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1 **Multi-hazard and multi-risk decision support tools as a**
2 **part of participatory risk governance: Feedback from**
3 **civil protection stakeholders**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13
14 The number of people affected by natural hazards is growing, as many regions of
15 the world become subject to multiple hazards. Although volume of geophysical,
16 sociological and economic knowledge is increasing, so are the losses from
17 natural catastrophes. The slow transfer from theory to practice might lay in the
18 difficulties of the communication process from science to policy-making,
19 including perceptions by stakeholders from disaster mitigation practice
20 regarding the usability of developed tools. As scientific evidence shows, decision-
21 makers are faced with the challenge of not only mitigating against single hazards
22 and risks, but also multiple risks, which must include the consideration of their
23 interrelations. As the multi-hazard and risk concept is a relatively young area of
24 natural risk governance, there are only a few multi-risk models and the
25 experience of practitioners as to how to use these models is limited. To our
26 knowledge, scientific literature on stakeholders' perceptions of multi-risk
27 models is lacking. In this article we identify perceptions of two decision-making
28 tools, which involve multi-hazard and multi-risk. The first one is a generic, multi-
29 risk framework based on the sequential Monte Carlo method to allow for a
30 straight forward and flexible implementation of hazard interactions, which may
31 occur in a complex system. The second is a decision-making tool that integrates
32 direct input from stakeholders by attributing weights to different components
33 and constructing risks ratings. Based on the feedback from stakeholders, we
34 found that interest in multi-risk assessment is high but that its application
35 remains hampered by the complexity of processes involved.
36

37 *Keywords:* Multi-hazard, Multi-risk, Risk governance
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41

42 **1. Introduction**

43

44 Historical records show that economic losses from disasters have increased
45 steadily from € 150 billion (value inflation adjusted for the year 1999) in the
46 period 1950-1959 to about € 375 billion in the decade 1990-1999 (Munich RE,
47 2000). Non-economic losses, such as human lives, are much more difficult to
48 assess and they are not included in the majority of databases. Nonetheless there
49 is ample evidence in the literature that the number of people who are directly or
50 indirectly affected by disasters will continue to increase (Arnold et al., 2006;
51 Bilham, 2009; Daniell et al., 2011; Hoyois and Guha-Sapir, 2003; World Bank
52 2010). Many regions of the world are not simply subject to single hazards, but
53 may be impacted upon by multiple hazards, which may also be correlated.
54 Conjoint disasters and other cascading effects yield higher direct losses, such as
55 damage to infrastructure, as well as higher indirect losses, such as business
56 interruption.

57

58 Existing risk assessment methods integrate large volumes of data and
59 sophisticated analyses, as well as different approaches to risk quantification.
60 However, the key question is why do losses from natural disasters continue to
61 grow if our scientific knowledge on multi-risk increases? (White et al., 2001).
62 One reason is the increasing value of assets exposed to hazards. However, there
63 may be other reasons, and an understanding of these will play a key role in the
64 reduction of losses in the future. As Kappes et al. (2012) stated in their review on
65 multi-hazard risk, to be able to understand this question, we need to examine
66 also the frameworks employed in the field of risk management, as well as the
67 interactions between science and practice in terms of knowledge transfer and
68 the applicability of results. The successful implementation of disaster risk
69 reduction options and strategies demand not only comprehensive risk
70 assessment schemes, but also an appropriate mechanism to communicate and
71 transfer knowledge on risk and its underlying drivers to the various
72 stakeholders involved in the decision-making process.

73

74 Multi-risk assessment tools have the potential to support decision-makers and to
75 provide them with information on mitigation measures. These tools can
76 influence the perceptions of stakeholders in terms of the probabilities of hazards
77 and their impacts. But this is a double-sided communication process, as the
78 feedback from stakeholders' influences the usability of the tools and the
79 implementation of recommendations provided by the geosciences, sociology and
80 economics. That is why feedback and perceptions of the usability of these models
81 from the side of stakeholders are extremely important to the process of
82 communication from science to policy and vice versa. So far, however, the
83 literature on the topic of how stakeholders perceive the usability of multi-risk
84 models is very limited.

85

86 The aim of this paper is to identify the perceptions of stakeholders to the value of
87 two complementary decision-making tools developed within the context of the
88 EU FP7 project New Multi-Hazard and Multi-Risk Assessment Methods for
89 Europe (MATRIX):

- 90 - (1) A generic probabilistic framework that implements hazard correlations in a
91 comprehensive manner (Mignan, 2013), and
92 - (2) An evaluation methodology based on the concept of the risk matrix to
93 incorporate expert knowledge through stakeholder interactions into multi-
94 hazard scenario development developed by B. Khazai at the Karlsruhe Institute
95 of Technology and described in this paper.

96
97 This work is a first attempt to collect and to integrate feedback of stakeholders
98 from civil protection authorities into decision-making tools, which include
99 aspects of multi-hazard and multi-risk. The feedback was gained during two
100 workshops, in Bonn (July 2012) and in Lisbon (October 2012), and from a
101 questionnaire distributed prior to the first workshop. The research within this
102 work encompasses three overarching questions:

- 103
104 a. How do stakeholders perceive multi-hazard and multi-risk situations
105 and what are their requirements for multi-risk assessment tools?
106 b. How do stakeholders perceive the decision-making process for the
107 mitigation of multi-risk and their perceptions on the usability of
108 decision-making tools?
109 c. Is there a difference in the resulting perceptions between
110 stakeholders (based on practice) and academia (based on more
111 theoretical considerations)?
112
113

114 **2. Background**

115
116 This section aims at providing basic terms in multi-risk assessment and
117 examples of past experiences in multi-risk. This short review especially
118 highlights the fact that decision-making under multi-risk is a nascent field.
119 Feedback from stakeholders on newly developed multi-risk tools in participatory
120 process is greatly needed to avoid a dichotomy between science and practical
121 applications.
122

123 **2.1. Definitions of multi-risk assessment**

124 Risk assessment includes hazard assessment, followed by estimations of the
125 vulnerability and values of the elements at risk (or exposure), all leading to the
126 computation of risk as a function of hazard, vulnerability and exposure (Varnes,
127 1984). The term “natural hazard” refers to the “natural process or phenomenon
128 that may cause loss of life, injury or other health impacts, property damage, loss
129 of livelihoods and services, social and economic disruption, or environmental
130 damage” (UNISDR, 2009). Risk is defined as “expected losses of lives, persons
131 injured, property damages and economic activities disrupted due to a particular
132 hazard for a given area and reference period” (WMO, 1999). Another definition
133 of risk is “the combination of the probability of an event and its negative
134 consequences” (UNISDR, 2009). In any case, a definition of risk must also include
135 the interaction of hazards and the vulnerability of the affected area, especially
136 the built environment. Definitions developed by the European Commission
137 extend the previous definitions by incorporating the terms “exposure” and
138 “vulnerability” (COM, 2010a). This foresees that an event of the same magnitude

139 can have a different impact, dependent upon the vulnerability and exposure of a
140 given population and the associated elements, thus also involving the need to
141 take into consideration preparedness and preventive measures. The definition of
142 risk is also closely connected with the definition of uncertainty, as the term
143 “probability” already itself implies aleatory uncertainties. Risk can also be
144 understood as “the effects of uncertainty on objectives” which appear as a
145 “combination of the consequences of an event and the associated likelihood of
146 occurrence” (ISO Guide 73:2009). It is therefore important to understand such
147 uncertainties when it comes to the development of decision-making models and
148 tools for the purposes of civil protection.

149
150 The purpose of multi-risk assessment is therefore to establish a ranking of
151 different types of risk, taking into account possible conjoint and cascade effects.
152 Multi-risk assessment is a relatively new field, until now developed only partially
153 by experts with different backgrounds such as engineering, statistics or various
154 fields of geosciences. Currently, there is no clear definition of “multi-risk”,
155 neither in science, nor in practice (COM, 2010a; Kappes et al., 2012). The only
156 definition that exists concerns the requirements for multi-risk, which needs to
157 consider multiple hazards and multiple vulnerabilities (Carpignano et al.; Di
158 Mauro et al., 2006; Marzocchi et al., 2012; Selva, 2013). There are essentially two
159 ways to approach multi-risk. The first considers the different types of hazards
160 and vulnerabilities of a region and combines the results of various single risk
161 layers into a multi-risk concept (Grünthal et al., 2006). This approach provides
162 an overview of multiple risks, but neglects the interactions between the hazards
163 and vulnerability. The second one considers the risk arising from multiple
164 hazardous sources and multiple vulnerable elements coinciding in time and
165 space (Di Mauro et al., 2006). Distinction between conjoint and cascading events
166 must be made here. Conjoint events are when a series of parallel adverse events
167 are generated by different sources, for example a windstorm occurring at the
168 same time as an earthquake (Di Mauro et al., 2006). Cascading events on the
169 other hand are when an initial event triggers a subsequent event or series of
170 events, for example an earthquake that triggers a landslide or a tsunami (e.g.,
171 Marzocchi et al., 2012).

172
173 The first approach considers more than one type of hazard, but it ignores the
174 spatial and temporal relationships between the hazards and other elements of
175 the risk chain. For example, in the Cities Project in Australia (Granger, 1999), a
176 number of urban and regional areas were assessed for a wide range of geo-
177 hazards, however, the various interactions that may arise between hazards were
178 not part of this program. Similarly, in the German Research Network Natural
179 Disasters Project, the city of Cologne was assessed for earthquakes, windstorms
180 and river floods separately, and while losses in terms of monetary values arising
181 from each hazard were plotted together against the probability of occurrence to
182 allow a comparison, the possible interactions between them and the effect this
183 has on the final risk were not considered, nor were the associated uncertainties
184 (Grünthal et al., 2006). Again, neither of these studies considered the possibility
185 of one hazard type triggering another, nor the consequences of events occurring
186 simultaneously, or nearly-simultaneously, and how this affects an area’s
187 vulnerability. Hence, by not considering such interactions, which may lead to

188 increased losses, such frameworks potentially grossly underestimate the final
189 risk. Moreover, most of these studies employ the term "multi-risk" to describe
190 what should really be referred to as "multiple single risk", which adds to the
191 confusion.

192
193 By contrast, the second type explicitly considers spatial and temporal
194 interactions between different hazards and their subsequent risk. An example is
195 the NaRaS EU project for the Casalnuovo municipality in the province of Naples
196 in Italy. This municipality is located just 13 km away from the crater of the
197 mount Vesuvius volcano and is exposed to several kinds of hazards, such as the
198 Vesuvius volcano, active faults in the Apennine chain (tectonic source area of the
199 damaging 1930 and 1980 Irpinia earthquakes), as well as the presence of
200 industrial landfills. A study supported by the local government, who was
201 interested in the identification of the most dangerous hazards and the most
202 effective way of financing risk mitigation measures, found that volcanic risks
203 significantly overwhelm all others, but also that the risks associated with
204 volcanic processes and the effects these have on industry may be
205 underestimated if the interactions between them is not considered (Marzocchi et
206 al., 2012).

207

208 **2.2. Experience of civil protection authorities with multi-risk assessment**

209 The reduction of risks cannot be only based on scientific knowledge about
210 natural hazards, since risks also have social and psychological dimensions which
211 are in turn shaped by political and cultural values (Assmuth et al., 2010).
212 Therefore, for the successful implementation of risk mitigation measures, it is
213 necessary to identify these cultural and political factors. The newly appearing
214 concept of *risk governance* takes into account these ingredients and emphasizes
215 the role of participation and communication. It is also crucial to incorporate the
216 experience of stakeholders into multi-risk assessment models. Risk governance
217 is concerned with how information is collected, perceived and communicated
218 and follows how management decisions are taken (IRGC, 2005). In the context of
219 risk governance, risk communication not only transfers information on risk or
220 risk management decisions, but it also includes a two-way process for
221 communicating stakeholder perceptions in shaping the outcomes of risk
222 assessments.

223

224 Civil protection authorities have started only recently to apply multi-risk
225 assessments for natural and technological disasters. In 2009, the European
226 Commission issued a communication document with a set of measures to be
227 included into the strategy of the European Community for the mitigation of
228 natural and man-made disasters (COM, 2009). Amongst other elements, the
229 communication document outlines the need for multi-risk assessment and the
230 need for common guidelines, which will enhance the comparability of risks
231 across Member States and will lead to a common European picture of multi-risk.

232

233 The European Union Internal Security Strategy is another milestone towards the
234 development of multi-risk assessment. The strategy foresees the establishment
235 of a coherent risk management policy, which will link threats and risk
236 assessment into decision-making (COM, 2010b). The major aim is to increase the

237 resilience of EU member countries to crises and disasters. Among other risk
238 mitigation measures, the strategy foresees an “all hazards approach to threat and
239 risk assessment”.

240

241 The Risk Assessment and Mapping Guidelines for Disaster Management focuses
242 on the processes and methods of national risk assessments, as well as on the
243 mapping of risk assessment into the prevention, preparedness and planning
244 stages (COM, 2010a). Even though it provides guidance for such steps as risk
245 identification, risk analysis and risk evaluation, it does not deal with capacity
246 analyses, capability planning, monitoring and review, with the consultation and
247 communication of findings and results of risks assessments with stakeholders.

248

249 **2.3. Participatory modeling and presentation of information under** 250 **uncertainty**

251 Participatory modeling is an important part of the risk governance and is the
252 process which allows to take into consideration not only facts but also values by
253 asking questions and collecting feedback from stakeholders (Forester, 1999).
254 Therefore, it requires active participation of stakeholders and two-way
255 communication, when feedback is collected and implemented into risk
256 assessment and decision-support tools. This process is especially useful when
257 facts are uncertain, values are in dispute, stakes are high and decisions are
258 urgent (Funtowicz and Ravetz, 1994). The process of interactions with
259 stakeholders leads to an enhanced understanding about points of view, criteria,
260 preferences and trade-offs in decision-making (Antunes et al., 2006).

261

262 The participatory modeling is also used to build consensus among the group of
263 stakeholders on controversial issues, such as for example attribution of weights
264 to different loss parameters under multi-risk scenarios. First, such models
265 integrating stakeholders perceptions were developed for business management
266 applications (Senge and Sterman, 1994). Recent trends also foresee application
267 of the decision-support models as a problem structuring method and to facilitate
268 group decision support (Phillips, 1990). Thus, decision-support models become a
269 part of executive debate and dialogue to help avoid judgment biases and
270 systematic errors in decision-making (Morecroft, 1994) and to help in complex
271 decision-making process grounded on human rationality, which can create
272 persistent judgment biases and errors (Kahnemann and Tversky, 1974). The
273 issue of what input science should provide to policy-making through developed
274 models was discussed already widely in literature (Jasanoff, 1990). However, it is
275 also known that the process of development of models involves many
276 assumptions and judgments (Korfmaier, 1998).

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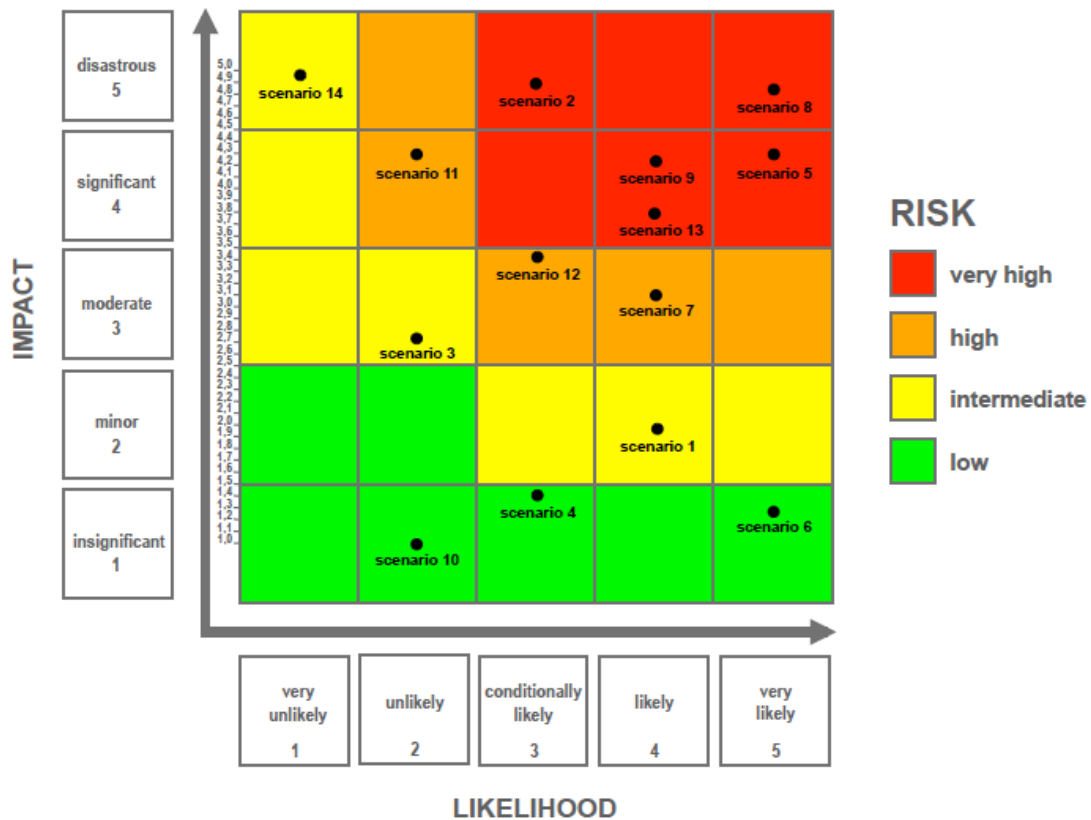
278 The models, such as STELLA or the Coastal Ecological Landscape Spatial
279 Simulation (CELSS), which integrate the knowledge of stakeholders in
280 consultation process such as interviews, workshops and focus groups, were
281 developed to support decisions on environmental investments and problems
282 (Constanza and Ruth, 1998). The decision-makers had chance to apply these
283 models in practice and to choose different parameters according to their
284 understanding of the problem (Weston and Ruth, 1997). As the participants
285 were providing feedback during all stages of model development, the models

286 results were much easier to communicate and implement. Also participants had
 287 a much more sophisticated understanding of underlying assumptions,
 288 uncertainties and strength of the model and could use it effectively as a
 289 management tool (Costanza and Greer, 1995).

290

291 Currently, some decision models for multi-hazard and multi-risk assessment are
 292 being developed with the aim to provide stakeholders with a set of scenarios or
 293 alternatives. These models display different risks with respect to their
 294 probability and frequency, as well as to their possible outcomes. The decision-
 295 making models, such as a Multi-Risk Land Use Management Support System
 296 developed in frames of the ARMONIA project (T6, 2007) and the scenario-based
 297 approach for risk assessment used by the German Federal Office of Civil
 298 Protection and Disaster Assistance (BBK, 2010) integrate multi-risk concept by
 299 visualizing risks and using the risk matrix, which combines likelihood and
 300 impact. The development of such risk matrices was proposed by the risk
 301 assessment and mapping guidelines for disaster management developed by the
 302 European Commission in 2010 and is current practice in several European
 303 countries. Within the risk matrix, multi-risk events could be represented as
 304 additional scenarios (figure 1) and thus integrate this information into the
 305 knowledge base for decision making processes. The objectives of these tools are
 306 to provide assessment of exposure and vulnerability, to support regarding land-
 307 use issues and location of strategic facilities, to provide options for mitigating
 308 risks through a system of Multiple Criteria Evaluations.

309



310

311 Figure 1: Example of how different scenarios fit within a risk matrix (BBK, 2010).

312

313 In addition, three principal software tools have been developed to date to
314 provide multiple single risk assessments of a given territory. These are HAZUS¹
315 for the USA (hurricanes, earthquakes and floods), RiskScape for New Zealand
316 (volcanic ash falls, floods, tsunamis, landslides, storms and earthquakes; Schmidt
317 et al., 2011) and CAPRA² in Central America (hurricanes, heavy rainfall,
318 landslides, floods, earthquakes, tsunamis and volcanic hazards; CAPRA
319 Probabilistic Risk Assessment Initiative, 2011). Variants of these softwares have
320 been used in other parts of the world (e.g., HAZTURK and HAZTAIWAN, CAPRA
321 in Asia, RiskScape in South East Asia). Even though the developers of these tools
322 propose an interactive process with stakeholders, currently a scientific review or
323 evaluation of the results from the use of these softwares and feedback from
324 stakeholders is not available. More importantly, these softwares do not include
325 conjoint or cascading disasters, which is the strict definition of multi-risk.

326

327 To our knowledge, even though some of these models have been tested by
328 operational and practicing stakeholders, there is limited evidence of stakeholder
329 feedback. HAZUS is largely used by stakeholders, mainly government planners
330 and emergency managers, to determine losses and the most beneficial
331 approaches for their mitigation. It is also used by communities for the evaluation
332 of economic loss scenarios with respect to certain hazards and to increase public
333 awareness (FEMA, 2013). The aim of RiskScape is to be an “easy to use multi-
334 hazard impact and risk assessment tool” and to inform decision-making,
335 including land-use planning, emergency management, assets management and
336 insurance. This tool foresees interactive cooperation with users, and has put in
337 place a development blog on-line where users can exchange their experience
338 with the software and suggest improvements (Reese et al., 2007).

339

340 The evidence of participation of stakeholders in the tool development and
341 integration of their feedback is almost absent. One decision-making model
342 developed by ARMONIA defines weights based on the judgments from
343 stakeholders on different vulnerabilities within the area of their interest.
344 However, there is no scientific analysis of feedback from experts from civil
345 protection in terms of usability and applicability. This deficiency is therefore one
346 of the motivations for our research, where we have collected feedback of
347 stakeholders through the methodology of stakeholders’ consultation via such
348 means as questionnaires, decision-making experiments and workshops.

349

350

351

352

3. Methodology

353

3.1. Decision support tools, which were applied to collect feedback from stakeholders

354

355 Social science scholars argue that because production of scientific tools is a social
356 process, it is essential to involve relevant stakeholders who will be using the
357 tools into the process through collection and integration of their feedback (Tesh,
358 1990). We collected feedback from stakeholders regarding two decision support

¹ <http://www.fema.gov/hazus>

² <http://www.ecapra.org>

359 models. Both models were developed in frames of the MATRIX project. The first
360 model “Generic multi-risk framework” was developed by the Swiss Federal
361 Institute of Technology in Zurich (ETH Zurich). It quantifies multi-risk in a
362 controlled environment to show the benefits of such an approach for decision-
363 making (Mignan, 2013; Mignan et al., submitted). The second model was
364 developed by B. Khazai at the Karlsruhe Institute of Technology (KIT). It
365 communicates multi-hazard and multi-risk results to stakeholders, by using
366 concepts of risk ranking and the risk matrix metric (Wenzel, 2012). We describe
367 briefly these models below (see also Appendix).

368

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3.1.1. Tool #1: Generic multi-risk framework

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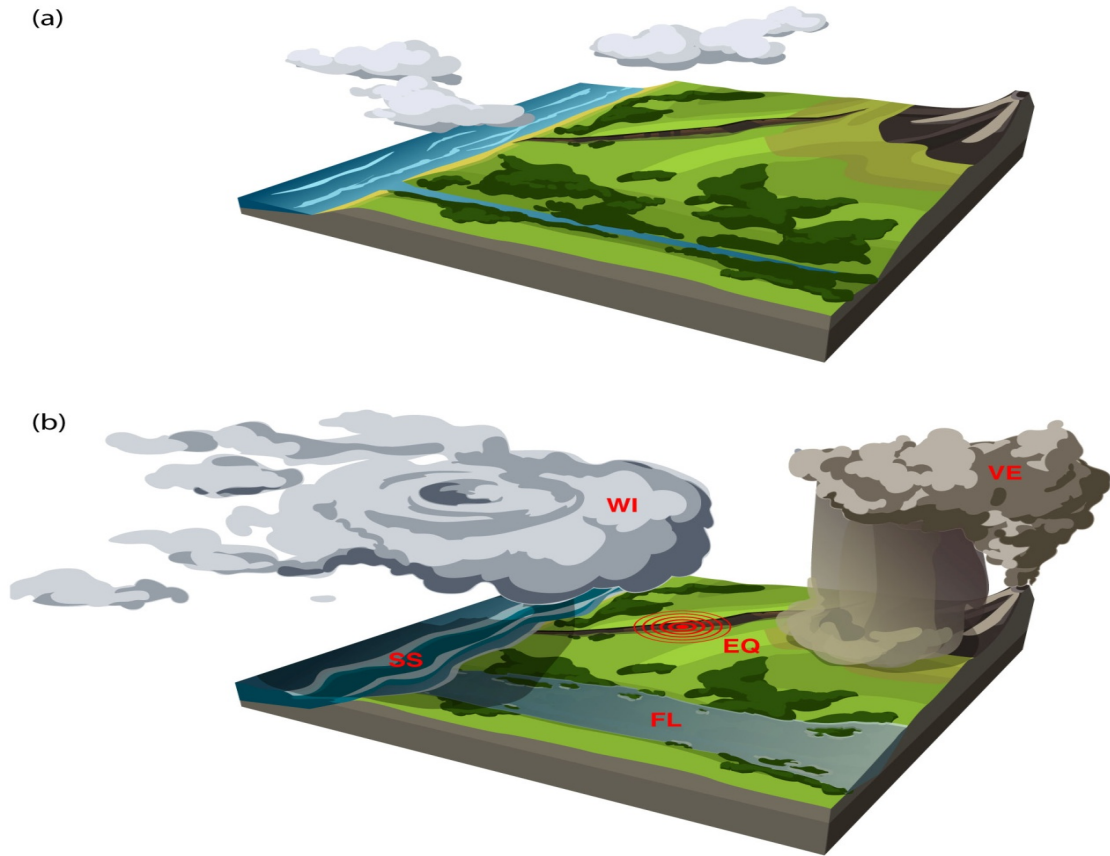
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Mignan et al. (submitted) proposed a generic multi-risk framework based on the sequential Monte Carlo method to allow for a straightforward and flexible implementation of conjoint and cascading events. The model considers hazard interactions, which are analogue to the ones observed in recent catastrophes, such as the 2005 hurricane Katrina or the 2011 Tohoku earthquake. It also includes time-dependent exposure and time-dependent vulnerability, although these aspects were not discussed with stakeholders. Validation of the framework was based on the testing of generic data and interaction processes (see Appendix A1 for the detail of the method). For a presentation of the multi-risk framework to stakeholders, another set of data and interaction processes was used, based on the concept of virtual city, which is illustrated in figure 2. This concept was also developed within the scope of the MATRIX project (Mignan, 2013) but has yet to be fully described (Mignan et al, in preparation). A virtual city located in a virtual hazardous region gives the baseline for the investigation of hazard interactions in a controlled - yet realistic - environment. Perils and interaction processes are defined heuristically (e.g., earthquakes from simple ground motion prediction equations, floods from water height in a V-basin, storm surge height as a function of wind speed based on the Saffir-Simpson scale, etc.). Risk is also computed from simple considerations (e.g., lognormal distribution as a proxy to various vulnerability curves). By construction, epistemic uncertainties are high but could be reduced when switching from a virtual scenario to a real one.

Several examples of multi-risk scenarios based on the generic multi-risk framework and on the virtual city concept were presented at both workshops. At the second workshop, we conducted the decision-making experiment to test the tool again, which was improved after the first workshop according to feedback from stakeholders.

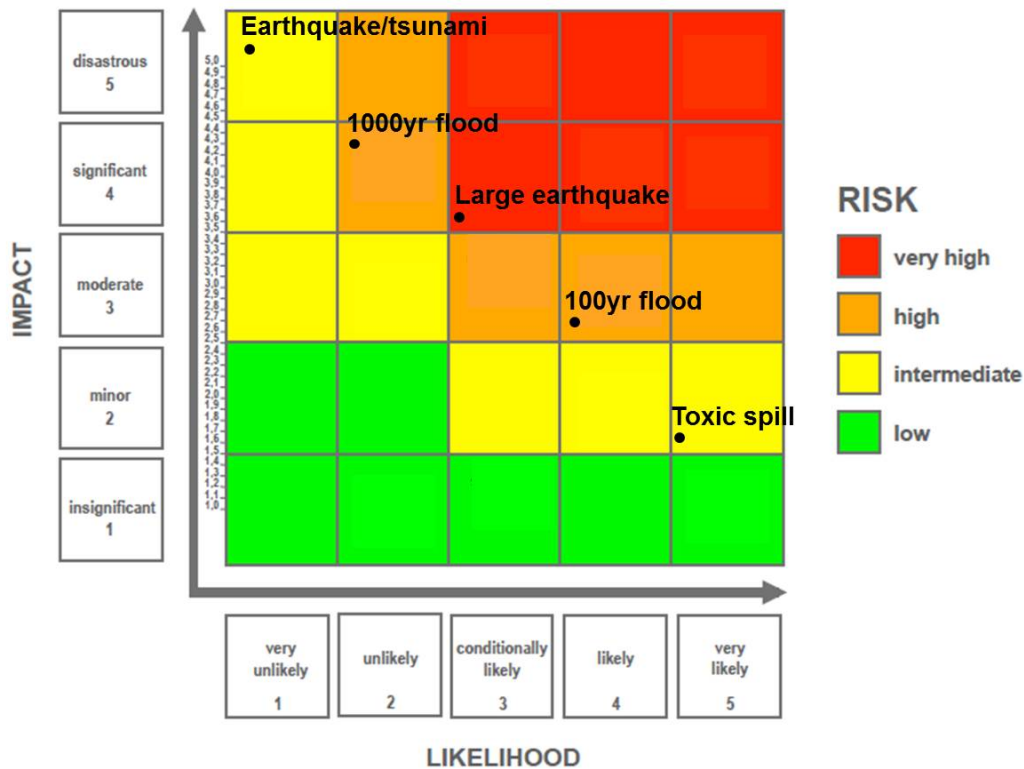


398
 399 **Figure 2:** Concept of virtual city: Artistic representation of a virtual hazardous
 400 region. Top: Morphology of the 100 by 100 km region. Bottom: perils considered
 401 in this version are earthquakes (EQ), volcanic eruptions (VE), fluvial floods (FL),
 402 winds (WI) and sea submersions (SS). The virtual city can be located anywhere
 403 in that region. Source: Mignan (2013).

404
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 406

3.1.2. Tool #2: Risk matrix decision-support tool

408 The BBK (2010) risk matrix framework was implemented into decision-support
 409 software by B. Khazai at the Karlsruhe Institute of Technology based on the
 410 principles of Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA) (see Appendix A2 for the
 411 detail of the method). The tool was tested with a group of stakeholders for the
 412 prioritization of risk scenarios in a delineated region based on user input. The
 413 goal was to test the different interactive features and visualization formats in the
 414 tool for communicating and transferring the information contained for the
 415 different risk scenarios in the risk matrix to the various stakeholders involved.
 416 The risk matrix relates the two dimensions of likelihood (in terms of
 417 probabilities of occurrence) and impact (in terms of severity of impact) in a
 418 graphical representation of different risks (along multiple impact dimensions) in
 419 a comparative way and can be used as a simple approach for setting priorities
 420 (figure 3).



421
422 Figure 3: Risk matrix. Source: BBK, 2010
423

424 Accordingly, the risk matrix presents a visual two-dimensional display of the
425 “ranking” of risk scenarios in terms of a frequency and impact scale that is
426 relevant to the region of interest, and will help in interpreting historical
427 experience and translating expert opinion in a consistent manner. In this way,
428 the decision-support tool allows the stakeholders to display the total risk index
429 ranking of different risk scenarios (e.g., an extremely rare offshore earthquake
430 which can trigger a tsunami, or a release of toxic material with severe impacts on
431 the local environment, etc.) affecting a region in terms of expected losses that are
432 quantitatively derived in different sectors (human, environment, economy,
433 infrastructure, intangibles) for each scenario.
434

435 The decision support tool allows users to construct a composite impact score for
436 each hazard scenario, by the mathematical aggregation of a set of individual
437 impact indicators that measure multi-dimensional concepts but usually do not
438 have common units of measurement (Nardo et al. 2005). In this way the tool
439 allows the user to input impact from different hazard scenarios in terms of the
440 following dimensions and respective indicators: people (expected casualties,
441 homeless, affected persons), economy (expected financial losses, capital stock,
442 business disruptions), environment (threat to ecosystem, groundwater,
443 agricultural areas stability and sustainability), infrastructure (interruption in
444 fresh water, gas, energy, telecommunications, transportation systems) and
445 intangibles (public security, political implications, psychological implications and
446 loss to cultural values).
447

448 Through a participatory approach, the stakeholders assign the relative
449 importance (weights) to the losses for the different sectors for each of the

450 scenarios likely to occur in the region. While this approach may invite
451 stakeholders to draw simplistic conclusions, it can provide a big picture by
452 accounting for different dimensions of impact, including dimensions that are
453 difficult to measure and are often ignored. In this way the tool is able to
454 summarize a complex multi-dimensional view of scenarios and allows a more
455 rounded assessment of impacts. Furthermore, not all the impact measures and
456 dimensions are of equal importance, and the decision support tool allows the
457 users to dynamically change the weights assigned to each indicator based on its
458 perceived importance and immediately observe changes in the composite impact
459 score of the different risk scenarios.

460
461 Using the interactive features and various visualization tools in the decision
462 support software, such as sensitivity graphs, stacked bars, scatter plots, and pair-
463 wise comparisons between scenarios, the aim is to facilitate communication
464 among the stakeholders to determine which of the multiple risk scenarios should
465 be prioritized by considering many variables at once and better communicate
466 their choice to others.

467
468

469 **3.2. Methods of stakeholders interactions**

470 Our approach to collect feedback from stakeholders includes several methods,
471 among them the distribution of questionnaires and the organization of
472 workshops with presentation of tools, exercises and discussions (figure 4).
473 Importantly, we collected feedback from those stakeholders who participated at
474 the workshops mentioned above and combined this information with that
475 obtained from questionnaire distributed prior to the workshops.

476
477



- Exercise on tool #1
- Discussions

478 Figure 4: Consultation process with stakeholders

479

480 Two workshop were organized, the first one was held in Bonn, Germany, on the
481 6th and 7th of July 2012, under the auspices of the MATRIX project. The second
482 workshop took place on the 17th to 19th of October 2012 in Lisbon, Portugal,
483 sponsored by the Italian Civil Protection (“Multi-hazard risk assessment in urban
484 environment”, 12th PPRD South “prevention and preparedness” workshop for
485 staff-level officials). The workshop in Bonn was the main source of data on
486 stakeholder’s perceptions while the one in Lisbon provided us with a secondary
487 source of data dealing with perceptions of the tools developed after feedback
488 from stakeholders in Bonn. The list of stakeholders present during the two
489 workshops is given in Table 1 and Figure 6. Additionally, other stakeholders
490 answered to a questionnaire sent before the Bonn meeting but without
491 participating to the workshop.

492

493 During our stakeholder consultations, we worked together with representatives
494 from National Platforms for Disaster Risk Reduction, which are most commonly
495 parts of the national Civil Protection. Furthermore, the United Nations Office for
496 Disaster Risk Reduction (UN-ISDR) and the Federal Ministry of Agriculture,
497 Forestry, Environment and Water Management, Austrian Service for Torrent and
498 Avalanche Control, have been involved. The stakeholders agreed to cooperate
499 and to provide their feedback on tools after an official request from GFZ (the
500 MATRIX project coordinator) and the German Committee for Disaster Risk
501 Reduction (DKKV).

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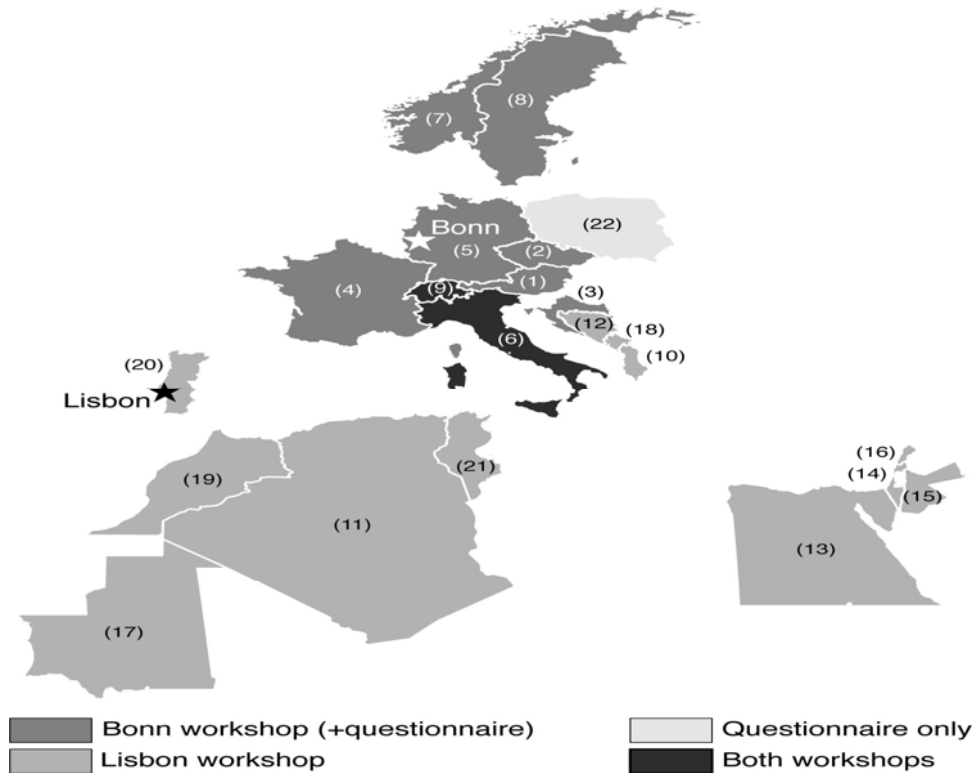
503 National Platforms are governmental organizations, for example, at the level of
504 the Ministry of Interior - Civil Protection Department or are acting as non-
505 governmental organizations like the German Committee for Disaster Reduction
506 (DKKV). They are multi-stakeholder committees comprising experts and
507 members from different sectors, enabling them to act as centers of expertise in
508 the field of disaster risk reduction (DRR). National Platforms are advocating for
509 DRR at all governmental and social levels and are generally responsible for
510 coordinating DRR activities, which require a coordinated and participatory
511 process. According to the definition from the UN-ISDR, a National Platform for
512 Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) “should be the coordination mechanism for
513 mainstreaming DRR into development policies, planning and programs in line
514 with the implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA). It should
515 aim to contribute to the establishment and the development of a comprehensive
516 national DRR system, as appropriate for each country”.

517

518 The United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction is the secretariat of the
519 UN-ISDR, and is the successor arrangement of the secretariat of the International
520 Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction (IDNDR). It was established in 1999 in
521 order to ensure the implementation of the UN-ISDR and the Hyogo Framework
522 for Action (HFA, 2005), which was adopted during the World Conference on
523 Disaster Reduction in Kobe in 2005. Amongst the different activities the
524 secretariat’s mandate involves, one is to "provide support to countries and HFA

525 focal points in the establishment and development of national platforms for DRR
 526 and backstop their policy and advocacy activities; develop improved methods for
 527 predictive multi-risk assessments, including on the economics of DRR and socio-
 528 economic cost-benefit analysis of risk reduction; and integrate early warning
 529 systems into their national DRR strategies and plans".
 530

531 The selection of stakeholders forms a representative sample, given the fact that
 532 over 50% of all national platforms in Europe were involved into our research.
 533 The stakeholders, except for Austria, represented the National Platforms.
 534 Someone might argue that the number of stakeholders involved might be too
 535 small for a large-scale survey. However, here we would like to point to the fact
 536 that our aim was not to conduct a large-scale survey but to reach targeted groups
 537 of stakeholders such as civil protection platforms and UN-ISDR. As we do not
 538 apply methodology of large-scale survey but use specialized targeted
 539 questionnaire as well as collect feedback during workshops, we regard our
 540 sample of stakeholders as representative as it covers most of the European
 541 countries (figure 5).
 542



543
 544
 545 Figure 5: Countries that participated in the workshops held in Bonn and Lisbon
 546 as well as in the questionnaire prior to the Bonn workshop and the survey after
 547 it. See also table 1.
 548

549 Table 1: List of participating institutions
 550

Bonn Workshop	Lisbon workshop
1. Austria, Federal Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, Environment and Water Management 2. Czech Republic, National Committee for	10. Albania, Civil Emergencies 11. Algeria, General Directorate of Civil Protection

<p>Natural Disaster Reduction</p> <p>3. Croatia, National Protection and Rescue Directorate</p> <p>4. France, Ministère de l'Ecologie, de l'Energie, du Développement durable et de la Mer</p> <p>5. Germany, Federal Office of Civil Protection and Disaster Assistance</p> <p>6. Italy, Civil Protection Department</p> <p>7. Norway, Directorate for Civil Protection and Emergency Planning</p> <p>8. Sweden, Center for Climate and Safety</p> <p>9. Switzerland, United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction</p>	<p>12. Bosnia and Herzegovina, Ministry of Security</p> <p>13. Egypt, General Administration of Civil Protection</p> <p>14. Israel, Ministry of Home Front Defence</p> <p>6. Italy, Civil Protection Department</p> <p>15. Jordan, Rescue and Support Directorate</p> <p>16. Lebanon, Civil Defence</p> <p>17. Mauritania, Mayor</p> <p>18. Montenegro, Department for Civil Protection</p> <p>19. Morocco, General Directorate of Civil Protection</p> <p>20. Portugal, National Authority for Civil Protection</p> <p>9. Switzerland, United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction</p> <p>21. Tunisia, Civil Protection</p>
Questionnaire only	
22. Poland, Institute of Meteorology and Water Management, National Research Institute (IMGW)	

551

552 With regards to the Bonn workshop and the questionnaire, considering that
553 there are about 15 national platforms in Europe, 8 participated in the workshop,
554 as well as UNISDR, and 8 responded to a questionnaire (Austria, Czech Republic,
555 France, Germany, Italy, Norway, Poland and Sweden), which was distributed
556 before the workshop. At the Lisbon workshop, stakeholders from Southern
557 Europe, the Balkans, Middle Eastern and North African countries participated.

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3.2.1. Questionnaire

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A first questionnaire was developed and distributed to stakeholders before the Bonn workshop to elicit baseline perception of the group of civil protection officers in order to compare with perceptions afterwards. It also served as a way to elicit problems perceived by stakeholders in order to discuss them during the first workshop. The general aim of the questionnaire was to collect feedback from the civil protection community about the current status of multi-risk approaches, such as availability, methods, and barriers, of hazard, risk and multi-risk assessments among the involved European countries. The focus was to understand the value of multi-hazard and multi-risk approaches and tools in real world conditions. This involved questions such as: What are the added values of hazard and risk assessments and what are their levels of integration into decision-making processes? What are the requirements for multi-risk assessment methods and tools from the perspective of disaster management? The surveys allowed us not only to gain answers to the questions set above, but to also capture the stakeholders' perceptions of the term multi-risk. We summarized the results of the questionnaire, presented them and discussed outputs with the stakeholders during the workshop in Bonn.

The aim of the developed questions was to capture their understanding of the term "multi-risk", to obtain an overview of the state-of the art of hazard, risk and multi-risk assessment, to receive feedback on the level of integration of hazard and risk assessments into decision making processes, to assess the usefulness of

583 multi-risk scenarios for disaster management strategies, to receive feedback on
584 requirements for multi-risk methods and tools, to receive feedback on the
585 potential of integrating the multi-risk methodology developed by MATRIX in the
586 domain of the National Platform.

587

588 Questions were related to: the availability of comprehensive hazard, risk and
589 multi-risk assessments, description of applied hazard and risk assessment
590 methodologies, use and usefulness of hazard, risk and multi-risk assessments in
591 decision making processes, use of probabilistic and scenario analysis,
592 estimations of uncertainties and socio-economic and engineering models in
593 hazard and risk assessment, requirements for multi-hazard and multi-risk
594 assessment methods and tools, parameters require to be considered,
595 communication of multi-risk to decision making processes, advantages of multi-
596 risk in comparison to single risk assessment, potential of integrating the multi-
597 risk methodology developed by MATRIX in the domain of the National Platform
598 and barriers in implementing multi-risk methods.

599

600

601

3.2.2. Bonn workshop

602 The following activities were performed during the Bonn workshop:
603 presentation and discussion of the results of the questionnaire, which was
604 submitted to the stakeholder before the workshop, presentations from
605 stakeholders and discussion on hazard and risk assessment approaches in
606 Europe, presentation and discussion of the generic multi-risk framework and the
607 decision support tool. These activities contributed to a better understanding of
608 the current approaches and to the further development of the tools.

609

610 The Bonn workshop provided the opportunity to present and discuss current
611 hazard and risk mapping concepts and highlight the importance of data and
612 information for multi-hazard and multi-risk assessments as well as the added
613 value of the multi-risk approach. It also provided an opportunity to discuss
614 multi-risk decision support tools in three aspects; first, to capture the status of
615 different approaches and open problems with regards to multi-risk assessment
616 in Europe, second, to understand the users' requirements with regards to
617 information technology for the generation of scenarios, third, to understand the
618 range of risk components addressed in the current practice, such as losses to
619 people's health and lives, economy, ecological damage, impacts upon
620 infrastructure and critical infrastructure, and intangible losses. Additional
621 interactions on tool #2 allowed us to identify differences in the perceptions
622 between stakeholders from science and practitioners.

623

624 The generic multi-risk framework (tool #1) and its application in a virtual city
625 were presented by A. Mignan and the risk matrix decision-support tool (tool #2)
626 was presented by B. Khazai. No exercise involving tool #1 was proposed in the
627 Bonn workshop. An exercise of tool #2 followed in which stakeholder input was
628 needed to identify the weights with which the impact of particular components
629 in the overall picture of impact are specified in a participatory fashion (i.e., what
630 is the relative importance of the different loss parameters in the risk ranking?).
631 Thus, the primary difficulty in gathering stakeholder input involved creating a

632 “value model” that would support stakeholders in assessing problems and
633 expressing their views more explicitly. Using the decision-support tool in the
634 workshop, the stakeholders ranked and compared risk scenarios to each other
635 relative to one (or several) loss criteria by following the five steps below:

636

- 637 1. Identify all the risk scenarios to be ranked.
- 638 2. Identify loss parameters to quantify the risk score of each scenario.
- 639 3. Quantify the loss score (5 categories, from irrelevant to catastrophic) for
640 each of the loss parameters for each scenario.
- 641 4. Quantify preferences (weights) for different loss categories and loss
642 parameters.
- 643 5. Rank the scenarios by combining information from steps (4) and (5).

644

645 Following the ranking of the scenarios, the stakeholders used the visualization
646 tools of the decision-support software tool to conduct interactive sensitivity
647 analyses to detect the most significant factors in the ranking of scenarios, and
648 identify whether or not a criteria differentiates between two scenarios.
649 Furthermore, stakeholders discussed ways to characterize uncertainties in the
650 loss parameters and set priorities by determining how much greater risk one
651 scenario poses over another. Noteworthy, to save on time, only B. Khazai was
652 directly interfacing with the tool, taking into account recommendations from the
653 stakeholders and showing the outcomes on a large screen (i.e., interactive
654 tutorial).

655

656 **3.2.3. Lisbon workshop**

657 A presentation of the generic multi-risk framework (tool #1) in Lisbon was
658 followed by a half-day exercise co-organized with the PPRD South team and
659 other speakers. The exercise’s aim was to provide a better understanding of the
660 role of multi-hazard in overall risk assessment by considering two sites: Lisbon,
661 Portugal and Istanbul, Turkey. The participants were divided in several groups of
662 about 5 persons with discussions promoted within and between groups (figure
663 6). The first part of the exercise consisted in investigating the different hazards
664 present in the two cities based on various data, such as hazard maps, provided in
665 the guidelines of the exercise, and to give some score to their severity and
666 frequency, that is within the concept of the risk matrix - hence here combining
667 the tool #1 core modeling concept with a visualization and ranking of multi-risk
668 similar to tool #2. This upgrade of tool #1 was based on feedback obtained
669 during the Bonn workshop (see section 4). The second part of the exercise was to
670 discuss potential triggering effects, based on the virtual city results and past
671 catastrophes known of the participants. Participants then updated their risk
672 matrix based on multi-hazard information and presented their new results. The
673 final objective was to highlight the idea that new risks emerge and some others
674 may shift to lower-probability higher-consequences events when multi-hazard is
675 considered in risk management. While the participants did not use the generic
676 multi-risk framework per se, they could perceive its basic concept via the
677 exercise.

678

679

680

4. Results

681 The following results were derived from the questionnaire and from further
682 feedback obtained from stakeholders during the two following workshops. This
683 feedback relates to multi-risk and multi-hazard, in general, and their added value
684 compared to single risk.

685
686

687 **4.1. Multi-hazard and multi-risk approach, terminology and added-value**

688 This section does not contain specific feedback on the tools, which is discussed in
689 section 4.2. The general results show that for usage of multi-risk decision-
690 support tools, two areas are most problematic. These are (1) the absence of clear
691 definitions and (2) the lack of information on the added value of multi-risk
692 assessment.

693

694 First, there is still no common understanding what does the term “multi-risk”
695 means. The common terminology on multi-risk does not exist and disaster
696 management terms are used differently among different European countries. It
697 shows the need to develop a glossary with definitions and terms relevant to
698 multi-hazard and multi-risk, going beyond already existing basic definitions
699 developed, for example, by the UN-ISDR. However, during the workshop
700 discussions and as indicated in the questionnaires, almost all stakeholders
701 agreed with the proposed definition of multi-risk, given as: “Multi-risk
702 represents a comprehensive risk defined from interactions between all possible
703 hazards and vulnerabilities.”

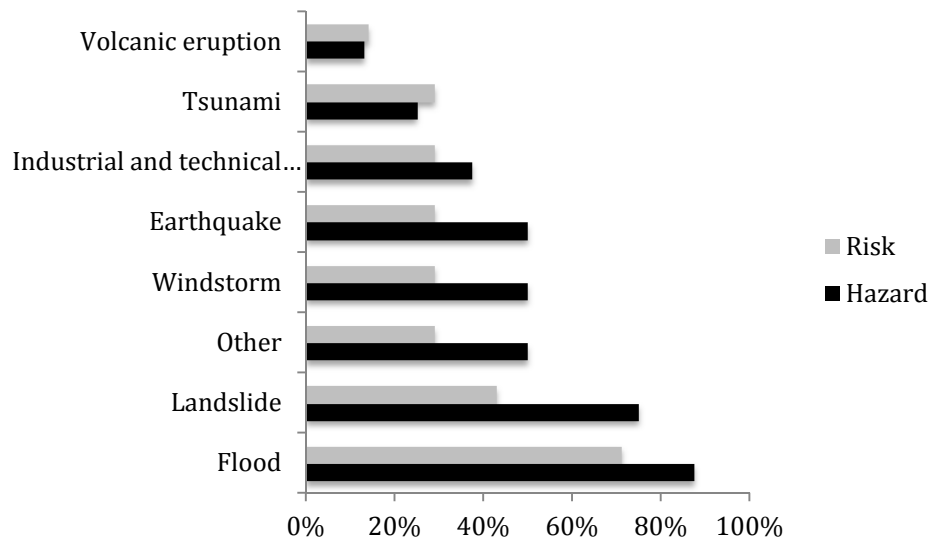
704

705 Second, the added value of multi-risk assessment in comparison to the single risk
706 assessment and hazard assessment was not completely clear. There are also
707 fears that multi-risk assessment will lead to more complicated and time-
708 demanding risk assessment procedures in comparison to single risk assessment.
709 Several stakeholders spoke up that it is not possible to identify which
710 assessment is more important, single risk or multi-risk, and claimed the
711 necessary combination of both of them. However, in the implementation of risk
712 mitigation policies, stakeholders identified several advantages of the multi-risk
713 approach relative to single risk approaches. The major advantage is in the
714 intensified cooperation between stakeholders, involved into assessment and
715 mitigation of different kinds of natural hazards, better planning and cost
716 efficiency during the decision-making process.

717

718 A common opinion was that the results of risk assessment are generally less
719 needed than reliable hazard assessment products, such as hazard maps. The
720 hazard assessment is also more frequently applied, most often for floods and
721 landslides (figure 6). It remains unclear why hazard was favored against risk. We
722 may suggest that hazard provides first-level information, simplifying
723 interpretations. The participating stakeholders may also unconsciously consider
724 risk, as they know where infrastructures and populations are located on the
725 hazard maps, meaning that risk is in fact implicitly favored against hazard.
726 Finally this result may simply indicate that there is still much work to be done at
727 the hazard level, before any detailed risk analysis.

728



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731 **Figure 6:** Distribution of the application of different types of hazard and risk
732 assessment in the eight European countries represented in the questionnaire
733 distributed prior to the Bonn MATRIX workshop.

734

735 The stakeholders indicated five areas where hazard assessments can be used to
736 support decision-making. These are (1) the planning of regional and local
737 protection measures, including land use planning, urban planning, infrastructure
738 programs and contingency planning, (2) the prioritization and evaluation of
739 protection measures, (3) the safety of critical infrastructure, (4) seismic zoning
740 and building code enforcement, and, (5) prevention efforts based on risk
741 prevention plans, public awareness and information. The estimations from
742 stakeholders of the value of hazard assessments for decision-making purposes
743 varied between medium and high.

744

745 The stakeholders furthermore identified five areas for the application of risk
746 assessments for decision-making purposes. These are (1) the formulation of
747 national building codes, (2) scenarios and emergency planning and response, (3)
748 the allocation of funds for risk mitigation, (4) urban management and (5)
749 prevention efforts. During the workshop, stakeholders identified the advantages
750 of the multi-hazard approach, for example synergies in the handling of complex
751 risks, including domino effects, as well as the potential for the instigation of
752 complementary and systematic approaches.

753

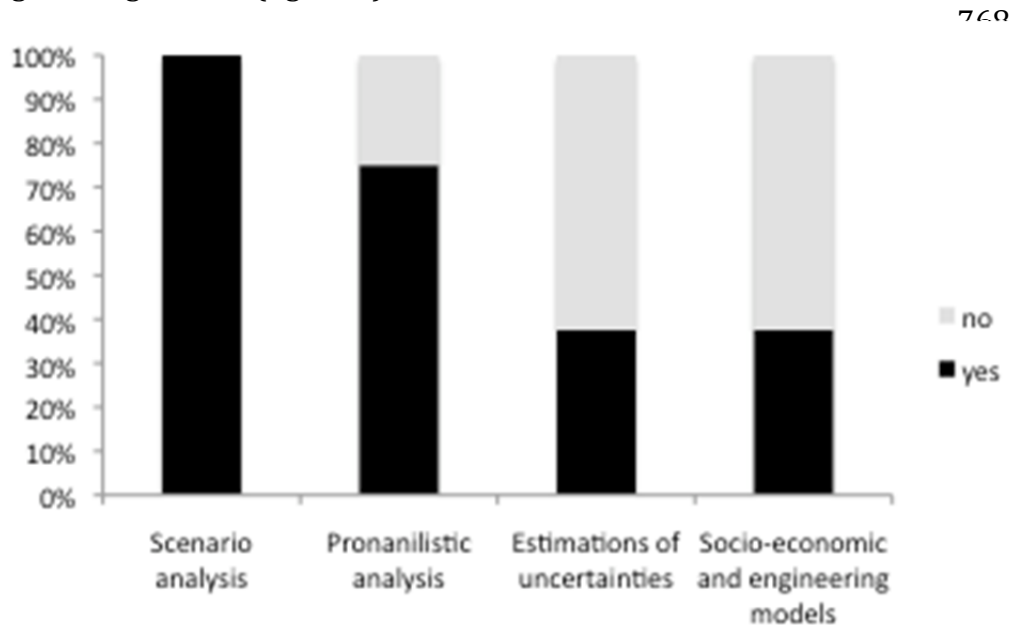
754 There are different ways of including risk in the mapping process, such as the
755 French approach of overlaying exposure and hazard, or the Norwegian approach
756 of defining potential risk maps. Crossing hazard maps and asset maps is the
757 common method used in France within the context of Risk Prevention Plans for
758 defining land planning zones with specific prevention requirements at the
759 municipal level³. Probabilistic analysis and scenario analysis are widespread
760 among the European countries. In particular, scenario analysis seems to be state-

³ <http://www.risquesmajeurs.fr/les-plans-de-prevention-des-risques-naturels-ppr>

761 of-the-art. Uncertainties are difficult to address because adequate methodologies
762 and reliable data are not available.

763

764 The analysis of answers to our questionnaire showed that scenario analysis is
765 the most commonly used tool for scientific assessments, followed by
766 probabilistic analysis, the estimation of uncertainties and socio-economic and
767 engineering models (figure 7).



785 Figure 7: Application of scientific assessment tools for decision-making
786 processes in the eight European countries that responded to the questionnaires.

787

788 The stakeholders perceive that probabilistic and scenario analysis has become
789 widespread and has become some kind of state-of-the-art. In addition, the
790 estimation of uncertainties is lacking, believed due to drawbacks in adequate
791 methodologies and reliable data. However, socio-economic and engineering
792 models are at a promising development level, although again these are
793 dependent upon the availability of data.

794

795 Stakeholders also expressed their interest in probabilistic information, like joint
796 probabilities for conjoint and cascading events. It was stated that for planning
797 purposes, probabilities of adverse events are of importance. Such information is
798 used in the field of spatial planning and disaster prevention. In Norway, for
799 instance, probabilities of occurrence are used within risk maps to restrict
800 different developments of certain risk-prone areas. Similarly, the European
801 Flood Directive foresees the development of hazard and risk maps for areas with
802 significant risk of flood and the development of Flood Risk Management plans in
803 order to avoid, protect from, and prevent floods.

804

805 Multi-risk is not systematically addressed among the EU countries for all
806 hazards, only singularly integrated into risk assessment approaches. Some
807 examples include the superposition of existing single hazard risk prevention
808 plans for all hazards, for example combining flood and landslide hazards and

809 flood risks with wind effects, the application of which is in the context for risk
810 assessment of critical infrastructure, in particular the combination of
811 meteorological and technological risks.

812

813 Stakeholders identified three types of problems connected with multi-risk and
814 multi-hazard assessments:

815 1. The general standards for multi-risk assessment are still missing. The
816 need for harmonization of multi-risk assessments across Europe was
817 already identified five years before (T6, 2007). This include the
818 harmonization of methodologies for hazard and risk assessment for
819 different types of potentially disastrous events and the different
820 processes of risk mapping, including standardization of data collection,
821 analysis, monitoring, output and terminology. The harmonization (again)
822 of terms and methodologies is essential for stakeholders to understand
823 relationships between risks.

824

825 2. Even though cascading phenomena are of great interest, it is still easier to
826 address them with scenarios than by probabilistic methods.

827

828 3. Uncertainties, particularly in scenarios, are not addressed in a systematic
829 way.

830

831 Stakeholders identified several barriers to the implementation of multi-risk and
832 multi-hazard approaches, such as financial, political, conceptual, methodological
833 and operational aspects. In particular, they perceive three barriers as most
834 problematic.

835

836 1. The absence of common methodologies and data for different types of
837 hazards and risks is perceived to be the most problematic barrier. Also,
838 the level of data availability for different types of hazards and risks is very
839 diverse. The data on cost estimations are also not fully comprehensive.
840 Currently, in the majority of countries, cost assessments come only from
841 insurance companies. Stakeholders perceive this situation as being
842 problematic because the insurance companies might be biased and
843 therefore their assessments are not fully comprehensive or independent.
844 There are as well issues of transparency of these assessments.

845

846 2. Another barrier is that multi-risk assessment often does not match
847 political priorities and public perceptions, and it is not always easy to
848 communicate to the broader public what a multi-risk assessment really is.

849

850 3. A significant barrier involves that lack of cooperation between involved
851 institutions, organizations and departments, because information about
852 risk and hazard assessments does not flow freely between the different
853 decision-making levels (this issue was of particular concern to Croatia).
854 This is also explained by the fact that the results of assessments are not
855 always available to other stakeholders outside the institution, which was
856 responsible for the assessment.

857

858 In the next step, the stakeholders identified the following requirements for
859 multi-hazard and multi-risk assessments:

860

861 1. The availability of basic information as well as qualitative and
862 quantitative data to conduct multi-hazard or multi-risk assessments,
863 including the comparability of hazards.

864

865 2. A clear understanding of spatial and temporal probabilities of multiple
866 risks as well as vulnerabilities of regions to multiple risks; additionally
867 the reliability and transparency of the calculation of cascading and
868 conjoint probabilities.

869

870 3. A combination of consequence analysis, which considers the vulnerability
871 of people, property, infrastructure and goods, and risk calculation, which
872 includes the consideration of the risk to both tangible and intangible
873 assets.

874

875

876 **4.2. Usability of MATRIX decision-support tools**

877 The results from the questionnaire showed that generally, multi-risk analysis is
878 barely or not at all integrated into decision-making processes, and only around
879 50% of the responders were aware of methodologies and tools to assess multi-
880 risk. Nonetheless, the majority of stakeholders was convinced about the
881 usefulness of complex multi-risk scenarios and would consider the application of
882 complex multi-risk scenarios within their disaster management strategies.

883

884 The reaction of stakeholders to the multi-risk assessment and decision-making
885 tools presented at the workshop was optimistic. Several stakeholders invited the
886 developers of these tools to give presentations and to conduct training on the
887 tools at their home institutions. The majority of stakeholders would consider the
888 use of the generic multi-risk framework (tool #1) and the decision-making tool
889 (tool #2) after their testing phase.

890

891 **4.2.1. Generic multi-risk framework (tool #1)**

892 The stakeholders see the usability of the generic multi-risk framework combined
893 to the use of the virtual city concept primarily for educational purposes.
894 Currently two areas are most problematic for implementation of tool #1. First,
895 this is the required volume of input parameters, which involves cumbersome
896 data gathering to consider multiple hazards and risks in a given region. The data
897 requirements (stochastic event set, individual hazard footprints, correlation
898 matrix that provides event conditional probabilities of occurrence, etc. - see
899 details of the method in Appendix A1) raise questions as to how user-friendly the
900 model is, as the user (for now) needs to be an expert himself to be able to apply
901 the model and to provide the necessary input parameters. Second is that possible
902 application is limited only to a narrow number of experts as high-level expertise
903 is required to assess the dynamic multi-hazard and multi-risk processes. Taking
904 into account the complexity of the model and the required parameters,
905 stakeholders believe that it is questionable that the model is at the present time
906 applicable in practice for the land-use planning. It was finally remarked that the

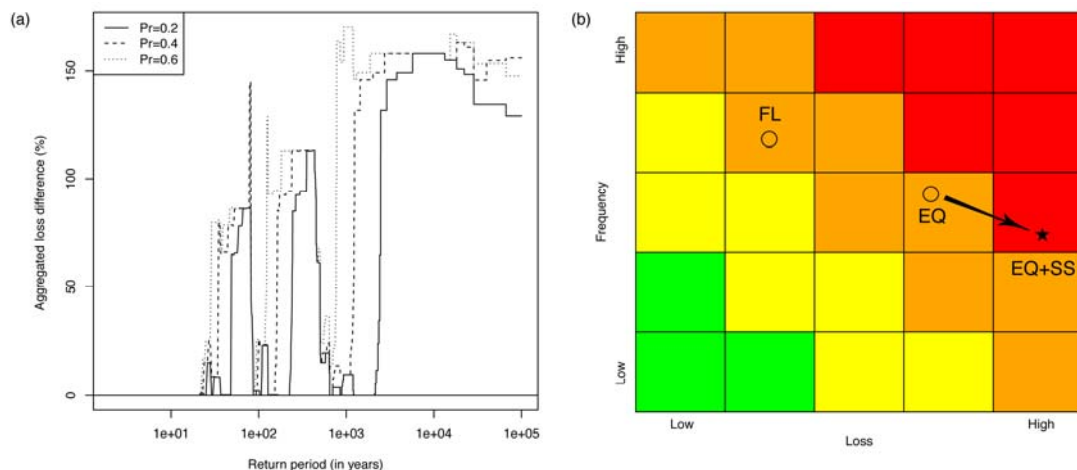
907 application of the multi-risk framework might be very useful at a later stage
 908 when databases with the required input parameters are developed by national
 909 and international stakeholders. This shows that multi-risk assessment cannot be
 910 resolved rapidly, but will require a long-term commitment from risk modelers as
 911 well as officials, and a “brick-by-brick” approach is necessary to progressively
 912 add together all of the complexities of the risk process.

913

914 Importantly, the feedback from stakeholders during the Bonn workshop helped
 915 to improve the communication interface of the multi-risk framework. The
 916 updated framework was then tested successfully during an exercise at the Lisbon
 917 workshop. The main criticism observed during the Bonn workshop, being linked
 918 to the complexity of the modeling, has been partly resolved by the use of the risk
 919 matrix (Cox, 1998; Kraussmann et al., 2012; Tool #2) instead of the loss curve
 920 (e.g., Grossi et al., 2005) to show how risk migrates when hazard interactions are
 921 included (figure 8). General guidelines on how to quantify hazard interactions
 922 were also developed, based on an extensive literature review (Mignan et al., in
 923 preparation). These guidelines should help risk modelers to include, again in a
 924 brick-by-brick approach, hazard interactions into their risk management
 925 schemes.

926

927



928

929 **Figure 8:** Including stakeholder feedback in tool #1. (a) Original metric
 930 proposed to identify the impact of multi-risk versus multiple single-risk. The
 931 curve, which represents the difference between two loss curves, was not well
 932 received by the stakeholders in general. The jumps represent the increased risk
 933 when including storm surge compared to storm alone. Source: Mignan (2013);
 934 (b) Example of a risk matrix determined "by hand" during the Lisbon multi-risk
 935 exercise. This metric is simpler than the differential loss curve originally
 936 proposed since the different risk scenarios (circles and stars) and the migration
 937 of risk (arrow) are here explicit (FL: flood, EQ: earthquake, EQ+SS: interaction
 938 earthquake → sea submersion, i.e. tsunami). An example generated from tool #1
 939 including numerous multi-risk scenarios from Mignan et al. (submitted) is given
 940 in Appendix A1.

941

942 Figure 8 highlights the idea that new risks emerge and some others shift to
 943 lower-probability high-consequences events when multi-hazard is considered in

944 risk management. This had not been fully understood during both Bonn and
 945 Lisbon workshops when using differential loss curves (Fig. Xa). Using the
 946 concept of risk matrix helped improving the comprehension of the results
 947 obtained by the generic multi-risk framework (Fig. Xb). The circles represent
 948 independent events, while the star represents an event emerging from
 949 interaction processes. In this case, floods (FL) remain independent. While not all
 950 earthquakes (EQ) will trigger a sea submersion (SS, here tsunami), the
 951 combination of both yields higher losses. The arrow here represents the
 952 migration of the risk arising from an earthquake alone to lower-probability but
 953 higher-consequences when interactions are considered (which is similar to the
 954 jumps observed at longer return periods in Figure Xa). While this result may
 955 appear obvious when considering this simple example, "surprise" chains of
 956 events may emerge when numerous events and interactions are included in the
 957 system (see Appendix A1). This idea was well grasped during the exercise
 958 organized during the Lisbon workshop.

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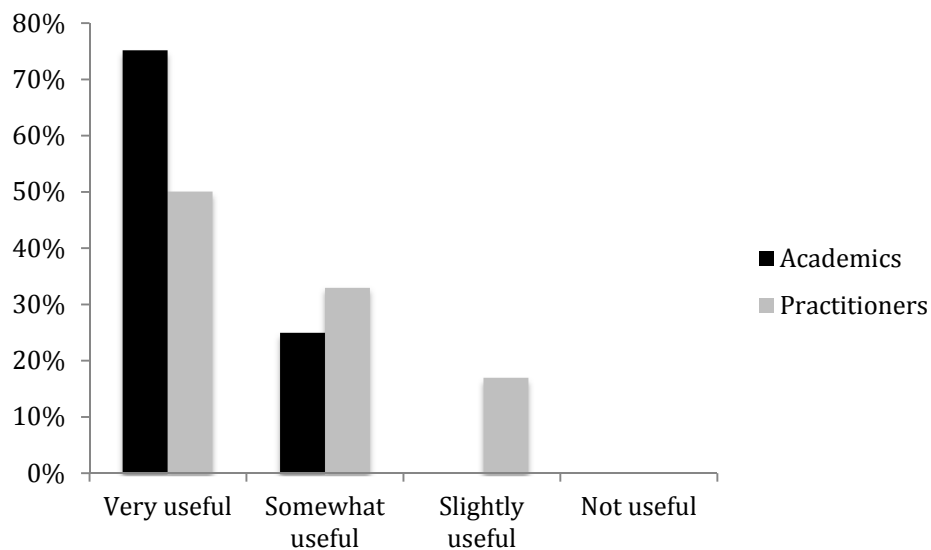
961 4.2.2. Decision support model (tool #2)

962 In the workshop the stakeholders were asked to rank the usefulness of the
 963 decision-support tool in terms of four categories (highly useful, moderately
 964 useful, slightly useful and not useful) for the following three areas. The feedback
 965 was collected with the help of a questionnaire.

966

- 967 a) Understanding the distribution of losses for different sectors and
 968 comparing risk scenarios with each other (figure 9).
- 969 b) Preparing and planning for a multi-type risk disaster in a region, and
 970 optimizing the allocation of resources (figure 10).
- 971 c) Communicating multi-type risk parameters to different stakeholders and
 972 for developing strategies for risk management (figure 11).

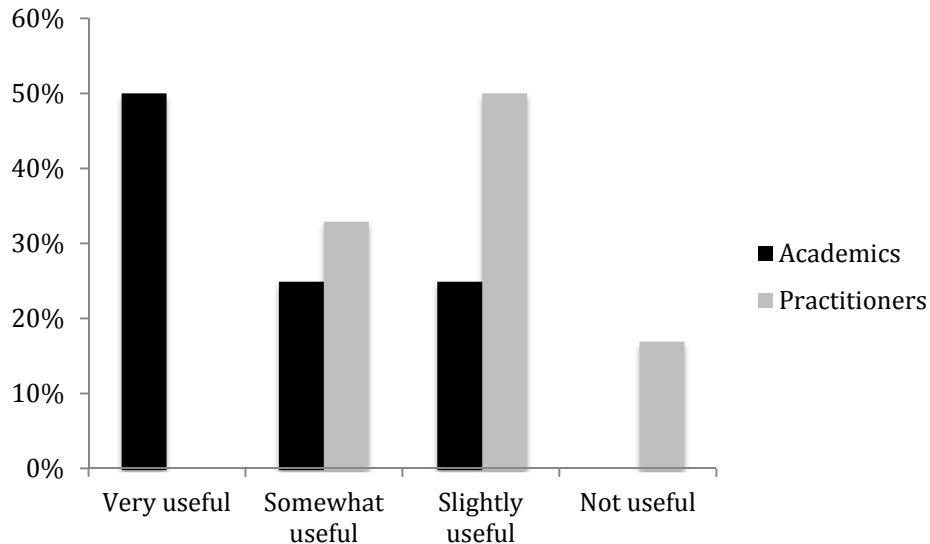
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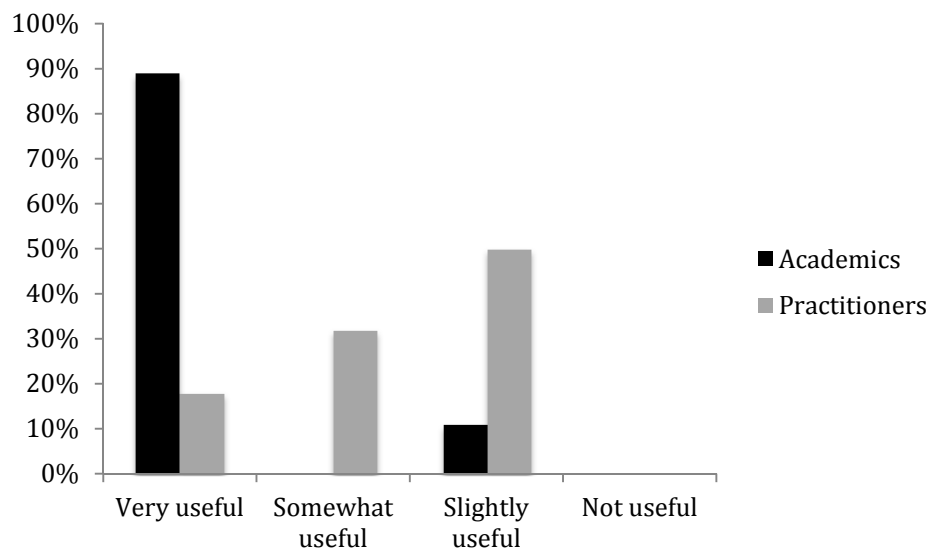
975 **Figure 9:** The results of the survey in how tool #2 helps with the understanding
 976 of losses and their contribution in a risk scenario (14 answers).

977



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Figure 10: As for Figure 10, but for how tool #2 helps with preparing for multi-risk disasters and optimizing allocation of resources (14 answers).



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Figure 11: As for Figure 10, but for how tool #2 tool helps with communicating multi-type risk parameters to different stakeholders for developing risk management strategies (14 answers).

988 It is interesting to note the variation in the perceptions between stakeholders in
989 academia and those in the practice community in terms of the tool’s usefulness.
990 While both academicians and practitioners agreed that the tool is useful for
991 understanding losses and their contributions in a risk scenario (figure 9), there is
992 a difference between how practitioners viewed the usefulness of the tool when it
993 comes to prioritizing risk and developing risk management strategies (figure
994 11). In the case of the latter, most practitioners viewed the tools as being only
995 slightly to somewhat useful, while academics believed it to be very useful for this
996 purpose. Similarly, practitioners found the tool not to only slightly useful when it
997 comes to preparing for disasters and allocating resources as opposed to most

998 academics, who thought it would be somewhat to very useful (figure 10). In the
999 discussion that followed with the stakeholders, it arose that a precondition for
1000 the useful application of the tool is expert knowledge, and thus the tool is ideally
1001 to be used by risk analysis experts. In this way, the tool brings added value by
1002 adding transparency and a rational breakdown of risk against a competing set of
1003 criteria. Furthermore, the stakeholders commented that the usefulness of the
1004 tool could only be gauged following an in-depth exercise with stakeholders for a
1005 region where the expertise and context (i.e., a case study with specific problem)
1006 is available. Noteworthy, academics seem more optimistic to an innovative tool
1007 than stakeholders possibly because academics may push for innovation while
1008 stakeholders may prefer well-established methods.

1009

1010 **5. Discussion**

1011 The results from of the discussions with, and the undertaking of surveys by,
1012 stakeholders on the usability and user-friendliness of decision-making models
1013 showed that stakeholders still have questions about the availability of data for
1014 input parameters, but that they did not question the usefulness of the results.

1015

1016 For example, the decision-making model developed by the ARMONIA project was
1017 tested in only two case studies and not by a number of stakeholders from
1018 different countries. It showed, firstly, that doubts in the methodology arose, as
1019 there was the tendency to exaggerate one hazard over other ones. Second, there
1020 were concerns about methodology's output, such as the risk factor, which could
1021 be used only by decision-makers who are familiar with this method. The
1022 recommendations were to develop alternative multiple-risk mapping methods,
1023 which were not as data specific as the methods developed by the ARMONIA
1024 project. The recommendations also highlight strongly the need to appreciate
1025 participative governance and the need to conduct further research into what the
1026 end users of such risk maps actually require.

1027

1028 With the recently proposed MATRIX decision-making model and generic multi-
1029 risk tool, we still could not address the first recommendation. The feedback from
1030 stakeholders showed us that there is a need for a significant simplification in
1031 terms of the required input data. However, we addressed the second
1032 recommendation by collecting and addressing perceptions of stakeholders from
1033 several European countries in terms of the usability and the areas of application
1034 of the multi-risk assessment tools.

1035

1036 During several rounds of stakeholders' interactions, we received the following
1037 recommendations. First, as already mentioned, there is an urgent need for more
1038 clarity with regards to the terms and definitions connected with multi-risk and
1039 multi-hazard. This will require the terminology currently being employed, for
1040 example within the MATRIX project, to be disseminated and agreed upon with all
1041 relevant stakeholders (note one of the MATRIX deliverables, D3.2 "Dictionary of
1042 terminology" is publically available via the MATRIX website⁴). Second, for input
1043 parameters, there is a need to harmonize existing methodologies on data
1044 collection and databases across the European countries. In this case, there are

⁴ <http://matrix.gpi.kit.edu/index.php>

1045 already on-going initiatives dealing with this, such as the INSPIRE⁵ initiative of
1046 the European Union. Third, we received several recommendations regarding the
1047 area of application for multi-risk assessment tools such as the decision-making
1048 model and the generic multi-risk framework. This includes the application of the
1049 multi-risk approach to enable the comparability of risks. This recommendation
1050 was included in the ongoing development of the generic multi-risk framework by
1051 comparing various risks with the use of risk as a common metric. This could be a
1052 complementary approach to single-risk assessments, where the single and multi-
1053 risk approaches relate to two different risk systems.

1054
1055 Our interviews with stakeholders showed that, first, the risk systems need to be
1056 defined, and only afterwards could the risk analysis and assessment be used.
1057 There are expectations on the multi-risk systems to be able to address
1058 dependencies between hazards. For politicians and decision-makers, it would be
1059 interesting to compare two sets of scenarios, one with the interdependencies
1060 between different kinds of hazards included, and the other without considering
1061 such interdependencies. This is an advantage of the generic multi-risk
1062 framework as it is able to provide such comparisons by including or excluding
1063 interdependencies between different risks (e.g., figure 2). The developed models
1064 could also be used as a test to compare these results with previous results and
1065 data developed by insurance companies. Although insurance companies might be
1066 interested in such applications, their results would probably remain confidential.
1067 Also, the developed models could be used in training purposes in two possible
1068 ways. The first could be in a more narrow sense to convince stakeholders in the
1069 decision-making process about the usefulness of the multi-hazard approach. The
1070 second one could be with the broader view of disseminating these results to the
1071 general public, hence dealing with public acceptance issues. Some stakeholders
1072 expressed the opinion that politicians shall be motivated to use this model in
1073 their training purposes to see what the consequences of a multi-hazard situation
1074 could be. The general recommendation was that the model (including the
1075 concept of virtual city) could be used for educational purposes.

1076
1077 In conclusion, while the stakeholders involved in this study saw the value of the
1078 multi-risk approach, a great deal of work is required by researchers in terms of
1079 the methodological development, and in shaping these methods to meet the
1080 needs of end-users. From the other side, further efforts are required to actually
1081 understand what is required by end-users, while continuing to further
1082 disseminate the message of the value of multi-hazard and risk approaches.

1083
1084

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 1310

1311 **Appendix**

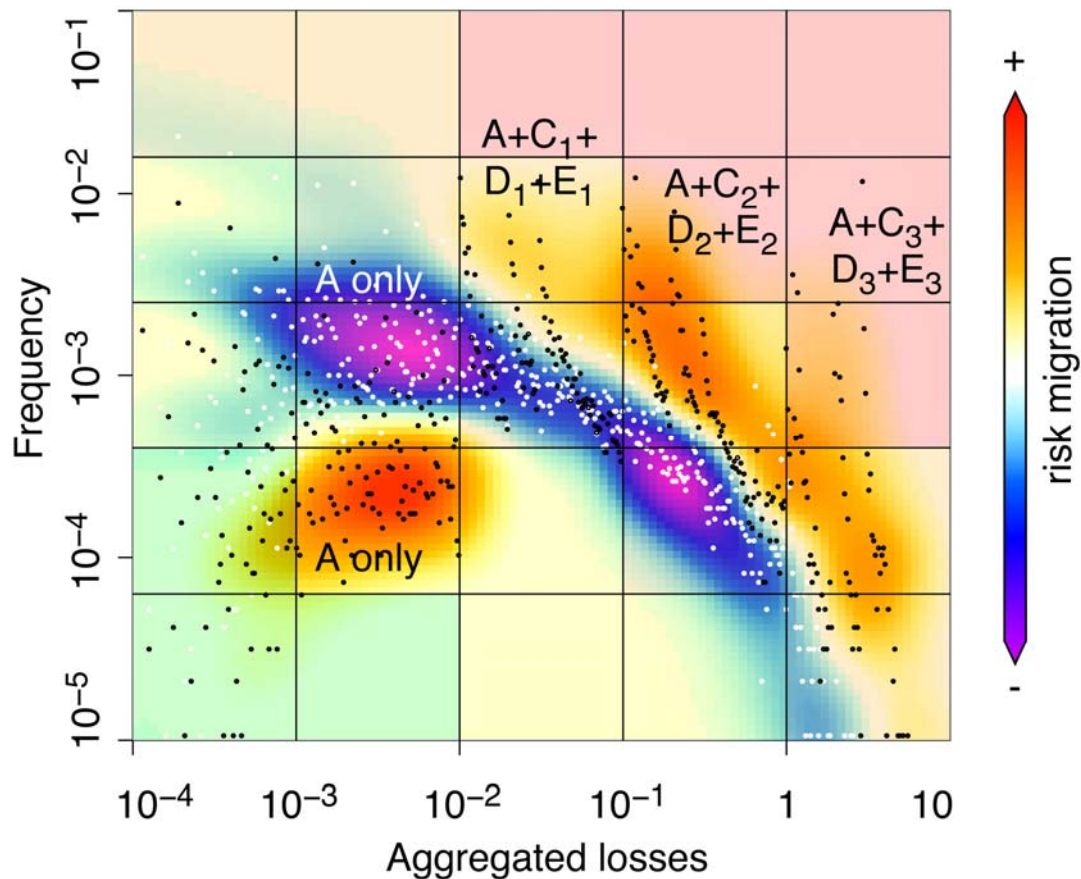
1312 *A1. Generic multi-hazard and multi-risk framework*

1313 The multi-risk framework proposed by Mignan et al. (submitted) is formed of a
 1314 core simulation algorithm based on the Monte Carlo method (MCM). The MCM
 1315 was adopted for its flexibility when dealing with complex systems. It generates
 1316 N_{sim} time series, sampling from the Poisson distribution (homogeneous or non-
 1317 homogeneous process). Each time series represents one risk scenario and the
 1318 analysis of N scenarios allows for the probabilistic assessment of losses and for
 1319 the recognition of more or less probable risk paths. These risk paths emerge
 1320 naturally from the system implemented in the MCM.
 1321
 1322

1323 Hazard interactions represent a non-stationary process, which requires a
 1324 sequential processing strategy. The proposed sequential MCM is defined as
 1325 follows:
 1326

- 1327 • **Multi-hazard assessment:** define the simulation set with simulation identifier,
 1328 event identifier and event occurrence time t .
- 1329 1. Generate N_{sim} random time series: Sample N_{sim} sets of events over the time
 1330 interval $\Delta t = [t_0; t_{max}]$ drawn from the Poisson distribution with each
 1331 stochastic event i characterized by the long-term rate parameters λ_i . Affix
 1332 an occurrence time t to each event following the random uniform
 1333 distribution. Record the time series in the simulation set S_0 , which

1334 represents the null hypothesis H_0 of having no interaction in the system.
1335 Fix $j=1$.
1336 2. For each of the N_{sim} simulations, record the characteristics of the j th event,
1337 which occurs at t_j , in simulation set S_1 . Resample events k occurring in the
1338 interval $(t_j, t_{max}]$ if the conditional probability $\Pr(k | j)$ exists (concept of
1339 hazard correlation matrix). Affix $t_k = t_j + \varepsilon$ with $\varepsilon \ll \Delta t$. Fix $j = j+1$.
1340 3. Repeat step 2 while $t_j \leq t_{max}$.
1341 4. Fix $j=1$.
1342 • **Multi-risk assessment:** update the simulation sets S_0 and S_1 with event loss Λ .
1343 5. For each of the N_{sim} simulations, calculate the mean damage ratio δ_j due to
1344 the j th event, which is conditional on the occurrence of previous events.
1345 6. For each of the N_{sim} simulations, calculate the loss Λ_j due to the j th event,
1346 which is conditional on the occurrence of previous events. Record Λ_j .
1347 7. Repeat steps 5 and 6 while $t_j \leq t_{max}$.
1348 Mignan et al. (submitted) used $N_{sim} = 10^5$, $\Delta t = [t_0 = 0; t_{max} = 1]$ and $\varepsilon = 0.01$. They
1349 defined a hazard correlation matrix, considering possible interactions between
1350 ad-hoc perils A, B, C, D and E. Noteworthy, these ad-hoc perils and associated
1351 interactions are more abstract than the concept of virtual city. They are also
1352 more difficult to comprehend but provide an elegant mathematical framework.
1353 Figure A1 shows an example of risk migration matrix generated by the MCM. In
1354 the present case, occurrence of peril A leads to the occurrence of peril C with a
1355 probability $\Pr(C|A)$. C can then trigger D and D can then trigger E. A and C may
1356 represent earthquake/tsunami interactions for instance while D and E may
1357 represent domino effects in critical infrastructures (i.e. NaTech events). Figure
1358 A1 shows that the risk migrates to low probability-high consequences events
1359 when interactions are considered (i.e., moving from yellow to orange/red). More
1360 details can be found in Mignan et al. (submitted).

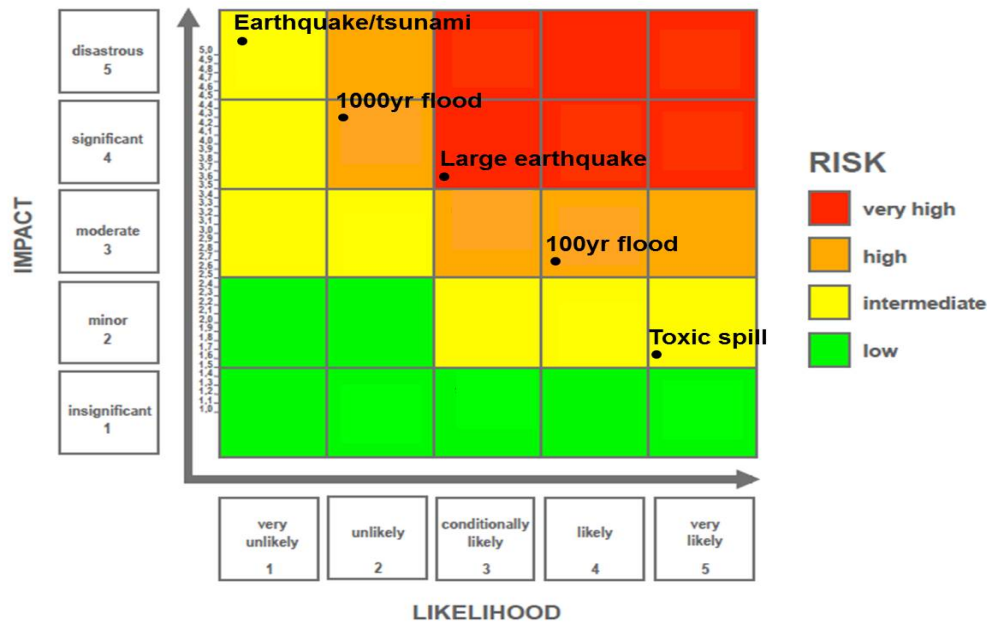


1361
 1362 **Figure A1:** Example of risk migration matrix generated by the generic multi-risk
 1363 framework. Black and white dots represent risk scenarios where hazard
 1364 interactions are or are not included, respectively. Risk increase is represented in
 1365 red and risk decrease in blue. Source: Mignan et al. (submitted).
 1366

1367 *A2. Decision Support Tool*

1368 Impact values for each hazard scenario can be inputted into the decision support
 1369 tool as both numerical values (either single value or probabilistic distribution) or
 1370 nominal categories where the numbers are simply labels that can be expressed
 1371 in categories such as: “catastrophic”, “large”, “moderate”, “small” and
 1372 “irrelevant”. For impacts such as casualties and capital stock losses, where the
 1373 required vulnerability functions are typically available, impacts are computed
 1374 using loss estimation models (e.g. CAPRA, HAZUS, etc.).
 1375

1376 In other cases, for example intangible impacts such as political implications,
 1377 where impacts cannot be computed in a numeric form, an expert-driven
 1378 participatory modeling approach is used to assign nominal rankings for these
 1379 types of impacts along each of the considered hazard scenarios. The spatial
 1380 extent and temporal dimensions (i.e. immediate vs. short, mid- and long-term)
 1381 of impact have to be clearly defined in the expert solicitation process. As the
 1382 participatory modeling process is likely to produce a spread in the results, the
 1383 decision-support tool provides the ability to assign a probability distribution
 1384 around the impact classification (for example loss in an intangible category such
 1385 as “political implications” may be judged by experts to be 0.25 catastrophic, 0.50
 1386 large, 0.20 moderate, 0.05 small and 0 irrelevant) (figure A2).

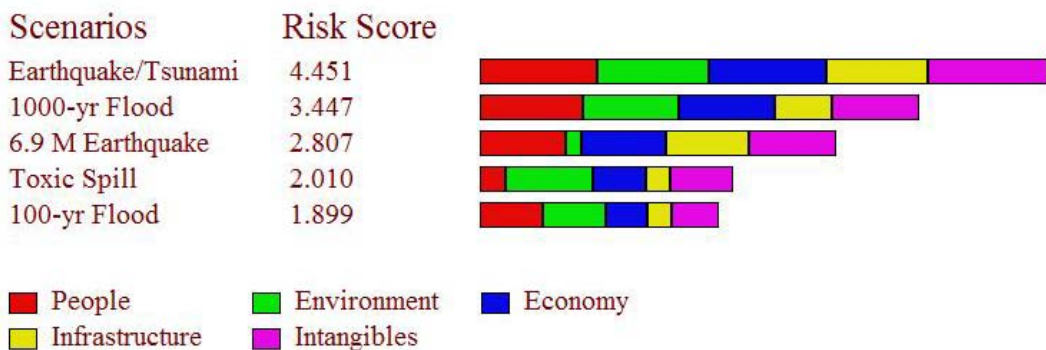


Hazard Type	Probability of Occurrence	Frequency	Impact				
			People	Economy	Environment	Infrastructure	Intangibles
Earthquake	1 in 475 years	conditionally likely	significant	moderate	insignificant	significant	significant
Earthquake / Tsunami	1 in 10,000 years	Very Unlikely	disastrous	disastrous	moderate	disastrous	significant
Extremely rare Flood	1 in 1000 years	Unlikely	significant	significant	disastrous	significant	significant
Regulatory Flood	1 in 100 years	Likely	minor	Insignificant	moderate	moderate	moderate
Toxic Spill	1 in 20 years	Very likely	insignificant	Insignificant	significant	insignificant	insignificant

1388 **Figure A2:** Methodology of the decision-support tool, where scenarios are
 1389 ranked in the risk matrix (right). Source: BBK, 2010

1390
 1391 According to this approach, the sectoral losses are combined together as a
 1392 weighted sum into one single aggregated *loss score* for each scenario (figure A3).
 1393 Together, these two steps (i.e., severity and loss scores) are combined to produce
 1394 a *composite impact score* or each scenario.

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1397 **Figure A3a:** Total risk/impact score and ranking shown for each of the scenarios
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Figure A3b: Graph showing sensitivity of the total risk score to changes in weights of the "People" losses criteria

For example, in figure 4a, it can be seen that the offshore earthquake triggering a tsunami is deemed to have a much greater risk score than the toxic spill. As the total risk index for each scenario is determined as the aggregate weighted sum of each of the loss measures in each of the different sectors, the risk index ranking will also depend, of course, on the weights given to each sector.

Next, the decision support software is used in a group setting to discuss the weighting outcomes and interactively examine the variability of the ranking results. For example, a sensitivity graph can be used to see the effect on the rankings as the weights are changed. In figure 4b it can be seen that as more weight is given to the casualties, short- and long-term mass care represented by the "People" criteria, the risk score for the toxic spill decreases considerably. This is due to the fact that the toxic spill scenario produces none to very few fatalities and has an insignificant impact on mass care. As a result, when all the weight is given to only one measure, in this case human losses, the risk score for this scenario is minimal. On the other hand the risk score of all other scenarios goes up, but importantly the relative rankings between them stays the same.