

# Brief Communication: Key papers of 20 years in Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences

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## Abstract

To mark the twentieth anniversary of Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences (NHESS), an interdisciplinary and international journal dedicated to the public discussion and open-access publication of high-quality studies and original research on natural hazards and their consequences, we highlight eleven key publications covering major subject areas of NHESS that stood out within the past 20 years. The papers cover all the topics contemplated in the EGU division on Natural Hazards including dissemination, education, outreach and teaching. The selected articles thus represent excellent scientific contributions in the major areas of natural hazards and risks and helped NHESS to become an exceptionally strong journal representing interdisciplinary areas of natural hazards and risks. At its 20th anniversary, we are proud that NHESS is not only used by scientists to disseminate research results and novel ideas but also by practitioners and decision-makers to present effective solutions and strategies for sustainable disaster risk reduction.

## 1 Introduction

Embracing a holistic earth system science approach, Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences (NHESS) is an interdisciplinary and international journal dedicated to the public discussion and open-access publication of high-quality



50 scientific novelty and community impact was compiled. (2) Each of these papers was assigned to the NHESS topic it represents,  
 51 some of them represent multiple topics (e.g., Merz et al., 2010; Peduzzi et al., 2009; Mani et al., 2016). Additionally, also the  
 52 article type was identified, such as research paper, review, and invited perspective. (3) The NHESS editors discussed the  
 53 selection with the aim of optimally representing the NHESS topics and reflecting the diversity of article types. The key articles  
 54 were selected by consensus among the editors. Six of the hazards highlighted in our overview are closely related to weather  
 55 driven mechanisms that can be amplified by the ongoing climate change to various degrees, as mentioned in the latest IPCC  
 56 Assessment Report (IPCC, 2021).

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58 **Table 1. Representation of the NHESS topics by the selected articles**

	Topics of the journal	Selected article
1	atmospheric, meteorological, and climatological hazards	Monserrat et al. (2006); Klawa and Ulbrich (2003)
2	sea, ocean, and coastal hazards	Monserrat et al. (2006); Peduzzi et al. (2009)
3	hydrological hazards	Sousa et al. (2011); Merz et al. (2010); Peduzzi et al. (2009)
4	landslides and debris flow hazards	Bogaard and Greco (2018);
5	earthquake hazards	Solberg et al. (2010); Peduzzi et al. (2009)
6	volcanic hazards	Mani et al. (2016)
7	other hazards (e.g. glacial and snow hazards, karst, wildfire hazards, and medical geohazards)	Di Giuseppe et al (2020); Techel et al. (2018); Klawa and Ulbrich (2003)
8	databases, GIS, remote sensing, early warning systems, and monitoring technologies	Martinis et al (2009)
9	risk assessment, mitigation and adaptation strategies, socio-economic and management aspects	Merz et al. (2010); Peduzzi et al. (2009)
10	dissemination, education, outreach, and teaching	Mani et al. (2016)

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60 For example, the selected article on ‘Assessment of economic flood damage’ (Merz et al., 2010) is one of the highly cited  
 61 interdisciplinary articles (637 citations, based on Scopus search dated October 5, 2021), which covers multiple topics such as  
 62 *hydrological hazards*, and *risk assessment, mitigation and adaptation strategies, socioeconomic and management aspects*. The  
 63 development of multi-hazards disaster risk index by Peduzzi et al. (2009), a paper with 278 citations, was one of the initial  
 64 contributions on quantitative assessments of risks globally, within the topic of *risk assessment, mitigation and adaptation*  
 65 *strategies, socioeconomic and management aspects*. In the topic area of *remote sensing*, Martinis et al. (2009) developed one  
 66 of the first algorithms for near-real-time flood detection by using high-resolution Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR)  
 67 satellite data. Klawa and Ulbrich (2003) developed one of the very first simple but effective storm loss models in the area of  
 68 *atmospheric, meteorological and climatological hazards*. In the area of *landslides and debris flow hazards*, Bogaard and Greco  
 69 (2018) developed a conceptual model for regional landslide hazard assessment based on physical process understanding and  
 70 empirical data. Within the topic of other hazards, we selected two very relevant recent studies: (i) predicting fire-weather index  
 71 by Di Giuseppe et al. (2020) based on the ensemble forecast system of the European Centre for Medium-

72 Range Weather Forecasts; and (ii) spatial consistency and bias in public avalanche forecasts by Techel et al. (2018). In the  
73 area of *volcanic hazards and dissemination, education, outreach and teaching*, we highlight an interesting article on the  
74 innovative use of video games for volcanic hazard education and communication by Mani et al. (2016). Considering the  
75 importance of social psychology of seismic hazard adjustment at household level, we selected the contribution of Solberg et  
76 al. (2010). In the area of *sea, ocean and coastal hazards*, the contribution by Monserrat et al. (2006) on similarities and  
77 differences between seismic and meteorological tsunamis was innovative. Using multiple drought indices, the important  
78 contribution by Sousa et al. (2011) helped analysing the spatial and temporal evolution of drought conditions in the  
79 Mediterranean during the 20th century.

80

## 81 **2 Contributions of selected articles**

### 82 **2.1 Economic damage assessment of floods**

83 The review article “Assessment of economic flood damage” by Merz et al. (2010) is a remarkable contribution, dedicated to  
84 assessment of the damage related to floods. This is a topic, which is gaining increasing interest from many stakeholders, since  
85 it is a crucial element in the policies of flood risk management. In times when we have to face problems linked to climate  
86 changes, and adapt our way of living to mitigate the risks related to natural hazards, such an approach is of primary importance.  
87 A variety of flood inundation maps exists in the different countries of Europe, according to national laws. The flood directive  
88 of the European Union (EU) also requires Member States to map the flood extent and to assess the assets and humans at risk  
89 and to take adequate and coordinated measures to reduce the flood risk (Ec, 2007). In theory, flood risk maps include an  
90 assessment of the possible economic losses on society. However, this is rarely effective as many “risk maps” in practice do  
91 not cover all needed elements, and should more correctly be defined as hazard maps. The incorrect use of the terms creates  
92 therefore a serious drawback in the overall management of the risk. Typically, assessment of the hazard plays a much prominent  
93 part with respect to that regarding the damage, and this results in a mismatch in the quality of the available models and datasets  
94 for evaluating the economic damage. Therefore, the thorough review of methods for the assessment of economic flood damage  
95 provided by Merz et al. (2010) was and is still of high value for both practitioners and scientists so much so that many new  
96 approaches have been developed in the meantime, since the review was published in 2010.

97 Even though the article by Merz et al. (2010) is focused on flood damage assessment, issues as the risk-based evaluation of  
98 mitigation measures, and the methodological aspects of damage estimation are valid for other natural hazards, too. This still  
99 increases its value, and the positive effect on the scientific community. A crucial point, worth of further work and of particular  
100 interest to NHES readers, is the statement that flood risk cannot be managed alone: in areas affected by many geological  
101 hazards, these should all be considered in the policy of risk mitigation, according to magnitude of the phenomena and historical  
102 records of their effects. Introducing economic issues, such as the considerations about stock and flow values, in an article  
103 dealing with natural hazards is certainly part of a forward-looking vision, aimed at providing useful tools to decision-makers

104 in order to develop the most proper actions for flood risk management. It has to be pointed out, however, that more efforts are  
105 needed in this direction: for instance, in addition to economic flood damage, here taken into account, the adverse social,  
106 psychological, political and environmental consequences should be examined, in order to gain a comprehensive picture of the  
107 damage.

## 108 **2.2 Disaster risk index**

109 Efforts to assess and map natural hazard risk at the global scale have been ongoing since the mid-2000s in order to provide  
110 science-based information for disaster risk management. The global disaster risk management approach was formally adopted  
111 by international policies such as the Hyogo Framework For Action and the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction.  
112 The priority two of the Hyogo Framework For Action states that “The starting point for reducing disaster risk [...] lies in the  
113 knowledge of the hazards and the [...] vulnerabilities to disasters [...] followed by action taken on the basis of that knowledge”.  
114 The priority was further considered by the following Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (Unisdr, 2015). Using  
115 the definition by the United Nations Development Programme in 2004, the Disaster Risk Index (DRI) (Peduzzi et al., 2009)  
116 was the first attempt to produce a global, quantitative approach to assessing risk due to multiple hazards. By exploring the  
117 relationship between human losses and socio-economic and environmental variables for a variety of hazards (i.e., cyclones,  
118 droughts, earthquakes and floods), Peduzzi et al. (2009) provided the first statistical evidence of the links between vulnerability  
119 to natural hazards and levels of development at the global scale (i.e. country by country). The study helped in supporting aid  
120 organisations and governments through comparing countries across risk levels and hazard types, with an aim to make decision  
121 on risk mitigation strategies in time. In fact, since 2009, the index has been adopted in the Global Assessment Reports (GAR)  
122 of the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, leading in 2017 to the publications of the GAR Risk Atlas (UNDRR,  
123 2017) providing globally multi-hazard risk metrics. The significance of the DRI is further proved by the numerous researches  
124 that were carried out in the same direction, providing alternative indexes to assess risk, at the global or at the local level.  
125 Among them, the Index For Risk Management (INFORM) was developed by the European Joint Research Centre and is  
126 published on the homonymous webGIS platform twice a year. Additional efforts were also devoted to the inclusion of climate  
127 change impact in the evaluation. Indeed, vulnerability of a country is considered as a key criterion also to decide on climate  
128 adaptation funding. The World Risk Index (WRI) can be quoted as an example in this direction. The WRI was developed by  
129 the United Nations University – Institute for Environment and Human Security (Welle and Birkmann, 2015), and is now  
130 published by the Institute for International Law of Peace and Armed Conflict of Ruhr-University Bochum. It allows to take  
131 into account of climate change vulnerability and adaptive/coping capacity.

## 132 **2.3 Real-time flood detection using remote sensing**

133 When floods strike, emergency response and disaster relief need rapid information of the situation on the ground. In this  
134 context, technological advancements open new possibilities for supporting crisis intervention. The provision of inundation  
135 extent from satellites in near-real-time is one such success story. Situational awareness during floods requires reliable

136 information with a high spatial resolution to locate worst-hit areas and aid decision-making concerning the identification of  
137 target areas for distributing resources. Satellite data improve our capability to detect, map and monitor river floods and their  
138 impacts at local and global scales. For flood monitoring, it is advantageous and effective to utilize active sensors. In particular,  
139 radar is suitable as it penetrates rain and cloud cover, which are issues in flood-hit locations. In this regard, very high-resolution  
140 Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) data show enormous potential to improve the reliability of flood mapping. However, there is  
141 usually only limited time and personnel available during emergencies to understand and process geospatial data into  
142 meaningful products. Automatic processing algorithms are crucial to reducing the time lag between data acquisition and flood  
143 map dissemination. The algorithm developed by Martinis et al. (2009) is one of the first algorithms that enable the completely  
144 unsupervised detection of inundated areas from very high-resolution SAR data in near-real-time. It builds on a split-based  
145 threshold for extracting low backscattering from open flood surfaces in SAR data in a fully automatic and time-efficient  
146 manner. The segmentation of the radar scene and the context-sensitive threshold, in addition to the radar reflectivity,  
147 incorporate topological information into the classification. As the authors demonstrate, this enhances the quality of the  
148 outcomes. Notably, the algorithm does not require training data and is very suitable for applications even when the acquisition  
149 of ground-truth data is not feasible. With this development, the authors leverage very high-resolution SAR data for near real-  
150 time flood mapping in operational flood monitoring systems and improve our emergency response capabilities (Martinis et al.,  
151 2015; Matgen et al., 2011). Today, numerous flood monitoring services are in operation using SAR data with unsupervised  
152 classification (Schumann et al., 2018). The algorithm developed by Martinis et al. (2009) is a cornerstone in this advancement.

#### 153 **2.4 Assessment of storm losses**

154 The quantification and forecasting of impacts associated with the occurrence of natural hazards like windstorms or floods is  
155 of major importance for society and stakeholders (e.g., Merz et al. (2020)). One of the first efforts to provide a simple but  
156 physically based quantification of windstorm associated damage to buildings and infrastructure was the seminal work of Klawa  
157 and Ulbrich (2003). The authors considered daily maximum wind gusts from German weather stations, which were scaled by  
158 the local 98th percentile to account for local wind conditions and determine the area where damage potentially occurred  
159 (windstorm footprint). The scaled wind gusts exceeding the 98<sup>th</sup> percentile are cubed ( $V^3$ ) to account for the wind's destructive  
160 power, and are weighted with the population density (a proxy for the local insured property). The authors found high  
161 correlations between their loss model and the loss data from the German Insurance Association.

162 The loss model by Klawa and Ulbrich (2003) has since proved to be a highly efficient and widely applicable approach,  
163 becoming a very popular and easy-to-use socio-economic loss model for insurance applications, and leading to a wide number  
164 of further developments and follow up studies. For example, Leckebusch et al. (2008) developed the concept of the storm  
165 severity index (SSI) further and considered “wind tracking”, where the windstorm footprints for a certain time frame are linked  
166 together in space and time. Pinto et al. (2012) explored the differences between the extremeness of windstorms when  
167 considering purely meteorological versus population-weighted impacts.

168 The method has been applied to Reanalysis datasets and both global and regional climate model data, permitting the  
169 quantification of the windstorm risk in Europe and elsewhere for recent and future decades (e.g., Pinto et al. (2012);  
170 Leckebusch et al. (2008)). Recently, Pantillon et al. (2017) provided evidence that the impact of European windstorms is  
171 predictable with a certain level of confidence with a lead time of 2-4 days using 20 years of European Center for Medium-  
172 Range Forecasts (ECMWF) ensemble forecast data. This demonstrates the ability to assess storm damage, issue extreme  
173 weather warnings in a timely manner, and respond appropriately to avoid major damage and disruption.

## 174 **2.5 Landslide triggering thresholds**

175 Landslides triggered by rainfall cause damage and casualties worldwide (Froude and Petley, 2018). The implementation of  
176 landslide early warning systems is one of the most important measures for protecting populations at risk. A fundamental step  
177 for setting up an early warning system is the identification of the relationship between the precursors and landslide occurrence  
178 (Segoni et al., 2018). A large number of papers have treated this problem by attempting to derive thresholds expressed in the  
179 form of a power-law between rainfall event duration and mean intensity or event rainfall (the total rainfall depth accumulated  
180 over rainfall event duration), inspired by the pioneering paper by Caine (1980). Not many researchers have questioned this  
181 method for decades.

182 With their invited perspective, Bogaard and Greco (2018) discussed some theoretical reasons to move beyond this traditional  
183 approach. They stress that thresholds based only on rainfall event characteristics may not sufficiently reflect the hydrological  
184 processes occurring along slopes. In particular, intensity-duration thresholds do not allow to explicitly take into account the  
185 fact that the triggering rainfall event may be just the final “push” (trigger) after a longer wet period that predisposed the slope  
186 to fail (cause). They argued then that the cause-trigger concept may be better represented by hydro-meteorological thresholds.  
187 The term hydro-meteorological refers to the fact that these types of thresholds should combine a meteorological variable  
188 (rainfall depth) with a hydrological one, reflecting the water storage at the catchment or local scale.

189 Water stored in the unsaturated zone, is however a variable that is more difficult to measure with respect to precipitation. On  
190 the other hand, soil moisture information is increasingly becoming available, thanks to remote sensing missions. Reanalysis  
191 datasets have attracted the attention by researchers in this field as well. Within this context of an increase of availability of soil  
192 moisture information, the perspective paper soon stimulated an increasing number of scholars (i.e., cited 90 times in last three  
193 years) to investigate the use of the hydro-meteorological approach to improve the performances of empirical thresholds  
194 indicating landslide triggering conditions (Mirus et al., 2018; Marino et al., 2020; Reder and Rianna, 2021). The way through  
195 this improvement remains however quite challenging. Soil moisture presents high spatial and temporal variability, and remote  
196 sensing products – as well as reanalysis ones – are available only at coarse temporal/spatial resolutions; comparisons with in  
197 situ measurements have shown that accuracy issues may be present as well. Notwithstanding such obstacles to deal with, the  
198 invited perspective is stimulating scholars to move beyond an approach that remained nearly unquestioned for many years.

## 199 **2.6 The prediction of Fire-weather Indices**

200 Even if a commonly accepted definition is still lacking, it is becoming widely recognized that we are currently living in the  
201 Anthropocene epoch. The impact on the makeup of our planet's atmosphere, as well as on the disruption of many biomes and  
202 ecosystems are part of the Anthropocene fingerprint. In this context, it is important to stress that the three critical components  
203 that control the triggering and spread of wildfires (i.e. ignitions, fuels and weather/climate) are, to a large extent, influenced  
204 by human activities. Thus, the higher concentration of greenhouse gases produced by mankind is already increasing  
205 significantly the likelihood of heatwaves (Fischer and Knutti, 2015) that are often linked to more intense and prolonged fire  
206 seasons (Ruffault et al., 2020). Additionally, in many semi-arid areas of the globe the increasing temperatures coupled with a  
207 decrease in precipitation are aggravating the dryness of fuels (Abatzoglou and Williams, 2016).

208 Besides destroying property worth billions of Euros, wildfires are still capable of impinging a disconcerting large number of  
209 human fatalities, even in some of the most highly developed regions of the world, (e.g Portugal 2017, California and Greece  
210 2018, Australia 2020). Prediction of many weather driven natural hazards (e.g. heatwaves, floods or tropical cyclones) reached  
211 a fairly mature standard, however, the forecast of wildfire prone conditions still lags behind with fire danger indicators mostly  
212 relying on environmental monitoring. In 2020, a study led by Francesca Di Giuseppe (Di Giuseppe et al., 2020) published in  
213 NHESS suggested extending fire danger warnings with the use of the most advanced weather forecast model available, i.e.  
214 the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather (ECMWF) models. By systematically evaluating the ECMWF ensemble  
215 forecast system performance to reproduce fire weather index (FWI) from observing stations at the global scale, the authors  
216 demonstrate the capacity of this ensemble approach to be reasonably accurate up to 10 days ahead, especially for some of  
217 the largest fires that took place in 2017, namely in Chile and Portugal. Their results confirm that early warning could be  
218 extended by up to 1–2 weeks by using advanced numerical weather models, allowing for better coordination of resource-  
219 sharing and mobilization within and across countries (Di Giuseppe et al., 2020).

## 220 **2.7 Avalanche forecasting**

221 Since the inception of the journal NHESS, more than 80 avalanche research articles have been published covering a wide range  
222 of topics including terrain mapping, hazard and risk assessment approaches, developments in avalanche runout models,  
223 avalanche-forest interactions, assessments of risk mitigation approaches and others. Of the many excellent contributions, we  
224 would like to highlight the paper of Techel et al. (2018), who examined the spatial consistency and bias in avalanche forecasts  
225 across the European Alps. While globally the largest number of avalanche fatalities are caused by catastrophic avalanches  
226 hitting villages or infrastructure in mountain ranges such as the Himalayas, more than 90% of avalanche deaths in western  
227 countries involve backcountry recreationists who voluntarily expose themselves to avalanche hazard. For this user group,  
228 avalanche forecasts published by local, regional or national avalanche warning services are a critical source of information for  
229 developing an informed understanding of the existing conditions and deciding when, where and how to recreate in avalanche  
230 terrain. Despite substantial scientific advances in our understanding of the factors affecting avalanche hazard and our ability

231 to predict it, the compilation of avalanche forecasts from a variety of different data sources still relies heavily on the personal  
232 experience and judgment of avalanche forecasters, which makes it susceptible to inconsistencies and human biases.  
233 Focusing on the avalanche danger ratings, a prominent component of avalanche forecasts, Techel et al. (2018) show that there  
234 are considerable inconsistencies among the published ratings in the European Alps, and that the largest differences are mainly  
235 found along national or agency boundaries and less between climatological or topographic regions where one would expect  
236 them based on physical processes. These regional discrepancies make it challenging for backcountry users travelling across  
237 forecast regions to properly understand the published ratings and apply them in a consistent way. In addition, these  
238 inconsistencies can negatively affect the credibility of avalanche forecasts and lead to judicial problems in the case of avalanche  
239 accidents. While experienced forecasters were aware of this challenge, the innovative analysis approach developed by Frank  
240 Techel and his team was the first to explicitly quantify the issue in a way that circumvents the inherent challenges associated  
241 with validating danger ratings. The resulting insights have played an important role in initiating informed conversations about  
242 differences in avalanche forecasting practices and creating a meaningful foundation for evidence-based improvements in the  
243 future.

## 244 **2.8 Video game as hazard education and communication**

245 In 2015, the United Nations formalised the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, which identified the  
246 need for participating countries to “strengthen public education and awareness in disaster risk reduction”, specifically  
247 promoting the use of social media and community mobilisation campaigns and encouraging the education of all at-risk  
248 communities (Unisdr, 2015). Considering the importance of science communication for the natural hazards, the *dissemination,*  
249 *education, outreach, and teaching* is considered as one of the key subject for NHESS. However, this is less explored area in  
250 natural hazards research.. ‘Using video games for volcanic hazard education and communication’ by Mani et al. (2016) is one  
251 of the very few studies which contributes in this direction. They developed a video game for St. Vincent's Volcano in the  
252 eastern Caribbean island with an aim to enhance residents' education and communication of potential future volcanic hazards.  
253 The findings suggest that serious games have the potential to be effective tools in volcano education for both traditional (school  
254 students) and non-traditional (i.e., adults) stakeholder groups. Though video games, therefore is a promising communication  
255 and educational technique, this approach faces a number of challenges such as expensive and time consuming processes of  
256 game development. The study by Mani and his colleagues (Mani et al., 2016) offers exciting opportunities to build knowledge  
257 and resilience among a diverse range of social groups within at-risk communities.

## 259 **2.9 The psychological factors shaping human adjustments of seismic hazards**

260 The risk reduction efforts of natural hazards including seismic hazards are at the forefront of discussions on contemporary  
261 global forums such as the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the Sendai Framework for  
262 Disaster Risk Reduction (SFDRR) (Rahman and Fang, 2019). Besides structural measures, non-structural measures including

263 emotional and socio-cultural factors play a key role in people's risk-related behavior for disaster risk reduction (Mohibbullah  
264 et al., 2021). As people tend to be guided more strongly by their emotional reactions than by scientific or logical approach,  
265 psychological adaptation to disasters is an interesting area of research. Given the importance, Solberg et al. (2010) reviewed  
266 the psychological factors that shape human adjustments to seismic risk. This is one of the very few studies that synthesise the  
267 major findings from the 40 years of the international literature on the psychological adjustments of seismic hazards including  
268 the normative beliefs of earthquake protection responsibility and trust among key stakeholders of seismic risks (e.g.,  
269 management authorities and local people). They also analyse the importance of seismic adjustment attributes such as beliefs  
270 about efficacy, control and fate. The findings suggest that the consideration of norms, trust, power and identity play a key role  
271 in seismic hazards adjustment. The article by Solberg et al. (2010) stimulated interesting discussion and further development  
272 on psychological and behavioural adjustment of seismic hazard.

## 273 **2.10 Meteorological tsunamis**

274 Meteorological tsunamis (or simply known as meteotsunamis) are typically recognized as long ocean waves, which have the  
275 same frequencies and spatial scales as tsunami waves of seismic origin, but produced by atmospheric processes. They are  
276 triggered by extreme weather events including severe thunderstorms, squall lines (a sudden violent gust of wind or localized  
277 storm, especially one bringing rain, snow, or sleet), storm fronts, hurricanes or instable intense mid-troposphere jets. The  
278 similarity between atmospherically generated "meteotsunamis" and seismically generated tsunamis is strong enough that it  
279 can be difficult to distinguish one from the other. The article by Monserrat et al. (2006) is one of the very few studies that  
280 describes the hazardous phenomena of meteotsunamis in the World Ocean to show the similarities and differences with seismic  
281 tsunamis. Analysing several cases, Monserrat and his team found that both tsunamis and meteotsunamis have the same periods,  
282 same spatial scales, similar physical properties and affect the coast in a comparably destructive way. In addition, some specific  
283 features of meteotsunamis such as the coupling between the moving disturbance and the surface ocean waves make them akin  
284 to landslide-generated tsunamis. Monserrat et al. (2006) found that the major difference between the tsunamis and  
285 Meteotsunamis is associated with the specific properties (mainly the resonant factors) of corresponding sources. During  
286 resonance of the ocean driven by atmospheric forcing, the atmospheric disturbance propagating over the ocean surface is able  
287 to generate significant long ocean waves by continuously pumping energy into these waves. This contrasts to seismic tsunamis  
288 that can have globally destructive effects without any resonant factor. However, the Meteotsunamis are always local and much  
289 less energetic than seismic tsunamis. The destructive meteotsunamis are always the result of a combination of several resonant  
290 factors such as Proudman, Greenspan, shelf, harbour. As the probability of occurrence for such a combination is very low, the  
291 destructive meteotsunamis are infrequent and observed only at some specific locations in the ocean.

## 292 **2.11 Drier conditions in Mediterranean regions**

293 The Mediterranean Region is considered a hot-spot of climate change. This qualification is supported by different natural and  
294 socioeconomic reasons, being one of them its impact over hydrometeorological hazards, specifically, droughts. Despite the

295 high uncertainty associated to the application of climatic models over the rainfall in this region, there is a high confidence on  
296 the drought risk increase (Medecc, 2020), mainly due to precipitation reduction, a negative trend in moisture availability, and  
297 warming-enhanced evaporation. In a region where, in average, more than 65% of the freshwater is for agriculture near a 30%  
298 is for the direct use of water by the population, and the remaining 5% is for industry, energy and tourism, droughts increase  
299 implies that water related intersectoral conflicts are likely to be exacerbated. Even more so if we consider that in 2025 about  
300 530 million people will live in the Mediterranean, and that the increase in temperature will lead to an increase in irrigation  
301 needs from 4 to 18% (Medecc, 2020). Although today there are already numerous studies at local and regional scale on the  
302 observed spatial and temporal evolution of drought conditions, the paper by Sousa et al. (2011) updated the state of the art and  
303 provided a robust and complete analysis of these conditions at Mediterranean scale during the 20th century.

304 Droughts constitute a complex and difficult risk to evaluate, so it is usual to define indices to estimate their onset, duration and  
305 intensity. Sousa et al. (2011) applied the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) adapted to Europe (scPDSI) by the Climatic  
306 Research Unit. The scPDSI is based on the water budget for a certain period estimated from precipitation, temperature and soil  
307 characteristics and self-calibrated from local data. This index was applied to the Mediterranean Region and to four selected  
308 sub-regions, homogeneous in terms of drought characteristics and socio-economic relevance, for the period 1900-2000. After  
309 a robust analysis the scPDSI showed a clear trend towards drier conditions in most Mediterranean Region. This index  
310 reproduced well the strong decadal and inter-annual variability between subregions along all the century and showed how the  
311 drought period recorded during the 1940s was extended from Iberia until the Balkans Region. Having in mind that determined  
312 synoptic patterns favours the deficit of precipitation and previous literature, and after analysing different major potential  
313 teleconnections, authors selected the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and the Scandinavian index as the most representative  
314 for this region. The paper revealed the link between dry periods estimated by scPDSI and the positive phase of the NAO during  
315 winter and subsequent climatic seasons over the western Mediterranean, while the Scandinavian index presented a less  
316 homogeneous but significant pattern between winter and summer over central Mediterranean. Those teleconnections joined to  
317 the influence of the sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies allowed the creation of a stepwise regression model that was able  
318 to forecast summer drought conditions six months in advance and was capable of reproducing the observed scPDSI time series  
319 fairly well. Although it is a simple algorithm it provides a useful approach to seasonal forecasting of droughts, that can be very  
320 useful in a panorama characterized by an increase in dry periods.

### 321 **3 Conclusion**

322 The above articles represent excellent scientific contributions in the major subject areas of natural hazards and risks and helped  
323 NHESS to become an exceptionally strong journal representing interdisciplinary areas of natural hazards and risks. As a  
324 pioneer of the open access model including open discussion and peer review, NHESS promotes scientific contributions and  
325 original research on broad areas of natural hazards and their consequences. At its 20th anniversary, we are proud that NHESS

326 is not only used by scientists to disseminate research results and innovative novel ideas but also by practitioners and decision-  
327 makers to present effective solutions and strategies for sustainable disaster risk reduction.

## 328 **Acknowledgement**

329 All authors would like to acknowledge two reviewers and the editor for their insightful revisions and editing. A. Gain gratefully  
330 acknowledge Marie Skłodowska Curie grant agreement no. 787419, under the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and  
331 innovation programme.

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