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Managing uncertainty in design flood magnitude: Flexible protection strategies vs. safety factors

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11

Abstract

12 When planning flood protection, agencies are confronted with uncertainty in the design flood
13 magnitude. In particular, the required capacity may increase in the future and render the protection
14 insufficient. This problem can be addressed by applying a safety factor to the design capacity. We
15 propose a Bayesian quantitative sequential decision model that identifies a cost-optimal safety
16 factor in the face of uncertainty. It takes into account the flexibility of the protection system, i.e.
17 how costly it is to adjust. We focus on the description of the decision model and on the concept of
18 flexibility, investigating only the effect of uncertainty from the historic flood record. Extension to
19 other types of uncertainty is possible. The model is implemented for a catchment in Germany.
20 Various degrees of uncertainty are investigated by using different lengths of historic records. The
21 optimal safety factor decreases with decreasing uncertainty and with increasing system flexibility.

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Key words

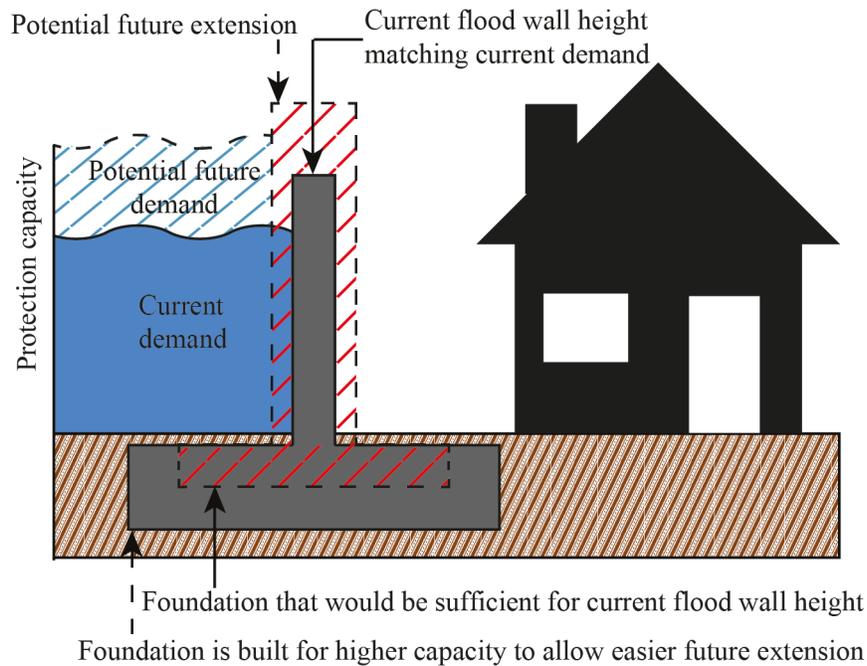
24 Bayesian decision analysis, decision support under uncertainty, flexible protection strategies,
25 flood protection, safety factor, natural hazards, uncertainty quantification

26

1 Introduction

27 Building flood protection systems against design flood events with a prescribed return period is a
28 common practice in many countries. For example, protection against a 100-year flood is required
29 for most built areas in Germany and several other European countries (Deutsche Vereinigung für
30 Wasserwirtschaft Abwasser und Abfall e.V., 2011; Central European Flood Risk Assessment and
31 Management, 2013); delta regions in the Netherlands have to be protected against up to a 10.000-
32 year flood (Kabat *et al.*, 2005; Bischiniotis *et al.*, 2016). Estimates of the magnitude of a design
33 flood are, however, subject to uncertainty due to limited historic data, uncertainty in projections
34 of climate change impacts or uncertainty in socioeconomic development (Apel *et al.*, 2004; Hall
35 and Solomatine, 2008; Schanze, 2012), as well as complexities, biases and unknowns (Merz *et al.*,
36 2015). Multiple approaches exist to deal with uncertainties in flood risk estimates (Hallegatte,
37 2009; Kwakkel *et al.*, 2010; Samuels *et al.*, 2010). These include the application of safety factors
38 to the initial design or the construction of flexible flood protection systems. The safety factor is
39 the ratio between the applied capacity of the flood protection system and the capacity that would
40 be selected without taking into account the uncertainties. Such safety factors are used in practice;
41 for example, in Bavaria, a safety factor of 1.15 – i.e. 15% spare capacity – is applied to the 100-
42 year design flood discharge when planning novel mitigation measures to account for climate
43 change uncertainty (Pohl, 2013; Wiedemann and Slowacek, 2013). Such factors are typically
44 implemented based on rule-of-thumb estimates rather than a rigorous quantitative analysis
45 (KLIWA, 2005, 2006). In particular, they do not consider the flexibility of the system.

46 Flexible flood protection systems are systems that can be modified without excessive cost in the
47 future, when more information is available or when the demands on the system are altered because
48 of anthropogenic or climate change (Vrijling *et al.*, 2007). Flexible protection systems and systems
49 can be a good solution when uncertainty is high since they allow for shorter planning horizons
50 through sequential planning (U.S. Climate Change Science Program, 2009; Löwe *et al.*, 2017).
51 Figure 1 shows an example of a flood wall that is flexible: a larger foundation than necessary is
52 built initially, at extra cost, to allow for a future extension if needed. An alternative example is the
53 reservation of land for future construction of a retention basin that would further increase the
54 protection of the settlement.



55

56 **Figure 1.** An example of a flexible flood protection measure - a flood wall. Adapted from
57 (Vrijling *et al.*, 2007).

58 The challenge is in determining the optimal design, i.e. the safety factor, taking into account the
59 flexibility of the flood protection system. It is not economical to apply the same safety factor to
60 flexible systems as to inflexible ones since the former can be adapted in the future without
61 excessive cost. Hence it is necessary to find a relationship between the optimal safety factor and
62 system flexibility. Additionally, one may wish to quantify the value of flexibility, since it typically
63 comes at an additional cost. When the choice is among systems with varying flexibility, questions
64 arise such as: Is it worth investing in a flexible system, which is potentially more expensive
65 initially? Or is it more cost-effective to select an inflexible system and apply a high safety factor
66 (a conservative design) that would be satisfactory under multiple future scenarios?

67 Classical cost-benefit analysis (Griffin, 1998; Hine and Hall, 2010; Špačková and Straub, 2015)
68 does not take into account the flexibility of the system. It does not address the fact that additional
69 information will be gathered in the future, which may motivate system adjustments. Optimization
70 of flexible flood management under uncertainty in a sequential manner has e.g. been considered
71 in (Woodward *et al.*, 2011; Harvey, Hall and Peppé, 2012; Hino and Hall, 2017). In these studies,
72 uncertainty on the future is expressed by means of selected discrete scenarios with associated
73 probabilities; the optimization is performed among a discrete set of alternative decisions. In
74 contrast, in our approach we represent the uncertainty by continuous random variables, explicitly
75 include the future learning process by means of Bayesian analysis, and consider a continuous space
76 of decision alternatives.

77 We propose a fully quantitative sequential probabilistic decision model for optimizing flood
78 protection capacity, which considers the flexibility of the flood protection systems. It takes basis
79 in Bayesian decision theory (Raiffa and Schlaifer, 1961; Benjamin and Cornell, 1970; Davis *et al.*,
80 1972). The theory allows modelling decisions sequentially, thereby accounting for future
81 information (e.g. discharge measurements). The initial capacity is optimized considering possible
82 future adjustments of the capacity at regular intervals. The theory provides a natural way to 1)
83 model decisions using the full spectrum of uncertainty rather than individual scenarios and 2)
84 model a sequential process in which new information that becomes available only in the future can
85 be accounted for. The theory has been used to optimize adaptation to climate change (Hobbs, 1997;
86 Garrè and Friis-Hansen, 2013; Simpson *et al.*, 2016), yet never in the form of a comprehensive
87 study on flood management. Our framework allows one to both quantify the value of flexibility
88 (Špačková and Straub, 2017) – the savings that can be incurred by a more flexible measure – as
89 well as the value of information (Winkler *et al.*, 1983) – i.e. the savings that can be incurred by
90 reducing parameter uncertainty.

91 For demonstration purposes, only the uncertainty in flood predictions due to limited discharge
92 records is considered in this paper. Such uncertainty is known as statistical uncertainty (Wood and
93 Rodriguez-Iturbe, 1975), but in the following we use the more general term *parameter uncertainty*
94 instead (Kennedy and O’Hagan, 2001; Der Kiureghian and Ditlevsen, 2009). This should
95 emphasize that the framework is applicable more generally to uncertainty in parameters of flood
96 models, for example the parameter space could be extended to include a trend parameter stemming
97 from climate change uncertainty. The Bayesian approach makes it possible to easily include other
98 sources of information, such as climate projections and hydrological conditions (Viglione *et al.*,
99 2013).

100 We propose a methodology in Section 2 for identifying the optimal flood protection strategy as a
101 function of the parameter uncertainty, the flexibility of a flood protection system, its cost and
102 discounting functions. The case study in Section 3 allows one to numerically investigate the effect
103 of these factors on the optimal flood protection. Finally, we discuss to what extent these results
104 can be generalized to make overall recommendations on flood protection under parameter
105 uncertainty in Section .

106 **2 Methodology**

107 We begin the methodology by providing background information on uncertainty in design flood
108 estimation and the resulting setup of the proposed framework in Section 2.1. In Section 2.2, models
109 for flexibility and cost of protection systems are presented. Learning and updating of the annual
110 maximum discharge model are described in Section 2.3. Finally, optimization to find the cost-
111 optimal decision is outlined in Section 2.4.

112 **Key words**

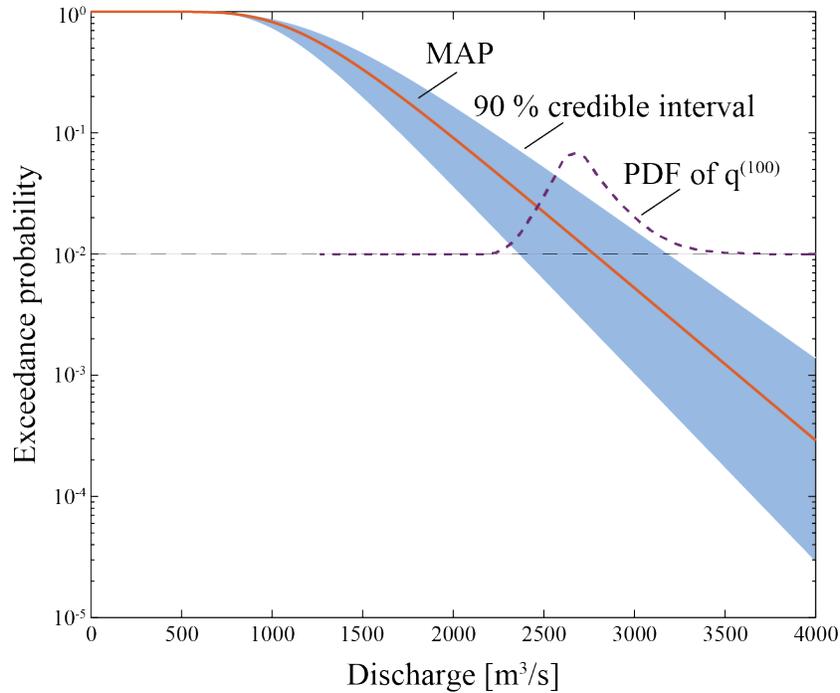
113 **Abstract** Essential decision making in flood protection planning is to determine the optimal
 114 capacity to be implemented at present, considering potential future adjustments
 115 observations changes of the system. Decision on flood protection are commonly
 116 based on T -year design flood return period. This critical corresponds to requiring protection against
 117 an annual exceedance probability equal to $1/T$. The flood magnitude in this
 118 case is determined by the distribution, whose annual maxima follow a probability distribution with
 119 parameters Θ . The T -year event is $q^{(T)}$, and it holds

$$1 - F_{Q|\Theta}(q^{(T)}|\Theta) = \frac{1}{T} \Leftrightarrow q^{(T)} = F_{Q|\Theta}^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{1}{T}|\Theta\right), \quad (1)$$

120 The CDF $F_{Q|\Theta}$ and $F_{Q|\Theta}^{-1}$ is the inverse CDF of the annual maximum discharge Q . The
 121 distribution is therefore a function of the discharge distribution parameters, it is written as
 122 $F_{Q|\Theta}$.

123 The parameters Θ are subject to parameter uncertainty, which in a Bayesian analysis
 124 is described by a probability distribution over Θ . The effect of this uncertainty on the
 125 distribution is illustrated in Figure 2. In most practical applications, this uncertainty is
 126 neglected, and a joint estimate $\hat{\Theta}$ is applied, such as the Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE)
 127 or the Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP), which is identical to the MLE in the case of a uniform prior
 128 over Θ (Pappas and Beven, 2006). To include uncertainty, instead the predictive distribution
 129 of the annual maximum discharge Q – the distribution of future Q based on past observations –
 130 should be evaluated (Hall *et al.*, 2011).

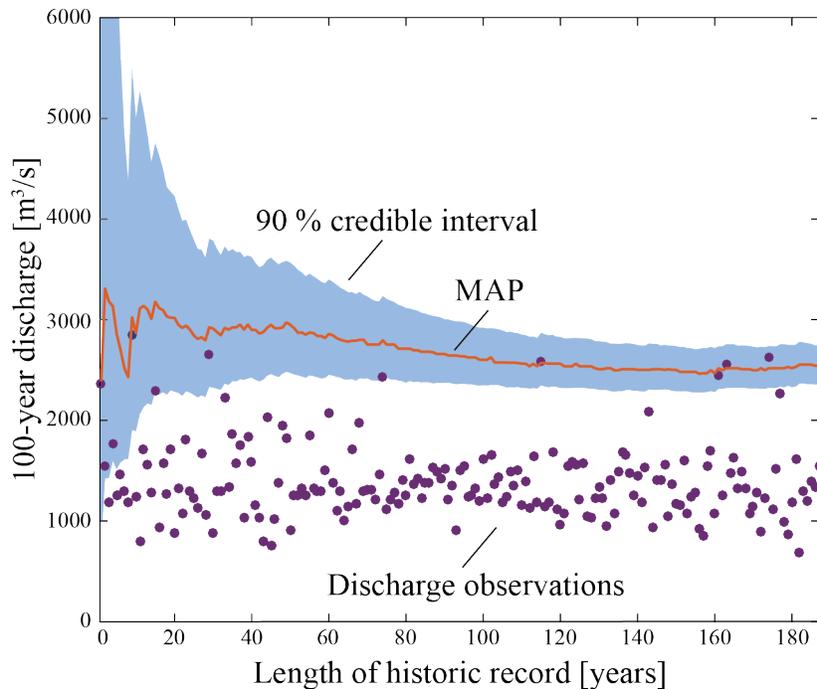
131 Figure 3 highlights the relation between the inherent variability of the extreme discharges, as
 132 described by $F_{Q|\Theta}$, and the uncertainty in the parameters Θ reflected by the credible intervals on
 133 $F_{Q|\Theta}$. The latter can be reduced by collecting additional data or improving models, but the former
 134 will persist.



135

136 **Figure 2.** Exceedance probability and associated 90% credible interval (shaded) as a function of
137 discharge. The dashed PDF represents the uncertainty on the 100-year discharge prediction. The
138 figure is based on a 31-year data record from the case study (viz. Section 3) under the
139 assumption of a Gumbel distribution.

140 In the case where the flood model is learned purely based on past discharge records, the parameter
141 uncertainty is associated with the length of the records, as apparent from Figure 3. The credible
142 interval width decreases as the available data series becomes longer.



143

144 **Figure 3.** 100-year design discharge estimate (MAP) and associated 90% credible interval as a
145 function of the historic data record length. Annual maximum discharge data (shown as dots) are
146 for a gauge in Wasserburg am Inn, Germany, for the period from 1828 to 2013. The 100-year
147 discharge is estimated under the assumption of a stationary Gumbel distribution, neglecting
148 measurement uncertainty (viz. Section 3).

149 Before we proceed to quantitatively outline the methodology, we summarize four cornerstones of
150 the proposed framework:

151 (1) Multiple future decision steps are considered, at which the protection capacity can be
152 revised. Each future decision includes an optimization of the protection capacity.

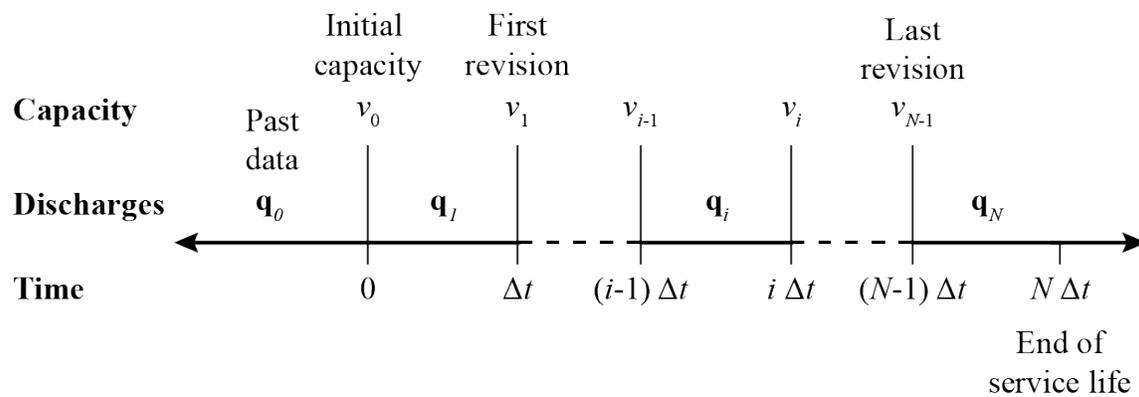
153 (2) The flexibility of the protection systems is included as an explicit parameter of the
154 decision problem.

155 (3) The potential future observations are modelled stochastically. They consist of records
156 of annual maximum discharges.

157 (4) The annual maximum discharge is described by a probability distribution with
158 parameters Θ .

159

160 The timeline of planning process in the capacity
 161 protection v_1, \dots, v_{N-1} are decided at $t = \Delta t, \dots, N \Delta t$. Each step
 162 consists of Δt years, during which the discharge q is made.
 163 These form the observation vector $\mathbf{q}_i = [q_{(i-1)\Delta t+1}, \dots, q_{i\Delta t}]$. At time $t = 0$ years, a
 164 decision on the initial capacity v_0 is made based on historic discharge records \mathbf{q}_H . The
 165 observations \mathbf{q}_N in last step of the planning process in N have no influence on planning, as the
 166 lifetime of the protection ends at time $t = N \times \Delta t$ and no further decision is considered. This
 167 seems like a simplification of the problem, as infrastructure is rarely discarded at the end of the
 168 planned service life. One may think of this lifetime as the timespan of analysis. It can be more
 169 precise to model the flood protection with an infinite lifetime, considering partial or full
 170 replacements at future time steps. However, in practice there is little difference among the results
 171 of these two model approaches, because costs that are incurred far ahead in the future have only
 172 a small impact on the total present value lifetime cost and risk, due to discounting (Rackwitz,
 173 2004). They therefore do not affect the initial decisions, which are the focus of this analysis.



174

175 **Figure 4.** Timeline of decisions on capacity v and observations of discharges \mathbf{q} in an
 176 optimization process of N steps.

177 The key parameters of the proposed framework are summarized in Table 1.

178 **Table 1.** Overview of parameters of the decision model

Id.	Parameter/variable	Type	Value domain	Units
Q	Annual max. discharge	Random	$[0, \infty)$	m^3/s
Θ	Parameters of prob. model of Q	Random	$[0, \infty)$	-
\mathbf{q}_i	Future observations of Q	Random	$[0, \infty)$	m^3/s
v_i	Capacity of flood protection system	Decision	$[1, \infty)$	m^3/s
v_{req}	Required protection capacity	Random	$[1, \infty)$	m^3/s
γ_i	Safety factor	Decision	$[1, \infty)$	-
c_i	Protection cost	Deterministic	$[0, \infty)$	€
φ	Flexibility of flood protection system	Decision	$(-\infty, 1]$	-

179

180 **2.2 Cost and flexibility of flood protection systems**

181 The flexibility φ of flood protection systems is defined in terms of their cost. Following (Špačková
182 and Straub, 2017), it is:

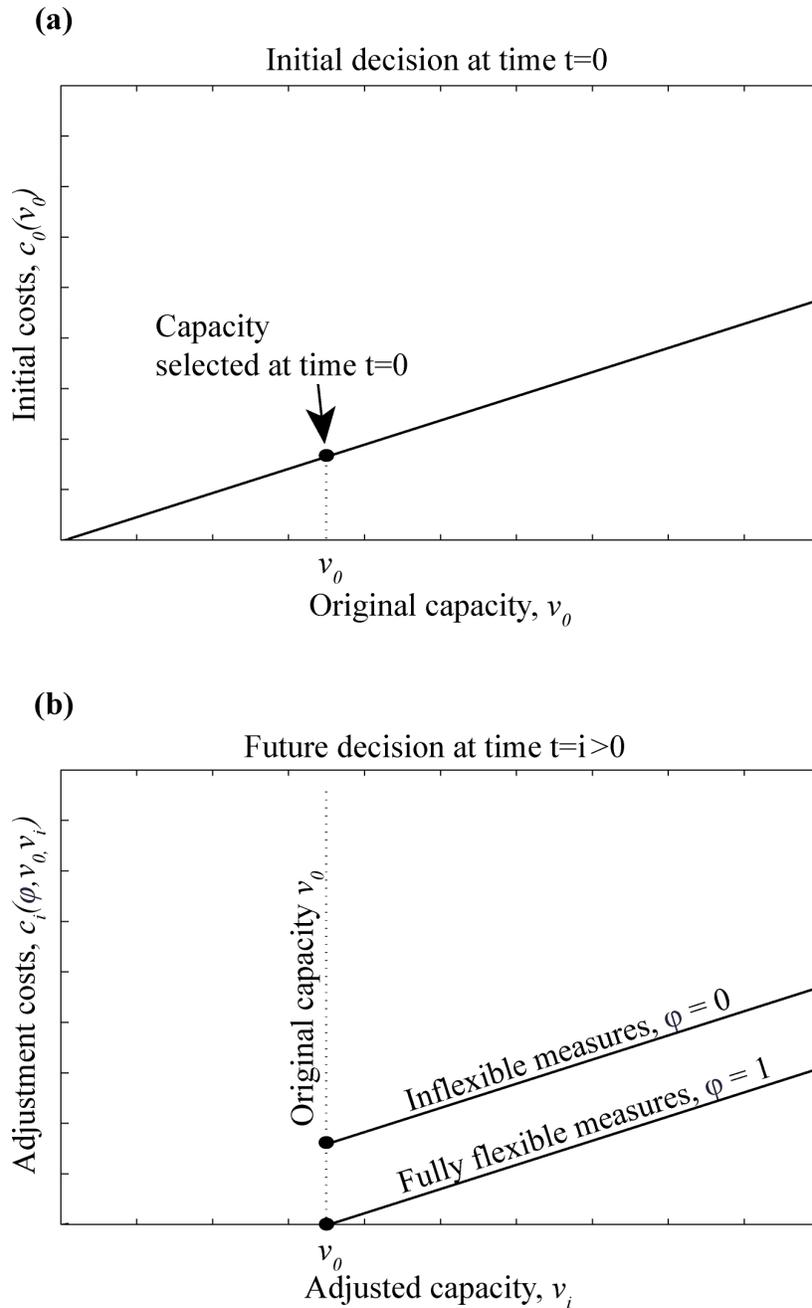
$$\varphi = \frac{c_0(v_i) - c_i(v_{i-1}, v_i)}{c_0(v_{i-1})}, \quad (2)$$

183 where $c_0(v)$ is the cost of establishing the system to capacity v initially, i.e. when the system is
184 first implemented, and $c_i(v_{i-1}, v_i)$ is the undiscounted cost of adjusting the protection capacity at
185 a future time from v_{i-1} to v_i . $\varphi = 0$ corresponds to an inflexible system and $\varphi = 1$ to a fully
186 flexible system. This definition of flexibility is illustrated in Figure 5.

187 For the inflexible system ($\varphi = 0$), the cost of increasing the capacity to v_i is identical to an entirely
188 new system with this capacity. For fully flexible systems ($\varphi = 1$), the cost of increasing the
189 protection to v_i equals the difference in cost between building to v_{i-1} initially and building to v_i
190 initially, i.e. no additional costs are incurred by building in two (or more) steps.

191 For optimization purposes, it is useful to express the adjustment cost as a function of flexibility.
192 Based on Eq. (2), the costs of adjusting the capacity from v_{i-1} to v_i equals

$$c_i(\varphi, v_{i-1}, v_i) = c_0(v_i) - \varphi \times c_0(v_{i-1}). \quad (3)$$



195 **Figure 5.** Illustration of the costs for fully flexible vs. inflexible systems (Špačková and Straub,
 196 2017): **(a)** Initial cost c_0 when the system is first implemented. **(b)** Cost c_i for adjustment of the
 197 system to a higher capacity v_i . For the inflexible systems, the adjustment costs are equal to the
 198 costs c_0 incurred when implementing directly capacity v_i . For the fully flexible system ($\varphi = 1$),
 199 the adjustment costs are equal to the difference between the initial costs of the unadjusted and the
 200 adjusted system.

201 **2.3 Bayesian analysis of extreme discharge and determination of required protection**
 202 **capacity**

203 This section summarizes the Bayesian analysis of the annual maximum discharge Q . The
 204 parameters Θ of the probability distribution of Q are learned from the data.

205 Initial annual maximum discharge data $\mathbf{q}_H = [q_1, \dots, q_M]$ from M years are available. The
 206 posterior joint PDF of the parameters Θ is determined from these data as:

$$f_{\Theta|Q}(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_H) \propto L(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_H) \times f_{\Theta}(\Theta), \quad (4)$$

207 where $f_{\Theta}(\Theta)$ is the prior distribution of the parameters and $L(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_H)$ is the likelihood of the
 208 parameters given the observations. The discharge maxima can be assumed to be independent
 209 between individual years (Coles, 2004). Neglecting measurement error, the likelihood function in
 210 Eq. (4) is formulated as

$$L(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_H) = \prod_{j=1}^M f_{Q|\Theta}(q_j|\Theta), \quad (5)$$

211 with $f_{Q|\Theta}$ being the PDF of Q for given parameters Θ .

212 After the initial design and implementation of flood protection, one continues to observe discharge
 213 maxima as sketched in Figure 4, each planning step i corresponds to a time interval with length
 214 Δt with n observations $\mathbf{q}_i = [q_{(i-1)\times\Delta t}, \dots, q_{i\times\Delta t}]$. These data are included in the Bayesian
 215 analysis by sequentially updating the estimate of Θ . The posterior joint PDF of Θ at time $t =$
 216 $i \times \Delta t$

$$f_{\Theta|Q}(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) \propto L(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_i) \times f_{\Theta|Q}(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{i-1}), \quad (6)$$

217 where $f_{\Theta|Q}(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{i-1})$ is the joint PDF of Θ obtained in the previous step of the sequential
 218 updating at time $t = (i-1) \times \Delta t$ and $L(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_i)$ is the likelihood function describing the
 219 observations \mathbf{q}_i , which is defined analogously to Eq. (5).

220 The conditional probability of observing discharges \mathbf{q}_{i+1} in time step $i+1$ for given history of
 221 previous discharges $\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i$ is the predictive distribution

$$f_Q(\mathbf{q}_{i+1}|\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) = \int_{\Theta} f_{Q|\Theta}(\mathbf{q}_{i+1}|\Theta) \times f_{\Theta|Q}(\Theta|\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) d\Theta, \quad (7)$$

222 where we use the convention $\int_{\Theta} d\Theta = \int_{\theta_1} \dots \int_{\theta_n} d\theta_1 \dots d\theta_n$.

223 The required protection capacity at time $t = i \times \Delta t$ is found
 224 $\hat{\theta}_i$ defined as

MAP estimate

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} f_{\theta|Q}(\theta | \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots) \quad (8)$$

225 The minimal required protection capacity at time step i is v_{req}
 226 flood event determined by parameters $\hat{\theta}_i$. Following Eq. (1), it

responding to the T-year

$$v_{req}(\hat{\theta}_i) = q^{(T)}(\hat{\theta}_i) = F_{Q|\theta}^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{1}{T} \middle| \hat{\theta}_i\right) \quad (9)$$

227 where the inverse CDF $F_{Q|\theta}^{-1}$ is evaluated with parameters $\hat{\theta}_i$.

228 It follows from Eqs. (8)-(9) that the required capacity $v_{req}(\hat{\theta}_i)$ is a function of the
 229 data $\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i$:

$$v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) = F_{Q|\theta}^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{1}{T} \middle| \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta}(f_{\theta|Q}(\theta | \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i))\right), \quad (10)$$

230 The safety factor is defined in this context as the ratio between the implemented capacity and the
 231 required protection capacity:

$$\gamma = \frac{v_{imp}}{v_{req}}. \quad (11)$$

232 For example, $\gamma = 1.1$ corresponds to including a 10% reserve above the minimum required
 233 protection capacity.

234 2.4 Optimization of the protection capacity

235 The goal is to find a cost-optimal strategy ensuring adequate protection capacity over the lifetime
 236 of the system, taking into account the flexibility of the system. Protection must be increased
 237 whenever the actual capacity is smaller than the required protection capacity (T -year discharge).
 238 The minimum capacity is v_{req} , but it can be increased beyond the required protection capacity if
 239 this is expected to be cost effective over the remaining lifetime of the protection. The total lifetime
 240 cost of the flood protection system, in function of the N decisions on protection capacity
 241 v_0, \dots, v_{N-1} , is:

$$c_{tot}(\varphi, v_0, \dots, v_{N-1}) = c_0(\varphi, v_0) + \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} d_i \times c_i(\varphi, v_{i-1}, v_i), \quad (12)$$

242 λ_0 and $c_i(\varphi, v_{i-1}, v_i)$ are the
 243 cost of increasing the protection level from v_{i-1} to v_i , reflecting the societal preference for
 244 a higher level of protection. The total cost of increasing the protection level from v_0 to v_i is given by

$$C_i(\varphi, v_0, v_i) = \sum_{k=1}^i c_k(\varphi, v_{k-1}, v_k) \quad (13)$$

245 where t is the time between decisions in years.
 246 The total cost of increasing the protection level from v_0 to v_i over the whole lifetime of the protection is given by
 247 the sum of the costs of increasing the protection level from v_0 to v_i at each time step, under the
 248 assumption that the protection level is constant at v_i for the remainder of the lifetime of the protection.

249 Two approaches are pursued: (1) A ‘top down’
 250 factor, in which the capacity at each time step is determined by the protection level at that time.
 251 This approach has the advantage of being simple to implement, but it leads only to a sub-optimal
 252 solution, because it does not take into account the fact that the protection level can be increased
 253 sequentially backwards induction. (2) A ‘bottom up’ approach, in which the protection level is determined
 254 sequentially backwards induction. This approach is more demanding but leads to optimal
 255 decisions. The total cost of increasing the protection level from v_0 to v_i is given by
 256
$$C_i(\varphi, v_0, v_i) = \sum_{k=1}^i c_k(\varphi, v_{k-1}, v_k) \quad (14)$$

257
 258 over the whole lifetime of the protection is given by
 259
$$C_i(\varphi, v_0, v_i) = \sum_{k=1}^i c_k(\varphi, v_{k-1}, v_k) \quad (14)$$

260 If the required protection level, $v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i)$, exceeds the existing protection level, then the protection level is
 261 increased to $v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i)$.

$$v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) \quad (15)$$

262 At every modification. The protection for the final step
 263 $v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N-1}) > v_{N-2}$, then protection is increased to $v_{N-1} =$
 264 $v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N-1})$ only, since there is no benefit in incorporating a reserve at the end of the
 265 lifetime of the protection.

266 With this heuristic, the decisions at all time steps are fully determined for given safety factor γ and
 267 discharge data $\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i$. To summarize,

$$v_i(\gamma, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) = \begin{cases} > v_{i-1} \text{ and } i \in [1, \dots, N - 2] \\ v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) > v_{i-1} \text{ and } i = N - 1 \\ v_{i-1}, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

268 The only decision to be made is the
 269 according to Eq. (16). The randomne
 270 factor γ is fixed, the decision tree th
 271 total lifetime cost is determined as

nce the capacities to be built are determined
 the discharges $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N-1}$. Once the safety
 an event tree. The corresponding expected

$$E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma] = c_0(\varphi, v_{i-1}(\gamma, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i)) + \int_Q f_Q(\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i | \mathbf{q}_H) \times c_i(\varphi, v_{i-1}(\gamma, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i)) d\mathbf{q}_1 \dots d\mathbf{q}_i \quad (17)$$

272 Where $c_0(\cdot)$ and $c_i(\cdot)$ are initial and
 273 of Eq. (13), $f_Q(\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i | \mathbf{q}_H)$ is the
 274 maximum discharge data \mathbf{q}_H and $v_i(\gamma, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i)$ is the selected capacity following Eq. (16).
 275 Evaluation of Eq. (17) by Monte Carlo sampling is straightforward.

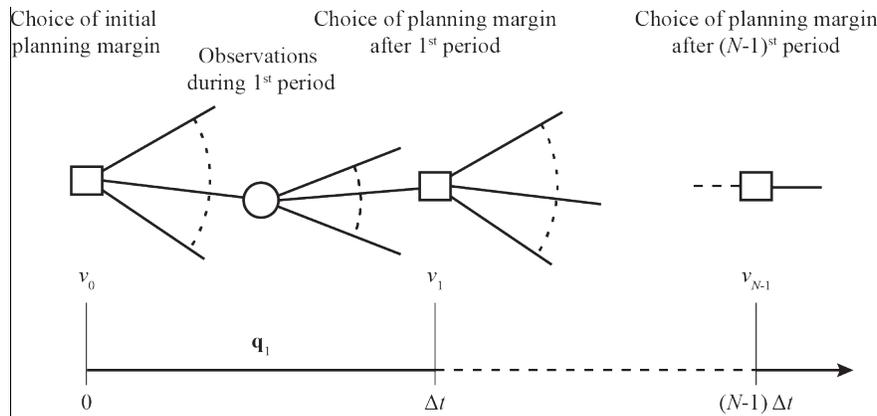
(see Section 2.2), d_i is the discounting factor
 observations $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i$ given the past annual

276 The optimal safety factor γ^{opt} for a given flexibility φ is the one minimizing the expected lifetime
 277 cost:

$$\gamma^{opt}(\varphi) = \underset{\gamma}{\operatorname{argmin}} E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma]. \quad (18)$$

278 2.4.2 Backwards induction optimization

279 Backwards induction optimizes safety factors individually for each decision step, finding the
 280 optimal solution recursively from the last decision to the initial one. It explores the full solution
 281 space and leads to more cost-effective solutions than the heuristic approach. It does, however,
 282 come at a significantly higher computational cost. The decision process is visualised in Figure 6,
 283 with three exemplary discharges / capacities highlighted amongst a continuous spectrum.



284

285 **Figure 6.** Decision tree
286 decisions and

ls induction optimization. Squares represent protection
observations of annual maximum discharge.

287

288 The optimal safety fact
289 expected lifetime cost, γ_i^{opt}

or capacity v_i after the i^{th} step is the one minimizing the
previous decisions and data:

$$\gamma_i^{opt}(\varphi, v_0, \dots, v_{i-1}, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) = \underset{\gamma_i}{\operatorname{argmin}} E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma_i, v_0, \dots, v_{i-1}, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i]. \quad (19)$$

290 When optimizing the
291 $\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N-1}$ are known

the one on capacity v_{N-1} , the v_0, \dots, v_{N-2} and
the cost is known deterministically:

$$E[c_{tot} | \varphi, v_0, \dots, v_{N-1}, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N-1}] = c_{tot}(\varphi, v_0, \dots, v_{N-1}), \quad (20)$$

292 with $c_{tot}(\varphi, v_0, \dots, v_{N-1})$

Eq. (12).

293 The expected lifetime cost
294 the expected lifetime cost

on capacity v_i at time $i\Delta t$ is calculated recursively from
 Δt :

$$E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma_i, v_0, \dots, v_{i-1}, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i] = \int f_Q(\mathbf{q}_{i+1} | \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) \times E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma_{i+1}, v_0, \dots, v_i(\gamma_i, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i), \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{i+1}] d\mathbf{q}_{i+1}, \quad (21)$$

295 where $f_Q(\mathbf{q}_{i+1} | \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i)$

ditional probability of making observations \mathbf{q}_{i+1} given
the previously (viz. Eq. (7)) and

296 observations $\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i$

the previously (viz. Eq. (7)) and

297 $E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma_{i+1}, v_0, \dots, v_i(\gamma_i, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i), \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{i+1}]$ is the expected lifetime cost known

from the previous step of the recursive relation evaluated at γ_{i+1}^{opt} , i.e. assuming that the optimal

298 from the previous step of the recursive relation evaluated at γ_{i+1}^{opt} , i.e. assuming that the optimal

329 safety elected future. In analogy to Eq. (15), $v_i(\gamma_i, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i) =$
 300 $\gamma_i \times v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i)$.

301 Finally, the optimal initial safety γ_0^{opt} is

$$\gamma_0^{opt} = \underset{\gamma_0}{\operatorname{argmin}} E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma_0, \mathbf{q}_H]. \quad (22)$$

302 The expected total lifetime cost is defined as

$$E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma_0, \mathbf{q}_H] = \int f_Q(\mathbf{q}_1 | \mathbf{q}_H) \times E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma_1^{opt}, v_0(\gamma_0, \mathbf{q}_H), \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1] d\mathbf{q}_1, \quad (23)$$

303 where $f_Q(\mathbf{q}_1 | \mathbf{q}_H)$ is the conditional probability of making observation \mathbf{q}_1 given the historic
 304 data \mathbf{q}_H and $E[c_{tot} | \varphi, \gamma_1^{opt}, v_0(\gamma_0, \mathbf{q}_H), \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1]$ is the expected lifetime cost known from the
 305 previous step of the recursive evaluation at γ_1^{opt} using Monte Carlo sampling. In analogy
 306 to Eq. (14), $v_0(\gamma_0, \mathbf{q}_H) = \gamma_0 \times v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H)$.

307 Because of the Markovian nature of the uncertainty, the decision problem corresponds to the class
 308 of partially observable Markovian decision processes (POMDP). The full solution could therefore
 309 alternatively be found by application of POMDP algorithms for discrete decision problems, as
 310 suggested in (Špačková and Straub, 2017). However, the continuous domains of random variables
 311 and optimization parameters would need to be discretized, leading to a computationally costly
 312 POMDP solution. The proposed tailored solution strategy is computationally efficient, because it
 313 exploits the specifics of the investigated problem. The computational implementation is given in
 314 the appendix.

315

316 **3 Case study**

317 Application of the proposed model is demonstrated by a case study based on gauge data obtained
 318 at the river Inn, in the town of Wasserburg am Inn, Germany. This case study is purposely kept
 319 simple to better investigate and demonstrate the workings of the proposed methodology and to
 320 enable the reader to reproduce the analysis. Extension to more complex applications is discussed
 321 in Section 4.

322 **3.1 Catchment characteristics and assumptions**

323 At gauge Wasserburg am Inn, discharge data have been recorded for 186 years; these are reported
 324 in the Annex. To highlight the effect of parameter uncertainty, we compare results obtained using
 325 different lengths of the discharge records: 31, 62, 93, 124, 155 and the complete 186 years. In the
 326 first case, only the most recent 31 years of the annual maxima are used to mimic an application to

327 a catchment where few data are available and parameter uncertainty is large. In the latter case, the
 328 full data set is used to represent a catchment where long records are available and the parameter
 329 uncertainty is thus significantly lower. The sample mean and standard deviation of the annual
 330 maxima for different lengths of the discharge records are summarized in Table 2. For simplicity
 331 we neglect the uncertainty arising from measurement errors, which are likely to be larger for older
 332 records. Furthermore, the small observed linear trend of $58 \frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{s}}/\text{year}$ is disregarded, as the data
 333 are assumed to be stationary. These choices were made to facilitate interpretation of the results
 334 and to enhance the reproducibility of the study including the measurement uncertainty and a trend
 335 does not fundamentally change the implementation nor the results, as discussed later.

336 We test the model plausibility (MacKay, 1992) when fitting the annual discharge maxima with
 337 Gumbel, Fréchet, Weibull and a GEV distribution. The Gumbel distribution is found to be the
 338 most plausible one over the entire historic record and is applied in the following. It is described
 339 by location parameter μ and scale parameter β : $\theta = (\mu, \beta)$. The joint PDF of μ and β are found
 340 following Eq. (4). A diffuse uniform distribution is used as the prior. The magnitude of the 100
 341 year discharge is computed using Eq. (9). Table 2 summarizes Maximum A-posteriori Estimate
 342 (MAP) and standard deviations for the parameters of the Gumbel distribution as well as the
 343 estimate of the 100-year discharge. The sample standard deviation of the annual maximum
 344 discharge represents the inherent randomness of discharge maxima; the standard deviations of μ
 345 and σ reflect the parameter uncertainty caused by the limited length of available discharge records
 346 and is therefore reduced with increasing data size. The corresponding 90% credible interval for the
 347 100-year-discharge associated with different record length are shown in Figure 3.

348 **Table 2.** Case study data properties

Discharge series length [years]	Data		Fitted probabilistic model					
	Annual maximum discharge [m ³ /s]		Gumbel scale parameter β [m ³ /s]		Gumbel location parameter μ [m ³ /s]		100-year design discharge [m ³ /s]	
	Mean	Std.-dev.	MAP	Std.-dev.	MAP	Std.-dev.	From Eq. (9)	Std.-dev.
31	1471	502	352	147	1255	138	2876	808
62	1449	445	343	96	1250	114	2820	555
93	1424	399	302	70	1248	96	2641	419
124	1416	375	282	58	1252	79	2550	344
155	1398	355	268	50	1244	68	2477	296
186	1398	379	284	49	1233	66	2539	291

349 ^aAnnual maximum discharge at the Vasserburg am Inn gauge, Bavaria, Germany: sample statistics
 350 (heading: Data) and parameters of the fitted Gumbel model (heading: Fitted probabilistic model) for
 351 different lengths of the historic discharge records.

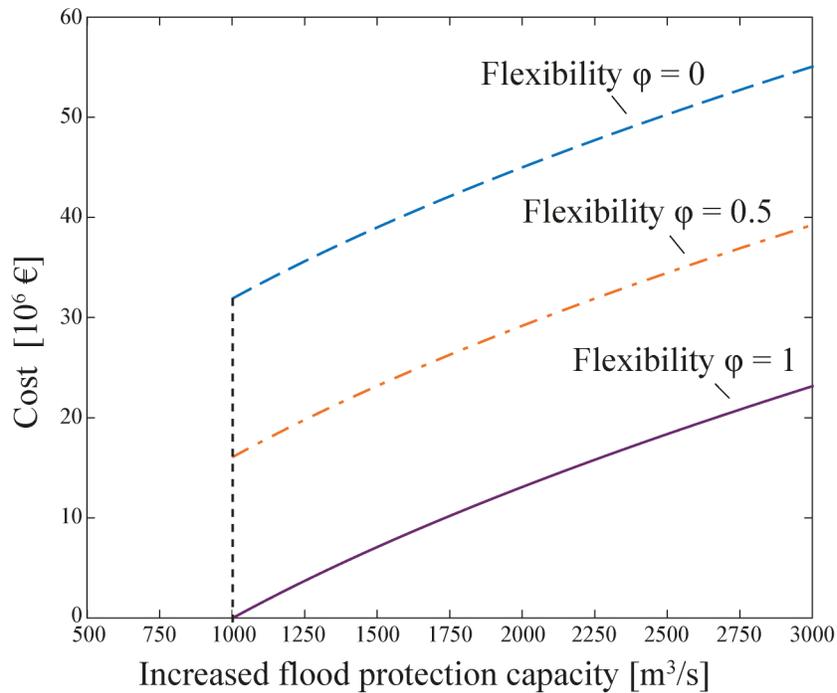
352 We consider the designed flood protection systems to have a lifetime of 80 years, which is the
 353 average lifetime for technical flood protection in Germany (Bund / Länder-Arbeitsgemeinschaft
 354 Wasser, 2005). An initial capacity of the protection system, which is expressed in the form of the
 355 design discharge, must be selected. The decision on the protection capacity will be revised every
 356 20 years, taking into account the discharge records that will be available at these points in time,
 357 which reduce the uncertainty of the annual maximum discharge parameters.

358 As dyke increase costs rise linearly with height (Kok *et al.*, 2008; Jonkman *et al.*, 2013) and
 359 capacity has a quadratic dependence on height, we chose a square root cost function for increasing
 360 flood protection capacity at time $i\Delta t$:

$$c_i(\varphi, v_{i-1}, v_i) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{v_i} - \varphi \times \sqrt{v_{i-1}}, & v_{i-1} < v_i \\ 0. & v_{i-1} = v_i \end{cases} \quad (24)$$

361 φ is the flexibility, v_{i-1} is the original capacity and v_i is the adjusted capacity. The costs of the
 362 initial design v_1 are also calculated through Eq. (24), with $v_0 = 0$.

363 Figure 7 shows the cost function $c_i(\varphi, v_{i-1}, v_i)$ for multiple values of flexibilities when increasing
 364 protection from $v_{i-1} = 1000 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ to a higher capacity.



365
 366 **Figure 7.** Adjustment cost functions for increasing from $1000 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ to some higher capacity for
 367 three different values of flexibility.

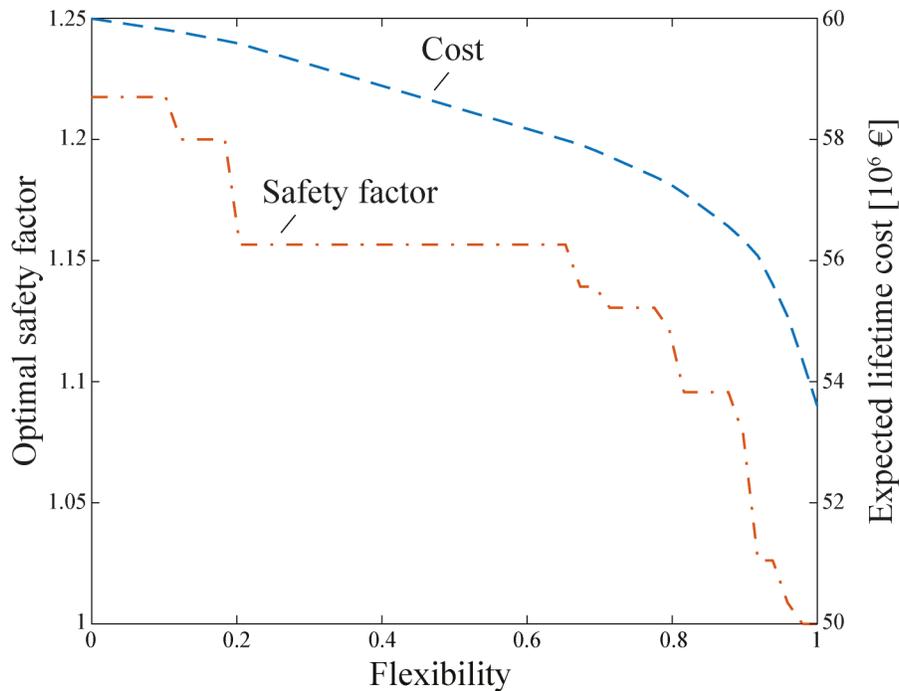
368 A discounting factor (viz. Eq. (13)) of 2% is used, corresponding to the lower bound for technical
 369 flood protection proposed in the literature (Bund / Länder-Arbeitsgemeinschaft Wasser, 2005).
 370 Costs are discounted to time $t = 0$.

371 3.2 Comparison of results from heuristic optimization and backward induction

372 Results of the safety factor optimization for the flood protection system in Wasserburg am Inn are
 373 presented in this section for the case of 31 years of historic records, i.e. assuming a high parameter
 374 uncertainty. Results are computed with the two approaches: the (sub-optimal) heuristic
 375 optimization that provides a strategy with constant safety factor applied throughout the whole
 376 lifetime of the protection system (Section 2.4.1), and the backward induction approach, in which
 377 the safety factors are optimized individually for each decision time and flood records (Section
 378 2.4.2).

379 Figure 8 shows optimal initial safety factor and associated expected lifetime cost obtained with
 380 backwards induction. For systems with low flexibility, it is recommendable to adopt a conservative
 381 approach; the recommended safety factor takes values up to 1.22, corresponding to a reserve of

382 22% over the current estimate of the 100-year discharge. For systems with increased flexibility,
 383 the optimal safety factor is lower, because the systems can more easily be adjusted later when new
 384 data indicates that the 100-year discharge is higher than originally estimated. For $\varphi = 1$, the
 385 recommended safety factor is 1 because adjustment, if necessary, can be done without overhead
 386 cost. There is, however, the caveat that this adjustment would only be done at the next revision
 387 and thus, some decision makers may prefer to add a reserve even in the case of full flexibility. In
 388 addition, a freeboard is always included to mitigate small fluctuations, e.g. in wave height.



389

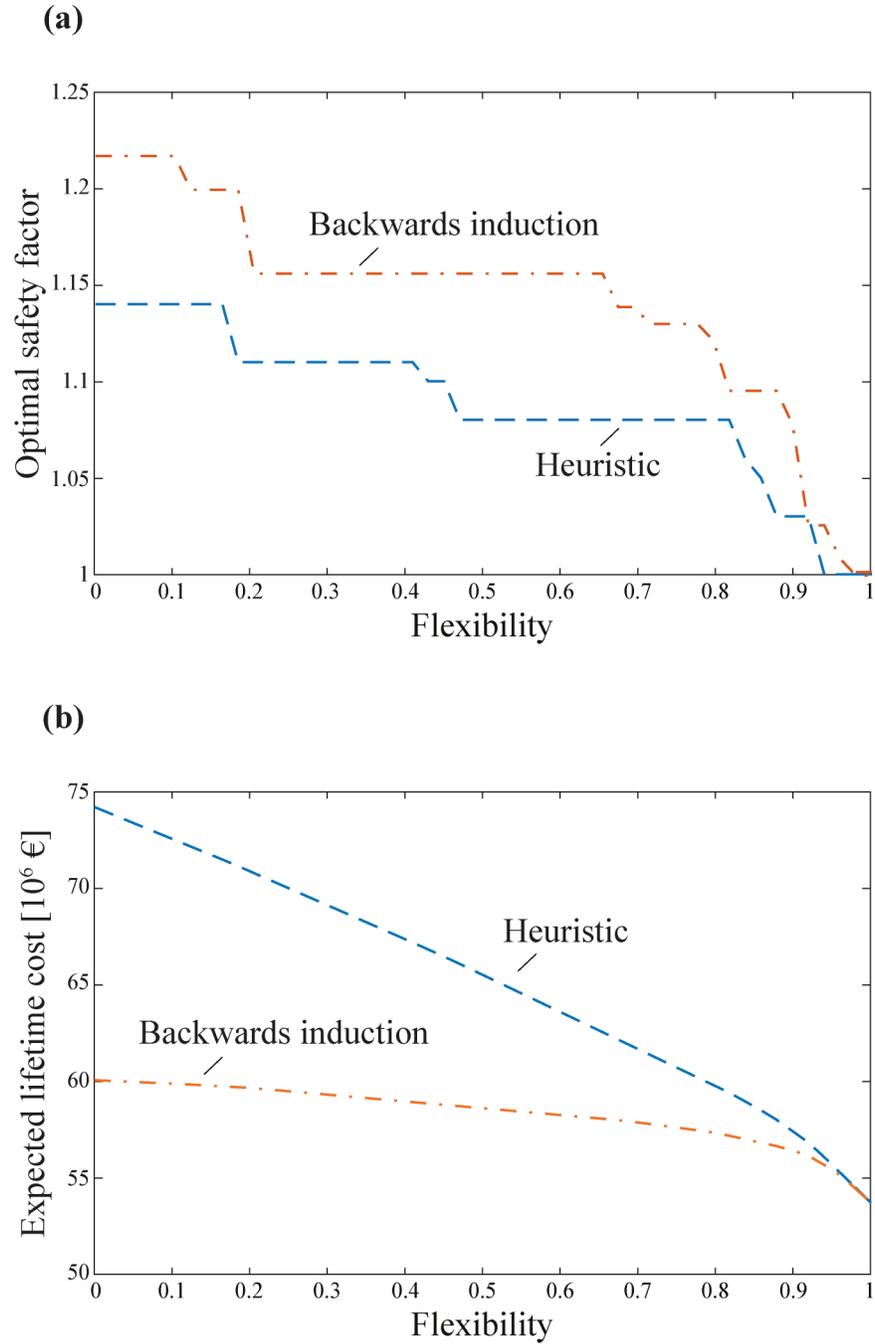
390 **Figure 8.** Results of backward induction for the flood protection, for an initial flood estimate
 391 based on 31 years of historic discharge records: Optimal initial safety factor and expected
 392 discounted lifetime cost depending on flexibility.

393 The expected discounted lifetime cost decreases with flexibility, from 60.0×10^6 € for no
 394 flexibility to 53.6×10^6 € for full flexibility. The difference in the lifetime costs for systems with
 395 different flexibility is the value of flexibility. If a fully flexible system with $\varphi = 1$ is implemented,
 396 the expected net present value of lifetime savings would be 6.4×10^6 € over the non-flexible
 397 system with $\varphi = 0$.

398 Note that the expected lifetime cost includes both initial building costs and anticipated retrofitting
 399 costs. For each value of flexibility, the minimal lifetime cost based on a balance of these two
 400 components is given and this minimal cost decreases smoothly with increasing flexibility.
 401 However, the optimal safety factor that leads to minimal lifetime cost is not continuously decreasing

402 with flexibility because only a discrete set of possible protection levels is considered. Figure 9
403 compares results of the backwards induction with those from the heuristic optimization.
404 Figure 9 (a) shows the recommended initial safety factor. The backwards induction optimization
405 recommends a higher initial safety factor than the heuristic one. This is sensible because the safety
406 factor for the backwards induction optimization is allowed to vary over time. The optimal safety
407 factor is likely to decrease at later time steps when the uncertainty in the estimation of the 100-
408 year discharge is smaller and the remaining lifetime is shorter. In the case of the heuristic
409 optimization, a constant safety factor is applied throughout the lifetime and it is thus lower than
410 the initial safety factor found with the backwards induction. For these reasons, the solution of the
411 heuristic optimization is suboptimal. The discrepancy in the safety factor recommendation
412 between the two approaches reduces as the flexibility of the protection system increases. For full
413 flexibility ($\varphi = 1$), both approaches correctly recommend a safety factor of 1.

414 Figure 9 (b) shows a comparison of the expected lifetime costs incurred when following the
415 recommendation of the two approaches. As expected, the costs of the optimal solution found with
416 the heuristic approach exceed those found with backward induction, which confirms that the
417 heuristic optimization leads to a suboptimal solution. The discrepancy reduces with increased
418 flexibility of the protection system and for full flexibility, the two approaches make the same
419 recommendation and the associated costs are equal.



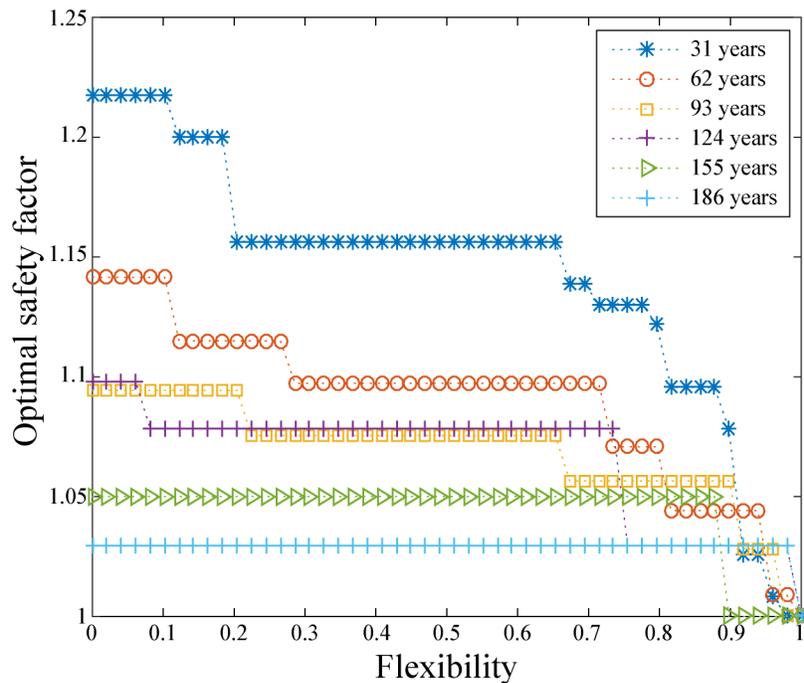
420

421 **Figure 9.** Comparison of heuristic and backwards-induction optimization approach for the case
422 of a 31 years flood record. (a) Optimal initial safety factor and (b) expected lifetime cost.

423 **3.3 Dependence of optimal initial protection capacity on parameter uncertainty**

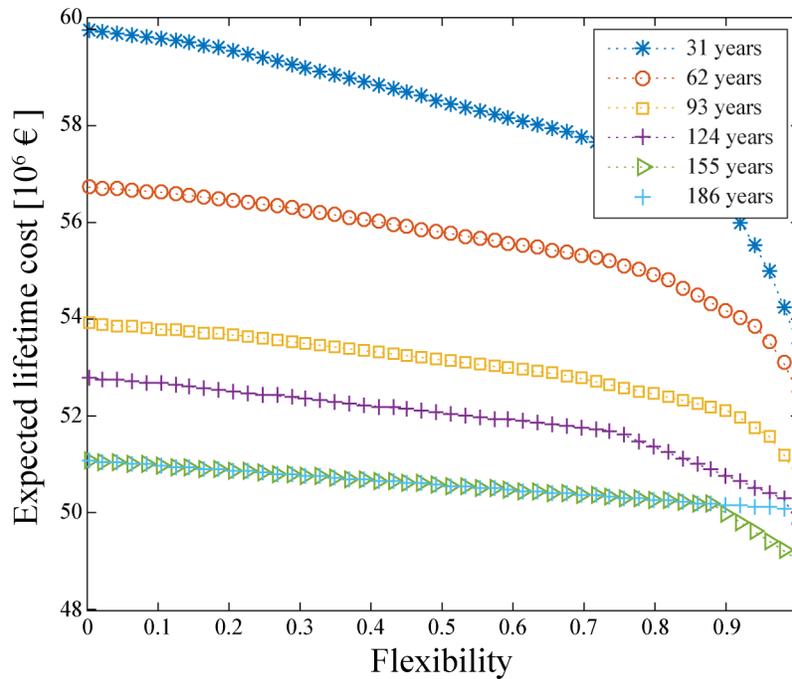
424 We investigate the influence of parameter uncertainty – here caused by finite data record length –
 425 on the optimal safety factor and protection capacity. The following results were obtained by
 426 backwards induction.

427 Figure 10 shows the optimal safety factor recommendation depending on flexibility for varying
 428 lengths of flood records. As expected, the optimal initial protection increases with increasing
 429 parameter uncertainty (i.e. with decreasing flood records).



430
 431 **Figure 10.** Optimal initial safety factor as a function of the flexibility of the protection system,
 432 for varying length of the initial discharge record (associated with varying parameter uncertainty).

433 Figure 11 shows the expected discounted lifetime cost associated with the safety factor
 434 recommendations. Cost consistently decreases as the parameter uncertainty decreases. This is
 435 consistent with the results of Figure 10. Lower uncertainty leads to lower safety factors, and hence
 436 to lower design costs.



437

438

Figure 11. Expected lifetime cost for varying lengths of the historic data record.

439 For highly flexible measures, the dependence of the expected lifetime cost on the parameter
 440 uncertainty is lower, because flexible measures require low or no reserve even under high
 441 uncertainty. Flexibility is thus especially beneficial under high uncertainty: the value of flexibility
 442 calculated using an initial estimate based on 31 years of data is 6.4×10^6 € (as already discussed
 443 in the previous section), as opposed to the value of flexibility associated with the case of 186 years
 444 of data, which is 1.3×10^6 €.

445 3.4 Sensitivity to cost function and discounting

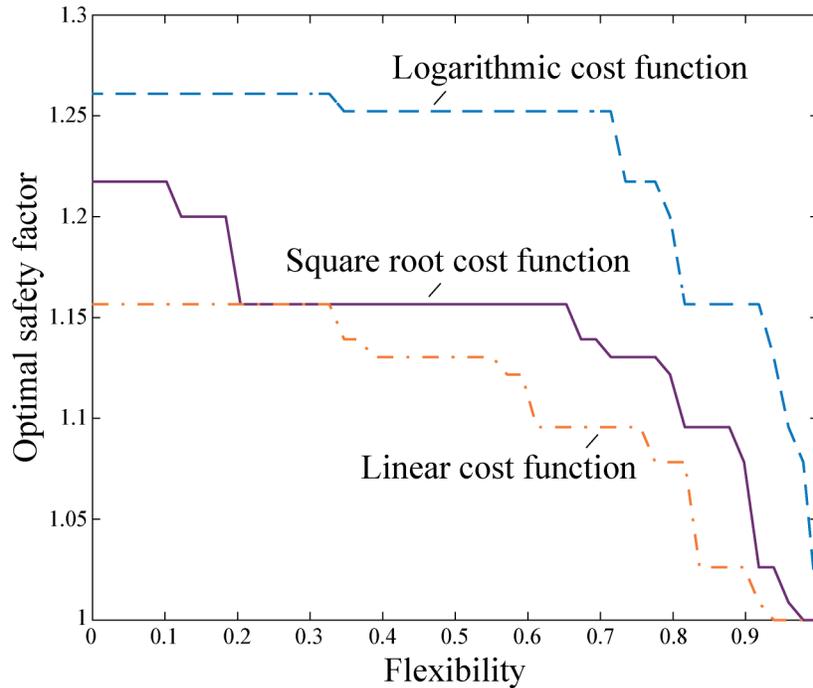
446 We investigate the sensitivity of the results to the cost function and the discounting rate. Results
 447 presented above are for the square root cost function of Eq. (24) and a discounting rate of 2%. In
 448 Figure 12, the effect of the cost function on the optimal safety factor is shown. In addition to the
 449 previously used square root function $\sqrt{v_i} - \varphi \times \sqrt{v_{i-1}}$, a linear and a logarithmic cost function
 450 are applied. For the considered domain $v_{i-1} < v_i$, the linear function is

$$c_i(\varphi, v_{i-1}, v_i) = v_i - \varphi \times v_{i-1}, \quad (25)$$

451 and the logarithmic function is

$$c_i(\varphi, v_{i-1}, v_i) = \log(v_i) - \varphi \times \log(v_{i-1}). \quad (26)$$

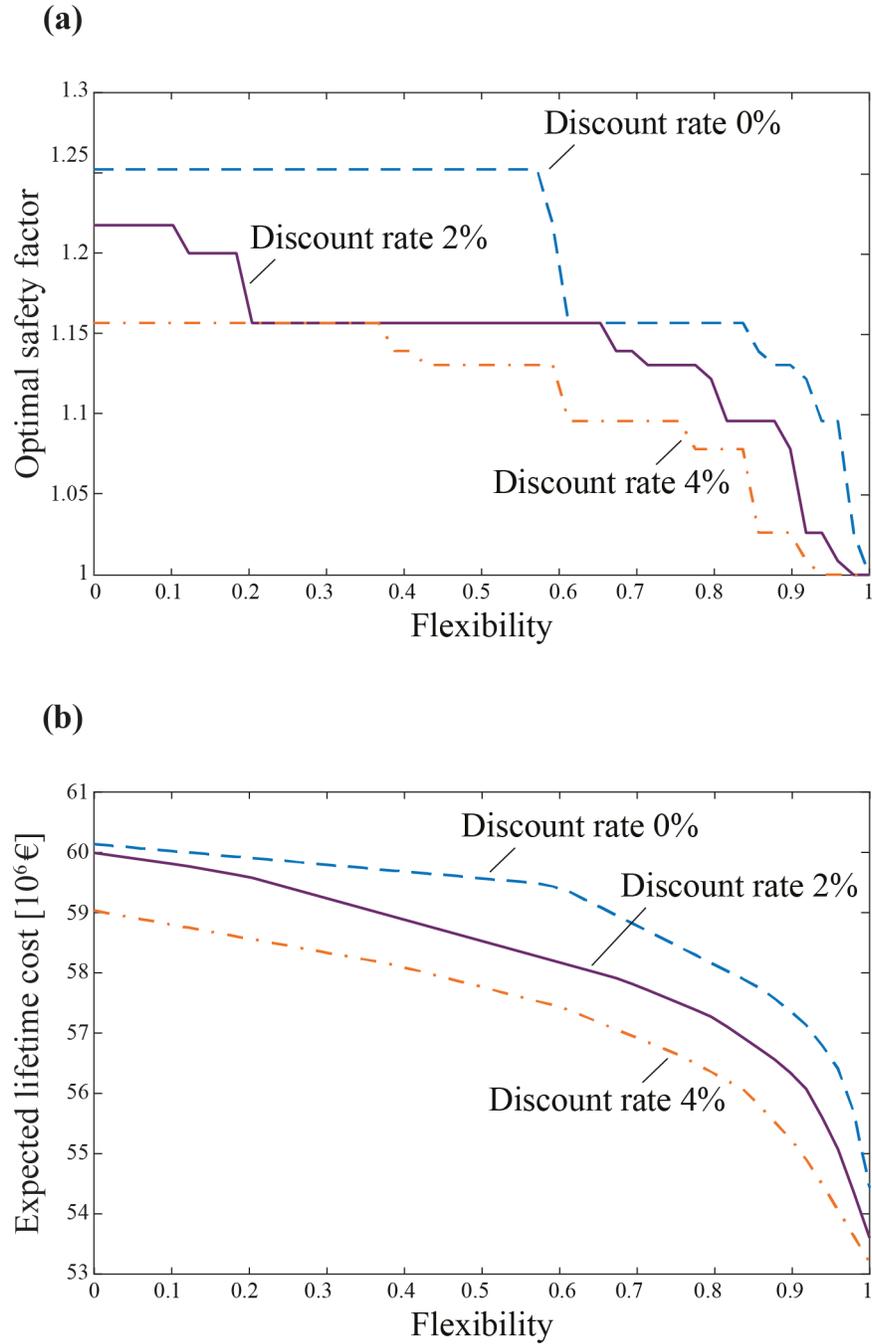
452 The different cost functions result in the same qualitative dependence on flexibility, but the
 453 quantitative recommendation is influenced by the choice of the cost function. The differences are
 454 here due to the smaller marginal costs of the logarithmic cost function, which favor larger
 455 capacities. The linear cost function has higher marginal costs than the square root function, hence
 456 it leads to a slightly lower safety factor.



457

458 **Figure 12.** Dependence of optimal initial safety factor on the cost function for the case of 31
 459 years of discharge records. The choice of the cost function influences the magnitude of the safety
 460 factor but not the qualitative dependence on flexibility.

461 Lastly, we investigate the effect of varying the discount rate. Results are shown in Figure 13 for
 462 the case of 31 years of discharge records and the square root cost function of Eq. (24). Both the
 463 optimal safety factor (a) and the expected lifetime cost (b) exhibit a dependence on the discount
 464 rate, as expected, but qualitatively results remain unchanged. A higher discounting rate leads to
 465 reduced safety factor recommendation and smaller total expected costs (net present values).
 466 Delaying decisions is more attractive financially when the discounting rate is higher.



467

468 **Figure 13.** Optimal safety factor (a) and expected lifetime cost (b) for the 31-year historic data
469 record with varying rate of discounting.

470

471

4 Discussion

472 We implemented the proposed decision framework for a flood model based on t
 473 discharge records; parameter uncertainty is thereby associated with the limited e
 474 records. This choice was made to focus on the presentation of the methodolog y
 475 facilitate the interpretation of results and to enable a clearer presentati l
 476 implementations of the methodology, one might often need to extend the proba 1
 477 two aspects: Firstly, to include non-stationarity and associated uncertainty, aris e
 478 and anthropogenic changes; secondly, to consider additional informatio e
 479 hydrological models in combination with regional climate data (McMillan *et al.*,

480 Including additional sources of uncertainty in the model is straightforward, if thi 1
 481 be quantified in parametric form. The size of the stochastic parameter vector Θ 1
 482 when including uncertain trend parameters in the case of climate change, yet thi a
 483 fundamental difficulty. Θ can simply be defined to contain the parameters t
 484 extreme value distribution, e.g. a Gumbel-distribution with a location parameter $\mu = \mu_0 + t \times \mu_1$.
 485 Furthermore, the conclusions that can be drawn from the numerical results presented in this paper
 486 are not expected to change fundamentally. The outcomes of the analysis are dependent on the
 487 magnitude of the parameter uncertainty, but not on their origin. A case study using the presented
 488 methodology under climate change conditions forms part of (Dittes *et al.*, 2017).

489 The optimization is based on a backwards induction, which explicitly accounts for all possible
 490 development paths over the lifetime of the system. The decision on the optimal capacity is thereby
 491 freely revised at regular intervals. In addition, we present a heuristic approach to the optimization,
 492 in which a constant safety factor is applied over the lifetime of the protection. Since it reduces the
 493 solution space, it can only lead to a sub-optimal solution, but it is significantly easier to understand
 494 and implement, and can, therefore, be applied to verify results and communicate the approach.
 495 One has the possibility to further improve the heuristic optimization, by choosing alternative,
 496 possibly closer to optimal, heuristics. For example, the results obtained with the complete
 497 optimization indicate that the safety factor should be reduced as the end of service life approaches,
 498 which is to be expected, as fewer adjustments will be necessary when the time span is shorter. This
 499 could be included in the heuristics by introducing a ‘reduction factor’ that lowers safety factor with
 500 time. One variation of this that could contribute significantly to more optimal outcomes would be
 501 to allow the planning margin at initial construction to be larger than the latter ones (Straub and
 502 Špačková, 2016).

503 As a side-effect, the proposed framework also provides an estimate of the value of reducing
 504 parameter uncertainty in the flood models. This is observed in Figure 10: For an inflexible system
 505 ($\varphi = 0$) that is to be planned based on 33 years of discharge data, having an additional 122 years
 506 of data would reduce the total expected life-cycle cost by 15% (from 60×10^6 € to 51.2×10^6 €).
 507 These findings underline the great benefits of longer records (Rogger *et al.*, 2011; Kjeldsen *et al.*,

2014). Our numbers are indicative of the so-called *value of information*, which can be found by comparing the total expected life-cycle costs computed for different degrees of parameter uncertainty. Overall, the value of information is higher for non-flexible systems, for which parameter uncertainty is more critical, and reduces to zero for fully flexible systems. Similarly, one can determine the *value of flexibility*, by calculating the difference in total expected life-cycle cost between a flexible and an inflexible system. The value of flexibility is higher when parameter uncertainty is high.

The definition of flexibility used throughout the paper is a simplification: Flexibility is not a fixed value independent of the capacity, as implied by Eq. (2). Consider an initially low sheet pile wall: extending it slightly is straightforward (with flexibility close to 1) but if it is extended beyond a certain height, the base may need to be fortified, leading to large costs and low flexibility. In fact, for an actual project, one would not determine flexibility and then determine the optimal design based on this flexibility value, rather one would work directly with the cost functions for new systems c_0 and upgrades c_i . The motivation for working with the concept of flexibility here is that it allows to make general conclusions, which can inform decision making without a detailed analysis.

The methodology and results in this paper are valid for a rule-based approach to flood protection planning, which requires compliance with pre-defined protection levels (here the 100-year event). The cost of exceedance or failure of the flood protection system is not considered as part of the optimization. While this corresponds to current practice in many countries, its application leads to suboptimal flood protection (Hutter and Schanze, 2010; Merz *et al.*, 2010; Vrijling, Schweckendiek and Kanning, 2011; Nillesen and Kok, 2015; Tsimopoulou, Kok and Vrijling, 2015). Ideally, decisions should be risk-based, i.e. found by an optimization of costs vs. risks. This is in line with the European flood risk directive on the assessment and management of flood risks 2007/60 (European Parliament and European Council, 2007). Some authorities complement the simpler rule-based planning with the more optimal risk-based planning by using a ‘zoning’ approach, with different regions being assigned a different design flood (Kind, 2014). An initial investigation towards a risk-based assessment is reported in (Špačková and Straub, 2017), taking basis in partially observable Markovian decision processes.

537

538

Conclusions

We present a Bayesian decision framework for optimizing flood protection systems in the face of parameter uncertainty. It accounts for the flexibility of protection systems, i.e. the ability to adjust the flood protection capacity in the future to ensure that the system complies with a fixed protection criterion (commonly the 100-year event) at all times. Based on the initial uncertainty, the framework returns a quantitative recommendation for the initial capacity as well as associated costs. It thereby anticipates discharge data and other information that will become available in the

545 future. We apply the framework to a case study with varying length of discharge records to
546 investigate the effect of parameter uncertainty on protection recommendations.

547 The following conclusions on the planning of flood protection systems can be drawn from the
548 numerical investigations: (1) The higher the uncertainty, the higher the recommended safety factor
549 (reserve) and expected lifetime cost. (2) The more flexible the system, the lower the recommended
550 safety factor and the lifetime cost. (3) The economic value of discharge data is considerable since
551 it reduces uncertainty and thus leads to lower requirements on safety factors. (4) Using flexible
552 systems can be financially beneficial, in particular for planning in a rule-based regulatory
553 framework under high uncertainty.

554

555

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560

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Appendix – Computational implementation

715 We outline the computational implementation of the presented methodology here. Steps 1-5 serve
716 for generating $S_1 \times S_2 \dots \times S_{N-1}$ random samples of future discharge data and the corresponding

717 required protec capacities. For co ational i
 718 $\dots \geq S_{N-1}$. The 6 and 7 optimiz : protect iduction.

719 For given discl ecords \mathbf{q}_H and h g identi: tribution $f_{Q|\theta}$:

720 1. Compu required protect apacity ng Eq. (10).

721 2. Generat $1 \dots S_1$ samples e param $\theta|\mathbf{q}_H$) (viz. Eq.
 722 (4)).

723 3. For eac ple θ_s , randomly erate an

724 $\mathbf{q}_{1,s}$ fro $p_{1|\theta}(\mathbf{q}|\theta_s)$.

725 4. **Loop** fi me steps $i = 2, \dots, 1$:

726 a. npute the required action c: $\mathbf{q}_{i-1,s}$) for step i
 727 owing Eq. (10).

728 b. erate $s = 1 \dots S_i$ si es of the $(\theta|\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_{1,s}, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{i-1,s})$
 729 . Eq. (6)).

730 c. each sample θ_s , r nly gen discharges $\mathbf{q}_{i,s}$ from
 731 $f_{Q|\theta}(\mathbf{q}|\theta_s)$.

732 **Endloop**

733 5. Compute the required protect apacity $v_{req}(\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_{1,s}, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N-1,s})$ for step N following
 734 Eq. (10).

735 One can now find the optimal saf actor and the associated expected total life-cycle cost
 736 through backwards induction:

737 6. Discretize capacity v into K v s. Consider all K^N possible combinations (scenarios) of
 738 required protection capacities v_{req} at the N planning times. Determine the Probability
 739 Mass Function (PMF) of these scenarios using the samples generated in steps 1-5,
 740 considering that the capacity is not reduced.

741 7. **Loop** for each value of flexibility φ

742 a. For each of the K^N scenarios of required protection capacity, compute costs and
 743 discount them to t_0 following Eqs. (12) and (13).

744 b. Optimize the final safety factor $\gamma_{N-1}^{opt}(a, v_0, \dots, v_{N-2}, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N-1})$ at the last
 745 decision time t_{N-1} conditionally on previous capacities v_0, \dots, v_{N-2} and
 746 observations $\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N-1}$ following Eqs. (19) and (20).

747 c. **Loop** starting with $i = N - 2$ and continuing backwards to $i = 1$:

748 i. Optimize safety factor $\gamma_{N-1}^{opt}(a, v_0, \dots, v_{i-1}, \mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i)$ at decision time
 749 t_i conditional on previous capacities v_0, \dots, v_{i-1} and observations
 750 $\mathbf{q}_H, \mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_i$ following Eqs. (19) and (21).

751 **Endloop**

752 d. Find the optimal initial safety factor $\gamma_0^{opt}(a, \mathbf{q}_H)$ following Eqs. (22) and (23).

753 **Endloop**

754 For the case study shown in Section 3, we used $S_1 = 700$, $S_2 = 100$ and $S_3 = 40$. From repeatedly
755 performing the analysis, we find a percentage error in the order of 1.5% in both the optimal initial
756 safety factor and the expected lifetime cost.

757

Figure captions

758 **Figure 1.** An example of a flexible flood protection measure - a flood wal
 759 (Vrijling *et al.*, 2007).

760 **Figure 2.** Exceedance probability and associated 90% credible interval (s
 761 discharge. The dashed PDF represents the uncertainty on the 100-year dis
 762 figure is based on a 31-year data record from the case study (viz. Section
 763 assumption of a Gumbel distribution.

764 **Figure 3.** 100-year design discharge estimate (MAP) and associated 90%
 765 function of the historic data record length. Annual maximum discharge d_a
 766 for a gauge in Wasserburg am Inn, Germany, for the period from 1828 to
 767 discharge is estimated under the assumption of a stationary Gumbel distri
 768 measurement uncertainty (viz. Section 3).

769 **Figure 4.** Timeline of decisions on capacity v and observations of dischar
 770 optimization process of N steps.

771 **Figure 5.** Illustration of the costs for fully flexible vs. inflexible systems (
 772 2017): **(a)** Initial cost c_0 when the system is first implemented. **(b)** Cost c_i
 773 system to a higher capacity v_i . For the inflexible systems, the adjustment
 774 costs c_0 incurred when implementing directly capacity v_i . For the fully fl
 775 the adjustment costs are equal to the difference between the initial costs o
 776 adjusted system.

777 **Figure 6.** Decision tree for the full optimization with three exemplary cap
 778 amongst a continuous spectrum. Branches that violate the constraint $v_i \geq v_{req}(q_H, q_1, \dots, q_i)$ are
 779 not shown.

780 **Figure 7.** Adjustment cost functions for increasing from $1000 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ to some higher capacity for
 781 three different values of flexibility.

782 **Figure 8.** Results of backward induction for the flood protection, for an initial flood estimate
 783 based on 31 years of historic discharge records: Optimal initial safety factor and expected
 784 discounted lifetime cost depending on flexibility.

785 **Figure 9.** Comparison of heuristic and backwards-induction optimization approach for the case
 786 of a 31 years flood record. **(a)** Optimal initial safety factor and **(b)** expected lifetime cost.

787 **Figure 10.** Optimal initial safety factor as a function of the flexibility of the protection system,
 788 for varying length of the initial discharge record (associated with varying parameter uncertainty).

789 **Figure 11.** Expected lifetime cost for varying lengths of the historic data record.

790 **Figure 12.** Dependence of optimal initial safety factor on the cost function for the case of 31
 791 years of discharge records. The choice of the cost function influences the magnitude of the safety
 792 factor but not the qualitative dependence on flexibility.

793 **Figure 13.** Optimal safety factor **(a)** and expected lifetime cost **(b)** for the 31-year historic data
 794 record with varying rate of discounting.

795

Tables

796

Table 1. Overview of parameters of the decision model

Id.	Parameter/variable	Type	Value domain	Units
Q	Annual max. discharge	Random	$[0, \infty)$	m^3/s
Θ	Parameters of prob. model of Q	Random	$[0, \infty)$	-
\mathbf{q}_i	Future observations of Q	Random	$[0, \infty)$	m^3/s
v_i	Capacity of flood protection system	Decision	$[1, \infty)$	m^3/s
v_{req}	Required protection capacity	Random	$[1, \infty)$	m^3/s
γ_i	Safety factor	Decision	$[1, \infty)$	-
c_i	Protection cost	Deterministic	$[0, \infty)$	€
φ	Flexibility of flood protection system	Decision	$(-\infty, 1]$	-

797

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Table 2. Case study data properties^a

<i>Data</i>			<i>Fitted probabilistic model</i>					
Discharge series length [years]	Annual maximum discharge [m^3/s]		Gumbel scale parameter β [m^3/s]		Gumbel location parameter μ [m^3/s]		100-year design discharge [m^3/s]	
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std.-dev.</i>	<i>MAP</i>	<i>Std.-dev.</i>	<i>MAP</i>	<i>Std.-dev.</i>	<i>From Eq. (9)</i>	<i>Std.-dev.</i>
31	1471	502	352	147	1255	138	2876	808
62	1449	445	343	96	1250	114	2820	555
93	1424	399	302	70	1248	96	2641	419
124	1416	375	282	58	1252	79	2550	344
155	1398	355	268	50	1244	68	2477	296
186	1398	379	284	49	1233	66	2539	291

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800

801

^aAnnual maximum discharge at the Wasserburg am Inn gauge, Bavaria, Germany: sample statistics (heading: Data) and parameters of fitted Gumbel model (heading: Fitted probabilistic model) for different lengths of the historic discharge records.