

This is a repository copy of *Developing spatial prioritization criteria for integrated urban flood management based on a source-to-impact flood analysis*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/149868/

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Vercruysse, K orcid.org/0000-0001-9716-5191, Dawson, DA, Glenis, V et al. (3 more authors) (2019) Developing spatial prioritization criteria for integrated urban flood management based on a source-to-impact flood analysis. Journal of Hydrology, 578. 124038. ISSN 0022-1694

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2019.124038

© 2019, published by Elsevier B.V. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/.

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: https://creativecommons.org/licenses/

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/

Developing spatial prioritization criteria for integrated urban flood management based on a source-to-impact flood analysis

- 4
- Kim Vercruysse ^{a*}, David A Dawson ^a, Vassilis Glenis ^b, Robert Bertsch ^b, Nigel Wright ^c, Chris
 Kilsby^b
- 7
- ^a School of Civil Engineering, University of Leeds, LS2 9JT, Leeds, UK.
- ^b School of Engineering, Newcastle University, NE1 7RU, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK.
- 10 ^c School Architecture, Design and the Built Environment, Nottingham Trent University, NG1
- 11 4FQ, Nottingham, UK.
- 12 * Corresponding author

13 Abstract

14 Integrated flood management is essential in urban planning in order to align flood protection 15 and mitigation with the complex social and physical infrastructure in cities, and involves the management of surface water by retaining, reusing and transferring it along its pathway 16 17 across multiple infrastructure systems. However, despite many potential flood management 18 solutions (natural and engineered), spatial prioritization to implement these solutions from a 19 catchment perspective remains difficult. A transferable, source-to-impact flood analysis is 20 developed to identify locations with high flood hazard and areas contributing the most to this 21 hazard, which is used as a basis to define spatial prioritization criteria for flood management 22 intervention. The analysis was applied to Newcastle-upon-Tyne (UK) and included a spatial 23 rainfall cell dependency analysis with the hydrodynamic flood model CityCAT to identify 24 locations contributing the most to flood hazard. Locations within the study area were then 25 classified based on four criteria: (i) contribution to the total flood extent; (ii) maximum flood 26 depth contribution; (iii) coverage of greenspaces and roads by the flood extent; and (iv) 27 likelihood of flood exposure. The results illustrate the importance of considering the 28 catchment holistically and also identify spatial linkages to manage flooding and its potential 29 impact on, and interaction, with different infrastructure systems. Criteria can be combined in 30 different ways to guide spatial prioritization depending on the specific flood management 31 objectives (e.g. Blue-Green infrastructure). The concept presented offers a basis for 32 developing a systematic, high-level approach to inform spatial prioritization for flood 33 management intervention, which can be applied prior to developing actual flood alleviation 34 schemes. In doing so, the approach will help identify opportunities to combine multiple urban 35 systems and allocate resources more efficiently.

36 Keywords

37 Path management, catchment-based, urban flooding, connectivity, land cover, Blue-Green

38 infrastructure

39 **1. Introduction**

40 With the combination of increasing urbanisation and climate change, the frequency and 41 consequences of rainfall, surface water, and flood events are likely to exacerbate, and many 42 of the existing flood management practices and infrastructure, will be put under significant pressure and risk of failure (IPCC, 2014; UNISDR, 2015). As a result, traditional flood mitigation 43 44 strategies will need to be supplemented with adaptation strategies to enhance flood 45 resilience in cities. To this end, integrated flood risk management is essential. Integrated flood 46 risk management aims to combine innovative adaptation solutions, make infrastructure systems more interoperable (Vercruysse et al., 2019), and bring together multiple 47 48 stakeholders by recognizing and utilising interrelationships between different sectors (Brown, 49 2005; Hall et al., 2003; Merz et al., 2010).

50 Despite the availability of innovative adaptation solutions for flood management, both at local 51 scales (e.g. sustainable urban drainage systems (SUDs)) (Fletcher et al., 2015) and larger scales 52 (e.g. Sponge Cities) (Li et al., 2018), studies have pointed out that there is an "adaptation 53 deficit" in these solutions (Ernst and Preston, 2017; Preston et al., 2013) and wider integrated 54 flood management (Kuller et al., 2017). To explain this deficit, studies have identified several socio-political barriers to the adoption of SUDs, including the lack of information and 55 56 associated perceptions of all stakeholders, split regulatory and management responsibilities 57 (e.g. maintenance), difficulty of capturing value, and uncertainty about performance and 58 capacity of physical systems (Hoang and Fenner, 2016; O'Donnell et al., 2017a; Schuch et al., 59 2017; Staddon et al., 2017).

60 The physical basis of these barriers lies in the fact that within integrated flood management, 61 flood water is not dealt with at a discrete location, but along its pathway (i.e. retaining, reusing, diverting and transferring flood water). This shift towards "path management" 62 63 implies that adaptation solutions cover different infrastructure systems and cross multiple 64 socio-political boundaries. To overcome these barriers and facilitate prioritization and decision-making to make flood management more interoperable, it is key to have informed 65 66 insights into the flood dynamics in cities, i.e. where is the highest potential flood risk; where is the source of the excess water; and, critically, how does this information link to identifying 67 68 priority areas for flood management intervention (Vercruysse et al., 2019)?

Many flood models have been developed over past decades (Sanders, 2017; Teng et al.,
2017), which have helped to better understand urban flood dynamics and assess the impact

71 of interventions and management options on flood levels. Nevertheless, predicting and 72 modelling pluvial flood hazard is complex because it depends on many factors (e.g. 73 topography, impervious surfaces, and rainfall characteristics) and scales (temporal and 74 spatial). As a result, flood models vary strongly in complexity and the type of information they 75 provide. Generally, there are three types of models to estimate flood extent and/or depth: (i) 76 empirical models based on historic records; (ii) hydrodynamic models (1D, 2D and 3D) and (iii) 77 simplified models (Teng et al., 2017). Hydrodynamic models are especially interesting in the 78 context of integrated, interoperable flood management, because the high level of detail in 79 those models allows for simulating interactions between different infrastructure systems, e.g. 80 to evaluate the impact of BGI (Blue Green Infrastructure) (Morgan and Fenner, 2017) and 81 other infrastructure modifications in terms of storm drain inlets (Bertsch et al., 2017), or test 82 the impact of climate change scenarios on different infrastructure systems (Pregnolato et al., 2017). However, it remains challenging to apply flood models to guide integrated flood 83 management as part of the increasing need to adopt a "whole catchment" approach (CaBA, 84 85 2018). A significant challenge in the use of urban flood models is to produce context-specific knowledge that will drive actual adaptation; there is a need to align the use of urban flood 86 87 models with the complex (spatial) decision-making process in integrated flood management 88 that goes beyond scenario-testing (Sanders, 2017).

89 This study investigates how flood models can be aligned with the systematic identification of 90 priority areas for interventions for flood management at the catchment scale. A transferable, 91 source-to-impact flood analysis is developed to identify locations with high flood hazard as 92 well as areas that contribute the most to this hazard, and how this information can be used 93 to guide spatial prioritization in flood management is explored. In the following section, the 94 case study catchment and flood model are described alongside a methodological description 95 of the characterisation of potential priority criteria. In the subsequent sections, the results 96 are presented and discussed in terms of how different prioritization criteria can be used and 97 combined to approach flood management from a catchment perspective.

98 2. Methodology

99 2.1 Case study

The urban core of Newcastle-upon-Tyne in north-eastern England (UK) was used to develop
 the methodology. The study area is defined by a natural drainage catchment (9.15 km²)

(Figure 1), with the public park Town Moor dominating the upper part of the catchment, whilethe lower catchment is characterised by dense historical buildings and residential areas.

104 Due to its vulnerability the city has been studied extensively in relation to flooding, especially 105 as part of the Blue-Green Cities and Urban Flood Resilience research projects (Blue-Green 106 Cities Research Project, 2016; Urban Flood Resilience Research Project, 2018). For example, 107 previous studies identified multiple benefits that could arise from implementing pre-selected BGI across the city (Morgan and Fenner, 2017; O'Donnell et al., 2017b) (Figure 1). 108 Furthermore, within the city centre, several development projects are being 109 110 delivered/developed which strongly focus on BGI and sustainable water management 111 solutions (e.g. Newcastle Helix and East Pilgrim Street Development in Figure 1) (Helix, 2019; 112 Lawless, 2016a, 2016b). Therefore, Newcastle forms a good case study to investigate how systematic identification of spatial priority areas for flood management align with actual 113 114 decision making in practice.



115

116 Figure 1: Overview urban core Newcastle-Upon-Tyne (Contains OS data © Crown copyright and database right 2019).

117

118 2.2 Source-to-impact flood analysis

119 To test the contribution of specific areas to the generation of water runoff, i.e. to quantify

120 how much individual areas contribute to the total flood extent during a simulated event, a

source-to-impact flood analysis was designed based on a systematic rainfall cell dependency analysis. To the authors' knowledge, this type of analysis has not previously been applied in urban catchments, but a similar approach has been used in a rural catchment (Ewen et al., 2013). The modelling was carried out with CityCAT because of its detailed performance and earlier application to Newcastle (Glenis et al., 2018), but the approach can be applied to any hydrodynamic urban flood model with spatial rainfall input data. The analysis consists of four steps, and is described in detail below (Figure 2):

128

129 (i) *Grid representation*: divide the study area into approximately equal cells;

130 (ii) Baseline scenario: run model to generate flood depths for equal rainfall across all cells;

131 (iii) Rainfall cell dependency analysis: run model omitting rainfall in an individual cell;

132 (iv) *Source identification:* compare the baseline with the cell scenarios.

133

134 For (i) the catchment was divided into 37 cells (0.5km x 0.5km, approximately) which are considered as potential "source areas" for surface runoff generation. Second, a baseline 135 scenario (ii) was obtained of estimated flood depths in the study area by running CityCAT for 136 137 a 1-in-50 year rainfall event with a duration of 60 minutes (Figure 2). Using the grid, a rainfall 138 cell dependency analysis (iii) was performed by running the model multiple times (i.e. one run 139 per cell, 37 in total), while each time systemically omitting the rainfall in one single cell, to 140 simulate a situation where all rainfall is captured within that cell and not contributing to 141 runoff generation (Figure 2). Finally, (iv) maximum flood depths simulated for the baseline 142 scenario were compared with the maximum flood depths simulated for the cell-scenarios by 143 subtracting both to create difference maps:

$$144 F_i = Fd_{bs}^R - Fd_i^R [1]$$

145 With F_i the flood depths generated by cell i, Fd_{bs}^R the maximum flood depths modelled for 146 the baseline scenario and Fd_i^R the modelled maximum flood depths for the scenario, 147 whereby the rainfall in cell i is omitted, simulated for an R rainfall event (1/50 years) and i148 ranging between 1 and 37.



Figure 2: Illustration of four steps in source-to-impact flood analysis: (i) convert study area into equal cells; (ii) generate flood depths for a baseline scenario (Fd_{bs}^R) (equal rainfall R in entire catchment); (iii) perform cell dependency analysis by running flood model *i* times whereby rainfall (*R*) in the *i*th cell is set to zero (Fd_i^R); and (iv) subtract Fd_{bs}^R and Fd_i^R , resulting in flood extent generated by cell i (Fd_i).

149

155 2.3 Spatial intervention priority criteria

156 The information obtained through the source-to-impact flood analysis (Section 2.2) provides 157 in-depth information on the spatial connection between areas characterised by flood hazard 158 and areas contributing to this hazard, which creates opportunities to develop measures to 159 prioritize locations for flood management at the catchment scale. To explore how F_i can be 160 used to guide spatial prioritization for flood management intervention, four potential intervention priority criteria were identified, each providing another level of information 161 162 related to the flood impact caused by each cell (Table 1). Criteria 1 and 2 are based solely on the physical reduction of flooding, while criteria 3 and 4 also include land use and exposure 163 164 information to align with the type of information that essential for flood management 165 practitioners to justify the building of flood alleviation schemes (e.g. flood exposure to households and roads) (Zevenbergen et al., 2018). 166

168 Table 1: Spatial priority criteria: criteria values are estimated per cell in the study area grid (Figure 1).

Criteria		Calculation	Description	
1	Flood extent generated	$Farea_i = Area(F_i)$	$Farea_i$ is the area (m ²) covered by surface water in the difference map F_i	
2	Maximum flood depth	Fd_{maxi} = max(F_i)	Fd_{maxi} is the maximum depth (m) occurring in the difference map F_i	
3a	Green space flooded *	Farea(greensp) _i	$Farea(greensp)_i$ is the area (m ²) of green space covered by surface water in the difference map F_i	
3b	Major roads flooded **	Farea(majorR) _i	$Farea(majorR)_i$ is the area (m ²) of major roads covered by surface water in the difference map F_i	
3c	Minor roads flooded**	Farea(minorR) _i	$Farea(minorR)_i$ is the area (m ²) of minor roads covered by surface water in the difference map F_i	
4	Likelihood of flood exposure to buildings	$E_i = Elow_{bs} - Elow_i$	E_i is the number of buildings that changed from high/medium likelihood to low likelihood of exposure by omitting rainfall in cell i $Elow_{bs}$ and $Elow_i$ the number of buildings at low likelihood of flood exposure in the baseline and cell i scenarios respectively	

169 * OS Open Greenspace, © Crown copyright and database rights 2019

170 ** OS MasterMap® Topography Layer, © Crown copyright and database rights 2019

171 172

173 Criterion 1: Flood extent generated per cell

174 The total flood contribution (m²) generated by a cell (i.e. the flood extent that is avoided when 175 all rainfall is retained in that cell) is the most basic measure to guide spatial prioritization for 176 flood management, if the main management objective is to reduce overall surface water 177 flooding. Flood management interventions can then be focussed on the cells generating the 178 widest surface flooding by retaining rainfall as much as possible (e.g. with retention ponds or 179 green roofs) (Gregoire and Clausen, 2011; Schubert et al., 2017). Therefore, the first priority 180 criterion is the flood extent generated per cell during the simulated rainfall event, and is 181 defined as the area delineated by the difference map in maximum flood depths between the 182 baseline and a specific cell scenario (Table 1).

183 Criterion 2: Maximum flood depth generated per cell

While flooding can have an impact on an extensive area across the catchment, it is the deepest surface flooding that can cause the most damage and is, in combination with velocity, the biggest threat to people (Balica et al., 2009). Therefore it is often not only important to consider locations that have a significant impact on the total flood extent, but also to focus 188 flood management measures in locations (cells) that generate localised (small extent) but 189 deep surface flooding which can potentially cause more damage. The contribution of each 190 cell in terms of flood depths is defined in the second priority criteria as the maximum flood 191 depth associated to the flood extent (Table 1).

192 Criterion 3: Land use types flooded

193 Besides reducing the flood extent and/or depth, flood management is most often focussed 194 on reducing flooding primarily in particular locations depending on the land use covered by 195 the flood extent. For example, extensive flooding that mostly covers green space might be considered less of a protection priority, or require a different type of intervention, than a 196 197 location causing flooding on an important road. To address this, the flood extent per cell was 198 also expressed in terms of land use flooded to form a third type of priority criterion. In this 199 study, green spaces and the road network (major and minor roads) were selected (Table 1). 200 However, future analysis could include other specific spatial land use types (e.g. open spaces, 201 commercial areas, and public property areas).

202 Criterion 4: Likelihood of flood exposure to buildings caused per cell

The previous criteria (1-3) are primarily based on the output of the source-to-impact analysis. This information can also be combined with an exposure analysis describing more explicitly the relationship between flood dynamics and the likelihood of individual buildings to be exposed to the impact of flooding. To this end, a final criterion for spatial prioritization for flood management intervention is defined by the exposure of buildings to flooding (Table 1).

208 The flood exposure calculations for buildings were done with the flood exposure calculator 209 developed by (Bertsch, 2019). Using readily available data formats (shapefiles and CSV files) 210 the flood exposure calculator is applicable independently of any GIS or flood modelling 211 software. Available as a Jupyter notebook the tool and open-source code can be downloaded 212 from [https://github.com/hydrob/Flood-Exposure-Calculator]. The tool performs a spatial 213 analysis using detailed building geometries and high resolution water depth data without 214 conducting any aggregation or simplification of the input data. In a first step, the tool 215 generates a buffer for each building for the purpose of extracting water depth information 216 from cells closest to the building footprint. Hence, a buffer width of 3 m (i.e. 150% of the 217 horizontal grid resolution) was applied (figure 5.19 in Bertsch (2019)). Subsequently, the 218 extracted water depth information is used to calculate the mean and maximum depth in order 219 to classify the exposure likelihood based on table 5.2 in Bertsch (2019). The automated

calculation of the exposure for all 12,599 buildings and all 38 scenarios in this study requiredapproximately six hours.

222 2.4 Criteria comparison and combination

223 Criteria (1-4) were compared in terms of what type of information they can provide and how 224 they differ towards informing prioritization for flood management intervention within a wider 225 catchment area. To enable spatial comparison between criteria, the output criteria values 226 were all classified into three classes (low, medium, high priority) based on the Geometrical 227 Interval Classification method in ArcGIS. For all criteria, the highest value means the highest 228 priority, except for the greenspace coverage: a higher coverage of greenspace by the flood 229 extent represents a lower priority.

230 To assist prioritisation and allow different flood management preferences to be examined, 231 and subsequent locations to be determined, it is critical that criteria can be combined 232 (Meerow and Newell, 2017). For example, one approach could be to prioritise the 233 modification of existing BGI for managing surface runoff. In that case, retaining rainfall in 234 locations (i.e. cells) that generate the widest flood extent with a dominant coverage of 235 greenspace, while also causing the highest exposure to buildings, could offer the greatest 236 potential of reducing flood risk by modifying the flooded green space to store water. To 237 illustrate a possible method to combine criteria that can help prioritize the most suitable 238 locations for this approach, a simple three-step ranking of criteria 1, 3a and 4 was carried out. 239 First, all cells were ranked three times from high to low values on criteria 1, 3a and 4, each 240 time attributing ranking numbers to each cell (rank number 1 = cell with highest flood extent, 241 exposure or green space cover) (Table 2). Then, the three ranking numbers of each cell were 242 summed to provide a single value reflecting the locations with the highest priority for 243 enhancing existing green spaces for flood management (i.e. lowest summed rank number = 244 highest priority).

245

Table 2: Example of the approach used to identify priority locations for BGI based on criteria 1, 3a and 4.

Cell	Flood extent (1)	Flood exposure (4)	Green space cover (3a)	Sum rank number
В	1 (highest m ²)	1 (highest m ²)	2	4 (Highest priority for BGI)
А	3 (lowest m ²)	2	1 (highest m ²)	6
С	2	3 (lowest m ²)	3 (lowest m ²)	8 (Lowest priority for BGI)

248 **3. Results**

249 3.1 Baseline scenario flood hazard

Flood depths were estimated for the baseline scenario (i.e. homogeneous rainfall across the catchment). The highest flood depths converge around a few flow paths across Town Moor and local hotspots in the lower part of the catchment (Figure 3a). The cells in the middle and lower part have the largest area covered by flood depths >0.3m. However, a different pattern reflecting flood hazard is apparent when considering the results from the exposure analysis, whereby the areas with the highest risk of exposure to buildings are situated to the west and across the lower part of the catchment (Figure 3b).

257 These results provide insights into the potential flood hazard within the city centre and how 258 this hazard can be interpreted differently depending on the type of information used. These 259 findings are very valuable when assessing the impact of flooding on people and infrastructure, 260 and testing different scenarios for flood management options (e.g. test the effect BGI in a 261 particular location on flood depths). However, from an integrated management perspective, 262 these flood maps are not directly useable, because they do not provide source-to-impact 263 information; it remains a matter of trial-and-error through scenario-testing to identify priority 264 locations for flood management at the catchment scale.



270 3.2 Source-to-impact flood analysis

271 The source-to-impact analysis was developed to systematically assess the impact of individual 272 cells on flood hazard locally and further downstream. The results of the source-to-impact 273 flood analysis can be visualised by the difference maps between the maximum flood depths 274 simulated in the baseline scenario (Figure 3a) and the flood depths simulated for the different 275 cell scenarios. An example is illustrated in Figure 4, which shows the difference map for the 276 Cell 12 scenario. It can be observed that the flood extent generated by Cell 12 reaches across multiple cells, with an area of 0.39 km² and a maximum flood depth of 1.4m (Figure 5-6). The 277 difference maps of the other scenarios are available as supplementary material. 278

Figure 3: Baseline flood modelling results for a 1/50 year rainfall event of 60 minutes in the urban core of Newcastle using CityCAT: (a) maximum flood depths, (b) number of points (i.e. 2 m cell) with an estimated flood depth >0.3m (flood hazard), (c) number of buildings at risk of high exposure. Numbers in figure (b) and (c) refer to the labels of the rainfall cells.



279

Figure 4: Example of difference map between maximum flood depths simulated for the baseline scenario and cell 12 scenario (i.e. rainfall in cell 12 omitted), illustrating the flood extent and flood depths generated by this cell. (Contains OS data © Crown copyright and database right 2019).

284 3.3 Spatial intervention priority criteria

- 285 As described in the methodology, the difference maps for each cell scenario resulting from
- the source-to-impact analysis were used to extract four types of intervention priority criteria.

287 Criterion 1: Flood extent

- 288 The flood extents per cell in the difference maps was calculated. As expected, the cells in the
- 289 upper part of the catchment are characterised by the highest flood extent, i.e. contribute to
- the widest surface flooding (Figure 5a).

291 Criterion 2: Maximum flood depth

- 292 The difference maps were further used to extract the maximum flood depths associated with
- the flood extent per cell. In general, cells in the downstream part of the catchment generate
- the highest flood depths (Figure 5b).

295 Criterion 3: Land use coverage of flood extent

Linking the flood extent per cell to land use classes allows for further investigation of the interactions between flood dynamics and existing urban infrastructure systems (Figure 5c-e). In general, the flood extent related to cells in the upper part of the catchment mostly cause surface flooding on green spaces, whilst some (e.g. cell 31) also extend onto the major road network (Figure 5c). The major road network is mostly affected by surface flooding generated by local rainfall in the central part of the catchment (Figure 5d), while flooding on minor roads is predominantly generated by cells in the eastern part of the catchment (Figure 5e).

303 Criterion 4: Likelihood of buildings exposure

For the final criterion, the likelihood of buildings exposure to flooding was estimated for each scenario (difference between the baseline scenario in Figure 3c and cell scenarios). The results are summarized as the number of buildings at high to medium likelihood of exposure that would become low likelihood if the rainfall in a cell is omitted (Figure 5f). Similar to the flood extent covering minor roads, flood exposure to buildings is predominantly caused by cells in the eastern and central part of the catchment.



Figure 5: Classified spatial prioritization criteria per cell: (a) criterion 1: flood extent; (b) criterion 2: max flood depth; (c) criterion 3a: greenspace cover by flood extent; (d) criterion 3b: major roads cover by flood extent; (e) criterion 3c: minor roads cover by flood extent; (f) criterion 4: flood exposure (number of buildings at medium (M) to high (H) likelihood of exposure). Locations of greenspaces, roads and buildings marked in black, Contains OS data © Crown copyright and database right 2019.

316 **3.4 Criteria comparison and combination**

317 Spatial comparison of the priority location indicated by each criterion based on the three 318 classes (low, medium, high) reveals that no consistent pattern exists, i.e. no consistent priority 319 location for intervention can be determined in that all the criteria indicate the same cell 320 (Figure 5). However, most criteria indicate priority locations for flood management in cells 321 characterised by medium to low flood hazard (Figure 3). This observation becomes especially 322 clear when directly comparing the cell values for flood hazard and all criteria (Figure 6). 323 Furthermore, there are a few cells that are classified as high priority areas based on all criteria 324 (e.g. cell 8 and 14, grey bars in Figure 6). These areas represent locations that are classified as high (to medium) priority across all criteria – if no preference or specific objective for the 325 326 flood management approach is considered.

327 However, as noted earlier, there are multiple approaches to flood risk management both in 328 terms of objectives and type of intervention. To illustrate how the different criteria can be 329 combined depending on the desired flood management approach, criteria 1, 3a and 4 were 330 combined to guide spatial prioritization for BGI (Figure 6). Based on the simple three-step 331 ranking methodology described in Section 2.4, cells in the upper west part of the catchment 332 are locations that should be prioritized for use of existing green spaces as BGI solutions for 333 flood management. More specifically, Cell 18 and 19 are identified as locations with the 334 highest (H) potential of reducing flood hazard using modification of the existing green space 335 within these cells (green bars in Figure 6). On the other hand, while cells 9 and 11 contribute significantly to the flood extent on minor roads and generate deep flooding respectively, the 336 337 absence of green space and moderate exposure for buildings, indicate that these cells can be 338 considered as low priority areas in the context of BGI solutions for flood management. Combining this information in a map (Figure 7), a clear zonation of prioritisation for BGI 339 340 solution is provided – which can help steer management approaches across the grid.

341



Figure 6: Summary statistics per cell: (a) flood hazard: area > 0.3m in baseline scenario per cell; (b) criterion 1: flood extent; (c) criterion 2: max flood depth; (d) criterion 3a: greenspace cover by flood extent; (e) criterion 3b: major roads cover by flood extent; (f) criterion 3c: minor roads cover by flood extent; (g) criterion 4: flood exposure. Light grey bars indicate cells 14 and 8 which show high priority on most criterion; green bars indicate priority areas for BGI (H: high, M: medium, L: low priority), as visualised in Figure 7.



349

Figure 7: Cells classified as priority areas for BGI in Newcastle based on three-step ranking of criterion 1, 3a and 4 (following
 approach illustrated in Table 2).

353 **4. Discussion**

To approach flood management from a catchment perspective and identify priority locations 354 355 for flood management intervention *prior* to developing flood alleviation schemes, insights are 356 needed into the flood dynamics at the catchment scale. A source-to-impact flood analysis was performed to identify locations characterised by the highest flood hazard and locations that 357 358 contribute the most to this hazard. This information was then used to derive a set of potential 359 criteria to guide spatial prioritization for flood management intervention. In what follows, the 360 results are discussed and specifically applied to illustrate how the combination of different 361 criteria can guide spatial prioritization for BGI. Furthermore, the experimental focus of the study needs to be stressed, which means further research into various aspects of the 362 approach will be needed to develop a standardised approach. Therefore, methodological 363 364 considerations and areas for future research and improvement are also discussed.

365 4.1 Spatial prioritization for flood management intervention

The analysis presented in this study illustrates that a single type of data (i.e. difference maps, Figure 4) can provide multiple interpretations in terms of spatial prioritization for flood management. In fact, this observation is symptomatic of flood management, which is often strongly context specific and depending on a wide range of factors.

When Criterion 1 (flood extent) and 2 (max depth) are considered, catchment-scale flood dynamics can be identified, which have implications for where to install flood management measures. As expected from an upstream catchment, the cells in the upper part generally 373 contribute the most to the total flood extent (Figure 5) while they are characterised by 374 relatively low levels of flood hazard locally (Figure 3). In comparison, the middle part of the 375 catchment generally has cells with high flood hazard caused by the cells in the upstream 376 catchment. However, flooding can also be generated more locally, which is illustrated in the 377 lower part of the catchment, where cells are characterised by high flood hazard and a high 378 local contribution in terms of flood depths (Figure 5a-b). Based on these results, the upper 379 part of the catchment is the logical location to install measures to retain as much surface 380 water as possible, while localised measurements are also required to address the deeper 381 flooding in the lower part of the catchment.

382 However, when also considering criteria related to the impact of the flood source areas on 383 infrastructure systems (Criterion 3 and 4), the resulting analysis provides an alternative spatial 384 prioritization. For example, when considering exposure and potential damages to the 385 transport network, the cells in the upper part of the catchment can be considered as areas of 386 lower priority for intervention, because these cells mostly cause surface flooding in 387 greenspace (Figure 5c), while the cells with a high priority for flood management shift towards 388 the eastern and middle part of the catchment (cells causing flooding on road network and 389 high exposure) (Figure 5-6).

The findings illustrate the importance of considering the catchment holistically and identify spatial connectivity between locations to manage flooding and associated potential impacts on different infrastructure systems. Furthermore, the fact that the selected criterion can be combined and interpreted in different ways stresses the importance of setting objectives related to the flood management (Almoradie et al., 2015; Othman et al., 2014). This is further illustrated in the next section for BGI.

396 4.2 Prioritization for BGI

In the rainfall cell dependency analysis, rainfall input was entirely removed in each cell. While this is generally not representative for most flood management measures, BGI assets can approach this conceptual idea as they are often designed to retain as much water as possible (e.g. retention basin, green roofs) (City of New York, 2017; Gregoire and Clausen, 2011; Rotterdam Climate Initiative, 2018). Areas (i.e. cells) with a high proportion of greenspace that contribute significantly to the total flood extent, therefore, offer clear opportunities to promote management interventions that use this greenspace to retain the generated runoff. Following the combination of Criterion1, 3a and 4 (Section 3.4), priority areas for using existing green spaces to retain water are situated in the upper to west part of the study area (Figure 7).

These priority locations generally correspond well with where the hypothetical BGI was placed by Morgan and Fenner (2017) and the urban development sites of Newcastle Helix (Figure 1). It has to be emphasized that these investigation and actual plans for Newcastle are the result of intensive research and collaboration between a range of stakeholders (O'Donnell et al., 2017b). Therefore, the presented approach is especially useful as a starting point for stakeholder collaboration and spatial prioritization prior to developing actual flood alleviation schemes.

414 4.3 Methodological considerations and future research

This study presented a transferable way to systematically assess the connection between locations with a high flood hazard and source areas. It demonstrates how combining this information with land use information can provide a holistic view to help guide a more integrated approach to flood and water management at the city scale.

419 It needs to be stressed that mapping and combining different criteria as proposed in this study 420 does not provide specific types of flood management intervention. It is aimed at providing 421 the basis for a high-level screening tool to target specific priority locations, which can then 422 become the subject of a more in-depth investigation or the starting point for multi-agency 423 flood planning. Furthermore, in further development of the methodology, this information 424 can be combined with tools and techniques that identify locations with the highest need for 425 BGI in terms of additional benefits such as air and water quality improvements, increasing 426 access to green space, reducing social vulnerability to natural hazard and landscape 427 connectivity (Meerow and Newell, 2017).

In developing this approach further, some methodological considerations must be acknowledged. First, it is recognized that capturing all the rainfall in a single location (cell) is not realistic. Second, the only event simulated in this study was of a one-hour duration. The duration of the event is likely to influence the result (e.g. in longer events water can flow further downstream and antecedent moisture conditions can cause different response times). Further research should therefore focus on investigating the impact of varying amounts of rainfall being captured as well as the timing of events. Third, the cell dependency analysis was performed using a regular grid. To be better linked to the actual study area, the
analysis could also be based on terrain-based sub-catchments or potentially even
administrative boundaries to take into account an additional level of complexity related to
cross-boundary management. Finally, to improve the accuracy of the modelling results,
CityCAT simulations could also be run taking into account the sub-surface drainage network
(Bertsch et al., 2017).

441 5. Conclusion

This study innovatively applied a hydrodynamic flood model to link flood hazard information 442 443 with flood source dynamics, which was used to define potential spatial priority criteria for 444 flood management intervention. Different criteria lead to different spatial prioritization 445 information, which stresses the importance of combining criteria that address the specific 446 needs and targets of flood management plans. One of the key outcomes of this research is 447 that the approach can be especially useful as a starting point for stakeholder collaboration 448 and spatial prioritization prior to developing actual flood alleviation schemes. In doing so, the 449 approach will help identify opportunities to combine multiple urban systems and allocate 450 resources more efficiently.

To date, the proposed criteria remain experimental, but this paper demonstrates that this type of analysis has the potential to be developed into a framework to assess flood dynamics within the urban catchment systematically and to provide a transferable and comparable way to prioritize and identify flood management strategies from a catchment perspective.

455 **6. Acknowledgements**

This research was funded by the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC)
research grant (EP/P004296/1), in collaboration with the EPSRC funded Urban Flood
Resilience research consortium (EP/P004180/1).

459 **7. References**

- Almoradie A, Cortes VJ, Jonoski A. 2015. Web-based stakeholder collaboration in flood risk management. Journal of Flood
 Risk Management 8 : 19–38. DOI: 10.1111/jfr3.12076
- 462 Balica SF, Douben N, Wright NG. 2009. Flood vulnerability indices at varying spatial scales. Water Science and Technology 60
- 463 : 2571–2580. DOI: 10.2166/wst.2009.183
- 464 Bertsch R. 2019. Exploring new technologies for simulation and analysis of urban flooding, Newcastle University
- 465 Bertsch R, Glenis V, Kilsby C. 2017. Urban flood simulation using synthetic storm drain networks. Water (Switzerland) 9 DOI:
 466 10.3390/w9120925
- 467 Blue-Green Cities Research Project. 2016. BlueGreenCities: Delivering and Evaluating Multiple Flood Risk Benefits in Blue-

- 468 Green Cities [online] Available from: http://www.bluegreencities.ac.uk/index.aspx (Accessed 30 October 2018)
- 469 Brown RR. 2005. Impediments to integrated urban stormwater management: The need for institutional reform.
- 470 Environmental Management 36 : 455–468. DOI: 10.1007/s00267-004-0217-4
- 471 CaBA. 2018. Catchment-based approach [online] Available from: https://www.catchmentbasedapproach.org/ (Accessed 8
 472 May 2018)
- 473 City of New York. 2017. Innovative & Integrated Stormwater Management . New York City [online] Available from:
- 474 http://www.waterrf.org/resources/Lists/PublicSpecialReports/Attachments/18/NYC_Stormwater_Report.pdf
- 475 Ernst KM, Preston BL. 2017. Adaptation opportunities and constraints in coupled systems: Evidence from the U.S. energy-
- 476 water nexus. Environmental Science and Policy 70 : 38–45. DOI: 10.1016/j.envsci.2017.01.001 [online] Available from:
- 477 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2017.01.001
- 478 Ewen J, O'Donnell G, Bulygina N, Ballard C, O'Connell E. 2013. Towards understanding links between rural land management
- and the catchment flood hydrograph. Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society 139 : 350–357. DOI:
 10.1002/qj.2026
- 481 Fletcher TD et al. 2015. SUDS, LID, BMPs, WSUD and more The evolution and application of terminology surrounding urban
- 482 drainage. Urban Water Journal 12 : 525–542. DOI: 10.1080/1573062X.2014.916314 [online] Available from:
 483 http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1573062X.2014.916314
- 484 Glenis V, Kutija V, Kilsby CG. 2018. A fully hydrodynamic urban flood modelling system representing buildings, green space
- 485 and interventions. Environmental Modelling and Software **109** : 272–292. DOI: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2018.07.018 [online]
- 486 Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2018.07.018
- 487 Gregoire BG, Clausen JC. 2011. Effect of a modular extensive green roof on stormwater runoff and water quality. Ecological
 488 Engineering 37 : 963–969. DOI: 10.1016/j.ecoleng.2011.02.004 [online] Available from:
 489 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoleng.2011.02.004
- 490 Hall JW, Meadowcroft IC, Sayers PB, Bramley ME. 2003. Integrated Flood Risk Management in England and Wales. Natural
- 491 Hazards Review 4 : 126–135. DOI: Doi 10.1061/(Asce)1527-6988(2003)4:3(126)
- 492 Helix N. 2019. Newcastle Helix [online] Available from: https://newcastlehelix.com/?cn (Accessed 22 January 2019)
- 493 Hoang L, Fenner RA. 2016. System interactions of stormwater management using sustainable urban drainage systems and
- 494 green infrastructure. Urban Water Journal **13** : 739–758. DOI: 10.1080/1573062X.2015.1036083 [online] Available from:
- 495 http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1573062X.2015.1036083
- 496 IPCC. 2014. Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment
- 497 Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change . Pachauri RK and Meyer LA (eds). Geneva, Switzerland
- 498 Kuller M, Bach PM, Ramirez-Lovering D, Deletic A. 2017. Framing water sensitive urban design as part of the urban form: A
- 499 critical review of tools for best planning practice. Environmental Modelling & Software 96 : 265–282. DOI:
- 500 10.1016/j.envsoft.2017.07.003 [online] Available from: http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1364815216310623
- 501 Lawless K. 2016a. East Pilgrim Street Development Framework: North Area . Newcastle
- 502 Lawless K. 2016b. East Pilgrim Street Development Framework: South Area . Newcastle
- 503 Li Z, Dong M, Wong T, Wang J, Kumar AJ, Singh RP. 2018. Objectives and indexes for implementation of sponge cities-A case
- 504 study of Changzhou City, China. Water (Switzerland) 10 : 1–14. DOI: 10.3390/w10050623
- 505 Meerow S, Newell JP. 2017. Spatial planning for multifunctional green infrastructure: Growing resilience in Detroit.
- 506
 Landscape and Urban Planning
 159
 : 62–75.
 DOI: 10.1016/j.landurbplan.2016.10.005
 [online]
 Available from:

 507
 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.landurbplan.2016.10.005
- 508 Merz B, Hall J, Disse M, Schumann A. 2010. Fluvial flood risk management in a changing world. Natural Hazards and Earth
- 509 System Sciences 10 : 509–527. DOI: 10.5194/nhess-10-509-2010
- 510 Morgan M, Fenner R. 2017. Spatial evaluation of the multiple benefits of sustainable drainage systems. Proceedings of the
- 511 Institution of Civil Engineers Water Management

- 512 O'Donnell EC, Lamond JE, Thorne CR. 2017a. Recognising barriers to implementation of Blue-Green Infrastructure: a
- 513 Newcastle case study. Urban Water Journal 14 : 964–971. DOI: 10.1080/1573062X.2017.1279190 [online] Available from:
- 514 http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1573062X.2017.1279190
- 515 O'Donnell EC, Woodhouse R, Thorne CR. 2017b. Evaluating the multiple benefits of a sustainable drainage scheme in
- 516 Newcastle, UK. Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers Water Management : 1–12. DOI: 10.1680/jwama.16.00103
- 517 [online] Available from: http://www.icevirtuallibrary.com/doi/10.1680/jwama.16.00103
- 518 Othman M, Ahmad MN, Suliman A, Arshad NH, Maidin SS. 2014. COBIT principles to govern flood management. International
- 519 Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction **9** : 212–223. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijdrr.2014.05.012 [online] Available from: 520 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijdrr.2014.05.012
- 521 Pregnolato M, Ford A, Glenis V, Wilkinson S, Ph D, Dawson R, Ph D. 2017. Impact of Climate Change on Disruption to Urban
- 522 Transport Networks from Pluvial Flooding. Journal of Infrastructure Systems 23 : 1–13. DOI: 10.1061/(ASCE)IS.1943523 555X.0000372.
- Preston BL, Mustelin J, Maloney MC. 2013. Climate adaptation heuristics and the science/policy divide. Mitigation and
 Adaptation Strategies for Global Change 20 : 467–497. DOI: 10.1007/s11027-013-9503-x
- 526 Rotterdam Climate Initiative. 2018. Benthemplein: the first full-scale water square [online] Available from:
- 527 http://www.rotterdamclimateinitiative.nl/uk/projects/ongoing-projects/benthemplein-the-first-full-scale-water-
- 528 square?project_id=192 (Accessed 12 June 2018)
- 529 Sanders BF. 2017. Hydrodynamic Modeling of Urban Flood Flows and Disaster Risk Reduction. In Oxford Research
- 530 Encyclopedia of Natural Hazard Science , . Oxford University Press USA; 1–35. [online] Available from:
- 531 http://naturalhazardscience.oxfordre.com/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780199389407.001.0001/acrefore-9780199389407-e-
- 532 127
- 533 Schubert JE, Burns MJ, Fletcher TD, Sanders BF. 2017. A framework for the case-specific assessment of Green Infrastructure
- in mitigating urban flood hazards. Advances in Water Resources **108** : 55–68. DOI: 10.1016/j.advwatres.2017.07.009 [online]
- 535 Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.advwatres.2017.07.009
- 536 Schuch G, Serrao-Neumann S, Morgan E, Low Choy D. 2017. Water in the city: Green open spaces, land use planning and
- flood management An Australian case study. Land Use Policy 63: 539–550. DOI: 10.1016/j.landusepol.2017.01.042 [online]
- 538 Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2017.01.042
- 539 Staddon C, Vito L De, Zuniga- A, Schoeman Y, Hart A, Booth G. 2017. Contributions of Green Infrastructure to Enhancing
 540 Urban Resilience
- 541 Teng J, Jakeman AJ, Vaze J, Croke BFW, Dutta D, Kim S. 2017. Flood inundation modelling: A review of methods, recent
- advances and uncertainty analysis. Environmental Modelling and Software **90** : 201–216. DOI: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2017.01.006
- 543 [online] Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2017.01.006
- 544 UNISDR. 2015. Making Development Sustainable: The Future of Disaster Risk Management. Global Assessment Report on
 545 Disaster Risk Reduction . Geneva, Switzerland [online] Available from:
 546 https://www.preventionweb.net/english/hyogo/gar/2015/en/home/GAR_2015/GAR_2015_4.html
- 547 Urban Flood Resilience Research Project. 2018. Achieving Urban Flood Resilience in an Uncertain Future [online] Available
- 548 from: http://www.urbanfloodresilience.ac.uk/index.aspx (Accessed 30 October 2018)
- 549 Vercruysse K, Dawson D, Wright N. 2019. Interoperability: a conceptual framework to bridge the gap between multi-
- 550 functional and multi-system urban flood management. Journal of Flood Risk Management : 1–11. DOI: 10.1111/jfr3.12535
- 551 Zevenbergen C, van Herk S, Escarameia M, Gersonius B, Serre D, Walliman N, de Bruijn KM, de Graaf R. 2018. Assessing quick
- wins to protect critical urban infrastructure from floods: a case study in Bangkok, Thailand. Journal of Flood Risk Management

553 11: S17–S27. DOI: 10.1111/jfr3.12173