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Integrated Methodology for Urban Flood Risk Mitigation in Cittanova, Italy

Fabio Scionti, Ph.D.; Marcelo Gomes Miguez, D.Sc.; Giuseppe Barbaro, Ph.D.; Matheus Martins De Sousa, D.Sc.; Giandomenico Foti, Ph.D.; and Caterina Canale, Dr.Eng.

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An Integrated Methodology for urban flood risk mitigation: the case study of Cittanova (Italy)

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An Integrated Methodology for urban flood risk mitigation: the case study of Cittanova

(Italy)

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Abstract

Urban growth usually aggravates flooding problems, disrupting city life and requiring engineering works to ensure safety conditions to lower lying city areas. Traditionally, canalisation works were the preferred choice for flood mitigation. However, increased city growth limits the effectiveness of this approach due to the lack of free spaces and local canalisation practices tend to transfer flooding downstream in a non-sustainable way. In the last eighty years, the town of Cittanova, in the

25 province of Reggio Calabria (Italy), has been subjected to several flooding events related to river
26 overflows or storm drain failures causing significant damages to mobility, households and even to
27 public safety. This paper focuses on the Forio Creek, which is a tributary of the Vacale River and
28 runs through the city. The study was carried out using mathematical tools within a conceptual
29 framework with the aim of mapping floods to prevent damage to the city and avoid future losses,
30 thus reducing risks. MODCEL was the hydrodynamic model used to map urban floods and to
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32 flood levels to socio-economic losses. Both the MODCEL and the FRI were previously available,
33 but their combined use and the final integrated analyses carried in this paper introduce a simple and
34 quantifiable flood risk procedure to identify the present flood risks and to foresee future scenarios
35 whilst supporting alternative design and prioritizing flood control choices. This framework was
36 applied to Cittanova and validated by practical observations.

37 **Keywords:** Urban floods; Flood risk management; Planning and design; MODCEL; Multi-
38 criteria index; Cittanova.

39

40 **Introduction**

41 A city's interaction with its natural watershed leads to typical urban structures acting
42 hydraulically, complementing the drainage system functions, when this system fails in its primary
43 task of safely conveying rainwaters. In this situation, for example, streets may act as channels,
44 squares and buildings may act as undesired reservoirs, walls may play the role of weirs, and so on.
45 The land shapes and varied structures of the built environment thus interact to diversify possible
46 flow patterns (Miguez *et al.*, 2011), increasing the complexity of the phenomenon. Therefore, the
47 inherent difficulties in predicting the dynamics of water flowing in complex urban environment
48 systems lead to the use of mathematical models.

49 The development of models describing the rainfall-runoff relation over a catchment area
50 has been the prime focus of hydrological research for many decades. Hydrodynamic models are
51 also commonly used to route floods in watersheds. The answers provided by these models,
52 however, are just the first step in the task of risk analysis.

53 Risk assessment involves two distinct components: the probability of an event; and the
54 magnitude of consequences produced by that event (Mcanally *et al.*, 2013). It is necessary to know
55 what vulnerabilities arise from the urban system and what damages and losses may occur when the
56 socio-economic elements of the system are exposed to hazard. These expected losses can be
57 explained by:

- 58 (1) the exposure of the system elements,
 - 59 (2) the susceptibility to suffer damage related to these exposed elements, and
 - 60 (3) their ability to react and return to their reference state, which is associated with the
- 61 concept of resilience (see for instance Andersson, 2006; Godschalk, 2003; Jha *et al.*, 2012; Prasad
62 *et al.*, 2009; Vale & Campanella, 2005; Wang & Blackmore, 2009; Miguez & Veról, 2016;
63 Connelly *et al.*, 2016; Hossain *et al.*, 2017).

64 Rainfall is the natural source event that triggers a flood hazard. However, the flood
65 characteristics and severity depend on how the watershed converts rainfall into runoff, and the
66 consequent peak discharges conveyed. Flood control measures are therefore required to enhance the
67 resilience of the urban environment to adapt to extreme rainfall events. In this context, the
68 opportunities offered by the open spaces system and landscaping to re-interpret and update urban
69 water systems are considered (Blackmore and Plant, 2008). Reducing flood risk is a task that may
70 be accomplished by minimising the results of the rainfall-runoff transformation with on-source
71 control measures, and redistributing the flood flows in space and time by using storage and
72 infiltration structures to fulfil this aim (Burian and Edwards, 2002). Drainage design procedures are
73 evolving from a single focus on the primary services that ensure public health, such as flood
74 mitigation, towards a more integrated use of urban waters within the city itself (Walsh *et al.*, 2016).
75 These new trends in urban drainage design point to systemic solutions for flood control. Distributed
76 measures are used to restore flow patterns in the watershed, simulating hydrologic conditions that
77 happened prior to urbanisation.

78 The related literature shows the development of a set of concepts that stress the evolution
79 of a more holistic approach (Fletcher *et al.*, 2015). It is possible to mention some examples that
80 highlight this conceptual evolution as follows: Low Impact Development-LID (US EPA, 2000;
81 Ahiablame *et al.*, 2012; Carlson *et al.*, 2014; Ahiablame, 2016; Giacomoni & Joseph, 2017);
82 Sustainable Urban Drainage Systems-SUDS (Woods-Ballard *et al.* 2007, Chocat *et al.*, 2007,
83 Barbosa *et al.*, 2012; Miguez *et al.*, 2012; Mguni *et al.*, 2016); and Water Sensitive Cities (Argue,
84 J.R., ed., 2004; Wong and Brown, 2008; Johnstone, 2011, Brown *et al.*, 2016). In general, these
85 approaches integrate urban water management needs with city infrastructure functions, and try to
86 accommodate the urban waters within the urban landscape in a positive way, by increasing
87 biodiversity, providing recreational uses and revitalizing both the built environment and the river
88 corridors.

89 Rainwaters can additionally be harvested and offered as a valuable resource. Kim and Han
90 (2007) for example, proposed the Rainfall-Storage-Drain (RSD) model to support the design of
91 rainwater harvesting reservoirs integrated with the drainage system demands. These relatively small
92 reservoirs distributed in the urban tissue and acting to lower the impact development on hydrology,
93 were able to reduce peak discharges from 25% to 75% when compared to the original discharge
94 values (Avila *et al.*, 2016).

95 However, when investment capacity is limited, it is necessary to identify which are the
96 most fragile areas in terms of negative flooding results, and where the protection offered will be
97 more effective against socio-economic losses. This consideration points to system vulnerabilities.
98 The association of multi-objective tools with hydrodynamic models can provide useful support to
99 decision makers in choosing among feasible alternatives, with optimal cost-quality ratios (Barreto *et*
100 *al.*, 2010). Although different academic studies were already developed following this new trend,
101 daily practices in urban water management show that most cities are still focused only on mitigating
102 inundation.

103 In this work, a hydrodynamic model is combined with a quantitative multi-criteria flood
104 risk assessment. The model of choice was MODCEL (Mascarenhas and Miguez., 2002;
105 Mascarenhas *et al.*, 2005; Miguez *et al.*, 2011). This is a *quasi*-2D model, which is capable to
106 represent city patterns and a complex flow net, using simple topographic data. On the other hand,
107 the Flood Risk Index (FRI) uses a multi-criteria approach to target complex socioeconomic
108 variables, also in a simple way, using the available information, which is easily gathered from
109 census databases or from local interviews. The proposed framework tries to keep the flood and risk
110 modelling simple and representative to allow for and favour a wide practical application. This
111 approach was applied in a case study in the city of Cittanova, in the province of Reggio Calabria
112 (Italy). This city is located in the Petrace river basin, near its tributaries Serra and Vacale. The city
113 has been flooded several times in the recent past, and its main problem is related to the urban storm

114 water management. Therefore, superficial flows play an important role in the city flooding. More
115 specifically, the objectives drawn for this study may be summarised as follows:

- 116 ▪ Draw hazard maps for the urban centre of Cittanova, identifying areas of high, medium and
117 low probability of flooding.
- 118 ▪ Track potential vulnerability maps, considering the possible damages to each flooded area
119 (depending on number of inhabitants, strategic facilities, environmental goods, etc.).
- 120 ▪ Propose and test innovative solutions to restore natural water cycle functions that were lost
121 due to the urbanisation process. This approach also seeks to support a sustainable urban
122 storm water management, integrated with land use control, and ultimately seeking
123 recommendations for a safer future development.

124 The novelty of this approach does not fall in the individual tools used, but rather on the composite
125 framework that is proposed. The joint combination of a hydrodynamic model, with a quantitative
126 flood risk index to support flood control design and land use planning, involving the participation of
127 the local population and public managers, provided a useful procedure to assess different risk
128 scenarios, to evaluate alternative choices for flood control, and to properly define the landscape
129 planning and land use control guidelines for Cittanova.

130 **Mathematical Hydrodynamic Modelling**

131 Many mathematical models tend to reduce the time-space interaction to a single result in a
132 specific section (see, for instance, HEC-HMS - Scharffengerg and Fleming, 2010). Other models
133 tend to concentrate on water systems management or on the behaviour of hydraulic structures, for
134 example, SWMM (Rossman, 2015). Some approaches use one-dimensional (1D) relations focusing
135 on the drainage network, others represent two-dimensional (2D) flood plain flows. However, the
136 modelling of urban floods should be carried out with a mixed approach considering runoff
137 generation, consequent superficial flows, storm drains and river flows. Flows in flood plains may
138 occur in various directions and may be influenced by local structures. Therefore, a model capable of

139 fulfilling the requisites for urban floods simulation should preferentially be able to perform rainfall-
140 runoff transformation and to represent the watershed flow patterns in a distributed way, integrating
141 surface flows with the storm drains network.

142 When the superficial flow is governed by urban patterns (interaction with buildings, walls
143 and other structural obstacles), it is difficult to represent the flooding surface with traditional 2D
144 models, because there are in fact several discontinuities in the resulting water surface. On the other
145 hand, 1D models focusing on the drainage system behaviour tend to misrepresent the important
146 superficial processes.

147 Abily *et al.* (2013) modelled a dense and complex industrial site, with above ground
148 structures affecting drainage paths (similar to what happens in the urban landscape) and stressed
149 that models based on 2D equations can face several problems, such as rapid changes in flow regime,
150 small water depths and high gradients, vertical effects in runoff hydrodynamics, and free/
151 surcharged flow in drainage pipes, among others. On the other hand, Leandro *et al.* (2009)
152 discussed the use of 1D/1D and 1D/2D models, observing that 2D models are computationally
153 much more expensive than 1D models, resulting in much greater times of computation.

154 An alternative that combines the simplicity of 1D models and their low computational
155 costs with the details of 2D representation of superficial flows, and also recognises the presence of
156 above ground obstacles, refers to quasi-2D models. This paper uses a mathematical quasi-2D model
157 to simulate urban floods. MODCEL (Mascarenhas and Miguez, 2002; Miguez *et al.*, 2011) is based
158 on the concept of flow cells (Zanobetti *et al.*, 1970) integrating urban land surface and drainage net
159 features. It represents the watershed through a set of homogeneous compartments which interact
160 with each other creating a complex flow net connected by several different and relatively simple
161 hydraulic laws. Although its conception is old, it remains quite useful when physical interpretation
162 is required and an extensive and continuous 2D water surface is not observed in practice (see, for
163 instance, Barbedo *et al.*, 2015; Nardini *et al.*, 2016). The choice of MODCEL to simulate floods in
164 Cittanova is mainly supported by the following case characteristics:

- 165 ▪ The main problem refers to storm drain overflows (and not to river overflows), and the
166 observed flooded areas do not define a continuous flow surface—local obstacles are
167 important and flows are driven by urban structures.
- 168 ▪ It is important to model flood control alternatives using landscape features, not only
169 focusing on the drainage net – there is little space for storm drain enlargements and a
170 sustainable approach is required, with on-source control measures and multifunctional
171 landscapes capable of storing part of the floods.

172 **The MODCEL Model**

173 MODCEL was built to model the urban surface using a set of homogeneous compartments
174 called flow cells, integrating the catchment area. The compartments interact through cell links
175 representing different hydraulic laws. Each cell also transforms rainfall into run-off using the
176 rational method in a distributed way, due to the spatial coverage provided by the interconnected
177 cells. The mesh of cells composes a hydrodynamic looped model that links surface flow, channel
178 flow and storm drain flow. A vertical link communicates the superficial layer, corresponding to free
179 surface channels and flooded areas, with the underground layer, related to free surface or
180 surcharged flow in storm drains. Figure 1 illustrates the MODCEL schematic representation. A pre-
181 defined set of cell types is available as follows:

- 182 ▪ River/channel cells: represent river reaches or open channel reaches, with simple or
183 compound rectangular cross sections. Note that it is a reasonable approach when considering
184 urban drainage.
- 185 ▪ Storm drain cells: act as complements to the drainage net, representing underground pipes.
- 186 ▪ Urbanized superficial cells: represent free surface flow over urban floodplains – the flow
187 itself occurs through the streets, while open spaces, squares and even buildings work as
188 storage areas. This cell present compound bottom levels, as shown in figure 2.

- 189 ▪ Natural superficial cells: they preserve a natural pattern, without buildings. They may have a
190 storage area minor than that of total superficial area (where rainfall occurs), excluding
191 natural elevations from the mass balance.
- 192 ▪ Reservoir cells: used to simulate water storage in a temporary pond or reservoir, using a
193 curve for the elevation versus surface area.

194 The hydrodynamic model uses the conservation law and a set of hydraulic relations. A
195 detailed deduction of the original flow equations may be found on Cunge et.al (1980). The latest
196 version of MODCEL may be found in Miguez *et al.* (2011). The hydraulic links used in this study
197 are listed below:

- 198 ▪ River/Channel link – represented by the Saint-Venant dynamic equation.
- 199 ▪ Surface flow link – represented by the Saint-Venant dynamic equation without inertia terms.
- 200 ▪ Storm drain link – open channel flow represented either by the Saint Venant equation, if free
201 flow occurs, or by the Bernoulli equation, if surcharged flow occurs. The model manages
202 transitions between these two states, checking at each time step.
- 203 ▪ Gutter inlet link – This link promotes the interface between surface flow and storm drain
204 cells. When not drowned, this link acts as a weir; otherwise, it acts as an orifice.
- 205 ▪ Broad crested weir link.
- 206 ▪ Orifice link.
- 207 ▪ Reservoir link – This link combines an orifice, as the outlet discharge of a reservoir, with a
208 weir, which can be activated depending on reservoir water levels.

209 **Flood Risk Index (FRI)**

210 The concept of flood risk mitigation (Balica *et al.*, 2009; Woodward *et al.*, 2013) has
211 gained importance in recent decades. However, flood risk assessments face some difficulties due to
212 the subjective nature of its evaluation and due to the large number of factors that interfere with risk.
213 Zonensein (2008) proposed a quantitative multi-criteria index, named Flood Risk Index (FRI), to

- 239 - C: sub-index representing a weighted summation of the consequences of flood.
240 - q_{FP} , q_C : weights corresponding to flood properties and consequences, respectively.

241

242 Note that if either sub-index is null or negligible, there must be no risk. On the other hand,
243 the presence of at least one non-zero indicator in each sub-index results in non-negligible risk.
244 Bringing together the views of the institutions and of the managerial class that is responsible for
245 flood risk management in Cittanova, has guided the weights definition. The public managers and
246 the municipality staff also helped in the discussion that defined the classes of risk, as briefly defined
247 below:

- 248 ▪ FRI value between 0 and 25: tolerable risk;
- 249 ▪ FRI value between 25 and 50; manageable risk;
- 250 ▪ FRI value between 50 and 75: medium to high risk – demands intervention;
- 251 ▪ FRI value between 75 and 100: high to very high risk – high priority; demands intervention.

252 **Methodology**

253 Using the tools described above and organizing a set of procedures to join flood control
254 and risk management, the following methodology was proposed and used in this work:

- 255 ▪ The watershed was considered as the basic unit for planning and design purposes.
- 256 ▪ A detailed conceptual diagnosis for the main watershed flooding problems was produced.
- 257 ▪ A spatial analysis provided a broad view of conflicts and potentialities in the considered
258 territory – it is important to highlight from the beginning what you intend to preserve,
259 recover or allow.
- 260 ▪ Flood hazard maps were produced with MODCEL.
- 261 ▪ Natural limits were recognised from the modelling results and the previous analysis.
- 262 ▪ The main socioeconomic variables were mapped.
- 263 ▪ Risk maps were produced combining FRI with MODCEL.

- 264 ▪ Design alternatives for reducing risks were tested to better shape urban needs according to
265 the natural limits imposed.

266 **Case study**

267 **Study Area and river basin characteristics**

268 The study area consists mainly of the urban area of Cittanova, in the province of Reggio
269 Calabria – Italy (Figure 3). The city is 400 m above mean sea level and 65% of its land is flat. It is
270 located on the plain of Gioia Tauro, in the foot of the Aspromonte Mountains. The Vacale and Serra
271 rivers are the major watercourses in the city area. Both rivers belong to Petrace river basin.
272 However, Forio Creek, which is a tributary of Vacale, is the main river responsible for the
273 Cittanova flooding. Its drainage area covers the centre of the city (2 km²), and the hill east of the
274 city (1.2 km²), to reach 3.2 km². Forio Creek has torrential characteristics, with high bottom slopes
275 and a short time of concentration. A concentration time of 26 minutes was calculated according to
276 the route taken by Forio from its upstream stretches until it reaches the local railway, exiting the
277 city centre. Concrete walls or stone works appear in great parts of the riverbanks, except for the
278 centre of Cittanova, where there are no dykes. The increasing urbanisation process and the
279 consequent canalisation of the watercourse forced the creek to run underground, through 300m of
280 storm drains, in a situation that favours drainage failure and the likelihood of flood hazards
281 (Barbaro *et al.*, 2015).

282 In 1936, an extraordinary rainfall event of 260 mm devastated the city causing landslides
283 and flooding. City services collapsed. Another great flood occurred in October 1951, producing one
284 death and the collapse of the railway bridge that connects Cittanova and San Mauro. In the
285 following decades the city was hit by several other flood events, but the worst rainfall occurred in
286 November 2011. During that event, 366.4 mm of rainfall disrupted the city. The main roads and the
287 connection with rural areas were unusable. Rainwaters invaded schools, shops and public offices. It
288 was a great disaster, including loss of life. Today, people remember the tragic event with fear and a

289 great feeling of insecurity.

290 A detailed survey of urban area of Cittanova, aiming to identify the characteristics of the
291 territory and the geometry of the storm drains system (manholes, inlet grates etc.), was carried out
292 before starting the mathematical modelling. In parallel to this field activity, a questionnaire
293 prepared by the authors was distributed to a sample of inhabitants. It was structured in three parts,
294 namely: the description of the territory, the description of the buildings and the description of the
295 goods owned by the inhabitants residing there. This questionnaire was used to reliably estimate the
296 economic losses due to the floods.

297 **Hydrological analysis**

298 The watershed physical characteristics, such as topography, urbanisation patterns and land
299 use, as well as the storm drain system characteristics, were used in the hydrologic studies.

300 The hydrological input data was produced using rainfall intensity-duration-frequency
301 curves for different return periods (50, 200 and 500 years). The return period of 50 years was taken
302 as reference for the current studies and the rainfall intensity for this return period may be obtained
303 by Equation 2.

$$304 \quad h_t = 77.088.t^{0.4025} \quad (2)$$

305 Where:

- 306 - h_t : total precipitation in mm.
- 307 - t : rainfall duration in hours.

308 The design rainfall was built considering incremental rainfall blocks of ten minutes each.
309 The duration of ten minutes was considered as the minimal critical time step to evaluate minor
310 drainage behaviour. That is, when considering blocks of ten minutes, the maximum intensity
311 obtained for this duration is the critical rainfall to curbs and inlets in the local scale. On the other
312 hand, completing the total design hyetograph until reaching the concentration time of 30 minutes,

313 the watershed is also subjected to its critical rainfall event in terms of total volume. Therefore, the
314 total rainfall and the intensity were calculated every 10 minutes, up to 30 minutes, as presented in
315 Table 1. Note that the second block is the result of the total rainfall for 20 minutes minus the total
316 rainfall for the first 10 minutes. Similarly, the third block refers to the total rainfall of 30 minutes
317 minus the total rainfall of 20 minutes. This approach allowed to simulate the critical rainfall
318 intensity in the watershed scale (represented by the average value of the three blocks), as well as the
319 critical rainfall intensity in the local scale (given by the rainfall intensity of the first block). It is
320 important to remind that the resulting hydraulic effects on the watershed responses depend not only
321 on the volume of the hydrograph, but also on its shape. This complementary aspect, however, was
322 not explored in this research.

323 **Hydrodynamic analysis**

324 MODCEL was used to model the urban centre of the city as well as the eastern hills, which
325 directly contribute to the city main channel of the Forio Creek. The final model has 9 open or
326 covered channel cells, representing the main stream crossing the city. There are 36 other cells
327 representing minor drainage storm drains and, in addition to these, the model has 132 surface cells.
328 The final division of the basin into cells has been written as a topological scheme, which defines the
329 relative positions between each two cells and defines the hydraulic relations linking these cells.
330 Figure 4 shows the watershed subdivision into cells. The model calibration was held in a non-
331 conventional way. There were no formal measures for the observed flooding over streets and
332 consequent superficial flows. Therefore, considering the rainfall design as the critical reference
333 event to proceed with the calibration process, the model was adjusted to represent the flooded areas
334 and the relative severity of the flooding in these areas, accordingly to the information given by the
335 municipality staff and population memory of flood records. This support was important to raise the
336 model reliability.

337 **Simulation scenarios**

338 We proposed a set of simulation scenarios in the design phase, in order to assess the
339 different possibilities and to check which measures could enhance the final solution in terms of risk
340 reduction:

341 ▪ ALT.0 – BASELINE: represents the reference alternative to be compared with all the others.
342 The "ALT.0" simulation considered the current situation of Cittanova, without carrying out
343 any works. This may be a possible choice when protection works are too expensive and the
344 socioeconomic losses do not justify the investment.

345 ▪ ALT.1 – DETENTION PONDS: in this alternative, five squares and green areas of
346 Cittanova were converted into detention basins, in a multifunctional landscape approach
347 (that is, the flood storage function was added to original functions). The location of these
348 areas is shown in Figure 5.

349 ▪ ALT.2 – ON-SITE DETENTION TANKS: this alternative considers the construction of on-
350 site detention tanks with 3.6 m³ per each 100 m² of rooftops

351 ▪ ALT.3 - ON-SITE DETENTION TANKS: this alternative considers the construction of on-
352 site detention tanks with 4.5 m³ per each 100 m² of rooftops.

353 ▪ ALT.4 – This alternative joins ALT.1+ALT.2.

354 ▪ ALT.5 – OPENING OF FORIO CREEK: this alternative opens a reach of 300 m of the
355 underground watercourse running through Cittanova.

356 ▪ ALT.6 – This alternative assumes ALT.1 + ALT.2 + ALT.5.

357 ▪ ALT.7 – DAM CONSTRUCTION IN MONTE FOSSO: this alternative simulates a dam in
358 the Forio Creek, upstream of the town of Cittanova, with the objective of damping its
359 floods.

360 ▪ ALT.8 – This alternative assumes ALT.1 + ALT.3 + ALT.5.

361 Appendix 1 shows the results obtained in the format of flood maps.

362 **Mapping flood risk**

363 The main stakeholders involved in this case study set the final FRI indicators and their
364 weights. Therefore, regarding the flood properties only, the values of water depth and velocity
365 factor have been used and normalised, while regarding the consequences, the population,
366 importance of roads, economic activities and structures of particular interest, including cultural or
367 archaeological heritage and environmental assets, have been considered. Thus, the following risk
368 maps (Figure 6) were obtained for the following selected alternatives: ALT.0; ALT.2; ALT.7 and
369 ALT.8.

370 This study allowed us to identify the most fragile and risky areas of the city of Cittanova
371 and to understand how the main physical processes act, as well as their relative importance. In
372 addition, the different alternatives allowed the evaluation of different possibilities of reducing flood
373 risks at different levels. This study is able to support the decision-making regarding social and
374 economic drivers.

375 Indeed, in this case, important points are highlighted as follows:

- 376 ▪ The current situation shows the inefficiency of the drainage system to deal with floods.
- 377 ▪ By observing the results obtained with the single alternatives (using just one type of
378 measure at a time) acting in a distributed way over the watershed (ALT.1, ALT.2 and
379 ALT.3) and that obtained with the laminating dam (ALT.7), it was possible to say that urban
380 runoff plays a central role in the city's flooding. The dam controlled water levels in the
381 river, but the flood map still showed significant areas under water. On the other side, when
382 using larger on-site detention tanks (4.5 m³ per each 100 m² of rooftops - ALT.3), there was
383 a significant improvement in the results, with lower water levels in fewer restricted areas.
- 384 ▪ Comparing ALT.7 (dam) with ALT.5 (opening of 300 m of Forio Creek, which is currently
385 closed underground), we perceive that both actions work by mainly reducing floods in the
386 river.
- 387 ▪ The best result in terms of flood control comes from a combined set of actions, using green
388 areas and public squares as detention ponds and detentions tanks (ALT.4), on source control,

389 and a partial urban river restoration approach, by re-opening a reach of 300m of Forio Creek
390 (ALT.8).

391 ▪ In terms of reducing risks, however, ALT.2, ALT.4 and ALT.8 had similar results.

392 In the end, there was a strong correlation between the problems highlighted in the
393 hydraulic modelling and the ones identified by the city population through the questionnaires
394 previously described. This result showed how the involvement of the population is valuable in
395 improving the model reliability in the calibration phase.

396 **Conclusions**

397 The process of urbanisation has changed the natural landscape and increased flooding
398 problems in the city of Cittanova, in Reggio Calabria (Italy). In fact, due to the urbanisation process
399 of the past recent years and the consequent soil sealing, it has become more difficult to manage
400 floods and more valuable assets are now exposed to risks.

401 Using the support of mathematical models, and by combining a hydrodynamic model and a
402 quantitative multi-criteria risk index (MODCEL + FRI), it was possible to assess flood hazards and
403 urban vulnerabilities, and produce a huge amount of results which highlighted various options for
404 urban risk mitigation. This framework produced a decision support tool that allowed the evaluation,
405 identification and comparison of critical areas in terms of flood risks and flood levels. Subsequent
406 to this, it was possible to evaluate flood risk scenarios associated with different flood control
407 alternatives, and to support the strategic planning for flood risk mitigation for the city of Cittanova,
408 which led to a combined perspective which considered both the hazard and its associated
409 consequences.

410 This combined methodology can be used as a decision supporting tool to allow a
411 quantitative comparison and ranking of critical areas. It is also useful in defining the hierarchy of
412 different possible interventions and in the justification of public investment. It is interesting to note
413 that it is also possible to compare quantitatively different scenarios for the same region, estimating

414 the impacts of future urban development, and thus providing planning recommendations,
415 considering the population safety as a primary objective.

416 In the case examined, the current drainage system is inefficient in managing flooding in the
417 city of Cittanova. The alternative solution concerning the construction of storage ponds in green
418 areas is very useful to achieve the objective of safeguarding the buildings, roads, railways and
419 especially public safety, with relatively low associated costs. This alternative solution can be further
420 complemented by two other actions that improve flood risk control:

421 (1) the opening of Forio Creek, bringing it back into the urban landscape, and offering it
422 more space to avoid the backwater effects on the storm drains; and

423 (2) the individual adaptation of the existing buildings by adding a detention tank to control
424 the runoff generated by rooftops.

425 This second action also shows the positive aspect of actively involving the population in
426 the proposed solution, which is a key element in upholding any solution over time. On the other
427 hand, these complementary actions imply a greater public investment in re-opening Forio Creek and
428 greater private investments in adapting the city housing. A strategy to implement this alternative
429 should be developed, matching municipal and private investment capacity. This is the proposed
430 next step to complement the research – to develop and introduce this framework – it will be
431 important to provide a quantitative measure to hierarchise investments, comparing the costs and
432 benefits of each proposition, and verifying if the chosen alternative is feasible.

433

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567

568 **Captions**

569 Figure 1: schematic representation of a portion of a watershed divided into cells, showing different
570 interactions and flow patterns modelled by MODCEL.

571 Figure 2: pre-defined urban pattern introduced in a MODCEL simulation.

572 Figure 3: the town of Cittanova and its urban tissue appear on the left; Vacale watershed, with Forio
573 passing through the centre of the city, appears on the right.

574 Figure 4: aerial view and plan cell division.

575 Figure 5: location of the detention ponds.

576 Figure 6: Flood risk maps for alternatives ALT.0, ALT.2, ALT.7 and ALT.8.

577 Table 1: design rainfall.

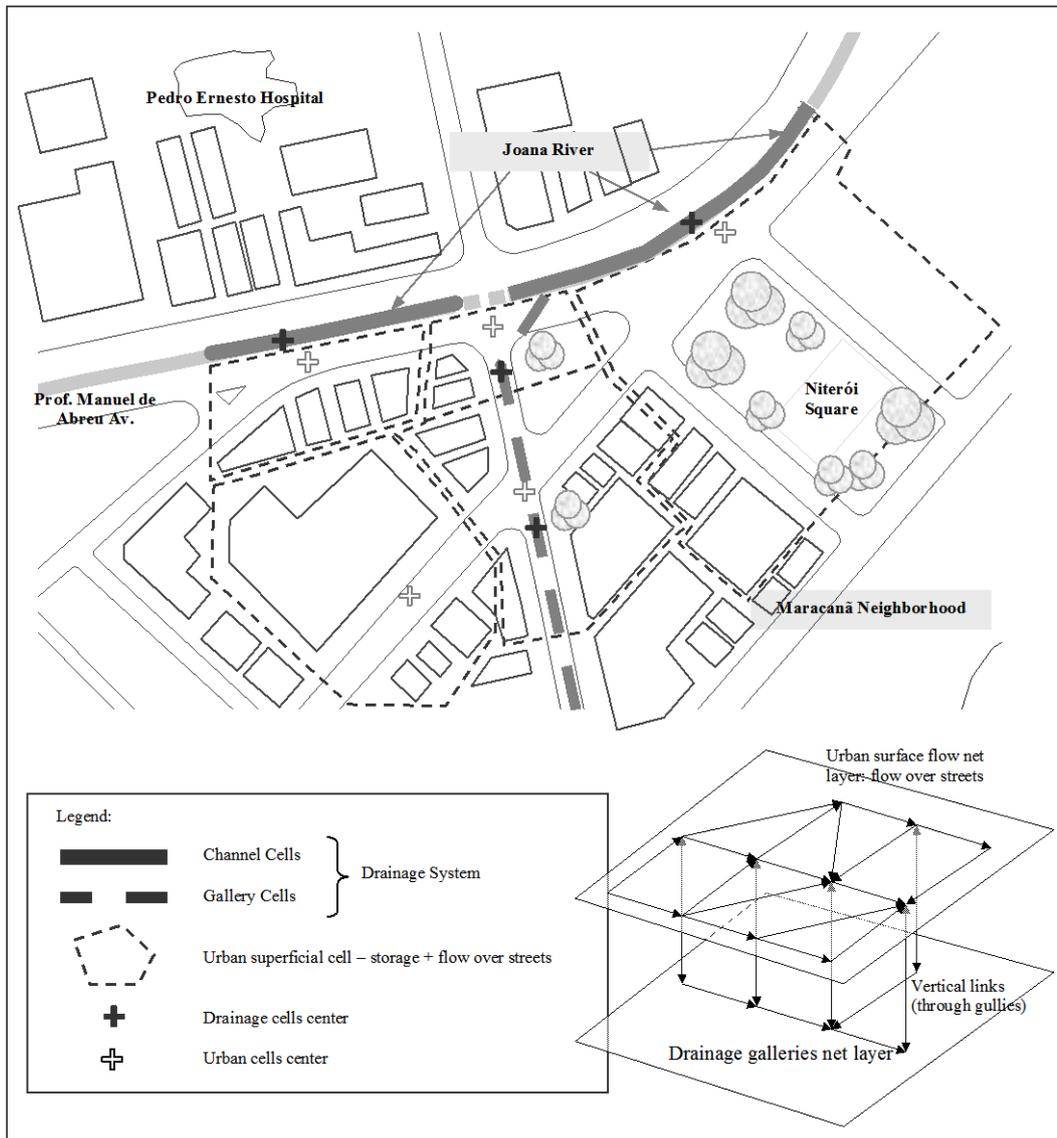
578 Appendix 1: flood maps results for the simulated alternatives using a return period of 50 years.

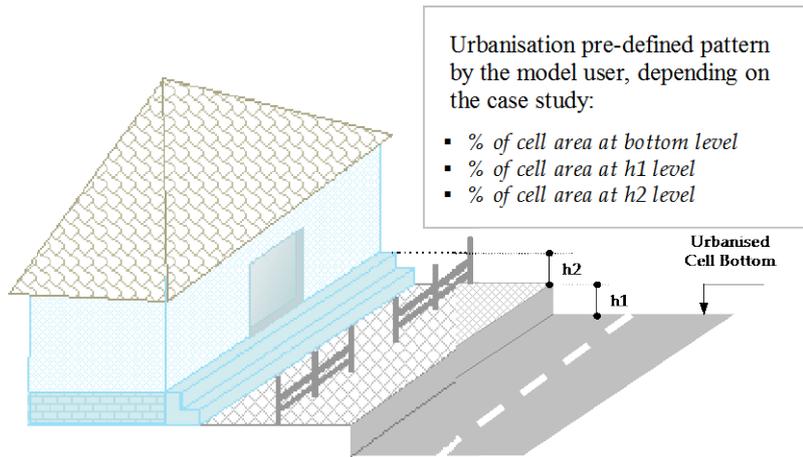
579 **Tables**

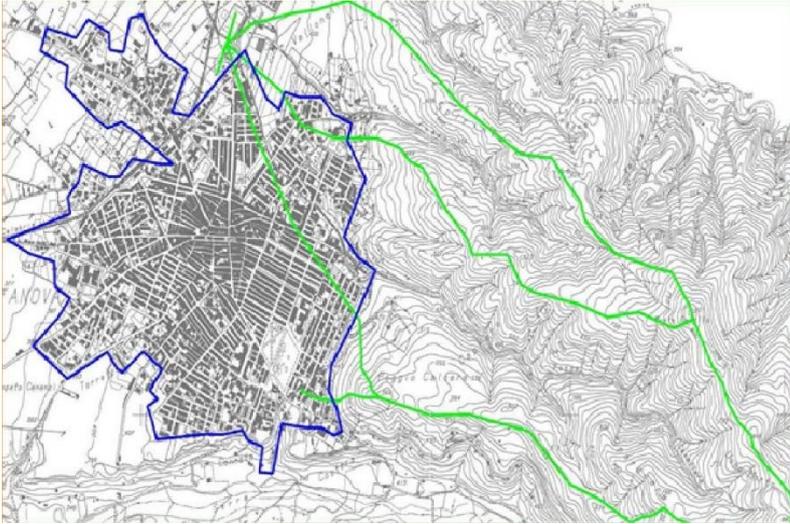
580 Table 1: design rainfall.

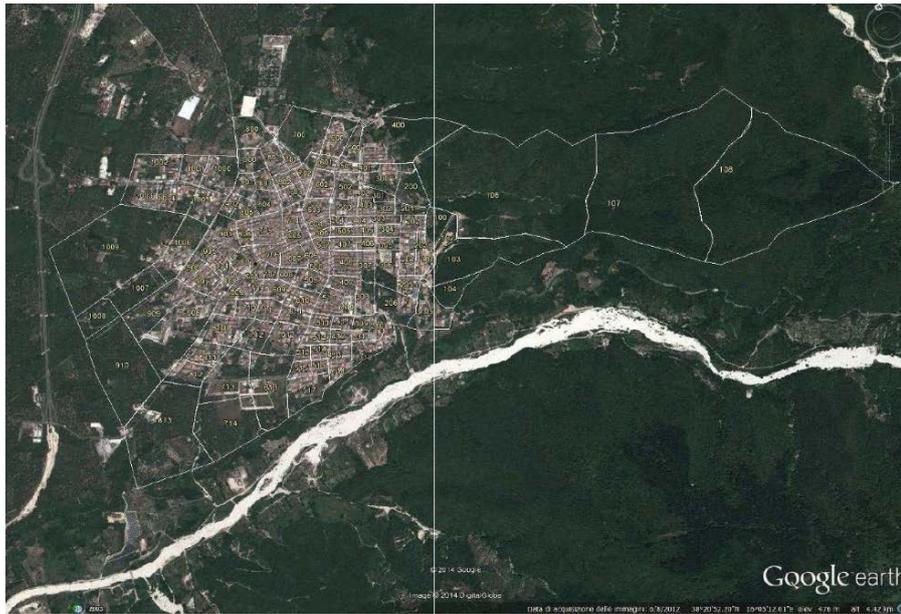
Time [minutes]	Total rainfall [mm]	Average intensity [mm/h]	Incremental rainfall in 10 minute time step [mm]
10	37.8	226.8	37.8
20	49.9	149.7	12.1
30	58.8	117.6	8.9

581



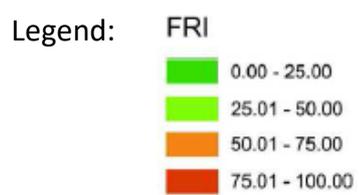
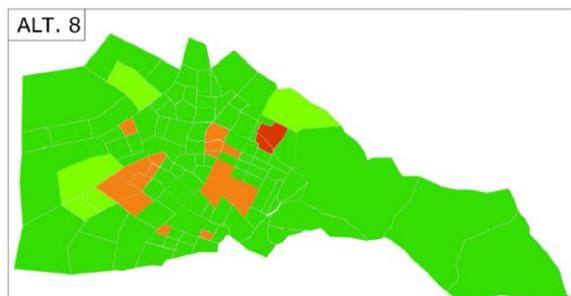
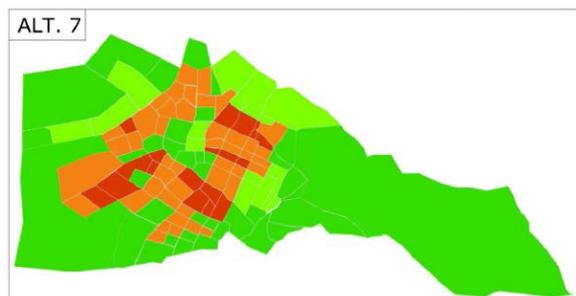
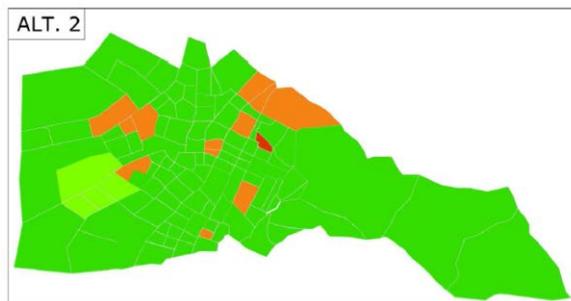
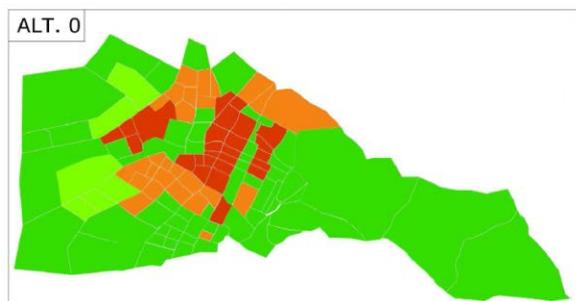








Detail of a detention pond in a square

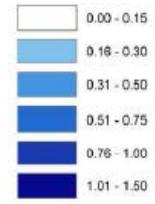
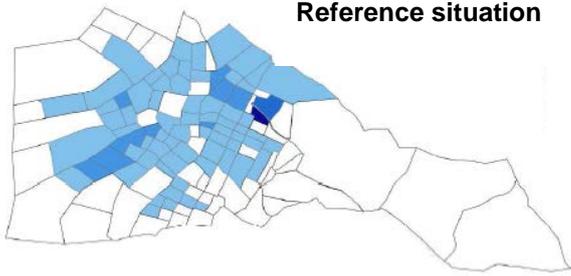


Cittanova:

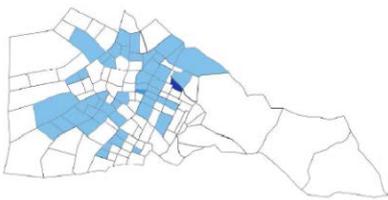
Reference situation

Water depths:

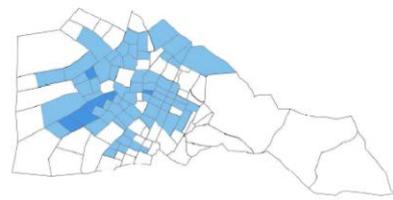
ALT.0



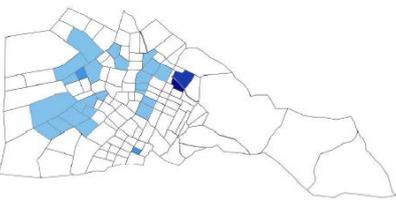
ALT.1



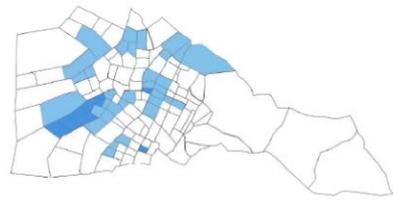
ALT.5



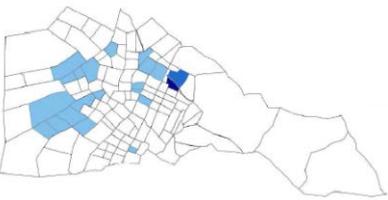
ALT.2



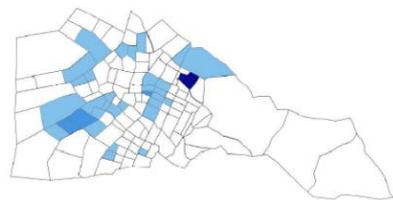
ALT.6



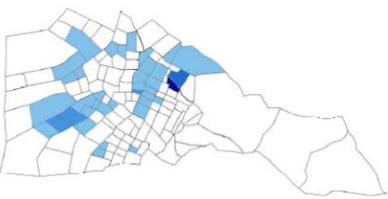
ALT.3



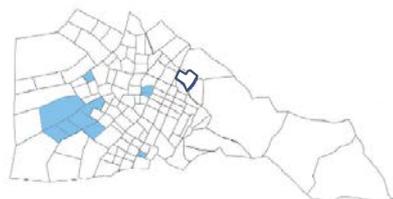
ALT.7



ALT.4



ALT.8



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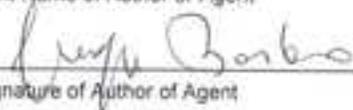
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“An Integrated Methodology for urban flood risk mitigation: the case study of Cittanova (Italy)”

Authors: Fabio Scionti; Marcelo Gomes Miguez; Giuseppe Barbaro; Matheus Martins De Sousa; Giandomenico Foti; Caterina Canale

Author's Responses to EDITOR:

Editor Comments:

Editor: Based on the reviews, it is recommended that the author should revise and resubmit the manuscript. The author is encouraged to review the past JWRM publications on this subject and to take the reviewer comments into consideration in improving the paper

Author's response: We revised the past JWRM publications and we found it very useful, improving our literature review. Four (4) new references from the JWRM were added to the references list, in a total of eight (8) citations, as seen below:

Avila H., Avila L. and Sisa A. (2016) “Dispersed Storage as Stormwater Runoff Control in Consolidated Urban Watersheds with Flash Flood Risk” **Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management**, 142 (12)

Barreto W., Vojinovic Z., Price R. and Solomatine D. (2010). “Multiobjective Evolutionary Approach to Rehabilitation of Urban Drainage Systems” **Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management**, 136 (5).

Blackmore J. and Plant R. (2008). “Risk and Resilience to Enhance Sustainability with Application to Urban Water Systems “, *Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management*, 134 (3).

Carlson, C., Barreteau, O., Kirshen, P., & Foltz, K. (2014). Storm water management as a public good provision problem: survey to understand perspectives of low-impact development for urban storm water management practices under climate change. **Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management**, 141(6), 04014080.

Giacomoni, M. H., & Joseph, J. (2017). Multi-Objective Evolutionary Optimization and Monte Carlo Simulation for Placement of Low Impact Development in the Catchment Scale. **Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management**, 143(9), 04017053.

Mcanally, W.H., Wallen C.M., Sanborn, S.C. and Maak E.C. (2013). Composite risk assessment for the Sacramento–San Joaquin delta levee system. **Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management**, v. 140, n. 5, p. 734-743.

Wang, C. H., & Blackmore, J. M. (2009). Resilience concepts for water resource systems. **Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management**, 135(6), 528-536.

Woodward, M., Gouldby, B., Kapelan, Z., & Hames, D. (2013). Multiobjective optimization for improved management of flood risk. **Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management**, 140(2), 201-215.

Reviewers' comments:

Editor: I apologize for the delay with this review. A number of reviewers were either unresponsive or unable to complete their reviews. However, I have checked authors' responses to previous review comments and have found them to be satisfactory, with the possible exception of one remaining concern, noted by Reviewer #1 below.

Author`s response: Reviewer #1 concern will be answered in the sequence.

I also note that the paper is over-length. Technical papers should be 10,000 word-equivalents or less, including the word-equivalent space of tables and figures. For example, a printed journal page is about 1,200 words, and thus a large figure or table using 1/2 page would be 600 word-equivalents. Alternatively, double-spaced manuscripts meeting this requirement are usually about 30-35 pages (including tables and figures), and this manuscript exceeds 40 pages, including figures and tables. Authors are asked to consider omitting some detailed results, or else including them as Supplemental Information (especially figures that have been designated as part of an Appendix). Also, Figures 7-10 might be combined as one or two multi-panel figures.

Author`s response: the text as a whole was thoroughly revised and reduced in almost 10%. We apologize by the length of the final paper, but it is important to note that we started with a manuscript matching the rules, but its size increased to fulfil the Reviewers comments along the revision process. We also eliminated Figure 4 and we combined figures 7, 8, 9 and 10 in only one figure. All the main figures (except for the appendix) are now occupying about 3 pages. The text from the introduction to the conclusion has now 4948 words, even considering that we introduced 4 new references. The total manuscript length, also considering title, author`s names, abstract and references has 7008 words. In terms of number of pages, the manuscript presents about 30 pages, double-spaced, including all figures and tables.

Reviewer #1: The authors answered satisfactorily to two of the three points addressed in the previous reviews.

About the third point, the one about the need of performing several hydraulic analysis in order to predict the hydraulic risk for fixed time return periods in all the basin area, we must observe the following:

The criterion used by the authors to design the input hydrograph guarantees that the most dangerous event, corresponding to a time period of 10 minutes, is attained only for the smaller sub-basins with smaller concentration time. For the

closure sections of larger sub-basins and of the entire basin, it is well-known that hydraulic effect of the input hydrograph depends not only by the volume of the hydrograph, but also by its shape. According to the proposed procedure the shape of the input hydrograph (assuming very small time intervals with constant rain intensity) has an initial discontinuity and then asymptotically decreases. Is this a dangerous shape? There is some reference in literature? The authors should address this point before publication.

Author`s response: We understood the Reviewer #1 concerns. Our text was revised to address his comment and it now reads as:

“The design rainfall was built considering incremental rainfall blocks of ten minutes each. The duration of ten minutes was considered as the minimal critical time step to evaluate minor drainage behaviour. That is, when considering blocks of ten minutes, the maximum intensity obtained for this duration is the critical rainfall to curbs and inlets in the local scale. On the other hand, completing the total design hyetograph until reaching the concentration time of 30 minutes, the watershed is also subjected to its critical rainfall event in terms of total volume. Therefore, the total rainfall and the intensity were calculated every 10 minutes, up to 30 minutes, as presented in Table 1. Note that the second block is the result of the total rainfall for 20 minutes minus the total rainfall for the first 10 minutes. Similarly, the third block refers to the total rainfall of 30 minutes minus the total rainfall of 20 minutes. This approach allowed to simulate the critical rainfall intensity in the watershed scale (represented by the average value of the three blocks), as well as the critical rainfall intensity in the local scale (given by the rainfall intensity of the first block). It is important to remind that the resulting hydraulic effects on the watershed responses depend not only on the volume of the hydrograph, but also on its shape. This complementary aspect, however, was not explored in this research.