



1 **Robust Adaptive Pathways for Long-Term Flood Control in Delta**
2 **Cities: Addressing Pluvial Flood Risks under Future Deep**
3 **Uncertainty**

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15

16 **Abstract:**

17 Delta cities are increasingly vulnerable to flood risks due to the uncertainties
18 surrounding climate change and socioeconomic development. Decision-makers face
19 significant challenges in determining whether to invest in ~~high-level flood defenses for~~
20 ~~long-term planning~~. Adaptation solutions should be given considerable attention not
21 only to **robustness but also to adaptiveness** if the future unfolds ~~not as expectation~~. To
22 support decision-making and meet long-term multi-objective targets, we propose a
23 synthesized framework that integrates robustness analysis, adaptiveness analysis, and
24 pathway generation. This framework was applied to evaluate alternative solutions for



25 managing pluvial flood risk in central Shanghai. The results show that using a single-
26 objective decision-making approach (focused only on robustness) tends to yield biased
27 options. By examining the valid period and flexibility of candidate solutions, we
28 assessed whether alternative solutions could meet long-term flood control targets. The
29 analysis reveals that a combined option—incorporating increased green areas, an
30 improved drainage system, and a deep tunnel with a 30% runoff absorption capacity
31 (D+G+Tun30)—is the most robust and adaptive pathway, based on multi-objective
32 trade-off analysis. This study highlights the importance of considering **valid period**
33 **within predefined control targets** and retaining flexibility to avoid path-dependency and
34 minimize long-term regrets. The proposed framework can be applied to other delta
35 cities to guide adaptive responses to future flood risks.

36 **Keywords:** **decision-making under deep uncertainty**; flood risk reduction; multi-
37 objective trade-off, robust adaptive pathway, Shanghai

38 **1 Introduction**

39 Flood risk is increasing in low-lying delta cities due to rapid urbanization and
40 climate change (Yang et al., 2023), hindering the capacity of urban development. Delta
41 cities such as Shanghai (Yin et al., 2020), Ho Chi Minh City (Scussolini et al., 2017),
42 and London (Dottori et al., 2023) are facing the combined challenges from extreme
43 rainstorms, sea level rise and urbanization-induced land subsidence with regard to
44 flooding risk reduction (Ward et al., 2017). It is anticipated that as a result of changing
45 climate patterns, the frequency and severity of extreme flood events will increase in
46 urban area, thereby increasing the flood risk, particularly in increasing developing delta



47 cities (Sun et al., 2021).

48 Delta cities are urged to examine potential climate adaptation options (Han and
49 Mozumder, 2021;) and test their cost-effectiveness in designed social and climate
50 scenarios to address the rising flood risks (Lin et al. 2020). Dottori et al (2023)
51 proposed ~~economically attractive~~ strategies for European cities to deal with increasing
52 river flood risk ~~from cost-effective point of view~~. However, ~~if~~ these strategies or options
53 will remain effective within a fixed timeframe under the uncertainties of climate change,
54 land use change or political change is questionable; in addition, how ~~flexible~~ these
55 strategies can be up-scaled to meet the future needs is ~~also~~ rarely discussed. This ~~comes~~
56 ~~to~~ a pressing concern for decision makers in long-term planning. In the field of Decision
57 Making under Deep Uncertainty (DMDU), various approaches have ~~been~~ emerged,
58 such as Robust Decision Making (RDM) (Lempert et al., 2013; Workman et al., 2021),
59 Dynamic Adaptive Policy Pathway (DAPP) (Haasnoot et al., 2013; Dias et al., 2020)
60 and Real Options Analysis (ROA) (Buurman and Babovic, 2016; Kim et al., 2018; Xu
61 et al., 2023).

62 These DMDU approaches have been continuously improved and optimized, the
63 boundaries between methods have become increasingly blurred, and fusion thinking is
64 progressively adopted (Haasnoot et al., 2020). As pointed out by Lempert et al. (2003),
65 RDM provides systematic procedures that emphasize the iterative analysis process of
66 scenario exploration, which can help decision-makers discover situations where options
67 may fail, and understand the trade-off among all the adaptation options (Lempert et al.,
68 2013). Kasprzyk et al. (2013) proposed the Multi-Objective Robust Decision Making



69 (MORDM) approach by the combination concept of both multi-objective evolutionary
70 optimizations and RDM (Bartholomew and Kwakkel, 2020; Yang et al., 2021).
71 Kwakkel et al. (2019) pointed out that the RDM approach usually pays less attention to
72 the dynamic planning of pathways on long-term scales of climate change. On the other
73 hand, DAPP, which consist of the strengths of both Adaptive Policymaking (Walker et
74 al., 2001) and Adaptation pathway (Haasnoot et al., 2012; Ranger et al., 2010), focuses
75 on generating alternative dynamic pathway to achieve flexibility and avoid lock-in
76 effects while it lacks robustness metrics (i.e. satisficing and regret) and vulnerability
77 analysis to quantify potential failures (Haasnoot et al., 2013).

78 Both the RDM and DAPP approaches are arguably in most widely applied, and
79 the concept of integrating two approaches has been proposed (Kwakkel et al., 2016)
80 and practiced in cases (Tariq et al., 2017). However, as Ramm et al. (2018a) illustrated,
81 integration of RDM and DAPP has not been thoroughly implemented, and future
82 opportunities to engage with participants in a combined RDM and DAPP approach
83 include defining adaptation objectives, metrics and risk tolerance (Ramm et al., 2018b)
84 since all these factors are anticipated to largely influence the outcomes of alternative
85 pathways Robustness emphasizes the ability of a strategy to perform in an effective way
86 in many plausible scenarios. How to define robustness and assess whether options are
87 insensitive to deep uncertainty to ensure certain performance across multiple plausible
88 futures have sparked extensive discussions, especially when meeting multi-objective
89 targets (Herman et al., 2015; McPhail et al., 2018).

90 The selection of indicators for robustness depends on the priorities and preferences



91 by policymakers and it will substantially affect the outcomes of decisions (Giuliani and
92 Castelletti, 2016). For example, the decision-makers who endorse risk aversion may
93 under-estimate adaptation options' performance. To overcome the single objective
94 problem framing, Quinn et al. (2017) optimized operations of the four largest reservoirs
95 under several different multi-objective problem framings in Hanoi city (Vietnam), and
96 highlighted the importance of formulating and evaluating alternative stakeholder
97 objectives.

98 However, there is a need for a discussion on either the robustness evaluation of
99 alternatives concerning policymakers' risk aversion can exclusively underpin rational
100 decision-making or the multi-objective trade-off analysis can offer more
101 comprehensive practical and theoretical support. For example, the cost of a climate
102 adaptation option is normally proportional to its benefit (risk reduction rate). Options
103 with high performance often mean higher cost input and potentially longer construction
104 periods (Dottori et al., 2023). The single-objective in either performance assessment in
105 reducing the risk or solely considering cost-benefit provided limited information for
106 long-term planning, indicating a potential for lock-in or path dependency due to
107 overinvestment or maladaptation over time.

108 Adaptiveness refers to the ability of a strategy to adapt to change (Haasnoot et al.,
109 2013; Malekpour et al., 2020). In this sense, maintaining high level of robustness
110 compromise high level of adaptiveness of a strategy as conditions change. For example,
111 high cost of effective solution may cause path-dependency and fails to adapt to the
112 changing circumstances due to its financial commitment and over-confidence on the



113 **safety from societies**. Considered as the other side of **coins against robustness**,
114 **quantification of adaptiveness** is yet clearly addressed (Kind et al., 2018). Tipping point
115 analysis provided insight into when the options might falter, indicating potential failure
116 point concerning the risk reduction target (Haasnoot et al., 2013), and Patient Rule
117 Induction Method (PRIM) is proven to be illuminated **to identify the use-by date of**
118 **tipping points** in a quantitative way (Ramm et al., 2018a; 2018b). Kirshen et al. (2015)
119 raised that the option of selecting urban flood control options may differ if additional
120 criteria of no-regret and flexibility were considered, when a critical threshold is reached
121 under a climate change scenario. Instead of applying optimal here-and-now options,
122 wait-and-see decisions allow for flexibility. Within ROA, flexibility is valued since it
123 allows delaying commitment to large, costly, and irreversible decisions while either
124 exercising different interventions or incrementally implementing interventions with
125 long construction times until more information is available (Erfani et al., 2018).
126 Therefore, incorporating both the tipping point (specify as valid period later in this
127 paper) and flexibility reflect the key characteristics of adaptiveness and thus **better**
128 **assists in a long-term planning**

129 In this study, we aim to propose a synthesized framework which incorporates both
130 robustness and adaptiveness to formulate a robust adaptive pathway for long-term
131 climate adaptation planning under deep uncertainties. This framework can be utilized
132 to guide decision-making on the prioritization and sequencing of climate adaptation
133 alternatives, which nowadays remains as a pressing question for urban practitioners on
134 climate action planning. To demonstrate the novel synthesized framework, it was



135 applied to examine various climate adaptation alternatives to address the increasing
136 pluvial flood risk in a delta city – Shanghai, based on future (uncertain) scenarios of a
137 combination of extreme rainstorm and the deteriorating drainage capacity by the time
138 of 2050s, to support the decision-making.

139 The remainder of this article is organized as follows: Section 2 presents the
140 proposed comprehensive framework and methodology. Section 3 introduces the
141 background of the case study area and the preprocessing procedures. Section 4 presents
142 the results, where a multi-objective trade-off is applied to evaluate the potential
143 pathways for generating a robust adaptive pathway. This analysis combines metrics
144 such as the average risk reduction rate (ARRR), benefit-cost ratio (BCR), valid period,
145 and flexibility of all options. Section 5 discusses the key findings related to pluvial
146 flood risk management in coastal cities, the implications of multi-objective trade-off
147 considering both robustness and adaptiveness, how the synthesized framework can
148 inform long-term adaptive policy formulation, and provides recommendations for
149 future work. Finally, Section 6 concludes with a summary.

150 **2 Methodologies**

151 **2.1 Framework development**

152 Having established the challenges of pluvial flood risks posed by future deep
153 uncertainties, this study now presents a robust adaptive pathway framework designed
154 to support long-term planning. To build robust adaptive pathway framework, we
155 extended the taxonomy proposed by Kwakkel et al. (2019), which categorizes existing
156 DMDU approaches into five dimensions, akin to the taxonomy in the robustness



157 framework ([Herman et al., 2015](#)). Building on recent advancements in DMDU
158 approaches, we further refined the framework into the following procedures:

159 1) **Research framing.** In contrast to the short-term implementation of baseline
160 standards, the policy structure proposed in this work is designed to be dynamic and
161 adaptive. It provides a continuous pathway toward achieving long-term flood control
162 goals while maintaining the flexibility to adjust to an uncertain future. As a result, the
163 'adaptive' options enhance the robustness of the solutions and reduce the risk of over-
164 investment.

165 2) **Scenario generation.** The process of scenario generation applies multiple
166 (uncertain) ~~factors of~~ meteorological, hydrological, or social-economic. The range of
167 uncertain factors may ~~either~~ according to expert's opinion, policy guideline or climate
168 projections ([Lempert et al., 2013](#)). Plausible futures can be generated via scenario
169 sampling algorithms as of Latin Hyper Cube Sampling ([Workman et al., 2021](#)).

170 3) **Alternative generation.** Climate adaptation alternatives were developed
171 through focus-group discussions during a workshop and an analysis of policy
172 documents. The workshop included key stakeholders such as flood experts,
173 policymakers, and residents. As a result, the existing flood options serve as the baseline
174 scenario, compared to the generated climate adaptation alternatives which are set to be
175 evaluated using flood modelling.

176 4) **Model simulation.** Flood inundation models such as SOBEK1D2D,
177 Mike1D2D ([Wang et al., 2018](#)) and Info Works can be used to simulate flood routing



178 process and produce maximum inundation maps, which further can be used for flood
179 risk assessment when incorporating the geospatial statistics.

180 **5) Robustness analysis.** To evaluate the robustness of all options that have the
181 highest utility under a certain threshold, robustness metrics (e.g. Laplace's principle of
182 insufficient reason) were used as the decision-making criterion. The calculation of
183 indicators such as the average risk reduction rate (ARRR) and benefit-cost ratio (BCR)
184 for each alternative option was performed for each scenario, with an assumption of
185 equal probability for their occurrence. Subsequently, the performance of each option
186 and its combination was evaluated by quantitative comparison and ranking stability
187 (McPhail et al., 2018).

188 **6) Adaptiveness analysis.** Valid periods of the alternative options were
189 determined based on the conditions of the successful scenarios under each (individual
190 or combined) option, in conjunction with a specific flood control objective. Optimizing
191 the value of coverage and density of subspace in the PRIM (Patient Rule Induction
192 Method) algorithm help to identify signposts in the adaptation pathway which is in line
193 with the idea of the tipping point in DAPP. Flexibility is evaluated by the ability of
194 convertibility.

195 **7) Multi-objective trade-off.** Multi-objective trade-off was implemented using
196 robustness and adaptiveness metrics to evaluate the candidate alternatives. All the
197 metrics are given equal weight and are compared based on their normalized values. The
198 alternative options with highest score to satisfy all the objectives are regarded most
199 promising.



200 **8) Robust adaptive pathway.** In light of the adaptability of the valid period
201 (tipping point) and flexibility of transitions in each alternative portfolio, potential
202 pathways were identified, and generated a roadmap based on transient scenarios. A
203 robust adaptive pathway was selected in multi-objective to satisfy the flood control
204 criteria for long-term planning. The signposts can be monitored to support future
205 decisions.

206 **2.2 Methods of robust adaptive pathway procedures**

207 **Robustness analysis**

208 The choice of robustness option is the meta-problem of **how to decide** (Herman et
209 **al., 2015**). The performance of a system is frequently described by robustness option
210 when dealing with a decision-making process, including significant uncertainty.
211 Various robustness metrics, including Maximax, Maximin, Mean-variance, Starr's
212 domain criterion, Laplace's principle of insufficient reason, etc., are used to evaluate a
213 system's performance in **various scenarios (state of the worlds)**. **Different robustness**
214 **metrics represent distinctive risk preferences, and the selection of robustness indicators**
215 **influences the choice of alternative options** (Giuliani and Castelletti, 2016). For the risk
216 aversion metric, the Laplace principle of insufficient reason is widely documented to
217 help identify the solution that performs best in neutral risk aversion. Furthermore, it
218 suggests that in the absence of knowledge of the probabilities associated with the
219 different scenarios, the decision could be taken by assigning equal probability to all
220 scenarios. The performance of option i is depicted as Equation (1).



$$221 \quad a_p = \arg \max_a \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(a_i, w_j) \right) \quad (1)$$

222 Where a_i is option i of alternative options set (a) (listed in table 2), and w_j is in
223 the scenario set w . $f(a_i, w_j)$ represents the option performance value of scenario j , a_p
224 is the selection of option p with best performance.

225 Satisfaction and regret are frequent indications of robustness options in RDM
226 decision-making procedures (Herman et al., 2015). Broadly, regret quantifies the cost
227 (not necessarily monetary) of choosing incorrectly. It can be defined as the cost of a
228 single solution, associated with the deviation from its baseline performance. On the
229 other hand, satisfaction can be defined as the amalgamation of effectiveness and
230 efficiency. In this situation, the evaluation of candidate options' performance is
231 presented as the deviation from the baseline performance. see Equation (2).

$$232 \quad P_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_j \frac{|f(a_i, w_j) - f(a_0, w_j)|}{f(a_0, w_j)} \quad (2)$$

233 Where P_i is the average performance of alternative options, $f(a_i, w_j)$ represents
234 the performance value of scenario j , and $f(a_0, w_j)$ is the performance of the **baseline**
235 **option** of scenario w_j .

236 Decision-makers care that whether **the scenario sets of alternative options** contain
237 an unacceptable possibility. **The threshold for vulnerable scenarios defines whether**
238 **there is an intolerable risk control level.** The domain criterion quantifies the volume of
239 the uncertain factor space in which a solution meets the decision-makers' performance
240 requirements. Indicators of risk control policy are frequently included in the research,
241 such as local environmental protection legislation, urban drainage planning, and other
242 documents. They can also provide appropriate reference opinions determined by local



243 governments or relevant decision makers and experts. Based on the elicitation of local
244 requirements, we define the P_i^* as the average performance of risk reduction which
245 satisfies the minimum threshold of the given flood control target ($F_0, F_0=0.7$ in this
246 case), as depicted in Equation (3).

$$247 \quad P_i^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(a_i, w_j) \geq F_0 \quad (3)$$

248 Where P_i^* represents the average performance value of the option a_i in all
249 plausible scenario that meets the given flood control target F_0 .

250 Internationally, the net present value of benefits (PVB) and the net present value of
251 costs (PVC) are commonly used to represent benefits and costs, respectively (Liao et
252 al., 2014). In this study, PVB is selected as the pluvial flood risk reduction rate (RRR)
253 before and after the implementation of the options, rather than as the pluvial flood risk
254 reduction value. It is important to note that the goal of this study is not to calculate the
255 direct risk of extreme pluvial flooding in the future, as the absolute value of the risk
256 would be too large for meaningful comparison. Therefore, the benefit-cost ratio (BCR)
257 is presented simply as the ratio of PVB to PVC.

258 **Adaptiveness analysis**

259 PRIM is an interactive statistical clustering algorithm that generates a series of
260 subspaces by peeling away layers of the uncertainty space, where the coverage and
261 density of points of interest in each box are greater than in the surrounding space
262 (Matrosov, 2013). As a visualized tool for exploratory analysis, PRIM is widely used in
263 many works to investigate either key factors causing system failure or vulnerable



264 scenarios that might cause alternative options' failure. Parameters of coverage, density,
265 and interpretability characterize the subspaces. These three metrics are usually
266 correlated, with increasing density resulting in decreasing coverage and interpretability.
267 It turns out that an analyst needs to ~~trade-off in~~ selecting the potential coverage, density,
268 and interpretability to achieve the best combination. The subspaces describe the
269 conditions beyond which coastal inundation impacts are unacceptable signifying
270 adaptation tipping points are reached (Ramm et al., 2018a). Key factors along with the
271 tipping point of options are evaluated in associated timeframes which need not be exact.
272 Identifying an indicative period at which conditions describing adaptation tipping
273 points indicate a valid period (or use-by year) (Haasnoot et al., 2013). The results of
274 PRIM can assist decision-makers in identifying sensitive ranges of uncertain factors or
275 combinations, and factors with little influence can be safely disregarded.

276 Following ~~a decision initially~~, flexibility in decision theory is related to the
277 remaining choices available in the following period. The larger this set, the more
278 flexibility the decision maker retains. This idea can be generalized to staged choices
279 over multiple periods. For example, Erfani et al. (2018) proved that flexibility is
280 valuable in providing decision nodes in multistage scenarios (planning periods in every
281 5 years) for least-cost water supply intervention scheduling. One way of deriving the
282 value of flexibility is thus by comparing costs and benefits of a flexible investment
283 strategy with those of a **less flexible, that is, a more robust strategy** (Kind et al., 2018).
284 However, flexibility is not treated as delayed option value as other ROA work
285 calculated, instead, we consider the convertibility of options that is still in line with the



286 idea of wait-and-see yet is more straight-forward.

287 **Multi-objective trade-off**

288 The cost and benefit of investment in adaption options may lead to a static
289 decision-making perspective. Therefore, an important question was raised for robust
290 decision-making of how to avoid failure scenarios regarding factors including risk
291 reduction rates over time, cost of option, and economic benefit ratio. On this basis,
292 making robust decisions needs to include other factors beyond cost and benefit, such as
293 **valid period** and flexibility, for a comprehensive evaluation in the long-term (Erfani et
294 al. 2018)

295 The optimization of options' combinations can be identified via the trade-off
296 process by Equation (4).

$$297 \text{ Maximize } F(l_{p,r}) = (y_{flexibility}, y_{valid\ period}, y_{cost-benefit}, y_{performance}) \quad (4)$$

298 Where $l_{p,r} = [p_i, r_i] \forall p \in P; \forall r \in R$

299 Where $l_{p,r}$ represents the pathway scheme, r_i is any of the robustness metric set R.
300 $y_{flexibility}$, $y_{valid\ period}$, $y_{cost-benefit}$ and $y_{performance}$ are the values of indicators
301 from different dimensional objects.

302 **Robust adaptive pathway**

303 Adaption tipping points (**valid periods**) are central to adaptation pathways, the
304 **conditions under which an action no longer meets the specified objectives**. The timing
305 of the adaptation points for a given action, its valid period, is scenario dependent. The
306 DAPP, manually drawn based on model results or expert judgment, presents an
307 overview of relevant pathways (Haasnoot et al., 2020). In this study, we first examined



308 the valid period of alternative options by PRIM analysis to identify acceptably robust
309 adaptation pathway for future flood control. We then identified the combination of
310 candidate pathways in consideration of both valid period and flexibility, ensuring the
311 adaptive solutions in incremental stages allow for maintaining flood control levels
312 before committing to larger schemes. Roadmap of candidate's pathways are generated
313 during this procedure. Lastly, the preferred robust pathway is determined by a trade-off
314 analysis of all the criteria.

315 **3 Case study**

316 **3.1 Background**

317 Shanghai, with a domain of 6,340 km², provides residences to 24.9 million
318 population with a built-up area of 1237.9km² in 2021. Shanghai has been perhaps the
319 most important economic and financial center in China, and it now aspires to be one of
320 the world's most important economic, financial, shipping, and trade centers ([Shanghai](#)
321 [Statistic Yearbook, 2021](#)). Shanghai is surrounded by water on three sides: the East
322 China Sea to the east, the Yangtze River Estuary to the north, and Hangzhou Bay to the
323 south. In addition, the Huangpu River, a Yangtze River tributary, flows through the heart
324 of Shanghai. The average yearly precipitation is approximately 1400mm in recent 10
325 years, with 63% concentrated during the flooding season from May to September
326 ([Shanghai Climate Change Research Center, 2022](#)). As a result, the most catastrophic
327 hazard in Shanghai has been floods produced by torrential rainfall, which annually
328 disrupts transportation and other social activities, causes substantial economic losses,
329 and threatens urban safety.



330 Shanghai has the lowest elevation (with averagely 4m above m.s.l.) and large
331 numbers of old-lane residential buildings in central city, which have fewer floors
332 compared to other districts that is vulnerable to the extreme pluvial flood events see
333 [Figure 1](#)). The spatial distribution of rainfall will continue to concentrate in urban areas,
334 and the increasing likelihood of extreme precipitation ([Liang and Ding, 2017](#)),
335 combined with the trends of relative sea-level, will cause stakeholders, includes
336 residents, policymakers, and scientists etc., to be concerned about the rising flooding
337 risk in delta cities of Shanghai ([Du et al., 2020](#)).



338
339 Figure 1 Case area, administrative, and solution district (blue shade) in center Shanghai,
340 including spatial distribution of building footprints indicating the number of stories (gray shades),
341 the base map was provided by Esri, using ArcGIS Online Services.



342 3.2 Research Framing

343 Based on the proposed framework, the dimensions, components, and metrics of
 344 this study are organized as shown in Table 1. To ensure urban safety, this study defines
 345 an explicit flood control objective of achieving a 70% average risk reduction rate, in
 346 alignment with the Shanghai Flood Control and Drainage Plan (2020–2035) (Shanghai
 347 Municipal Water Authority, 2020).

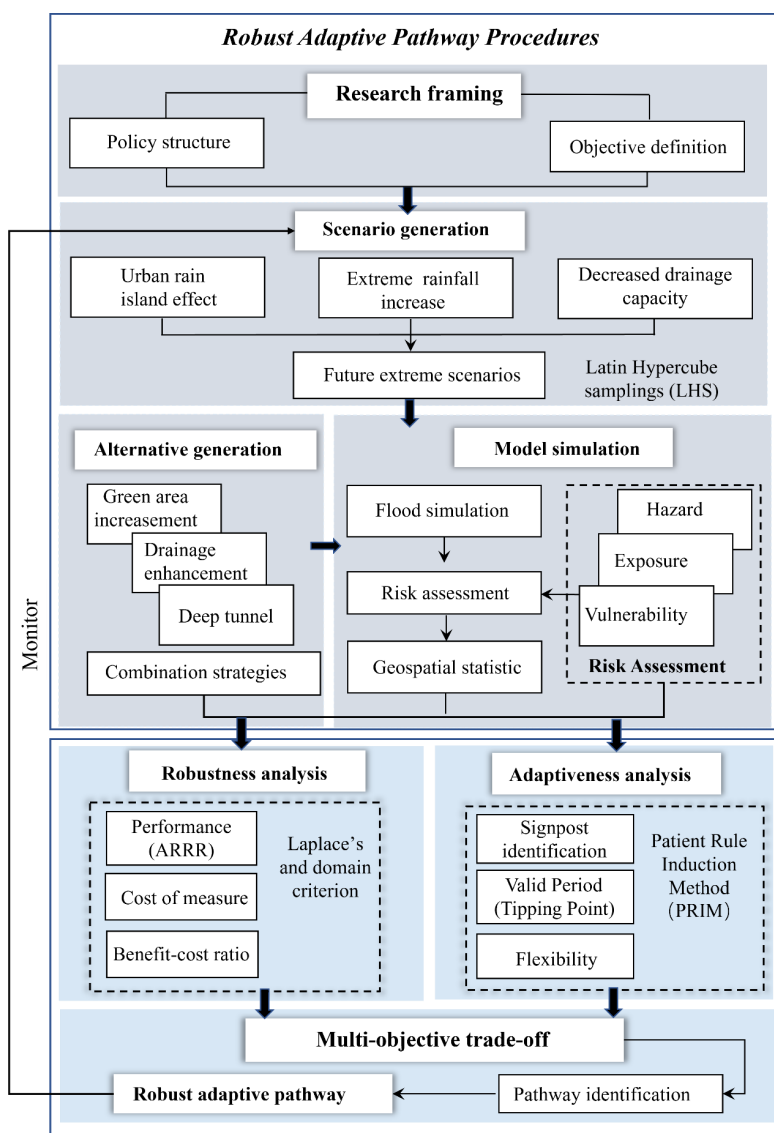
348 Table 1 Dimensions of the research framework

Dimension	Components			Metrics
Research framing	Alternative options to generate robust and adaptive pathway			Definition of flood control objective
Scenarios generation	Increased rainfall	Rain island effect	Drainage decrease	Latin hypercube sampling (LHS)
Alternatives generation	Drainage increased	Increase of green area	Deep tunnel with 30%, 50%, or 70% of runoff absorption	Predefined by local flood control plan
Model simulation	Hydrology	Flood risk	Geospatial statistics	Grid aggregation
Robustness analysis	Performance (ARRR)	Measure Cost (Life cycle cost)	Benefit	Laplace and Domain criterion
Adaptiveness analysis	Signpost	Valid period	Flexibility	PRIM
Multi-objective Trade-off Robust adaptive pathway	Robustness		Adaptiveness	Metric evaluation
	Candidate pathway identification, roadmap generation, and monitoring of signposts			Transition scenarios

349 The robustness analysis serves as the foundation of our methodology, ensuring
 350 that the proposed solutions can withstand future uncertainties. Once robustness is
 351 assessed, we proceed to the adaptiveness analysis, which allows us to account for
 352 flexibility in response to unforeseen challenges. The trade-off optimization in terms of
 353 robustness and adaptiveness was of particular significance to providing iterative stress
 354 tests over many plausible scenarios using robustness metrics and identifying valid



355 periods and flexibility to generate alternative pathways. Following the structure of
 356 robust decision-making pathway framework, Figure 2 illustrates the entire procedures
 357 for long-term flood control planning in the Shanghai case study.



358
 359 Figure 2 Framework of robust adaptive decision-making pathway, which incorporates the
 360 robustness, adaptiveness, multi-objective trade-off, and pathway generation (blue boxes).



361 3.3 Scenario generation

362 Precipitation is predicted very likely to increase in the Yangtze River Basin in the
363 21st century (Hui et al., 2018), and the frequency and intensity of extreme rainstorm
364 events may continue to increase (uncertain factor of the α). Shanghai's spatial rainfall
365 patterns reveal a significant "rain island effect" between urban centers and suburbs
366 (Liang and Ding, 2017) (uncertain factor of the β). In addition, land subsidence has
367 been a persistent issue due to the groundwater exploitation and construction of high-
368 rise buildings (Yang et al., 2020). By 2050, it is projected that the current river
369 embankment and drainage systems in Shanghai will experience a 20-30% reduction in
370 capacity due to a likely relative rise in sea level of 50 cm (compared to the year of 2010),
371 caused by both sea level rise and land subsidence (Wang et al., 2018). The uncertain
372 factor of the decrease of drainage capacity(γ) is designed to be the degradation effect
373 of restraining the water from the urban drainage system flowing to the river system due
374 to the high river water level caused by the continually rising sea level, land subsidence,
375 and other degradation factors.

376 This study focused on a record-breaking convective rainfall that occurred on
377 September 13, 2013 and had an intensity record of 140.7mm within 3 hour (at 17-19h).
378 The variation interval of each uncertainty factors was clarified, and Latin Hyper Cube
379 Sampling (LHS) was used to construct 100 future scenario cases based on the historic
380 "913" extreme rainfall event in 2013 (Supplementary materials Text 1).



381 **3.4 Alternative generation**

382 It is acknowledged that the current Shanghai flood control infrastructure is
383 insufficient to protect the city from long-term inundation risk (Shanghai Municipal
384 Water Authority, 2020). Three options, drainage improvement, increase of green area,
385 and construction of deep tunnel, are pre-defined with stakeholders of experts and
386 decision-makers following the Shanghai Flood Control and Drainage Plan (2020-2035).
387 The solution district locates in the core business district (CBD) of Shanghai and is
388 highlighted in [Figure 1](#). We defined the existing structure of flood control measures as
389 the baseline and evaluated alternative measures' performance verse the baseline control
390 level in the flood simulation model ([Table S4](#)).

391 **3.5 Model simulation**

392 Simulations of extreme pluvial flood inundation under climate change scenarios
393 are carried out using the Shanghai Urban Inundation Model (SUIM) ([Supplementary](#)
394 [materials Text 2](#)). It was created to couple multiple simulation processes, which consists
395 of the SCS-CN hydrological model, statistical analysis of flooding results, risk
396 assessment, and assessment of adaptation measures. Appropriate socioeconomic
397 indicators were selected to characterize the exposure of the elements at risk and the
398 vulnerability curve to evaluate the flood risk in all plausible scenarios ([Supplementary](#)
399 [materials Text 3](#)). We then coupled the hydrological module and risk assessment module
400 to assess the future risk ([Supplementary materials Text 3](#)). Three climate adaptation
401 options are quantitatively characterized in the risk assessment system. The benefit-cost
402 ratio (BCR) of all options is calculated according to the performances of the risk



403 reduction rate over the life cycle cost ([Supplementary materials Text 4](#)).

404 **4 Results**

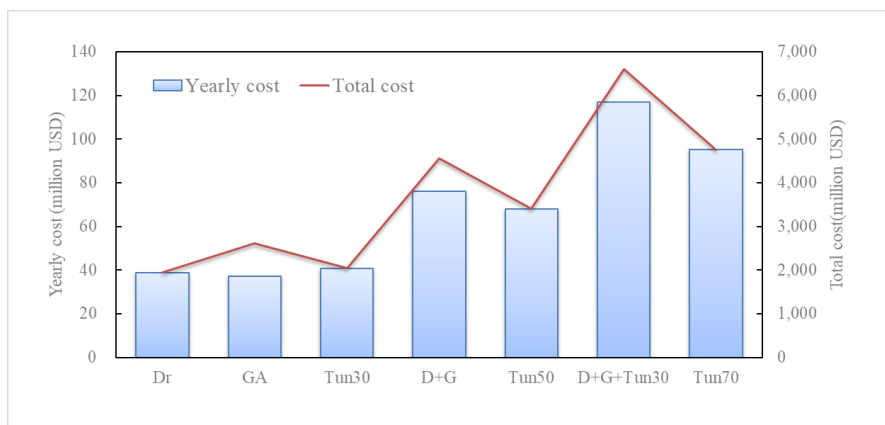
405 **4.1 Robustness analysis**

406 This section presents the performance evaluation results, including average risk
407 reduction rate (ARRR) and Benefit-cost ratio (BCA), to reflect **the robustness** of
408 potential climate adaptation options ([Supplementary materials Text 3](#)). Benefit-cost is
409 the evaluation dimension for the robustness metrics, we evaluated their robustness
410 under various plausible scenarios ([Equation 1 in Section of ‘Methods’](#)). It should be
411 noted that benefit-cost, was defined as the average risk reduction rate (ARRR) per unit
412 cost based on the robustness metrics of Laplace’s Insufficient Reason. Given that
413 drainage capacity reduction (γ) is the main factor affecting the solutions’ performance,
414 thus the study selects γ as the only explanatory indicator to explore the failure scenario
415 of options based on the PRIM method.

416 As depicted in [Table 2](#), the ARRR is calculated ([Equation 2](#)) to analyze the
417 effectiveness of (the combination of) options. The average yearly cost of single options,
418 which includes increasing drainage capacity (Dr), expanding green areas (GA), and
419 constructing a deep tunnel with 30% runoff absorption (Tun30), is at a comparative
420 level, ranging from 39 to 41 million USD per year. Their performance is relatively
421 unsatisfactory (the ARRR is less than 0.39.) However, the ARRR for the combined
422 option (D+G), drainage improvement and public green area, is higher (0.62) than the
423 sum of two single options (0.51), indicating that the composite option will be more



424 effective of reducing flood risk. Furthermore, it demonstrates that the combined options
 425 (i.e., D+G and D+G+T30) are satisfactory in terms of ARRR performance but not
 426 economically attractive due to their relatively higher costs.



427

Figure 3 Yearly cost and total cost of alternative options

428

429 While two single options of deep tunnel (namely Tun50, Tun70) seem very
 430 attractive (achieving high ranks in both ARRR and BCR).

431

Table 2 The ratio of the benefit-cost of each adaptation options

Option	ARRR (without control target, %)	Cost (million USD / year)	Benefit-cost ratio (%)
Dr	0.25	39	0.09
GA	0.26	37	0.10
Tun30	0.39	41	0.14
D+G	0.62	76	0.12
Tun50	0.74	68	0.16
D+G+Tun30	0.85	117	0.10
Tun70	0.87	95	0.13



432 4.2 Adaptiveness analysis

433 Scenario discovery validates the decrease of drainage capacity is the most critical
434 uncertainty in defining the risk reduction rate of performance objective. The failure
435 scenarios could be identified when the flood control target is not met. We further
436 interpret failure scenarios by selecting subspace of each alternative options under flood
437 control target using PRIM algorithm to optimize the combined value of coverage and
438 density. The **valid period** is determined as the point when the single options or the
439 combinations cease to fulfill the flood control target, indicated by the time which is
440 characterized by γ (the reduction in drainage capacity).

441 According to the results in [Table 3](#), it was found that within the 70% risk reduction
442 control target ([Equation 3](#)), the single options of Dr and GA performed less favorably
443 (relatively smaller ARRR) and can quickly fail to meet the risk reduction target (with
444 no larger than 0.1 of γ). Tun30 and D+R are very comparative since they preform very
445 closely (similar results on ARRR and γ) but still not attractive. While Tun50 seems very
446 attractive in terms of ARRR (0.89) however, it does not possess higher valid period (γ)
447 than both D+G+Tun30 and Tun 70. Surprisingly, both D+G+Tun30 and Tun70 can
448 function well in an effective way for a longer time. So far, D+G+Tun30 and Tun70 have
449 proven to be highly competitive in terms of cost-effectiveness and valid period over
450 time.

451 Table 3 ARRR and coverage and density of success scenarios in each option combinations
452 under 70% risk reduction control standard

Option	ARRR (with	Coverage	Density	Decreased drainage
--------	------------	----------	---------	--------------------



	control target, %		capacity (γ) (valid period)	
GA	0.59	1	0.22	0.04
Dr	0.62	1	0.20	0.07
Tun30	0.73	1	0.75	0.1
D+G	0.74	0.9	0.82	0.11
Tun50	0.89	0.95	0.98	0.29
D+G+Tun30	0.86	0.99	0.98	0.48
Tun70	0.87	1	1	0.5

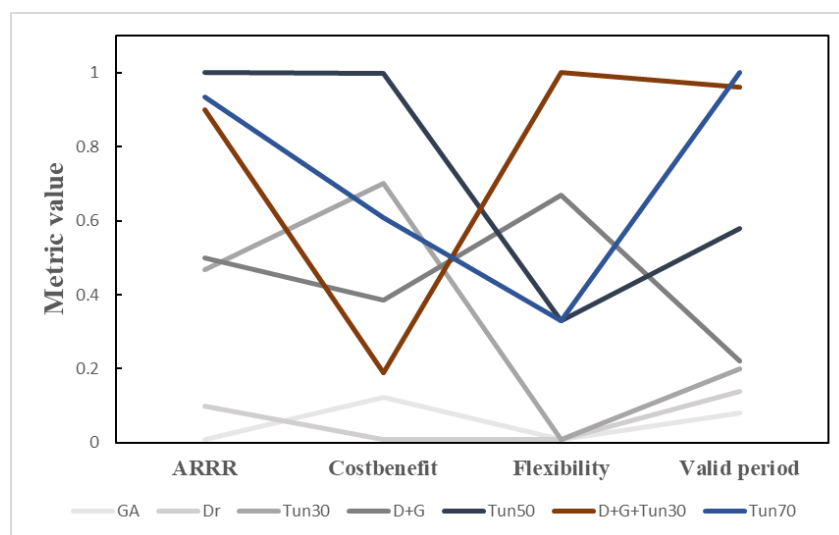
453 we define flexibility as the number of transitions by enumerating overall option
454 combinations regarding adaptive transferable pathways from the original option
455 (current flood control infrastructure) to the destination options (e.g., D+G+Tun30 and
456 Tun70, Figure 5). For example, the D+G+Tun30 comprises three single options,
457 allowing it to begin with any of the three and delay further action until a tipping point
458 approaches, giving it a convertibility score of three (Table S6). Therefore, each single
459 option has a value of one for convertibility.

460 **4.3 Multi-objective trade-off**

461 Robustness analysis suggests Tun50 and Tun70 might be attractive while
462 adaptiveness analysis indicates D+G+30 as the most appealing. Therefore, the single-
463 objective metrics yield different decision choices, it is crucial to evaluate all the metrics
464 to conduct a multi-objective trade-off among the alternative options to assist the robust
465 and adaptive decision making. Multi-objectives of (the combination of) options
466 consider all four metrics, including BCR, and performance of the risk reduction control
467 criteria (ARRR>70%), valid period (γ), and the flexibility. We solved the multi-
468 objective problem using normalized and equally weighted metrics (Equation 4). Figure



469 4 depicts the results of BCR, ARRR in control criteria, valid period, and flexibility of
470 each option's combination. The higher the normalized rating, the greater the payoff. The
471 outcome demonstrates that both GA and Dr perform poorly, whereas Tun30 and D+G
472 are not robust enough compared to Tun 50, D+G+Tun30, and Tun70. It needs to be
473 highlighted that Tun 50, D+G+Tun30, and Tun70 possess high priority; however,
474 D+G+Tun30 outperforms due to its well-balanced overall risk control performance and
475 high value of flexibility (Table S7).



476
477 **Figure 4** Multi-objective trade-off of alternative options with normalized value of robustness
478 metrics (the preference of priority is accepted from low(bottom) to high(top)).

479 4.4 Robust adaptive pathway

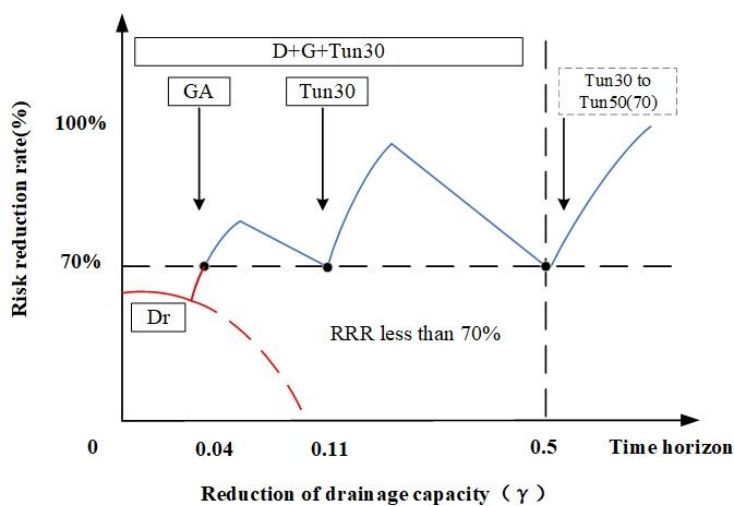
480 Pathway identification

481 The candidate pathway was identified by enumerating the possible combinations
482 of options. In this study, we found two potential pathways including from Tun30 to



483 Tun70, and from Dr or GA to D+G+Tun30. It can be observed from [Figure 5](#) that when
484 γ increases, the performance of options of Dr (or GA, vice versa) steadily diminishes
485 until the risk control target are not satisfied.

486 The drainage capacity, affected by the compound event of land subsidence, sea
487 level rise, and storm surge, is deemed to be undermined (which is reflected by drainage
488 capacity reduction rate γ) **over time**. [Figure 5](#) illustrates the concept of an option
489 combination's valid period using Dr+GA+Tun30 as an example. ARRR to begin with
490 Dr is 0.62, with an increase in γ , Dr fails ($\gamma=0.07$), and ARRR will decrease further if
491 no additional options are taken. The addition of GA can increase the ARRR to 0.74
492 before Dr and D+G fail ($\gamma=0.11$). The ARRR will continue to decrease if options are
493 not strengthened. Before D+G completely fails, incorporating Tun30 can increase the
494 ARRR to 0.86; as γ increases, D+G+Tun30 fails at $\gamma=0.48$. To ensure the adaptive
495 robustness of the combination of options, decision-makers can increase the service
496 coverage area and rainwater absorption capacity of the deep tunnel project in the core
497 area prior to the total failure of D+G+ Tun30. In other words, the transition from Tun30
498 to Tun50 and even Tun70, along with the combination of options, will be stable over
499 the long-term time horizon.



500

501 [Figure 5](#) Flexible pathway of combination options of drainage improvement (Dr), green
502 area increment (GA), and deep tunnel with 30% absorption (Tun30), representing the risk
503 reduction rate undermines with the reduction of drainage capacity. An example of
504 $Dr+GA+Tun30$

505 Pathway generation

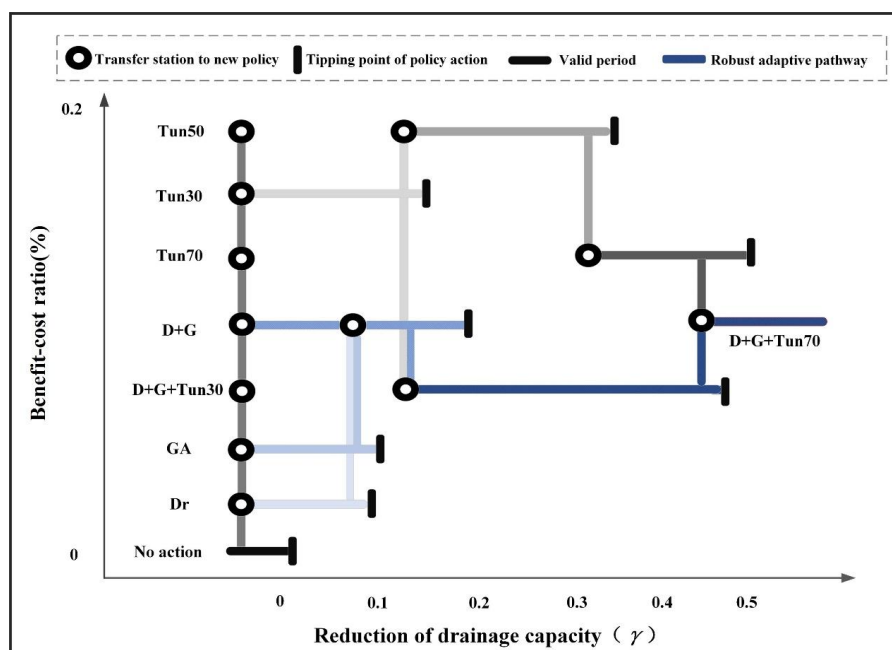
506 We comprehensively evaluated the candidate pathways by considering
507 performances, BCR, valid period, and flexibility. The time frame lacks an absolute time
508 reference but still offers a relative tracking of the rate at which relative sea levels are
509 rising.

510 [Figure 6](#) depicts two robust transition pathways: D+G to D+G+Tun30 and Tun30
511 to either Tun50 or Tun70. The two pathways D+G+Tun30 and Tun30 to Tun70, provide
512 adaptive short and long-term pathway schemes from a flexibility standpoint. The short-
513 term options are used as transitional schemes, and new options can be added before
514 their failure, i.e., pathway transition, to maintain the risk control objectives. In addition,



515 the two schemes can complement each other and incorporate new options before the
516 system's long-term robustness is compromised. Additionally, D+G+Tun30 and Tun70
517 leave room for upgrading to the costlier and more durable D+G+Tun70 in the long run
518 when γ exceeds 0.5 (e.g., sea level or land subsidence exceeds observing increase
519 speed).

520 Tun70 possesses the highest robustness and the longest valid period; however, the
521 early investment in large gray infrastructure will lead to a path-dependency dilemma if
522 the mild scenarios unfold in the future. Considering that Dr and GA have been gradually
523 implemented according to Shanghai Urban Rainwater Drainage Planning (2020-2035)
524 (Shanghai Municipal Water Authority, 2020) and that combining green and grey options
525 is in line with the direction of sustainable urban development and has been widely
526 adopted domestically. In conclusion, A promising robust adaptive pathway should
527 initially begin with GA and Dr, followed by a combination of D+G. Ultimately as time
528 goes by with gradually undermined drainage capacity, it should incorporate Tun30 with
529 the flexibility to expand to Tun70.



530

531 Figure 6 Generation of robust adaptive pathways with two potential pathways from either Dr or GA
 532 to D+G+Tun30, and from Tun30 to Tun70 as the reduction of drainage capacity over time (x-axis).
 533 The options are sequenced in an upward relative higher BCR (y-axis, also see in Table 2).

534 5 Discussion

535 5.1 Key findings

536 Applying this framework to the case of the reoccurrence in the 2050s (of the
 537 extreme rainfall events on 13 September 2013) in Shanghai reveals informative findings
 538 to urban planners and other stakeholders. First, the performance of climate adaptation
 539 options (for addressing pluvial flood risk) decreases as the drainage capacity reduction
 540 rate (γ) increases (Table 3). This result is indirectly supported by events in June 2015
 541 and July 2021, which caused severe inundation in central Shanghai for days because



542 the high water levels of rivers in the region prevented rainwater from being pumped or
543 drained from the drainage system into the river network. This finding also suggests that
544 drainage capacity is a key determining factor for the performance of options in other
545 delta cities which may rely on discharge to the rivers (e.g., Guangzhou, [Ho Chiming](#)
546 City, London, etc.) ([Hu et al., 2019](#)). Urban planners in those cities need to consider
547 scenarios of high-water levels in the river with a joint of extreme storm surge under
548 typhoon takes place in a high astronomical tide period at estuary. Such an event would
549 significantly undermine the drainage capacity thus leading to severe flooding inside the
550 city and bringing potential disastrous impacts (e.g. [Zhou et al., 2019](#)).

551 Second, as the drainage capacity decreases(γ), valid periods of different option
552 combinations varied significantly, showing a discrete distribution, which ranged from
553 [0.04~0.5](#) with a corresponding ARRR ranging from 0.59~0.89 ([Table 3](#)). Moreover,
554 the most cost-effective solution may not always offer the longest valid period within an
555 explicit flood control target (e.g. 70% risk reduction as a target in our case study), and
556 therefore cannot be considered satisfactory ([Figure 4](#)). The findings highlight the
557 importance of the discussion regarding the long-term robustness of solutions which has
558 been overseen in many flood- risk control works in delta megacities. It is also further
559 implying that if there is no consideration of the flood risk reduction target, discussions
560 about a robust decision plan with stakeholders is meaningless. This urges to pay great
561 attention to be proactive by strengthening the dynamic pathway and closely monitoring
562 the decrease of the drainage capacity ahead of the pace of relative sea level rising
563 ([Figure 5](#)).



564 **5.2 Robustness and adaptiveness trade-off**

565 The comparison in [Section 5.1](#) brings up a vital decision-making issue on the trade-
566 offs between the benefit and cost of alternative options. In general, options with better
567 performance required higher costs, which was also proved in any distinctive option in
568 [Table 2 and Table S6](#). It is also demonstrated that the combination of alternative options
569 such as D+G showed a better performance than the single option of Dr and GA at the
570 same cost. However, the cost of an option is not strictly proportional to its benefit (risk
571 reduction rate) ([Figure 3](#)). For instance, Tun 50 possesses better performance in
572 reducing inundation risks associated with the relatively low yearly economic cost
573 compared to D+G. Because it is difficult to measure the pros and cons of the costly
574 solution to maintain a higher protection standard and economical solution to possess an
575 acceptable performance (cost-effectiveness), planners typically underestimate both
576 influences by a large margin.

577 In recognition of this limitation, it can be realized that single-objective targets e.g.,
578 flood control performance (ARRR), or financial control (BCR) may lead to biased
579 decisions or maladaptation for the long-term horizon. For example, [Table 2](#) shows that
580 Tun50 has the highest cost-effectiveness (0.16), while the D+G+Tun30 is positioned at
581 an average level, both of which performed well in reducing flood risk. In sharp contrast,
582 the adaptiveness analysis shows that the D+G+Tun30 behaved significantly better
583 during a reasonable period than Tun 50, which is a more flexible and adaptive option
584 for long-term planning ([Figure 6](#)). Therefore, it tends to a biased decision if the decision
585 maker only focus on economic return (BCR). Besides, it illuminates the decision maker



586 that priorities on **grey** infrastructure (e.g., Tun 50) at the starting point yields good
587 performance (74% of ARRR) but may lead to over-investment and **path dependency**.
588 Moreover, there is concern that the valid period could be shorten if decision-makers opt
589 for the most cost-effective solution (Tun50) instead of choosing a more expensive but
590 very effective combination (D+G+Tun30). This example enriches the literature on “no
591 regret” planning, which should be robust, adaptive, and financially efficient at the
592 starting point for decision-makers, keep options open (flexible), and avoid lock-ins. To
593 minimize regret in the near to long future, the adaptation solutions should pay great
594 attention to both robustness and adaptiveness, which also illuminates the importance of
595 multi-objective trade-off as mentioned in previous work (Kirshen et al., 2015; Ramm
596 et al., 2018a).

597 **5.3 Optimization of the synthesis framework**

598 Although there is a myriad of research running flood risk simulations and assessing
599 the BCR of solutions in Shanghai and other megacities in the coastal areas, seldom of
600 which considers the entire process in making the applicable decision (Du et al., 2020;
601 Sun et al., 2021; Ward et al., 2017). In filling up this niche, this study has proposed a
602 synthesized planning-supporting framework that is capable of considering the entire
603 cascade of procedures from the uncertainties of future urban rainfall pattern, to the
604 sampling of future scenarios, to the hydrological modeling, and to flood risk assessment
605 for the robustness and adaptiveness of alternative options, allowing for making robust
606 and adaptive pathways (refer to Figure 1).

607 Compared to other DMDU theories, the synthesized framework asks for finding



608 proxies for solutions' performances in reducing risk, decision-making in terms of cost
609 and benefit, and identifying priorities and adaptive pathways from option combinations
610 in the multi-objective fusion process. The conversations established a fast modeling-
611 interpreting-remodeling feedback mechanism between the analyst and decision maker,
612 which helps reduce the complexities and uncertainties encountered in ROA or other
613 related work (e.g. [Kind et al., 2018](#)), and defining explicit objective ([Raso et al., 2019](#)).
614 Upon that, incorporating the multi-dimensions of constraints allows for rapidly
615 minimizing disruption factors, balancing alternative solutions' interpretability, coverage,
616 and density, and visualizing the applicable pathway.

617 The advantage of our decision-supporting tool in running comprehensive
618 evaluations for thousand combinations of scenarios within one or a few days and with
619 moderate demand for input data implies its disadvantage in lack of details at the finer
620 grid-cell level, e.g., 10m or even smaller grid-cells, or at larger research area. The
621 second limitation is that the risk assessment in our work considered only the direct
622 losses caused by inundation while ignoring influences on transportation and other urban
623 functions and the cascading effect across urban sectors. Moreover, when discussing
624 cost-benefit analysis, there is a limitation in fully accounting for the social and
625 environmental benefits. These overlooked aspects lead to a narrow focus on financial
626 costs, while the broader impacts on communities and ecosystems are neglected. Besides,
627 cost should not be limited to financial expenditure alone. Human resources, such as the
628 effort and time required for design and implementation in cross-sector collaboration,
629 are significant components of cost, particularly when implementing nature-based



630 solutions. Additionally, it is important to consider whether Shanghai has sufficient land
631 resources available for the expansion of green spaces, as this is a critical factor in the
632 cost assessment.

633 **In addition, further work needs to discuss the determination the weights of multi-**
634 **objectives when conducting trade-off analysis.** The balance between robustness and
635 adaptiveness may vary depending on whether the priority is for immediate, high-impact
636 actions or long-term sustainability. The weight assigned to each factor should reflect
637 the specific goals. Besides, scenario discovery was implemented to find the
638 combination option rather than an optimization algorithm to search for the best optimal
639 combinations in many alternative options. Future work may apply machine learning
640 methods, for example genetic algorithms, to solve complex problems of multi-objective
641 targets under different robust metrics.

642 **6 Conclusion**

643 From short to long-term planning, managing inundation risk caused by future
644 extreme flooding events is challenged by physical, environmental, social-economic and
645 political uncertainty, etc. This research presents a robust adaptive pathway framework
646 that integrates robustness and adaptiveness to evaluate flood-control options. The new
647 framework was tested to carry out the research on robust adaptive pathways regarding
648 the multi-objective that includes solutions' performance, cost-effectiveness, valid
649 period, and flexibility under many plausible climate change futures.

650 The results showed that traditional evaluation criteria, such as effectiveness and
651 cost-efficiency, are insufficient for addressing long-term robustness in climate



652 adaptation options, as they may result in biased and path-dependent outcomes.
653 Therefore, integrating valid period and flexibility metrics will offer more rational
654 insights for developing adaptive pathways that can respond to future dynamic changes.
655 Our case study showed that the high robustness option (e.g., Tun 50 and Tun 70)
656 performs well under flood control targets and may yield a better BCR(Tun50). While it
657 possesses low flexibility if the decreased of drainage capacity(γ) induced by future sea
658 level rising and land subsidence unfold to be not attractive/satisfactory. D+G+Tun30,
659 achieves the highest score of multi-objective trade-off if both robustness and
660 adaptiveness are taken into account in long-term planning under uncertainty.

661 This work can not only provide a scientific framework for Shanghai's adaptation
662 strategic policies planning in coping with extreme weather and climate events under
663 climate change, but also provide both the theoretical foundation of decision-making
664 methods and best practices to support the decision-making process for other coastal
665 megacities to adapt to the changing climate and mitigate the extreme pluvial flood risk.
666

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671

672 **Code/Data availability**

673 Case study region data in Shanghai can be found via Shanghai Statistic Yearbook,
674 Shanghai Flood Control and Drainage Plan (2020-2035). Figures are made in ArcGIS



675 Pro 3.0 and Microsoft Excel. Models in this paper are mainly coding in Rust
676 environment. All the data and software will be opened to the research community upon
677 acceptance of publication. Data sample can be found via open-accessed figShare via
678 following URL:

679 Hu, Hengzhi (2023). Robust Adaptive Pathway for Long-term Flood Control
680 Planning: Urban Delta in Coping with Pluvial Flood Risk under Future Deep
681 Uncertainty. Multi-criteria trade-off.xlsx. figshare. Dataset.
682 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24899340.v1>

683 **Author contribution**

684 Hengzhi Hu conceived the study, designed the framework, collected the data and
685 led the analysis of the result and responsible for writing the manuscript and ensuring its
686 intellectual content. Qian Ke contributed to the design and implementation of the
687 decision-making framework, and conduct the manuscript writing and revising. Wei Wu
688 supported the climate projection of the case study area of Shanghai and identified the
689 scenario uncertainties. Min Zhang validated the simulation result of pluvial flood and
690 funding support. Jiahong Wen supervised the project and provided expertise in flood
691 risk management, and assisted in finalizing the manuscript.

692 **Competing interests**

693 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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