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► To cite this version:

Mohammed Merheb, Roger Moussa, Chadi Abdallah, François Colin, Charles Perrin, et al.. Hydrological response characteristics of Mediterranean catchments: a review. Hydrological Sciences Journal, 2016, 61 (14), pp.2520-2539. hal-01579161

HAL Id: hal-01579161 https://hal.science/hal-01579161

Submitted on 30 Aug 2017

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1 Hydrological of Mediterranean catchments: a review

- Mohammad Merheb ^{1,2}, Roger Moussa ³, Chadi Abdallah ^{2,*}, François Colin ⁴, Charles Perrin ⁵
 and Nicolas Baghdadi ¹
- ⁴ ¹ IRSTEA, UMR TETIS, 500 rue J.F. Breton, 34093 Montpellier cedex 5, France.
- ² National Council for Scientific Research, Remote Sensing Center, PO Box 11-8281, Beirut,
 Lebanon.
- ³ INRA, UMR LISAH, 34060 Montpellier Cedex 1, France
- ⁴ Montpellier SupAgro, UMR LISAH, 34060 Montpellier Cedex 1, France
- 9 ⁵ IRSTEA, Hydrosystems and Bioprocesses Research Unit (HBAN), 1, rue Pierre-Gilles de
- 10 Gennes, CS 10030, 92761 Antony Cedex, France
- 11 *Corresponding author: <u>chadi@cnrs.edu.lb</u>
- 12

13 Abstract This work reviews 140 hydrological studies conducted in the Mediterranean 14 region. It identifies key characteristics of the hydrological responses of Mediterranean catchments at various time scales and compares different methods and modelling 15 approaches used for individual-catchment studies. The study area is divided into the 16 17 northwestern (NWM), eastern (EM) and southern (SM) Mediterranean. The analysis indicates regional discrepancies in which the NWM shows the most extreme rainfall 18 19 regime. A tendency for reduced water resources driven by both anthropogenic and 20 climatic pressures and a more extreme rainfall regime are also noticeable. Catchments 21 show very heterogeneous responses over time and space, resulting in limitations in hydrological modelling and large uncertainties in predictions. However, few models have 22 been developed to address these issues. Additional studies are necessary to improve the 23 24 knowledge of Mediterranean hydrological features and to account for regional specificities. 25 Keywords hydrology: Mediterranean catchment: annual water balance: rainfall-runoff; 26 floods: droughts: modelling

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Caractéristiques se la réponse hydrologique des bassins versants méditerranéens à pas de temps différents

Résumé Ce travail examine 140 études hydrologiques menées dans la région 30 méditerranéenne. Il identifie les principales caractéristiques des réponses hydrologiques 31 32 des bassins versants méditerranéens à différentes échelles de temps et compare également les méthodes et les approches de modélisation utilisées pour les études de 33 basins versants individuels. La zone d'étude est divisée en nord-ouest (NWM), est (EM) et 34 sud (SM) de la Méditerranée. L'analyse indique les disparités régionales, la zone NWM 35 montrant le régime de précipitations le plus extrême. Une tendance à la réduction des 36 37 ressources en eau entraînées par les pressions anthropiques et climatiques et un régime de précipitations plus extrêmes sont également perceptibles. Les bassins montrent des 38 39 réponses très hétérogènes dans le temps et l'espace, ce qui entraîne des limitations dans la modélisation hydrologique et de grandes incertitudes dans les prévisions. Cependant, 40 peu de modèles ont été développés pour répondre à ces questions. Des études 41 supplémentaires sont nécessaires pour améliorer la connaissance des caractéristiques 42 hydrologiques de la Méditerranée et pour tenir compte des spécificités régionales. 43

44 Mots-clefs hydrologie; basin versant Méditerranéen ; bilan annuel; pluie-débit; crues;
 45 sécheresse; modélisation

47 **1 INTRODUCTION**

48

49 **1.1 The Mediterranean as a focus of research**

The Mediterranean climate is characterized by high inter-annual variability in precipitation, 50 51 seasonal rainfall patterns, summer drought, and intense rainfall. Because of the characteristics 52 of the climate, Mediterranean areas face water availability problems (Morán-Tejeda et al. 2010). 53 In the last 20 years, many countries of the Mediterranean Basin have witnessed multi-year 54 drought periods (FAO 2006). Many studies (e.g., Parry et al. 2000, Milly et al. 2005, IPCC 2014) 55 predict that water resources will even become scarcer due to climate change and the increasing 56 demands on water by various economic sectors. Moreover, the irregular spatial distribution of 57 precipitation leads to large differences in water availability across territories (Morán-Tejeda et al. 2010). Furthermore, high-intensity but short rainfall events cause intense flooding (e.g., 58 59 Vincendon et al. 2010, Moussa and Chahinian 2009 [France], Koutroulis and Tsanis 2010 [Greece], Brath et al. 2004 [Italy], Rozalis et al. 2010 [Israel]). Mediterranean catchments are 60 therefore characterized by three main features: limited water resources, dry summers and high-61 intensity rainfall events that generate flash floods. 62

63 Many attempts have been made to provide an overview on the hydrology of the Mediterranean region. Reviews have already detailed specific aspects of the hydrology of 64 Mediterranean catchments, such as rainfall interception (Llorens and Domingo 2007), the impact 65 of the Mediterranean forest on catchment responses (Cosandey et al. 2005), the dryland 66 67 hydrology (Cudennec et al. 2007), the impact of human activities on fluvial systems (Hooke, 2006), erosion processes (Shakesby et al. 2011; Garcia-Ruiz et al. 2013) and the hydrology of 68 mountainous catchments (Latron et al. 2009). Other studies synthesized the results of climate 69 70 change impact studies in the region, such as in Alpert et al. (2008) and Philandras et al. (2011) 71 and the impact of global changes on Mediterranean water resources (Garcia-Ruiz et al. 2011). 72 The Mediterranean region has been also studied as part of larger geographical areas (Marchi et 73 al. 2010, Cortesi et al. 2012, Salinas et al. 2014a, b).

74 Moreover, many international projects were conducted on the Mediterranean region to study 75 the hydrological cycle generally. Among others, the FRIEND Alpine and Mediterranean Hydrology (AMHY) project was launched in 1991 as part of the UNESCO International 76 77 Hydrological Program (Servat and Demuth 2006, Gustard and Cole 2002). The project involves 78 19 countries from southern Europe and the Mediterranean Basin. Since 2007, the HyMeX 79 project (www.hymex.org) has been promoting a multidisciplinary approach to analyse all components of the Mediterranean water cycle (see Llasat et al. 2013 for more details). This 80 project focuses on physical aspects, the socio-economic impacts of extreme events, and the 81 82 adaptation capacity to changes. Another example of current initiatives in the Mediterranean is 83 the MEDEX project (http://medex.aemet.uib.es), which focuses on meteorological scenarios with 84 high hydrological impacts.

86 **1.2 Objectives of the review**

85

This paper aims to present an overview of the hydrological response characteristics of Mediterranean catchments and to identify the main objectives and modelling approaches of studies conducted in the region. It focuses on studies related to annual water balance, flood events and droughts.

The methodology consists of analysing recent individual catchments studies that have been published over the last two decades. It starts by defining the study area, followed by the collected database representation. The hydrological response characteristics and the methods used for a general discussion of the main outcome of this review is provided answering the following questions:

- 96 Can we identify regional hydrological tendencies in the Mediterranean region?
- 97 What is required to model Mediterranean catchments?

What are the main challenges for future research in the Mediterranean?

99

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Note that this analysis does not specifically review the studies on ungauged catchments for sake of brevity. The reader may refer to the recent general reviews on prediction on ungauged basins proposed by Blöschl et al. (2013) or Hrachowitz et al. (2013), which include studies on the Mediterranean basin.

104

105 2 THE MEDITERRANEAN REGION

2.1 Boundary of the Mediterranean region

The Mediterranean climate is not confined to the Mediterranean Sea region. In fact, much of 108 California, parts of Western and South Australia, southwestern South Africa, and parts of central 109 110 coastal Chile have Mediterranean climates. According to the Köppen (1936) classification, 111 Mediterranean climates are characterized as subtropical climates with dry summers. Nevertheless, this paper was intentionally limited to the Mediterranean basin because this region 112 shares more than climatic features. The basin has homogenous geological and physiographic 113 114 settings (Wainwright and Thornes 2004), and it forms a geographical unit that faces the challenges of large socio-economic exchanges and enormous anthropogenic pressure. 115

- There is no worldwide consensus on the definition or boundaries of the Mediterranean region (Hooke 2006, Shakesby 2011). Several characteristics are commonly used to define the Mediterranean region (Fig. 1a):
- The boundaries of the basins that drain into the Mediterranean Sea (e.g., Milano et al.
 2012): such a definition omits regions that share similar climatic and physiographic
 characteristics, such as Portugal, and adds regions that might not be considered
 Mediterranean from a climatic and hydrological point of view, such as parts of Libya and
 Egypt.
- 124 -The climate regime: several definitions and classifications denote boundaries that are not completely consistent (e.g., Köppen 1936, Thornthwaite 1948). For example, the Köppen 125 126 (1936) classification, which is commonly used, classifies regions that are usually 127 considered Mediterranean, such as southeastern and central Spain, as cold semi-arid regions; it also uncharacteristically extends the Mediterranean to areas in the Middle East. 128 129 -The vegetation types (e.g., Quezel 1985): such definitions are usually called bio-climatic because vegetation reflects the climatic conditions. Nevertheless, such definitions inherit 130 some of the problems of the climatic definition. The distribution of many species 131 132 considered as indicators of the Mediterranean (e.g., olive trees) are highly related to 133 human activities.
- -The administrative divisions of the countries surrounding the Mediterranean Sea: these
 definitions are also problematic because they often have no natural basis (Wainwright and
 Thornes 2004).
- 137 In this work, the ["]Mediterranean" is considered as any catchment falling within one of the 138 above-mentioned boundaries and defined by authors as Mediterranean but excluding the 139 administrative boundaries from this assumption Figure 1 (a, b, & c)
- 140

141 **2.2** Physical characteristics of the Mediterranean region

The Mediterranean region has a total area of approximately 1,100,000 km² (Grove and Rackham 2001). Mountain ranges surround the Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 1a): the Pyrenees in southwestern Europe, the Alps in southern France and north-western Italy, the Apennines along the Italian coast, the Dinaric Alps along the coast of the Adriatic Sea, the mountains of Greece, the Taurus Mountains in Turkey, Mount Lebanon in the eastern Mediterranean and the Atlas Mountains in northern Africa. The proximity of the mountain ranges to the sea explains why a majority of the Mediterranean catchments are medium-sized and sloping. Lower hills, such as 149 the Cevennes region in France, and plains also exist along the coasts and in some interior 150 regions; thus, the landscape is guite heterogeneous.

Most of the underlying geology comprises limestone with sandstone, sedimentary deposits 151 and metamorphic granites (Di Castri 1981). The prevalence of limestone rocks means that 152 153 karstic catchments are very common in the region.

Vegetation is mainly dominated by evergreen trees and shrubs (the famous Mediterranean 154 "Maguia" or "Garrigue"). In mountainous areas with wetter conditions, several deciduous tree 155 species prevail. Conversely, the driest areas are dominated by steppe (Bonada and Resh 2013). 156 157 However, Mediterranean catchments exhibit a particular relief-driven organization in the 158 distribution of land types. Hence, forests grow directly under the rocky summits of Mediterranean mountains; agricultural terraces exist downslope. Further down, the Mediterranean Garrigue is 159 present. Finally, agriculture dominates the coastal plains. This pattern is partly attributed to past 160 161 human activities, but it is now disturbed by the intense urbanization in Mediterranean coastal 162 plains and the abandonment of the agricultural terraces for Mediterranean forests, particularly in Europe (e.g., Gallart and Llorens 2004, Lana-Renault et al. 2007, Ceballos-Barbancho et al. 163 2008, Moran-Tejeda et al. 2010). These changes certainly have an impact on the hydrological 164 165 responses of Mediterranean catchments.

166 3 **REVIEW EXTENT AND DATABASE**

167 3.1 **Review information**

A total of 140 studies on the Mediterranean region published over the last two decades were 168 169 analysed. 170

To study regional tendencies in the Mediterranean zone, the study region was divided into:

- 171 the North-Western Mediterranean (NWM), encompassing Mediterranean Albania, Croatia, -France, Italy, Montenegro, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain, with 84 analysed studies 172
- 173 the Eastern Mediterranean (EM), encompassing Cyprus, Egypt, Greece, Israel, Lebanon, Palestinian territories, Syria and Turkey, (42 studies) ; 174
- 175 and the Southern Mediterranean (SM), encompassing Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and -176 Tunisia, (14 studies).
- These studies were divided into three groups focusing on the annual water balance (58 177 studies), flood events (49 studies) and droughts (33 studies). 178
- 179 For each study, the key information that was systematically collected and analysed includes:
 - *(i)* Basin location (reference and coordinates)
 - (iii) Study objectives

180 181

- (iii) Basin characteristics, such as the area, mean elevation, mean slope, land use, soil classes, geology and the possible presence of karst;
- (iv) Hydro-meteorological data characteristics, such as the rainfall-runoff measurement 184 period, the time step of the measurements, the mean annual precipitation, the reference 185 evapotranspiration, the mean annual runoff, the runoff coefficient and the snow 186 187 contribution; for event-based studies, detailed information on catchment responses (rainfall, runoff, peak discharge) for each event was also extracted when available; 188
- (v) (v) Mode characteristics, such as the model name and original reference, the simulated 189 190 hydrological processes, the spatial resolution (lumped, semi-distributed or distributed), the time step and the model evaluation criteria. 191

192 **3.2** Annual water balance studies

The reviewed studies (Fig. 1b) with information about the components of the water balance 193 194 equation (40 out of 58) include approximately 139 Mediterranean catchments: 70 catchments in the NWM, 43 in the EM and 26 in the SM (Table 1). The majority (27 out of 40) are studies on 195 individual catchments, while only 13 compare 2 or more catchments. The catchment areas range 196 197 from 0.35 km² to 16,000 km², with a median of 286 km²; 75% of the catchment areas are below 198 640 km². Eighteen catchments are karstic, having hydrogeological boundaries that do not 199 necessarily match the topographic boundaries. Snow represents a significant portion of the 200 precipitation for 21 catchments. Thus, it is an essential component in those water balances.

201 **3.3 Rainfall-Runoff event-based studies**

Among the forty nine flood studies, twenty one includes useful information for quantative on 136 catchments and 191 events (Fig. 1c and Table 2).

204 The analysis was only conducted on hydrological studies at the catchment scale. Hence, studies focusing on the hydraulic aspects of the catchment response at the reach scale were 205 206 excluded. These studies are not limited to extreme flood events (such as Marchi et al. 2010 and 207 Tarolli et al. 2012) but comprise any runoff-generating rainfall event study that contains substantial event-related information. However, this information is not equally available to all. 208 Details on each study and event-related data are presented in Table 6. Here, one must clarify 209 that a single event can affect more than one catchment and that more than one event could be 210 211 reported for the same catchment. Among these studies, 13 were conducted in NWM, 5 in EM, 212 and 3 in SM. One study (Tarolli et al. 2012) was an analysis of flash flood regimes in the 213 northwestern Mediterranean (France, Spain, Italy) and the southeastern Mediterranean region 214 (Israel). Moreover, 69 catchments out of a total of 136 are located in the NWM. The rest of the catchments are divided between the EM (22) and SM (45). The catchments areas range from 215 216 3.83 km² for the Valsecure catchment (a headwater catchment of the Gardon d'Anduze, 217 Southern France; Tramblay et al. 2010) to 16,330 km² for the Negada catchment at Lassoud in 218 Tunisia (Abida and Ellouze 2008).

219

220 3.4 Drought studies

Drought definitions vary according to the variables used to describe the drought (Mishra and Singh 2010, 2011). One can define three major types of droughts: meteorological or climatic drought (WMO 1986); agro-meteorological or agricultural drought (FAO 1983); and hydrological drought (Gumbel 1963, Palmer 1965).

Socioeconomic impacts of drought are defined in terms of losses from an average or expected return and are measured by both social and economic indicators (Mishra and Singh 2010). All these droughts aspects are interrelated and are measured in terms of their intensities, durations and frequencies. In this work, we cite recent studies in the Mediterranean region that characterize droughts, and we discuss the main objectives and methods used (Fig. 1d).

Droughts are usually studied in a regional context due to their large-scale characteristics 230 (Mishra and Singh 2009). Here, thirty-one drought-related studies published in the last decade in 231 the Mediterranean region are presented (Table 3). Eighteen studies are conducted at the 232 233 catchment scale, while the others have a greater spatial extension, generally an entire country or geographical region. Approximately half of the studies are conducted in the NWM, with a 234 majority (10 articles) in the Iberian Peninsula (mostly Spain), 11 studies were conducted in the 235 236 EM and only 4 were conducted in the SM region. Drought studies are usually conducted at long 237 time scales (several decades).

238 4 HYDROLOGICAL RESPONSE CHARACTERISTICS

In this section we analyse the hydrological response characteristics of the studied Mediterranean
 catchments based on the collected data described above, in terms of annual water balance,
 rainfall-runoff events and drought.

242 **4.1** Annual water balance studies

The mean annual precipitation (MAP), reference evapotranspiration (ET0), and mean annual runoff (MAQ) are highly variable across the three Mediterranean sub-regions. The median values show decreasing MAP, MAQ, MAQ/MAP and an increasing ET0 from NWM to EM and SM (Table 4).

The relationship between MAQ and MAP is plotted whereeach point represents a studied 247 248 catchment (Figure 2). The results show a significant correlation ($R^2=0.745$) between MAQ and 249 MAP reported in all studies. Most low-yielding catchments with MAP values lower than 400 mm are located in the SM. For a larger MAP, the graph shows important scattering. The graph also 250 251 shows that even for large MAP values (800 - 900 mm), the runoff yield can be very low (approximately 30 mm); this is true for catchments in Crete (Koutroulis et al. 2013). Thus, the 252 catchment yield is highly variable. The trend for the EM and the NWM catchments is quite 253 254 similar, with an intercept close to 500-550 mm and comparable slopes. The trend is different for 255 the SM catchments with an intercept close to 250-300 mm and a lower slope. For a few catchments (especially in NWM and EM), the MAQ is larger than the MAP. Here, two factors 256 257 may explain this phenomenon: the contribution of snow amounts in mountainous catchments that is underestimated and the presence of karsts that may greatly increase the effective 258 259 catchment area.

A similar analysis (not shown) that accounted for catchment area and elevation was undertaken. Catchment area does not appear to influence catchment response, expressed as the water depth (mm per time step). The impact of the elevation, however, could not be neglected because both the MAP and catchment runoff increased with elevation.

To investigate the climatic features of Mediterranean catchments, a Budyko-type plot (Budyko 264 1974, Andréassian and Perrin 2012) (Fig. 3) shows the mean annual runoff coefficient 265 MAQ/MAP as a function of the aridity index AI = ET0/MAP. When ET0/MAP<1, wet conditions 266 267 prevail. When ET0/MAP>1, dry climatic conditions prevail. The lines MAQ/MAP=1 and MAP=MAQ+ET0 represent the water and energy limits. Catchments are expected to fall within 268 269 these limits for a closed water balance. Otherwise, the catchment is either gaining (catchment 270 with MAQ/MAP>1) or losing (catchment with MAP<MAQ+ET0) water, or there might be errors in the data. Four catchments fall outside the water or energy limits. These catchments are karstic 271 (e.g., Nikolaidis et al. 2013 [Greece], Longobardi and Vallini 2008 [Italy]), which may explain the 272 273 presence of underground water gain or loss processes. Most catchments (60%) can be considered water-stressed, with an aridity index greater than 1. 274

Figure 3 shows a geographical cluster of catchments: (i) NWM catchments with the lowest aridity index and a large variation in catchment water yields (MAQ/MAP); (ii) SM catchments with the lowest runoff yields; (iii) EM catchments with a large variation in both the aridity index and catchment water yields. This large heterogeneity in the climatic features and hydrological response of EM catchments can be explained by the complex geomorphologic features of this region and the prevalence of karstic and mountainous catchments.

To summarize, Mediterranean catchments exhibit a high variability in terms of both climatic characteristics and catchment hydrological responses at the annual scale. The latter can highly vary, even for the same amount of rainfall input, which may seriously challenge any modelling approach. Nevertheless, some regional patterns exist, and catchments in each of the abovementioned sub-regions appear to have somewhat similar characteristics.

286 **4.2** Rainfall-runoff event-based studies

287 4.2.1 Rainfall events: amount and duration

The monthly distribution of the number of events per geographic zone is presented in Fig. 4. Events in the NWM mostly occur in autumn (September to December), whilst in the EM region, events mostly occur in winter (January and February). For the SM, most of the studied events occur between September and February, with the highest frequency in January.

292 For the 191 events presented here, the duration of the runoff generated by a rainfall event 293 greatly varies between 2 h and 8 days. Similarly, event rainfall amounts show great variability. 294 from 10.4 mm in the Giofyros Basin, Greece (Koutroulis and Tsanis 2010), to 540 mm in the 295 Gard River Basin, France (Vincendon et al. 2010) over various durations. More extreme events 296 were also reported in the literature, particularly in southern France. On 12-13 November 1999, 297 the Aude River [Southern France] witnessed an extreme flood event generated by 700 mm of 298 rainfall in 24 hrs (Gaume et al. 2004). The famous 8-9 September 2002 flood in the Gard region (southern France) was generated by approximately 600 mm of rainfall in 48 hrs. 299

Figure 5 represents the cumulative event rainfall as a function of the event duration, with large scattering in the relationship. For the same event duration, the total amount of cumulative rainfall can greatly vary over a location. Moreover, the rainfall amounts during a single event vary according to the geographical location, with the highest event rainfall (> 100 mm) located in the NWM.

305 **4.2.2 Peak discharge**

Event peak discharge is widely used as an indicator of the hydrological response of catchments. 306 307 Here, we represent the catchment unit peak discharge (the peak discharge per km²) as a 308 function of a catchment's area (Fig. 6a) and cumulative event rainfall (Fig. 6b). Numerous studies found a dependence of peak discharge on catchment area (e.g., Herschey and 309 Fairbridge 1998, Herschy 2002, Furey and Gupta 2005, Marchi et al. 2010). Figure 6a 310 represents a log-log diagram of the unit peak discharges of our catchment database (for each 311 312 catchment, the highest peak flow was plotted) with two envelope curves developed by Tarolli et 313 al. (2012) for the NWM (France, Italy and Spain) and for EM (Israel) flash floods.

In Mediterranean catchments, unit peak discharges are extremely high. Indeed, values 314 315 estimated from post-flooding investigations (Gaume et al. 2003, Gaume et al. 2004, Gaume and Bouvier 2004) reached 30 m³/s/km² for the 8-9 September 2002 event for a 15 km² basin, 316 317 exceeded 15 m³/s/km² in four basins, and exceeded 10 m³/s/km² in six other basins. This finding 318 can be linked to the characterization of extreme flash floods in 60 catchments of five European climate zones (Mediterranean, Alpine-Mediterranean, Alpine, Continental and Oceanic) 319 presented by Marchi et al. (2010). The authors found the highest unit peak flows in the 320 321 Mediterranean region followed by the Alpine-Mediterranean.

In our dataset, the highest unit peak flow was recorded on the Alzon River at the Saint Jean 322 323 de Pin, southern France (Nguyen et al. 2014), with a value of 33 $m^3/s/km^2$ (catchment area = 30 km²). However, the unit peak discharges decrease rapidly with the increasing catchment 324 325 area. This rapid decrease in the unit peak discharge with the increase in the catchment area may reflect the high spatial variability in the rainfall events that occurs in the Mediterranean and 326 327 the high heterogeneity in the hydrological responses of different locations within a catchment (Latron and Gallart 2007, 2008). Thus, for a given catchment and a given rainfall event, the 328 329 event does not necessarily affect the entire catchment, and the runoff-generating processes are 330 not the same in all parts of the catchment.

The differences in catchment responses in terms of unit peak discharges by geographical location are illustrated in Figure 6a. It clearly shows that the highest peak discharges are recorded in the NWM, followed by the SM. The lowest unit peak flows were recorded in the EM. The highest unit peak flows were recorded for the smallest catchments. For large catchments, values from the NWM and SM catchments are within the same range, whereas the EM records the lowest values. Nevertheless, although the NWM region is known for severe rainfall events and catastrophic floods, the highest peak flows may be partly attributed to the relatively denser gauging networks and larger number of research teams investigating post-flood conditions in that region. Hence, information on peak flows in small catchments (on the order of 10 km²) is available. This information is rarely available for other areas of the Mediterranean.

Catchment unit peak discharges as a function of event rainfall depth (Fig. 6b) are highly scattered for a given amount of cumulative rainfall. Therefore, no correlation could be found between event rainfall depth and event peak flow, particularly for rainfall depths below 100 mm. However, above a 100 mm rainfall threshold, the unit peak discharge seems to increase continuously with the amount of event rainfall.

346 Another factor that may influence peak flow is the duration of the rainfall event. It is tempting 347 to associate a longer event with a higher unit peak discharge. While this might be the case in 348 humid environments, no obvious relationship exists in Mediterranean catchments. For a given event duration, the unit peak discharges greatly vary (Fig. 6c). However, this relationship is true 349 350 for relatively short events (event durations of less than 50 hrs), whilst it seems from the analysis of Fig. 6(c) that for longer event durations, a particular pattern exists: the unit peak discharge 351 appears to increase with the increasing event duration. Perhaps for really long events, 352 353 catchment moisture conditions and runoff generation processes begin to resemble those of 354 humid conditions. In fact, during the wet season, Mediterranean catchments may function 355 similarly to catchments in humid climates (Latron et al. 2009, Gallart et al. 2011).

356 **4.2.3 Runoff ratio**

A very important concept for assessing the catchment hydrological response is the event runoff ratio, which is defined as the ratio of the event runoff volume to the event rainfall volume. Figure presents the runoff depth (Fig. 7a) and the runoff ratio (Fig. 7b) as a function of the cumulative event rainfall. There is clear scattering in the response. Thus, for a given rainfall depth, both the runoff and runoff ratio may greatly vary.

In Mediterranean catchments, event runoff ratios vary over a large range (Fig. 7b). For 362 363 instance, the ratio varies from 0.01 in the Rafina catchment (Greece; Massari et al. 2014) to 1.2 in the Lez catchment (France; Coustau et al. 2012). The mean value of the sample we studied 364 was 0.37, with a standard deviation of 0.27. The median was 0.30, and the interquartile range 365 366 was 0.14 - 0.51. There are geographical discrepancies in the catchment responses to rainfall 367 events. Figure 7 shows that the highest runoff depth and runoff ratios appear in the NWM catchments. In fact, the median runoff ratios vary between regions, e.g., from 0.40 in the NWM 368 (similar to the values found by Marchi et al. 2010) to 0.36 in the SM and only 0.12 for EM 369 370 catchments. It is also obvious that for low rainfall depths (particularly below 50 mm), all events are from the EM and SM regions, which may exhibit very high runoff ratios despite low rainfall 371 372 depths.

373 Extremely high runoff ratios recorded for some events may exceed 1. This finding can be explained by the karstic nature of the catchment, with a runoff-generating area that is much 374 375 larger than the topographic basin. One example is the Lez catchment in France (Coustau et al. 376 2012). Other high runoff ratios were also estimated for other catchments, such as Merhavia in 377 Israel (Rozalis et al. 2010), Reno River in Italy (Brath et al. 2004) and Mdouar in Morocco (Tramblay et al. 2012). Here, the events triggering such high runoff ratios usually occur after 378 379 other large events. Thus, the initial moisture conditions influence the generation of important 380 runoff amounts. These physical characteristics of the Mediterranean and the high seasonality of 381 the climatic features may explain the large scattering in the catchment responses both in terms 382 of event runoff ratios and peak discharges.

383 The relatively low dependency of the runoff ratio on the cumulative rainfall depth could be explained by many factors. First, under Mediterranean climatic conditions, Hortonian flows are 384 expected to be dominant. Thus, the catchment hydrological response is rather controlled by 385 386 rainfall intensity than depth. Moreover, for different events (even with the same amount of 387 rainfall), the initial moisture conditions are different and trigger different hydrological responses. 388 Furthermore, the temporal and spatial distributions of a rainfall event certainly play a role in shaping the catchment hydrological response. In Mediterranean catchments, the temporal and 389 spatial distributions of rainfall events are highly variable. In addition, the runoff-generating 390 391 processes along catchments are heterogeneous, and the percentage of the catchment area that 392 actually contributes to runoff can vary by event.

393 **4.3 Drought studies**

In contrast to studies on the annual water balance and rainfall-runoff events, quantities
 comparison is difficult because the authors do not use the same variables to quantify droughts.
 Therefore, our analysis is more qualitative, and our conclusions could appear more subjective.

397 Climatic trends in the region show an overall decrease in the available water resources due a 398 reduction in the annual rainfall and an increase in the annual temperature and reference evapotranspiration (ET₀) (Vincente-Serrano et al. 2014, Mavromatis and Stathis 2011, Chaouche 399 et al. 2010, Kafle and Bruins 2009). However, important seasonal discrepancies exist in the 400 evolution of different components of the water balance equation across areas of the 401 Mediterranean. Studies show a high spatial and temporal variability of drought events across the 402 403 Mediterranean, in the EM, the SM, parts of the Iberian Peninsula, the main islands and 404 southeastern Italy.

Climatic change impact projections for the 21st century in the Mediterranean converge towards a drier climate by the end of the century (e.g., Capra et al. 2013, Marquez et al., 2013, Raffaud et al. 2013, Vrochidou et al. 2013, Abuabdillah et al. 2010). The water management scenarios in different catchments show a large decrease in water availability, particularly during dry periods due to the large population increase in these catchments. However, important disparities can exist within the same catchment.

411 5 OBJECTIVES AND METHODS OF HYDROLOGICAL STUDIES

In this section the main objectives that drove existing hydrological studies in the Mediterranean region and the most used modelling approaches for annual water balance, rainfall-runoff events and drought studies are discussed. In each case, the available studies are classified by their relative objectives or models used, and two main objectives, "simulation" and "scenario testing", are then identified. The main objectives behind this analysis is to evaluate whether the Mediterranean context requires further specific approaches.

418 **5.1 Annual water balance studies**

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Table 5 gives the list of existing studies. The two main objectives include:

- 420 (1) "simulation": characterization of hydrological processes, model performance assessment,
- 421 model uncertainty reduction, development of new models, streamflow simulation with 422 limited data and karstic zone modelling;
 - (2) "scenario testing": assessment of the impacts of different scenarios of land use change (LUC) and climate change (CC) on water resources and erosion.

425 Apart from classical modelling objectives, such as assessing model performances, improving 426 model predictability or developing and testing new models, continuous streamflow simulation 427 studies in the Mediterranean regions focus on the impact of global change on hydrological

428 responses. Mediterranean environments are water-stressed, and demands on water are 429 increasing because of the increasing population and tourist industry. Moreover, the Mediterranean region is prone to climate change (IPCC 2014), and many studies have projected 430 431 an increase in temperature and a decrease in precipitation over the Mediterranean Basin 432 (Philandras et al. 2011, IPCC 2014, Alpert et al. 2002). Other studies address crucial features of 433 Mediterranean environments, such as erosion (e.g., Garcia-Ruiz et al. 2013, Shakesby et al. 2011, Lesschen et al. 2009, Raclot and Albergel 2006) and karstic influences (e.g., Touhami et 434 435 al. 2013, Doglioni et al. 2012, Coustau et al. 2012).

Table 5 also illustrates that the same hydrological model was used for different objectives (e.g., SWAT or GR). However, some models were developed for a specific purpose: the HYdrological Land Use Change model (HYLUC) (Delgado et al. 2010) was used to evaluate the impact of land use change on catchment hydrological responses; and the HYdrological Modelling for Karst Environment (HYMKE) (Rimmer and Salingar 2006) was built and used for hydrological simulations in karstic catchments.

442 The model choice seems dependent on the data availability, the experience of the researcher (especially in terms of computing experience), and the available funding (some models are 443 444 expensive). Except for some specific cases (e.g., Delgado et al. 2010 [Spain], Kourgialas et al. 2010 [Greece], Rimmer and salingar 2006 [Israel]), the objective of the study does not 445 necessarily influence the model choice. These claims are more obvious when we evaluate the 446 447 geographical distribution of the models in use. Indeed, complex and data-demanding models 448 appear to be primarily in use in the Euro-Mediterranean part of the region and in Israel. Most 449 models were applied in other climatic contexts.

450 **5.2 Rainfall-runoff event-based studies**

Like in the case of water balance studies, the two main objectives of rainfall-runoff event-based studies include (see detailed list in Table 6):

- 453 (1) "simulation": similar objectives, with greater emphasis on runoff generation processes,
 454 wetness impacts on catchment responses and flash flood estimations, and sensitivity of
 455 model performance to data and parameters;
- 456 (2) "scenario testing": similar objectives on LUC and CC impact assessment, as well as
 457 wildfire impact or flood risk mitigation.

Regarding event-based studies, the same model can be used for different objectives. These
are classical models that are applied worldwide. There have only been a few attempts to develop
models specifically for the Mediterranean environment (e.g., Manus et al. 2010, Nunes et al.
2011, Roux et al. 2011, Massari et al. 2015). Some authors slightly modified available models to
account for specific features of the Mediterranean (e.g., Rozalis et al. 2010).

Modelling the hydrological response of Mediterranean catchments, particularly at the event 463 464 level, using classical modelling techniques is somewhat controversial. In fact, the results from various studies characterizing hydrological responses of these catchments and runoff-generation 465 mechanisms show that under Mediterranean conditions, runoff-generation mechanisms and 466 catchment responses are heterogeneous. Hence, the most important rainfall events in terms of 467 precipitation volume are not necessarily those with the highest runoff ratio or peak flow (Moussa 468 and Chahinian 2009, Marchi et al. 2010, Tarolli et al. 2012), and different mechanisms can co-469 470 exist (Manus et al. 2010). Furthermore, different parts of the catchments can exhibit different runoff-generation processes, while some parts of the basin may not contribute at all (Latron and 471 Gallart 2007). Catchment responses also depend on the initial wetness conditions, and they 472 473 greatly fluctuate between seasons (Lana-Renault et al. 2007, Maneta et al. 2007, Huza et al. 2014). However, because of the high intensity of rainfall under Mediterranean conditions, 474 475 infiltration excess is often dominant (Manus et al. 2010). The impact of high-intensity rainfall is 476 particularly important for extreme events, where it becomes the sole factor that influences runoff 477 generation (Brath and Montanari 2000, Lana-Renault et al. 2011).

478 Some of the most commonly used models (SCS CN) are threshold models, in which a portion 479 of the precipitation is used to fill soil water content before generating runoff. Other models, e.g., 480 based on TOPMODEL, were developed for more humid climates. They use saturation excess 481 mechanisms to generate runoff. The limitation of TOPMODEL for Mediterranean catchments was demonstrated by Gallart et al. (2007) in the Vallecebre catchment in Spain. TOPMODEL 482 well simulates the hydrological response in the wet season. However, under dry conditions, the 483 484 model performance decreases. Moreover, Mediterranean catchment responses at the event 485 scale are very sensitive to the spatial and temporal (within-storm) variation in rainfall (Rozalis et 486 al. 2010). High spatio-temporal resolution rainfall data, which are not available in many parts of the Mediterranean, particularly in North Africa and the Near East, are needed. 487

488 5.3 Drought studies

For the existing drought studies (see detailed list in Table 7), the two main objectives include: 489

- 490 (1) "simulation": characterization of the temporal and spatial variations of droughts and the 491 methods for drought assessment;
- 492
- (2) "scenario testing": assessment of the impact of different scenarios (climatic, anthropogenic, etc.) on drought characteristics in a catchment or region. 493
- 494 The methods used are also presented in Table 10. A description of the different indices used in 495 these studies and their meanings are available in drought reviews (e.g., Mishra and Singh 2010, 496 2011).
- 497 Precipitation-based indices, such as the standardized precipitation index (SPI) and modified 498 versions of such indices are most popular among meteorological-based indices. These indices 499 are globally relevant and are applicable at different time scales to characterize short- and long-500 term droughts and their impacts on different components of the water balance. Hence, one must 501 emphasize the importance of the choice of the index time scale. For instance, in the 502 Mediterranean region, time steps that are too long (> 12 months) must not be used due to the 503 high rainfall seasonality (Vincento-Serrano and Lopez-Merano 2005). The objective of the index 504 (impact on surface water, reservoirs, etc.) should constrain the choice of the time step.
- 505 Hydrological indices, such as the Palmer index (e.g., Vasiliades and Loukas 2009) and other hydrological indicators (e.g., Shaban et al. 2009), indices related to soil moisture (Vidal et al. 506 507 2012) and groundwater indices (Mendicino et al. 2008) have been used. Agricultural drought 508 indices are also prevalent in the Mediterranean literature (Diodato and Bellochi 2008).
- 509 The models used in drought studies are mainly water management models, such as the 510 Water Evaluation and Planning system (WEAP) (Hamlat et al. 2012, Yilmaz and Hrmancioglu 2010) and inVEST model (Terrado et al. 2014, Marguez et al. 2013), or simple water balance 511 models, e.g., the SIERRA model (Ruffault et al. 2013). 512
- Moreover, climatic trend analyses are also commonly used to assess the impact of temporal 513 514 and spatial drought variations.
- In summary, various methods are used for drought characterization in the Mediterranean. 515 However, climate-based indices (such as the SPI) remain most popular. Moreover, the main 516 concerns that drive drought studies appear to be global change impacts (climatic and 517 518 anthropogenic pressure).

DISCUSSION AND PERSPECTIVES 519 6

520 Sections 4 and 5 presented an overview of the recent studies in the Mediterranean in terms of 521 hydrological response characteristics and modelling approaches at different time scales and for 522 various objectives: annual runoff, floods and drought periods. This section discusses the main 523 results and provides complementary responses to the three questions posed in the introduction.

524 6.1 Can we identify regional patterns in the Mediterranean?

525 The comparison of catchments in different Mediterranean areas shows that some regional 526 tendencies exist. In terms of the annual water balance, catchments from the NWM have a higher humidity, a relatively low dryness index and higher annual runoff yields. This finding could be 527 528 due to the influence of the humidity from the Atlantic Ocean, which modifies the seasonal pattern 529 of rainfall, i.e., less precipitation in winter and a rainfall peak in autumn and/or spring (McNeill 530 1992). SM catchments are the driest, with the highest aridity index and lowest annual runoff yields. The EM proves to be more heterogeneous, with a relatively wide range of values in terms 531 of both the aridity index and runoff yields (e.g., Rimmer and Salingar 2006, Tzoraki and 532 533 Nikolaidas 2007, Kougialas et al. 2010).

534 Regional tendencies also exist in the seasonal distribution and severity of extreme rainfall events. In fact, rainfall events in the NWM mostly occur in autumn, with a peak in September. 535 536 Rainfall in the EM region mostly occurs in winter, with a peak in January and February. In the 537 SM, the sample is too small to generalize. Moreover, in terms of the event rainfall depth, peak 538 discharges and runoff ratios, the highest values occur in the NWM. These findings were reported 539 by other authors who studied floods in the Mediterranean (Marchi et al. 2010, Tarolli et al. 2012, and Llasat et al. 2013). In fact, the NWM region exhibits extreme rainfall regimes, with rainfall 540 541 commonly exceeding 200 mm in 24 hrs. Cortesi et al. (2012) studied the distribution of the daily precipitation concentration index across Europe. The highest values were computed for the 542 543 coastal arc that extends from southeastern Spain to Sicily (Italy). Moreover, Reiser and Kutiel 544 (2011) compared the rainfall regimes in Valencia (Spain) and Larnaca (Cyprus). The authors found that in Valencia, the rainfall regimes are more extreme than in Larnaca. Hence, in the 545 546 NWM, daily rainfall values that exceed 600 mm have been recorded.

However, there is also overlap between morphometric and hydrological characteristics of particular catchments located in different regions, particularly between the NWM and EM. These similarities between catchments can highlight twin basins (e.g., basins with similar physiographic features and/or hydrological responses), for which hydrological responses can be transferred from gauged to ungauged basins.

552 6.2 What is required to model Mediterranean catchments?

553 A difference can be made between continuous streamflow simulations and event-based 554 simulations. The former is usually applied to quantify water resources in the catchment of interest, assess land cover and/or climate change impacts, or test new modelling approaches. In 555 event-based studies, the objectives may vary from flood risk mitigation to understanding flood-556 triggering characteristics. For continuous streamflow simulations, daily climatic and hydrological 557 558 data are mostly used (sometimes monthly data). The applied models are often lumped as 559 conceptual models with relatively good results. Nevertheless, modelling the catchment response 560 at the event scale is a dilemma. The high rainfall intensity and spatial variability within a storm, along with a catchment's initial wetness conditions, complicate this task. Classical hydrological 561 562 models are not well suited to the Mediterranean area. In fact, many of these models assume 563 precipitation abstraction (such as the widely used SCS CN) or saturated excess mechanisms (such as the TOPMODEL family), which is not necessarily the case in the Mediterranean. 564 565 Moreover, any suitable modelling approach for these catchments is highly demanding in terms of data. Hence, to account for the variability in the rainfall intensity in a short time, the model should 566 be applied at the hourly (or shorter) scale for flood studies. Furthermore, this model should be 567 568 able to account for any rainfall spatial variability and catchment wetness conditions. Therefore, 569 information on soil properties and soil moisture conditions is needed.

570 The specificities of the Mediterranean catchment responses explain the large response 571 heterogeneity in the region and outline the fact that modelling the hydrological behaviour of 572 Mediterranean catchments is difficult (Oudin et al., 2008). In regional studies that involve catchments from Mediterranean and non-Mediterranean (humid) regions, such as in Goswami et 573 574 al. (2007) and Oudin et al. (2008, 2010), the performance of the model-dependent regional 575 approaches is worse in a Mediterranean climate. High-resolution spatial and temporal rainfall 576 and soil properties and moisture data may be necessary to accurately simulate the hydrological behaviour of Mediterranean catchments. However, such data are rarely available. Consequently, 577 detailed flood studies are usually performed in small, research catchments, with results often 578 579 difficult to generalize in space and time (Gallart et al. 2007, Latron and Gallart 2007, Lana-580 Renault et al. 2007; Manus et al. 2010, Rozalis et al. 2010, Molina et al. 2014). This finding also 581 explains why studies in large catchments are usually limited to flood risk mitigation or peak flow 582 estimation, sometimes using lumped methods only.

To overcome the difficulties in modelling hydrological responses of Mediterranean 583 584 catchments, particularly in terms of accounting for the high spatial variability in model 585 parameters, radar rainfall, spatial soil moisture information and remote sensing data are considered (Tramblay et al. 2010, 2012, Rozalis et al. 2010). New approaches that couple 586 observations (that are usually obtained on small catchments) and modelling are used to improve 587 588 our understanding of flood-triggering processes. For example, recent work was undertaken within the HyMeX project on two French catchments (Braud et al. 2014). This is a multi-scale 589 approach that assesses the runoff-generation processes from observations at a small hillslope 590 591 scale; the rainfall variability and soil moisture, along with the network organization, were studied 592 for medium-sized catchments (1 - 100 km²) and for river rooting and flooding at a large scale 593 (100 - 1000 km²). Data analyses were coupled to modelling techniques, and the results are promising. However, these approaches are very demanding in terms of instrumentation, data, 594 595 and computational efforts; thus, they may be very expensive. Thus, the majority of flood 596 simulation studies in the Mediterranean are concentrated in the developed countries of the Euro-597 Mediterranean region and Israel.

598 6.3 What are the main challenges for future research in the Mediterranean?

In recent decades, we observed an important change in the scope of hydrological studies in the 599 600 Mediterranean zone and consequently in the expected performance of hydrological modelling. 601 Currently, there remains an important need for research on classical rainfall/runoff hydrological modelling for engineering applications in water resources management, water supply 602 603 infrastructure design, flood and drought prediction, pollution projections and erosion processes. However, hydrological modelling has become an indispensable tool for many interdisciplinary 604 projects in the Mediterranean. For example, anthropogenic and climatic change impacts on 605 606 environmental variables, such as water, soil, biology, ecology and the socio-economy, can be assessed. Modelling is data intensive, and improving model performances involves the 607 608 acquisition of new data at various spatiotemporal scales. Future research challenges in 609 Mediterranean hydrology include:

- 610 Strengthening the hydrological knowledge in EM and SM: The majority of studies focuses
 611 on the NWM. There is an urge to conduct more hydrological studies in the EM and SM,
 612 from the plot to the large catchment scales and from short time scales (a few minutes for
 613 flood genesis on hillslopes) to decades (impact of land use and climate change);
- Improving measurements and data availability: There is a need to improve
 measurements during extreme flash flood events, drought periods (absence of flow) and
 long-term land use and climate change. These data can be obtained through the
 installation of long-term environmental stations, dense precipitation and streamflow
 gauging networks. Radar data and remote sensing approaches are promising.
- 619 Conducting large-scale studies under Mediterranean conditions: There is a need to lead 620 studies at the scale of the entire Mediterranean region (e.g. Milano et al. 2013,

621 Chenoweth et al. 2011, Garcia-Ruiz et al. 2011, Iglesias et al. 2007 among others). This 622 would require setting up large datasets through scanning and digitizing old records, historical data, and previous studies. Thus, the current established database initiated in 623 624 this work could be extended to all Mediterranean basins (e.g., the Mediterranean zones 625 in Australia, California, Chile and South Africa) for a Mediterranean comparative 626 hydrology. This comparison would provide a common basis for understanding the hydrological behaviour of catchments and improving regionalization approaches; In terms 627 of hydrological modelling, models already applied at continental scales (e.g. EFAS, E-628 629 hype) would be good candidates to conduct modelling studies at the Mediterranean 630 scale:

- Studying the Mediterranean under change: Transferring the results between "similar" Mediterranean catchments can also be useful for predicting the effects of climate change or land use change on the hydrological response, following the objectives of the decadal "Pantha Rei" (2013-2022) of the International Association of Hydrological Sciences (IAHS) (Hrachowitz et al. 2013).
- Improving hydrological modelling on small catchments: Theoretical developments are 636 637 needed, and classical models must be adapted by taking into account the representation of the main hydrological processes. In large catchments (> 500 km²), spatial rainfall and 638 hydrographs are smoothed at the daily scale. Consequently, conventional hydrological 639 640 models perform well and therefore remain well suited for understanding hydrological 641 processes, testing hypotheses or simulating missing discharge data series. However, when moving to small catchments (< 100 km²), many hydrological processes remain 642 poorly represented or neglected in classical models, e.g., threshold functioning for runoff 643 644 genesis and the transfer on hillslopes and through the channel network (e.g., case of 645 ephemeral and intermittent flows), the importance of flow in non-saturated zone, and the 646 difficulties in modelling surface-subsurface interactions in dryland regions.
- Accounting for variabilities: New "tailor-made" models need to be developed to consider
 specific spatiotemporal heterogeneities of catchment responses in areas with specific
 hydrological functions, such as in karstic, urban s and peri-urban zones.

We believe that reviews at large regional scales, such as the one presented here, are essential for advancing our understanding of hydrological behaviour of highly complex areas, such as the Mediterranean region, in terms of comparative hydrology. Thereof, this review is an attempt to strengthen the research initiatives at this scale.

Acknowledgments This research was supported by the Lebanese National Centre for Remote Sensing and the French National Research Institute of Science and Technology for Environment and Agriculture (IRSTEA). Part of this research was funded by the CEDRE project (programme franco-libanais-16ème appel d'offres) entitled «Impact des changements d'occupation du sol sur les ressources en eau et les crues au Liban».The authors thank Juan Ignacio López-Moreno and an anonymous reviewer, the Associate Editor Andreas Efstratiadis for their useful comments, which helped improving the overall quality of the manuscript.

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1133 1134 1135	
1136 1137 1128	
1138 1139 1140 1141	Table 1 Characteristics of the annual water balance studies in Mediterranean catchments. Nc: number of catchments; Ac: catchment area; Zc: catchment mean elevation; Period: period or number of years used to calculate the water balance components.
1143 1144 1145	Table 2 Summary information of the flood studies on Fig. 1c. Nc: number of catchments; Ne:number of events; Ac: catchment area; X: available data; and (-) not available.
1146 1147 1148	Table 3 Summary information of the chosen droughts studies on Fig. 1d. Nc: number of catchments.
1149 1150 1151 1152	Table 4 Summary statistics of climatic and hydrological variables for the studied catchments (Table 1 and Fig. 1b) for the three Mediterranean sub-regions (NWM, EM and SM). MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; ET0: reference evapotranspiration; MAQ: Mean Annual Runoff.
1152 1153 1154 1155	Table 5 The main objectives and the models used for continuous streamflow simulation studiesin the Mediterranean.
1155 1156 1157	Table 6 The main objectives and the models used for event-based studies in the Mediterranean.
1157 1158 1159 1160	Table 7 The main objectives and methods used for the chosen drought studies in the Mediterranean.
1161 1162 1163	
1164 1165 1166	Fig.1 The Mediterranean region: (a) Relief and different limits; (b) Annual water balance studies; (c) Event-based studies and (d) Drought studies. Small symbols (o, \Box and \circ) represent individual catchment studies and large symbols (O, \Box and \Box) represent regionalization studies.
1167 1168 1169 1170	Fig. 2 Relationship between the Mean Annual Runoff (MAQ) and the Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP) for the three studied sub-regions (NWM, EM and SM). Plain symbols indicate karstic catchments in each sub-region.
1171 1172 1173 1174 1175 1176	Fig. 3 Plot of mass balance data from the study catchments on the Budyko diagram: the mean annual runoff coefficient MAQ/MAP function of the aridity index ET0/MAP/ MAP: Mean Annual Precipitation; MAQ: Mean Annual Runoff; ET0: Mean Annual Reference Evapotranspiration for the 3 sub-regions NWM, EM and SM; Plain symbols indicate karstic catchments in each sub-region.
1177 1178 1170	Fig. 4 Monthly distribution of events per geographic region.
1180 1181 1182	Fig. 5 Relationship between rainfall depth and event duration for the studied events on the three studied sub-regions (NWM, EM and SM).

- 1183 Fig. 6 Relationship between unit peak discharge and (a) catchment area, (b) rainfall depth and
- 1184 (c) event duration.
- 1185 Fig. 7 Relationship between runoff depth and rainfall depth (a), and between runoff ratio and
- 1186 rainfall depth (b).



Fig.1 The Mediterranean region: (a) Relief and different limits; (b) Annual water balance

studies; (c) Event-based studies and (d) Drought studies. Small symbols (o, \triangle and \Box)

represent individual catchment studies and large symbols (O, Δ and $\square)$ represent

regionalization studies.



Fig. 2 Relationship between the Mean Annual Runoff (MAQ) and the Mean Annual

1198 Precipitation (MAP) for the three studied sub-regions (NWM, EM and SM). Plain symbols 1199 indicate karstic catchments in each sub-region.



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Fig. 3 Plot of mass balance data from the study catchments on the Budyko diagram: the
mean annual runoff coefficient MAQ/MAP function of the aridity index ET0/MAP/ MAP: Mean
Annual Precipitation; MAQ: Mean Annual Runoff; ET0: Mean Annual Reference
Evapotranspiration for the 3 sub-regions NWM, EM and SM; Plain symbols indicate karstic
catchments in each sub-region.





Fig. 4 Monthly distribution of events per geographic region.



Fig. 5 Relationship between rainfall depth and event duration for the studied events on thethree studied sub-regions (NWM, EM and SM).









Fig. 6 Relationship between unit peak discharge and (a) catchment area, (b) rainfall depth and (c) event duration.



Fig. 7 Relationship between runoff depth and rainfall depth (a), and between runoff ratio and rainfall depth (b).

1250	Table 1 Characteristics of the annual water balance studies in Mediterranean catchments.
1251	Nc: number of catchments; Ac: catchment area; Zc: catchment mean elevation; Period:
1252	period or number of years used to calculate the water balance components

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Tzoraki and Nikolaidis 2007 1 149 0 - 2356 - Naidas 2005 12 154 - 1118 565 - 1509 5 - 10 Israel Rimmer and Salingar 2006 1 783 - 1969 - 2004 Lebanon Sene et al. 2001 16 77 - 1815 - 1967 - 1974 Turkey Kukul et al. 2007 1 17200 220 - Fujihara et al. 2008 1 21700 - 1990 - 2004 SM Algeria Bakreti et al. 2013 5 236 - 1819 205 - 760 1975 - 2006 Mehaiguene et al. 2012 24 95 - 2526 153 - 1139 30 Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999			Vasiliades and Loukas 2007	7	133 - 6591	415 - 1400	1960 - 2002
Naidas 2005 12 154 - 1118 565-1509 5 - 10 Israel Rimmer and Salingar 2006 1 783 - 1969 - 2004 Lebanon Sene et al. 2001 16 77 - 1815 - 1967 - 1974 Turkey Kukul et al. 2007 1 17200 220 - Fujihara et al. 2008 1 21700 - 1990 - 2004 SM Algeria Bakreti et al. 2013 5 236 - 1819 205 - 760 1975 - 2006 Mehaiguene et al. 2012 24 95 - 2526 153 - 1139 30 Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999			Tzoraki and Nikolaidis 2007	1	149	0 - 2356	-
Israel Rimmer and Salingar 2006 1 783 - 1969 - 2004 Lebanon Sene et al. 2001 16 77 - 1815 - 1967 - 1974 Turkey Kukul et al. 2007 1 17200 220 - Fujihara et al. 2008 1 21700 - 1990 - 2004 SM Algeria Bakreti et al. 2013 5 236 - 1819 205 - 760 1975 - 2006 Mehaiguene et al. 2012 24 95 - 2526 153 - 1139 30 Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999			Naidas 2005	12	154 -1118	565-1509	5 - 10
Lebanon Sene et al. 2001 16 77 - 1815 - 1967 - 1974 Turkey Kukul et al. 2007 1 17200 220 - Fujihara et al. 2008 1 21700 - 1990 - 2004 SM Algeria Bakreti et al. 2013 5 236 - 1819 205 - 760 1975 - 2006 Mehaiguene et al. 2012 24 95 - 2526 153 - 1139 30 Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999		Israel	Rimmer and Salingar 2006	1	783	-	1969 - 2004
Turkey Kukul et al. 2007 1 17200 220 - SM Algeria Bakreti et al. 2008 1 21700 - 1990 - 2004 SM Algeria Bakreti et al. 2013 5 236 - 1819 205 - 760 1975 - 2006 Mehaiguene et al. 2012 24 95 - 2526 153 - 1139 30 Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999		Lebanon	Sene et al. 2001	16	77 - 1815	-	1967 - 1974
SM Algeria Fujihara et al. 2008 1 21700 - 1990 - 2004 SM Algeria Bakreti et al. 2013 5 236 - 1819 205 - 760 1975 - 2006 Mehaiguene et al. 2012 24 95 - 2526 153 - 1139 30 Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999		Turkey	Kukul et al. 2007	1	17200	220	-
SM Algeria Bakreti et al. 2013 5 236 - 1819 205 - 760 1975 - 2006 Mehaiguene et al. 2012 24 95 - 2526 153 - 1139 30 Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999 1253 1253 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999			Fujihara et al. 2008	1	21700	-	1990 - 2004
Mehaiguene et al. 2012 24 95 - 2526 153 - 1139 30 Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999	SM	Algeria	Bakreti et al. 2013	5	236 - 1819	205 - 760	1975 - 2006
Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004 1 575 - 1979 - 1989 Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999 1253 - - - -			Mehaiguene et al. 2012	24	95 - 2526	153 - 1139	30
Morocco Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 4 - - 1959 - 2009 2010 De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999 1253 - - - - -			Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004	1	575	-	1979 - 1989
De Jong et al. 2008 1 1239 1500 - 4071 1963 - 1998 Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999 1253 - - - - -		Morocco	Bouabid and Chafai Elalaoui 2010	4	-	-	1959 - 2009
Tunisia Raclot and Albergel 2006 1 2.45 - 1995 - 2002 Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999 1253			De Jong et al. 2008	1	1239	1500 - 4071	1963 - 1998
Bouraoui et al. 2005 1 16000 132 - 1373 1988 - 1999 1253		Tunisia	Raclot and Albergel 2006	1	2.45	-	1995 - 2002
1253			Bouraoui et al. 2005	1	16000	132 - 1373	1988 - 1999
	1253						
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1258	Table 2 Summary statistics of climatic and hydrological variables for the studied catchments
1259	(Table 1 and Fig. 1b) for the three Mediterranean sub-regions (NWM, EM and SM). MAP:
1260	Mean Annual Precipitation: ET0: reference evapotranspiration: MAQ: Mean Annual Runoff.

	·	MAP	ETO	MAQ	ET0/MAP	MAQ/MAP
		(mm)	(mm)	(mm)	(-)	(-)
NWM	Min-Max	589 -1892	775 -1617	33 -1579	0.45 - 2.21	0.06 - 1.21
	Median	1113	933	485	0.84	0.46
	Interquartile range	891 -1366	868 - 990	319 - 763	0.67 -1.04	0.32 - 0.62
EM	Min-Max	428 -1718	957 - 1517	12 - 1437	0.62 - 2.91	0.02 - 0.99
	Median	924	1391	105	1.56	0.17
	Interquartile range	713 -1294	1120 -1444	105 - 649	1.02 - 1.99	0.06 - 0.57
SM	Min-Max	257 -1100	519 - 2382	4 - 460	1.07 - 4.29	0.01 - 0.73
	Median	376	1157	33	2.88	0.08
	Interquartile range	327 - 433	811 - 1272	15 - 56	2.39 - 3.19	0.05 - 0.14
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1207 Stut		ranean.			
Theme	Objectives	Region	Study	Model	
Simulation	Assessment of	NWM	Delgado et al. 2010	HYLUC	
	model		Franchini and Pacciani 1991	STANFORD IV;TANK; APIC;	
	performance			SACRAMENTO; SSARR;	
				XINANJIANG ; ARNO	
		EM	Pisinaras et al. 2010	SWAT	
			Hessling 1999	PHASE	
		SM	Raclot and Albergel 2006	WEPP	
			Bouraoui et al. 2005	SWAT	
			Benkaci Ali and Dechemi 2004	GR3J, CREC, ARMAX	
	Improve model	NWM	Tayfur et al. 2014	GRNM	
	performance		Milella et al. 2012	DREAM	
	and reduce		Loiaza Uzuga and Pauwels 2008	TOPLATS	
	uncertainty		Gallart et al. 2007	TOPMODEL	
	New model	NWM	Silvestro et al. 2013	Continuum model	
	development		Moussa et al. 2007	ModSpa	
		EM	Hreiche et al. 2005	MEDOR	
	Streamflow	EM	Ramadan et al. 2012	HRR	
	with limited				
	data				
	Karstic	FM	Hartmann et al. 2013	Conceptual reservoirs models	
	catchment				
			Nikolaidis et al. 2013	Modified SWAT	
			Kourgialas et al. 2010	HSPF coupled to a snowmelt	
				model and a conceptual Karstic	
				reservoir and a karstic channel	
				model	
			Tzoraki and Nikolaidas 2007	HSPF coupled to a 2-reservoirs	
			Pimmer and Solinger 2006		
Saanaria			Rimmer and Salingar 2006		
Scenario	LUC Impact		Estropy et al. 2010	SVVAI Thereweite Mether medel	
lesting					
	CC impact	INVVIVI			
			Nunos et al. 2008, 2011		
			Senatore et al. 2000, 2011		
			Burlando and Pusso 2002		
			Hreiche et al. 2007		
			Bakroti et al. 2007	WEDOR Hydrologiaal indiaaa	
		SIVI	Boughid and Chafai El alaqui 2010		
	LUC & CC		D'Acostino et al. 2012		
	inipaci				
			Ceballos-Barbancho et al. 2008	Statistical Analysis	
			Gallart and Llorens 2004	Annual Water balance (Decce et	
				al. 1999)	
		EM	Albek et al. 2004	HSPF	
	Erosion	NWM	Lesschen et al. 2009	LAPSUS	
		SM	Raclot and Albergel 2006	WEPP	

Table 3 The main objectives and the models used for continuous streamflow simulation studies in the Mediterranean.

1289 Table 4 Summary of existing regionalization studies for continuous runoff simulation in the 1290 Mediterranean. Statistical evaluation indicates the leave-one-out assessment of the regionalization approach performance with the Nash-Sutcliffe (NSE) efficiency criterion. Nc: total number of 1291 1292 catchments and the number in brackets represents the number of Mediterranean catchments in the 1293 larger dataset. Methods used for transfer of hydrologic model parameters include: SP: physical 1294 similarity; S: similarity; MA: model averaging; R: two-step parameter regression; and RC: regional 1295 calibration. The performances of the regionalization approaches are not reported when they were 1296 available for the whole set of catchments and not particularly for the Mediterranean cases.

Study	Country	Nc	Hydrologic	Time	Regionalization	Performance
			model	step	method	(NSE)
Castiglioni et al. 2010	Italy (Central)	52	HYMOD	Daily	R	0.53
Cutore et al. 2007	Italy (Eastern Sicily)	9	Regression- based RR model	Monthly	R; RC	0.59; 0.66
Oudin et al. 2010	France	850	GR4J; TOPMO	Daily	S	-
Oudin et al. 2008	France	913 (162)	GR4J; TOPMO	Daily	SP, S, R	-
Goswami et al. 2007	France	12 (3)	Combination of models	Daily	MA, RP	-
Vicente-Guillen et al. 2012	Spain	8	Exponential model	Monthly	R	0.9

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Table 5 Summary assessment of existing regionalization studies for Flow Duration Curve (FDC) in the Mediterranean. Statistical evaluation indicates the leave-one-out assessment of the regionalization approach. NSE: Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency criterion; MSE: mean square error; RMSE: root mean square error:

Study	Country	Nc	FDC	Predicted	Performance	Performance
,	,		approach	variable	criterion	
Sellami et al. 2014	France (South)	10	Modelling	FDC	NSE	-
Longobardi and	Italy (South)		Statistical	FDC		
Vallini 2013		28			RMSE	0.014 - 0.498
Mendicino and	Italy (South)	19	Statistical	FDC	NSE	>0.75 for more than
Senatore 2013			Parametric			78% of cases for all models; >0.75 for more than 52% of cases for all models
Rianna et al. 2011	Italy (Lazio)	28	Statistical	FDC	NSE	>0.95 for 54% of cases
Viola et al. 2011	Italy (Sicily)	53	Parametric	FDC	RMSE	0.24 – 0.38
Castellarin et al. 2007	Italy (Eastern Central)	18	Statistical	FDC	NSE	As figure
Castellarin et al. 2004	Italy (Eastern Central)	51	Statistical Parametric Graphical	FDC	NSE	 >0.75 for 29 % of cases; >0.75 for 31% of cases; >0.75 for 22% of cases
Franchini and Suppo 1996	Italy (Molise)	16	Parametric	FDC	-	-
Croker et al. 2003	Portugal	67	Statistical	FDC	BIAS (%)	12 sites with BIAS > 75%
Mimikou and Keamaki 1985	Greece	11	Parametric	FDC	MSE (%)	3 - 10
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1306	Table 6 Summary information of the flood studies on Fig. 1c. Nc: number of catchments; Ne:
1307	number of events; Ac: catchment area; X: available data; and (-) not available.

Region	Country	Study	Nc.	Ne.	Ac		Available	e data	
rtegion	Country	Crudy			(km ²)	Peak	Rainfall	Runoff	Event
					()	Discharge	Depth	Depth	duration
NWM	France	Nguyen et al. 2014	18	13	6 - 2240	X	-	-	-
		Garambois et al. 2013	6	9	144 - 619	Х	Х	-	-
		Artigue et al. 2012	1	4	222	Х	Х	-	-
		Coustau et al. 2012	1	21	114	Х	Х	Х	-
		Tramblay et al. 2010	1	20	3.83	Х	Х	Х	Х
		Vincendon et al. 2010	4	4	1090 - 1910	X	X	-	Х
	Italy	De Waele et al. 2010	1	1	105	<u> </u>	<u>X</u>	-	-
		Sangati et al. 2009	6	3	75 - 2586	<u> </u>	<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>	<u> </u>
		Borga et al. 2007	10	1	23.9 - 1843	<u> </u>	<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>	<u> </u>
	Clavania	Zenen et al. 2004	1	15	1050	<u>X</u>	<u>X</u> V	X X	<u> </u>
	Siovenia	Long Report of al	4	<u> </u>	31.8 - 211.9	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	X
	Spain	2014	2	5	3340 - 4915	X	X	Χ	-
		Amengual et al. 2007	5	1	0.12 – 2.84	<u> </u>	<u>X</u>	-	<u> </u>
ΕM	Greece	Massari et al. 2014	1	16	109	Х	Х	Х	Х
		Koutroulis and Tsanis 2010	1	9	158	Х	Х	Х	Х
	Israel	Rozalis et al. 2010	1	20	27	Х	Х	Х	Х
	Lebanon	Sene et al. 2001	16	16	102 - 1345	Х	-	-	-
NWM	NWM &	Tarolli et al. 2012	12	12	12 - 699	Х	Х	Х	Х
& EM	Israel								
SM	Morocco	Tramblay et al. 2012	1	16	665	<u> </u>	Х	Х	X
	Tunisia	Abida and Ellouze	42	-	3.2 - 16330	Х	-	-	-
		Nasri et al. 2004	2	4	3.16 – 18.1	Х	Х	Х	-
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1325 Mediter	rranean.				
Theme	Objectives	Region	Study	Model	
Simulation	Catchment	NWM	Huza et al. 2014	Field data analysis	
	characteristics and		Molina et al. 2014	Field data analysis	
	wetness conditions		Manus et al. 2010	Tailor model in LIQUID	
	impact on catchment		Tramblay et al. 2010	SCS CN	
	response		Brocca et al. 2008	A water balance	
			Fiorentino et al. 2007	DREAM	
			Brath and Montanari 2000	SCS CN	
		EM	Massari et al. 2014	MISD & SCRRM	
		SM	Tramblay et al. 2012	SCS CN	
	Runoff generation	NWM	Gallart et al. 2007, 2008,	Rainfall-Runoff	
	processes and		2011	relationships, Water	
	catchment			table dynamics;	
	hydrological			TOPMODEL	
	response		Lana-Renault et al. 2007	Rainfall-Runoff	
				relationships, Water	
				table dynamics	
	Peak flood estimation	NWM	Roux et al. 2011	MARINE	
	and flash floods		Gaume and Bouvier 2004	SCS CN	
	characterization		Gaume et al. 2003, 2004	SCS CN ;	
		EM	Koutroulis and Tsanis 2010	Empirical Eq.	
			Rozalis et al. 2010	Modified SCS	
		SM	Nasri et al. 2004	A Geomorphological model	
	Impact of data and parameters input on	NWM	Maneta et al. 2005	5-parameters overland flow model	
	model performance		Brath et al. 2004	SCS CN	
Scenario	Land cover impact of	NWM	Cosandey et al. 2005	HRR	
Testing	floods		Lana-Renault et al. 2011	Paired catchments	
·	Climate Change impact	NWM	Mediero et al. 2014	MEFIDIS	
	0 .		Nunes et al. 2011	Trend Analysis	
	Fire impact on floods	NWM	Mayor et al. 2007	Paired catchments	
	·	EM	Vafeidis et al. 2007	Paired catchments	
	Flood risk mitigation	NWM	Ballestros-Canevos et al. 2013	HEC-HMS	
		EM	Kumuscu and Celik 2013	Hydro-meteorological analysis	
			Gul et al. 2010	HEC-HMS	
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Table 7 The main objectives and the models used for event-based studies in the 1325 Mediterranean.

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Table 8 Summary of existing regionalization studies for floods in the Mediterranean. Statistical evaluation indicates the leave-one-out assessment of regionalization approach. Methods used include: IM: Index Methods; PB: Process based methods; RR: Regional Regression models (RR). Notations: Nc : number of catchments ; Q(2, 10, 100) : flood of 2, 10 and 100 years return period; Q100/Qm : Q100 normalized by the mean annual flow ; MAF : maximum annual flow; (-): information not retrievable.

Study	Country	Nc	Regionaliza	Predicted	Performance	Performance
			tion method	Variable	criterion	
Artigue et al. 2012	France (South)	1	PB	Peak flow	NSE & % of Peak	-
					Discharge	
Javelle et al. 2010	France (South)	160	PB	Peak flow	Peak Error	-
Shentsis et al. 1997	Israel	67	RR	Peak flow	RMSE	-
Bocchiola and Rosso 2009	Italy (Northwest)	16	IM	Peak flow	Dimensionless MSE (%)	8 - 69
Aronica and Candela 2007	Italy (Sicily)	6	IM	Peak flow	Comparison with observed	-
Ferro and Porto 2006	Italy (Sicily)	43	IM	MAF	MSE	-
Portela and Dias 2005	Portugal	120	IM	Q2	Correlation coefficient	0.774 - 0.929
Mediera and Kjeldsen 2014	Spain	93	IM	Q(2, 10, 100)	RMSE	-
Cherif and Bargaoui 2013	Tunisia	32	IM	Q100	RMSE	0.29 - 0.46
Saf 2009	Turkey (West)	47	IM	Q100/Qm	RMSE	0.43
Topaloglu 2005	Turkey	50	IM	MAF	Prediction Error (%)	49 - 56
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Region	Country	Study	Nc	Period
NWM	France	Ruffault et al. 2013	-	1971 - 2006
		Vidal et al. 2012	-	1957 - 2007
		Chaouche et al. 2010	13	1970 - 2006
	Italy	Capra et al. 2013	-	1921 - 2007
		Diodato and Bellocchi 2008	-	1961 - 2006
		Mendicino et al. 2008	16	1957 - 2007
	Spain	Terrado et al. 2014	1	1951 - 2000
		Vincento-Serrano et al. 2014	-	1961 - 2011
		Lopez-Bustins et al. 2013	3	1984 - 2008
		Marquèz et al. 2013	1	1971 - 2100
		Bangash et al. 2012	1	2002 - 2006
		Gomez and Blanco 2012	1	1941 - 2009
		Ruiz-Sinoga et al. 2012	-	1964 - 2008
		Lorenzo-Lacruz et al. 2010	3	1961 - 2006
		Vincento-Serrano and Lopez-	1	1950 - 2000
	Spain & Portugal	Vicento-Serrano 2006		1910 - 2000
EM	Greece	Vrochidou et al. 2013	1	1970 - 2000
EIVI	Oleece	Tickes et al. 2012	6	1070 - 1007
		Mayromatic and Stathic 2011	-	1961 - 2006
		Vasiliades and Loukas 2009	7	1960 - 2000
		Teskiris et al. 2007	2	1962 - 2002
	Israal		-	1962 - 2001
	131001	Kafle and Bruins 2009		1900 - 1990
	Lebanon	Shahan et al. 2009		1963 - 2002
		Dogan et al. 2009	1	1903 - 2007
	Turkey	Vilmaz and Harmancioglu	1	1995 - 2003
		2010	ı	1000 - 2000
SM		Turkes and Tutli 2009	-	1929 - 1993
	Algeria	Hamlaoui-Moulai et al. 2013	4	1914 - 2004
		Hamlat et al. 2012	4	2006 - 2030
	Morocco	Esper et al. 2007	-	1050 -2000
		Aboughdillah at al. 2010	1	1002 1006

1360	Table 9 Main objectives, methods and periods of the chosen droughts studies. Nc: number of
1361	catchments.

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Theme	Objectives	Region	Country	Study	Methods	
Simulation	Drought Analysis	NWM	France	Vidal et al. 2012	ISBA model; SPI & SWI	
	·		Italy Diodato and Bellocchi 20		Cy; HPR; MCDI	
			Spain	Ruiz-Sinoga et al. 2012	DDSLR index	
			Spain, Portugal	Vicento-Serrano 2006	SPI	
		EM	Greece	Tsakiris et al. 2007	RDI; SPI	
				Tigkas et al. 2012	RDI & SDI &	
					Medbasin model	
			Lebanon	Shaban et al. 2009	Hydrological Drought indices	
			Israel	Aviad et al. 2009	DDSLR	
		SM	Algeria	Hamlaoui-Moulai et al. 2013	Trend analysis, PCA	
			Morocco	Esper et al. 2007	PDSI & Cedar Trees ring width	
	Efficacy of Drought indices	NWM	Italy	Mendicino et al. 2008	GRI	
			Spain	Vincento-Serrano and Lopez- Merano 2005	SPI	
		EM	Greece	Vasiliades and Loukas 2009	PDI & UTHBAL model	
			Turkey	Dogan et al. 2012	PN-Mean; RDDI; Z- score; CZI; SPI; EDI	
				Turkes and Tutli 2009	SPI & modified SPI	
Scenarios	Water	NWM	Spain	Terrado et al. 2014	InVEST model	
testing	resources manageme nt			Bangash et al. 2012	MIKE BASIN model	
				Gomez and Blanco 2012	Risk Assessment	
					model	
		EM	Turkey	Yilmaz and Harmancioglu 2010	WEAP model	
		SM	Algeria	Hamlat et al. 2012	WEAP model	
	Climatic trends	NWM	France	Chaouche et al. 2010	Climatic trends	
			Spain	Vincento-Serrano et al. 2014	12 methods for ET0 estimation	
		EM	Greece	Mavromatis and Stathis 2011	Trends in Hydrological parameters	
			Israel	Kafle and Bruins 2009	Climatic trends	
	CC Impact	NWM	France	Ruffault et al. 2013	SIERRA model	
			Italy	Capra et al. 2013	SPI	
			Spain	Lopez-Bustins et al. 2013	SWAT model; SPI & SPEI	
				Marquèz et al. 2013	InVEST model	
				Lorenzo-Lacruz et al. 2010	SPI and SPEI	
		EM	Greece	Vrochidou et al. 2013	IHMS-HBV model	
		SM	Tunisia	Abouabdillah et al. 2010	SWAT model	
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1375 Table 10 The main objectives and methods used for the chosen drought studies in the -11 c -

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Table 11 Summary of existing regionalization studies for low flows in the Mediterranean.
Statistical evaluation indicates the leave-one-out assessment of the regionalization approach.
Methods used include: PSBI: Physiological Space-Based Interpolation; G: Geo-statistical
methods; GR: Global Regression; and RR: Regional Regression. Notations: Nc: number of
catchments; BFI: baseflow index; Q355: discharge associated with duration of 355 days;
Q95%: discharge equalled or exceeded 95% of the time.

Study	Country	Nc	Regionalization	Predicted	Performance	Performance
	-		method	Variable	criterion	
Mehaiguene et al.	Algeria (Northwest)	24	GR	BFI	R²	0.32; 0.82 -
2012			RR			0.92; 0.70 - 0.99
Castiglioni et al.	Italy (Centre)	51	PSBI	Q355	NSE	0.78 - 0.83
2011			G			0.89
Vezza et al. 2010	Italy (Northwest)	41	GR	Q95%	R²	0.657
			RR			0.531 - 0.687
Castiglioni et al.	Italy (Centre)	51	D	Q355	NSE	0.64 - 0.65
2009			G			0.31 - 0.81
			GR			0.72
Longobardi and Vallini 2008	Italy (South)	28	GR	BFI	R²	0.230 - 0.678
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Author-produced version of the article published in : Hydrological Sciences Journal-Journal des Sciences Hydrologiques, vol. 61, n° 14, 2016

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