



UNIVERSITÀ DI PARMA

ARCHIVIO DELLA RICERCA

University of Parma Research Repository

Probabilistic Assessment of Flood Hazard due to Levee Breaches Using Fragility Functions

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article:

Original

Probabilistic Assessment of Flood Hazard due to Levee Breaches Using Fragility Functions / D'Oria, M.; Maranzoni, A.; Mazzoleni, M.. - In: WATER RESOURCES RESEARCH. - ISSN 0043-1397. - 55:11(2019), pp. 8740-8764. [10.1029/2019WR025369]

Availability:

This version is available at: 11381/2867899 since: 2021-10-13T09:40:53Z

Publisher:

Blackwell Publishing Ltd

Published

DOI:10.1029/2019WR025369

Terms of use:

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available

Publisher copyright

note finali coverpage

(Article begins on next page)

13 August 2025

1 **Probabilistic Assessment of Flood Hazard due to Levee Breaches Using Fragility**
2 **Functions**

3 **M. D’Oria¹, A. Maranzoni¹, and M. Mazzoleni²**

4 ¹Department of Engineering and Architecture, University of Parma, Parco Area delle Scienze
5 181/A, 43124 Parma, Italy.

6 ²Centre of Natural Hazards and Disaster Science, Uppsala University, Villavägen 16, 75236
7 Uppsala, Sweden.

8 Corresponding author: A. Maranzoni (andrea.maranzoni@unipr.it)

9 **Key Points:**

- 10 • A probabilistic method is presented to assess inundation hazard due to piping-induced
11 levee breaches in flood-prone areas.
- 12 • Scenarios are defined in terms of breach locations and times, and their probabilities
13 are estimated using fragility functions.
- 14 • The method is applied to a case study in northern Italy to show its capabilities in
15 probabilistic flood hazard mapping.
- 16

17 **Abstract**

18 Flood hazard maps are useful tools for land-planning and flood-risk management in order to
19 increase the safety of flood-prone areas that can be inundated in the event of levee failure.
20 However, flood hazard assessment is affected by various uncertainties, both aleatory and
21 epistemic. The flood hazard analysis should hence take into account the main sources of
22 uncertainty and quantify the confidence of the results for a given design flood event. To this
23 end, this paper presents a probabilistic method for flood hazard mapping which considers
24 uncertainty due to breach location and failure time. A reliability analysis of the discretized
25 levee system, performed using the concept of fragility function, enables the pre-selection of a
26 set of levee sections more susceptible to failure. The probabilities of the breach scenarios
27 (characterized by different breach locations and times) are then calculated using the
28 probability multiplication rule, neglecting multiple breaches. The method is applied to a 96
29 km levee-protected reach in the central portion of the Po River (northern Italy) and to an
30 adjacent 1900 km² flood-prone area on the right-hand side of the river, with a focus on the
31 piping breach mechanism. The numerical simulations are performed through a combined 1D-
32 2D hydrodynamic model using widespread free software. The results show that the method is
33 effective for probabilistic inundation and flood hazard mapping. In addition, it has the
34 advantage of requiring a smaller computational effort in comparison with the methods based
35 on a classic Monte Carlo procedure.

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Hydrological and meteorological hazards have increased worldwide in the last
38 decades, and floods, together with storms, are currently the most recurrent natural disasters,
39 causing the most fatalities, and major social impact and economic damage (CRED, 2018a).
40 An estimated 2.0 billion people were affected by floods in the period 1998-2017, and the
41 recorded economic losses amounted to US\$ 656 billion (CRED, 2018b). In view of this, the
42 recent international efforts to mitigate the impact of floods appear fully justified. Among
43 these, the European Floods Directive 2007/60/EC (European Commission, 2007; de Moel et
44 al., 2009) and the US National Flood Insurance Program (FEMA, 2016) require flood hazard
45 assessment and mapping for flood safety and risk management purposes. Moreover, several
46 national and international research projects have been funded to investigate extreme flood
47 processes and study effective methodologies for flood risk assessment and management (e.g.,
48 IMPACT, 2005; FLOODsite, 2009). Several reports and guidance to flood risk reduction
49 published in recent years (e.g., USACE 1997; DEFRA, 2006; USACE 2017) confirm the
50 attention of national governments to this issue in order to achieve a more flood-resilient
51 society (Merz et al., 2014; Surminski & Thielen, 2017).

52 Flood risk assessment essentially consists in the estimate of the likelihood and
53 severity of the adverse consequences of a flood event. It rationally supports a risk-based
54 decision-making process aimed at developing effective risk communication and flood
55 management policy, as well as at orienting judicious land-use planning and economic
56 resources allocation (e.g., Sayers et al., 2002; Hall et al., 2003; Apel et al., 2004; Dawson et
57 al., 2005; Gouldby et al., 2008; Sayers et al., 2010; Harvey et al., 2014; Wagenaar et al.,
58 2016). The flood hazard assessment, i.e. the quantification of the frequency and severity of a
59 flooding event, is a fundamental phase of the overall flood risk analysis (USACE, 2017).

60 The flood hazard analysis can be advantageously applied also to flood-prone areas
61 located close to river reaches and protected by levee systems, because of the residual risk due
62 to potential levee breaches. Moreover, these areas often attract socio-economic activities, and
63 are hence characterized by high exposure and vulnerability. Among the possible mechanisms
64 causing a levee to breach (see, e.g., Wolff, 1997), under-seepage and through-seepage
65 through the levee foundation or the levee core (with consequent retrogressive internal erosion
66 and piping) are particularly worrying. Indeed, these phenomena can unexpectedly occur for
67 ordinary flood events too, even in the recession stage, and can be triggered by hidden soil
68 discontinuities, such as burrows (Orlandini et al., 2015; Palladino et al., 2019). Statistics
69 related to several levee failures have also shown that piping is the most frequent breaching
70 mechanism after overtopping (e.g., Vorogushyn et al., 2009; Vorogushyn et al., 2010;
71 Mazzoleni et al., 2015).

72 The accurate prediction of the flooding extent and the assessment of the related
73 hazard are essential for a comprehensive and effective management of the residual flood risk,
74 despite the inherent uncertainties affecting the parameters involved in the analysis. Due to the
75 absence of standardized methodology to accomplish these tasks, several methods have been
76 proposed in literature (see the review by Teng et al., 2017) which can be classified as
77 probabilistic or deterministic depending on whether the scenarios considered in the analysis
78 include an estimate of their frequency of occurrence (Bates et al., 2004; Di Baldassarre et al.,
79 2010; Beven et al., 2015). The deterministic approach is based on design scenarios suggested
80 by empirical considerations or historical information, characterized by predefined breach
81 locations and times, and by a single optimum parameter set calibrated against observed data,
82 when available (e.g., Aureli & Mignosa, 2004; Aureli et al., 2006a; Aureli et al., 2006b).
83 However, because of the uncertainty in breach location and failure time, such approach
84 requires considering a number of different scenarios in order to provide meaningful results
85 for flood risk management decisions. Moreover, a sensitivity analysis on the model
86 parameters (e.g., roughness coefficient, breach size, etc.) is advisable in this case in order to
87 take into account their inherent uncertainty and assess the effect of their variability on the
88 results (e.g., Hesselink et al., 2003). On the other hand, in the probabilistic approach, the
89 scenarios considered are coupled with their probability of occurrence, thereby providing a
90 measure of the associated aleatory and epistemic uncertainties (Aronica et al., 2002;
91 Romanowicz & Beven, 2003; Hall & Solomatine, 2008; Merwade et al., 2008; Merz and
92 Thielen, 2009; Di Baldassarre et al., 2010; Dottori et al., 2013). Accordingly, the flooding
93 extents and hazard levels predicted can be accompanied by an estimate of the related
94 uncertainty, expressed in terms of probability. Several sources of uncertainty affect flood
95 hazard and flood risk assessment (Apel et al., 2004; Bales & Wagner, 2009; Teng et al.,
96 2017; Winter et al., 2018), including the model boundary conditions (e.g., Pappenberger et
97 al., 2006; Domeneghetti et al., 2013), the topographic data and the hydraulic parameters
98 involved in the flood propagation modeling (e.g., Pappenberger et al., 2005; Jung &
99 Merwade, 2015), as well as the levee failure location and the breach parameters (Wahl,
100 2004). In any case, both the deterministic and probabilistic approaches require that key
101 hydraulic variables describing the dynamics of the inundation (typically flood depth, velocity,
102 and arrival time) are evaluated through suitable hydrodynamic models, which are usually
103 validated against historical flood data (e.g., Hesselink et al., 2003; Di Baldassarre et al.,
104 2009a; Horritt et al., 2010; Masoero et al., 2013; Vacondio et al., 2016).

105 The probabilistic approach has recently gained great attention, and a large number of
106 probabilistic methods have been proposed in literature to assess residual risk (e.g., Apel et al.,
107 2004; Apel et al., 2006; Smemoe et al., 2007; Merwade et al., 2008; Vorogushyn et al., 2010;
108 Aronica et al., 2012; Domeneghetti et al., 2013). In particular, in recent years, several studies
109 have taken into account uncertainty in breach position and geometry for probabilistic flood
110 hazard mapping in flood-prone areas potentially subject to inundation as a result of a levee
111 failure (e.g., Van Der Most & Wehrung 2005; Apel et al., 2009, Vorogushyn et al., 2009,
112 2010, 2011; Mazzoleni et al., 2015, 2017, Tyagunov et al., 2018). In addition, semi-
113 probabilistic methods, which provide weight-averaged probabilistic flood hazard maps
114 without explicit quantification of the associated uncertainty, are proposed by Di Baldassarre
115 et al. (2009b), Viero et al. (2013), and Mazzoleni et al. (2014). The aforementioned
116 probabilistic methodologies are typically based on Monte Carlo simulations that require a
117 significant computational effort and can be prohibitive for wide river domains and complex
118 topographies.

119 In order to overcome this limitation, this paper presents a new probabilistic method
120 for the assessment of the flood hazard due to inundations subsequent to piping-induced levee
121 breaches. The method identifies potential levee failure scenarios (defined in terms of breach
122 locations and times) by using the probabilistic information on the levee reliability provided
123 by the concept of fragility function, thereby avoiding computationally expensive Monte Carlo
124 simulations. The fragility functions provide the probability of levee failure (for a specific
125 breach mechanism) at selected locations as a function of the hydraulic load. By using this
126 information, each breach scenario can be coupled with its probability, which represents how
127 likely the scenario is for a design flood event of fixed return period. Such scenario
128 probabilities are calculated by applying the probability multiplication rule for dependent
129 events to the failure probabilities derived from the fragility functions of the successive
130 selected levee sections, and neglecting multiple breaches. Furthermore, it is assumed that the
131 levee breach can occur not only at the peak water level (as commonly hypothesized), but at
132 previous times too, thus configuring breach scenarios potentially more dangerous for the
133 adjacent flood-prone area. Breach location and failure time are actually among the aspects
134 which impact more heavily on the dynamics of the subsequent inundation and, consequently,
135 on the flood hazard assessment in the floodable area. Finally, probabilistic inundation and
136 hazard maps are generated for the flood-prone area by performing a spatial probability
137 analysis of the maximum water depths and flow velocities obtained from the numerical
138 simulation of each inundation scenario, and of the predicted maximum value of a suitable
139 flood hazard index.

140 In order to show its effectiveness in probabilistic flood hazard mapping, the method is
141 applied to a 96 km levee-protected reach in the central portion of the Po River (northern Italy)
142 and an approximately 1900 km² flood-prone area on the right-hand side of the river. The
143 flood simulations are performed through a combined 1D-2D hydrodynamic model using the
144 free software HEC-RAS (Brunner, 2016a). The classification proposed by DEFRA (2006) is
145 adopted for the flood hazard assessment.

146 2 Method

147 The probabilistic method proposed in this paper is based on a chain of three main
148 modules (Figure 1).

149 The first module consists in a probabilistic levee breach model aimed at describing
150 the reliability (against a given failure mechanism, piping in this study) of a discretized levee
151 system, by pre-selecting potential sections susceptible to failure, and identifying potential
152 breach scenarios characterized by different failure locations and times, with associated
153 probabilities. To this end, the concept of fragility function and the probabilistic multiplication
154 rule for dependent events are employed. The levee breach scenarios identified are then
155 utilized in the second module to simulate the dynamics of the inundations caused by the
156 corresponding breaching events. A combined 1D-2D hydrodynamic model is used to
157 simultaneously simulate the river flood routing between the main levees through a 1D model
158 and, in the event of a levee failure, the subsequent inundation of the flood-prone area through
159 a 2D model. Finally, the results of the numerical simulations are processed in the third
160 module through a spatial probability analysis model to calculate probabilistic flood
161 inundation and hazard maps.

162 The main assumptions of the method are:

- 163 1) The analysis is performed for a design flood event of given return period.
- 164 2) Only piping is considered among the various levee breach mechanisms.
- 165 3) The topographic data, the spatial distribution of the roughness coefficient (in both the river
166 channel and the flood-prone area), the upstream and downstream river boundary conditions
167 are treated in a deterministic way, i.e. like model inputs free of uncertainty. Only levee
168 porosity is considered as a stochastic variable in deriving the fragility functions for piping.
- 169 4) The geometric characteristics of the breaches (length and shape) are treated
170 deterministically and are fixed a priori.
- 171 5) The levee failure can only occur during the rising stage of the flood wave, when the
172 hydraulic load increases with time. Moreover, it is assumed that the load is applied separately
173 on the successive pre-selected levee sections, in a sequential way from upstream to
174 downstream, according to the propagation of the flood in the river.
- 175 6) Multiple breach scenarios are ignored, i.e. it is excluded that the levee may breach in
176 different locations during the same flood event.

177 The three modules of the method are described in detail in the following subsections.

178

179 *Here Figure 1*

180

181 2.1 Probabilistic levee breach model

182 The levee breach module (see Figure 1) is based on a reliability model which allows
183 fragility curves for piping at each section of the discretized levee system to be obtained. In
184 general, the levee performance function depends on various geometrical and geotechnical
185 variables which in principle are all uncertain. Among these, only the levee porosity is
186 considered as a stochastic variable in this paper, since its value is often highly uncertain due

187 to the high soil heterogeneity encountered in practical applications. Accordingly, levee
 188 porosity variability must be described through a probability density function (PDF). The
 189 conditional failure probabilities for given water levels derived from the fragility functions at
 190 selected levee sections are converted into breach scenario probabilities (for a given design
 191 flood event of assigned return period) by applying the probability multiplication rule for
 192 dependent events, as explained in detail below. The probability of each breach scenario
 193 (defined in terms of breach location and time) is then applied to the corresponding flooding,
 194 which is modeled by the hydrodynamic module.

195 2.1.1 Levee reliability model

196 The fragility function is a well-established mathematical tool commonly used in
 197 structural engineering and risk assessment in order to provide a description of the resistance
 198 capability of a protection structure subject to an external load (Schultz et al., 2010). This
 199 concept is also applied to earthen levees in flood hazard analysis by considering different
 200 failure mechanisms (e.g., Wolff, 1997; USACE, 1999; Hall et al., 2003; Dawson et al., 2005;
 201 Apel et al., 2006; Vorogushyn et al., 2009; Mazzoleni et al., 2015; Camici et al., 2017).

202 In general, the reliability of a defense system is described by a limit state function G
 203 defined as the difference between the limit resistance R of the protection structure and the
 204 external load L (e.g., FLOODsite, 2007; Vorogushyn et al., 2009; Mazzoleni et al., 2015;
 205 Marijnissen et al., 2019):

$$206 \quad G = R - L. \quad (1)$$

207 Accordingly, the failure occurs when $G < 0$. When dealing with the reliability of levees to
 208 piping, Eq. (1) can be rewritten as

$$209 \quad G = j_c - j, \quad (2)$$

210 in which j_c is the critical hydraulic head gradient triggering piping (which is dependent on the
 211 geotechnical properties of the levee), and j is the slope of the hydraulic grade line of the
 212 seepage flow (and associated piping) through the levee. According to Covelli (2006) and
 213 Mazzoleni et al. (2015), based on the equation proposed by Khilar et al. (1985), j_c can be
 214 expressed as a function of the levee total porosity n only as

$$215 \quad j_c = C \frac{1-n}{n} \quad (0 \leq n \leq 1), \quad (3)$$

216 C being a positive dimensionless constant equal to 0.237. Hence, Eq. (2) becomes

$$217 \quad G = C \frac{1-n}{n} - \frac{\eta}{L}, \quad (4)$$

218 in which η represents the water level in the river with reference to the landside levee toe
 219 elevation, and L is the horizontal projected length of an idealized seepage path. Figure 2
 220 shows the definition of these variables and sketches the two main categories of levee
 221 configurations which can be encountered in piping failure analysis: in Figure 2a the landside
 222 levee toe is higher than the riverside one, whereas the opposite occurs in Figure 2b. As shown
 223 in Figure 2, L is considered as a decreasing function of η (which depends on the inner-side

224 slope of the bank) and in a simplified way can be assumed to approximate the water seepage
 225 length in the case of through-seepage in the levee core. This situation is potentially more
 226 dangerous than the case of under-seepage, in which L coincides with the length of the levee
 227 foundation.

228

229 *Here Figure 2*

230

231 If the porosity is treated as a stochastic variable in Eq. (4), the reliability function
 232 $G(n; \eta)$ becomes a stochastic variable too, describing the levee system reliability for a given
 233 hydraulic load η in a probabilistic way. According to the rule of transformation of stochastic
 234 variables (e.g., Henderson & Plaschko, 2006), the probability density function of $G(n)$ (the
 235 dependence on the parameter η is omitted for clarity) is

$$236 \quad f_G = f_{n(G)} \left| \frac{dn}{dG} \right|, \quad (5)$$

237 in which f_n is the probability density function of the variable n and $n(G)$ denotes the inverse
 238 of the function defined in Eq. (4). It is worth noting that, according to Eq. (4), $G(n)$ is a
 239 strictly monotonic decreasing function, and thus it is invertible. Its inverse function is

$$240 \quad n(G) = \frac{C}{G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C}, \quad (6)$$

241 from which

$$242 \quad \left| \frac{dn}{dG} \right| = \frac{C}{\left(G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2}. \quad (7)$$

243 If a simple probability density function $f_n(n)$ is assumed for n , an analytical expression for
 244 $f_G(G)$ can be derived from Eq. (5) using Eqs. (6) and (7), and the cumulative probability
 245 function $P_G(G)$ can then be obtained by integration. Since the failure limit state of the
 246 protection system is attained for $G = 0$, P_G calculated at $G = 0$ provides the probability
 247 $P_G(G \leq 0 | \eta)$ of levee failure due to piping as a function of the hydraulic load η (i.e.
 248 conditioned to the hydraulic load), which represents the fragility function $P_f(\eta)$ for piping at
 249 a selected levee section.

250 A triangular probability density distribution is assumed for levee porosity n in the
 251 case study presented in the next section (see Appendix A for details), with n ranging from
 252 $n_{\min} = 0.25$ to $n_{\max} = 0.55$. This range is suitable for compacted heterogeneous soils which
 253 typically constitute earthen embankments and foundations. Mode n_0 is set at 0.45, so that the
 254 probability density distribution of n is asymmetric toward the highest values of the porosity
 255 range, which are typical of fine sediments. The mean and median values of n are
 256 approximately 0.417 and 0.423, respectively. As an example, Figure 3 shows the fragility
 257 curve obtained for $n_0 = 0.45$ at one of the cross-sections of the levee system analyzed in the

258 case study, along with the curves that can be obtained for different values of n_0 ($n_0 = 0.30$,
 259 0.35, 0.40, and 0.50). In Figure 3, the fragility functions are fictitiously extended (with
 260 dashed lines) over the levee crest supposing the levee crown to artificially extend upwards, in
 261 order to draw the curve up to $P_f = 1$. This example shows that the probability of failure for
 262 piping can be significantly less than unity even for water levels near the levee crown, if the
 263 levee is well designed and sufficiently thick. The sensitivity analysis on n_0 shows that the
 264 greater n_0 , the greater the failure probability P_f at a fixed hydraulic load η . This means that,
 265 for the selected probability density function f_n , lower modal values n_0 induce a better
 266 performance of the levee against failure due to piping, ensuring that breach probability
 267 remains lower as the flood water level increases.

268 The previous levee reliability analysis can in theory be easily adapted to any arbitrary
 269 probability density distribution function f_n and can be extended to other types of levee failure
 270 mechanism. A numerical method based on a Monte Carlo procedure can be adopted when the
 271 analytical derivation of the fragility curves is not possible or excessively difficult (e.g.,
 272 Vorogushyn et al., 2009; Mazzoleni et al., 2015).

273

274

Here Figure 3

275

276 2.1.2 Assessment of the breach scenario probabilities

277 The levee breach module is based on the idea that fragility functions can be utilized to
 278 identify a set of potential breach scenarios, defined in terms of breach location and failure
 279 time. To this end, a preliminary 1D flood routing simulation is performed by assuming that
 280 no levee breaches occur along the river reach, in order to predict the peak water levels at the
 281 cross-sections used to discretize the river and to “pre-select” a set of locations (denoted by
 282 LS_i , $i = 1, \dots, N$ in Figure 4) where the discretized levee system is more susceptible to failure.
 283 The total number N of pre-selected levee sections depends on the severity of the loading
 284 flood event (i.e. its return period), for fixed geometrical and geotechnical characteristics of
 285 the levee. The probabilities corresponding to each scenario can then be assessed using the
 286 probability multiplication rule for dependent events, and must be regarded as probabilities
 287 conditional on a loading flood event of given return period.

288 As mentioned in the previous subsection, fragility functions provide a measure of the
 289 vulnerability of a levee section (to a specific breach mechanism) as a function of the water
 290 stage, by considering the resistance of each levee section as independent of the others.
 291 However, the concept of fragility function is based on the assumption that external loading is
 292 applied statically, whereas a levee is subject to a dynamic loading, with water levels changing
 293 over time during a flood event. Reaching a certain peak water level at a selected river cross-
 294 section depends on several factors, mainly including the severity of the input hydrological
 295 event, the intensity of the attenuation effect during the propagation of the flood wave in the
 296 river, and the occurrence of breaches at adjacent locations (especially upstream), which can
 297 significantly reduce water levels, depending on the breach length and the failure time.

298 Levee breaching at a selected cross-section does not necessarily occur at the peak
 299 flood level ($\eta = \eta_{\max}$) when the hydraulic load is maximum, but it can happen at lower water

300 stages, even belonging to the rising limb of the flood wave, albeit with lower probability.
 301 Indeed, these intermediate flood states can induce significant seepage in the levee core and
 302 foundations, especially for long duration floods, thus realistically triggering piping. In these
 303 cases, conservative (from an engineering point of view) and potentially more dangerous
 304 failure scenarios originate, in which greater water volumes can be expected to flow out of the
 305 breach (and, consequently, higher flood hazard levels occur in the flood-prone area)
 306 compared to the case in which the levee breaches at the peak water level. To take into
 307 account the uncertainty affecting breach time, the physically relevant portion of the fragility
 308 curves (for $\eta \leq \eta_{\max}$) can be discretized through a suitable number of points, as shown in
 309 Figure 4. Hence, an ensemble of loading conditions $\eta_{i,k}$ potentially inducing levee breaching
 310 can be defined for each pre-selected section; the first subscript index $i = 1, \dots, N$ refers to pre-
 311 selected section LS_i , while the second subscript index $k = 1, \dots, N_i$ to the selected discrete
 312 loading stages (in increasing order), N_i being the total number of loading stages
 313 (corresponding to different potential failure times) considered for LS_i . Accordingly, η_{i,N_i}
 314 denotes the peak water level η_{\max} predicted at section LS_i . As an example, in the case study
 315 presented in the next section, the partition of the fragility curves into discrete pieces is based
 316 on 5% probability intervals, and hence the number of loading water stages considered
 317 (including the peak one) is $\text{int}[P_{f(LS_i)}(\eta_{i,N_i})/0.05] + 1$, which varies from a levee section to
 318 another depending on the peak water level predicted (and hence the maximum failure
 319 probability), and on the features and shape of the corresponding fragility functions. This
 320 discretization criterion allows the fragility curves to be described with sufficient detail.
 321 Increasing discrete loading levels implies that a greater number of potential breach scenarios
 322 with less probability of occurrence will have to be considered at a given levee section.

323 Here it is assumed that a levee can only fail during the rising phase of the flood wave,
 324 when it is subject to an increasing load. The occurrence of a breach at section LS_i for loading
 325 $\eta_{i,k}$ obviously excludes the possibility that another breach event occurs later at the same
 326 location for higher water levels. This means that, at a selected levee section, breach events
 327 induced by different water stages are mutually exclusive, and a failure at LS_i for loading level
 328 $\eta_{i,k}$ can only occur if the levee has not failed there previously at lower water levels $\eta_{i,1}, \dots,$
 329 $\eta_{i,k-1}$. In light of this, the probability that a levee section breaches for a given discrete load
 330 (and no breaches occurred earlier at lower levels) can be derived from the fragility curves by
 331 assuming that the failure probability provided by them for $\eta_{i,k}$ includes the probability
 332 concerning $\eta_{i,k-1}$ (and lower discrete water levels). The fragility function can then be
 333 interpreted as a cumulative failure probability function, and can also be used in the case of
 334 unsteady loading events with increasing load. Accordingly, the difference
 335 $P_{f(LS_i)}(\eta_{i,k}) - P_{f(LS_i)}(\eta_{i,k-1})$ represents the probability of failure of levee section LS_i when
 336 water level $\eta_{i,k}$ is reached, excluding the probability of previous failures at $\eta_{i,k-1}$ and lower
 337 levels. Therefore, for the first pre-selected levee-section LS_1 , the failure probability at a given
 338 water level is

$$\begin{aligned}
 339 \quad P(B_{1,1}) &= P_{f(LS_1)}(\eta_{1,1}) && \text{for } k = 1 \\
 P(B_{1,k}) &= P(B_{1,k} \cap \bar{B}_{1,k-1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_{1,1}) = P_{f(LS_1)}(\eta_{1,k}) - P_{f(LS_1)}(\eta_{1,k-1}) && \text{for } k = 2, \dots, N_1 \quad (i = 1),
 \end{aligned}$$

340 (8)

341 where event $B_{i,k}$ represents levee breaching at section LS_i for loading level $\eta_{i,k}$ ($i = 1$ in Eq.
 342 (8)), and the overbar denotes the opposite (non-failure) event. Since breaching event $B_{i,k}$
 343 automatically excludes the occurrence of subsequent events $B_{i,k}, \dots, B_{i,N_i}$, the specification
 344 $\bar{B}_{i,k+1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_{i,N_i}$ is omitted in the definition of the $B_{i,k}$ event. Because events $B_{1,k}$ ($k = 1, \dots,$
 345 N_1) are mutually exclusive, the total probability $P(B_1)$ of breaching at levee section LS_1 (for
 346 any discrete water level) is

$$347 \quad P(B_1) = P(B_{1,1} \cup \dots \cup B_{1,N_1}) = \sum_{k=1}^{N_1} P(B_{1,k}), \quad (9)$$

348 while the residual probability $1 - P(B_1)$ is the no breach probability at the same section, i.e.

$$349 \quad P(\bar{B}_1) = P(\bar{B}_{1,1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_{1,N_1}) = 1 - P(B_1) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{N_1} P(B_{1,k}). \quad (10)$$

350 In the previous analysis the attention was on the first upstream section of the pre-
 351 selected ones ($i = 1$). However, it can be extended to the others levee sections to assess the
 352 probability of a generic breach event $B_{i,k}$ at LS_i , with $i > 1$. To this end, the two following
 353 assumptions are made:

354 1) Considering the discretized levee as an in-series protection system, it is assumed that the
 355 hydraulic load is applied sequentially to the successive levee sections, one after another, from
 356 upstream to downstream, according to the natural temporal sequencing determined by the
 357 propagation of the flood wave in the river. In addition, it is assumed that one pre-selected
 358 levee section at a time is affected by the flood. Hence, the loading event is considered as
 359 acting separately on the successive pre-selected sections, as if they were ideally very far apart
 360 compared with the flood wave length. In reality, a flood event can simultaneously affect
 361 various river sections (with different water levels), depending on the distance between them,
 362 as well as the duration and the celerity of the flood wave. The maximum loading intensity
 363 (represented by the peak water level) decreases in the flow direction due to the attenuation
 364 effect inherent in flood wave propagation.

365 2) Although the occurrence of a breach event at a certain levee section does not eliminate the
 366 possibility that further breaches may happen in other sections during the same flood event,
 367 the occurrence of multiple breaches is ignored, based on the empirical observation that
 368 multiple breaches typically occur with low frequency during real floods. Breach events in
 369 different locations are therefore assumed mutually exclusive. Accordingly, in the case of a
 370 breach upstream, the conditional probability of additional breaches downstream is set to zero,
 371 as if the occurrence of a levee breach at a certain location caused a considerable drop in the
 372 water surface downstream, to the point of reducing to zero the risk of further breaches in the
 373 downstream sections. Consequently, the possible “failure states” of the levee system (with
 374 reference to the breach locations, including the no breach scenario) are reduced from 2^N to
 375 $N + 1$, with significant computational saving, especially for high values of N . This hypothesis
 376 makes the occurrence of a downstream breach dependent on the event that none of the
 377 upstream sections have breached earlier.

378 In view of the previous assumptions, the failure probability at section LS_i (with $i > 1$)
 379 deduced from the fragility function for fixed discrete water levels $\eta_{i,k}$ can be interpreted as
 380 conditional on the fact that no breach events occurred previously at the upstream sections.

381 Thus, breaching probability $P(B_{i,k})$ at water level $\eta_{i,k}$ is the joint probability of $B_{i,k}$ and
 382 $(\bar{B}_{i-1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_1)$, the latter expression meaning that none of the upstream sections $LS_{i-1}, \dots,$
 383 LS_1 breached previously. Event B_i denotes levee breaching at section LS_i regardless of the
 384 water stage that induces failure, thus it includes all events $B_{i,k}$ for $k = 1, \dots, N_i$. The
 385 probability multiplication rule for dependent events yields

$$386 \quad P(B_{i,k}) = P(B_{i,k} \cap \bar{B}_{i,k-1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_{i,1} \cap \bar{B}_{i-1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_1) = \\
 = P(B_{i,k} \cap \bar{B}_{i,k-1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_{i,1} | \bar{B}_{i-1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_1) \cdot P(\bar{B}_{i-1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_1) \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, N_i \text{ (} i = 2, \dots, N \text{)},$$

387 (11)

388 and recalling that

$$389 \quad P(\bar{B}_{i-1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_1) = 1 - \sum_{l=1}^{i-1} P(B_l) \quad \text{for } i = 2, \dots, N \quad (12)$$

390 because events B_i are mutually exclusive, Eq. (11) becomes

$$391 \quad P(B_{i,1}) = P_{f(LS_i)}(\eta_{i,1}) \cdot \left[1 - \sum_{l=1}^{i-1} P(B_l) \right] \quad \text{for } k = 1 \\
 P(B_{i,k}) = \left[P_{f(LS_i)}(\eta_{i,k}) - P_{f(LS_i)}(\eta_{i,k-1}) \right] \cdot \left[1 - \sum_{l=1}^{i-1} P(B_l) \right] \quad \text{for } k = 2, \dots, N_i \quad (i = 2, \dots, N).$$

392 (13)

393 The calculations proceed from upstream to downstream according to Eqs. (8) and (13).
 394 Finally, the probability that a breach occurs somewhere in the discretized levee system (at
 395 any discrete water level) is

$$396 \quad P(B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_N) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(B_i), \quad (14)$$

397 and the probability of the no breach scenario (i.e. the levee system withstands the water load
 398 caused by the design flood event without breaching) is

$$399 \quad P(\bar{B}_1 \cap \dots \cap \bar{B}_N) = 1 - P(B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_N) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^N P(B_i). \quad (15)$$

400 The cross-sections at which the boundary conditions are specified are usually gauged
 401 sections, where discharge or water level data are available. It is desirable that the failure
 402 probability of such boundary sections is equal to zero so as to avoid the interference between
 403 the breach outflow and the boundary conditions imposed. For this reason, the boundary
 404 sections are not included in the set of the pre-selected sections susceptible to breach.
 405 Moreover, the input flood hydrograph (of given return period) is typically obtained from the
 406 frequency analysis of historical data, which implies that breach events occurring upstream of
 407 the inflow section are not considered. The method is applied to either the right- or the left-
 408 bank levee of a river reach, thus neglecting the effects of potential levee breaches on the
 409 opposite side.

410 Ultimately, as a final outcome of the levee breach module, an ensemble of breach
 411 scenarios can be assembled, composed of breach events $B_{i,k}$ along with the no breach

412 scenario. Each breach scenario (labeled S_j hereinafter) is coupled with its probability $P(S_j)$,
 413 being $j = 1, \dots, N_S$ a scenario index and $N_S = \sum_{i=1}^N N_i + 1$ the total number of scenarios,
 414 including the no breach scenario. Within this ensemble, the scenarios are ordered by breach
 415 location LS_i from upstream to downstream and, for each location, according to increasing $\eta_{i,k}$
 416 values of the breach water level. Accordingly, breach event $B_{i,k}$ corresponds to breach
 417 scenario S_j , with $j = k$ for $i = 1$ and $j = k + \sum_{l=1}^{i-1} N_l$ for $i > 1$; $j = N_S$ refers to the no breach
 418 scenario. The probabilities associated with each breach scenario represent the scenario
 419 chances conditioned to a design flood event of given return period and constitute the weights
 420 to be assigned to the corresponding subsequent flooding for probabilistic flood inundation
 421 and hazard mapping.

422

423 *Here Figure 4*

424

425

2.2 Hydrodynamic model

426 Both deterministic and probabilistic flood hazard mapping require a hydrodynamic
 427 model capable of accurately simulating the flood dynamics and predict the key hydraulic
 428 variables involved in the flood hazard assessment (Teng et al., 2017). One-dimensional (1D)
 429 and two-dimensional (2D) models based on the shallow water equations are widely used in
 430 literature because of their ability to effectively simulate rapidly varied unsteady free surface
 431 flows, such as the flood wave routing in river channels (1D models) and the inundation of
 432 flood-prone areas (2D models), even in the presence of highly irregular topography (e.g.,
 433 Horritt & Bates, 2002; Horritt et al., 2007; Tayefi et al., 2007; Aureli et al., 2008a; Pilotti et
 434 al., 2011; Pilotti et al., 2014; Vacondio et al., 2014; Costabile & Macchione, 2015). In the
 435 case of long river stretches and wide flood-prone areas, combined 1D-2D models can be very
 436 useful, ensuring a good compromise between model accuracy and computational efficiency
 437 (e.g., Dhondia and Stelling, 2002; Kamrath et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2015).

438 The hydrodynamic model used in this paper is a combined 1D-2D model in which the
 439 1D and 2D modules are linked by means of lateral structures. In the event of breach opening,
 440 a weir-type formula is applied at these structures to model the flow exchange between the 1D
 441 and 2D computational domains through the levee breach.

442 The free software HEC-RAS v. 5.06 (Brunner, 2016a) is used for the numerical
 443 simulations due to its wide application for river flood modeling (e.g., Horritt & Bates, 2002;
 444 Tayefi et al., 2007; Cook & Merwade, 2009) and, recently, for 2D flood inundation modeling
 445 (see, for example, Quiroga et al., 2016; Teng et al., 2017; Afshari et al., 2018). HEC-RAS
 446 solves the 1D De Saint Venant equations by the four-point Preissman implicit finite-
 447 difference scheme, and the full 2D shallow water equations by a semi-implicit, Eulerian-
 448 Lagrangian, finite volume scheme (Brunner, 2016b). An accurate description of the
 449 inundation process in the 2D flooding area is obtained through a sub-grid model (Brunner,

450 2016b), in which the bottom of the computational cells is not horizontal but follows the
451 underlying terrain topography.

452 2.3. Spatial probability analysis model and probabilistic flood hazard mapping

453 After the probabilities of each breach scenario have been assessed using the
454 probabilistic levee breach model previously described, the probability analysis of the
455 hydrodynamic model results of the whole scenario ensemble allows producing the
456 probabilistic flood inundation and hazard maps. Three different types of maps are used in this
457 paper to represent the model outputs: 1) the probabilistic inundation extent map; 2) percentile
458 maps of the key hydraulic quantities (such as maximum inundation depth, maximum flow
459 velocity, and flooding arrival time) and of the flood hazard index; 3) the probabilistic maps of
460 hazard levels defined according to a chosen flood hazard classification.

461 1) The probabilistic inundation extent map illustrates the areas expected to be
462 inundated with a given probability, thereby providing, in each position of the flood-prone
463 area, the probability of being flooded for the design flood event of given return period (e.g.,
464 Smemoe et al., 2007; Vorogushyn et al., 2010; Beven et al., 2015). The inundation
465 probability P_I at each floodable location \mathbf{x} is calculated by adding the probabilities of the
466 breach scenarios inducing flooding in that location, that is

$$467 \quad P_I(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_j P(S_j : h_{\max j}(\mathbf{x}) > 0), \quad (16)$$

468 in which $h_{\max j}(\mathbf{x})$ is the maximum inundation depth predicted at position \mathbf{x} for scenario S_j .

469 2) A further outcome of the probability analysis is the spatial distribution in the
470 floodable area of key flood quantities which are not exceeded with a given probability. This
471 information is effectively visualized through percentile maps (see Vorogushyn et al., 2010).
472 For instance, referring to inundation depth h , the X-percentile map of the maximum
473 inundation depth h_{\max} represents, for each floodable location \mathbf{x} , the local maximum value of
474 the water depth which is exceeded with a probability of $(100 - X)\%$ for the selected design
475 flood event of given return period, that is

$$476 \quad h_{\max, X\%}(\mathbf{x}) = [h_{\max}(\mathbf{x}) : P_{h_{\max}}(h_{\max}; \mathbf{x}) = X/100], \quad (17)$$

477 $P_{h_{\max}}(h_{\max}; \mathbf{x})$ being the cumulative probability function of the stochastic variable h_{\max} at
478 position \mathbf{x} , defined as

$$479 \quad P_{h_{\max}}(h_{\max}; \mathbf{x}) = \sum_j P(S_j : h_{\max j}(\mathbf{x}) \leq h_{\max}). \quad (18)$$

480 In addition, to provide summary information on the spatial variability of the central tendency
481 of the probability distribution of h_{\max} , a probability-weighted average map can be generated
482 as follows:

$$483 \quad h_{\max, \text{average}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_j P(S_j) \cdot h_{\max j}(\mathbf{x}). \quad (19)$$

484 3) The last result of the spatial probability analysis is the probabilistic assessment of
 485 the flood hazard in the floodable area. To this end, it is necessary beforehand to define a
 486 flood hazard classification, based on an index representative of the flood hazard intensity
 487 (e.g., Aureli et al., 2008b; Di Baldassarre et al., 2009b; Aronica et al., 2012; Mazzoleni et al.,
 488 2014). Several flood hazard classifications are present in literature and are adopted by
 489 government agencies for flood hazard management (e.g., ACER, 1988; DEFRA, 2006;
 490 Aronica et al., 2012); the flood hazard indexes are typically defined as a combination of
 491 inundation depth and flow velocity, sometimes dependent on the return period (Aronica et al.,
 492 2012). The classification suggested by DEFRA (2006) for people has been adopted in this
 493 paper. Such classification is based on flood hazard index HR defined as

$$494 \quad HR = h \cdot (|\mathbf{v}| + 0.5) + DF, \quad (20)$$

495 h being the flooding depth (in m), $|\mathbf{v}|$ the magnitude of the flow velocity (in m/s), and DF a
 496 debris factor (which depends in turn on the flood depth and velocity, and on the land use),
 497 assumed equal to zero for simplicity. According to DEFRA (2006), flood hazard for people is
 498 categorized in four classes as low, moderate, significant, or extreme, depending on the fact
 499 that the maximum value of HR predicted belongs to the ranges $\mathfrak{R}_1 = (0, 0.75)$,
 500 $\mathfrak{R}_2 = [0.75, 1.25)$, $\mathfrak{R}_3 = [1.25, 2.5)$, or $\mathfrak{R}_4 = [2.5, +\infty)$, respectively (see Figure 5). The
 501 probabilistic flood hazard maps can then provide, for the design flood event of given return
 502 period, the spatial distribution of the probability of each flood hazard class, i.e. the
 503 probability of each position \mathbf{x} to fall in the different flood hazard classes, that is

$$504 \quad P_{\mathfrak{R}_m}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_j P(S_j : HR_{\max_j}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathfrak{R}_m), \quad (21)$$

505 in which m is an index referring to the hazard class, and $HR_{\max_j}(\mathbf{x})$ is the maximum value of
 506 HR evaluated at position \mathbf{x} for the j -breach scenario. Accordingly, a probabilistic flood hazard
 507 map can be drawn for each hazard class considered. In addition, the maximum value of the
 508 flood hazard level corresponding to a given probability can be calculated in each location
 509 according to Eqs. (17) and (18) modified by replacing h_{\max} with HR_{\max} . Percentile maps of
 510 the flood hazard index can then be generated. Similarly, a probability-weighted average flood
 511 hazard map can be obtained adapting Eq. (19).

512 It is worth noting that the flood hazard classification can be adapted to the jeopardized
 513 element being considered (see ACER, 1988). With respect to this, it should be borne in mind
 514 that various stability criteria have been proposed in literature for persons, buildings, and
 515 vehicles (see Milanesi et al., 2016; Milanesi et al., 2018; Martínez-Gomariz et al., 2018,
 516 respectively).

517

518

Here Figure 5

519

520 2.4. Limitations of the method

521 The implications of the main assumptions of the method are discussed in this
522 subsection.

523 1) The method requires that a design flood event of given return period be assigned. Hence
524 the results of the flood hazard analysis are conditional on a hydrologic load of given
525 frequency of occurrence. However, this not preclude the application of the method to
526 hydrological events of different return periods. In this regard, Vorogushyn et al. (2010)
527 obtained probabilistic inundation hazard maps, and Winter et al. (2018) estimated monetary
528 damages caused by floods for different return periods. Incidentally, flood events of different
529 severity must be taken into account when the criterion chosen for flood hazard classification
530 includes the return period (Aronica et al., 2012). Using a different approach, Hall et al.
531 (2003), Dawson et al. (2005), and Dawson and Hall (2006) combined the levee fragility
532 function with the probability density function of the hydraulic loading in order to estimate the
533 unconditional probability of failure of selected defense sections, thereby taking into account
534 all relevant hydrologic scenarios in flood risk analysis in a probabilistic way. In the method
535 proposed in this paper, a design flow hydrograph is imposed as an upstream boundary
536 condition for the selected return period. The influence of uncertainty in boundary conditions
537 on flood inundation predictions was analyzed in detail by Pappenberger et al. (2006) and
538 Domeneghetti et al. (2013).

539 2) Only levee failure due to piping is considered in the method. However, the analysis of the
540 levee reliability can easily be extended to other failure mechanisms, even multiple ones, by
541 adequately adapting the fragility functions (Apel et al., 2006; Dawson and Hall, 2006;
542 Vorogushyn et al., 2010; Marijnissen et al., 2019). It is worth noting that in the case of
543 complex probabilistic reliability procedures involving different failure mechanisms, the
544 Monte Carlo method is a general feasible solution, albeit computationally expensive
545 (Vorogushyn et al., 2009).

546 3) Only levee porosity is treated as a stochastic variable in the reliability function adopted for
547 piping (Khilar et al., 1985). Indeed, porosity is among the most uncertain parameters in the
548 levee reliability assessment. However, more complex piping models and various empirical
549 reliability functions can be used (Vorogushyn et al., 2009), even considering several
550 parameters as stochastic. The geotechnical and geometrical properties of the levee sections,
551 excluding levee porosity, are considered as deterministic in this paper, as well as the other
552 model inputs and parameters. The influence of the uncertainty associated with such elements
553 on flood inundation predictions has been extensively analyzed in literature (see Merwade et
554 al., 2008). In particular, Sanyal (2017) recently developed a probabilistic methodology for
555 dealing with the effect of uncertainty in levee heights on the inundation pattern.

556 4) Breach development is assumed instantaneous, and breach length and shape are fixed a
557 priori since the focus of the paper is on the effects of breach location and time. A plausible
558 value of the breach width could generally be derived from the historical field data concerning
559 the study area, when available. Alternatively, simple empirical models proposed in literature
560 could be used to estimate the breach growth rate and the final breach width (IMPACT, 2005;
561 Dawson et al., 2005; Dawson and Hall, 2006). However, breach geometry characteristics are
562 highly uncertain, and their correct estimation is important to accurately predict flooding
563 extent (Mazzoleni et al., 2014). For this reason, several studies have dealt with the effect of
564 uncertainties in breach size (Di Baldassarre et al., 2009; Vorogushyn et al., 2010;

565 Domeneghetti et al., 2013; Mazzoleni et al., 2017) and breach development (Vorogushyn et
566 al., 2011) on flood hazard mapping. When an empirical frequency distribution of breach
567 width can be computed, different breach lengths (with the associated frequencies) could be
568 considered for each breach location and time (Apel et al., 2006; Vorogushyn et al., 2010;
569 Mazzoleni et al., 2014). Accordingly, the number of breach scenarios to be taken into account
570 may increase considerably, along with the computational effort required.

571 5) The hydraulic load on a river levee system varies in time during a flood event. The method
572 assumes that levee breaching can only occur during the rising stage of the flood (i.e. for
573 increasing water levels). Moreover, hydraulic loading is assumed to act sequentially and
574 separately on the successive pre-selected levee sections from upstream to downstream,
575 according to the natural temporal sequencing determined by the propagation of the flood
576 wave in the river. Uncertainty in the loading conditions on a levee system has been
577 extensively investigated in literature (Apel et al., 2004; Dawson et al., 2005, Dawson and
578 Hall, 2006; Hall and Solomatine, 2008; Lendering et al., 2018; Winter et al., 2018). However,
579 the temporal component of load sequencing is usually neglected, i.e. all sections of the
580 defense system are assumed to be subject to the same peak hydraulic load at almost the same
581 time (Hall et al., 2003; Dawson et al., 2005; Harvey et al., 2014).

582 6) Multiple breach scenarios are ignored, i.e. the probability that two or more breaches occur
583 at different locations during the same flood event is neglected, based on the empirical
584 observation that multiple breaches are rather infrequent in real flood events. Indeed, the
585 occurrence of an upstream breach may significantly reduce downstream water levels and,
586 consequently, the conditional probability of failure at downstream levee sections. In view of
587 the present and previous assumption 5), breach scenarios characterized by different breach
588 locations and failure times are considered as mutually exclusive. On the other hand, multiple
589 failure states are usually treated as independent in literature (Hall et al., 2003; Dawson et al.,
590 2005; Gouldby et al., 2008; Harvey et al., 2014), which means that the hydraulic interactions
591 between breach events occurring during the same flood event are neglected. Including
592 multiple breaches in the analysis can imply that a large number of combinations of breach
593 locations and possibly times should be considered, especially for long levee reaches
594 described with many cross-sections, thus requiring a prohibitive computational effort
595 (Dawson et al., 2005). Dawson and Hall (2006) and Harvey et al. (2014) developed efficient
596 flood risk methodologies to reduce this problem.

597 **3 Case study**

598 The probabilistic method is applied to a 96 km reach located in the central portion of
599 the Po River (northern Italy), between the Cremona and Borgoforte gauging stations (Figure
600 6). Along this reach, the river is braided, with wide and flat floodplains, and the average
601 riverbed slope is approximately 0.2 m per km; five main tributaries on the right-hand side and
602 one on the left-hand side flow into the river. A levee system provides protection to the
603 adjacent flood-prone areas on both the right and left banks. Only breach events on the right-
604 hand side levee system are considered in this paper. In the case of this type of event, a
605 densely-urbanized area of approximately 1900 km² is potentially exposed to flooding. Only
606 failures caused by piping are considered here, since the historical records show that this
607 breaching mechanism has been the primary cause of levee failures in this specific reach in the
608 last two centuries (Turitto et al., 2010; Mazzoleni et al., 2015). It is worth noting that most of

609 the recent levee failures which caused large flooding in northern Italy were not triggered by
610 overtopping, but were likely induced by internal erosion due to seepage phenomena (e.g.,
611 Serchio River in 2009, Bacchiglione River in 2010, Secchia River in 2014).

612

613 *Here Figure 6*

614

615 The database from the Italian Agency for the Po River Management (AIPO) was used
616 to collect sixty-one cross-sections between the main levees for the reach analyzed (Figure 6);
617 these derive from a ground survey and have an average distance of 1.6 km. The right-hand
618 side levee system was discretized according to these cross-sections, where the fragility
619 functions for piping were evaluated. In addition to these 61 river cross-sections, a 2 m
620 resolution digital terrain model (DTM) based on LiDAR data is available which covers most
621 of the floodable area of interest. Additional 5 m and 20 m resolution DTMs, obtained from
622 vector contour lines, were used to complete the topographic description of the flood-prone
623 area where gaps in the 2 m DTM were present. Between the main levees of the Po River, the
624 LiDAR data were combined with a sonar survey covering the submerged portion of the main
625 channel to enhance the description of the river bed geometry.

626 Supplementary cross-sections extracted from the DTM at an average distance of
627 100 m were added to the 61 cross-sections mentioned above to accurately reproduce the river
628 geometry in the 1D model. The model was calibrated against a severe flood event (of
629 approximately 50-year return period) which had occurred in October 2000. To this end, the
630 inflow hydrograph at the Cremona gauging station, estimated on the basis of the recorded
631 water levels by using a reliable rating curve, was imposed at the upstream boundary, while
632 the stage hydrograph recorded at the Borgoforte gauging station was used as downstream
633 boundary condition. The calibration was performed by adjusting the Manning coefficients of
634 the main channel and of the floodplains to satisfactorily reproduce the water levels recorded
635 at the intermediate Boretto gauging station (Figure 6). The PEST suite (Doherty, 2010) was
636 adopted to automate the calibration procedure and it returned roughness values of 0.045 and
637 $0.1 \text{ m}^{-1/3}$ for the main channel and the floodplains, respectively. These estimates agree with
638 the ones obtained in previous studies on the same river reach (e.g., Mazzoleni et al., 2014 and
639 2015).

640 In the HEC-RAS hydrodynamic model, lateral structures (which act as internal
641 boundary elements) were used to represent the right-hand side levee and link the 1D river
642 reach to the 2D floodable area in the event of levee failure. A weir-type formula was adopted
643 to model the flow exchange between the two computational domains through the breach.
644 Based on Brunner (2016a), the dimensional weir coefficient C was set at $1.1 \text{ m}^{1/2}/\text{s}$, which
645 corresponds to a conventional dimensionless discharge coefficient $\mu = C/(2g)^{1/2}$ equal to
646 approximately 0.25, g being the acceleration due to gravity.

647 The flood-prone area was discretized through a mixed structured-unstructured 2D
648 mesh. It was built starting from a $50 \text{ m} \times 50 \text{ m}$ structured grid that was then refined near the
649 main topographic singularities by means of unstructured cells. Breaklines were inserted along
650 the topographic elements that could significantly affect the flood propagation (such as levees
651 or road embankments), with the aim of forcing the cell boundaries to follow these lines. A

652 total of 887993 cells and 940969 nodes were obtained in the 2D computational domain,
653 where the Manning roughness coefficient was assumed to vary spatially with the land use
654 reported in the Corine Land Cover (2012) database. Roughness values in the range from 0.02
655 to $0.3 \text{ m}^{-1/3}$ s were set according to the land cover type (Chow, 1959).

656 The numerical flood simulations were performed imposing a 100-year return period
657 synthetic design hydrograph (Maione et al., 2003) at the upstream boundary (Cremona
658 gauging station) of the 1D hydrodynamic model (Figure 7a). A reliable rating curve was
659 specified at the downstream end of the model (Borgoforte gauging station; Figure 7b). The
660 tributary flow contributions were neglected, thus assuming that the flood event affected the
661 main stem only. A preliminary 1D flood routing simulation was performed without levee
662 breaches in order to predict the maximum water levels at the 61 primary cross-sections and
663 pre-select the locations where the levee system has the greatest chance of failing.

664

665 *Here Figure 7*

666

667 A rectangular-shaped breach of constant width and depth was assumed in the flooding
668 simulations, regardless of the failure location. The breach width was set at 100 m, which is
669 the median value of the historical data concerning breaches due to piping in the right-hand
670 side levee of the river reach considered (Turitto et al, 2010; Mazzoleni et al., 2015). The
671 levee failure was triggered by the reaching of prescribed water levels (determined on the
672 basis of the probabilistic levee breach model), and the breach opening was assumed to
673 instantaneously reach the landside natural ground level, since the breach developing time is
674 reasonably shorter than the overall flood duration.

675 The variable time stepping algorithm, recently implemented in HEC-RAS (Brunner,
676 2018) and based on the Courant stability condition, was used to improve the model's stability
677 and reduce the computational burden of the numerical simulations. A simulation time of
678 approximately 5 h is required on average on a desktop computer with an Intel Xeon processor
679 (3.6 Ghz) and 16 GB of RAM to simulate a physical 10 d flooding on a mesh with 887993
680 cells. Differences between the scenarios depend on the specific features of the predicted
681 inundation dynamics and, mainly, on the flooding extent.

682 **4 Results**

683 This section presents the results obtained by applying the probabilistic method to the
684 case study described in the previous section.

685 The first key result is provided by the probabilistic levee breach module and consists
686 in the assessment of the breach scenario probabilities, i.e. the levee failure probability for
687 piping at selected locations and times. Fourteen of the 61 sections used to discretize the levee
688 system are potentially susceptible to failure for the 100-year return period flood event
689 ($N = 14$), and represent the locations most critical to piping. After discretization of the
690 corresponding 14 fragility curves based on 5%-probability intervals (see Figure 4), 26 breach
691 scenarios can be defined ($N_S = 26$), including the no breach one. Breach scenarios with
692 estimated probability lower than the 0.5% threshold are disregarded for simplicity. Figure 8

693 shows the 14 “pre-selected” potential breach locations; the probabilities reported are
694 calculated by adding the probabilities of all the breach scenarios (characterized by different
695 failure times, corresponding to different flow conditions in the river) defined at the same
696 location. Of the 14 breach positions six are located in the central portion of the river reach,
697 while the remaining are concentrated in the downstream portion. It is worth noting that the
698 locations agree fairly well with the positions of the main sand boils observed during the
699 severe flood events which occurred in the Po River in 1994 and 2000 (see Coratza, 2004;
700 Mazzoleni et al., 2014). Conversely, no levee breaching induced by piping is expected in the
701 upstream part of the reach, where the levee exhibits a high resistance against piping for the
702 flood event considered. The highest breach probabilities are estimated for the levee cross-
703 sections with smaller width, or in which the landside levee toe is lower than the riverside
704 floodplain (see Figure 2b). The sum of all the breach scenario probabilities, indicating the
705 chance that a breach occurs somewhere in the levee system, is approximately 65%. The
706 residual probability of approximately 35% refers to the case of no occurrence of breaches
707 along the levee system for the design flood event considered. However, these values are
708 influenced by the assumption of neglecting multiple breach scenarios. In the case study
709 analyzed (see Figure 8), the joint probability that levee section LS_1 fails at the peak water
710 level and later section LS_2 breaches, again at the peak water level (obviously influenced by
711 the breaching at LS_1), is equal to approximately 0.15%. This result confirms that the
712 individual impact on the total probability of high order scenarios characterized by two (or
713 even more) multiple breaches is not particularly significant, at least in the case study
714 considered.

715

716

Here Figure 8

717

718 After simulating the inundations related to each breach scenario through the
719 hydrodynamic model, the different maps listed in Section 2.3 can be obtained through the
720 probability analysis of the numerical results. A first outcome of this analysis is the 1-in-100
721 year flood probabilistic map of the inundation extent shown in Figure 9. This map illustrates
722 the areas that can be expected to be inundated with different probabilities for the design flood
723 event with a recurrence interval of 100 years. The inundation probabilities reach the highest
724 values (greater than 25%) in the eastern part of the flood-prone area because different breach
725 scenarios determine predicted flooded areas overlapping to a large extent. Moreover, distinct
726 circumscribed flooded areas are clearly recognizable, due to the presence of the levee systems
727 of the main right-hand bank tributaries of the Po River, which constitute barriers to the flow
728 in the floodable plain. The borders of the flooded areas are distinctly defined by the
729 topographic obstacles, where they affect the evolution of the inundation process. Conversely,
730 wherever the inundation extent is determined by the natural mild terrain slope, the borders of
731 the inundated area appear blurred, with a gradual decrease to zero in inundation probability.

732

733

Here Figure 9

734

735 Another significant result of the spatial probability analysis is the distribution of
736 selected percentiles of the maximum inundation depth in the flood-prone area for the design
737 flood event of given return period. This information can effectively be represented by
738 percentile maps. As an example, panels a-c in Figure 10 show the 1-in-100 year flood maps
739 of the 75th, 90th, and 99th percentile of the maximum inundation depth for the case study
740 analyzed. Percentile maps provide a more comprehensive characterization of the probability
741 distribution of the variable represented in comparison with a concise probability-weighted
742 average map (see Figure 10d), where the estimated mean values at each location cannot be
743 realistically attributed to any breach scenario. It can be noted from Figure 10 that both the
744 extent of the flooded area and the maximum inundation depth at a selected position increase
745 for increasing percentile, as expected. Moreover, the 99th percentile map (Figure 10c) shows
746 that water depths up to approximately 10 m might occur in the central portion of the flood-
747 prone area, due to the combined presence of depressed lands and high embankments. Similar
748 maps can be produced for any other significant hydraulic quantity, such as maximum flow
749 velocity or flood arrival time. These maps are not shown here for the sake of brevity.

750

751 *Here Figure 10*

752

753 The ultimate outcome of post-processing the simulation results is represented by
754 probabilistic flood hazard maps. Figure 11 shows 1-in-100 year flood probabilistic maps that
755 depict the spatial distribution of the probability of the four flood hazard levels (low,
756 moderate, significant, and extreme; see Figure 5) identified by DEFRA (2006) for the 100-
757 year return period design flood event. The flood hazard level is evaluated on the basis of the
758 predicted maximum value of index HR defined in Eq. (20). It should be noted that a specific
759 location in the flood-prone area can fall in different hazard classes at the same time, with
760 different probabilities. Figure 11d shows that the extreme flood hazard level occurs with
761 significant probability (10-15%) in the central region of the flood-prone area, where the
762 highest values of the maximum water depth are expected.

763

764 *Here Figure 11*

765

766 Probabilistic flood hazard maps can also be represented in terms of percentile maps,
767 as for the probabilistic inundation maps in Figure 10. Figure 12a-c shows the 75th, 90th, and
768 99th percentile maps of the maximum value of the flood hazard index for the design flood
769 event of 100-year return period. For each location, the flood hazard intensity expected to be
770 exceeded with 25%, 10%, and 1% probability, respectively, can be extracted from these
771 maps. Alternatively, the areas characterized by the highest values of the flood hazard index
772 (or by values greater than a fixed threshold) can easily be identified for a given percentile.
773 This probabilistic information can be very useful for the assessment and management of the
774 flood risk in the area analyzed. Finally, Figure 12d shows the probability-weighted average
775 map of the maximum value of the hazard index. Such a map appears to be very similar to the
776 flood hazard maps usually generated in the conventional flood hazard analyses, and provides

777 a concise “average” probabilistic assessment of the flood hazard; it can thus be adopted as a
778 first approach for land-planning and flood-risk management purposes.

779

780

Here Figure 12

781

782 **5 Conclusions**

783 A probabilistic multi-module method for the assessment of the flood hazard due to
784 piping-induced levee failures in flood-prone areas has been proposed in this paper. The
785 concept of fragility function (which describes the vulnerability of a levee system at a selected
786 section) and the probability multiplication rule for dependent events were employed to
787 estimate breach scenario probabilities, representative of the uncertainty of levee breaching at
788 selected locations and times, conditioned to a design flood event of given return period.
789 Fragility functions for piping were obtained for the cross-sections of a discretized levee
790 system through a reliability analysis based on a suitable performance index. Only levee
791 porosity was considered as a stochastic variable in assessing this index.

792 Attention was focused on the uncertainty about breach location and failure time due to
793 the significant influence that these factors have on the dynamics of the subsequent inundation
794 and on the delimitation of the flooded areas. An ensemble of potential levee failure scenarios
795 was pre-selected on the basis of a preliminary hydrodynamic simulation performed by
796 assuming no levee breaches along the river. Thanks to the preliminary identification of the
797 sections where the levee is more susceptible to breach, the method offers the advantage of
798 requiring fewer simulation runs in comparison with most probabilistic methods proposed in
799 literature, typically based on computationally expensive Monte Carlo procedures. Moreover,
800 since the method assigns a probability to each breach scenario and subsequent flooding, it
801 allows the quantification of the uncertainty of the hydraulic variables involved in the flood
802 hazard assessment, thus providing more comprehensive information compared to the
803 conventional deterministic methods. Indeed, the deterministic methods are typically based on
804 a single “optimum” scenario and, in the best cases, are accompanied by a sensitivity analysis
805 on the key parameters.

806 The main assumptions and limitations of the proposed method are recalled below.
807 1) The analysis was performed for a design flood event of given return period. 2) Only piping
808 was considered among the different levee breach mechanisms. 3) Topographic and
809 hydrologic data were treated in a deterministic way. Only levee porosity was considered as a
810 stochastic variable in the derivation of the fragility functions for piping. 4) The geometric
811 characteristics of the breaches were treated as deterministic and fixed a priori; the breach was
812 assumed to occur instantaneously. 5) It was assumed that levee failure could only occur
813 during the rising stage of the flood wave, and that the hydraulic load was applied separately
814 to the successive pre-selected levee sections from upstream to downstream. 6) Multiple
815 breach scenarios were neglected. Due to its relevance, this specific topic ought to be further
816 analyzed, and will indeed be investigated in a future study.

817 The method was applied to a 96 km reach of the central portion of the Po River
818 (northern Italy) to verify its effectiveness in probabilistic inundation and flood hazard
819 mapping. The spatial probability analysis conducted on the numerical results of the
820 hydrodynamic model allows the following maps to be generated (for a design flood event of
821 given return period): 1) the probabilistic inundation extent map; 2) percentile maps of the key
822 hydraulic quantities (such as the maximum inundation depth and velocity, and the flooding
823 arrival time) and of the flood hazard index; 3) the probabilistic map of the hazard levels
824 defined according to a chosen classification. Unlike conventional deterministic maps, which
825 typically define the flooded area boundaries on the basis of a “best” scenario, the
826 probabilistic inundation extent maps identify the areas that are expected to be inundated with
827 different probabilities. Similarly, unlike conventional maps of the maximum inundation
828 depth, which represent an inundation pattern derived from a single scenario, percentile
829 probability maps take into account different possible flood scenarios. For each location in the
830 flood-prone area they provide the maximum water depth value which it is expected not to be
831 exceeded with fixed probabilities. In addition, interpercentile ranges can be extracted for each
832 location from different percentile maps. Similar considerations apply to the percentile maps
833 of flood hazard. Probabilistic flood hazard maps can also represent the spatial distribution of
834 the probability of each hazard level defined in the classification adopted. The flood hazard
835 assessment is based on an ensemble of breach scenarios (along with the associated
836 probabilities), each producing different inundation effects, so distinct flood hazard levels can
837 be predicted in the same location, with different probabilities.

838 Probabilistic flood hazard mapping does have the drawback that results cannot be
839 exhaustively represented in concise thematic maps as in the deterministic analyses. However,
840 incorporating uncertainty (in terms of probability) in flood hazard assessment supports more
841 informed and flexible management and planning decisions. The information concerning
842 probability is indeed an additional useful element to better orient land-use planning strategies
843 and structural interventions for flood hazard mitigation, which can be adequately designed on
844 the basis of the risk propensity of the floodable areas. Moreover, the probabilistic analysis
845 helps differentiate between situations characterized by similar “average” flood hazard
846 conditions and carefully use the economic resources available by concentrating preventive
847 measures in the areas where significant flood hazard is predicted with the highest probability
848 in the first instance. Finally, effective communication of the uncertainty affecting the results
849 contributes to forming a correct perception of risk in society.

850 **Acknowledgments**

851 The Co-Editor (J. Hall), S. Vorogushyn, and the two anonymous reviewers are kindly
852 acknowledged for their valuable suggestions and thorough appraisal, which have greatly
853 contributed to the improvement of the paper.

854 The cross-sectional data of the Po River are available on the Italian Interregional
855 Agency for the Po River (AIPo) website on:
856 http://geoportale.agenziapo.it/cms/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=129&Itemid=105.
857

858 The topographic data of the flood prone area can be accessed on the National
 859 Geoportal of the Italian Ministry of Environment and Protection of Land and Sea on:
 860 <http://www.pcn.minambiente.it/mattm/en/data-distribution-service-pst/>.

861 All data used in this paper can be accessed in a public repository on:
 862 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.9729251.v3>.

863 Appendix A

864 In the case study shown in the paper, a triangular probability density distribution is
 865 assumed for levee porosity, with n ranging from n_{\min} to n_{\max} (see Mazzoleni et al., 2015), i.e.

$$866 \quad f_n(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n < n_{\min} \\ p_0 \frac{n - n_{\min}}{n_0 - n_{\min}} & \text{if } n_{\min} \leq n \leq n_0 \\ p_0 \left(1 - \frac{n - n_0}{n_{\max} - n_0} \right) & \text{if } n_0 < n \leq n_{\max} \\ 0 & \text{if } n > n_{\max} \end{cases}, \quad (A1)$$

867 where p_0 denotes the probability density corresponding to the modal value n_0
 868 ($n_{\min} < n_0 < n_{\max}$) and is equal to $2(n_{\max} - n_{\min})^{-1}$ so that $\int_{n_{\min}}^{n_{\max}} f_n(n) dn = 1$. Substituting Eqs.
 869 (A1), (6), and (7) in Eq. (5) yields

$$870 \quad f_G(G) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } G < G_{\min} \\ p_0 \left[1 - \frac{1}{n_{\max} - n_0} \left(\frac{C}{G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C} - n_0 \right) \right] \frac{C}{\left(G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} & \text{if } G_{\min} \leq G \leq G_0 \\ \frac{p_0}{n_0 - n_{\min}} \left(\frac{C}{G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C} - n_{\min} \right) \frac{C}{\left(G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} & \text{if } G_0 < G \leq G_{\max} \\ 0 & \text{if } G > G_{\max} \end{cases}, \quad (A2)$$

871 with $G_{\min} = G(n_{\max})$, $G_0 = G(n_0)$, and $G_{\max} = G(n_{\min})$. The cumulative probability of the
 872 stochastic variable G can be obtained from Eq. (A2) by integration:

$$873 \quad P_G(G) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } G < G_{\min} \\ p_0 C \left(1 + \frac{n_0}{n_{\max} - n_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{G_{\min} + \frac{\eta}{L} + C} - \frac{1}{G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C} \right) - \frac{p_0 C^2}{2(n_{\max} - n_0)} \left[\frac{1}{\left(G_{\min} + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} - \frac{1}{\left(G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} \right] & \text{if } G_{\min} \leq G \leq G_0, \\ P_{G_0} + p_0 C \frac{n_{\min}}{n_0 - n_{\min}} \left(\frac{1}{G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C} - \frac{1}{G_0 + \frac{\eta}{L} + C} \right) - \frac{p_0 C^2}{2(n_0 - n_{\min})} \left[\frac{1}{\left(G + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} - \frac{1}{\left(G_0 + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} \right] & \text{if } G_0 < G \leq G_{\max} \\ 1 & \text{if } G > G_{\max} \end{cases} \quad (A3)$$

874

875 where P_{G_0} indicates the cumulative probability at $G = G_0$. It can easily be verified that P_G is
 876 equal to one for $G = G_{\max}$. P_G calculated at $G = 0$ according to Eq. (A3) provides the
 877 probability $P_G(G \leq 0 | \eta)$ of levee failure as a function of the hydraulic load η , which
 878 represents the fragility function $P_f(\eta)$ at a selected section, that is

$$P_f(\eta) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 < G_{\min} \\ p_0 C \left(1 + \frac{n_0}{n_{\max} - n_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{G_{\min} + \frac{\eta}{L} + C} - \frac{1}{\frac{\eta}{L} + C} \right) - \frac{p_0 C^2}{2(n_{\max} - n_0)} \left[\frac{1}{\left(G_{\min} + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} - \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} \right] & \text{if } G_{\min} \leq 0 \leq G_0 \\ P_{G_0} + p_0 C \frac{n_{\min}}{n_0 - n_{\min}} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{\eta}{L} + C} - \frac{1}{G_0 + \frac{\eta}{L} + C} \right) - \frac{p_0 C^2}{2(n_0 - n_{\min})} \left[\frac{1}{\left(\frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} - \frac{1}{\left(G_0 + \frac{\eta}{L} + C \right)^2} \right] & \text{if } G_0 < 0 \leq G_{\max} \\ 1 & \text{if } 0 > G_{\max} \end{cases} \quad (\text{A4})$$

880

881

882 References

- 883 ACER Technical Memorandum No. 11 (1988). *Downstream Hazard Classification*
 884 *Guidelines*. Denver, Colorado: U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Reclamation.
- 885 Afshari, S., Tavakoly, A. A., Rajib, M. A., Zheng, X., Follum, M. L., Omranian, E., &
 886 Fekete, B. M. (2018). Comparison of new generation low-complexity flood inundation
 887 mapping tools with a hydrodynamic model. *Journal of Hydrology*, *556*, 539–556.
 888 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.11.036>
- 889 Apel, H., Thielen, A. H., Merz, B., & Blöschl, G. (2004). Flood risk assessment and
 890 associated uncertainty. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Science*, *4*(2), 295–308.
 891 <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-4-295-2004>
- 892 Apel, H., Thielen, A. H., Merz, B., & Blöschl, G. (2006). A probabilistic modelling system
 893 for assessing flood risks. *Natural Hazards*, *38*(1–2), 79–100. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-005-8603-7)
 894 [005-8603-7](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-005-8603-7)
- 895 Apel, H., Merz, B., & Thielen, A. H. (2009). Influence of dike breaches on flood frequency
 896 estimation. *Computers & Geosciences*, *35*(5), 907–923.
 897 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2007.11.003>
- 898 Aronica, G., Bates, P. D., & Horritt, M. S. (2002). Assessing the uncertainty in distributed
 899 model predictions using observed binary pattern information within GLUE. *Hydrological*
 900 *Processes*, *16*(10), 2001–2016. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.398>
- 901 Aronica, G. T., Candela, A., Fabio, P., & Santoro, M. (2012). Estimation of flood inundation
 902 probabilities using global hazard indexes based on hydrodynamic variables. *Physics and*
 903 *Chemistry of the Earth, Parts A/B/C*, *42*, 119–129. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pce.2011.04.001>

- 904 Aureli, F., & Mignosa, P. (2004). Flooding scenarios due to levee breaking in the Po River.
905 *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers - Water Management*, 157(1), 3–12.
906 <https://doi.org/10.1680/wama.2004.157.1.3>
- 907 Aureli, A., Maranzoni, A., Mignosa, P., & Ziveri, C. (2006a). *Flood hazard mapping by*
908 *means of fully-2D and quasi-2D numerical modeling: a case study*. Paper presented at 3rd
909 International Symposium on Flood Defence, Nijmegen, The Netherlands.
- 910 Aureli F., Maranzoni A., Mignosa P., & Ziveri, C. (2006b). *Fully-2D and quasi-2D modeling*
911 *of flooding scenarios due to embankment failure*. Paper presented at River Flow 2006, 3rd
912 International Conference on Fluvial Hydraulics, Lisbon, Portugal.
- 913 Aureli, F., Maranzoni, A., Mignosa, P., & Ziveri, C. (2008a). A weighted surface-depth
914 gradient method for the numerical integration of the 2D shallow water equations with
915 topography. *Advances in Water Resources*, 31(7), 962–974.
916 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.advwatres.2008.03.005>
- 917 Aureli F., Maranzoni A., Mignosa P., & Ziveri, C. (2008b). *2D numerical modelling for*
918 *hydraulic hazard assessment: a dam-break case study*. Paper presented at River Flow 2008,
919 4th International Conference on Fluvial Hydraulics, Çeşme, Turkey.
- 920 Bales, J. D., & Wagner, C. R. (2009). Sources of uncertainty in flood inundation maps.
921 *Journal of Flood Risk Management*, 2(2), 139–147. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-318X.2009.01029.x)
922 [318X.2009.01029.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-318X.2009.01029.x)
- 923 Bates, P. D., Horritt, M. S., Aronica, G., & Beven, K. (2004). Bayesian updating of flood
924 inundation likelihoods conditioned on flood extent data. *Hydrological Processes*, 18(17),
925 3347–3370. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.1499>
- 926 Beven, K., Lamb, R., Leedal, D., & Hunter, N. (2015). Communicating uncertainty in flood
927 inundation mapping: a case study. *International Journal of River Basin Management*, 13(3),
928 285–295. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15715124.2014.917318>
- 929 Brunner, G. W. (2016a). *HEC-RAS, River Analysis System, 2D Modeling User's Manual*
930 *Version 5.0*. Davis, CA: US Army Corps of Engineers, Institute for Water Resource,
931 Hydrologic Engineering Center.
- 932 Brunner, G. W. (2016b). *HEC-RAS, River Analysis System, Hydraulic Reference Manual*.
933 Davis, CA: US Army Corps of Engineers, Institute for Water Resource, Hydrologic
934 Engineering Center.
- 935 Brunner, G. W. (2018). *HEC-RAS, River Analysis System, Supplemental User's Manual*
936 *Version 5.0.4*. Davis, CA: US Army Corps of Engineers, Institute for Water Resource,
937 Hydrologic Engineering Center.
- 938 Camici, S., Barbetta, S., & Moramarco, T. (2017). Levee body vulnerability to seepage: the
939 case study of the levee failure along the Foenna stream on 1 January 2006 (central Italy).
940 *Journal of Flood Risk Management*, 10(3), 314–325. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfr3.12137>
- 941 Chow, V.T. (1959) *Open-channel hydraulics*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- 942 Cook, A., & Merwade, V. (2009). Effect of topographic data, geometric configuration and
943 modeling approach on flood inundation mapping. *Journal of Hydrology*, 377(1–2), 131–142.
944 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2009.08.015>
- 945 Coratza, L. (2004). *Aggiornamento del catasto delle arginature maestre del fiume Po*
946 *[Cadastral update of the main levees of the Po River]*. Parma: Po Basin Authority (in Italian).
- 947 Corine Land Cover (2012). [https://land.copernicus.eu/pan-european/corine-land-cover/clc-](https://land.copernicus.eu/pan-european/corine-land-cover/clc-2012)
948 2012
- 949 Costabile, P., & Macchione, F. (2015). Enhancing river model set-up for 2-D dynamic flood
950 modelling. *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 67, 89–107.
951 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2015.01.009>
- 952 Covelli, C. (2006). *Sulla formazione di brecce nei rilevati arginali: implicazioni relative alla*
953 *protezione idraulica del territorio [Levee breaching and hydraulic hazard mitigation]*
954 (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from fedOA (<http://www.fedoa.unina.it/id/eprint/703>).
955 Naples, Italy: Università degli Studi di Napoli “Federico II” (in Italian).
- 956 CRED (2018a). *Natural Disasters 2017*. Brussels: Centre for Research on the Epidemiology
957 of Disasters.
- 958 CRED (2018b). *Economic Losses, Poverty & Disasters 1998-2017*. Brussels: Centre for
959 Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters.
- 960 Dawson, R., Hall, J., Sayers, P., Bates, P., & Rosu, C. (2005). Sampling-based flood risk
961 analysis for fluvial dike systems. *Stochastic Environmental Research and Risk Assessment*,
962 19(6), 388–402. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00477-005-0010-9>
- 963 Dawson, R., & Hall, J. (2006). Adaptive importance sampling for risk analysis of complex
964 infrastructure systems. *Proceedings of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and*
965 *Engineering Sciences*, 462(2075), 3343–3362. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspa.2006.1720>
- 966 de Moel, H., van Alphen, J., & Aerts, J. C. J. H. (2009). Flood maps in Europe – methods,
967 availability and use. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences*, 9, 289–301.
968 <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-9-289-2009>
- 969 DEFRA Environment Agency (2006). *Flood Risks to People (FD2321/TR2 Guidance*
970 *Document)*. London: Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs.
- 971 Di Baldassarre, G., Castellarin, A., & Brath, A. (2009a). Analysis on the effects of levee
972 heightening on flood propagation: some thoughts on the River Po. *Hydrological Sciences*
973 *Journal*, 54(6), 1007–1017. <https://doi.org/10.1623/hysj.54.6.1007>
- 974 Di Baldassarre, G., Castellarin, A., Montanari, A., & Brath, A. (2009b). Probability-weighted
975 hazard maps for comparing different flood risk management strategies: a case study. *Natural*
976 *Hazards*, 50(3), 479–496. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-009-9355-6>
- 977 Di Baldassarre, G., Schumann, G., Bates, P. D., Freer, J. E., & Beven, K. J. (2010). Flood-
978 plain mapping: a critical discussion of deterministic and probabilistic approaches.
979 *Hydrological Sciences Journal–Journal des Sciences Hydrologiques*, 55(3), 364–376.
980 <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626661003683389>

- 981 Dhondia, J. F., & Stelling, G. S. (2002). Application of one-dimensional two-dimensional
982 integrated hydraulic model for flood simulation and damage assessment. Paper presented at
983 5th International Conference in Hydroinformatics, Cardiff, UK.
- 984 Doherty, J. E. (2010) *PEST, Model-Independent Parameter Estimation – User Manual. 5th*
985 *ed., with slight additions*. Brisbane, Australia: Watermark Numerical.
- 986 Domeneghetti, A., Vorogushyn, S., Castellarin, A., Merz, B., & Brath, A. (2013).
987 Probabilistic flood hazard mapping: effects of uncertain boundary conditions. *Hydrology and*
988 *Earth System Sciences, 17*(8), 3127–3140. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-17-3127-2013>
- 989 Dottori, F., Di Baldassarre, G., & Todini, E. (2013). Detailed data is welcome, but with a
990 pinch of salt: accuracy, precision, and uncertainty in flood inundation modeling. *Water*
991 *Resources Research, 49*(9), 6079–6085. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wrcr.20406>
- 992 European Commission. (2007). *Directive 2007/60/EC of the European Parliament and of the*
993 *Council of 23 October 2007 on the assessment and management of flood risks*. In Official
994 Journal 6 November 2007 L 288/27. Brussels: European Commission.
- 995 FEMA (2016). *Guidance for Flood Risk Analysis and Mapping*. U.S. Department of
996 Homeland Security.
- 997 FLOODsite (2007). *Failure Mechanisms for Flood Defence Structures*. Report Number T04-
998 06-01. www.floodsite.net
- 999 FLOODsite (2009). *FLOODsite Final Report – Volume 1, Advancement in knowledge and*
1000 *understanding*. Report Number T35-09-01. www.floodsite.net
- 1001 Gouldby, B., Sayers, P., Mulet-Marti, J., Hassan, M. A. A. M., & Benwell, D. (2008). A
1002 methodology for regional-scale flood risk assessment. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil*
1003 *Engineers - Water Management, 161*(3), 169–182.
1004 <https://doi.org/10.1680/wama.2008.161.3.169>
- 1005 Hall, J. W., Dawson, R. J., Sayers, P. B., Rosu, C., Chatterton, J. B., & Deakin, R. (2003). A
1006 methodology for national-scale flood risk assessment. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil*
1007 *Engineers-Water Maritime and Engineering, 156*(3), 235–248.
1008 <https://doi.org/10.1680/wame.2003.156.3.235>
- 1009 Hall, J., & Solomatine, D. (2008). A framework for uncertainty analysis in flood risk
1010 management decisions. *International Journal of River Basin Management, 6*(2), 85–98.
1011 <https://doi.org/10.1080/15715124.2008.9635339>
- 1012 Harvey, H., Hall, J., & Manning, L. (2014). Computing flood risk in locations protected by
1013 flood defences. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers - Water Management,*
1014 *167*(1), 38–50. <https://doi.org/10.1680/wama.12.00106>
- 1015 Henderson, D., & Plaschko, P. (2006). Stochastic Variables and Stochastic Processes. In
1016 *Stochastic Differential Equations in Science and Engineering* (pp. 1–54). Singapore: World
1017 Scientific Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1142/9789812774798_0001

- 1018 Hesselink, A. W., Stelling, G. S., Kwadijk, J. C. J., & Middelkoop, H. (2003). Inundation of a
1019 Dutch river polder, sensitivity analysis of a physically based inundation model using historic
1020 data. *Water Resources Research*, 39(9), 1234–1250. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2002WR001334>
- 1021 Horritt, M. S., & Bates, P. D. (2002). Evaluation of 1D and 2D numerical models for
1022 predicting river flood inundation. *Journal of Hydrology*, 268(1–4), 87–99.
1023 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-1694\(02\)00121-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-1694(02)00121-X)
- 1024 Horritt, M. S., Di Baldassarre, G., Bates, P. D., & Brath, A. (2007). Comparing the
1025 performance of a 2-D finite element and a 2-D finite volume model of floodplain inundation
1026 using airborne SAR imagery. *Hydrological Processes*, 21(20), 2745–2759.
1027 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.6486>
- 1028 Horritt, M. S., Bates, P. D., Fewtrell, T. J., Mason, D. C., & Wilson, M. D. (2010). Modelling
1029 the hydraulics of the Carlisle 2005 flood event. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil
1030 Engineers - Water Management*, 163(6), 273–281.
1031 <https://doi.org/10.1680/wama.2010.163.6.273>
- 1032 IMPACT (2005). *Final Technical Report*. www.impact-project.net
- 1033 Jung, Y., & Merwade, V. (2015). Estimation of uncertainty propagation in flood inundation
1034 mapping using a 1-D hydraulic model. *Hydrological Processes*, 29(4), 624–640.
1035 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.10185>
- 1036 Kamrath, P., Disse, M., Hammer, M., & Köngeter, J. (2006). Assessment of discharge
1037 through a dike breach and simulation of flood wave propagation. *Natural Hazards*, 38(1–2),
1038 63–78. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-005-8600-x>
- 1039 Khilar, K. C., Fogler, H. S., & Gray, D. H. (1985). Model for piping-plugging in earthen
1040 structures. *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering*, 111(7), 833–846.
1041 [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)0733-9410\(1985\)111:7\(833\)](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9410(1985)111:7(833))
- 1042 Lendering, K., Schweckendiek, T., & Kok, M. (2018). Quantifying the failure probability of a
1043 canal levee. *Georisk: Assessment and Management of Risk for Engineered Systems and
1044 Geohazards*, 12(3), 203–217. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17499518.2018.1426865>
- 1045 Liu, Q., Qin, Y., Zhang, Y., & Li, Z. (2015). A coupled 1D–2D hydrodynamic model for
1046 flood simulation in flood detention basin. *Natural Hazards*, 75(2), 1303–1325.
1047 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-014-1373-3>
- 1048 Maione, U., Mignosa, P., & Tomirotti, M. (2003). Regional estimation of synthetic design
1049 hydrographs. *International Journal of River Basin Management*, 1(2), 151–163.
1050 <https://doi.org/10.1080/15715124.2003.9635202>
- 1051 Marijnissen, R., Kok, M., Kroeze, C., & van Loon-Steensma, J. (2019). Re-evaluating safety
1052 risks of multifunctional dikes with a probabilistic risk framework. *Natural Hazards and
1053 Earth System Sciences*, 19(4), 737–756. <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-19-737-2019>
- 1054 Martínez-Gomariz, E., Gómez, M., Russo, B., & Djordjević, S. (2018). Stability criteria for
1055 flooded vehicles: a state-of-the-art review. *Journal of Flood Risk Management*, 11,
1056 S817–S826. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfr3.12262>

- 1057 Masoero, A., Claps, P., Asselman, N. E. M., Mosselman, E., & Di Baldassarre, G. (2013).
1058 Reconstruction and analysis of the Po River inundation of 1951. *Hydrological Processes*,
1059 27(9), 1341–1348. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.9558>
- 1060 Mazzoleni, M., Bacchi, B., Barontini, S., Di Baldassarre, G., Pilotti, M., & Ranzi, R. (2014).
1061 Flooding hazard mapping in floodplain areas affected by piping breaches in the Po River,
1062 Italy. *Journal of Hydrologic Engineering*, 19(4), 717–731.
1063 [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)HE.1943-5584.0000840](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)HE.1943-5584.0000840)
- 1064 Mazzoleni, M., Barontini, S., Ranzi, R., & Brandimarte, L. (2015). Innovative probabilistic
1065 methodology for evaluating the reliability of discrete levee reaches owing to piping. *Journal*
1066 *of Hydrologic Engineering*, 20(5), 04014067. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)HE.1943-5584.0001055](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)HE.1943-5584.0001055)
- 1068 Mazzoleni, M., Dottori, F., Brandimarte, L., Tekle, S., & Martina, M. L. V. (2017). Effects of
1069 levee cover strength on flood mapping in the case of levee breach due to overtopping.
1070 *Hydrological Sciences Journal*, 62(6), 892–910.
1071 <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626667.2016.1246800>
- 1072 Merwade, V., Olivera, F., Arabi, M., & Edleman, S. (2008). Uncertainty in flood inundation
1073 mapping: current issues and future directions. *Journal of Hydrologic Engineering*, 13(7),
1074 608–620. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)1084-0699\(2008\)13:7\(608\)](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)1084-0699(2008)13:7(608))
- 1075 Merz, B., & Thielen, A. H. (2009). Flood risk curves and uncertainty bounds. *Natural*
1076 *Hazards*, 51(3), 437–458. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-009-9452-6>
- 1077 Merz, B., Aerts, J., Arnbjerg-Nielsen, K., Baldi, M., Becker, A., Bichet, A., Blöschl, G.,
1078 Bouwer, L. M., Brauer, A., Cioffi, F. et al. (2014). Floods and climate: Emerging
1079 perspectives for flood risk assessment and management. *Natural Hazards and Earth System*
1080 *Science*, 14, 1921–1942. <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-14-1921-2014>
- 1081 Milanese, L., Pilotti, M., & Bacchi, B. (2016). Using web-based observations to identify
1082 thresholds of a person's stability in a flow. *Water Resources Research*, 52(10), 7793–7805.
1083 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016WR019182>
- 1084 Milanese, L., Pilotti, M., Belleri, A., Marini, A., & Fuchs, S. (2018). Vulnerability to flash
1085 floods: a simplified structural model for masonry buildings. *Water Resources Research*,
1086 54(10), 7177–7197. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018WR022577>
- 1087 Orlandini, S., Moretti, G., & Albertson, J. D. (2015). Evidence of an emerging levee failure
1088 mechanism causing disastrous floods in Italy. *Water Resources Research*, 51(10), 7995–8011.
1089 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015WR017426>
- 1090 Palladino, M. R., Barbetta, S., Camici, S., Claps, P., & Moramarco, T. (2019). Impact of
1091 animal burrows on earthen levee body vulnerability to seepage. *Journal of Flood Risk*
1092 *Management*, e12559. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfr3.12559>
- 1093 Pappenberger, F., Beven, K., Horritt, M. S., & Blazkova, S. (2005). Uncertainty in the
1094 calibration of effective roughness parameters in HEC-RAS using inundation and downstream
1095 level observations. *Journal of Hydrology*, 302(1–4), 46–69.
1096 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2004.06.036>

- 1097 Pappenberger, F., Matgen, P., Beven, K. J., Henry, J. B., & Pfister, L. (2006). Influence of
1098 uncertain boundary conditions and model structure on flood inundation predictions. *Advances*
1099 *in Water Resources*, 29(10), 1430–1449. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.advwatres.2005.11.012>
- 1100 Pilotti, M., Maranzoni, A., Tomirotti, M., & Valerio, G. (2011). 1923 Gleno dam break: case
1101 study and numerical modeling. *Journal of Hydraulic Engineering*, 137(4), 480–492.
1102 [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)HY.1943-7900.0000327](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)HY.1943-7900.0000327)
- 1103 Pilotti, M., Maranzoni, A., Milanese, L., Tomirotti, M., & Valerio, G. (2014). Dam-break
1104 modeling in alpine valleys. *Journal of Mountain Science*, 11(6), 1429–1441.
1105 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11629-014-3042-0>
- 1106 Romanowicz, R., & Beven, K. (2003). Estimation of flood inundation probabilities as
1107 conditioned on event inundation maps. *Water Resources Research*, 39(3), 1073.
- 1108 Quiroga, V. M., Kurea, S., Udoa, K., & Manoa, A. (2016). Application of 2D numerical
1109 simulation for the analysis of the February 2014 Bolivian Amazonia flood: application of the
1110 new HEC-RAS version 5. *Ribagua*, 3(1), 25–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riba.2015.12.001>
- 1111 Sanyal, J. (2017). Uncertainty in levee heights and its effect on the spatial pattern of flood
1112 hazard in a floodplain. *Hydrological Sciences Journal*, 62(9), 1483–1498.
1113 <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626667.2017.1334887>
- 1114 Sayers, P. B., Hall, J. W., & Meadowcroft, I. C. (2002). Towards risk-based flood hazard
1115 management in the UK. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers - Civil Engineering*,
1116 150(5), 36–42. <https://doi.org/10.1680/cien.2002.150.5.36>
- 1117 Sayers, P. B., Wallis, M. J., Simm, J. D., Baxter, G., & Andryszewski, T. (2010). *Towards*
1118 *the Next Generation of Risk-Based Asset Management Tools*. Flood Risk Science and
1119 Management, 313–335. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444324846.ch15>
- 1120 Schultz, M. T., Gouldby, B. P., Simm, J. D., & Wibowo, J. L. (2010). Beyond the factor of
1121 safety: Developing fragility curves to characterize system reliability (Report No. ERDC-SR-
1122 10-1). Geotechnical and Structures Laboratory. Washington: US Army Corps of Engineers.
- 1123 Smemoe, C. M., Nelson, E. J., Zundel, A. K., & Miller, A. W. (2007). Demonstrating
1124 floodplain uncertainty using flood probability maps. *JAWRA Journal of the American Water*
1125 *Resources Association*, 43(2), 359–371. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1752-1688.2007.00028.x>
- 1126 Surminski, S., & Thielen, A. H. (2017). Promoting flood risk reduction: The role of
1127 insurance in Germany and England. *Earth's Future*, 5(10), 979–1001.
1128 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017EF000587>
- 1129 Tayefi, V., Lane, S. N., Hardy, R. J., & Yu, D. (2007). A comparison of one- and two-
1130 dimensional approaches to modelling flood inundation over complex upland floodplains.
1131 *Hydrological Processes*, 21(23), 3190–3202. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.6523>
- 1132 Teng, J., Jakeman, A. J., Vaze, J., Croke, B. F., Dutta, D., & Kim, S. (2017). Flood
1133 inundation modelling: A review of methods, recent advances and uncertainty analysis.
1134 *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 90, 201–216.
1135 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2017.01.006>

- 1136 Tyagunov, S., Vorogushyn, S., Muñoz Jimenez, C., Parolai, S., & Fleming, K. (2018). Multi-
1137 hazard fragility analysis for fluvial dikes in earthquake- and flood-prone areas. *Natural*
1138 *Hazards and Earth System Sciences*, 18(9), 2345–2354. [https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-18-](https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-18-2345-2018)
1139 2345-2018.
- 1140 Turitto, O., Cirio, C. G., Nigrelli, G., Bossuto, P., & Viale, F. (2010). Vulnerability of main
1141 Po River levees in the last 200 years. *L'Acqua*, 6, 17–34 (in Italian).
- 1142 USACE (1997). *Hydrology & Hydraulics Workshop on Risk-Based Analysis for Flood*
1143 *Damage Reduction Studies*. US Army Corps of Engineers, Pacific Grove, California.
- 1144 USACE (1999). *Risk-based analysis in geotechnical engineering for support of planning*
1145 *studies*. (Engineer Technical Letter 1110-2-556). Washington: US Army Corps of Engineers.
- 1146 USACE (2017). *Planning Risk Assessment for Flood Risk Management Studies*. (Regulation
1147 no. 1105-2-101). Washington: US Army Corps of Engineers.
- 1148 Vacondio, R., Dal Palù, A., & Mignosa, P. (2014). GPU-enhanced finite volume shallow
1149 water solver for fast flood simulations. *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 57, 60–75.
1150 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2014.02.003>
- 1151 Vacondio, R., Aureli, F., Ferrari, A., Mignosa, P., & Dal Palù, A. (2016). Simulation of the
1152 January 2014 flood on the Secchia River using a fast and high-resolution 2D parallel shallow-
1153 water numerical scheme. *Natural Hazards*, 80(1), 103–125. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-015-1959-4)
1154 015-1959-4
- 1155 Van Der Most, H., & Wehrung, M. (2005). Dealing with uncertainty in flood risk assessment
1156 of dike rings in the Netherlands. *Natural Hazards*, 36(1–2), 191–206.
1157 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-004-4548-5>
- 1158 Viero, D. P., D'Alpaos, A., Carniello, L., & Defina, A. (2013). Mathematical modeling of
1159 flooding due to river bank failure. *Advances in Water Resources*, 59, 82–94.
- 1160 Vorogushyn, S., Merz, B., & Apel, H. (2009). Development of dike fragility curves for
1161 piping and micro-instability breach mechanisms. *Natural Hazards and Earth System*
1162 *Sciences*, 9(4), 1383–1401. <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-9-1383-2009>
- 1163 Vorogushyn, S., Merz, B., Lindenschmidt, K. E., & Apel, H. (2010). A new methodology for
1164 flood hazard assessment considering dike breaches. *Water Resources Research*, 46(8),
1165 W08541. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009WR008475>
- 1166 Vorogushyn, S., Apel, H., & Merz, B. (2011). The impact of the uncertainty of dike breach
1167 development time on flood hazard. *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth, Parts A/B/C*, 36(7–
1168 8), 319–323. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pce.2011.01.005>
- 1169 Wagenaar, D. J., De Bruijn, K. M., Bouwer, L. M., & Moel, H. D. (2016). Uncertainty in
1170 flood damage estimates and its potential effect on investment decisions. *Natural Hazards and*
1171 *Earth System Sciences*, 16(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-16-1-2016>
- 1172 Wahl, T. L. (2004). Uncertainty of predictions of embankment dam breach parameters.
1173 *Journal of Hydraulic Engineering*, 130(5), 389–397. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)0733-](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9429(2004)130:5(389))
1174 9429(2004)130:5(389)

- 1175 Winter, B., Schneeberger, K., Huttenlau, M., & Stötter, J. (2018). Sources of uncertainty in a
1176 probabilistic flood risk model. *Natural Hazards*, *91*(2), 431–446.
1177 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-017-3135-5>
- 1178 Wolff, T. F. (1997). *Geotechnical reliability of levees*. Paper presented at the USACE
1179 Hydrology and Hydraulics Workshop on Risk-Based Analysis for Flood Damage Reduction
1180 Studies, Pacific Grove, California.

1181 **List of figure captions**

1182

1183 **Figure 1.** Diagram of the method for probabilistic flood hazard mapping. The light blue and
1184 green boxes indicate model inputs and outputs, respectively, while the grey boxes represent
1185 the modules of the method.

1186 **Figure 2.** Sketch of levee geometries for piping failure analysis: (a) landside levee toe higher
1187 than the riverside floodplain; (b) landside levee toe lower than the riverside floodplain.

1188 **Figure 3.** Example of fragility curve for piping at a levee section (left-hand side) and
1189 sensitivity on the modal value n_0 of the porosity in the range (n_{\min}, n_{\max}) (right-hand side). WL
1190 denotes the water level at the riverside levee bank above a reference horizontal datum (e.g.,
1191 the sea level).

1192 **Figure 4.** Sketch for the application of the probability multiplication rule to assess the
1193 probability of different levee breach scenarios. Labels LS_i ($i = 1, \dots, N$) refer to the “pre-
1194 selected” levee sections; label k ($= 1, \dots, N_i$) refers to different hydraulic loadings; WL
1195 denotes the water level.

1196 **Figure 5.** Flood hazard classification by DEFRA (2006) for people.

1197 **Figure 6.** Reach of the Po River (northern Italy) between the gauging stations of Cremona
1198 (upstream) and Borgoforte (downstream), levee system and cross sections. Plan view of the
1199 study area and 2D computational domain.

1200 **Figure 7.** Boundary conditions used in the simulations: (a) inflow hydrograph of 100-year
1201 return period at the Cremona gauging station; (b) rating curve at the downstream section
1202 (Borgoforte gauging station).

1203 **Figure 8.** Probabilistic levee breach map for the 100-year return period flood event. The
1204 probabilities reported are the sum of the probabilities of all the breach scenarios concerning
1205 the same levee section.

1206 **Figure 9.** Probabilistic inundation extent map for the 100-year return period flood event.

1207 **Figure 10.** Probabilistic maximum inundation depth maps for the 100-year return period
1208 flood event: (a) 75th, (b) 90th, (c) 99th percentile, and (d) probability-weighted average values.

1209 **Figure 11.** Probabilistic maps for four hazard levels according to the DEFRA classification:
1210 (a) low; (b) moderate; (c) significant; (d) extreme. The maps refer to the 100-year return
1211 period flood event.

1212 **Figure 12.** Probabilistic maximum hazard index maps for the 100-year return period flood
1213 event: (a) 75th, (b) 90th, (c) 99th percentile, and (d) probability-weighted average values.

1214

Figure 1.

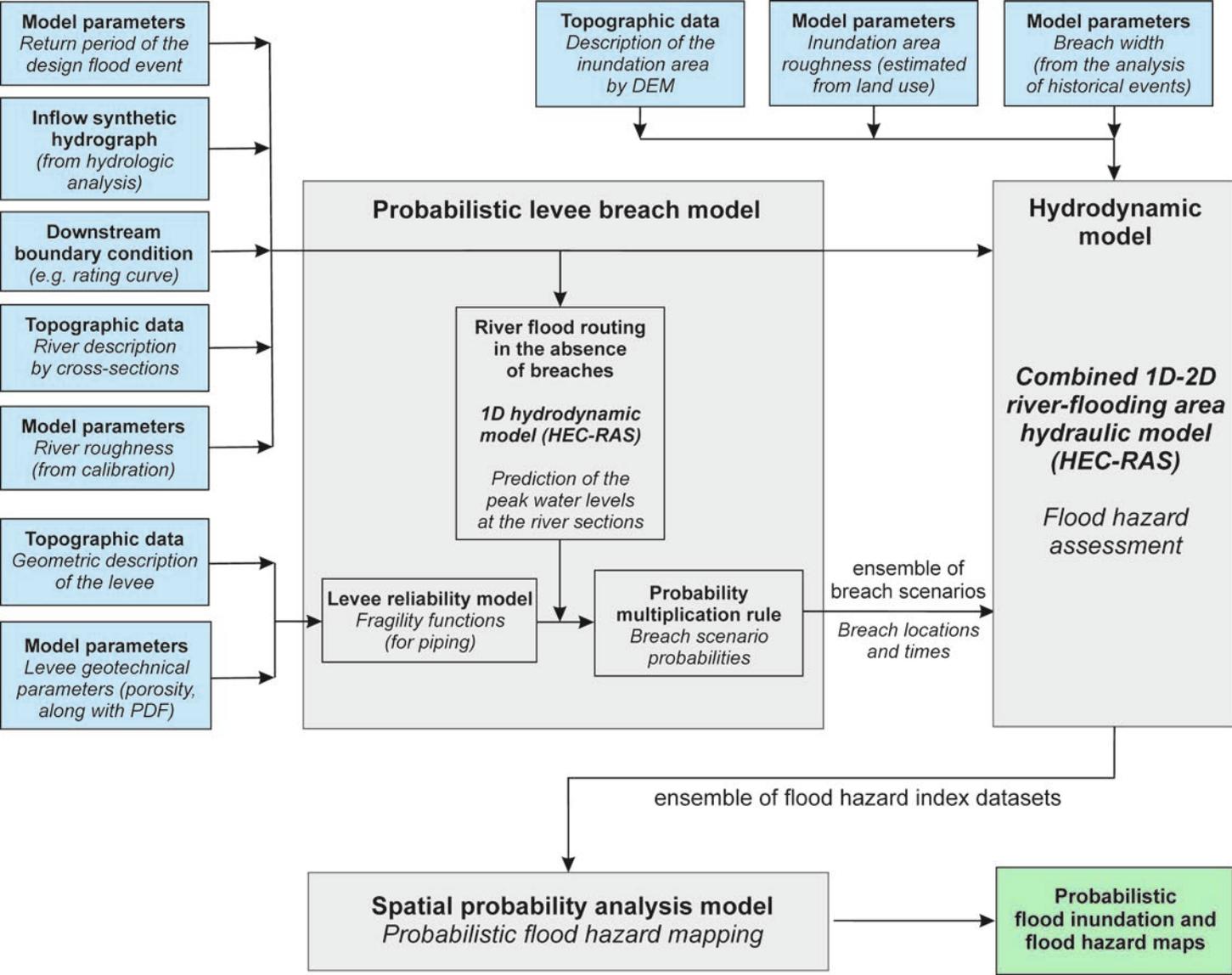
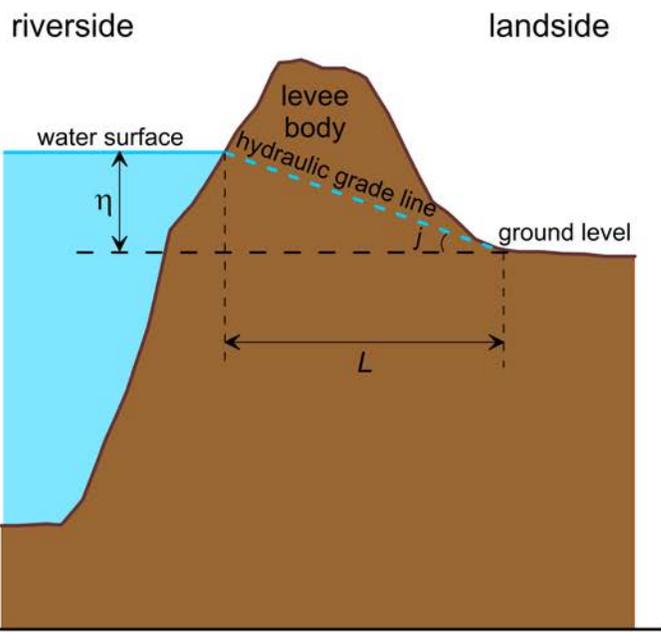
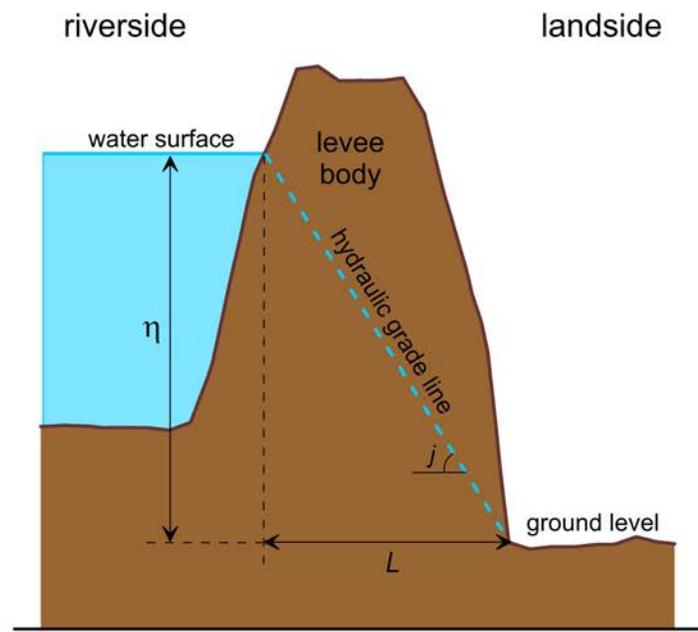


Figure 2.



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.

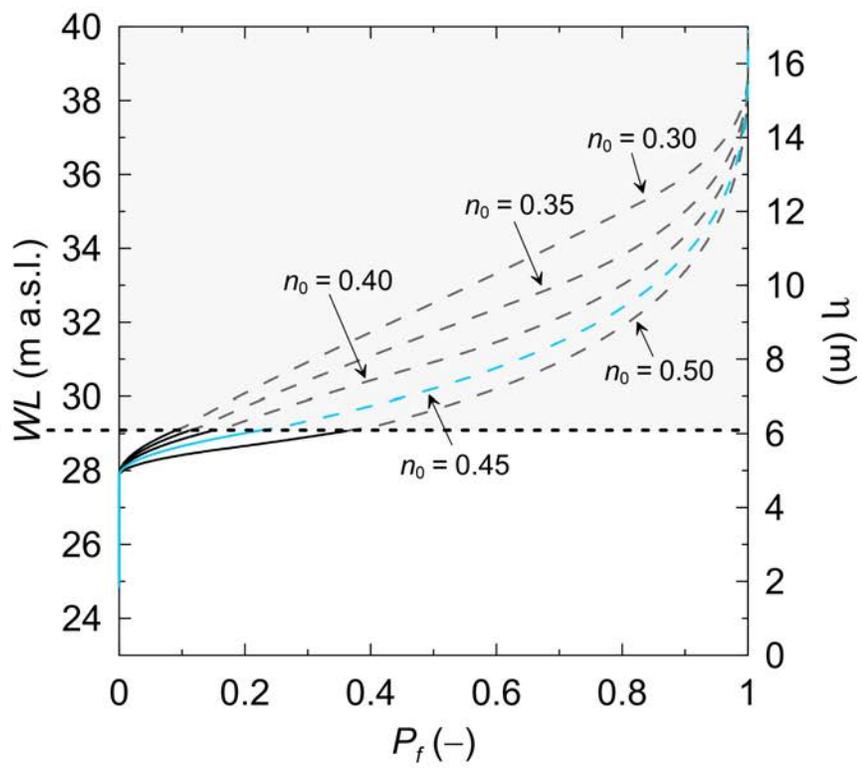
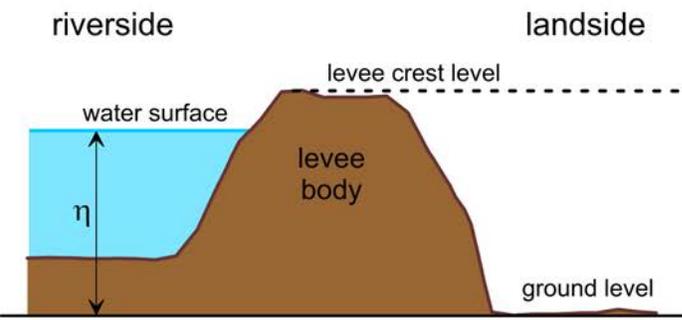
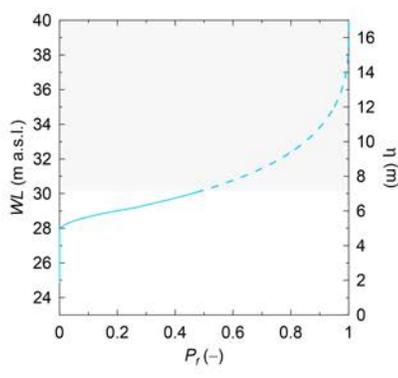
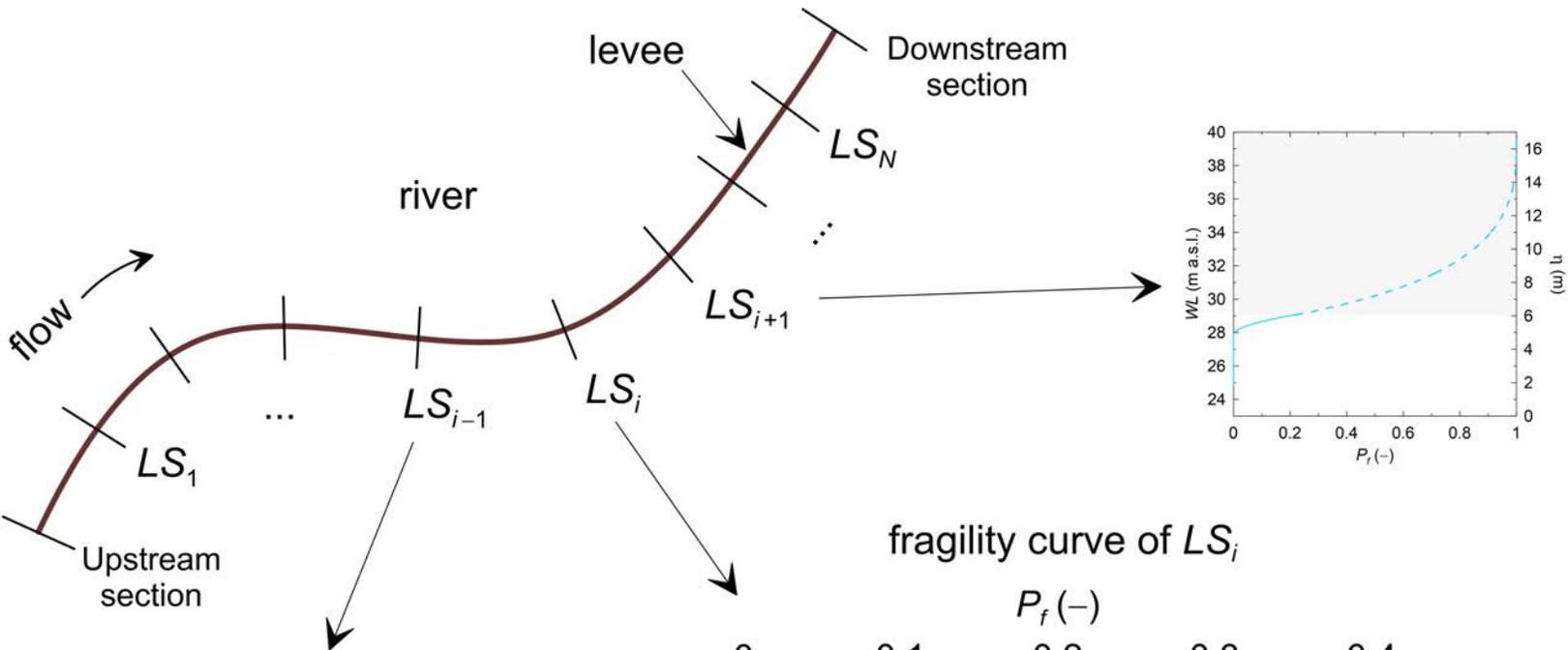


Figure 4.



fragility curve of LS_i

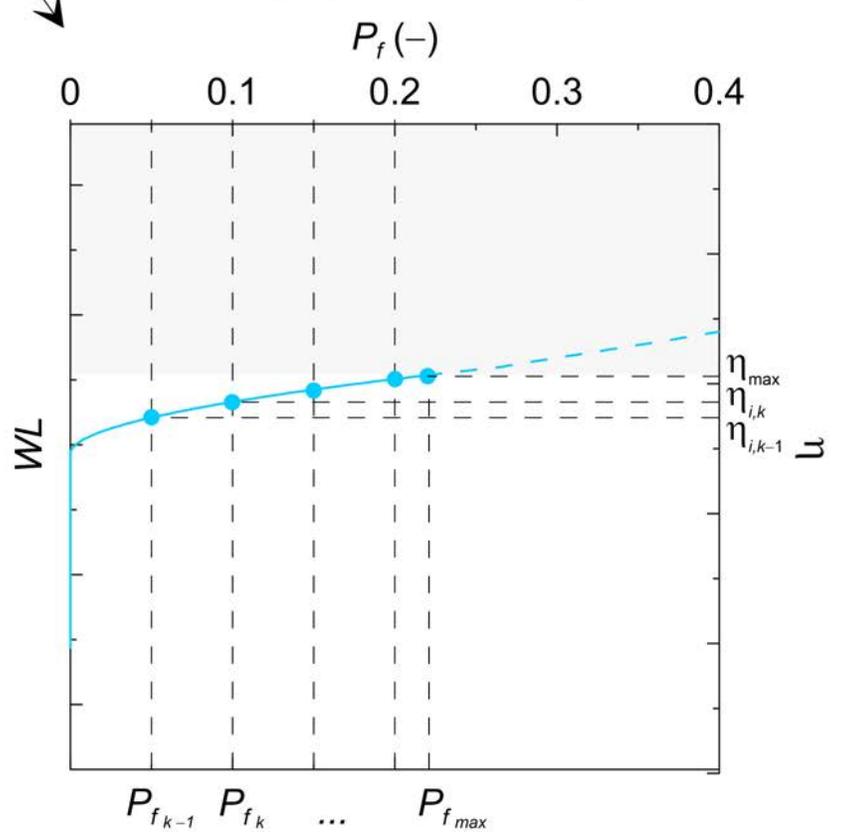


Figure 5.

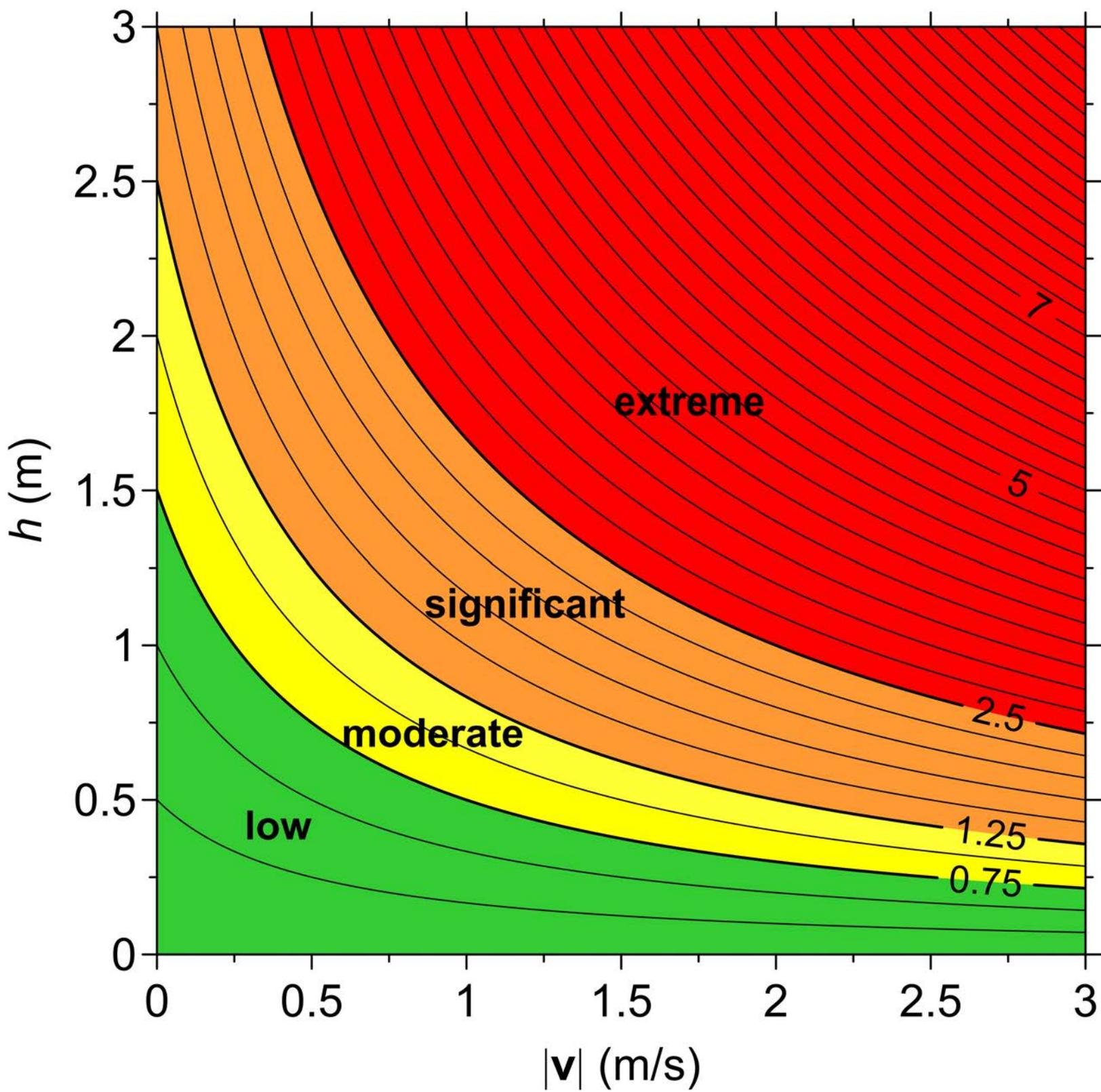


Figure 6.

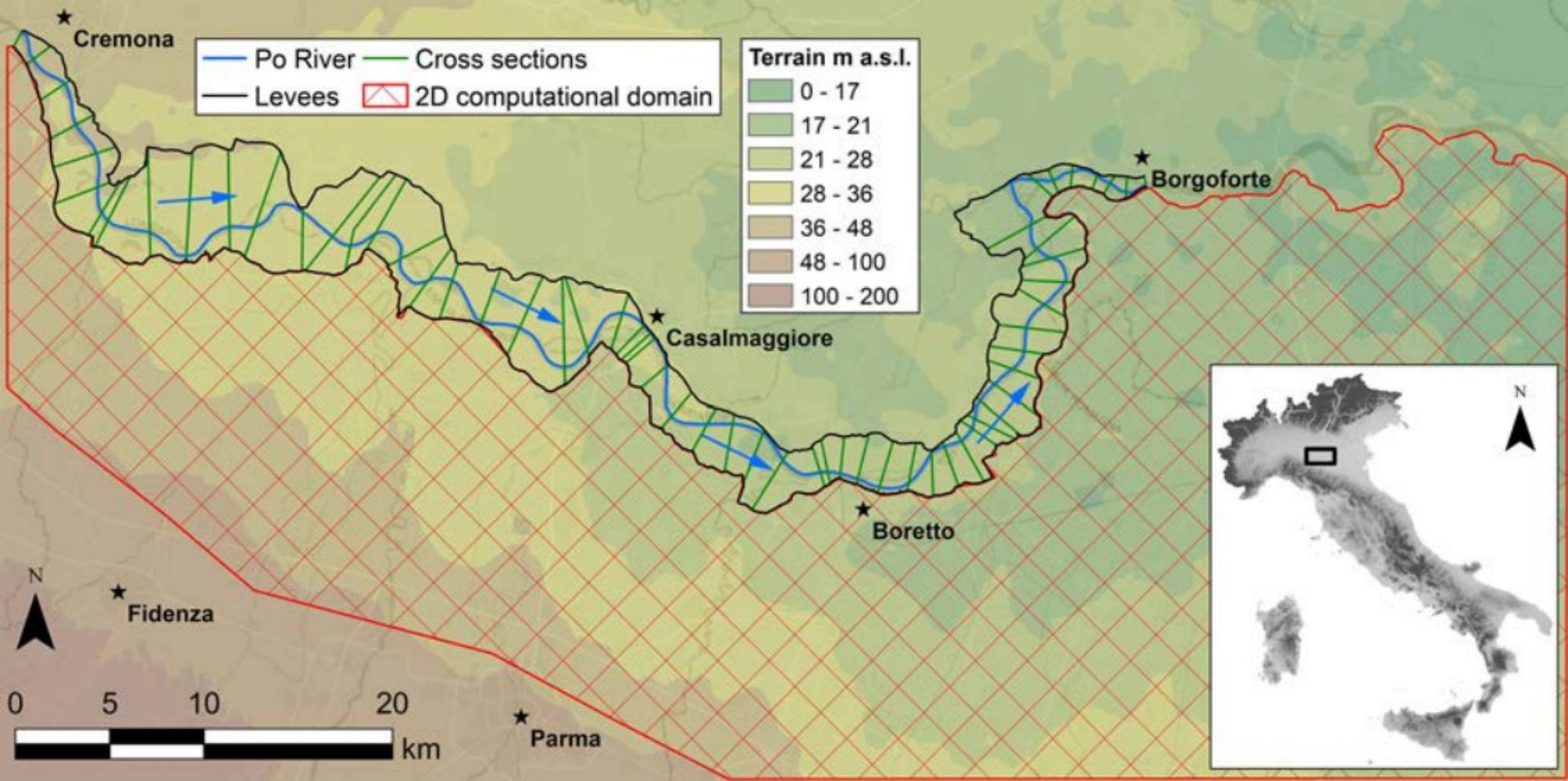


Figure 7.

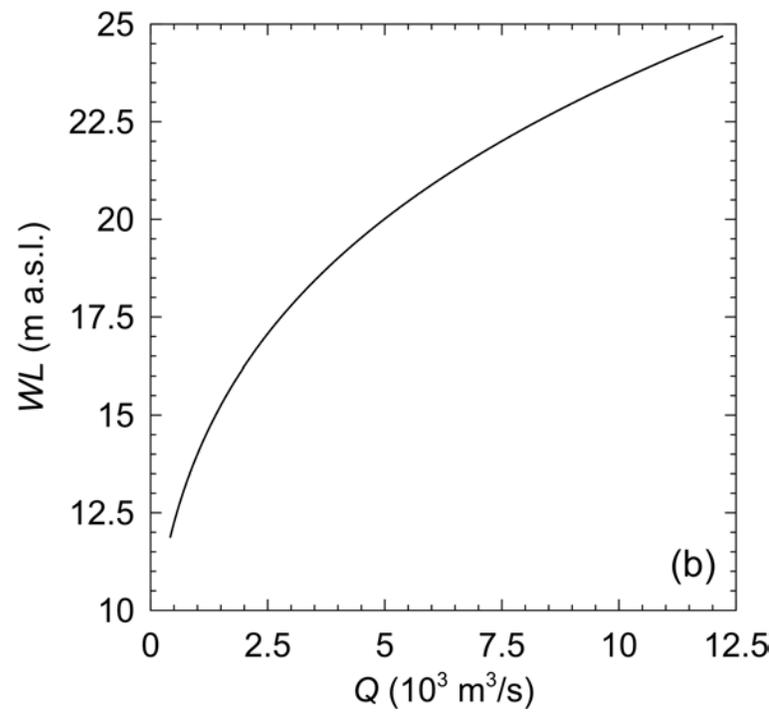
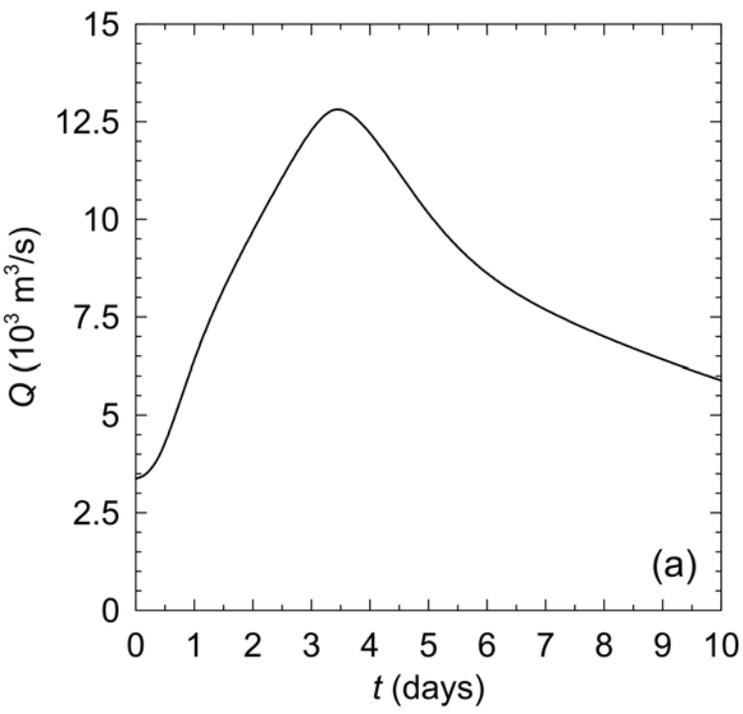


Figure 8.

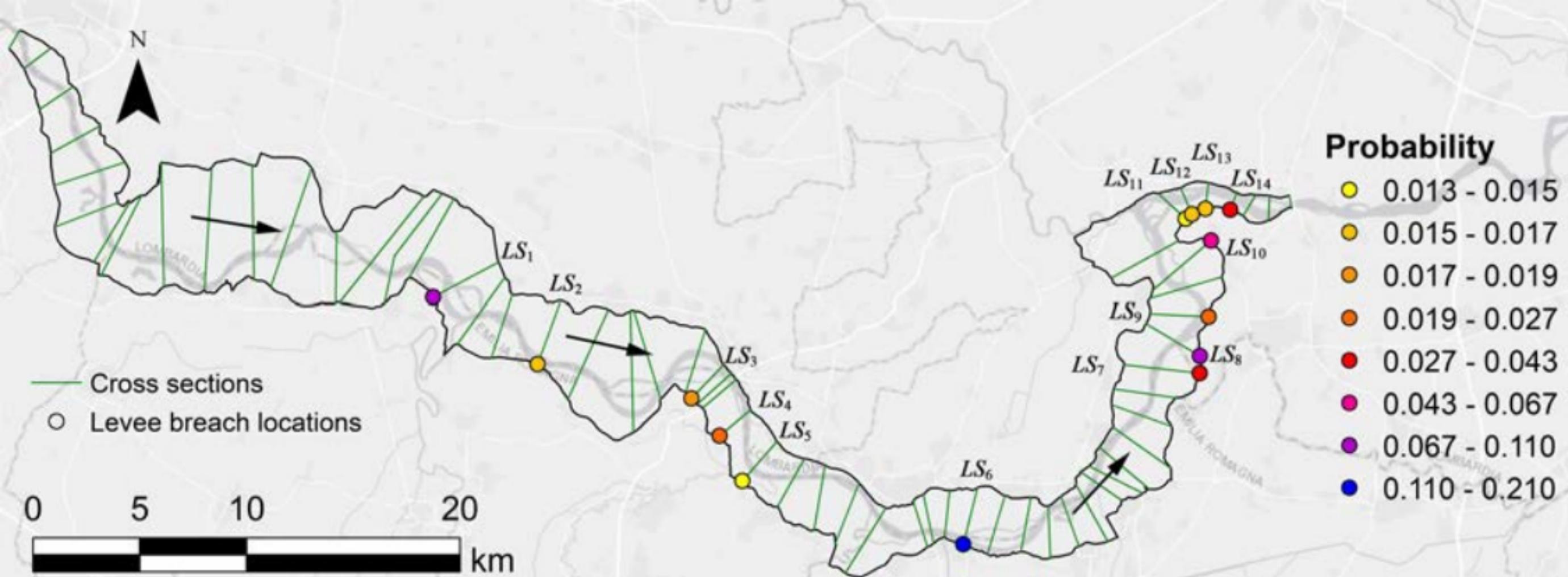


Figure 9.

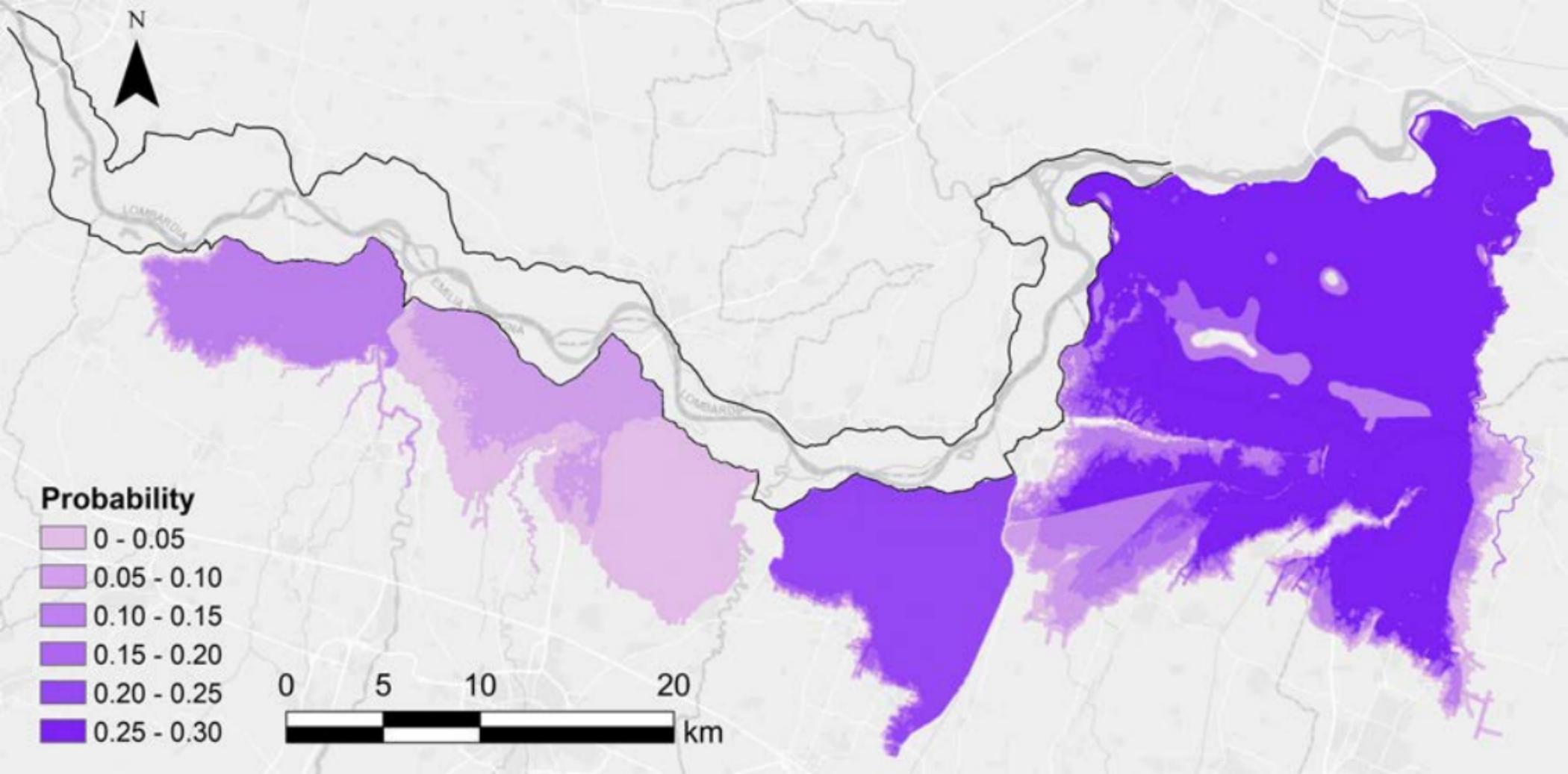


Figure 10.

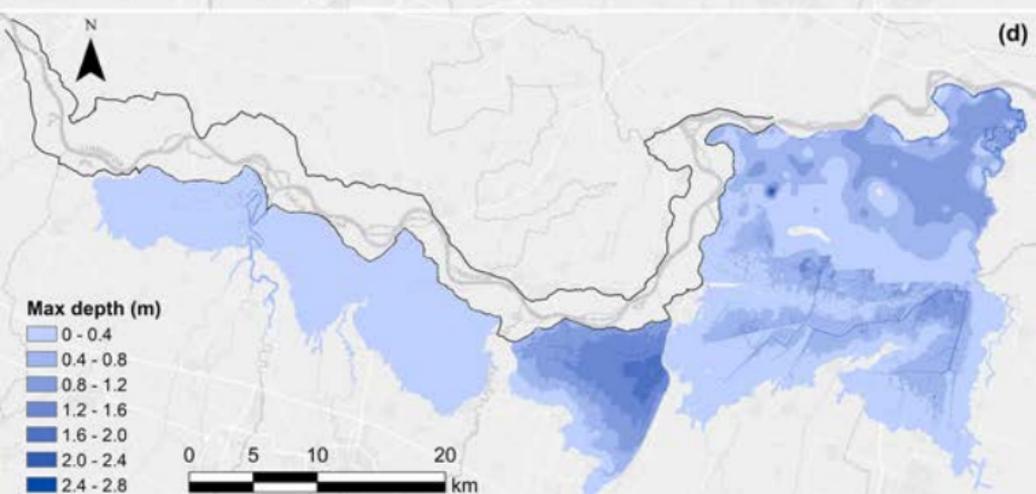
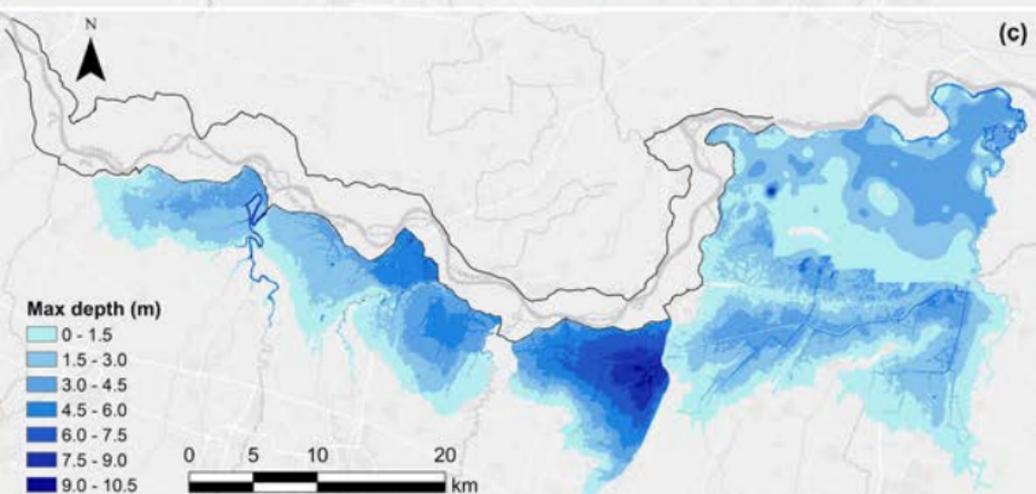
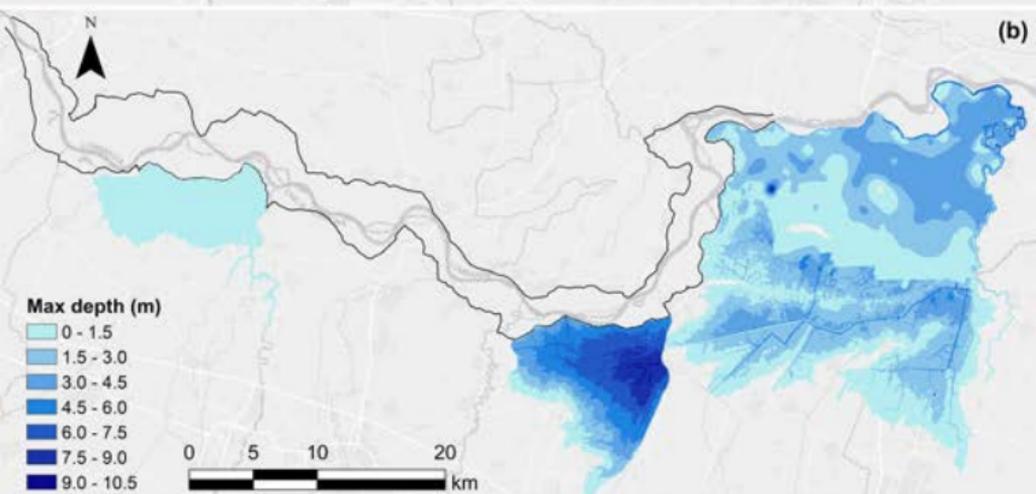
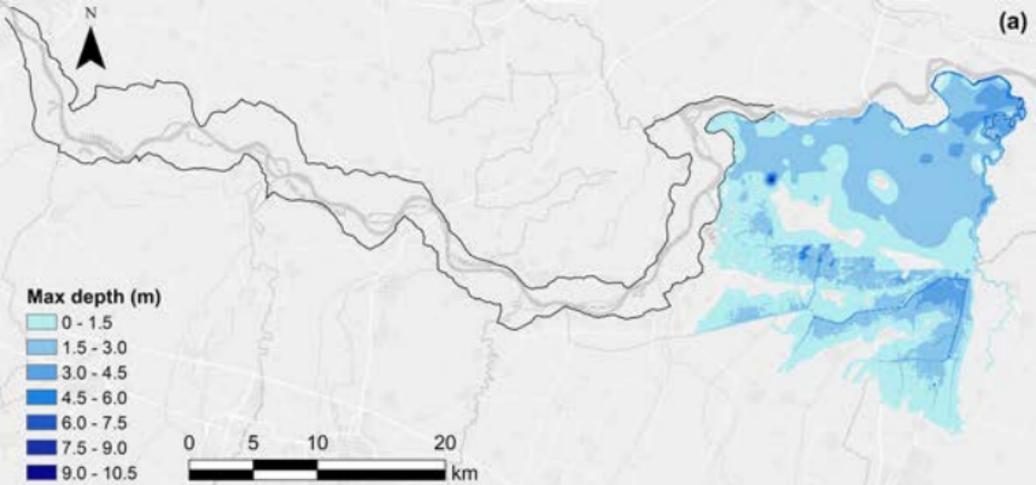


Figure 11.

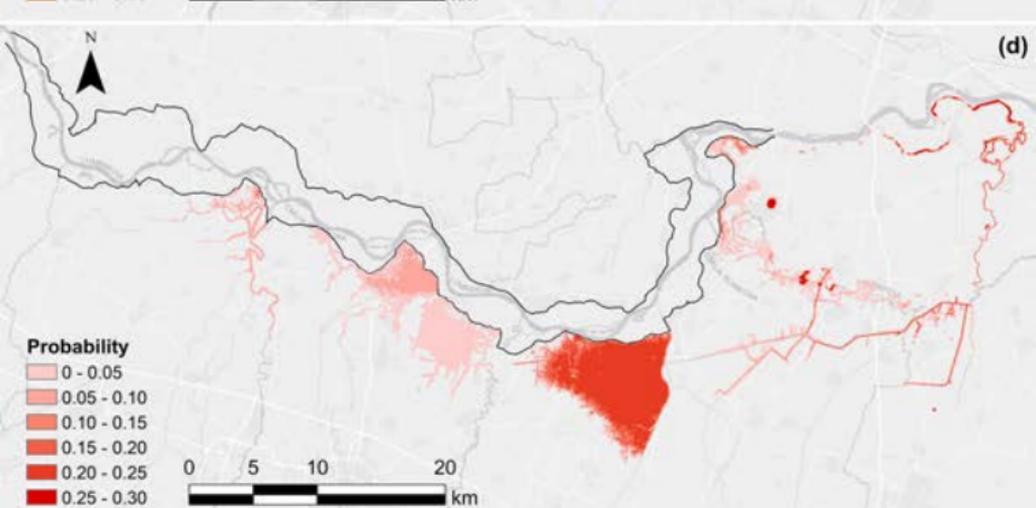
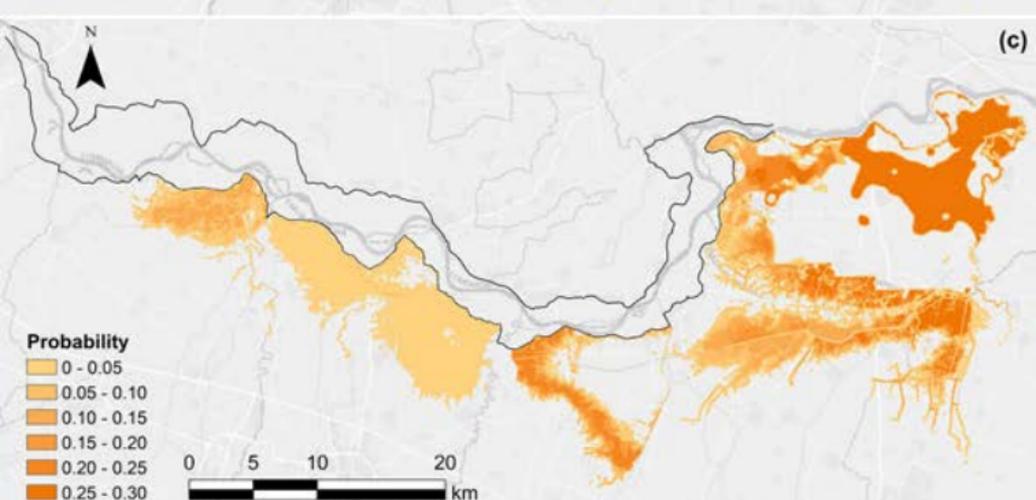
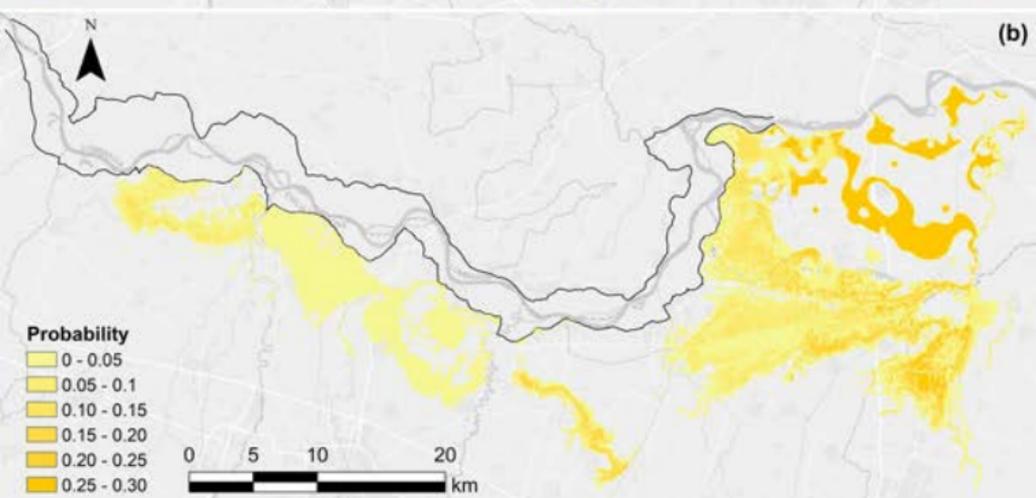
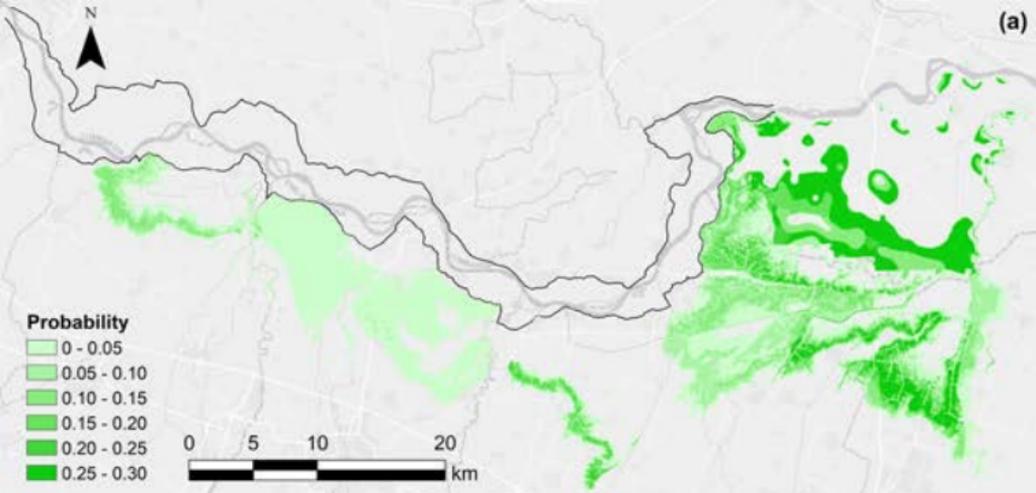


Figure 12.

