



1 **Brief Communication: Key papers of 20 years in Natural Hazards and** 2 **Earth System Sciences**

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18 **Abstract**

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

27 **1 Introduction**

28 Embracing a holistic earth system science approach, Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences (NHESS) is an
29 interdisciplinary and international journal dedicated to the public discussion and open-access publication of high-quality
30 studies and original research on natural hazards and their consequences. NHESS serves a wide and diverse community of
31 research scientists, practitioners, and decision makers concerned with detection, monitoring, analyses and modelling of natural



50
51 For example, the selected article on ‘Assessment of economic flood damage’ (Merz et al., 2010) is one of the highly cited
52 interdisciplinary articles (637 citations, based on Scopus search dated October 5, 2021), which covers multiple topics such as
53 *hydrological hazards, meteorological hazards, and risk assessment, mitigation and adaptation strategies, socioeconomic and*
54 *management aspects*. The development of multi-hazards disaster risk index by Peduzzi et al. (2009), a paper with more than
55 278 citations, was one of the initial contributions on was one of the initial contributions on quantitative assessments of risks
56 globally, within the topic of *risk assessment, mitigation and adaptation strategies, socioeconomic and management aspects*.
57 In the topic area of *remote sensing*, Martinis et al. (2009) developed one of the first algorithms for near-real-time
58 flood detection by using high-resolution Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) satellite data. Klawe and Ulbrich (2003) developed
59 one of the very first simple but effective storm loss models in the area of *atmospheric, meteorological and climatological*
60 *hazards*. In the area of *landslides and debris flow hazards*, Bogaard and Greco (2018) developed a conceptual model for
61 regional landslide hazard assessment based on physical process understanding and empirical data. Within the topic of other
62 hazards, we selected two very relevant recent studies: (i) predicting fire-weather index and its capacity by Di Giuseppe et al.
63 (2020) based on the ensemble forecast system of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts; and (ii) spatial
64 consistency and bias in public avalanche forecasts by Techel et al. (2018). In the area of *volcanic hazards and dissemination,*
65 *education, outreach and teaching*, we highlight an interesting article on the innovative use of video games for volcanic hazard
66 education and communication by Mani et al. (2016). Considering the importance of social psychology of seismic hazard
67 adjustment in household level, we selected the contribution of Solberg et al. (2010). In the area of *sea, ocean and coastal*
68 *hazards*, the contribution by Monserrat et al. (2006) on similarities and differences between seismic and meteorological
69 tsunamis was innovative. Using multiple drought indices, the important contribution by Sousa et al. (2011) helped analysing
70 the spatial and temporal evolution of drought conditions in the Mediterranean during the 20th century. The papers thus cover
71 all the subtopics contemplated in the division on Natural Hazards including dissemination, education, outreach and teaching.

72 **2 Contributions of selected articles**

73 **2.1 Economic damage assessment of floods**

74 Assessment of natural hazards covers a wide range of disciplines, representing an issue, which is of sure interest to society,
75 given the casualties and economic losses registered annually. At this regard, the review article “Assessment of economic flood
76 damage” by Merz et al. (2010) is a remarkable contribution, dedicated to assessment of the damage related to floods. This is a
77 topic, which is gaining increasing interest from many stakeholders, since it is a crucial element in the policies of flood risk
78 management. In times when we have to face problems linked to climate changes, and adapt our way of lives to mitigate the
79 risks related to natural hazards, such an approach is definitely of primary importance. A variety of flood maps exists in the
80 different countries of Europe, according to national laws. The flood directive of the European Union (EU) also requires
81 Member States to map the flood extent and to assess the assets and humans at risk and to take adequate and coordinated



82 measures to reduce the flood risk (EC, 2007). In theory, flood risk maps include an assessment of the possible economic losses
83 on society. However, this is rarely effective as many “risk maps” in practice do not cover all needed elements, and should
84 more correctly be defined as hazard maps. The incorrect use of the terms creates therefore a serious drawback in the overall
85 management of the risk. Typically, assessment of the hazard plays a much prominent part with respect to that regarding the
86 damage, and this results in a mismatch in the quality of the available models and datasets for evaluating the economic damage.
87 Therefore, the thorough review of methods for the assessment of economic flood damage provided by Merz et al. (2010) was
88 and is still of high value for both practitioners and scientists. However, we should also mention that many new approaches
89 have been developed in the meantime, since the review was published in 2010.

90 Even though the article by Merz et al. (2010) is focused on flood damage assessment, issues as the risk-based evaluation of
91 mitigation measures, and the methodological aspects of damage estimation are valid for other natural hazards, too. This still
92 increases its value, and the positive effect on the scientific community. A crucial point, worth of further work and of particular
93 interest to NHESS readers, is the statement that flood risk cannot be managed alone: in areas affected by many geological
94 hazards, these should all be considered in the policy of risk mitigation, according to magnitude of the phenomena and historical
95 records of their effects. Introducing economic issues, such as the considerations about stock and flow values, in an article
96 dealing with natural hazards is certainly part of a forward-looking vision, aimed at providing useful tools to decision-makers
97 in order to develop the most proper actions for flood risk management. It has to be pointed out, however, that more efforts are
98 needed in this direction: for instance, in addition to economic flood damage, here taken into account, the adverse social,
99 psychological, political and environmental consequences should be examined, in order to gain a comprehensive picture of the
100 damage.

101 **2.2 Disaster risk index**

102 Efforts to assess and map natural hazard risk at the global scale have been ongoing since the mid-2000s in order to provide
103 science-based information for disaster risk management. The global disaster risk management approach was formally adopted
104 by international policies such as the Hyogo Framework For Action and the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction.
105 The priority two of the Hyogo Framework For Action states that “The starting point for reducing disaster risk [...] lies in the
106 knowledge of the hazards and the [...] vulnerabilities to disasters [...] followed by action taken on the basis of that knowledge”.
107 The priority was further considered by the following Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR, 2015). Using
108 the definition by the United Nations Development Programme in 2004, the Disaster Risk Index (DRI) (Peduzzi et al., 2009)
109 was the first attempt to produce a global, quantitative approach to assessing risk due to multiple hazards. By exploring the
110 relationship between human losses and socio-economic and environmental variables for a variety of hazards (i.e., cyclones,
111 droughts, earthquakes and floods), Peduzzi et al. (2009) provided the first statistical evidence of the links between vulnerability
112 to natural hazards and levels of development at the global scale (i.e. country by country). The study helped in supporting aid
113 organisations and governments through comparing countries across risk levels and hazard types, with an aim to make decision
114 on risk mitigation strategies in time. In fact, since 2009, the index has been adopted in the Global Assessment Reports (GAR)



115 of the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, leading in 2017 to the publications of the GAR Risk Atlas (UNDRR,
116 2017) providing globally multi-hazard risk metrics. The significance of the DRI is further proved by the numerous researches
117 that were carried out in the same direction, providing alternative indexes to assess risk, at the global or at the local level.
118 Among them, the Index For Risk Management (INFORM) was developed by the European Joint Research Centre and is
119 published on the homonymous webGIS platform twice a year. Additional efforts were also devoted to the inclusion of climate
120 change impact in the evaluation. Indeed, vulnerability of a country is considered as a key criterion also to decide on climate
121 adaptation funding. The World Risk Index (WRI) can be quoted as an example in this direction. The WRI was developed by
122 the United Nations University – Institute for Environment and Human Security (Welle and Birkmann, 2015), and is now
123 published by the Institute for International Law of Peace and Armed Conflict of Ruhr-University Bochum. It allows to take
124 into account of climate change vulnerability and adaptive/coping capacity.

125 **2.3 Real-time flood detection using remote sensing**

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



146 **2.4 Assessment of storm losses**

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

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

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

167 **2.5 Landslide triggering thresholds**

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

175 With their invited perspective, Bogaard and Greco (2018) discussed some theoretical reasons to move beyond this traditional
176 approach. They stress that thresholds based only on rainfall event characteristics may not sufficiently reflect the hydrological
177 processes occurring along slopes. In particular, intensity-duration thresholds do not allow to explicitly take into account the



178 fact that the triggering rainfall event may be just the final “push” (trigger) after a longer wet period that predisposed the slope
179 to fail (cause). They argued then that the cause-trigger concept may be better represented by hydro-meteorological thresholds.
180 The term hydro-meteorological refers to the fact that these types of thresholds should combine a meteorological variable
181 (rainfall depth) with a hydrological one, reflecting the water storage at the catchment or local scale.
182 Water stored in the unsaturated zone, is however a variable that is more difficult to measure with respect to precipitation. On
183 the other hand, soil moisture information is increasingly becoming available, thanks to remote sensing missions. Reanalysis
184 datasets have attracted the attention by researchers in this field as well. Within this context of an increase of availability of soil
185 moisture information, the perspective paper soon stimulated an increasing number of scholars (i.e., cited 90 times in last three
186 years) to investigate the use of the hydro-meteorological approach to improve the performances of empirical thresholds
187 indicating landslide triggering conditions (Mirus et al., 2018; Marino et al., 2020; Reder and Rianna, 2021). The way through
188 this improvement remains however quite challenging. Soil moisture presents high spatial and temporal variability, and remote
189 sensing products – as well as reanalysis ones – are available only at coarse temporal/spatial resolutions; comparisons with in
190 situ measurements have shown that accuracy issues may be present as well. Notwithstanding such obstacles to deal with, the
191 invited perspective is stimulating scholars to move beyond an approach that remained nearly unquestioned for many years.

192 **2.6 The prediction of Fire-weather Indices**

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

201 Besides destroying property worth billions of Euros, wildfires are still capable of impinging a disconcerting large number of
202 human fatalities, even in some of the most highly developed regions of the world, (e.g Portugal 2017, California and Greece
203 2018, Australia 2020). Prediction of many weather driven natural hazards (e.g. heatwaves, floods or tropical cyclones) reached
204 a fairly mature standard, however, the forecast of wildfire prone conditions still lags behind with fire danger indicators mostly
205 relying on environmental monitoring. In 2020, a study led by Francesca Di Giuseppe (Di Giuseppe et al., 2020) published in
206 NHESS suggested extending fire danger warnings with the use of the most advanced weather forecast model available, i.e.
207 the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather (ECMWF) models. By systematically evaluating the ECMWF ensemble
208 forecast system performance to reproduce fire weather index (FWI) from observing stations at the global scale, the authors
209 demonstrate the capacity of this ensemble approach to be reasonably accurate up to 10 days ahead, especially for some of
210 the largest fires that took place in 2017, namely in Chile and Portugal. Their results confirm that early warning could be



211 extended by up to 1–2 weeks by using advanced numerical weather models, allowing for better coordination of resource-
212 sharing and mobilization within and across countries (Di Giuseppe et al., 2020).

213 **2.7 Avalanche forecasting**

214 Since the inception of the journal NHESS, more than 80 avalanche research articles have been published covering a wide range
215 of topics including terrain mapping, hazard and risk assessment approaches, developments in avalanche runout models,
216 avalanche-forest interactions, assessments of risk mitigation approaches and others. Of the many excellent contributions, we
217 would like to highlight the paper of Techel et al. (2018), who examined the spatial consistency and bias in avalanche forecasts
218 across the European Alps. While globally the largest number of avalanche fatalities are caused by catastrophic avalanches
219 hitting villages or infrastructure in mountain ranges such as the Himalayas, more than 90% of avalanche deaths in western
220 countries involve backcountry recreationists who voluntarily expose themselves to avalanche hazard. For this user group,
221 avalanche forecasts published by local, regional or national avalanche warning services are a critical source of information for
222 developing an informed understanding of the existing conditions and deciding when, where and how to recreate in avalanche
223 terrain. Despite substantial scientific advances in our understanding of the factors affecting avalanche hazard and our ability
224 to predict it, the compilation of avalanche forecasts from a variety of different data sources still relies heavily on the personal
225 experience and judgment of avalanche forecasters, which makes it susceptible to inconsistencies and human biases.

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

237 **2.8 Video game as hazard education and communication**

238 In 2015, the United Nations formalised the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, which identified the
239 need for participating countries to “strengthen public education and awareness in disaster risk reduction”, specifically
240 promoting the use of social media and community mobilisation campaigns and encouraging the education of all at-risk
241 communities (Unisdr, 2015). Considering the importance of science communication for the natural hazards, the *dissemination,*
242 *education, outreach, and teaching* is considered as one of the key subject for NHESS. However, this is less explored area in



243 natural hazards research.. ‘Using video games for volcanic hazard education and communication’ by Mani et al. (2016) is one
244 of the very few studies which contributes in this direction. They developed a video game for St. Vincent's Volcano in the
245 eastern Caribbean island with an aim to enhance residents' education and communication of potential future volcanic hazards.
246 The findings suggest that serious games have the potential to be effective tools in volcano education for both traditional (school
247 students) and non-traditional (i.e., adults) stakeholder groups. Though serious games, therefore is a promising communication
248 and educational technique, this approach faces a number of challenges such as expensive and time consuming processes of
249 game development. The study by Mani and his colleagues (Mani et al., 2016) offers exciting opportunities to build knowledge
250 and resilience among a diverse range of social groups within at-risk communities.
251

252 **2.9 The psychological factors shaping human adjustments of seismic hazards**

253 The risk reduction efforts of natural hazards including seismic hazards are at the forefront of discussions on contemporary
254 global forums such as the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the Sendai Framework for
255 Disaster Risk Reduction (SFDRR) (Rahman and Fang, 2019). Besides structural measures, non-structural measures including
256 emotional and socio-cultural factors play a key role in people’s risk-related behavior for disaster risk reduction (Mohibullah
257 et al., 2021). As people tend to be guided more strongly by their emotional reactions than by scientific or logical approach,
258 psychological adaptation to disasters is an interesting area of research. Given the importance, Solberg et al. (2010) reviewed
259 the psychological factors that shape human adjustments to seismic risk. This is one of the very few studies that synthesise the
260 major findings from the 40 years of the international literature on the psychological adjustments of seismic hazards including
261 the normative beliefs of earthquake protection responsibility and trust among key stakeholders of seismic risks (e.g.,
262 management authorities and local people). They also analyse the importance of seismic adjustment attributes such as beliefs
263 about efficacy, control and fate. The findings suggest that the consideration of norms, trust, power and identity play a key role
264 in seismic hazards adjustment. The article by Solberg et al. (2010) stimulated interesting discussion and further development
265 on psychological and behavioural adjustment of seismic hazard.

266 **2.10 Meteorological tsunamis**

267 Meteorological tsunamis (or simply known as meteotsunamis) are typically recognized as long ocean waves, which have the
268 same frequencies and spatial scales as tsunami waves of seismic origin, but produced by atmospheric processes. They are
269 triggered by extreme weather events atmospheric conditions at the ground or mid-troposphere including severe thunderstorms,
270 squalls (a sudden violent gust of wind or localized storm, especially one bringing rain, snow, or sleet), storm fronts, hurricanes
271 or instable intense mid-troposphere jets generating atmospheric gravity waves, generated through the rapid changes in
272 barometric pressure, (a few hectopascals over a few minutes) or wind . The similarity between atmospherically generated
273 “meteotsunamis” and seismically generated tsunamis is strong enough that it can be difficult to distinguish one from the other.
274 The article by Monserrat et al. (2006) is one of the very few studies that describes the hazardous phenomena of meteotsunamis



275 in the World Ocean to show the similarities and differences with seismic tsunamis. Analysing several cases, Monserrat and his
276 team found that both tsunamis and meteotsunamis have the same periods, same spatial scales, similar physical properties and
277 affect the coast in a comparably destructive way. In addition, some specific features of meteotsunamis such as the coupling
278 between the moving disturbance and the surface ocean waves make them akin to landslide-generated tsunamis. Monserrat et
279 al. (2006) found that the major difference between the tsunamis and Meteotsunamis is associated with the specific properties
280 (mainly the resonant factors) of corresponding sources. During resonance of the ocean driven by atmospheric forcing, the
281 atmospheric disturbance propagating over the ocean surface is able to generate significant long ocean waves by continuously
282 pumping energy into these waves. This contrasts to seismic tsunamis that can have globally destructive effects without any
283 resonant factor. However, the Meteotsunamis are always local and much less energetic than seismic tsunamis. The destructive
284 meteotsunamis are always the result of a combination of several resonant factors such as Proudman, Greenspan, shelf, harbour.
285 As the probability of occurrence for such a combination is very low, the destructive meteotsunamis are infrequent and observed
286 only at some specific locations in the ocean.

287 **2.11 Drier conditions in Mediterranean regions**

288 The Mediterranean Region is considered a hot-spot of climate change. This qualification is supported by different natural and
289 socioeconomic reasons, being one of them its impact over hydrometeorological hazards, specifically, droughts. Despite the
290 high uncertainty associated to the application of climatic models over the rainfall in this region, there is a high confidence on
291 the drought risk increase (Medecc, 2020), mainly due to precipitation reduction, a negative trend in moisture availability, and
292 warming-enhanced evaporation. In a region where, in average, more than 65% of the freshwater is for agriculture near a 30%
293 is for the direct use of water by the population, and the remaining 5% is for industry, energy and tourism, droughts increase
294 implies that water related intersectoral conflicts are likely to be exacerbated. Even more so if we consider that in 2025 about
295 530 million people will live in the Mediterranean, and that the increase in temperature will lead to an increase in irrigation
296 needs from 4 to 18% (Medecc, 2020). Although today there are already numerous studies at local and regional scale on the
297 observed spatial and temporal evolution of drought conditions, the paper by Sousa et al. (2011) updated the state of the art and
298 provided a robust and complete analysis of these conditions at Mediterranean scale during the 20th century.

299 Droughts constitute a complex and difficult risk to evaluate, so it is usual to define indices to estimate their onset, duration and
300 intensity. Sousa et al. (2011) applied the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) adapted to Europe (scPDSI) by the Climatic
301 Research Unit. The scPDSI is based on the water budget for a certain period estimated from precipitation, temperature and soil
302 characteristics and self-calibrated from local data. This index was applied to the Mediterranean Region and to four selected
303 sub-regions, homogeneous in terms of drought characteristics and socio-economic relevance, for the period 1900-2000. After
304 a robust analysis the scPDSI showed a clear trend towards drier conditions in most Mediterranean Region. This index
305 reproduced well the strong decadal and inter-annual variability between subregions along all the century and showed how the
306 drought period recorded during the 1940s was extended from Iberia until the Balkans Region. Having in mind that determined



307 synoptic patterns favours the deficit of precipitation and previous literature, and after analysing different major potential
308 teleconnections, authors selected the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and the Scandinavian index as the most representative
309 for this region. The paper revealed the link between dry periods estimated by scPDSI and the positive phase of the NAO during
310 winter and subsequent climatic seasons over the western Mediterranean, while the Scandinavian index presented a less
311 homogeneous but significant pattern between winter and summer over central Mediterranean. Those teleconnections joined to
312 the influence of the sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies allowed the creation of a stepwise regression model that was able
313 to forecast summer drought conditions six months in advance and was capable of reproducing the observed scPDSI time series
314 fairly well. Although it is a simple algorithm it provides a useful approach to seasonal forecasting of droughts, that can be very
315 useful in a panorama characterized by an increase in dry periods.

316 **3 Conclusion**

317 The above articles represent excellent scientific contributions in the major subject areas of natural hazards and risks and helped
318 NHESS to become an exceptionally strong journal representing interdisciplinary areas of natural hazards and risks. Pioneered
319 in the open access model, NHESS is not only advancing scientific contributions and original research on broader areas of
320 natural hazards and their consequences, but also the journal is dedicated to the public discussion engaging multiple stakeholders
321 of natural hazards and risk communities. At its 20th anniversary, we are proud that NHESS is not only used by scientists to
322 disseminate research results and innovative novel ideas but also by practitioners and decision-makers to present effective
323 solutions and strategies for sustainable disaster risk reduction.

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