



1 **Technical note: Quantifying System Limits: Flood Oriented**
2 **Operational Stress Testing under Intensified Precipitation**
3 **Regimes in Central Europe**

4

5 Jens Reinert¹ (<https://orcid.org/0009-0008-9161-6279>),
6 Elena-Maria Klopries¹ (<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4752-6619>),
7 Paul Hassenjürgen¹ (<https://orcid.org/0009-0002-6135-4286>),
8 Alexander Menz¹ (<https://orcid.org/0009-0007-4686-9149>),
9 Julian Hofmann² (<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7156-7173>),
10 Catrina Brüll¹ (<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0079-4093>),
11 Angela Klein³ (<https://orcid.org/0009-0007-8758-342X>),
12 Holger Schüttrumpf¹ (<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0104-0499>)

13

14 ¹Institute of Hydraulic Engineering and Water Resources Management, RWTH Aachen University, Aachen,
15 52074, Germany

16 ²FloodWaive Predictive Intelligence GmbH, Aachen, 52070, Germany

17 ³Deltares, Delft, 2600 MH, The Netherlands

18

19

20 *Correspondence to:* Jens Reinert (reinert@iww.rwth-aachen.de)

21 Keywords:

22 Flood risk management, Stress testing, hydraulic modelling, systemic resilience



23 **Abstract.** The rise of short-duration extreme rainfall events across Central Europe has exposed critical weaknesses
24 in traditional flood risk management methods that depend on fixed return periods and design thresholds. In
25 response, this paper introduces FLOOD-ST: a scenario-based operational stress testing framework designed to
26 evaluate the functional limits and vulnerabilities of water infrastructure systems under realistic, high-impact flood
27 scenarios.

28 FLOOD-ST combines synthetic rainfall archetypes, varying antecedent soil moisture conditions and infrastructure-
29 specific scenarios to systematically evaluate system performance. By integrating elements of functional stress
30 testing, the framework diagnoses weak points and illuminates cascading failure pathways across interconnected
31 assets. Unlike traditional hazard mapping, FLOOD-ST does not aim to replace existing tools but complements
32 them by offering a diagnostic view of system behaviour during extreme conditions. The framework is platform-
33 independent, modular, and scalable, making it suitable for both urban and rural catchments, especially those
34 characterised by high system complexity, short warning times, or critical interdependencies.

35 This paper describes the conceptual foundation, simulation workflow, and real-world applications of FLOOD-ST,
36 demonstrating its potential to support adaptive planning, emergency preparedness, and climate-resilient water
37 management.

38



39 **1. Motivation for Flood-Oriented Operational Stress Testing**

40 Over the past decade, Central Europe has experienced more frequent and intense short-duration rainfall because a
41 warmer atmosphere increases moisture availability and intensifies convective storms, while land-use change (soil
42 sealing, drainage) increases effective runoff and peak formation (Beniston et al., 2007; Meyer et al., 2022;
43 Hosseinzadehtalaei et al., 2020). Therefore, strategies calibrated to stationary intensity–duration–frequency (IDF)
44 curves and single-site design flows increasingly misrepresent today’s tail risk (Cheng and AghaKouchak, 2014).

45 Consequently, conventional risk-based approaches, effective for incremental, single-hazard control, tend to under-
46 capture compounding (e.g., soil saturation meets extreme rain), (ii) cascades across assets (e.g., bridge clogging
47 leads to road/overtopping leads to access loss), and (iii) operational limits (e.g., warning lead time or power
48 dependencies).(Tao et al., 2023; Nayak et al., 2024). The July 2021 floods in Germany, Belgium, and the
49 Netherlands exemplified this, where extreme rainfall, saturated soils, clogged culverts and bridges, and delayed
50 warnings collectively overwhelmed infrastructure designed for standardised protection levels (Lehmkuhl et al.,
51 2022). Importantly, the most severe impacts in July 2021 were concentrated along small to medium-sized regional
52 rivers. These local systems are characterised by short hydrological response times but often only short discharge
53 records and a sparse gauging network. In many regional catchments, observational series are therefore insufficient
54 to derive robust design floods or to quantify non-stationary changes in extremes, which further limits the
55 applicability of traditional frequency-based design concepts.

56 These experiences have sparked climate change mitigation discussions (Truedinger et al., 2023) and a critical re-
57 evaluation of static hazard mapping and return-period-based design frameworks. Kreibich et al.(2022) argue that
58 recurrence-based models do not accurately reflect system behaviour when the system boundaries are surpassed,
59 when infrastructure depends on each other, and when effects are non-linear. Linkov et al.(2022) similarly highlight
60 the importance of scenario-based stress-testing approaches to evaluate system performance under plausible yet
61 severe disruptions, similar to methods used in finance, health care, and infrastructure security. This paper uses
62 stress testing methods that are well established in critical infrastructure and banking sectors. These techniques
63 involve analysing how systems perform under challenging yet realistic conditions, and they have been adapted
64 here to include hydrometeorological factors and infrastructure dependencies.

65 Flood-Oriented Operational Stress Testing (FLOOD-ST) is presented as a new approach which examines the limits
66 of hydrological and infrastructural performance during compound flood scenarios. Instead of depending on return
67 periods (e.g., 100 years), FLOOD-ST allows practitioners to create tailored stress test scenarios that capture
68 catchment-specific vulnerabilities and dynamic response behaviours while providing a comparable framework.
69 This scenario-based method supplements the European Floods Directive (Directive 2007/60/EC), which requires
70 the identification of flood-prone areas and the development of risk management strategies, but often relies on
71 generalised hazard metrics.

72 The described concept builds on emerging practices in risk-based and adaptive flood management (Kreibich et
73 al., 2022; Linkov et al., 2022), extending conventional hazard mapping by incorporating dynamic system
74 behaviour and failure sensitivity. Similar to multi-sectoral resilience stress tests developed for energy, health, and
75 transportation systems (Tsionis et al., 2016), the framework emphasises the exposure of systemic limits under
76 credible, yet non-deterministic, scenario configurations.

77 An important parallel can also be drawn to the financial sector, where stress tests are not only designed as
78 sensitivity analyses of individual parameters but as structured examinations of systemic vulnerabilities under



79 specific scenario logics, often evaluated through functional indicators (Obeid et al., 2023; Mustafa, 2023). The
80 distinction between parameter sensitivity and scenario-based diagnostics is further detailed in Chapter 2.2.
81 Recently, within the water management sector, the concept of stress testing has been incorporated into various
82 methodologies and emphasises, for example, the circular economy (Bouziotas et al., 2023), Water supply (Becher
83 et al., 2023) or Water Security (Verbist et al., 2020). In response, FLOOD-ST focuses on (Flash) Flood events and
84 expands the regulatory approach of the European Floods Directive by offering a flexible, user-defined method for
85 assessing system fragility. This is particularly relevant for local and regional river systems, where flash floods
86 typically occur but gauging networks are sparse and discharge records are comparatively short. In such data-limited
87 settings, traditional return-period based design approaches reach their limits, whereas scenario-based stress testing
88 can still be used to explore plausible stressors and functional system limits. It supports not only technical
89 optimisation of flood protection measures but also interdisciplinary collaboration across civil protection,
90 infrastructure management, spatial planning, and public discourse. Examples include convective rainfall on
91 saturated soils, partial failure of retention infrastructure, or the sequential loading of connected sub-catchments.
92 Instead of predicting specific events, the goal is to identify tipping points and hidden vulnerabilities through
93 plausible worst-case scenarios.

94 A tipping point is defined as a threshold beyond which a small change in a stressor (e.g., rainfall intensity or river
95 level) leads to a disproportionately large, often non-linear, change in system impacts (e.g., a sudden, rapid
96 expansion of the inundated area due to levee overtopping). Similarly, weak points could be classified (e.g.,
97 hydraulic bottlenecks, structural vulnerabilities, operational logic failures).

98 Methodologically, FLOOD-ST follows a structured decision tree: (i) selection of representative rainfall patterns
99 (archetypes), based on evolving European precipitation regimes (André et al., 2024; Leščešen et al., 2023; Wood,
100 2023); (ii) combination with antecedent moisture classes (e.g., dry, average, wet); and (iii) optional integration of
101 system stressors such as culvert blockage, pump failure or dam breach. The resulting compound events are
102 analysed through integrated hydrological, hydraulic, and infrastructure modelling to reveal critical weaknesses and
103 inform adaptive strategies.

104 By shifting the focus from hazard to system behaviour under stress, FLOOD-ST aligns with recent efforts to
105 operationalise resilience in climate-adaptive water management. As emphasised by the European Commission
106 (Tsionis et al., 2016) and Linkov et al.(2022), such approaches are crucial to bridge the gap between model-based
107 planning and real-world complexity.

108 This Technical Note introduces a transferable FLOOD-ST framework that can be adapted to different data
109 conditions and organizational settings in study areas. It offers a straightforward method for identifying system
110 thresholds, assessing resilience, and jointly developing practical, effective strategies. In doing so, it encourages
111 cross-disciplinary discussions on complex flood risks and systemic resilience, going beyond traditional risk
112 approaches (Zscheischler et al., 2018).

113 **2. Framework and Methodology of FLOOD-ST**

114 **2.1 Conceptual Foundation**

115 The suggested FLOOD-ST approach builds on emerging practices in risk-based and adaptive flood management,
116 extending conventional hazard mapping by incorporating dynamic system behaviour and failure sensitivity. The
117 approach is based on the following core principles:



- 118 • System-focused diagnostics: FLOOD-ST does not evaluate compliance with design thresholds, but
 119 assesses how systems behave under stress – including the identification of failure points and cascading
 120 vulnerabilities.
- 121 • Scenario-based realism: Test cases are created using physically plausible rainfall events, based on
 122 observed extremes, analogues (e.g., July 2021 flood), or climate-adjusted storm archetypes.
- 123 • Operational relevance: Hazard Scenarios can be designed in collaboration with emergency planning,
 124 spatial prioritization, and resilience strategies, enabling dialogue between engineers, civil protection,
 125 infrastructure managers and other stakeholders.
- 126 • Interdisciplinary and transboundary orientation: FLOOD-ST results support broader deliberation beyond
 127 traditional hazard logic, fostering a shared understanding of functional system limits of exposed areas
 128 across sectors.

129 The comparison between the risk-based hazard mapping defined by the European Floods Directive and the
 130 presented FLOOD-ST approach highlights that risk-based hazard mapping relies on static, return-period-based
 131 assumptions and typically applies a top-down, regulation-driven logic, often neglecting infrastructure failures and
 132 system interactions. In practice, these assessments are frequently organised along administrative or planning units
 133 rather than functional catchment boundaries. As a result, cross-boundary dependencies and the overall behaviour
 134 of the river system can be overlooked or underestimated when local results are interpreted in isolation. In contrast,
 135 the FLOOD-ST approach embraces plausible, climate-adaptive compound scenarios, integrates infrastructure
 136 dynamics explicitly, and emphasizes system behaviour under stress through a bottom-up, interdisciplinary process
 137 at the level of the entire river system or functional subsystem. This holistic perspective enhances system
 138 understanding by making interactions between sub-catchments, infrastructure elements and jurisdictions visible.
 139 This enables FLOOD-ST to reveal systemic vulnerabilities and guide adaptive planning beyond traditional hazard
 140 mapping constraints. (**Table 1**)

141 **Table 1: Comparison of Risk-based Hazard Mapping defined by the European Floods Directive with the adaptive FLOOD-ST**
 142 **approach**

	Risk-based Hazard Mapping	Adaptive FLOOD-ST
Output	Identify areas at risk, produce flood hazard and risk maps, and develop flood risk management plans	Identification of weak points regarding the extent of flooding, derived from scenarios, peak discharge, dam overflow, etc.
Outcome	deterministic design checks	stakeholder-specific diagnostics of system behaviour
Application	Standard planning, zoning and building regulations	Adaptive planning, worst-case planning and emergency management
Direction of action/effect	Top down - Centrally specified inputs, standardized maps	Bottom up – Sub catchment-specific and local constraints drive scenario design and decisions



Basis	Static, based on historical return periods, is often aggregated, neglects flood peaks and timing	Meteorologically and physically plausible trigger events, e.g., future-relevant rainfall archetypes (non-return-based), climate-adaptive, focused on extremes
Hydrometeorological Assumptions	Single event with fixed return period and rainfall amount	Combination of scenarios (stationary, convective, multi-cell) + antecedent moisture conditions
Consideration of Infrastructure Failures	Not considered or strongly simplified	Explicit integration: bridge blockage, pump failure, retention basin overflow, etc.
System Behaviour	Linear, deterministic runoff behaviour	Nonlinear, sensitive to the interaction of rainfall and infrastructure behaviour
Involvement of Other Sectors	Technically oriented, less interdisciplinary collaboration	Interdisciplinary, also on the public and decision-makers
Plausibility in Climate Change Context	Questionable: often based on past data only	Oriented towards climate adaptation, can be combined with future analogues or ensemble forecasts

143

144 While FLOOD-ST builds on established hydrological and hydraulic modelling practices, it differs from
 145 conventional applications used in flood risk management. Current standard procedures, such as probabilistic
 146 design approaches under the EU Floods Directive, return-period-based flood hazard mapping, or event-specific
 147 simulations following national frameworks, primarily focus on regulatory compliance and deterministic design
 148 thresholds (e.g., a 100-year return period). Likewise, numerical models are generally used to reproduce observed
 149 or statistically derived flood events for planning and infrastructure design.

150 FLOOD-ST, in contrast, functions as a complementary diagnostic layer on top of these tools, using the same
 151 modelling environments but shifting their purpose toward scenario-based system stress testing. Instead of
 152 confirming design performance, it examines functional limits, cascading failures, and adaptive capacity across
 153 various plausible stress scenarios. This approach shifts the role of established models from predictive tools to
 154 resilience diagnostics for strategic planning and flood response capacity.

155 2.2 FLOOD-ST Structure and Simulation Logic

156 The framework methodically combines various design trigger events (such as severe discharge amounts or
 157 stationary/mobile convective storm events) with antecedent catchment conditions (e.g. dry, average, or wet soil
 158 states) and two levels of simulation: A functional system test and an operational infrastructure stressor input (e.g.
 159 flood wave volumes, overtopping, clogged bridges or pump failures). This results in a comprehensive set of
 160 combined simulation scenarios (S1, S2, S3, ...) that capture both meteorological and hydrological variability,
 161 along with system behaviour. The goal is to transform conventional flood simulations into system-level stress tests
 162 that reveal how, where, and why a catchment reaches its functional limits. **Figure 1** illustrates this logic, comparing
 163 the usual hazard-based workflow (left) with the scenario-driven diagnostic process of FLOOD-ST (right).



164 Each scenario run produces diagnostic output based on functional impact indicators, such as inundation extent,
165 peak discharge or timing and location of critical exposure. The resulting multi-dimensional dataset forms the basis
166 for a systematic weak-point analysis, enabling the identification of critical failure pathways and operational limits
167 under stress. The following subsection describes each component of the framework in more detail.

168 FLOOD-ST significantly differs from traditional model calibration and sensitivity analysis. Calibration aims to
169 fine-tune model parameters to fit observed data, while sensitivity analysis examines how variations in individual
170 inputs impact model outputs. In contrast, FLOOD-ST does not focus on parameter optimization or uncertainty
171 quantification. Instead, it aims to identify systemic weaknesses and failure modes under specific, plausible stress
172 scenarios.



173 **(1) Definition of Design Trigger Event**

174 The classification and generation of stressor rainfall scenarios in FLOOD-ST are based on recent advances in
175 understanding how precipitation patterns in Europe are changing under climate change. Convective storm events,
176 whether stationary or translating, have shown disproportionately higher intensification at sub-daily timescales
177 (Wood, 2023; Leščešen et al., 2023; André et al., 2024), which are especially important for flash flood
178 development.

179 Furthermore, André et al.(2024) identified different regimes of precipitation change across Europe and the
180 Mediterranean, emphasizing an increase in the frequency of short-duration, high-intensity rainfall, especially in
181 convectively driven systems. Climate projections indicate that changes in short-duration extreme rainfall events
182 will vary significantly across Europe. In particular, southern and western regions are expected to experience a
183 stronger increase in 3-hourly precipitation extremes than in daily totals (Scoccimarro et al., 2015). Beyond
184 intensity, recent regional climate model analyses indicate that the spatial extent of heavy precipitation events is
185 also projected to increase, i.e. larger areas are affected simultaneously by intense rainfall (Matte et al., 2022).
186 When larger fractions of a river network receive heavy rainfall at the same time, system behaviour shifts from
187 isolated local hotspots to more coherent flood waves and bottlenecks at tributary confluences and downstream
188 control structures.

189 These changes challenge traditional event classification and suggest the need for archetype-based rainfall
190 definitions that better reflect future hazard patterns rather than relying on historical statistical norms. Plausible
191 high-impact rainfall scenarios are suggested based on regional hydrometeorological features and can be
192 automatically produced by a rainfall data generator (Welten et al., 2022). Three rainfall archetypes of rainfall
193 intensities of e.g., 100–180 mm in 3-6 hours can be differentiated:

- 194 • Stationary cloudburst: Localised, high-intensity rainfall with spatially fixed cores.
- 195 • Translating convective storm: A moving storm cell sweeping across the catchment
- 196 • Multi-cell compound event: Overlapping or successive rain cells over the same region, often associated
197 with storm clustering.

198 For comparability across archetypes, event-integrated rainfall and event duration are held constant while only the
199 spatio-temporal organization is varied. Each stress test is conditioned on shared targets (e.g., a specified
200 accumulated rainfall amount within an application-specific accumulation window, such as a 3–6 h window for
201 convective flash-flood applications and a consistent hyetograph envelope), ensuring that differences in outcomes
202 reflect pattern effects rather than amount or length. The same principle can also be applied to longer accumulation
203 periods (e.g., 12–48 h totals for regional flooding events similar to July 2021), in which case the design trigger
204 event represents a different type of flood rather than a flash flood. Beyond the suggested classification (stationary,
205 translating, multi-cell), data-driven generators can sample diverse, physically plausible realisations that honour
206 these constraints (preserving totals, duration, and optional peak-intensity limits/spatial footprints), thereby
207 expanding the scenario space without sacrificing comparability.

208 **(2) Antecedent Condition Scenarios**



209 Catchment response to rainfall stressors greatly depends on antecedent moisture conditions (AMC), which
210 influence initial infiltration capacity, saturation excess runoff, and delayed contributions through interflow and
211 baseflow processes (Ye et al., 2023; Staudinger et al., 2025). FLOOD-ST explicitly captures this by defining soil
212 moisture scenarios, e.g., ranging from dry (low antecedent moisture) to fully saturated (high antecedent moisture)
213 states. These scenarios can be implemented into the modelling approach using established concepts such as SCS-
214 CN-based modelling or through soil water content thresholds in physically-based hydrological models (Godara et
215 al., 2023).

216 Beyond surface runoff generation, antecedent hydrological conditions influence system behaviour through
217 hydrological memory effects, which are the cumulative impacts of past rainfall events or groundwater recharge
218 dynamics. These enhancing effects are especially significant in storm clustering scenarios, where a secondary
219 event can surpass system capacity even with moderate rainfall because of carry-over saturation from an earlier
220 storm.

221 Where applicable, FLOOD-ST also includes optional model initializations of reservoirs and dams, urban retention
222 basins, and groundwater storages to represent ongoing discharge or limited buffering capacity. This allows
223 simulation of realistic conditions where minor to moderate rainfall can cause disproportionate impacts when
224 system capacity is already compromised (Fleischmann et al., 2019; Hanazaki et al., 2022; Shen et al., 2025).

225 (3) **Two-staged Simulation Approach**

226 To balance computational feasibility and analytical depth, FLOOD-ST follows a staged simulation logic:

227 **Level 1: General system analysis:** The catchment is modeled without explicit infrastructure (dams, bridges,
228 pumps), focusing on terrain, land cover, and runoff generation to understand natural thresholds and response
229 patterns.

230 **Level 2: Infrastructure Stress Testing:** Elements such as dams, bridges, sewer systems and pumping stations are
231 explicitly modeled with operational behaviour and failure variants as a result of defined events like clogged
232 bridges, power outages or flood protection measures (e.g. dam release, blockage of bridges, reached sewer system
233 and pumping capacities).

234 (4) **Combined scenarios**

235 While worst-case scenarios like AMC III are crucial for emergency preparedness, the full diagnostic capability of
236 FLOOD-ST lies in analyzing the entire spectrum of antecedent conditions, including average scenarios such as
237 AMC II. These mid-range scenarios can reveal hidden vulnerabilities that are not apparent in either dry (AMC I)
238 or saturated (AMC III) conditions. For instance, local backwater effects from undersized culverts or
239 malfunctioning retention basin controls may only emerge when inflows reach hydraulic thresholds but are not high
240 enough to cause overtopping. The logic of pump control systems may fail under partial stress, yet they remain
241 inactive in AMC I and become overwhelmed in AMC III.

242 Additionally, AMC identifies further compound risks. Insufficient small discharge amounts for cooling water can
243 threaten power supply, raising the risk of pump failure due to grid instability. Infrastructure elements such as



244 embankments or infiltration zones may suffer material fatigue under extended intermediate loads specific to AMC
245 II conditions.

246 This scenario diversity provides added value for various stakeholder groups. State authorities, municipalities, civil
247 protection units, engineering offices, and policymakers can develop customized insights by identifying
248 vulnerabilities and control logic failures to support effective planning, investment decisions and emergency
249 protocols. FLOOD-ST thus shifts the focus from deterministic design checks to stakeholder-specific diagnostics
250 of system resilience.

251 **(5) / (6) Weak point identification and systems diagnostic**

252 Each FLOOD-ST scenario is assessed based on hydrodynamic and functional indicators that reflect how the system
253 responds under stress:

- 254 • Time-based indicators: Duration of critical infrastructure disruption (e.g., hours of main road
255 inaccessibility, downtime of a key pumping station).
- 256 • Network-based indicators: Degree of fragmentation of the transport network; number of critical
257 facilities (hospitals, schools) isolated and loss of access along predefined emergency routes.
- 258 • Cascading failure indicators: Identification of the sequence and propagation of failures (e.g., pump
259 failure leads to substation flooding, causing a wider power outage).

260 Depending on data availability and the specific application, these network and cascading indicators can be
261 implemented at different levels of complexity. In the current FLOOD-ST applications, they are derived from
262 deterministic overlays between flood-depth rasters and simplified infrastructure graphs (e.g. road networks,
263 locations of substations, water and wastewater assets). Thresholds for functional failure are defined together with
264 infrastructure operators, for instance, by specifying minimum elevation and allowable water depth at critical
265 components or by setting access criteria for key routes. This avoids the need for a full probabilistic reliability
266 model of the networks while still revealing where redundancies may fail and which assets or areas become isolated
267 under stress.

269 The Indicators furthermore include flood wave volume, peak discharge, extent and depth of inundation, as well as
270 the timing and location of critical exposure. Special attention is given to failure triggers such as overtopping,
271 culvert or bridge blockage, backwater effects, or pump station failure. This helps identify not only hazard levels
272 but also tipping points where local failures could lead to broader system disruptions.

273 Unlike traditional approaches that focus on regulatory exceedance, FLOOD-ST takes a functional diagnostic
274 approach that highlights how systems behave under combined loads. This aligns with recent resilience stress
275 testing methods that view risk as a result of systemic interactions and sequential dependencies (Balakrishnan and
276 Cassottana, 2022; Linkov et al., 2022). Scenario results are therefore evaluated by stakeholders not just for
277 compliance but to identify vulnerabilities, assess operational limits, and determine lead times for intervention.

278 By emphasizing dynamic responses instead of static hazard zones, FLOOD-ST enables a more accurate assessment
279 of vulnerability and strengthens the connection between modelling results and real-world risk management.



Example JCAR (Stresstest Rur)¹:

In the transboundary Rur catchment (Belgium–Germany–Netherlands), FLOOD-ST is applied within the Joint Cooperation for Applied scientific Research (JCAR) programme to identify systemic vulnerabilities under extreme and compound flood conditions. The scenario development follows a progression from meteorological drivers via hydraulic structures to special compound situations. At the meteorological level, both historic and synthetic extremes are considered, for instance a “2021-like” convective rainfall event with up to 200 mm precipitation in 48 hours, combined with fully saturated soils, which is translated into distributed runoff using the mesoscale Hydrological Model (mHM). Based on this input, the response of the major reservoirs in the river system, Urft, Rur, Olef, Heimbach and Obermaubach, is tested under near-exhaustion of retention capacity and emergency spillway operation. Coupling reservoir operation models (TALSIM) with hydraulic models such as Delft3D-FM and HydroAS2D enables the analysis of system behaviour both with and without active dam influence. Finally, special compound situations are incorporated, including the combination of dam exhaustion with simultaneous backwater effects at the Rur confluence, extreme discharges in tributaries beyond reservoir control such as the Wurm, or the hypothetical future use of the Indesee lignite pit as a flood retention basin. This integrated setup demonstrates how FLOOD-ST within JCAR exposes systemic tipping points, identifies failure pathways, and provides actionable insights for adaptive, cross-border flood risk management.

280

Example EU FlashFloodBreaker²:

In a sub catchment of the German river Emscher (North Rhine-Westphalia) in a highly urbanized area, stress tests were designed around retentions basins, critical pump stations as well as numerous culverts and bridges. A wet antecedent condition (AMC III) was combined with a multi-cell convective storm event (3 hours, 120 mm) to establish the baseline stressor. This scenario was then systematically expanded by introducing infrastructure disruptions, such as (i) failure of the pump stations, and (ii) clogging of of culverts and bridges, tested both for upstream and downstream locations.

From these combinations alone, at least four compound scenarios emerge: (1) extreme rainfall under wet conditions with full system functionality, (2) rainfall with pump failure, (3) rainfall with partial bridge blockage upstream, and (4) rainfall with partial bridge blockage downstream. Each setup highlights different failure-prone areas: loss of pumping capacity increases surcharge risk in urbanized sections, upstream clogging causes backwater buildup and local overtopping, while downstream blockage magnifies retention and raises the potential for upstream inundation. By systematically varying these stressors, FLOOD-ST not only maps inundation patterns but also explicitly diagnoses where and why systemic failure occurs offering actionable insights for infrastructure operators and emergency planners.

¹ Joint Cooperation for Applied scientific Research to Accelerate Transboundary Regional Adaptation to Climate Extremes, 2023–2028, coordinated by Deltares, with partners from Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. More information: <https://www.jcar-atrace.eu/>

²Interreg North-West Europe, Project ID NWE0200167, 2024–2028, co-funded by the European Regional Development Fund, coordinated by Emschergenossenschaft/Lippeverband, Germany. More information: <https://flashfloodbreaker.nweurope.eu>



281 **2.3 Tool Integration, Model Environment and Transferability**

282 FLOOD-ST is a platform-independent and modular framework that can be implemented using a variety of
283 hydrological and hydraulic modelling environments, depending on data availability, user objectives, and local
284 context and the specific stress-test questions to be addressed. The standard workflow begins with rainfall-runoff
285 modelling to characterize the hydrological response of the catchment, followed by one- or two-dimensional
286 hydrodynamic simulations that represent flow dynamics across terrain and infrastructure systems. Depending on
287 whether the stress test focuses on, river flooding, urban pluvial impacts or cascading infrastructure failures,
288 different model complexities and couplings (e.g. surface–sewer interaction, explicit infrastructure modules) can
289 be selected within the same FLOOD-ST framework.

290 Key infrastructure elements such as buildings, bridges, pumps, and retention basins are integrated, allowing the
291 simulation of system behaviour under stress with operational relevance. GIS-based analyses support the spatial
292 evaluation of exposure, land use characteristics and connectivity, enabling the identification of vulnerable or
293 failure-prone areas (=weak points) under specific scenario configurations.

294 FLOOD-ST is designed to be scalable across levels of complexity. While high-resolution data improves local
295 accuracy, strategic diagnostics can also be conducted using coarser inputs if the core diagnostic questions are
296 clearly defined. This ensures applicability across different geographic settings and institutional environments, from
297 local vulnerability screening to more complex infrastructure-focused stress testing.

298 **2.4 Current Application and Practice-Based Implementation**

299 The FLOOD-ST framework is currently being developed and refined through several ongoing research projects,
300 offering practical insights into its operation across various spatial, institutional, and technical contexts. Two key
301 examples are the EU-funded FlashFloodBreaker project and the JCAR Program.

302 Within the JCAR ATRACE program, FLOOD-ST is utilised to investigate system vulnerabilities in transboundary
303 regional river basins, with the goal of developing actionable adaptation measures. The project's main objective is
304 to enhance cooperation in flood and drought management and research, accelerating transboundary regional
305 adaptation to climate extremes. Key objectives include helping regional governments prepare more effectively for
306 extreme events and fostering long-term partnerships between European research institutes to enhance the shared
307 knowledge base for transboundary river basins.

308 In the context of the EU FlashFloodBreaker Project, FLOOD-ST is part of a multinational effort to enhance early
309 warning systems and response strategies for short lead-time flash floods. The framework is applied in small- to
310 mid-sized catchments across the Netherlands, Ireland, and Germany, where convective storm scenarios with
311 rainfall intensities are generated using both synthetic rainfall generators and observational analogues. By
312 combining these high-intensity events with antecedent moisture states, the stress tests assess bottlenecks such as
313 clogged bridges and non-responsive pumping stations (**Figure 2**). Importantly, stakeholder engagement is central
314 to this effort, as civil protection units and municipalities co-develop scenario configurations to ensure operational
315 relevance and facilitate transboundary exchange.

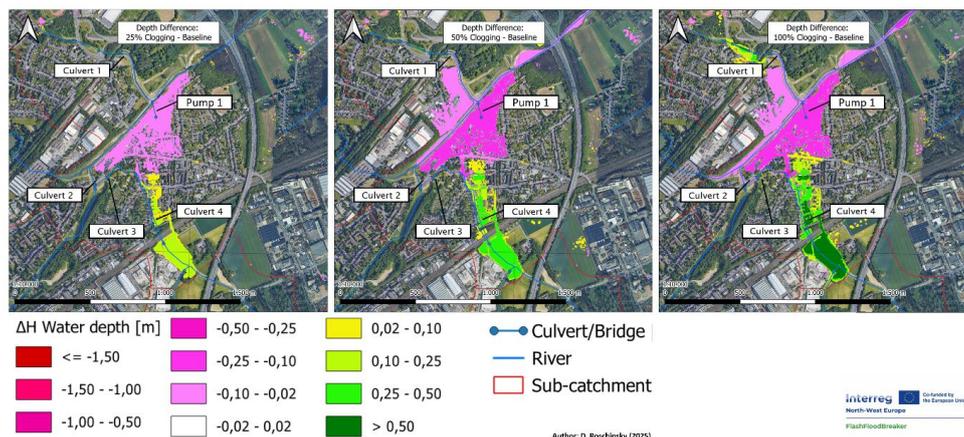


Figure 2: Generalized Example of clogging scenarios analysed in the EU FlashFloodBreaker Project

316 To ensure that the simulations accurately reflect real-world concerns, stakeholders were involved in both projects
317 with municipalities, infrastructure operators, and disaster management authorities. These interviews helped
318 identify concrete needs and expectations for stress test outputs, ensuring that results are directly applicable for
319 planning, prioritisation, and crisis coordination. This stakeholder engagement operationalises the 'bottom-up'
320 principle (**Table 1**). Instead of modellers defining stressors solely on technical criteria, the scenario portfolio is
321 co-developed with infrastructure operators and civil protection units. This anchors the analysis in lived experience
322 and operational reality, greatly increasing its relevance and legitimacy.

323 These ongoing applications demonstrate the adaptability of FLOOD-ST across various use cases. Whether
324 improving short-term operational decision-making or supporting long-term planning, the framework provides a
325 structured yet flexible diagnostic tool to identify weaknesses, test strategies, and inform adaptive system design in
326 response to intensifying weather extremes. A key strength of FLOOD-ST is that these stress tests are not conducted
327 as purely expert-driven modelling exercises, but as co-designed, joint analyses: scenarios, indicators and
328 interpretations are developed together with authorities, infrastructure operators and emergency services, turning
329 each application into a shared learning process across institutions.

330 **3. Benefits, Limitations and Decision-Making**

331 **3.1 From Protection Targets to System Optimization**

332 Rather than assessing whether specific flood protection goals are met under design events, FLOOD-ST focuses on
333 how systems respond under plausible, compound conditions, revealing failure mechanisms and systemic gaps
334 (Chen et al., 2023; Wang and Wang, 2024). Traditional hazard mapping usually depicts static flooding based on
335 return periods (such as 100 years), meeting regulatory requirements, but may overlook the dynamic, interconnected
336 nature of system behaviour during actual flood events (**Figure 1**).

337 FLOOD-ST adds value by enabling scenario-based diagnostics of system performance under plausible worst-case
338 scenarios (avoiding the term *extreme*, which is often tied to return-period framing). It uncovers hidden
339 vulnerabilities, such as blocked culverts, delayed pump activation, or cascading failures related to power outages.
340 It promotes an optimisation mindset by enhancing functional robustness, rather than merely meeting deterministic
341 design thresholds. Crucially, the same scenarios can be re-run with alternative structural or operational measures



342 (e.g. temporary barriers, modified pump or reservoir rules, changes in emergency routing), allowing decision-
343 makers to test and compare the effectiveness of adaptation options before implementation. In doing so, it fosters a
344 deeper understanding of operational tipping points and response capabilities. Therefore, Flood-ST helps quantify
345 different facets of resilience. For example:

- 346 • Absorptive Capacity: Identifying the thresholds at which the system fails to absorb the shock (e.g., dam
347 overtopping).
- 348 • Adaptive Capacity: Testing the effectiveness of operational measures (e.g., modified reservoir release
349 rules, revised pump-trigger levels, temporary flood barriers) under stress.
- 350 • Restorative Capacity: Using scenario outputs to estimate recovery times for critical infrastructure.

351 **3.2 Participation and Risk Perception as Co-benefits**

352 Beyond technical diagnostics, FLOOD-ST promotes interdisciplinary teamwork and participatory reflection on
353 local flood resilience. By involving civil protection units, municipalities, infrastructure operators, and residents in
354 scenario development, FLOOD-ST encourages shared learning and empowers stakeholders to face
355 hydrometeorological challenges. This participatory method not only enhances planning quality but also offers
356 psychological benefits: it increases awareness of uncertainty and systemic vulnerabilities and supports both
357 individual and institutional preparedness (Wang et al., 2022; Rogers et al., 2020; Tate et al., 2021). By highlighting
358 the full range of possible compound outcomes, FLOOD-ST fosters proactive behaviour and personal responsibility
359 in flood-prone areas, bridging the gap between technical modelling and societal adaptation.

360 **3.3 Current Limitations**

361 FLOOD-ST's diagnostic value depends on input data, especially infrastructure and topography. Simplified
362 configurations are possible, but high-resolution applications (Level 2; see 2.2 FLOOD-ST Structure and
363 Simulation Logic) require expertise. As a consequence, the suitability of the results is strongly scale-dependent.
364 Catchment-wide, coarse-resolution applications provide a good understanding of system-level behaviour (e.g.
365 timing and routing of flood waves, identification of bottlenecks between sub-catchments), but they are not
366 appropriate for deriving parcel- or building-scale damage estimates. Conversely, high-resolution urban
367 applications can represent local inundation patterns and impacts on individual assets, but usually cover smaller
368 domains and specific hotspot areas only. Users therefore need to interpret FLOOD-ST outputs in line with the
369 spatial resolution and purpose of the underlying model setup.

370 Realism relies on rainfall archetypes and assumptions about moisture and system states, which are challenging in
371 complex or data-limited regions. Unlike hazard maps, FLOOD-ST doesn't calculate probabilities; instead, it
372 identifies weak points and response patterns under extreme scenarios. This is useful for planning and discussions,
373 but less suitable for formal risk or cost-benefit analyses. It only tests predefined scenario types, system setups, and
374 failure modes, missing unexpected behaviours, dependencies or combined effects outside the model. A
375 comprehensive view and expert input are essential to enhance the system's understanding.

376 A further limitation, inherent to any scenario-based approach, is the definition of plausible archetypes. Future
377 research should therefore explore more systematic methods for scenario discovery, such as adversarial testing,
378 using machine learning (e.g., generative adversarial networks or reinforcement learning) to discover the most
379 impactful yet physically plausible spatio-temporal storm patterns for a given system and stochastic exploration,
380 i.e., systematically sampling the full parameter space of storm generators (e.g., duration, intensity, spatial extent,



381 movement speed) rather than relying on a discrete set of archetypes, to reveal potential non-linear response
382 thresholds.

383 Another limitation relates to the representation of interdependent infrastructure networks (e.g., electricity and
384 transport). In current applications, network effects are measured using heuristic depth thresholds and graph-based
385 connectivity metrics, rather than fully probabilistic reliability models that incorporate explicit redundancy and
386 detailed fragility curves. More advanced approaches to infrastructure networks, therefore, require additional data
387 and specialised modelling tools and are considered extensions of the framework rather than part of its core
388 implementation.

389 **3.4 Integration into Planning and Governance**

390 FLOOD-ST offers multiple access points for decision-making, supporting local climate adaptation by identifying
391 failure zones, evaluating emergency access and stress-testing infrastructure. It helps improve Flood Risk
392 Management Plans, particularly in relation to climate change and systemic stressors. Instead of replacing
393 traditional tools, FLOOD-ST complements them with stress diagnostics to highlight areas that require caution,
394 redundancy or improved coordination. Because the stress tests are carried out on the full hydrological system rather
395 than on isolated administrative units, they foster a shared understanding of overall system functioning and cross-
396 boundary dependencies. It highlights thorough evaluations and coordinates early cross-sectoral adaptation to
397 develop technical diagnostics. This process aids in creating a shared understanding of system weaknesses and
398 responsibilities, potentially boosting the legitimacy and ownership of the resulting adaptation strategies.

399 **4. Conclusion and Policy Implications**

400 The escalation of hydrometeorological extremes in Central Europe and beyond underscores the urgent need to
401 reframe flood risk management in terms of systemic vulnerability and dynamic stress exposure. As highlighted in
402 the 2025 Global Assessment Report by UNDRR, disaster risk has become an emergent property of interconnected
403 systems, no longer effectively captured by traditional design thresholds or hazard-return concepts (United Nations
404 Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, 2025). FLOOD-ST addresses this challenge by providing a structured,
405 scenario-based framework that allows decision-makers to test the operational limits of water systems and uncover
406 hidden weaknesses before they lead to failures.

407 The FLOOD-ST framework is ideally suited for implementation within a Digital Twin (DT) environment. A
408 catchment-scale DT can provide the persistent, high-fidelity model integration (hydrology, hydraulics, transport,
409 energy) required for the analysis. In this context, FLOOD-ST functions as the 'scenario engine' or 'interrogation
410 tool' used to systematically probe the DT for vulnerabilities, test adaptive management strategies in silico before
411 they are implemented and provide a dynamic, rather than static, assessment of systemic resilience.

412 The recommended use of FLOOD-ST across various catchment types within the project environments will
413 demonstrate its flexibility, especially where critical infrastructure, heavy rainfall, and short warning times
414 coincide. Besides its technical advantages, FLOOD-ST can serve as a driver for organisational learning by shifting
415 planning from mere compliance to understanding the consequences: what happens when systems are
416 overwhelmed, how failures spread, and which points can be targeted to interrupt these failure chains.

417 A key pathway for future innovation involves closing the socio-operational feedback loop. Currently, FLOOD-ST
418 is introduced as a diagnostic tool to *inform* stakeholders (Section 3.2). The next iteration of this framework should
419 focus on modelling how stakeholders *respond* to stress test outcomes. For example, how does a shared
420 understanding of a specific vulnerability (such as a critical bridge) influence land-use planning, investment



421 choices, or emergency response procedures? These human-system adaptations can then be fed back into the model
422 environment, fostering a dynamic, multi-stage stress test that evaluates adaptive resilience over time rather than
423 merely assessing snapshot vulnerability.
424 In line with the UNDRR’s recommendation for future-oriented risk governance (United Nations Office for Disaster
425 Risk Reduction, 2025), FLOOD-ST enables resilience foresight by combining hydrological modelling with stress
426 diagnostics and practical mitigation strategies. Its integration into strategic spatial planning, emergency response
427 or climate adaptation policies helps stakeholders shift from passive risk anticipation to proactive system design.
428 To fully harness its potential, FLOOD-ST should be institutionalised not as a replacement for existing tools, but
429 as a complementary layer of analysis, bridging the gap between probabilistic risk modelling and qualitative
430 decision-making. Its implementation requires political commitment, cross-sector collaboration, and a willingness
431 to engage with uncertainty as a planning asset rather than a barrier. As systemic risk becomes the new normal,
432 FLOOD-ST offers a methodological and conceptual contribution to strengthen preparedness, adaptability, and
433 long-term resilience in the face of deep uncertainty (Figure 3).

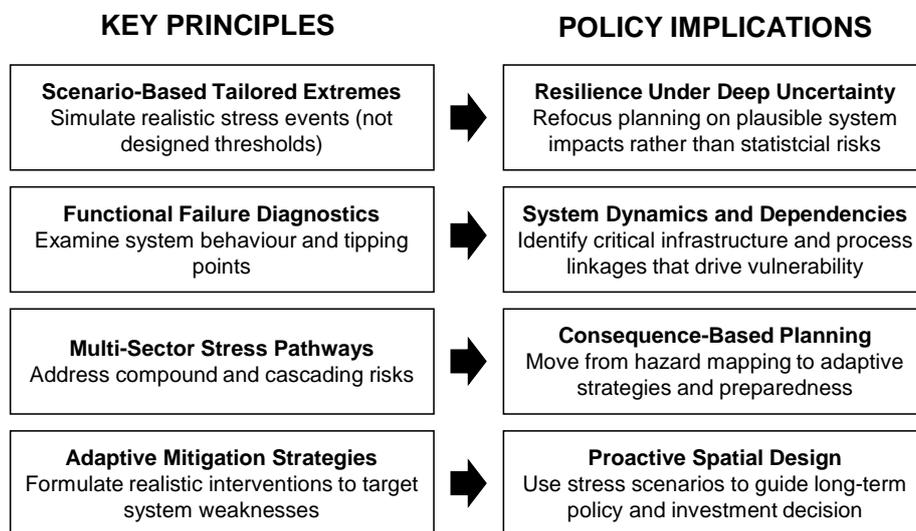


Figure 3: Conceptual transition from conventional hazard-based planning toward scenario-driven FLOOD-ST methodology

434 Author contributions

435 JR developed the overall concept of the study and the FLOOD-ST framework. JR led the methodological design,
436 conducted the stress tests and analysed the case study within the FFB Project context, and wrote the manuscript.
437 EMK contributed to the conceptual framework, manuscript drafting, and revisions. PH and AM contributed to the
438 conceptual framework and analysed the case study within the JCAR Program context. All co-authors helped refine
439 the methodology, provided contextual insights, and reviewed and edited the paper.

440 Competing interests

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



442 **Disclaimer**

443 Any opinions, findings and conclusions expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily
444 reflect the views of the partner institutions, funding agencies, or competent authorities involved in the underlying
445 projects.

446 **Acknowledgements**

447 The authors would like to thank all project partners, water authorities and emergency services who contributed
448 data, local knowledge and feedback to the development and application of the FLOOD-ST framework. Their
449 practical experience and engagement in joint workshops and discussions within the ongoing research projects
450 JCAR ATRACE and Interreg North-West Europe FlashFloodBreaker were essential to shaping the stress-test
451 approach and interpreting the results. The authors also acknowledge the support of the technical and administrative
452 staff at their home institutions.

453 **Financial support**

454 This research has been supported by the programme Joint Cooperation for Applied scientific Research to
455 Accelerate Transboundary Regional Adaptation to Climate Extremes (JCAR; 2024–2028), coordinated by Deltares
456 with partners from Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands (more information available at:
457 <https://www.jcar-atrace.eu>). In addition, this work has received funding from the Interreg North-West Europe
458 Programme (project “FlashFloodBreaker”, project ID NWE0200167; 2024–2028), co-funded by the European
459 Regional Development Fund and coordinated by Emschergenossenschaft/Lippeverband, Germany (more
460 information available at: <https://flashfloodbreaker.nweurope.eu>).

461

462

463

464 **References**

- 465 André, J., D'Andrea, F., Drobinski, P., and Muller, C.: Regimes of Precipitation Change Over Europe and the
466 Mediterranean, *JGR Atmospheres*, 129, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2023JD040413>, 2024.
- 467 Balakrishnan, S. and Cassottana, B.: InfraRisk: An open-source simulation platform for resilience analysis in
468 interconnected power–water–transport networks, *Sustainable Cities and Society*, 83, 103963,
469 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2022.103963>, 2022.
- 470 Becher, O., Pant, R., Verschuur, J., Mandal, A., Paltan, H., Lawless, M., Raven, E., and Hall, J.: A Multi-Hazard
471 Risk Framework to Stress-Test Water Supply Systems to Climate-Related Disruptions, *Earth's Future*, 11,
472 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2022EF002946>, 2023.
- 473 Beniston, M., Stephenson, D. B., Christensen, O. B., Ferro, C. A. T., Frei, C., Goyette, S., Halsnaes, K., Holt, T.,
474 Jylhä, K., Koffi, B., Palutikof, J., Schöll, R., Semmler, T., and Woth, K.: Future extreme events in European
475 climate: an exploration of regional climate model projections, *Climatic Change*, 81, 71–95,
476 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-006-9226-z>, 2007.
- 477 Bouziotas, D., Stofberg, S., Frijns, J., Nikolopoulos, D., and Makropoulos, C.: Assessing the resilience of
478 circularity in water management: a modeling framework to redesign and stress-test regional systems under
479 uncertainty, *Urban Water Journal*, 20, 532–549, <https://doi.org/10.1080/1573062X.2023.2190030>, 2023.



- 480 Chen, J., Tian, Y., Zhang, S., Li, Y., and Guo, Z.: Study of Urban Flooding Response under Superstandard
481 Conditions, *Water*, 15, 1492, <https://doi.org/10.3390/w15081492>, 2023.
- 482 Cheng, L. and AghaKouchak, A.: Nonstationary precipitation Intensity-Duration-Frequency curves for
483 infrastructure design in a changing climate, *Scientific reports*, 4, 7093, <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep07093>,
484 2014.
- 485 Fleischmann, A., Collischonn, W., Paiva, R., and Tucci, C. E.: Modeling the role of reservoirs versus floodplains
486 on large-scale river hydrodynamics, *Nat Hazards*, 99, 1075–1104, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-019-03797-9>, 2019.
- 488 Godara, N., Bruland, O., and Alfredsen, K.: Simulation of flash flood peaks in a small and steep catchment using
489 rain-on-grid technique, *J Flood Risk Management*, 16, <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfr3.12898>, 2023.
- 490 Hanazaki, R., Yamazaki, D., and Yoshimura, K.: Development of a Reservoir Flood Control Scheme for Global
491 Flood Models, *J Adv Model Earth Syst*, 14, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021MS002944>, 2022.
- 492 Hosseinzadehtalaei, P., Tabari, H., and Willems, P.: Climate change impact on short-duration extreme
493 precipitation and intensity–duration–frequency curves over Europe, *Journal of Hydrology*, 590, 125249,
494 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.125249>, 2020.
- 495 Kreibich, H., van Loon, A. F., Schröter, K., Ward, P. J., Mazzoleni, M., Sairam, N., Abeshu, G. W., Agafonova,
496 S., AghaKouchak, A., Aksoy, H., Alvarez-Garreton, C., Aznar, B., Balkhi, L., Barendrecht, M. H.,
497 Biancamaria, S., Bos-Burgering, L., Bradley, C., Budiyono, Y., Buytaert, W., Capewell, L., Carlson, H.,
498 Cavus, Y., Couasnon, A., Coxon, G., Daliakopoulos, I., Ruiter, M. C. de, Delus, C., Erfurt, M., Esposito, G.,
499 François, D., Frappart, F., Freer, J., Frolova, N., Gain, A. K., Grillakis, M., Grima, J. O., Guzmán, D. A.,
500 Huning, L. S., Ionita, M., Kharlamov, M., Khoi, D. N., Kieboom, N., Kireeva, M., Koutroulis, A., Lavado-
501 Casimiro, W., Li, H.-Y., LLasat, M. C., Macdonald, D., Mård, J., Mathew-Richards, H., McKenzie, A.,
502 Mejia, A., Mendiondo, E. M., Mens, M., Mobini, S., Mohor, G. S., Nagavciuc, V., Ngo-Duc, T., Thao
503 Nguyen Huynh, T., Nhi, P. T. T., Petrucci, O., Nguyen, H. Q., Quintana-Seguí, P., Razavi, S., Ridolfi, E.,
504 Riegel, J., Sadik, M. S., Savelli, E., Sazonov, A., Sharma, S., Sørensen, J., Arguello Souza, F. A., Stahl, K.,
505 Steinhausen, M., Stoelzle, M., Szalińska, W., Tang, Q., Tian, F., Tokarczyk, T., Tovar, C., van Tran, T. T.,
506 van Huijgevoort, M. H. J., van Vliet, M. T. H., Vorogushyn, S., Wagener, T., Wang, Y., Wendt, D. E.,
507 Wickham, E., Yang, L., Zambrano-Bigiarini, M., Blöschl, G., and Di Baldassarre, G.: The challenge of
508 unprecedented floods and droughts in risk management, *Nature*, 608, 80–86, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-04917-5>, 2022.
- 510 Lehmkuhl, F., Schüttrumpf, H., Schwarzbauer, J., Brüll, C., Dietze, M., Letmathe, P., Völker, C., and Hollert,
511 H.: Assessment of the 2021 summer flood in Central Europe, *Environ Sci Eur*, 34,
512 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12302-022-00685-1>, 2022.
- 513 Leščešen, I., Basarin, B., Podračanin, Z., and Mesaroš, M.: Changes in Annual and Seasonal Extreme
514 Precipitation over Southeastern Europe, 48, <https://doi.org/10.3390/environsciproc2023026048>, 2023.
- 515 Linkov, I., Trump, B. D., Trump, J., Pescaroli, G., Hynes, W., Mavrodieva, A., and Panda, A.: Resilience stress
516 testing for critical infrastructure, *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, 82, 103323,
517 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijdr.2022.103323>, 2022.
- 518 Matte, D., Christensen, J. H., and Ozturk, T.: Spatial extent of precipitation events: when big is getting bigger,
519 *Clim Dyn*, 58, 1861–1875, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-021-05998-0>, 2022.



- 520 Meyer, J., Neuper, M., Mathias, L., Zehe, E., and Pfister, L.: Atmospheric conditions favouring extreme
521 precipitation and flash floods in temperate regions of Europe, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 26, 6163–6183,
522 <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-26-6163-2022>, 2022.
- 523 Mustafa, O. A. O.: Sudanese Banking Sector and Stress Testing, *AEF*, 10, 11,
524 <https://doi.org/10.11114/aef.v10i3.6063>, 2023.
- 525 Nayak, A., Gentine, P., and Lall, U.: A nonstationary stochastic simulator for clustered regional hydroclimatic
526 extremes to characterize compound flood risk, *Journal of Hydrology X*, 25, 100189,
527 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hydroa.2024.100189>, 2024.
- 528 Obeid, R., Abu Moisa, G., and Moash, M.: A Guide on the Application of Micro and Macro Stress Testing,
529 *SSRN Journal*, <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4407901>, 2023.
- 530 Rogers, B. C., Bertram, N., Gersonius, B., Gunn, A., Löwe, R., Murphy, C., Pasma, R., Radhakrishnan, M.,
531 Ulrich, C., Wong, T. H. F., and Arnbjerg-Nielsen, K.: An interdisciplinary and catchment approach to
532 enhancing urban flood resilience: a Melbourne case, *Philosophical transactions. Series A, Mathematical,*
533 *physical, and engineering sciences*, 378, 20190201, <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2019.0201>, 2020.
- 534 Scoccimarro, E., Villarini, G., Vichi, M., Zampieri, M., Fogli, P. G., Bellucci, A., and Gualdi, S.: Projected
535 Changes in Intense Precipitation over Europe at the Daily and Subdaily Time Scales*, *Journal of Climate*,
536 28, 6193–6203, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-14-00779.1>, 2015.
- 537 Shen, Y., Yamazaki, D., Pokhrel, Y., and Zhao, G.: Improving Global Reservoir Parameterizations by
538 Incorporating Flood Storage Capacity Data and Satellite Observations, *Water Resources Research*, 61,
539 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2024WR037620>, 2025.
- 540 Staudinger, M., Kauzlaric, M., Mas, A., Evin, G., Hingray, B., and Viviroli, D.: The role of antecedent
541 conditions in translating precipitation events into extreme floods at the catchment scale and in a large-basin
542 context, *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*, 25, 247–265, <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-25-247-2025>, 2025.
- 543 Tao, K., Fang, J., Yang, W., Fang, J., and Liu, B.: Characterizing compound floods from heavy rainfall and
544 upstream–downstream extreme flow in middle Yangtze River from 1980 to 2020, *Nat Hazards*, 115, 1097–
545 1114, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-022-05585-4>, 2023.
- 546 Tate, E., Decker, V., and Just, C.: Evaluating Collaborative Readiness for Interdisciplinary Flood Research, *Risk*
547 *analysis an official publication of the Society for Risk Analysis*, 41, 1187–1194,
548 <https://doi.org/10.1111/risa.13249>, 2021.
- 549 Truedinger, A. J., Jamshed, A., Sauter, H., and Birkmann, J.: Adaptation after Extreme Flooding Events: Moving
550 or Staying? The Case of the Ahr Valley in Germany, *Sustainability*, 15, 1407,
551 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su15021407>, 2023.
- 552 Tsionis, G., Pinto, A., Giardini, D., and Mignan, A. (Eds.): Harmonized approach to stress tests for critical
553 infrastructures against natural hazards, *JRC science for policy report*, 6, Publications Office of the European
554 Union, Luxembourg, 31 pp., 2016.
- 555 United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction: *Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction 2025:*
556 *Resilience Pays: Financing and Investing for our Future*, United Nations, Erscheinungsort nicht ermittelbar,
557 253 pp., 2025.
- 558 Verbist, K., Maureira-Cortés, H., Rojas, P., and Vicuña, S.: A stress test for climate change impacts on water
559 security: A CRIDA case study, *Climate Risk Management*, 28, 100222,
560 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crm.2020.100222>, 2020.



- 561 Wang, J. and Wang, N.: Forecasting road network functionality states during extreme rainfall events to facilitate
562 real-time emergency response planning, *Reliability Engineering & System Safety*, 252, 110452,
563 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ress.2024.110452>, 2024.
- 564 Wang, L., Cui, S., Li, Y., Huang, H., Manandhar, B., Nitivattananon, V., Fang, X., and Huang, W.: A review of
565 the flood management: from flood control to flood resilience, *Heliyon*, 8, e11763,
566 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e11763>, 2022.
- 567 Welten, S., Holt, A., Hofmann, J., Schelter, L., Klopries, E.-M., Wintgens, T., and Decker, S.: Synthetic rainfall
568 data generator development through decentralised model training, *Journal of Hydrology*, 612, 128210,
569 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2022.128210>, 2022.
- 570 Wood, R. R.: Role of mean and variability change in changes in European annual and seasonal extreme
571 precipitation events, *Earth Syst. Dynam.*, 14, 797–816, <https://doi.org/10.5194/esd-14-797-2023>, 2023.
- 572 Ye, S., Liu, L., Li, J., Pan, H., Li, W., and Ran, Q.: From rainfall to runoff: The role of soil moisture in a
573 mountainous catchment, *Journal of Hydrology*, 625, 130060, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2023.130060>,
574 2023.
- 575 Zscheischler, J., Westra, S., van den Hurk, B. J. J. M., Seneviratne, S. I., Ward, P. J., Pitman, A., AghaKouchak,
576 A., Bresch, D. N., Leonard, M., Wahl, T., and Zhang, X.: Future climate risk from compound events, *Nature*
577 *Clim Change*, 8, 469–477, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0156-3>, 2018.
- 578