

1 **Changes in Mediterranean flood processes and seasonality**

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33 Abstract

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35 Floods are a major natural hazard in the Mediterranean region, causing deaths and extensive
36 damages. Recent studies have shown that intense rainfall events are becoming more extreme
37 in this region, but paradoxically without leading to an increase in the severity of floods.
38 Consequently, it is important to understand how flood events are changing to explain this
39 absence of trends in flood magnitude despite increased rainfall extremes. A database of 98
40 stations in Southern France with an average record of 50 years of daily river discharge data
41 between 1959 and 2021 was considered, together with a high-resolution reanalysis product
42 providing precipitation and simulated soil moisture and a classification of weather patterns
43 associated with rainfall events over France. Flood events, corresponding to an average
44 occurrence of one event per year (5317 events in total), were extracted and classified into
45 excess rainfall, short rainfall and long rainfall event types. Several flood events characteristics
46 have been also analyzed: flood event durations, base flow contribution to floods, runoff
47 coefficient, total and maximum event rainfall and antecedent soil moisture. The evolution
48 through time of these flood event characteristics and seasonality were analyzed. Results
49 indicated that, in most basins, floods tend to occur earlier during the year, the mean flood date
50 being on average advanced by one month between 1959-1990 and 1991-2021. This seasonal
51 shift could be attributed to the increased frequency of southern-circulation weather types
52 during spring and summer. An increase in total and extreme event precipitation has been
53 observed, associated with a decrease of antecedent soil moisture before rainfall events. The
54 majority of flood events are associated with excess rainfall on saturated soils, but their relative
55 proportion is decreasing over time notably in spring with a concurrent increased frequency of
56 short rain floods. For most basins there is a positive correlation between antecedent soil
57 moisture and flood event runoff coefficients that is remaining stable over time, with dryer soils
58 producing less runoff and a lower contribution of base flow to floods. In a context of an
59 increasing aridity, this relationship is the likely cause of the absence of trends in flood
60 magnitudes observed in this region and the change of event types. These changes in flood
61 characteristics are quite homogeneous over the domain studied, suggesting that they are
62 rather linked to the evolution of the regional climate than to catchments characteristics.
63 Consequently, this study shows that even in the absence of trends, flood properties may
64 change over time and these changes need to be accounted for when analyzing the long-term
65 evolution of flood hazards.

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73 1. Introduction

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75 There is a growing interest in understanding the evolution of floods occurring in different
76 regions in the context of climate change. The recent sixth report of the Intergovernmental
77 Panel on Climate Change (Ali et al., 2022), reported a mixture of observed trends in different
78 Mediterranean countries, with both increasing and decreasing river floods and overall, a low
79 confidence in their attribution to climate change. Several large-scale studies on changes in
80 flood risk (Slater et al., 2021a; Blöschl et al., 2017, 2019) have indicated for the Mediterranean
81 region a possible decrease over the last decades. This difficulty in detecting possible changes
82 in flood hazard is doubtless linked to the fact that there are different types of floods (Tarasova
83 et al., 2019; Berghuijs et al., 2019; Stein et al., 2020; Tramblay et al., 2022). Indeed, a
84 distinction can be made between floods associated with soil saturation excess, soil infiltration
85 excess or snowmelt-driven floods and the relative frequency of these different types of floods
86 may change over time (Zhang et al., 2022). Furthermore, these changes can occur at local to
87 regional scales, given complex combinations of climatic and physiographic triggers, making
88 global generalization of changes in flood risk hazardous, if not irrelevant (Whitfield, 2012;
89 Blöschl et al., 2015).

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91 Only a few studies are focusing on changes in flood types over time, while it is important to
92 understand the long-term changes in flood processes to evaluate how flood risk can evolve,
93 in order notably to better adapt the flood mitigation strategies (Merz et al., 2014). The main
94 limitation to perform such studies is the need for long time-series of river discharge, to have
95 large samples of flood events to evaluate how their properties may change over time. For
96 many regions of the world, the lack of observed river discharge data prevents this type of
97 analysis. Some studies attempted to analyze the changes in different types of floods for
98 different regions (Berghuijs et al., 2019; Mao et al., 2019; Kemter et al., 2020; Bertola et al.,
99 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Tramblay et al., 2022, Tarasova et al., 2023). Most of these studies rely
100 on flood classification schemes, with various complexity depending on the type of data
101 available, allowing a data-based separation of floods into their distinct generation mechanisms
102 (Tarasova et al., 2019; Berghuijs et al., 2019; Tarasova et al., 2020; Stein et al., 2020, 2021;
103 Tramblay et al., 2022). For basins under a Mediterranean climate, several studies reported
104 complex interactions between precipitation increases and lower antecedent soil moisture,
105 leading to thresholds effects (Brunner et al., 201) in the catchment response to changing
106 hydro-climatic conditions (Wasko and Nathan, 2019; Cao et al., 2020; Bertola et al., 2021).
107 Recent large-scale studies (Jiang et al., 2022, Tarasova et al., 2023) suggested a reduction
108 of the frequency of floods driven by soil saturation in Europe, including basins in the
109 Mediterranean area. Yet, these studies rely on coarse resolution climate forcings provided by
110 E-OBS and there is a need to assess whether these findings are also valid in smaller basins
111 with high-resolution datasets, notably with a better estimation of precipitation extremes. For
112 instance, in Bertola et al. (2021) a decrease in 7-days maximum precipitation is found with E-
113 OBS for basins in Southern France, while Ribes et al. (2019) observed an opposite increasing
114 trend using a network of about 700 rain gauges in that area. In addition, recent studies at the
115 European scale focused on annual maxima only, when to attribute changes in flood event
116 types it is also relevant to consider other metrics such as the runoff coefficient and the flood
117 event duration, that require data about flood events and not only their maxima.

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119 In French Mediterranean basins, several studies reported an increase in precipitation
120 extremes (Tramblay et al., 2013; Blanchet and Creutin, 2022; Ribes et al., 2019) that did not
121 translate into increased floods (Tramblay et al., 2019). It is hypothesized that, as many regions
122 of the world, a decrease in soil moisture linked with a greater aridity can potentially offset the
123 increase in precipitation extremes and thus not increase flood severity (Sharma et al., 2018;
124 Tramblay et al., 2019; Wasko and Nathan, 2019; Wasko et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2022).
125 Excess soil moisture was previously identified as an important flood driver notably in the
126 Mediterranean (Kemter et al., 2020; Bertola et al., 2021), indicating that they can play an
127 important role. Yet, beside trend detection or changes in flood types, no study has provided
128 an in-depth analysis of the joint long-term evolution of flood processes in Mediterranean
129 basins, in relation to their drivers such as precipitation, soil moisture and the evolution of
130 synoptic weather patterns associated with floods. In particular, there is a need to assess how
131 these changes may be modulated in different catchment sizes with different land use, notably
132 in the Mediterranean context where floods are generated by rainfall events characterized by
133 a strong spatial and temporal variability. Therefore, the objective of the study is to evaluate
134 how the characteristics of Mediterranean floods are changing. A recent study (Tramblay et al.,
135 2019) indicated no significant trends on flood hazards for a large ensemble of basins located
136 in southern France. This database is used herein and expanded with a weather types
137 classification linked to floods to further analyze the possible changes in flood event
138 characteristics. This analysis provides a comprehensive view at the regional scale of the
139 evolution in time of flood-events characteristics (runoff coefficients, soil moisture, base flow
140 contribution...), flood event seasonality in relation to large scale atmospheric patterns, flood-
141 events types (excess rain floods, short rain floods...) and their respective magnitude.

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143 In section 2 are presented the different datasets used for this analysis, including river
144 discharge, precipitation, soil moisture data and weather types classification. In section 3 the
145 methods are presented, for event extraction, analysis of the seasonality and changes in the
146 different flood drivers. Results are presented in section 4.

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148 **2. Data**

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150 We consider 98 catchments in southern France (Figure 1) where the time series of daily
151 discharge exceeds 30 years of complete data between 1959 and 2021 (Tramblay et al., 2019).
152 Among them, 48 basins have more than 50 years of data and the basins selected are not
153 influenced by reservoir or dam regulation. The catchment sizes are ranging from 14 km² to
154 3195 km², with a mean size equal to 480 km² (see Table t1 in supplementary materials).
155 Basins with a nival regime were removed, identified from the river discharge hydrographs and
156 removing basins with more than 20% of precipitation falling as snow. In addition to river
157 discharge data, the precipitation and soil moisture for each basin has been retrieved from the
158 SAFRAN-ISBA-MODCOU (SIM) reanalysis covering the whole France territory at 8 km spatial
159 resolution (Vidal et al., 2010). Precipitation and soil moisture data have been extracted and
160 averaged at the catchment scale. The soil moisture data extracted from SIM is a soil wetness
161 index obtained from the normalization of the volumetric soil moisture content with the wilting
162 point and field capacity, that ranges between 0 and 1. Land cover classes (forest, agricultural,
163 urban) corresponding to 2018 have been extracted from the CORINE land cover inventory
164 (Büttner, 2014). In addition, we used the weather type classification from *Electricité de France*
165 (EDF), corresponding to a daily classification into 8 synoptic situations associated with rainfall

166 events over France (Garavaglia et al., 2010). This classification is built on geopotential heights
167 at 700 and 1000 hPa pressure levels associated with rainy days over France.
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169 **3. Methods**

170 **3.1 Extraction of flood events**

171 We extracted a sample of flood events with a mean occurrence of 1 event per year using a
172 peaks-over-threshold approach. This type of sampling is chosen since low annual maximum
173 runoff could be observed during dry years (Farquharson et al., 1992). A de-clustering algorithm
174 is applied to identify single events to avoid introducing autocorrelation in the analysis and
175 ensuring that flood events are independent, using two rules (Lang et al., 1999): first a minimum
176 of n days between events, with $n = 5 + \log(\text{catchment area})$ and second, between two
177 consecutive peaks, runoff must drop below $\frac{2}{3}$ of the smallest peak. The maximum daily runoff
178 of each event is kept. This means that for an event lasting several days, only the maximum
179 daily discharge, and the corresponding date, are kept. Then, for each flood event, we
180 computed the total rainfall and maximum rainfall. The n -day previous precipitation is extracted.
181 Total rainfall for each event is estimated by a cumulative sum of precipitation starting the day
182 of the flood and this aggregation stops if there are two consecutive days with precipitation
183 close to zero (1 mm) to account for rainfall intermittency within events. The maximum daily
184 precipitation is extracted from the same time interval used to compute total event precipitation.
185 The soil moisture at the beginning of the events is extracted from the previous day of the start
186 of the rainfall event. A base flow filter has been used to separate direct runoff and base flow
187 for each time series, using the Lyne Hollick Filter (Lyne and Hollick, 1979), with its default
188 parameters. For each flood event, the base flow corresponding to the peak has been extracted
189 to estimate the direct runoff, corresponding to the event rainfall contribution, in addition to base
190 flow. Different metrics characterizing each flood event have been computed: total rainfall
191 (mm), event maximum rainfall (mm), duration of the rainfall event (days), duration of the flood
192 event (days), antecedent soil moisture (0-1) and runoff coefficient (0-1). The runoff coefficient
193 was computed for each event as the ratio of direct runoff depth and total event precipitation
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196 **3.2 Analysis of the mean date of occurrence**

197 Circular statistics (Burn, 1997; Berens, 2009) are used to analyze flood timing. The dates are
198 first converted into an angular value, then from this sample of angular values, the mean date
199 of occurrence (θ) can be computed, together with the concentration index (r) which measures
200 the variability of the flood occurrences around the mean date. Using the dates of flood events,
201 considering hydrological years starting September 1, θ and r are computed from the sample
202 of dates. The first step in the analysis of seasonality is to test against circular uniformity.
203 Circular uniformity refers to the case in which all angular values of flood dates around the
204 circle are equally likely, indicative of the absence of flood seasonality. In that case, the
205 computation of the mean date would have little relevance. The Rayleigh (Fisher, 1993) and
206 the Hermans-Rasson (Landler et al., 2019) tests are used to test against uniformity for
207 unimodal distributions, to verify the presence of flood seasonality (ie. meaning that floods do
208 not occur randomly throughout the year). To associate flood events and weather types, for
209 each rainy day corresponding to flood events, the weather type has been extracted from the
210 weather type's classification.
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3.3 Classification of flood generating processes

A classification is applied to the flood events, adapted from a previously implemented classification at the global scale (Stein et al., 2020), in the United States (Stein et al., 2021) and Africa (Tramblay et al., 2022). This approach relates the occurrence of rainfall amounts above various thresholds to the occurrence of floods. Flood events in each catchment are classified according to three hydrometeorological generating processes, namely, the excess rainfall, short rainfall, long rainfall using a decision tree. Excess rainfall is defined as a flood event triggered by rainfall higher than average occurring over wet soils (i.e. soil moisture above than 50% saturation), short rainfall as a single daily rainfall event above high thresholds (the 95th percentile computed over the whole time series of rainfall) and long rainfall as several consecutive days (> 2 days) with rainfall above the 95th percentile of rainfall summed over 7 days. The classification first evaluates if a larger than average multi-day rainfall fell on wet soil to determine if the flood event was an excess rainfall type of flood. If that was not the case, it evaluates whether the thresholds for long rainfall and then short rainfall are exceeded. If no process could be identified, the class “other” is assigned.

3.4 Changes in flood characteristics

To assess the changes over time in flood dates and generating mechanisms, we split the records of each station into two periods of equal length. Given that most stations have records starting after the 1960s, on average the first period is ranging from 1959 to 1990 and the second one from 1991 to 2021, with a pivot year within +/- 5 years around 1991, allowing the comparison of the two time slices across the different stations. To assess the relative changes in the flood drivers, the frequency of each driver for each time period has been computed, and then we computed for each station the relative change (%) in each driver contribution (Berghuijs et al., 2019). In addition, to detect trends on the long-term frequency of event types per year pooled at the regional scale, we used the Mann-Kendall test for trends, modified to account for autocorrelation in the time series (Hamed and Ramachandra Rao, 1998).

We use the same approach to estimate changes in the different flood events characteristics, and we applied the two-tailed Wilcoxon test to check the difference in medians. In addition, to assess the regional significance of the trends, we also computed the Mann-Kendall test on flood events characteristics pooled at the regional scale. For flood dates, we computed the mean dates of occurrence for the two time periods and assessed the significance of the difference using the Watson and Williams test, which is a circular analogue to the two sample t-test (Watson and Williams, 1956). Finally, to estimate potential relationships between different flood characteristics, the Spearman correlation coefficient (ρ) is computed.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Change in flood event characteristics

There are several changes in flood event characteristics as seen in Figure 2 between the two sub-periods, 1959-1990 and 1991-2021. On average, total event precipitation is increasing in 65 basins (66% of basins), maximum event rainfall is increasing in 76 basins, consistent with

260 previous studies in this area (Ribes et al., 2019; Trambly et al., 2019; Blanchet and Creutin,
261 2022), while on the opposite antecedent soil moisture is decreasing in 71 basins, baseflow
262 contribution is decreasing in 75 basins and runoff coefficient is decreasing in 68 basins. These
263 changes in soil moisture, base flow and runoff coefficients are consistent with an overall
264 increase of aridity in southern Europe mostly driven by higher evapotranspiration (Trambly
265 et al., 2020) and have been also observed in other regions with a similar climate (Ho et al.,
266 2022). The number of local statistically significant changes for each flood event characteristic
267 is given in Table 1. These numbers remain small but it should be reminded that sample sizes
268 are quite short for a robust statistical assessment in a context of high interannual variability.
269 To overcome this issue, we also assessed the regional significance of these changes in flood
270 event characteristics. We performed a regional pooling of the events and applied the Mann-
271 Kendall test to detect trends in the regional series of event characteristics. As shown in table
272 1, all the detected changes are regionally significant except the decrease in base flow
273 contribution to peak discharge during floods. Overall, an increase in total event rainfall can be
274 observed, mostly caused by the increase of maximum rainfall during the events (the changes
275 in the two variables are correlated, with $\rho = 0.52$), while the flood event durations are on
276 average decreasing, consistent with studies at the global scale (Wasko et al., 2021).

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278 These changes in precipitation are associated with a decrease of antecedent soil moisture,
279 before the beginning of the rainfall events. This decrease is also related to a smaller
280 contribution of base flow during floods in some basins. There is indeed a significant correlation
281 between the relative changes in the base flow contribution to peak runoff and soil moisture (ρ
282 = 0.56), indicating that the soil moisture decrease is likely the main driver of these changes.
283 There is also for most basins a significant nonlinear relationship (exponential type) between
284 the flood events antecedent soil moisture and runoff coefficients, as reported in many studies
285 (Penna et al., 2011; Rogger et al., 2013; Raynaud et al., 2015; Tarasova et al., 2020). Indeed,
286 for the first time period, 1959-1990 the median Spearman correlation between antecedent soil
287 moisture and flood runoff coefficients (see supplementary figure S1) is equal to 0.43 and is
288 significant at the 5% level in 56 basins (67 basins at the 10% significance level). For the
289 second time period, 1991-2021, the median correlation is increasing to 0.45 and is significant
290 in 64 basins at the 5% significance level (68 at the 10% significance level). These results
291 show, contrary to popular belief, that at the catchment scale drier soils produce less runoff,
292 and this characteristic is even slightly accentuating over time. Indeed, increased runoff
293 coefficients induced either by hydrophobic soil conditions following droughts (Burch et al.,
294 1989), soil crusting and sealing (Bissonais and Singer, 1993) or compaction (Alaoui et al.,
295 2018), are well documented processes that mostly occur at the local plot scale that do not
296 produce discernible effects at the catchment scale. This observation is reinforced by the fact
297 that no negative correlation between runoff coefficients and initial soil moisture was detected.
298 About the explanatory factors of the association between soil moisture and runoff coefficients,
299 we found stronger correlations (significant at the 5% level) between these two variables in
300 catchments with higher percentage of urban or agricultural areas, and on the opposite weaker
301 correlations along with increased percentage of forests or mean catchment altitude. There is
302 only a very small increase of the correlations for larger basins (no significant correlation with
303 basin sizes), indicating that this relationship between soil moisture and runoff coefficient
304 remains valid for all basins scales considered in the present study. This relationship between
305 runoff coefficients and antecedent soil moisture remained stable between 1959-1990 and
306 1991-2021 (Figure 3).

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308 **4.2 Changes in flood dates**

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310 Floods in southern France tend to occur mainly during November or December for basins
311 close to the Mediterranean, East of the Cévennes mountainous range, while for basins located
312 on the western part of the region, they tend to occur later during winter months, centered in
313 January or February (Figure 4). Both the Rayleigh and Hermans-Rasson tests reject the null
314 hypothesis of uniformity at the 5% level, indicating that floods do not occur randomly
315 throughout the year. In most cases, the seasonal distribution is unimodal, except for a few
316 cases; in about 15 stations the maximum occurrence of floods is observed in late autumn or
317 winter and a secondary minor peak of occurrence is observed, usually centered around the
318 month of March or April. These floods are associated with rainfall events rather than snowmelt,
319 since for only 3 basins the snowfall contribution reaches 19% of total precipitation whereas
320 the snowfall contribution is much lower for the remaining 12 basins (less than 5%).

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322 For 79 basins, floods tend to occur earlier during the year, on average by -22 days between
323 1959-1990 and 1991-2021 (Figure 5, left panel). On the opposite, for 19 basins the mean flood
324 date occurs later in the second period with an average of +12 days. These changes in the
325 mean date are significant in 26 basins at the 0.1 level according to the Watson and Williams
326 test (18 basins at the 0.05 significance level). There are two differentiated spatial patterns: all
327 basins where floods tend to occur earlier are located widespread in the center of the
328 Mediterranean region, and basins where floods tend to occur later are found only in the
329 northwestern margin of the domain. In these basins, the mean floods occur in late winter, until
330 February and March. The same spatial patterns of changes in mean flood dates have been
331 observed by Blöschl et al. (2017), but without providing the possible causes of these seasonal
332 shifts. For the concentration index (i.e., the variability around the mean date) similarly two
333 different patterns are found: for basins where floods tend to occur earlier, the concentration
334 index is increasing, meaning more floods are clustered around the mean date, while for
335 western basins where floods tend to occur later, the concentration index is decreasing,
336 meaning a larger variability in flood dates (Figure 5, right panel).

337

338 To assess the regional changes in flood dates, we first separated in two regional samples the
339 stations where floods occur earlier (sample 1) or later (sample 2). Then we used the Watson-
340 William test, previously used to assess changes in flood dates in each station, to compare
341 these two regional samples. The test results indicate that for the 19 stations where floods tend
342 to occur later, the change in flood dates are not significant at the 5% level (p value = 0.0821),
343 on the opposite, for the 79 stations where floods are occurring earlier, the change is significant
344 (p value = $5.34 \cdot 10^{-8}$).

345

346 **4.3 Associations between flood occurrence and weather patterns**

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348 The seasonal patterns observed for the floods are closely related to the occurrence of different
349 weather types in different sub-regions. As shown in figure 6, most basins located east of the
350 Cévennes mountainous range have floods associated with WT4, Southern Circulation, and
351 western basins with WT2, Steady Oceanic. The most frequent pattern associated with 37% of
352 floods, WT4, is known to be triggering intense rainfall events in this region (Ducrocq et al.,
353 2008; Trambly et al., 2013). Interestingly, the WT6, Eastern circulation, and WT7,
354 Southwestern circulation, are both associated to a lesser extent with floods across the whole
355 region, but without notable spatial differences in the relative frequency of floods associated

356 with these weather types. Change in flood seasonality could be ascribed to changes in the
357 seasonal occurrence of the weather types (Figure 7): WT4 tends to occur more frequently
358 from March to August during 1991-2021 compared to 1959-1990, and these changes are
359 statistically significant (see supplementary figure S2). When looking at the actual count of WT4
360 days, this change represents an increase of 69 events during that 6-month period for 1991-
361 2021, so an average of +2.2 days per year. Associated with a warmer Mediterranean Sea over
362 the last decades notably during summer (Pastor et al., 2020), the combination of these two
363 factors could explain the earlier occurrence of floods east of the Cévennes mountainous
364 range. Similarly, there is an increased frequency of WT2 in January, February and March
365 between 1991-2021 and 1959-1990, that is also significant (supplementary figure S2) that
366 could be possibly related to the later occurrence of floods west of the Cévennes range.
367 Although this change in weather types seasonality leading to heavy rainfalls is a plausible
368 cause of the observed changes in the flood seasonality, more research is needed to better
369 understand these relationships and attribute changes in flood seasonality. Notably, to analyze
370 in more detail the moisture supply from the Mediterranean or Atlantic seas, the interaction with
371 the atmospheric thermodynamics, the duration, localization and the spatial dependence of the
372 rainfall episodes inducing floods.

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374 **4.4 Changes in flood generating processes**

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376 When first applying the classification of flood-generating processes on all floods, we find a
377 predominance of excess rainfall events (Figure 8), followed by long rain and short rains, that
378 is consistent with the known flood-generating processes in this region (Mediterranean
379 episodes) and, in particular, the strong influence of saturated soils on runoff generation with
380 floods mostly occurring during the autumn (Tramblay et al., 2010, 2019). The category 'other'
381 regroups less than 1% of floods and it represents mostly events with very low precipitation
382 amounts, likely due to an underestimation of rainfall in the SAFRAN database for some events.
383 It is worth noticing that despite the large sample of basins considered, the patterns are
384 remarkably consistent and homogeneous across different basin sizes and locations. There is
385 a significant, yet low, correlation ($\rho = 0.26$, p -value = 0.008) between the ratio of excess rain
386 floods and catchment size, with a larger proportion of excess rain in larger basins, while on
387 the opposite there is an even weaker and negative correlation ($\rho = -0.16$, p -value = 0.09)
388 between the ratio of short rain and basin size. It should be noted that floods driven by short
389 rain episodes are potentially affecting smaller regions than floods driven by excess floods
390 (Brunner and Dougherty, 2022). For 30 basins (not necessarily the largest ones), the
391 proportion of excess rain exceeds 80% of the total number of flood events (see supplementary
392 figure S3). For short rain and long rain, the maximum contributions observed much lower, 36%
393 and 32%, respectively, but these maximum values are only found in small basins. Indeed,
394 basins when short rain or long rain exceed 30% of episodes are only found in basins smaller
395 than 100 km².

396

397 The mean date of occurrence is significantly different between the three flood types, according
398 to the Watson and Williams test. As shown on figure 9, the highest proportion of floods induced
399 by short rain is observed during September to November, while the floods induced by long
400 rain are mostly occurring during October to December, and excess rain floods are observed
401 in late autumn and winter, with a peak in February. This is consistent with the annual soil
402 moisture cycle in this region: at the end of the summer the soils are dry and it takes several

403 months to replenish the soil moisture level, which is at highest during winter. If examining the
404 long-term changes in this monthly repartition of flood types (see supplementary figure S4), the
405 frequency of excess rain is decreasing from February to April, and also in October, while
406 increasing during winter months. This implies that the season during which excess rain floods
407 are occurring is reducing in length and concentrated during wet winter months. On the
408 opposite the frequency of short or long rain floods is increasing in June and September,
409 months that are getting drier over time in this region.

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411 The noticeable changes in flood processes over time are a reduction of Excess rainfall in 71
412 basins and an increased frequency of short rains in 53 basins and Long rains in 63 basins
413 (Figure 10), while short rain and long rain floods are decreasing for 19 and 22 basins,
414 respectively. For excess rain, there are only 16 basins where their relative proportion is
415 increasing; they are mostly located on the margins of the Alps and Pyrenees mountains. For
416 more frequent events (ie. if considering an average of 3 episodes per year instead of one), the
417 number of basins with a change is larger, with a reduction of Excess rainfall in 82 basins out
418 of 98 (results not shown). This indicates that the soil moisture depletion has more impacts on
419 small to moderate flood events, as previously observed by Bertola et al. (2021). There is no
420 relationship between the rate of change in the different flood generating processes and
421 catchment sizes indicating a clear regional pattern. The average magnitude across all basins
422 of these changes remains low, on average -4.1% for excess rain, +1.2% for short rain and +
423 2.1% long rain. Yet, the magnitude of these changes is ranging from +15% to -21% for excess
424 rain, +11% to -20% for short rain and +12% to -11% for long rain, depending on the catchment,
425 indicating that local catchment characteristics could strongly modulate the regional signal. In
426 addition, the average values over the whole domain are hiding some local changes: for
427 instance, short rainfall floods are increasing in the southeastern part of the Cévennes while
428 decreasing for the northwestern part as seen in Figure 10.

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430 **4.5 Regional changes**

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432 To assess whether the changes in the relative influence of the three different flood types are
433 significant at the regional scale, we computed for each year the relative frequency of the
434 different flood types, all basins together. It is indeed not possible to do this analysis for each
435 station independently, due to the small size of the samples over the two periods. These
436 changes in the occurrence of flood types are significant at the regional scale according to the
437 Mann-Kendall test (Figure 11), for the frequency of excess rain floods and short rain floods, at
438 the 5% significance level, but not for the long rain floods. All events pooled regionally, the
439 decrease in excess rain floods is equal to -13% between 1959-1990 and 1991-2021, and the
440 increase of short rain floods is equal to +36%. In addition, to assess whether these results are
441 robust to the thresholds used in the classification of flood events, a Monte Carlo experiment
442 has been also conducted. Results show (see supplementary figure S5) that regional changes
443 in excess rain and short rain floods are not dependent on classification thresholds, while it is
444 not the case for long rain floods. In terms of flood severity for the different flood types, the
445 median flood computed for each basin is strongly correlated to basin size ($\rho = 0.78$) for floods
446 caused by excess rain, short rain ($\rho = 0.80$) and long rain ($\rho = 0.75$); and very similar results
447 are found for the maximum flood. On the contrary, the specific discharge of flood peaks is non
448 linearly related to basin sizes, with a clear threshold effect for basins smaller than 500 km²
449 that have a much larger specific discharge than larger basins.

450

451 Given that there are different flood sample sizes in the different basins corresponding to
452 different flood-generating processes, we pooled regionally the flood events. To do so, we
453 computed the specific discharge for each event (i.e. the flood magnitude divided by catchment
454 area) to analyze the distributions of specific discharge for all the events associated with excess
455 rain, long rain or short rain. Specific discharge is used herein since it is a good indicator of
456 flash floods severity, notably in this Mediterranean region (Delrieu et al., 2005, Ruin et al.,
457 2008). Figure 12 shows that the short rain floods are more severe, in terms of specific
458 discharge, than excess rain or long rain floods at the regional level (as shown also by Tarasova
459 et al., 2023). The regional distributions for the different event types are different according to
460 the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. It must be noted that for a given basin the magnitude of the
461 different types of floods may not be very different, showing the strong variability from one event
462 to another that is not solely linked to the flood trigger. When comparing the different flood
463 distributions between the time periods 1959-1990 and 1991-2021, the differences in flood
464 magnitudes between excess rain, long and short rain are reduced. This is mainly due to a
465 slight decrease in the specific discharge of short rain floods, notably for flood events with a
466 return level higher than 10 years, while the excess rain floods show very little changes in
467 intensity over time.

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469 **5. Conclusions**

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471 The aim of this study was to document the evolution of the characteristics of Mediterranean
472 floods, using long river discharge records in southern France, a high-resolution climate and
473 surface reanalysis that is used operationally to monitor water resources and extremes in
474 France, and a classification of weather patterns. This large regional database with an average
475 of 50 years of records allowed to detect regional significant changes on several flood events
476 characteristics. In most basins, floods tend to occur earlier during the year, the mean flood
477 date being on average advanced by one month. This seasonal shift can be attributed to the
478 increased frequency of southern-circulation weather types during spring and summer that are
479 strongly associated with the occurrence of floods in this region. Over time, floods also tend to
480 be more clustered in time over the different basins, as reflected by a decreasing variability in
481 flood occurrence throughout the year. On the contrary, for the westernmost basins influenced
482 by Atlantic circulation patterns, floods tend to occur later during the year, also due to a
483 seasonal shift of the flood-generating circulation patterns that are occurring more frequently in
484 late winter. These results indicate that changes in large-scale atmospheric circulation
485 described by weather types is the likely driver of the seasonal shift of flood dates previously
486 observed for French Mediterranean regions (Blöschl et al., 2017).

487 During floods, an increase in total and extreme event precipitation has been observed,
488 associated with a decrease of antecedent soil moisture before rainfall events, linked to a
489 smaller contribution of base flow during floods. It can be concluded that it is the depletion of
490 soil water content, due to increased aridity in south France notably related to higher
491 evapotranspiration rates (Tramblay et al., 2020), that is the likely cause of the absence of flood
492 trends in this region despite the increase in extreme rainfall. It should be also noted that over
493 all basins, dryer soils are associated with lower runoff coefficients, and this relationship
494 remains valid over time. This result contrasts sharply with the generally accepted idea that in
495 a drier climate we observe stronger runoff. While this statement could be valid at the plot scale,
496 we show herein that it is an opposite relationship found for the whole range of catchment sizes

497 considered in the present work. The majority of flood events are associated with excess rainfall
498 on saturated soils, but that proportion is decreasing over time with a concurrent increased
499 frequency of short rain, potentially leading to more severe floods, as previously shown at the
500 European scale by Tarasova et al. (2023). At the regional scale, we show that floods induced
501 by short rains are indeed of higher magnitude, but due to a lower runoff coefficient induced by
502 drier antecedent soil moisture, the specific discharge associated with short rain flood is also
503 decreasing over time. These results are consistent with those obtained in other regions of the
504 world, showing that floods do not necessarily increase with the increase in extreme
505 precipitation, and that soil moisture seems to play a key role in explaining these changes and
506 the lack of trends ultimately on flood hazard (Wasko and Nathan, 2019; Bertola et al., 2021;
507 Wasko et al., 2021). The results of the present study are rather homogeneous given the
508 different catchment sizes and land use types, indicating that changes in flood types are mainly
509 resulting from regional climate change and not only local changes, such as land cover or
510 agricultural practice changes, nor the increase of urban and peri-urban areas. Nonetheless, if
511 the observed trend in increased short rain floods is persisting in the upcoming decades, the
512 severity of floods, particularly the most important ones, could increase along with the rise in
513 rainfall extremes particularly in areas where the soil infiltration potential is low, such as in
514 mountainous or urbanized areas, that have expanded a lot in recent years in Mediterranean
515 regions. For other types of basins, notably in lowland areas with agricultural or natural
516 landscapes, caution should be exerted before extrapolating such hazards in the future, since
517 we show herein a potential reduction over time of the specific runoff even for short rain floods.
518 This aspect could be further investigated using climate scenarios.

519 One of the main perspectives of this work would be to perform a similar analysis at sub-daily
520 time steps, that would be more adapted to analyze changes in flash floods characteristics,
521 notably in terms of the flashiness response of the catchments (Baker et al., 2004; Li et al.,
522 2022). Indeed, the daily time step prevents a thorough analysis of changes in rainfall patterns,
523 notably at shorter time steps. Yet, there is no gridded dataset of hourly precipitation before the
524 2000s in Southern France, that does not allow to repeat such a similar study over 62 years.
525 However, given the availability of radar rainfall over France, it would be possible to analyze,
526 at least for the recent years after 2000, the evolution of several characteristics, such as the
527 evolution of storm hydrographs, concentration time and the flashiness response of the basins.
528 Another relevant prospective work would be to analyze the spatial extent of floods. Given the
529 future evolution of weather types associated with floods in combination with more local to
530 regional characteristics, such as soil moisture state, these types of events may impact
531 simultaneously wider, or smaller, parts of the region considered, and this could have serious
532 implications on risk management (Brunner et al., 2021; Brunner and Dougherty, 2022).
533 Therefore, the joint analysis of flood occurrence in nearby basins would be highly relevant.
534 Finally, there is also a need for new approaches to incorporate these changes in flood
535 generating process into engineering practice (Slater et al., 2021b), notably to estimate the
536 return levels for different types of infrastructure design.

537

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543 **Data availability**

544 The computed catchment-based indicators for each flood events in all basins are accessible
545 from the online repository: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8075639>
546

547 The complete time series of river runoff can be accesses freely here:
548 <https://hydro.eaufrance.fr/>

549 The SAFRAN/ISBA outputs can be ordered freely for scientific purpose here:
550 <https://donneespubliques.meteofrance.fr>

551

552 **Author contributions**

553 Y.T.: Conceptualization, investigation, data curation, formal analysis, writing—original draft
554 preparation. YT designed the experiments, performed the analyses, and wrote the paper. PA,
555 GA, ML, EP, LN and ES Conceptualization, data curation, writing—reviewing and editing.

556 **Competing interests**

557 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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571 Table 1: Number of local significant changes in the median of flood events characteristics
 572 detected by the Wilcoxon test and results of the regional Mann-Kendall test on flood event
 573 characteristics
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Indicator	Number of significant local changes (Wilcoxon, 10%)	pvalue of the regional MK test	Regional changes between 1959 and 2022 (%)
Flood event duration	17	0.0046178	-0.40%
Base flow contribution to peak	15	0.5687962	-8.62%
Runoff coefficient	19	0.0000002	-14.62%
Total event rainfall	16	0.0011851	9.01%
Maximum event rainfall	27	0.0000000	13.47%
Antecedent soil moisture	12	0.0000008	-9.80%

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