The strong wind shear lead to a sudden decrease in l^2 and the
425 triggering of orographic gravity waves. And then, due to the wave-ducting effect between the
426 terrain and the rainfall center, the gravity wave can propagate horizontally over more than 60 km
427 distance, and trigger band-like convective cells, which is manifested as a banded convection.

428 4.3. Effects of gravity waves on extreme rainfall

429 Due to the significantly enhancement of these convective cells related to the banded
430 convection on the extreme rainfall over the rainfall center (Wei et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2023), the
431 gravity waves may likely enhance extreme rainfall over the center. However, the magnitude of
432 the effects of gravity waves on extreme rainfall and the mechanisms are still unknown. Sensitive
433 experiments were conducted by modifying the terrain heights of the FNM to produce gravity
434 waves of differing intensities. These sensitivity experiments are summarized in Table 2. Then,
435 the precipitation over rainfall center of different experiments was compared. Lastly, the
436 mechanisms through which the gravity waves affected rainfall was analyzed.

437 To compare characteristics of gravity waves induced by different altitude terrain, Figure
438 7 shows the intensity of gravity wave simulated by different experiments. The CTL experiment
439 had the most strengthen gravity wave amplitude (Figure 7b), while the sensitivity experiments
440 both exhibited weaker amplitude compared to CTL experiment (Figure 7d, f). Examining the Fr
441 distribution in Figure 9 for different terrain sensitivity experiments, it was observed that
442 decreasing terrain height (Terrain0.5 experiment) lead to excessively high Fr over the FNM
443 (Figure 8b). Conversely, increasing terrain height (Terrain1.5 experiment) resulted in an
444 undesirably low Fr in the same region (Figure 8c). Both too high and too low Fr are unfavorable
445 for mountain wave generation (Hunt, 1980; Chu and Lin 2000; Xu et al. 2021). Sensitivity
446 terrain experiments both triggered more weaker amplitude gravity waves compared to the CTL
447 experiments for too high or too low Fr .

448 To compare the effects of different amplitude gravity waves on the precipitation, Figure
449 11 presents the horizontal distributions of 24-h accumulated precipitation from the two
450 sensitivity experiments, as well as their differences compared to the CTL experiment. The
451 sensitivity experiments simulated extreme rainfall over the rainfall center with weaker
452 magnitudes and shifted locations towards the southwest (Figure 11a, b) in compare to CTL
453 experiment (Figure 3a). Meanwhile, sensitivity experiments showed less accurate simulation of
454 the banded precipitation southwest of the rainfall center (indicated by black boxes in Figure 11a,
455 b) compared to CTL experiment (indicated by black box in Figure 3a). These results suggest that
456 altering the altitude of the FNM, weakened the gravity wave, decreased precipitation in the
457 rainfall center, and disturbed the banded distribution of precipitation between the rainfall center
458 and the terrain to some extent.



459

460 **Figure 11.** Comparative analysis of spatial distribution of rainfall across different terrain height
 461 sensitivity experiments. Accumulated precipitation from (a) Terrain 0.5, (b) Terrain 1.5
 462 experiment, and their minus (c) Terrain 0.5-CTL, (d) Terrain 1.5-CTL during a 24-hour period
 463 from 08:00 CST on July 20th to 08:00 CST on July 21st, 2021. The black box (same as in figure
 464 4) indicates the region of band rainfall, while the blue box represents the core area of rainfall.

465 Table 2 compares maximum precipitation amounts over different accumulation periods
 466 from the experiments. Both terrain sensitivity experiments, Terrain 0.5 and Terrain 1.5, almost all
 467 had lighter precipitation for all accumulation periods compared to CTL. The Terrain 0.5
 468 experiment showed over 30% lower rainfall for all periods compared to CTL. Similarly, the
 469 Terrain 1.5 experiment also had more than 20% lighter precipitation, with only exception of 1
 470 hour accumulated precipitation. These results demonstrate that gravity wave with lower intensity
 471 generated lighter precipitation. To put it another way, the gravity wave can enhance precipitation
 472 in the rainfall center by over 20%.

473 To illustrate the mechanisms by which gravity waves can enhance rainfall, Figure 12
 474 shows the hourly rainfall evolution (Figure 12a), low-level divergence (Figure 12b), and gravity
 475 wave energy flux divergence (Figure 12c) time series over the rainfall center for different
 476 experiments. From the hourly precipitation evolution in Figure 12a, all experiments had lighter
 477 rainfall compared to observations, however, the CTL have more heavy precipitation.
 478 Correspondingly, CTL experiment also had stronger low-level divergence than the terrain

479 sensitivity experiments (Figure 12b). The stronger rainfall and divergence in CTL experiment
 480 compared to the sensitivity experiments mainly occurred after 13 UTC on 20 July (Figure 12a,
 481 b), corresponding to the time when the gravity wave peak approached to the rainfall center
 482 (Zhengzhou) (Figure 6d), so enhancement of the gravity waves on the QSCS over the rainfall
 483 center began at this time.

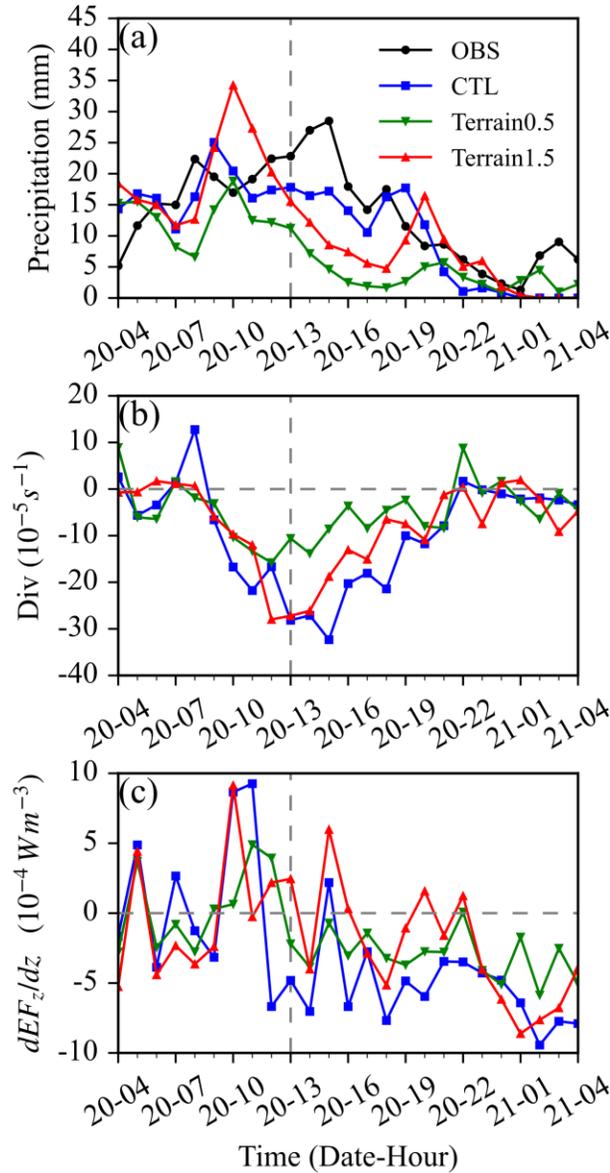
484 Figure 13 illustrates the vertical profiles of momentum flux (MF_z), energy flux (EF_z), and
 485 heat flux (HF_z) induced by gravity waves over the rainfall center at 13 UTC on 20 July from
 486 different experiments. It can be observed that all experiments demonstrated gravity wave energy
 487 flux convergence ($\frac{d\overline{EF}_z}{dz} < 0$) around 1.5-3.5 km (Figure 13b), implying that wave energy was
 488 converted to mean kinetic energy in the lower of troposphere (Zhang et al., 2001), enhancing
 489 vertical motion there. According to Eq. (11), when wind shear $\frac{d\bar{u}}{dz} > 0$, upward momentum
 490 transport by wave disturbances ($MF > 0$) results in gravity wave energy flux convergence
 491 ($\frac{d\overline{EF}_z}{dz} < 0$). Consequently, the upward momentum flux (Figure 13a) and positive vertical wind
 492 shear (Figure 13d) were accountable for converting the wave energy to mean flow energy at
 493 lower troposphere. The low-level wave energy flux convergence was the primary cause of
 494 enhanced convection. Comparing to sensitive experiments, CTL had the strongest energy flux
 495 convergence at 13 UTC and afterwards (Figure 13b, Figure 12c), leading to the highest
 496 conversion of wave disturbance energy to convective kinetic energy below 5 km, consequently
 497 resulting in the strongest low-level divergence (Figure 12b) and heaviest rainfall (Figure 12a)
 498 compared to the sensitivity experiments.

499 It was also worth noting that there is strong positive heat flux over the rainfall center
 500 from the vertical profiles of heat flux in Figure 13c. According to the wave-conditional
 501 instability of the second kind (wave-CISK) hypothesis, gravity waves can trigger convergence of
 502 low-level flow and organize convection, while latent heat released by the convection can
 503 enhance gravity waves, forming a positive feedback loop that further invigorates convection in
 504 the region (Lindzen, 1974; Raymond, 1975). Among the three numerical experiments, CTL had
 505 the maximum heat fluxes, producing the strongest positive feedback, corresponding to the
 506 strongest simulated convection, further validating the enhancement effects of the gravity wave
 507 on convection.

508 **Table 2.** Maximum Cumulative Precipitation (mm) over rainfall center (indicated by the blue
 509 box Figure 11)

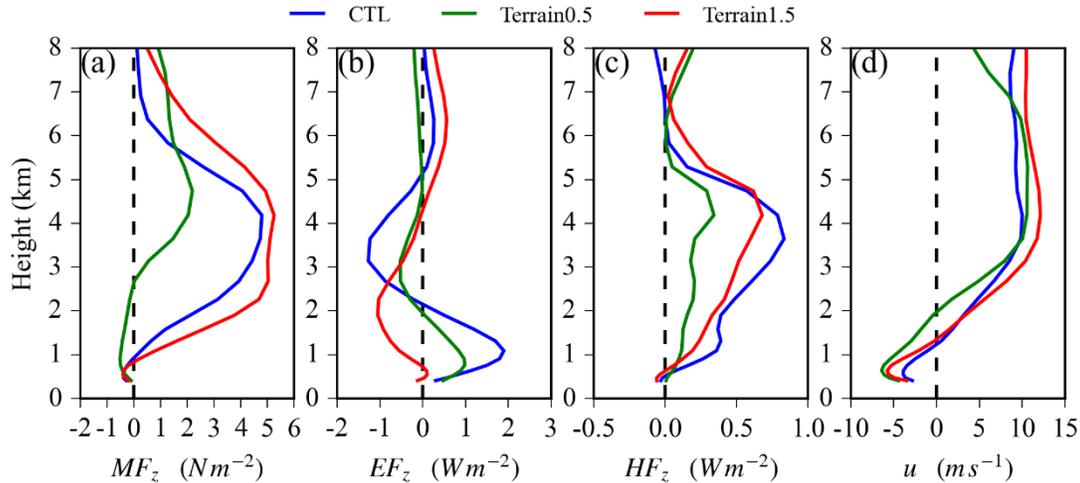
510

Duration	OBS	CTL	Terrain0.5	(Terrain0.5- CTL)/CTL	Terrain1.5	(Terrain1.5- CTL)/CTL
1h	201.9	127.8	94.3	-26%	139.3	9%
3h	333.2	278.2	179.7	-35%	220.5	-21%
6h	465.9	437.2	236.6	-46%	404.4	-8%
12h	556.0	611.3	347.7	-43%	468.5	-23%
24h	626.9	617.9	368.5	-40%	495.9	-20%



511

512 **Figure 12.** Evolution of precipitation and diagnostic related to gravity wave in the core area of
 513 rainstorm. (a) hourly precipitation, (b) divergence and (c) wave energy flux from 0800 CST, July
 514 20th, to 0800 CST, July 21st, 2021. The data is spatially averaged in the area indicated by the
 515 blue box in Figure 10b. Divergence and wave energy flux are represented at a height of
 516 approximately about 1.5~6 km (corresponding to the 8~18 level of model output).



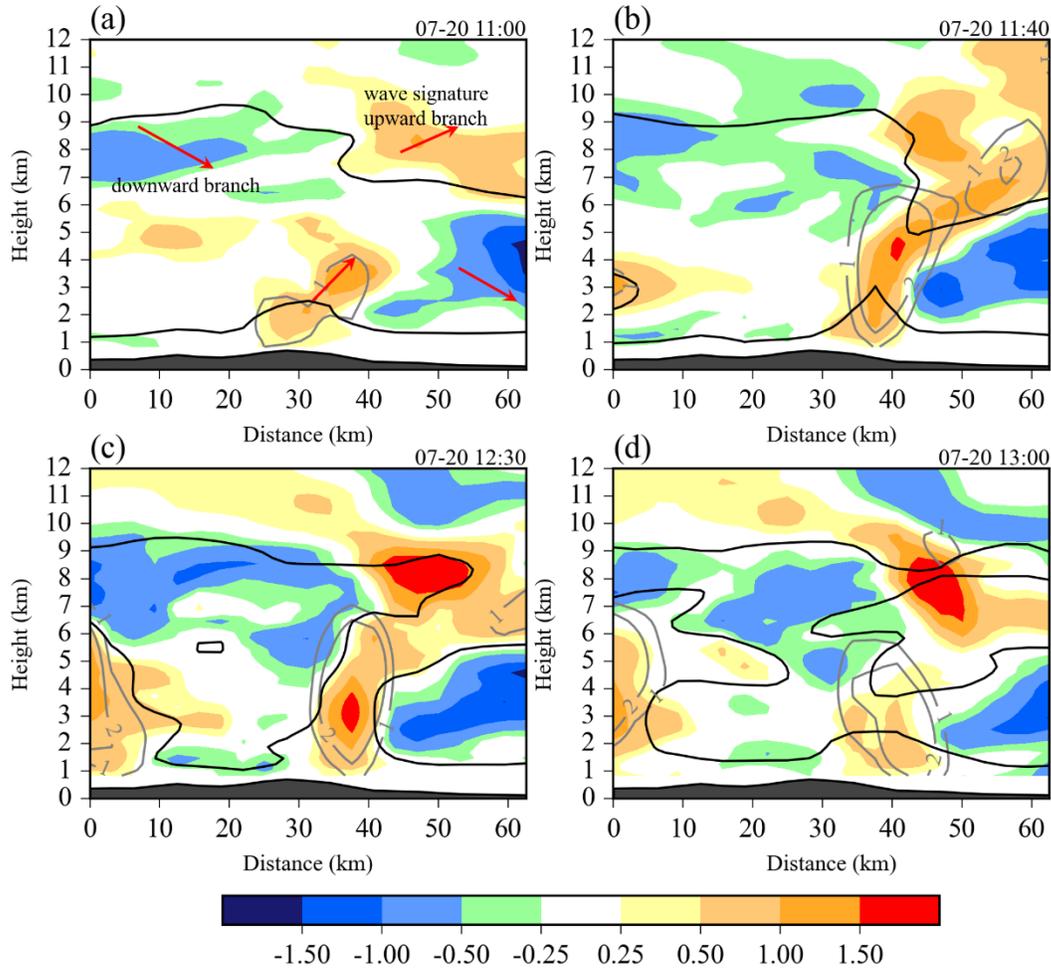
517

518 **Figure 13.** Vertical profiles of fluxes induced by gravity wave in the core region of storm. (a)
 519 momentum flux (MF_z), (b) energy flux (EF_z), (c) heat flux (HF_z) and (d) horizontal wind speed u
 520 along the wave front, averaged within the blue box in Figure 11b, at 1300 CST, July 21, 2021.
 521 The wind speed was projected onto the wave propagation direction (black arrows in Figure 4c).

522 To elucidate the process of gravity waves effect on convection at rainfall center. Figure
 523 14 presents the vertical cross section of potential temperature perturbations and vertical velocity
 524 in the southwest–northeast direction through the rainfall center. The potential temperature
 525 perturbation serves as an indicator of air parcel buoyancy, where buoyancy $B = g \frac{\theta'}{\theta_0}$ in dry
 526 condition and $g \left(\frac{\theta_\rho}{\theta_{\rho_0}} - 1 \right)$ in moist condition (Bryan & Fritsch, 2002; Schumacher, 2009). At
 527 11:00 (Figure 14 a), in addition to the previously discussed gravity wave at the upper level of
 528 troposphere, a low-level gravity wave is also present. This low-level gravity wave was excited by
 529 latent heat in convection and tended to remain near its source rather than propagating away
 530 (Schumacher, 2009). At 11:40 (Figure 14b), unstable air parcels above the surface are lifted over
 531 the wave for the buoyancy of low-level gravity wave, attaining its level of free convection, and
 532 erupting into deep updrafts. As air parcels influenced by low-level waves ascend, they encounter
 533 buoyancy induced by high-level gravity waves, intensifying the convection process. The intense
 534 deep convection persists until 12:30 (Figure 14c), and gradually decrease at 13:00 (Figure 14d).
 535 The process of synergy between different levels of gravity waves is aligns with the wave energy
 536 flux in Figure 13b, the upper level gravity wave facilitates the downward transmission of wave
 537 energy, while the low-level gravity wave facilitates the upward transmission of wave energy.
 538 This synergy between gravity waves at high and low levels in the troposphere significantly
 539 contributes to the formation of intense deep convection, which often result in extreme
 540 precipitation events.

541 In section 4.3, gravity waves are shown to be responsible for more than 20% of the
 542 rainfall intensity over the rainfall center. The process through which gravity waves affected
 543 rainfall was as follows: after propagating from the terrain to the rainfall center, downward
 544 dispersion of wave energy from high-level gravity waves, synergizes with upward wave energy
 545 produced by low-level gravity waves excited by latent heat at low levels. This synergy leads to
 546 the convergence of wave energy flux and intensifies ascending motion. To put it another way,

547 the low-level gravity wave makes the parcel up to a middle level, and the high-level gravity
 548 wave make the parcel continue ascend, exhibit a “relay effect”. The synergy between different
 549 levels of gravity waves can trigger or enhance deep convection.



550

551 **Figure 14.** Vertical cross section of gravity wave–related variables in the southwest–northeast
 552 direction through the rainfall center. Potential temperature perturbations (K; colors) indicating
 553 buoyancy, vertical velocity (m s^{-1} ; gray contours), and equivalent potential temperature (350 K,
 554 black contours) representing streamlines are shown. The location of the cross section is marked
 555 by a black arrow within the blue rectangle in Figure 11b. The time of each panel is (a) 1100, (b)
 556 1140, (c) 1230, (d) 1300 CST on July 20, 2021.

557 5 Conclusions and discussions

558 Based upon radar, sounding, precipitation observations, ERA5 reanalysis, and a series of
 559 sensitivity simulations, this study investigates the characteristics and mechanisms of gravity
 560 waves associated with banded convection between the rainfall center and the southwest mountain
 561 (FNM), and effects of these gravity waves on the extreme rainfall. The main conclusions are as
 562 follows:

563 Gravity waves play as a robust factor in “21.7” rainfall event. These gravity waves were
 564 excited in the middle layer of the troposphere when the southwesterly flow in front of the MCV

565 located west of the rainfall center impinged on the northwest-southeast trending mountain
566 (FNM). These waves moved northeastward towards the rainfall center and generated banded
567 convection between the center and the southwest mountain. Power spectrum analysis indicates
568 that simulated gravity waves in the banded convective activity feature a wave phase speed of
569 around 11.5 m s^{-1} with wavelengths of 60-90 km and periods of 90-150 minutes.

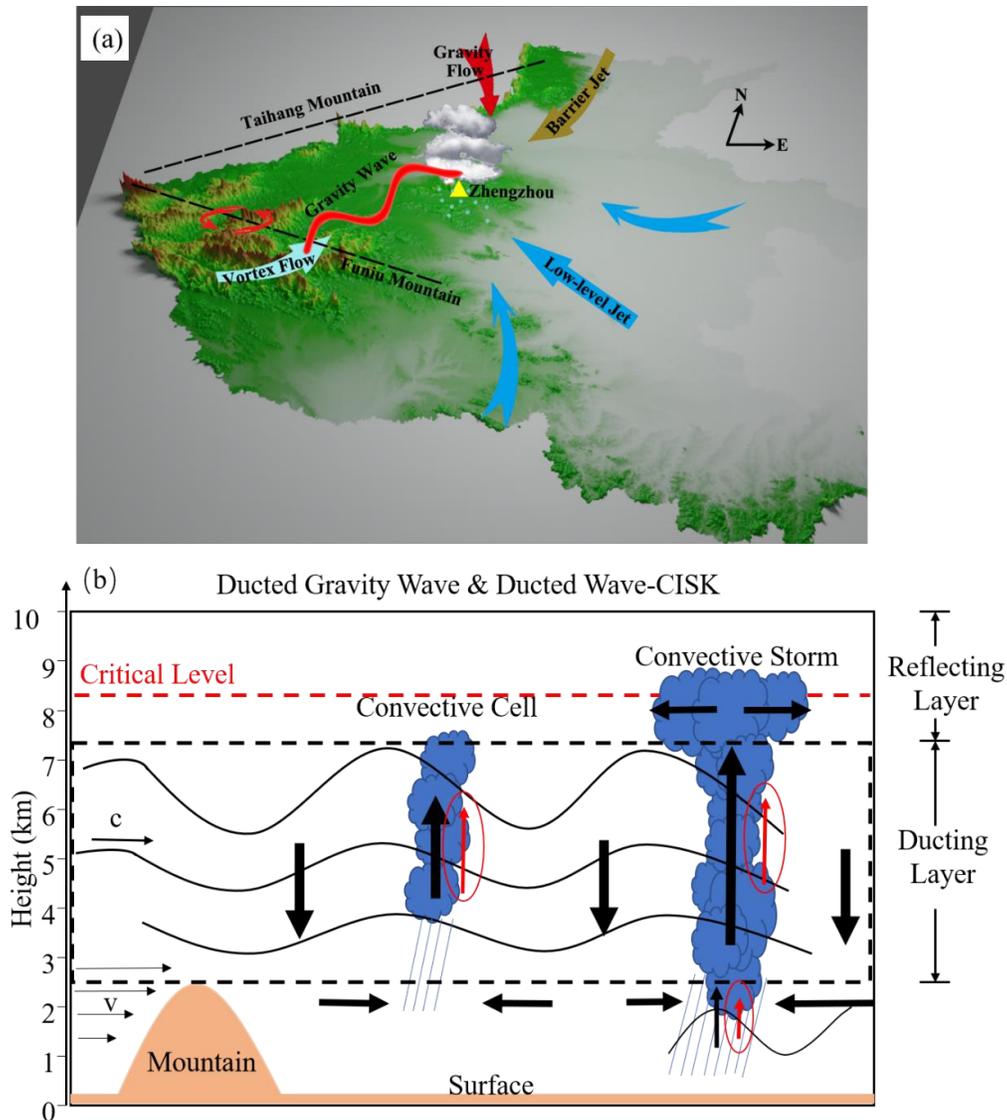
570 The gravity wave was excited above the mountain FNM located to southeast of the
571 rainfall center, due to the thermal stability of the atmosphere ($N_m^2 > 0$) and the sudden decrease
572 of the squared score parameter l^2 caused by strong wind shear. The gravity waves exhibit
573 horizontal propagation with a duration of over 6 hours for wave-ducting effects, which allow for
574 horizontal propagation with minimal energy loss. The wave-ducting effects exist between the
575 terrain and the rainfall center, with a ducting stable layer in the middle layer of the troposphere
576 (~ 7 km altitude), a reflecting layer above 8 km altitude, and a critical layer in the reflecting layer.

577 Sensitivity experiments with different intensities of gravity waves in the vicinity of the
578 FNM suggest that, the gravity waves lead to an approximately 20% increase in precipitation over
579 the rainfall center. After propagating 60 km northeast, the gravity wave peak subsequently is
580 embedded in the quasi-stationary convective system (QSCS) over the rainfall center, resulting in
581 the downward transportation of wave energy from the upper troposphere. Simultaneously, the
582 low-level gravity waves were excited due to the latent heating dispersion from the QSCS at the
583 lower tropospheric level, leading to an upward dispersion of wave energy. The downward and
584 upward flux of gravity wave energy led to a convergence of wave energy in the middle levels,
585 which transferred wave energy into vertical kinetic energy, ultimately strengthening the
586 convection.

587 The mechanism of gravity waves activity is summarized as a conceptual model shown in
588 Figure 15.

589 This study suggests that the orographic gravity wave, associated with conditionally
590 unstable moist airflows produced by westerly trough pass through a small terrain, is an important
591 mesoscale factor contributing to the intensification of the “21.7” event. Similar orographic
592 gravity waves may also contribute to rainfall over other complex terrain areas, such as the coastal
593 range in Western Oregon (Kirshbaum et al., 2007b), Taiwan's Central Mountain Range (Tang et
594 al., 2012), southern China's Coastal Range (Bai et al., 2021), and Helan Mountain (Chen et al.,
595 2021). Future research will examine how and to what extent orographic gravity waves contribute
596 to the extreme rainfall in these areas. Additionally, a detailed investigation of the interactions
597 between gravity waves at high and low tropospheric levels would be an interesting topic worth
598 exploring in future studies.

599



600

601 **Figure 15.** Schematic depiction of gravity wave activity during the “21.7” extreme rainfall event.
 602 (a) Gravity waves and other mesoscale weather system processes, (b) Mechanism of ducted
 603 linear gravity wave train propagating and its couple to deep convection. In Figure 15a, the
 604 research area is Henan Province, the gold triangle is the location of extreme precipitation
 605 (Zhengzhou City). The light blue, blue, brown and red arrows represent the the southwesterly
 606 flow from the MCV, low-level jet related to the outflow of typhoon “Infa”, barrier jet on the
 607 eastern slope of the Taihang Mountain, and the downslope gravity flow originating from the top
 608 of the Taihang Mountain. The red circular arrows indicate the midlevel circulation of the meso-
 609 low, and the red wavy lines represent the gravity wave (mountain wave). In Figure 15b, the black
 610 wavy lines (isentropic lines) represent gravity wave activity, the black arrows represent
 611 convergence, divergence, and upward or downward motion induced by gravity wave activity, the
 612 dashed line indicate the ducting stable layer covered by a critical level (showed in dashed red
 613 lines), and encircled red arrows denote latent heating-induced vertical motion. Modified from
 614 Ralph et al. (1993).

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621

622 **Open Research**

623 The ERA5 hourly data is available at <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.bd0915c6>. The model data for
624 this study are available on the website (<http://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24994143>).

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