

Empirical models of rain-spells characteristics – A case study of a Mediterranean-arid climatic transect



Yaakov Aviad^{a,b,*}, Haim Kutiel^b, Hanoach Lavee^a

^aLaboratory of Geomorphology and Soils, Department of Geography and Environment, Bar-Ilan University, Ramat-Gan 52900, Israel

^bLaboratory of Climatology, Department of Geography and Environmental Studies, University of Haifa, Haifa 31905, Israel

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 3 June 2012

Received in revised form

21 February 2013

Accepted 27 May 2013

Available online 22 June 2013

Keywords:

Climatic transect

Daily rainfall series

Rainfall threshold

Rain-spell

ABSTRACT

Environmental (geomorphological, hydrological and ecological) processes are controlled by rainfall, particularly in the Mediterranean, semi-arid and arid regions. Rainfall was analyzed using the concept of rain-spells, i.e., a period of successive rain days preceded and followed by at least one day without rainfall. Daily data from 13 stations along a climatic transect extending from the Judean Mountains with a Mediterranean climate to the Dead Sea arid region in Israel were studied. Rain-spell characteristics (number, yield and duration), based on these data, are presented for different rainfall thresholds, which might be used for different environmental processes such as rock weathering, soil organic matter dynamics, landslides, overland flow and floods and soil erosion. Three estimation models have been developed in order to predict the mean annual Number of Rain-Spells (NRS), mean Rain-Spell Yield (RSY), and mean Rain-Spell Duration (RSD) for the mean annual rainfall and for any given rainfall threshold. These models can be used for current climatic conditions and for scenarios in which the rainfall total changes.

© 2013 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Rainfall is a critical factor in many environmental – geomorphological, hydrological, and ecological – processes, particularly in the semi-arid and arid regions (Lavee et al., 1998). Rainfall characteristics affect soil–plant–atmosphere relationships and determine runoff development, soil erosion and the dynamics of plant communities.

Most of the rainfall analyses have emphasized the total rainfall falling during a fixed time interval, using many time scales, i.e., one day, a pentad (De Arruda and Pinto, 1980; Gramzow and Henry, 1972), 10-days (Arnold and Elliot, 1996; Bartzokas et al., 2003), a month (Flynn and Griffiths, 1980; Holland, 1962; Jackson, 1986), a rainy season (Lázaro et al., 2001; Tennant and Hewitson, 2002), and an annual total (Lázaro et al., 2001).

The fixed time interval is mainly a statistical time unit that may be difficult to link explicitly with the synoptic situation or with the

hydrological processes. Therefore, for a better understanding of rainfall – environmental processes relationships, analyses of rainfall with regard to the synoptic conditions and not to a fixed time interval is required (Houssos et al., 2009; Robinson and Henderson, 1992; Striem and Rosenan, 1973). Accordingly, the use of rain-spells (a period of successive rain days preceded and followed by at least one day without rainfall) is more appropriate.

The Number of Rain-Spells, which represents the number of wet/dry cycles is an important factor for several processes, such as rock weathering (Pejon and Zuquette, 2002), soil erosion (Rajaram and Erbach, 1999), aggregate stability (Lavee et al., 1996; Sarah, 2005; Shiel et al., 1988), and soil organic matter dynamics and microbial activity (Denef et al., 2001; Sarah and Rodeh, 2003).

The Rain-Spell Yield, which is the total amount of rainfall accumulated during a rain-spell, controls the state and evolution of soil moisture (Yoo et al., 1998). In addition, it plays an important role in determining the frequency and magnitude of several processes, such as: erosion (Richardson et al., 1983), landslides and debris flows (Gerrard and Gardner, 2000; Stoffel et al., 2011) and runoff from artificial catchments (Li et al., 2004).

The Rain-Spell Duration is an important factor for landslides and debris flows (Chien-Yuan et al., 2005), runoff (Weiler et al., 2003) and floods (Vigliano and Blöschl, 2009). In the interaction between rainfall and watershed characteristics, the term “critical rainfall

List of abbreviations: DRT, Daily Rainfall Threshold; NRS, Mean annual Number of Rain-Spells; RSD, Mean Rain-Spell Duration; RST, Rain-Spell Threshold; RSY, Mean Rain-Spell Yield.

* Corresponding author. Laboratory of Climatology, Department of Geography and Environmental Studies, University of Haifa, Haifa 31905, Israel.

E-mail address: yaviad@geo.haifa.ac.il (Y. Aviad).

duration” is used for evaluating overland flow and floods (Meynink and Cordery, 1976; Schmid, 1997).

The aims of the present study are:

1. To characterize the rainfall regime by the Number of Rain-Spells, the rain-spell's yield and their duration.
2. To develop estimation models for the prediction of the above mentioned variables as a function of the mean annual rainfall for any given rainfall threshold.

These targets will be demonstrated in a case study representing a climatic transect from a Mediterranean to an extreme arid climate in Israel.

2. Study area and data

2.1. Study area

The study area is located near the easternmost part of the Mediterranean Sea. The climatic transect is running from the Judean Mountains near Jerusalem in the west, to the Dead Sea in the east. This transect, over a distance of 33 km, represents a very steep rainfall gradient, from a Mediterranean climate (mean annual rainfall 690 mm) to an extreme arid climate (less than 100 mm) or –18 mm/km. Thirteen rain stations, located along this transect, represent the various climatic conditions (Fig. 1a, Table 1). In most stations, 60%–70% of the rainfall is in winter (DJF). The remaining falls in autumn (SON) and spring (MAM), while the summer (JJA) is dry (Fig. 1b). Therefore, the hydrological year is used, i.e., from September to August of the next calendar year. In such a case, no rain-spell crosses-over years. Most rains originate from cold fronts associated with the Cyprus low (Alpert and Warner, 1986), but some are associated with the Red-Sea Trough.

2.2. Data

Daily rainfall data sets, of variable lengths, from 19 to 50 years, within the period 1960/61–2009/10, were provided by the Israel Meteorological Service (Table 1). Rainfall was measured using rain gauges with a standard orifice of 200 cm² and a resolution of 0.1 mm. All rainfall data were subject to a quality control performed by the Israel Meteorological Service. In addition a rainfall data quality was tested using a standard normal homogeneity test (Alexandersson, 1986).

Table 1
Characteristics of the stations and their temporal rainfall distribution.

Name	Climatic region	Alt. a.s.l (m)	No. of years	Annual rainfall (mm)		
				Mean	Median	
Kiryat Anavim	(KRAN)	Med.	700	50	690	649
Zova	(ZOVA)	Med.	722	39	634	580
Jerusalem, Bait Vegan	(JRBG)	Med.	810	37	619	581
Mevo Betar	(MBTR)	Med.	760	41	577	558
Jerusalem, Central	(JRCT)	Med.	815	50	544	501
Gitit	(GTIT)	Semi arid	290	19	366	342
Kohav Hashahar	(KOSH)	Semi arid	600	26	294	253
Ma'ale Adumim	(MALD)	Semi arid	482	25	249	240
Fazael	(FZEL)	Arid	–250	25	173	158
Jericho	(JERO)	Arid	–260	36	159	151
Arad	(ARAD)	Arid	568	45	132	127
Kalya	(KLYA)	Arid	–392	33	93	89
Sdom	(SDOM)	Arid	–390	48	44	38

3. Methods

3.1. Rain day and rain-spell definitions

A day is defined as a 24 h period starting at 08:00 LT (06:00 UTC) and ending at 08:00 LT of the following day.

A rain day is defined when the daily rainfall total equals or exceeds a Daily Rainfall Threshold (DRT), otherwise it is considered as a dry day.

A rain-spell is defined as a series of successive rain days preceded and followed by at least one dry day and the total rainfall yield equals or exceeds a rain-spell threshold (RST).

3.2. Daily Rainfall Thresholds

The commonly used DRT is 0.1 mm, due to the usual precision of rain gauges (Ceballos et al., 2004; Tennant and Hewitson, 2002). Other thresholds are related to the definition of a “significant rainfall”, which is usually determined by the daily evaporation, such as: 1.0 mm (Jackson, 1981; Lázaro et al., 2001), 2.0 mm (Olaniran, 1988), 2.75 mm (Harrison, 1983), and 5.0 mm (Cook and Heerdegen, 2001).

In this study, the Daily Rainfall Threshold pertaining to each station was defined as the daily rainfall amount that 96% of the total

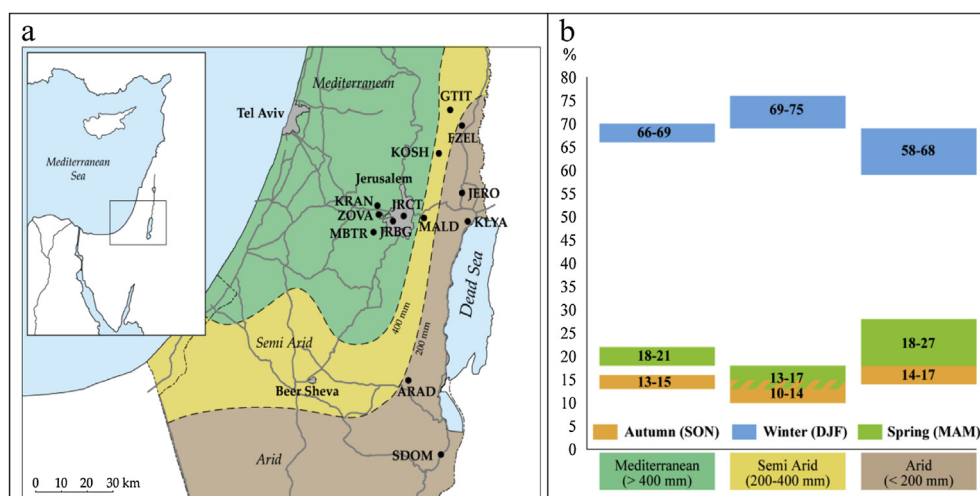


Fig. 1. Location of the rain stations (see Table 1 for details) (a) and the seasonal repartition of rainfall (b) along the climatic transect.

rainfall exceeded it, meaning that the lowest 4% of the total rainfall were omitted from the analysis. This was done in order to avoid “noise” in the data due to a large number of events that contribute together a negligible amount of rainfall (Reiser and Kutiel, 2008). This percentage criterion has two advantages: 1. Deleting a relative large number of days with small rainfall amounts, 2. Determining thresholds that are appropriate to the various climatic regions. This was done as the total annual rainfall varies along the transect and therefore a fixed threshold for all stations would have omitted different percentages of the annual total. Table 2 presents the selected Daily Rainfall Thresholds in each station, the percentage of omitted rain days and two additional parameters that emphasize the usefulness of the DRT.

3.3. Rain-Spell Thresholds

In the present study, the analyses were performed for various RSTs as these are relevant for different environmental processes. For example, RST of about 10 mm is relevant for triggering seedling emergence (Keya, 1997), for grassland cactus (*Opuntia polyacantha*) responding to rain events (Dougherty et al., 1996), for affecting soil water content (Ceballos et al., 2002), and for generating runoff (Ceballos and Schnabel, 1998; Yair and Lavee, 1985), and RST of about 25 mm is relevant for triggering phenological events on desert shrubs (Veenendaal et al., 1996), and for producing a channel flow of short duration (Ceballos and Schnabel, 1998). A total of 57 RSTs were selected as follows: 1.0 mm, from 2.5 mm to 80 mm with increments of 2.5 mm, and from 80 to 200 mm with increments of 5.0 mm.

3.4. Rain-Spells characteristics and models

The dependence of three variables characterizing the rainfall regime, on the RST and on the mean annual rainfall (R_m), was analyzed:

1. Mean annual Number of Rain-Spell – NRS.
2. Mean Rain-Spell Yield [mm] – RSY.
3. Mean Rain-Spell Duration [days] – RSD.

For each of these variables a statistical model enabling its estimation based on RST and R_m was developed.

3.4.1. Mean annual Number of Rain-Spells (NRS)

As rain-spells' amounts follow, usually, a log-normal distribution, i.e., many rain-spells with small amount and relatively very few with large amount (e.g., Ananthkrishnan, and Soman, 1989;

Table 2
The Daily Rainfall Threshold as a result of omitting the lowest 4% of the rainy days.

Station	Daily Rainfall Threshold (mm)	Percentage of omitted rainy days	Mean daily rainfall amount of omitted days (mm)	Mean daily rainfall amount of remaining days (mm)
KRAN	3.1	39.8	1.18	18.8
ZOVA	3.3	38.4	1.25	18.7
JRBG	3.0	37.7	1.21	17.5
MBTR	3.3	35.1	1.39	18.1
JRCT	2.5	43.3	0.84	15.3
CTIT	2.0	25.0	1.64	13.2
KOSH	2.5	31.7	1.18	13.2
MALD	1.4	39.3	0.60	9.4
FZEL	2.0	21.2	1.19	7.8
JERO	1.0	35.1	0.44	5.8
ARAD	1.0	33.1	0.49	5.9
KLYA	1.0	26.1	0.57	4.8
SDOM	0.6	32.2	0.33	3.8

Harrison, 1983; Jackson, 1986; Kutiel, 1990), the relationship between NRS and RST should be of the form:

$$NRS = c_n \ln(RST) + b_n \tag{1}$$

where: c_n and b_n are empirical coefficients.

In the present study, the coefficients c_n and b_n in Equation (1) were found to be statistically dependent on the mean annual rainfall (R_m) as follows:

$$c_n = c_{n0}R_m + c_{n1} \tag{2}$$

$$b_n = b_{n0}R_m^{b_{n1}} \tag{3}$$

where: c_{n0} , c_{n1} , b_{n0} and b_{n1} are empirical coefficients.

Substitution of Equations (2) and (3) into Equation (1) leads to a combined model for estimating the mean Number of Rain-Spell (NRS) as a function of Rain-Spell Threshold (RST) and the mean annual rainfall (R_m):

$$NRS = (c_{n0}R_m + c_{n1})\ln(RST) + b_{n0}R_m^{b_{n1}} \tag{4}$$

3.4.2. Mean Rain-Spell Yield (RSY)

This variable represents the total rainfall amount [mm] accumulated within a rain-spell. In the present study the relationship between RSY and RST was analyzed according to the following equation:

$$RSY = c_y RST + b_y \tag{5}$$

where: c_y and b_y are empirical coefficients.

In the present study, the coefficients c_y and b_y in Equation (5) were found to be statistically dependent on the mean annual rainfall (R_m) as follows:

$$c_y = c_{y0}R_m + c_{y1} \tag{6}$$

$$b_y = b_{y0}R_m^{b_{y1}} \tag{7}$$

where: c_{y0} , c_{y1} , b_{y0} and b_{y1} are empirical coefficients.

Substituting Equations (6) and (7) into Equation (5) leads to a combined model for estimating the mean Rain-Spell Yield (RSY) as a function of Rain-Spell Threshold (RST) and the mean annual rainfall (R_m):

$$RSY = (c_{y0}R_m + c_{y1})RST + b_{y0}R_m^{b_{y1}} \tag{8}$$

3.4.3. Mean Rain-Spell Duration (RSD)

This variable represents the total rainfall duration [days] of a rain-spell. A power function (e.g., Lall et al., 1996; Longley, 1953) was fitted to represent the relationship between RSD and RST:

$$RSD = c_d RST^{b_d} \tag{9}$$

where: c_d and b_d are empirical coefficients.

In the present study, the coefficients c_d and b_d in Equation (9) were found to be statistically dependent on the mean annual rainfall (R_m) as follows:

$$c_d = c_{d0}R_m + c_{d1} \tag{10}$$

$$b_d = b_{d0}R_m^{b_{d1}} \tag{11}$$

where: c_{d0} , c_{d1} , b_{d0} and b_{d1} are empirical coefficients.

A substitution of Equations (10) and (11) into Equation (9) leads to a combined model for estimating the mean Rain-Spell Duration (RSD) as a function of Rain-Spell Threshold (RST) and the mean annual rainfall (R_m):

$$RSD = (C_{d0}R_m + C_{d1})RST^{b_{d0}R_m^{b_{d1}}} \quad (12)$$

3.5. Model testing

In order to verify the above three models (Equations 4, 8 and 12), two data sub-sets were created, each contains half of the years, for each station. One sub-set includes the odd years and the second, the even years. The empirical coefficients of the models were calculated again using one sub-set. These coefficients were applied to the second sub-set in order to predict these three variables (NRS, RSY and RSD). The validation was done by comparing the observed and the predicted variables.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Rain-spell characteristics along the transect

Fig. 2 presents the spatial distribution of the Number of Rain-Spells (NRS) (a), Rain-Spell Yield (RSY) (b) and Rain-Spell Duration (RSD) (c) for Rain-Spell Threshold (RST) = 5 mm.

It can be seen that NRS decreases with aridity from above 15 in the Mediterranean stations, to around 10 in the semi-arid and less than 9, in the arid region (Fig. 2a).

The RSY decreases from above 34 mm in the Mediterranean region to less than 17 mm in the arid region and 17–34 mm in the semi-arid region (Fig. 2b).

No clear trend of the RSD is evident when moving from the Mediterranean region to the arid region. In all regions the average RSD is around 2 days, slightly longer in the northern part and slightly shorter in the southern part of the transect (Fig. 2c).

Table 3 presents some examples of NRSs, RSYs and RSDs at the various stations for five selected thresholds. It can be noticed

that the same spatial behavior is evident also for higher thresholds.

The presented results emphasize the fact that increasing aridity in the studied transect is a combination of decrease in both the number and the yield of the rain-spells in that region. This decrease is probably due to the orography that forces the air masses to descend from the Judean Mountains to the Dead Sea and therefore to warm adiabatically. This descent causes part of the rainfall systems reaching the Judean Mountains to dissipate once they pass the top of the mountains and therefore the NRS to decrease, and/or their intensity to diminish, as reflected by the decrease in the RSY. However, as the length of the transect is relatively short, no significant difference was found in the RSD especially when the duration is measured in days.

4.2. Model testing

As mentioned in Section 3.5, the coefficients of Equations 4, 8 and 12, were calculated twice, for odd and for even years. The two sets of coefficients obtained for each of the above equations were used to predict the variables NRS, RSY and RSD. For each of the variables two comparisons were conducted:

1. The data of the odd years served to calculate the coefficients of Equations 4, 8 and 12. These coefficients were used to calculate the values of the even years that were compared to the observed values of the even years.
2. The same procedure was repeated, but this time data of the even years served to calculate the coefficients. The predicted odd years' values were compared with the observed ones.

The models validation is based on: (a) analysis of the explained variance (r^2) and (b) calculation of the difference between the predicted (P) and the observed (O) values, using the root mean square of the differences (RMSD) (Willmott, 1984), as follows:

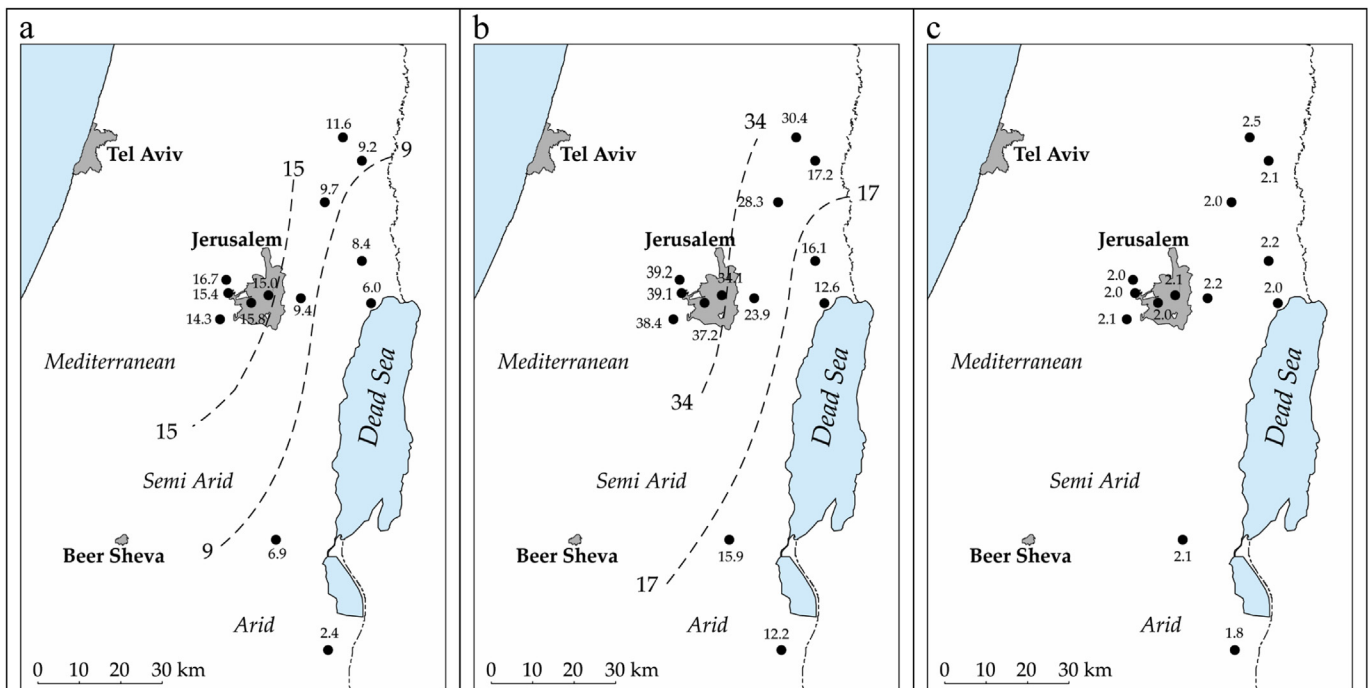


Fig. 2. The spatial distribution of mean annual NRS (a), mean annual RSY [mm] (b) and mean annual RSD [days] (c) for RST = 5 mm.

Table 3
Number of Rain Spells, Rain Spell Yield and Rain Spell Duration for 5 selected Rain Spell Thresholds.

Station	Number of Rain Spells					Rain Spell Yield [mm]					Rain Spell Duration [day]				
	5	10	20	40	80	5	10	20	40	80	5	10	20	40	80
KRAN	16.7	13.3	9.3	5.7	2.1	39.2	47.4	61.9	82.9	126.2	2.0	2.2	2.6	3.1	3.7
ZOVA	15.4	12.1	8.5	5.2	2.2	39.1	47.7	61.6	83.1	119.3	2.0	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.7
JRBG	15.8	12.7	8.7	5.1	1.8	37.2	44.4	58.2	79.4	117.8	2.0	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.7
MBTR	14.3	11.8	8.1	4.9	1.9	38.4	45.1	59.3	79.9	114.5	2.1	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.7
JRCT	15.0	11.4	7.5	4.4	1.5	34.1	42.6	57.2	77.4	117.9	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.2	4.1
GTIT	11.6	9.0	5.7	3.1	0.7	30.4	37.5	50.8	71.6	127.4	2.5	2.8	3.2	3.9	4.9
KOSH	9.7	7.3	4.3	2.0	0.5	28.3	35.2	49.6	72.8	126.1	2.0	2.2	2.6	3.1	4.1
MALD	9.4	6.6	3.7	1.5	0.3	23.9	31.3	44.2	67.4	109.3	2.2	2.4	2.8	3.4	4.0
FZEL	9.2	5.6	2.5	0.8	0.1	17.2	23.9	36.0	57.3	104.0	2.1	2.5	3.1	3.6	6.0
JERO	8.4	5.2	2.2	0.4	<0.1	16.1	21.6	31.6	55.3	115.0	2.2	2.5	2.9	3.9	6.0
ARAD	6.9	3.9	1.8	0.4	<0.1	15.9	22.8	32.8	53.1	113.0	2.1	2.5	2.9	3.4	7.0
KLYA	6.0	3.0	0.9	0.1	<0.1	12.6	18.3	30.2	67.3	98.0	2.0	2.3	2.9	4.7	7.0
SDOM	2.4	1.1	0.3	0.1	a	12.2	18.6	31.9	51.1	a	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.3	a

^a Rain-spell amount exceeding 80 mm does not exist in this station.

$$RMSD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (P - O)^2}{N}} \tag{13}$$

where *N* is the number of cases.

The validity of the models is shown by the high correlation between the predicted and observed NRS, RSY and RSD values and by their relatively small RMSD values (Table 4).

4.3. Application of the models to the transect

The empirical coefficients of Equations 4, 8 and 12 pertaining to the study area, were calculated based on the entire data set in order not to lose information. It should be mentioned that the models are valid for all Rain-Spell Thresholds up to the threshold that produces only one rain-spell per year (NRS = 1, Table 5). Table 5 represents the maximum rainfall yields accumulated in each station in a single rain-spell with a recurrence period of one year. This was done in order to avoid very extreme rainfall events with very long recurrence periods which are very rare.

$$NRS = (-0.0022R_m - 3.45) \ln(RST) + 1.9738R_m^{0.3818} \tag{14}$$

$$RSY = (-0.0004R_m + 1.28) RST + 0.1440R_m^{0.8731} \tag{15}$$

$$RSD = (-0.0003R_m + 1.55)RST^{0.1245R_m^{0.1026}} \tag{16}$$

Fig. 3 presents the observed NRS (a), RSY (b) and RSD (c) values in three stations representing the various climatic regions (dots) and the predicted values according to Equations 14–16 respectively (solid lines).

Since the predicted and the observed NRS, RSY and RSD values are highly correlated ($r^2 = 0.988$, $r^2 = 0.992$ and $r^2 = 0.840$, respectively) and RMSD values are relatively small (0.39, 3.03 mm and 0.26 days, respectively). These models may serve as an efficient tool for the estimation of NRS, RSY and RSD for any desired

Table 4
The models validity parameters for the two scenarios.

Variable	Explained variance (r^2)		RMSD	
	Odd years	Even years	Odd years	Even years
NRS	0.985	0.978	0.48	0.56
RSY	0.987	0.982	5.73	5.94
RSD	0.806	0.813	0.36	0.33

threshold and/or mean annual rainfall. Application to other Mediterranean, semi-arid or arid regions may require a calculation of different coefficients. These models may be used for current climatic conditions. Given a future climatic scenario, they may serve to predict in details the characteristics of the rainfall regime. An example of using the models is illustrated in Fig. 4, which presents the predicted values of NRS (a), RSY (b) and RSD (c) for various Rms and RSTs. The white areas in each panel are beyond the limits of the models.

It can be easily noticed that each of the three presented variables varies differently with changes of the mean annual rainfall and the rain-spell thresholds. NRS varies with changes of both R_m and RST, It increases with increasing of the annual rainfall and decreases with increasing of the rain-spell threshold. RSY varies solely with changes in the annual rainfall. It increases with increasing of the annual rainfall and almost doesn't change with changes of the rain-spell threshold. RSD varies solely with changes in the rain-spell threshold. It increases with increasing of the rain-spell threshold and almost doesn't change with changes of the annual rainfall. These results are in a complete agreement with Fig. 2. Fig. 2 represents the spatial distribution of these three variables for one selected threshold (5 mm). As the spatial distribution reflects changes in annual rainfall, the gradient from the Mediterranean to the arid region is more pronounced for the RSY, less so for the NRS and completely absent for RSD.

However, these results can be looked also in a different way: which of the three variables (NRS, RSY and RSD) affects more the annual rainfall? From the presented results it is evident that rainier

Table 5
Rain Spell Threshold that produces only one rain-spell per year (NRS = 1).

Station	RST (mm)
KRAN	113.3
ZOVA	108.1
JRBG	107.5
MBTR	100.0
JRCT	96.7
GTIT	71.3
KOSH	63.8
MALD	52.5
FZEL	33.3
JERO	29.4
ARAD	26.9
KLYA	18.6
SDOM	10.9

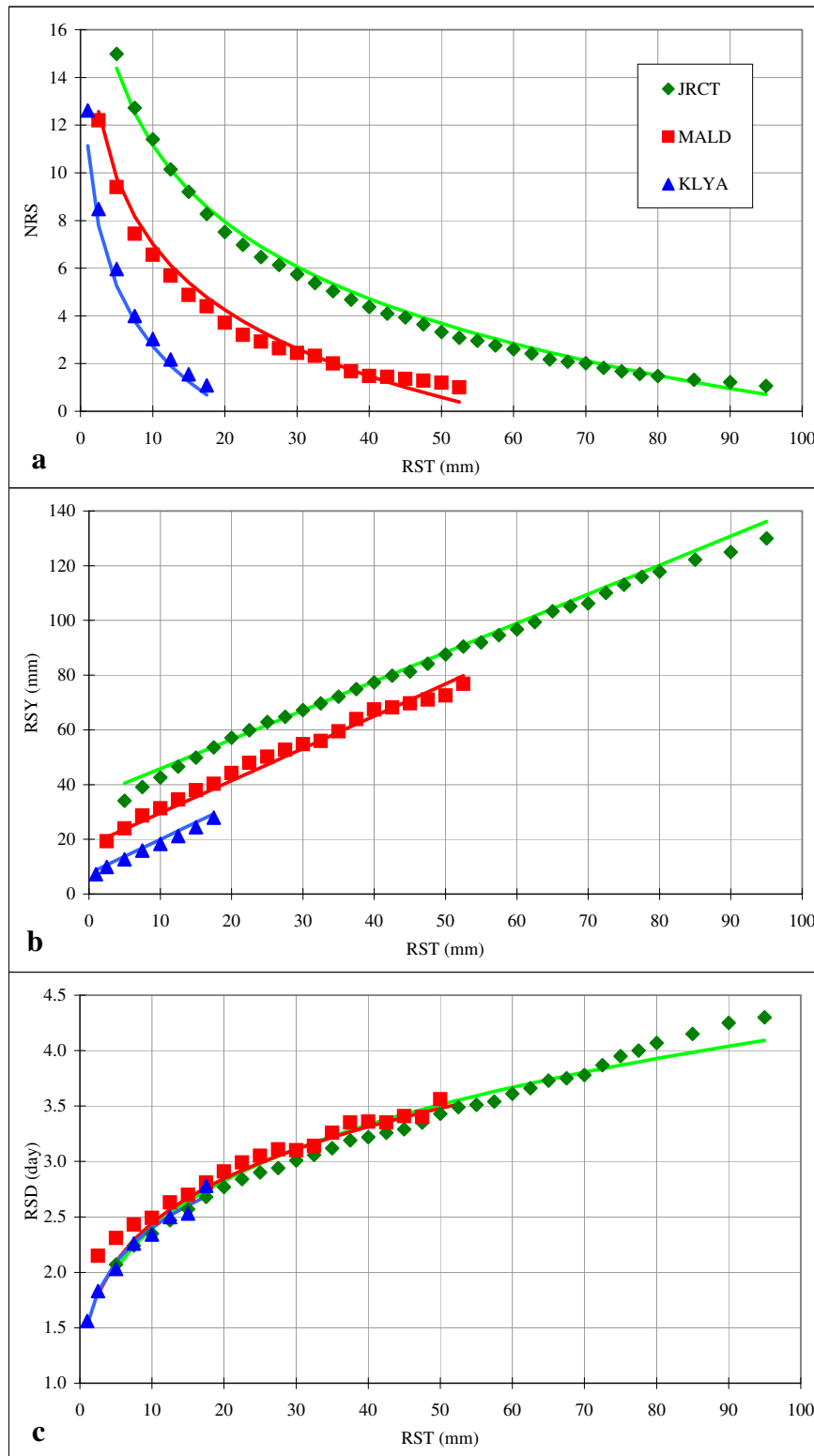


Fig. 3. Observed NRS (a), RSY (b) and RSD (c) in three selected stations and the predicted values according to Equations 14, 15 and 16 respectively.

regions are mainly a result of higher Rain-Spell Yields, less so of larger Number of Rain-Spells and completely not dependent of the Rain-Spell Duration. These results are in complete accordance with results presented by Reiser and Kutiel (2012). In that study, the authors analyzed data from 41 stations in the Mediterranean basin

and found that the main factor that causes a rainy season to be above or below average is changes in RSY and much less so in NRS. Therefore, we can state with a high level of confidence that the present results are valid for wider regions far beyond the analyzed transect.

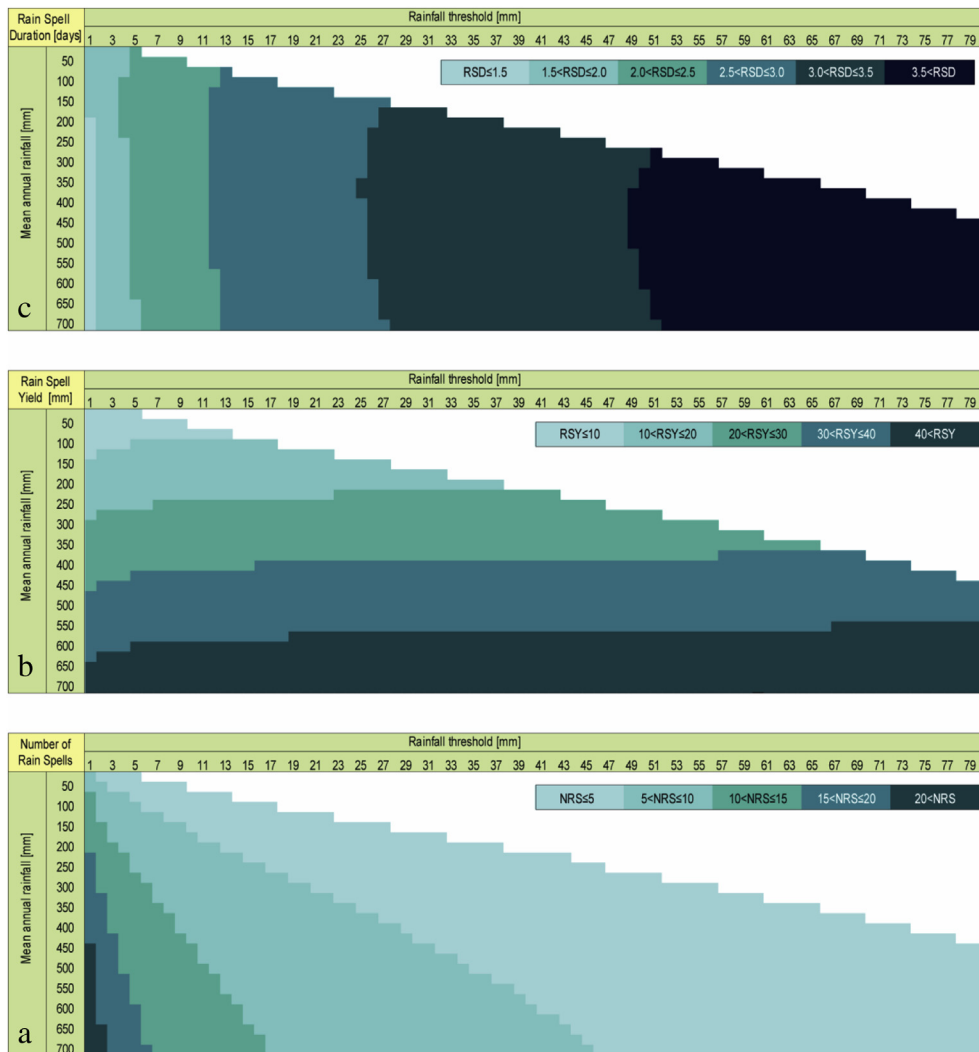


Fig. 4. The dependence of the NRS (a-bottom), RSY (b-middle) and RSD (c-upper), on the rainfall threshold and the mean annual rainfall.

5. Summary and conclusions

Daily rainfall data from 13 stations along a climatic transect from a Mediterranean to an arid climate served to calculate rain-spells. The distributions of the number, yield and duration of these rain-spells were analyzed for various rainfall thresholds.

Three theoretical models relating the Number of Rain-Spells, the Rain-Spell Yield and the Rain-Spell Duration to the mean annual rainfall for various Rain-Spell Threshold values were developed. These models were verified using half of the data set for estimating the other half.

The equations using the empirical calculated coefficients for the above models provided predicted values which are in a close agreement with the measured values. Since the mean annual rainfall is one of the models input, it can be used for scenarios of changes in the annual rainfall.

These models can be used as input to other simulations models, particularly in arid and semi-arid areas where rainfall stations are sparse and there is paucity of available rainfall data in those regions.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Ms. Noga Yoselevich for her excellent help with preparing the figures.

References

- Alexandersson, H., 1986. A homogeneity test applied to precipitation data. *Journal of Climatology* 6, 661–675.
- Alpert, P., Warner, T.T., 1986. Cyclogenesis in the Eastern Mediterranean. In: WMO/TMP Report Series No. 22. Geneva, pp. 95–99.
- Ananthkrishnan, R., Soman, M.K., 1989. Statistical distribution of daily rainfall and its association with the coefficient of variation of rainfall series. *International Journal of Climatology* 9, 485–500.
- Arnold, C.D., Elliot, W.J., 1996. GLIGEN weather generator predictions of seasonal wet and dry spells in Uganda. *Transactions of the ASAE* 39, 969–972.
- Bartzokas, A., Lolis, C.J., Metaxas, D.A., 2003. A study on the intra-annual variation and the spatial distribution of precipitation amount and duration over Greece on a 10-day basis. *International Journal of Climatology* 23, 207–222.
- Ceballos, A., Martínez-Fernández, J., Luengo-Ugidos, M.A., 2004. Analysis of rainfall trends and dry periods on a pluviometric gradient representative of Mediterranean climate in the Duero Basin, Spain. *Journal of Arid Environments* 58, 215–233.
- Ceballos, A., Martínez-Fernández, J., Santos, F., Alonso, P., 2002. Soil-water behaviour of sandy soils under semi-arid conditions in the Duero Basin (Spain). *Journal of Arid Environments* 51, 501–519.
- Ceballos, A., Schnabel, S., 1998. Hydrological behaviour of a small catchment in the dehesa landuse system (Extremadura, SW Spain). *Journal of Hydrology* 210, 146–160.
- Chien-Yuan, C., Tien-Chien, C., Fan-Chien, Y., Wen-Hui, Y., Chun-Chien, T., 2005. Rainfall duration and debris-flow initiated studies for real-time monitoring. *Environmental Geology* 47, 715–724.
- Cook, G.D., Heerdegen, R.G., 2001. Spatial variation in the duration of the rainy season in monsoonal Australia. *International Journal of Climatology* 21, 1723–1732.
- De Arruda, H.V., Pinto, H.S., 1980. A simplified gamma probability model for analysis of the frequency distribution of rainfall in the region of Campinas, SP, Brazil. *Agricultural Meteorology* 22, 101–108.

- Denef, K., Six, J., Bossuyt, H., Frey, S.D., Elliott, E., Merckx, R., Paustain, K., 2001. Influence of dry-wet cycles on the interrelationship between aggregate, particulate organic matter, and microbial community dynamics. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 33, 1599–1611.
- Dougherty, R.L., Lauenroth, W.K., Singh, J.S., 1996. Response of grassland cactus to frequency and size of rainfall events in a North American shortgrass steppe. *Journal of Ecology* 84, 177–183.
- Flynn, M.S., Griffiths, J.F., 1980. Variation in precipitation parameters between drought and nondrought periods in Texas and some implications for cloud seeding. *Journal of Applied Meteorology* 19, 1363–1370.
- Gerrard, J., Gardner, R.A.M., 2000. Relationships between rainfall and landsliding in the middle hills, Nepal. *Norwegian Journal of Geography* 54, 74–81.
- Gramzow, R.H., Henry, W.K., 1972. The rainy pentads of Central America. *Journal of Applied Meteorology* 11, 637–642.
- Harrison, M.S.J., 1983. Rain day frequency and mean daily rainfall intensity as determinants of total rainfall over the eastern Orange Free State. *Journal of Climatology* 3, 35–45.
- Holland, D.A., 1962. The prediction of monthly rainfall as exemplified by data from south-east England. *The Journal of Agricultural Science* 58, 327–331.
- Houssos, E.E., Lolis, C.J., Bartzokas, A., 2009. The main characteristics of atmospheric circulation associated with fog in Greece. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences* 9, 1857–1869.
- Jackson, I.J., 1981. Dependence of wet and dry days in the tropics. *Archives for Meteorology, Geophysics and Bioclimatology, Series B* 29, 167–179.
- Jackson, I.J., 1986. Relationships between raindays, mean daily intensity and monthly rainfall in the tropics. *Journal of Climatology* 6, 117–134.
- Keya, G.A., 1997. Environmental triggers of germination and phenological events in an arid savannah region of northern Kenya. *Journal of Arid Environments* 37, 91–106.
- Kutiel, H., 1990. Variability of factors and their possible application to climatic studies. *Theoretical and Applied Climatology* 42, 169–175.
- Lall, U., Rajagopalan, B., Tarboton, D.G., 1996. A nonparametric wet/dry spell model for resampling daily precipitation. *Water Resources Research* 32, 2803–2823.
- Lavee, H., Imeson, A.C., Sara, P., 1998. The impact of climatic change on geomorphology and desertification along a Mediterranean – arid transect. *Land Degradation & Development* 9, 407–422.
- Lavee, H., Sara, P., Imeson, A.C., 1996. Aggregate stability dynamics as affected by soil temperature and moisture regimes. *Geografiska Annaler* 78A, 73–82.
- Lázaro, R., Rodrigo, F.S., Gutiérrez, L., Domingo, F., Puigdefábregas, J., 2001. Analysis of a 30-year rainfall record (1967–1997) in semi-arid SE Spain for implications on vegetation. *Journal of Arid Environments* 48, 373–395.
- Li, X.Y., Xie, Z.K., Yan, X.K., 2004. Runoff characteristics of artificial catchment materials for rainwater harvesting in the semi arid regions of China. *Agricultural Water Management* 65, 211–224.
- Longley, R.W., 1953. The length of dry and wet periods. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society* 79, 520–527.
- Meynink, W.J.C., Cordery, I., 1976. Critical duration of rainfall for flood estimation. *Water Resources Research* 12, 1209–1214.
- Olaniran, O.J., 1988. The distribution in space of rain-days of rainfall of different amounts in the tropics: Nigeria as a case study. *Geoforum* 4, 507–520.
- Pejon, O.J., Zuquette, L.V., 2002. Analysis of cyclic swelling of mudrocks. *Engineering Geology* 67, 97–108.
- Rajaram, G., Erbach, D.C., 1999. Effect of wetting and drying on soil physical properties. *Journal of Terramechanics* 36, 39–49.
- Reiser, H., Kutiel, H., 2008. Rainfall uncertainty in the Mediterranean: definitions of the daily rainfall threshold (DRT) and the rainy season length (RSL). *Theoretical and Applied Climatology* 59, 93–106.
- Reiser, H., Kutiel, H., 2012. The dependence of the annual total on the number of rain-spells and their yield in the Mediterranean. *Geografiska Annaler* 94A, 285–299.
- Richardson, C.W., Foster, G.R., Wright, D.A., 1983. Estimation of erosion index from daily rainfall amount. *Transactions of the ASAE* 26, 153–156.
- Robinson, P.J., Henderson, K.G., 1992. Precipitation events in the south-east United States of America. *International Journal of Climatology* 12, 701–720.
- Sarah, P., 2005. Soil aggregation response to long- and short-term differences in rainfall amount under arid and Mediterranean climate conditions. *Geomorphology* 70, 1–11.
- Sarah, P., Rodeh, Y., 2003. Soil structure variations under water and vegetation manipulations. *Journal of Arid Environments* 58, 43–57.
- Schmid, B.H., 1997. Critical rainfall duration for overland flow from an infiltrating plane surface. *Journal of Hydrology* 193, 45–60.
- Shiel, R.S., Adey, M.A., Lodder, M., 1988. The effect of successive wet/dry cycles on aggregate size distribution in a clay texture soil. *Journal of Soil Science* 39, 71–80.
- Stoffel, M., Bollschweiler, M., Beniston, M., 2011. Rainfall characteristics for periglacial debris flows in the Swiss Alps: past incidences – potential future evolutions. *Climatic Change* 105, 263–280.
- Striem, H.L., Rosenan, N., 1973. Rainspells, as a climatological parameter, used in the analysis of rainfall in Jerusalem. *Archives for Meteorology, Geophysics and Bioclimatology, Series B* 21, 25–42.
- Tennant, W.J., Hewitson, B.C., 2002. Intra-seasonal rainfall characteristics and their importance to the seasonal prediction problem. *International Journal of Climatology* 22, 1033–1048.
- Veenendaal, E.M., Ernst, W.H.O., Modise, G.S., 1996. Effect of seasonal rainfall pattern on seedling emergence and establishment of grasses in a savanna in south-eastern Botswana. *Journal of Arid Environments* 32, 305–317.
- Viglione, A., Blöschl, G., 2009. On the role of storm duration in the mapping of rainfall to flood return periods. *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences* 13, 205–216.
- Weiler, M., McGlynn, B.L., McGuire, K.J., McDonnell, J.J., 2003. How does rainfall become runoff? A combined tracer and runoff transfer function approach. *Water Resources Research* 39, 1315–1328.
- Willmott, C.J., 1984. On the evaluation of model performance in physical geography. In: Gaile, G.L., Willmott, C.J. (Eds.), *Spatial Statistics and Models*. D. Reidel Publishing Company, Dordrecht, Holland, pp. 443–460.
- Yair, A., Lavee, H., 1985. Runoff generation in arid and semi-arid zones. In: Anderson, M.G., Burt, T.P. (Eds.), *Hydrological Forecasting*. John Wiley & Sons, New York, pp. 183–220.
- Yoo, C., Valdes, J.B., North, J.B., 1998. Evaluation of the impact of rainfall on soil moisture variability. *Advances in Water Resources* 21, 375–384.