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1 **Assessment of Flooding Impacts in Terms of Sustainability in Mainland China**

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9

10 **Abstract** An understanding of flood impact in terms of sustainability is vital for
11 long-term disaster risk reduction. This paper utilizes two important concepts:
12 conventional insurance related flood risk for short-term damage by specific flood events,
13 and long-term flood impact on sustainability. The Insurance Related Flood Risk index,
14 *IRFR*, is defined as the product of the Flood Hazard Index (*FHI*) and Vulnerability.
15 The Long-term Flood Impact on Sustainability index, *LFIS*, is the ratio of the flood
16 hazard index to the Sustainable Development Index (*SDI*). Using a rapid assessment
17 approach, quantitative assessments of *IRFR* and *LFIS* are carried out for 2339 counties
18 and cities in mainland China. Each index is graded from ‘very low’ to ‘very high’
19 according to the eigenvalue magnitude of cluster centroids. By combining grades of
20 *FHI* and *SDI*, mainland China is then classified into four zones in order to identify
21 regional variations in the potential linkage between flood hazard and sustainability.

22 Zone I regions, where *FHI* is graded ‘very low’ or ‘low’ and *SDI* is ‘medium’ to ‘very
23 high’, are mainly located in western China. Zone II regions, where *FHI* and *SDI* are
24 ‘medium’ or ‘high’, occur in the rapidly developing areas of central and eastern China.
25 Zone III regions, where *FHI* and *SDI* are ‘very low’ or ‘low’, correspond to the
26 resource-based areas of western and north-central China. Zone IV regions, where *FHI* is
27 ‘medium’ to ‘very high’ and *SDI* is ‘very low’ to ‘low’, occur in ecologically fragile
28 areas of south-western China. The paper also examines the distributions of *IRFR* and
29 *LFIS* throughout mainland China. Although 57% of the counties and cities have low
30 *IRFR* values, 64% have high *LFIS* values. The modal values of *LFIS* are ordered as
31 Zone I < Zone II \approx Zone III < Zone IV; whereas the modal values of *IRFR* are ordered
32 as Zone I < Zone III < Zone IV < Zone II. It is recommended that present flood risk
33 policies be altered towards a more sustainable flood risk management strategy in areas
34 where *LFIS* and *IRFR* vary significantly, with particular attention focused on Zone IV
35 regions, which presently experience poverty and a deteriorating eco-system.

36

37 **Keywords:** flood hazard; sustainability; rapid assessment; spatial characteristics;
38 linkage; vulnerability

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The concept of sustainability has brought fundamental changes in terms of
42 development and environment since the 1980s (Lélé, 1991). Sustainability involves

43 considering the consequences of present actions from a long-term perspective, the goal
44 being to achieve a satisfactory quality of life both in the present and in the future
45 (Gasparatos et al., 2008). To help achieve this goal, various tools are being developed in
46 order to obtain integrated measures of sustainability, including interactions between
47 environmental, social and economic issues (Ravetz, 2000). Of these tools, indicators
48 and indices are widely used due to their simplicity. Examples include the 58 national
49 indicators used by the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development
50 (UNCSD), the Environmental Pressure Indicators (EPIs) developed by the Statistical
51 Office of the European Communities (Eurostat), and the Sustainable National Income
52 (SNI) indicator developed in the Netherlands (Ness et al., 2007). In China, a large
53 number of indicators and indices have been proposed for measuring sustainable
54 development. For example, a five-level indicator system was used to evaluate
55 sustainability in 31 provinces in 1990 (Chinese Academy of Sciences Research Group
56 on Sustainable Development, 1999). In the companion paper, a Sustainable
57 Development Index (*SDI*) has been constructed from data relating to 2339 counties and
58 cities in mainland China, based on a four-layer sustainable development index system
59 with 31 basic indices (Sun et al., 2009).

60 Certain natural hazards can greatly hinder sustainable development. A major threat is
61 posed by extreme natural water-related disasters, such as the European floods in 2002,
62 the Indian Ocean Tsunami in 2004, and Hurricane Katrina in 2005. Such disasters can
63 be devastating, and threaten to derail sustainable development (Griffis, 2007).

64 Cumulative impacts are caused by frequently occurring natural disasters. For
65 developing and vulnerable countries, extreme disasters may destroy the groundwork
66 towards sustainable development (Khandlhela and May, 2006). Of natural water-related
67 hazards, flood events occur relatively frequently worldwide and can have severe
68 impacts. Berz (2000) reports that about one-third of all natural disasters are
69 flood-related, and provides data on the economic and human costs of major floods in the
70 late 20th Century. There are some notable floods in history. For example, the Great
71 Flood of 1993, which occurred in the American Midwest, caused between US\$ 12 and
72 16 billion worth of damage (Hipple et al., 2005). Another example is the 2000
73 Mozambique Flood, which caused the worst flood damage in 50 years to local areas and
74 displaced 450,000 people (Hashizume et al., 2006). China is particularly prone to flood
75 disasters (Zong and Chen, 2000). Huge numbers of people have lost their lives in floods
76 along the Yellow River, including more than 300,000 at Kaifeng in 1642, more than
77 870,000 in 1887 and between 100,000 and 4 million in 1931 (see e.g. White, 2001). In
78 1998, China experienced losses in excess of US\$ 30 billion caused by the large-scale
79 flooding of the Yangtze River (Berz 2000). However, conventional sustainable
80 development indicators and indices are unable to reflect properly the long-term impacts
81 of flood events.

82 Flood risk assessment and management are key prerequisites for flood disaster
83 mitigation. As the philosophy of flood risk management evolves, flood hazard
84 management has altered from an emphasis on physical protection schemes to flood risk

85 management that incorporates both physical and socio-economic issues (Parker, 1995;
86 Treby et al., 2006). It is the general consensus that flood risk is the product of physical
87 hazard, exposure to the hazard, and vulnerability (Fedeski and Gwilliam, 2007;
88 Kleinosky et al., 2007). Among the investigations on the relationships of these three
89 basic elements of flood risk, “The Risk Triangle” by Crichton and Mounsey (1997) is
90 notable for its readability and usefulness. At present, flood risk assessment and
91 management focuses mainly on short-term economic losses, and insurance is
92 conventionally used for compensation (Crichton, 2002). Herein, an index of insurance
93 related flood risk (*IRFR*) is used to represent short-term flood impact. Nevertheless, this
94 kind of flood management strategy seldom focuses on sustainable development
95 scenarios.

96 Comprehensive risk assessment tools need to be developed to incorporate natural
97 hazard risk management within development activities, instead of traditional reactive
98 approaches that focus on humanitarian assistance (Dilley et al., 2005). Increasing
99 attention is being given to the new philosophy of flood management (Ramlal and Baban,
100 2008; Morris et al., 2008; Hansson et al., 2008; Raaijmakers et al., 2008) and the
101 long-term impact of flood disasters on human society (Birkmann, 2007). From the
102 sustainability point of view, the subject of flood risk management should be widened to
103 include the effect of flooding on sustainable development (associated with complex
104 environmental, social and economic conditions). To measure this kind of flood impact,
105 an index of Long-term Flood Impact on Sustainability (*LFIS*) is utilized in the present

106 paper.

107 This paper aims to improve our understanding of the linkage between flood hazard
108 and sustainability in modern China. In the companion paper, Sun et al. (accepted by
109 Journal of Environmental Management, 2009) used a rapid assessment technique to
110 evaluate a sustainable development index and hence provide a grading of sustainability.
111 The same rapid assessment method is used in the present paper to represent flood
112 hazards throughout mainland China. A zonation map of mainland China is then
113 constructed using four zonal classes according to the combined distributions of flood
114 hazard and sustainability. Differences between *IRFR* and *LFIS* in each zone are
115 investigated. Based on this information, the relationship between flood hazard and
116 sustainability in different areas in mainland China has been interpreted. The results are
117 valuable for macro decision-making concerned with regional sustainable development
118 strategy.

119 **2. Methods**

120 *2.1 Quantitative approaches for IRFR and LFIS*

121 *IRFR* assessment deals with short-term economic losses caused by flood events, a
122 subject currently being investigated by many researchers (see e.g. Crichton and
123 Mounsey, 1997; Crichton, 2002; Wisner et al., 2003; Tian et al., 2006). For comparison
124 purposes at different spatial scales, it is convenient to use the following simplified flood
125 risk model (Wisner et al., 2003) to estimate the expected value,

$$126 \quad IRFR = FHI \times V \quad (1)$$

127 in which *FHI* is the Flood Hazard Index and *V* is the Vulnerability.

128 Insurance related flood risk (*IRFR*) mainly focuses on short-term flood impacts.
129 Nowadays however, the conflict between the long-term requirement for regional
130 sustainable development and the effect of short-term abrupt hazards threatens to become
131 severe. A single flood hazard event could destroy the accumulated wealth amassed over
132 several decades, and so has unsustainable characteristics. Considering that the
133 conventional Sustainable Development Index (*SDI*) cannot properly reflect the impacts
134 of extreme events on a case-by-case basis and that conventional flood risk assessment
135 seldom focuses on long-term flood impacts, a new framework must be established
136 urgently to evaluate the Long-term Flood Impact on Sustainability (*LFIS*). Usually,
137 selected comparative indicators are used to quantify vulnerability, whose definition
138 extends from intrinsic physical fragility to multi-dimensional vulnerability
139 encompassing physical, social, economic, environmental and institutional features
140 (Birkmann, 2006). It is therefore likely that linkages exist between sustainability and the
141 multi-dimensional concept of vulnerability. Communities and societies with high
142 sustainability could enhance their overall capability with regard to flood prevention,
143 disaster mitigation and resilience. Hence, it could be argued that communities or
144 societies with high sustainability should be less vulnerable to the impacts of disasters.
145 An index of long-term flood impact on sustainability, *LFIS*, may be defined as the ratio
146 of the Flood Hazard Index (*FHI*) to the Sustainable Development Index (*SDI*), as
147 follows

148
$$LFIS = \frac{FHI}{SDI} \quad . \quad (2)$$

149 where *SDI* is the topmost index of the indicator system (4 layers with 31 basic
150 indicators) developed by Sun et al. (accepted by Journal of Environmental Management,
151 2009) to measure the sustainable development in mainland China.

152 *2.2 Assessment of LFIS in mainland China*

153 In order to calculate *LFIS*, both *FHI* and *SDI* are evaluated using rapid assessment
154 approaches developed from an earlier Rapid Zonation of Abrupt Mass-movement
155 Hazard (RZAMH) method (Ni et al., 2006). The method has previously been
156 demonstrated to be efficient, reliable, and capable of handling scarce data. The flow
157 chart in Fig. 1 summarizes the rapid assessment procedure.

Fig. 1

158 *2.2.1 Rapid assessment of FHI in mainland China*

159 The rapid assessment method for flood hazard involves five key steps: (i)
160 establishment of the flood hazard index system; (ii) data collection and preparation; (iii)
161 classification of reference groups based on counties and cities with complete data; (iv)
162 evaluation of missing information for counties and cities with incomplete data; (v)
163 estimation of the degree of flood hazard experienced by counties and cities for which
164 data are unavailable. A total of 2339 counties and cities in mainland China are
165 considered, according to the administrative division of China in 1993. Details of the
166 five key steps are given below.

167 (i) As shown in Fig. 2, a 3-layer indicator system is established for assessment of the
168 flood hazard index ($i_{1,1}$). The assessment indicators of *FHI* are selected systematically,

Fig. 2

169 following the approach outlined in previous literature (Mccall et al., 1992; Burton et al.,
170 1993; Rossi et al., 1994; Tian et al., 2006; Fedeski and Gwilliam, 2007). According to
171 the systematic theory of regional disasters, hazard formative factors and environmental
172 factors are important with regard to the evolution of a flood disaster. Three indicators
173 are therefore selected as the 2nd layer sub-indices for the assessment of flood hazard:
174 Climate ($i_{2,1}$), Geomorphology ($i_{2,2}$), and River network ($i_{2,3}$). Storm is a key formative
175 factor for flood hazard. Geomorphologic and River Network parameters are primary
176 environmental factors. The frequency of storms is important, but even a high frequency
177 of occurrence of storms will not necessarily lead to floods if the precipitation does not
178 exceed a certain threshold (e.g. 3 Days maximum rainfall depth above 30 mm).
179 Therefore, Average Annual Rainfall ($i_{3,1}$) and 3 Days Maximum Rainfall ($i_{3,2}$) are
180 selected as the 3rd layer sub-indices of the Climate sub-index. Geomorphology mainly
181 affects the characteristics of runoff. Flood waves usually travel from regions with high
182 absolute elevation and steep relief to low lying flat areas. Therefore, Absolute Elevation
183 ($i_{3,3}$) and Average Regional Relief ($i_{3,4}$) are selected as the 3rd layer sub-indices of the
184 Geomorphology sub-index. Finally, Buffer Zones ($i_{3,5}$) is selected as the 3rd layer
185 sub-index of the River Network sub-index, in order to represent the influence of river
186 systems on the flood attributes. The degree of Buffer Zones is determined according to
187 distance to rivers and lakes, because regions near rivers and lakes are more likely to be
188 affected by floods. Weights of the indicators were determined following Fan (2006).
189 (ii) A database is established for the 5 primary sub-indices in the 3rd layer for the 2339

190 counties and cities. Table 1 indicates the data sources and analysis techniques used to
 191 estimate the Flood Hazard Index, $FHI (= i_{1,1})$. The Average Annual Rainfall ($i_{3,1}$) and 3
 192 Days Maximum Rainfall ($i_{3,2}$) sub-indices are determined as statistical mean values
 193 using about 50 years of data from 1951 to 2000 obtained from 620 rain gauges
 194 distributed throughout China. Values for the Absolute Elevation ($i_{3,3}$) and Average
 195 Regional Relief ($i_{3,4}$) sub-indices are obtained from a grid-based Digital Elevation
 196 Model (DEM) using Geographic Information System (GIS). The sub-index, Buffer
 197 Zones ($i_{3,5}$) is quantified using GIS Buffer analysis based on a grid-based map of the
 198 river basin distribution. Each sub-index in the 3rd layer is normalized to [0, 1] using the
 199 modified min-max normalization method. The Climate and River Network related
 200 sub-indices relate to positive contributions to the degree of flood hazard, whereas the
 201 Geomorphology related indices relate negatively to the degree of flood hazard.

Table 1

202 (iii) To predict the flood hazard grading for those counties and cities with missing
 203 information, mapping units with complete data are selected as reference units and
 204 *K*-means clustering applied to classify the reference groups (Ni et al., 2006) using the
 205 statistical software package, SPSS (SPSS 11.5 for windows). Classification of reference
 206 groups is carried out sequentially from the primary layer to the middle-layer and finally
 207 to the uppermost layer. Of the 2339 mapping units, a total of 2336 counties and cities
 208 have complete data by which to determine the flood hazard sub-indices. As shown in
 209 Tables 2 and 3, seven reference groups are classified for the 2nd layer sub-indices, and
 210 five reference groups are classified for *FHI*. It should be noted that the eigenvalue $k_{m,n,j}$

211 ($j=1, 2, \dots, K$) of cluster centroids $Z_{m,n,j}$ is equal to the value of the sole sub-vector in the
212 centroid or the sum of the sub-vector weighted values in multi-dimensional centroids.

213 The *FHI* grading is then determined according to the magnitude of centroids as ‘very
214 low’, ‘low’, ‘medium’, ‘high’ and ‘very high’, as listed in Table 3.

Table 2

Table 3

215 (iv) Among the 2339 counties and cities, 3 mapping units have incomplete data for the
216 basic flood hazard sub-indices in the 3rd layer. Each test unit is matched to a reference
217 group based on the minimum Euclidean distance from the cluster centroids, omitting
218 blank data in the sub-indices (by means of a discriminating software program developed
219 at Peking University). After identification, the eigenvalue and flood hazard grading of
220 the corresponding reference group is assigned to the test unit. Table 3 lists the total
221 numbers of mapping units.

222 (v) No counties or cities have blank data with regard to the flood hazard sub-indices.

223 2.2.2 Rapid assessment of *SDI* in mainland China

224 In the companion paper, Sun et al. (accepted by Journal of Environmental
225 Management, 2009) use a sustainable development index, *SDI*, to measure the stability
226 of sustainable development in mainland China. *SDI* places emphasis on development
227 that meets competing social, economic and environmental needs. Sun et al. develop a
228 four-layer sustainable development index system based on a top-down or technocratic
229 process, which contains a total of 44 indicators with 31 sub-indices at the bottom level
230 and *SDI* the unique index in the topmost layer. Three types of indicators are selected in
231 the 2nd layer of *SDI*, i.e. System Development, System Coordination and System

232 Sustainability. The 3rd layer indicators include: Economic Development, Social
233 Development, Environmental Development, Socio-economic Coordination,
234 Enviro-economic Coordination, Socio-enviro Coordination, Economic Sustainability,
235 Social Sustainability and Environmental Sustainability. A similar rapid assessment
236 approach is applied herein to evaluate *SDI* for the counties and cities considered above.
237 *SDI* was then classified into the following five grades: ‘very high’, ‘high’, ‘medium’,
238 ‘low’ and ‘very low’, and mainland China divided into corresponding zones. It is found
239 that regions with a relatively ‘low’ degree of sustainability account for about 47% of
240 mainland China, regions with ‘medium’ sustainability account for about 31% of
241 mainland China, whilst the remainder is relatively ‘high’.

242 2.2.3 Grades of *LFIS*

243 Using Eq. (2), *LFIS* is then evaluated as the ratio of *FHI* to *SDI*. Five grades of *LFIS*,
244 namely ‘very low’, ‘low’, ‘medium’, ‘high’ and ‘very high’, are determined according
245 to the magnitude of the eigenvalues of the centroids of the five classification groups
246 using *K*-means clustering. Table 4 lists the eigenvalues, grades, and number of units
247 assigned to each grading of *LFIS*. **Table 4**

248 2.3 Assessment of *IRFR* in mainland China

249 A simplified form of conventional risk, *IRFR*, is estimated using Eq. (1), which is the
250 product of *FHI* and the vulnerability, *V*. The procedure again involves the following
251 five steps: establishment of the index system, data collection and preparation,
252 classification of reference groups, identification of matching groups and evaluation of

253 blank mapping units.

254 (i) Vulnerability means the sensitivity, inability or lack of response capability to external
255 stress or disaster (Dixit, 2003; Tian et al., 2006; Dingguo et al., 2007; Speakman, 2008).

256 From the macroscopic point of view, a flood may cause casualties, property loss and
257 infrastructure damage. The index of Per-Capita Gross Domestic Product ($i_{2,1}$) is selected
258 to reflect economic loss caused by flood. Population Density ($i_{2,2}$) is selected to reflect
259 the casualties caused by flood. Arable Land Density ($i_{2,3}$) is selected for agriculture
260 loss in rural areas. Road Density ($i_{2,4}$) is selected to reflect the infrastructure damage
261 caused by flood. Fig. 3 shows the indicator system for vulnerability to flood hazard.

Fig. 3

262 (ii) Data on the four 2nd layer sub-indices have been obtained from statistical databases,
263 including the Social and Economic Statistics of County (City) in China, 2005. The
264 collected data are normalized to [0,1] using modified min-max normalization.

265 (iii) Of the 2339 counties and cities, a total of 1875 mapping units have complete data
266 for each sub-index. These counties and cities are again classified into five reference
267 groups using K-means clustering. The grading of vulnerability to flood hazard is then
268 determined as 'very low', 'low', 'medium', 'high' and 'very high' according to the
269 magnitudes of centroids of five reference groups. The results are listed in Table 5.

Table 5

270 (iv) A total of 464 mapping units have incomplete data. Table 5 also presents the
271 eigenvalues and grading of the matched reference groups for the test counties and cities
272 with incomplete data. The identification process has also been carried out by means of
273 the discriminating software program developed at Peking University.

274 (v) No counties or cities have blank data regarding the vulnerability related sub-indices.

275 *IRFR* is then computed using Eq. (1), and the grading determined using a
276 classification matrix based on the grade of flood hazard and the grade of vulnerability to
277 flood hazard.

278 **3 Results and Discussion**

279 *3.1 Zonal classification*

280 Fig. 4 shows a scatter diagram relating *FHI* and *SDI* for all the 2339 counties and **Fig. 4**

281 cities considered. *FHI* ranges from 0.12 to 0.97 and *SDI* ranges from 0.30 to 0.77. Fig.

282 5(a) indicates the land area percentage calculated for each zone according to

283 combinations of each grade of *SDI* and *FHI*. Two peaks are evident: one where 21% **Fig. 5**

284 of the land area of mainland China has ‘very low’ *SDI* and *FHI* values; the other where

285 15 % has ‘medium’ *SDI* and ‘very low’ *FHI*. Each remaining area with different

286 combinations of *SDI* and *FHI* grades occupies no more than 6 % of the total land area.

287 As shown in Fig. 5(b), four zones were devised according to the various combinations

288 of grades of *FHI* and *SDI*. In Zone I regions, the counties and cities have ‘very low’ to

289 ‘low’ grades of *FHI* and ‘medium’ to ‘very high’ grades of *SDI*; in Zone IV the reverse

290 is the case. In Zone II, the counties and cities have ‘medium’ or ‘high’ grades of both

291 *FHI* and *SDI*. In Zone III, the counties and cities have ‘very low’ or ‘low’ grades of

292 *FHI* and *SDI*. Fig. 6 is a zonation map depicting the spatial distribution of these four

293 zones throughout mainland China. **Fig. 6**

294 *3.2 Characteristics of four types of zones*

295 Table 6 lists the spatial characteristics of the four zones. It is found that Zone I, II,
296 III, and IV regions occupy 31 %, 23 %, 32 % and 14 % of the total land area of
297 mainland China.

298 The terrain of mainland China can be divided into three levels. The first comprises
299 the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, located at about 3000 to 5000 m AMSL, with Kunlun
300 Mountain as the northern boundary and Hengduan Mountain as the eastern boundary.
301 The second level is located to the east of the first level and to the west of Daxinganling
302 – Taihang Mountain – Wuling Mountain, and includes the Inner Mongolia Plateau,
303 Loess Plateau, Sichuan Basin and Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau. The third level stretches
304 from Daxinganling – Taihang Mountain – Wuling Mountain to Binhai, and includes an
305 alluvial plain located below 200 m AMSL as well as foothills below 1000 m AMSL.

306 Zone I regions are mainly located in the under-developed areas of north-western
307 China, including Xinjiang province, the west of Inner Mongolia, and parts of Gansu and
308 Qinghai provinces. Other Zone I regions are located in North-China, including Shanxi
309 and Hebei provinces. From a geomorphologic point of view, Zone I is located at the
310 west of the second level, and includes the Tarim Basin, Dzungaria Basin, western Inner
311 Mongolia Plateau and Loess Plateau. From a climatic point of view, Zone I is located
312 at the west of Daxinganling – Helanshan Mountain – Hengduanshan Mountain. The
313 average rainfall in most Zone I regions is lower than 200 mm. There is less likelihood of
314 flood occurrence in Zone I. Instead, water scarcity is the key limiting factor for
315 social-economic sustainable development. Therefore, integrated flood strategies should

316 give priority to the sustainable use of water resources in Zone I.

317 Zone II regions are mainly located in the rapidly developing areas of central and
318 eastern China, including most north-eastern areas, Hebei, Shandong, South-east plains
319 and southeastern coastal areas. From a geomorphologic perspective, the Zone II regions
320 are mainly located at the third level of the terrain of mainland China, which, along with
321 seven rivers, comprise China's worst flood disaster areas. With respect to sustainability,
322 most counties and cities in Zone II have achieved a high level of social-economic
323 development in addition to abundant scientific, knowledge, financial and management
324 resources. Therefore, the focus should be on systems projects that optimize industrial
325 structure, land use and flood control.

326 The Zone III regions are mainly located in the resource-based areas of western and
327 north-central China, including Tibet, west of Sichuan, north of Yunnan, Ningxia, Gansu,
328 Qinghai, Shanxi and Shaanxi provinces. With regard to geomorphology, the Zone III
329 regions are mainly located at the first level and northern second level of the terrain of
330 mainland China, including the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, eastern Inner Mongolia Plateau
331 and Loess Plateau. Snowfall and freezing damage are the main drivers of natural
332 disasters in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau. As a result of soil erosion and the increasing
333 elevation of the Weihe river bed, relatively low discharges could nevertheless have
334 catastrophic effects that threaten the socio-economic development of the Weinan areas
335 in the Loess Plateau. Moreover, these regions are resources-based development areas:
336 Shanxi province relies on coal production; Shaanxi province is prosperous because of

337 mining. Their economic development mainly depends on the consumption of local
338 stocks of existing resources. In inter-regional terms, these activities lead to trade issues,
339 economic structural imbalances, depletion of resources, and environmental damage. The
340 contradiction between economic development and social and environmental
341 development reduces regional sustainability, increases regional vulnerability, and lowers
342 regional capacity with regard to comprehensive flood control and disaster mitigation.
343 Therefore, the mode of economic development should be altered to reduce the
344 vulnerability of the complex social-economic-environmental system.

345 Zone IV regions are mostly located in ecologically fragile areas in south-western
346 China, including Sichuan, south Yunnan, Guizhou, and Guangxi provinces. In terms of
347 geomorphology, the Zone IV regions are mostly located at the southeast of the second
348 level and at the transition zone between the first level and the second level of the terrain
349 of mainland China, where the topography is complicated and rainstorms can have
350 extremely high magnitude. Flood disasters are more likely to occur in these regions.
351 For example, the Sichuan basin is prone to ground saturation by water, and landslides
352 are triggered by the floods in the Yunnan-Guizho Plateau. Moreover, Zone IV regions
353 are typically karst areas with serious rocky desertification, and are ecologically sensitive.
354 Poverty and ecological deterioration are the limiting factors for sustainable development
355 in these regions. Ecological deterioration could further increase the likelihood of flood
356 events thus triggering further environmental damage. Thus, restoration and
357 rehabilitation of the ecosystem is vital for the sustainability of Zone IV regions.

358 Zone I and Zone III regions are of greatest extent and are located mainly in western
359 China and north-central China, both of which areas have relatively low degree of flood
360 hazard mainly due to their high altitude and arid climate. Zone II regions experience
361 relatively high exposure to flood hazards primarily because of their low altitude,
362 proximity to the sea and lower reaches of major rivers, and susceptibility to frequent
363 storms. Zone IV regions generally have a relatively high grade regarding flood hazard;
364 this is partly due to water retention by the Sichuan basin and mountain floods in
365 south-western China. Although Zone I and Zone II regions both have relatively high
366 grades of *SDI*, their characteristics are totally different. Zone II regions tend to involve
367 counties and cities that are undergoing rapid socio-economic development. Due to
368 resource limits, environmental pollution, and ecological deterioration caused by
369 traditional industries, counties and cities in Zone II regions are presently upgrading their
370 industrial bases to be more ecologically sustainable. Zone I regions are in the early stage
371 of industrialization and have low levels of socio-economic development. Their *SDI*
372 values are nevertheless high due to the natural resources available and the quality of the
373 environment. Zone III and Zone IV regions have low levels of social-economic
374 development corresponding to low *SDI*. The combination of resources-based economic
375 growth, high consumption, and high pollution form barriers to the sustainable
376 development of Zone III areas in north-central China. In Zone IV regions, sustainable
377 development is severely impeded by the fragile ecological and geological conditions.

378 *3.3 Comparison of LFIS and IRFR at national and regional levels*

379 Fig. 7 presents frequency bars for *LFIS* and *IRFR* obtained for all the 2339 counties
380 and cities in mainland China. More than 64% of the counties and cities have *LFIS*
381 values in the range from 1.1 to 1.7, which mostly correspond to ‘high’ grade long-term
382 flood impact on sustainability. About 57% of the counties and cities have an *IRFR* value
383 in the range from 0.01 to 0.10, corresponding to a ‘low’ degree of conventional
384 insurance related flood risk. These results indicate that the long-term flood risk may be
385 potentially high and measures should be taken to improve current policies aimed at
386 sustainable flood risk management.

Fig. 7

387 Socio-economic and environmental conditions vary greatly throughout China.
388 Therefore, zonal distributions of *LFIS* and *IRFR* are investigated. Fig. 8 presents the
389 frequency bars for *LFIS* and *IRFR* related to each of the four zones classified above
390 according to the *SDI* and *FHI* grading. For the majority of counties and cities falling
391 within the vertical dashed lines in Fig. 8, the average grading of *LFIS* is generally
392 higher than that of *IRFR*, as also occurs at national level. For *LFIS*, the majority of cities
393 and counties have values from 0.7 to 1.1 for Zone I, from 1.1 to 1.5 for Zone II, from
394 1.0 to 1.4 for Zone III and from 1.4 to 1.8 for Zone IV. The modal values of *LFIS* are
395 therefore ordered as follows: Zone I < Zone II \approx Zone III < Zone IV. For *IRFR*, its
396 values for the majority of cities and counties lie from 0.01 to 0.05 for Zone I, 0.06 to
397 0.20 for Zone II, 0.04 to 0.06 for Zone III and 0.01 to 0.14 for Zone IV, with the
398 following modal order: Zone I < Zone III < Zone IV < Zone II. Counties and cities in
399 Zones III and IV have relatively low *IRFR* and relatively high *LFIS*. In certain of these

Fig. 8

400 areas, potential flood impacts on sustainability may cause long-term poverty or
401 instability of the socio-economic-environmental system. Moreover, uncoordinated
402 development of the socio-economic-environmental system may lead to higher
403 vulnerability to flood hazard. Therefore, more investment or better integrated flood
404 strategies are needed in such regions.

405 Fig. 9 compares the spatial distribution of the gradings of *LFIS* and *IRFR* in terms of
406 the four zones. As shown in Fig. 9 (a) & (b), 93 % of the Zone I land area corresponds
407 to identical grading of ‘very low’ or ‘low’ for both *LFIS* and *IRFR*. This suggests that
408 flood hazard has low impact on the under-developed areas of western China, which is
409 mostly due to the arid climate. From Fig. 9 (c) & (d), it is found that the *LFIS* and *IRFR*
410 grades exhibit marked differences when compared for the same Zone II regions; only
411 36 % of these areas have identical grading, and are to be found in Heilongjiang, Hebei
412 and Shandong provinces. The following two kinds of area require attention due to
413 substantial differences in grading of *LFIS* and *IRFR*. (i) Liaoning and Jilin provinces in
414 northeast China, where most *IRFR* grades are ‘low’ and most *LFIS* grades are ‘medium’.
415 Extensive agricultural activity has caused heavy soil erosion in these areas, which
416 consequently increases *LFIS*. (ii) Regions in the south-central plain and south-east
417 coastal areas, where *IRFR* grades are ‘low’ or ‘medium’, and *LFIS* grades tend to be
418 ‘medium’ or ‘high’. These regions include an area dominated by the lower reach of the
419 Yangtze River where Jiangxi, Anhui and Hunan provinces meet. Most counties and
420 cities near the lower Yangtze River have experienced frequent flood hazards throughout

Fig. 9

421 recorded history. Furthermore, there is considerable disparity between rural and urban
422 economic development in these regions even though the cities have undergone rapid
423 development while being highly exposed to the flood hazard. This has had the effect of
424 lowering the *IRFR* grading. As shown in Fig. 9 (e) & (f), about 56 % of the Zone III
425 areas correspond to identical grades of *LFIS* and *IRFR*, and are mostly located in Tibet,
426 Qinghai and western Sichuan. However, in northern Yunnan, Shanxi and north-eastern
427 Inner Mongolia, *IRFR* tends to be ‘low’ grade, while *LFIS* tends to be ‘medium’ or
428 ‘high’ grade. In these areas, especially in Shanxi province, the side effects of
429 over-exploitation of natural resources and uncoordinated economic and environmental
430 development have resulted in higher grades of *LFIS* than *IRFR*. From Fig. 9 (g) & (h), it
431 may be observed that 95 % of the Zone IV areas have different grades of *LFIS* and
432 *IRFR*. Most *IRFR* grades are ‘low’ whilst most *LFIS* grades are ‘high’ or ‘very high’.
433 Areas of particular concern are located in Guangxi, southern Guizhou & Yunnan, and
434 eastern Sichuan, where flood hazards frequently occur along with subsequent debris
435 flows and landslides. The higher level of *LFIS* than *IRFR* experienced in these regions
436 is exacerbated by their Karst topography, uncontrolled land-use, and deteriorating
437 ecological conditions.

438 *3.4 Validation of the results*

439 Present studies on flood risk assessment focus on the evaluation of *IRFR*. Therefore,
440 validation of *IRFR* is carried out through comparison of the evaluation results obtained
441 herein with results obtained by the GIS overlay technique (Li, 2004). To validate the

442 results, 20 cities are selected. The absolute values of *IRFR* evaluated by the two
443 approaches are normalized ($IRFR_i/IRFR_{max}$) to [0, 1] to eliminate scaling effects. As
444 shown in Fig. 10, the normalized values of *IRFR* obtained by the two approaches are
445 consistent. An investigation of the similarity between the normalized results obtained by
446 the two approaches demonstrates their close agreement, with Pearson coefficient =
447 0.938 and Cosine coefficient = 0.990.

448 Validation of *LFIS* is awkward, because it is presented for the first time (to the
449 authors' knowledge) in this paper. As *LFIS* provides an overall evaluation of the Flood
450 Hazard Index (*FHI*) and the Sustainable Development Index (*SDI*), validation of the
451 assessment results for *SDI* could be used as an indirect means of validating *LFIS*.
452 Validation of *SDI* is carried out in the companion paper (Sun et al., accepted by Journal
453 of Environmental Management, 2009) where close agreement is found between the
454 results obtained by the present rapid assessment approach and a systems analysis
455 technique (with Pearson coefficient = 0.957 and Cosine coefficient = 0.998).

456 *3.5 Recommendations for sustainable flood risk management*

457 Close attention should be paid to changing flood risk management policies in areas
458 where the grading of *LFIS* and *IRFR* is significantly different (i.e. by at least two
459 grades). In particular, Zone IV regions are of concern because their *IRFR* grades are
460 much lower than their corresponding *LFIS* grades. Present flood risk management
461 policies being implemented in these regions may not be sufficiently sensitive to the
462 long-term impact of flood hazard.

463 For counties and cities in Zone I regions, the likelihood of flood hazard occurrence is
464 very low, and both *LFIS* and *IRFR* grades are ‘low’ due to the relatively low
465 vulnerability to flood hazard and relatively high sustainability. Water scarcity impedes
466 the regional sustainability of counties and cities in Zone I, and sustainable use of water
467 is vital for the socio-economic development of Zone I regions. Recommendations are
468 as follows: (i) domestic water supply and water for various socio-economic activities
469 should be limited so that the ecological water requirement is met; (ii) water-use
470 efficiency should be improved; and (iii) the protection of natural forest resources and
471 soil and water conservation should be strengthened.

472 In Zone II regions in central and eastern China where rapid development has already
473 taken place, any major flood event would obviously have a deleterious impact on
474 sustainable development. Integrated flood strategies should focus on systems
475 optimization of the industrial structure, land-use projects, and flood control
476 countermeasures. For example, particular consideration should be given to the lower
477 Yangtze River basin where socio-economic development is occurring rapidly, with a
478 higher level of *LFIS* than *IRFR*. Engineering flood prevention countermeasures should
479 be strengthened due to the relatively high degree of flood hazard. With this in mind, the
480 following recommendations are suggested: (i) utilize integrated management systems to
481 control the soil erosion in river basin; (ii) enhance communications and improve the
482 flood forecasting system; (iii) develop a support system for flood control
483 decision-making and hence improve the flood risk management system; and (iv)

484 upgrade the mode of development through industrial restructuring to reduce the
485 vulnerability of the overall socio-economic-environmental system.

486 Turning to the Zone III regions in western and north-central China, policy makers
487 should reconsider the prime modes of production by which the natural resources are
488 exploited. This is especially the case for northern Yunnan, Shanxi and north-eastern
489 Inner Mongolia, where flood risk vulnerability is increased by unregulated mining
490 activities. By altering mining practices in these regions as part of a comprehensive flood
491 risk management strategy, considerable improvements could be made to the local
492 ecology and landscape that also have a beneficial effect on flood prevention. In
493 implementing a comprehensive flood strategy, the following actions should be
494 considered: (i) improve the effectiveness of soil and water conservation measures, halt
495 unreasonable development activities, and encourage ecological agricultural practices; (ii)
496 promote the construction of ecological cities whose infrastructure is designed for
497 environmental protection; (iii) develop the circular economy, upgrade industry, and
498 promote alternative industries in order to steer away from the present resources-based
499 economy; and (iv) strengthen the environmental protection of mining areas and improve
500 flood risk management in these areas.

501 For the ecologically fragile Zone IV region in southwest China, flood risk is
502 associated with other geological hazards, such as landslide and mass movements (Liu et
503 al., 2006). Typical karst areas are mainly located in the Zone IV regions, particularly in
504 Guangxi, southern Yunnan and eastern Sichuan. The karst topography and associated

505 deterioration of the ecological environment influence the environmental factors that
506 affect floods. Three types of flood disaster typically occur in these areas: mountain
507 flood; slope flood; and karst depression flood. Such flood events may induce secondary
508 disasters that have deleterious effects on the already fragile local ecosystem. Therefore,
509 integrated flood strategies should focus on restoration and rehabilitation of the
510 ecosystems in Zone IV regions. In implementing comprehensive flood countermeasures,
511 it is recommended that the following actions should be undertaken: (i) stop reclamation
512 of steep slopes for cultivation, and instead encourage forestation, conversion of
513 cropland to forest, and rehabilitation of the storage and adjusting functions of the
514 forest-soil system; (ii) strengthen overall control of soil erosion, taking small river
515 valleys as treatment units; (iii) improve the ‘rocky desertification’ of karst development
516 areas, and encourage the restoration and rehabilitation of the fragile karst ecosystem; (iv)
517 promote ecological agriculture to enhance environmental protection; (v) prevent
518 unreasonable economic activity in flash flood-prone areas; (vi) improve forecasting,
519 monitoring and emergency response systems for flash flood related disasters in
520 flood-prone areas; and (vii) increase public awareness of flood disasters to minimize the
521 consequences of floods.

522 **4 Conclusions**

523 China has a long history of natural flood disasters. Over the past three decades,
524 China has enjoyed rapid economic development, and embraced the need for
525 sustainability. With this in mind, the present paper has examined the possible linkages

526 between flood hazard and sustainable development in mainland China. Two parameters
527 have been used to characterize short-term and long-term flood impacts. The first was
528 insurance related flood risk (*IRFR*), based on short-term economic losses caused by
529 floods. The second comprised an index of long-term flood impact on sustainability
530 (*LFIS*), obtained as the ratio of a flood hazard index (*FHI*) to a sustainable development
531 index (*SDI*). Then, *IRFR* was evaluated for counties and cities throughout mainland
532 China using a rapid assessment approach, which is efficient, reliable and able to deal
533 with data scarcity. *LFIS* was determined using *FHI* values estimated using the same
534 rapid assessment method and *SDI* values obtained in the companion paper by Sun et al.
535 (accepted by Journal of Environmental Management, 2009). Both *FHI* and *SDI* have
536 been graded into ‘very low’, ‘low’, ‘medium’, ‘high’, and ‘very high’ classes, and four
537 zones determined for mainland China according to a matrix of prescribed combinations
538 of the flood hazard and sustainable development grades. It has been found that Zone I
539 regions are mostly located in under-developed areas in western China, which have
540 relatively low *FHI* and relatively high *SDI* values; Zone II regions are mostly located in
541 rapidly developing areas in eastern and central China, which have relatively high *FHI*
542 and *SDI* values; Zone III regions are mostly located in the resources-based areas of
543 western and north-central China, where *FHI* and *SDI* both have relatively low values.
544 Zone IV regions are mostly located in ecologically fragile areas of southwest China that
545 have relatively high *FHI* and relatively low *SDI*. About 63 % of the total land area of
546 mainland China corresponds to Zone I and Zone III regions.

547 Comparison between *LFIS* and *IRFR* is helpful to better understand the flood impact
548 in terms of sustainability. At the national level, 64 % counties or cities have high *LFIS*,
549 whilst 57 % have low *IRFR*. This suggests that the Chinese authorities should consider
550 realigning their present flood risk policies for most regions of China towards sustainable
551 flood risk management. In general terms, the policies for Zone III and Zone IV region
552 merit particular attention, because *LFIS* follows the order: Zone I < Zone II \approx Zone III <
553 Zone IV, whereas *IRFR* follows: Zone I < Zone III < Zone IV < Zone II. For Zone I
554 regions, policy makers should aim for more sustainable economic development. For
555 Zone II regions, integrated flood risk management is recommended, incorporating
556 changes to the industrial, technological and knowledge bases, while enhancing the
557 portfolio of countermeasures available to deal with potential flood events. For Zone
558 III regions, a comprehensive flood risk management strategy is required that ameliorates
559 the effect of unregulated extraction and processing of natural resources. Finally, for
560 Zone IV regions, the flood risk management policy should be in keeping with the needs
561 of the eco-system.

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697 **Tables:**

698 **Table 1** Data sources and analysis techniques used to estimate *FHI*

Item	Basic index	Data sources	Technique
Climate (<i>i</i> _{2,1})	Average Annual Rainfall (<i>i</i> _{3,1}) 3 Days Maximum Rainfall (<i>i</i> _{3,2})	Daily climatic database of China for 620 stations from 1951 to 2000	Statistical analysis of mean annual values over last 50 years & Interpolation by Kriging technique
Geomorphology (<i>i</i> _{2,2})	Absolute Elevation (<i>i</i> _{3,3}) Average Regional Relief (<i>i</i> _{3,4})	1:3,000,000 grid-based digital elevation model of China (1km×1km), 2000	Sampling the range in elevation (relief) within 5km×5 km grid area & Calculating the average relief with GIS tools
River Network (<i>i</i> _{2,3})	Buffer Zones (<i>i</i> _{3,5})	1: 4,000,000 grid-based map of river basin distribution, 2000	Statistical analysis of the river network data via Buffer analysis of GIS

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702 **Table 2** Eigenvalues of centroids for 2nd layer sub-indices for *FHI*

Class (<i>j</i>)		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Eigenvalue (<i>k</i> _{2,1,<i>j</i>})	0.98	0.36	0.82	0.72	0.92	0.60	0.83
Climate (<i>i</i> _{2,1})	Number of units in reference groups	645	165	430	206	456	172	265
	Eigenvalue (<i>k</i> _{2,2,<i>j</i>})	0.87	0.50	0.30	0.70	0.53	0.14	0.36
Geomorphology (<i>i</i> _{2,2})	Number of units in reference groups	226	216	383	373	350	463	328
	Eigenvalue (<i>k</i> _{2,3,<i>j</i>})	0.46	0.15	0.02	0.81	0.98	0.29	0.64
River Network (<i>i</i> _{2,3})	Number of units in reference groups	221	486	1008	86	107	284	144

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Table 3 Eigenvalues, ranks and number of units for *FHI*

Class (<i>j</i>)		1	2	3	4	5
Eigenvalue ($k_{1,1,j}$)		0.46	0.64	0.55	0.31	0.77
Flood Hazard ($i_{1,1}$)	Number of units in reference groups	341	625	592	312	466
	Ranks	'Low'	'High'	'Medium'	'Very low'	'Very high'
	Total number of units	341	628	592	312	466

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Table 4 Eigenvalues, ranks, and number of units for *LFIS*

Class (<i>j</i>)		1	2	3	4	5
Eigenvalue ($k_{1,1,j}$)		1.45	1.23	0.70	1.01	1.75
Ranks		'High'	'Medium'	'Very low'	'Low'	'Very high'
Number of units		708	510	234	379	508

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Table 5 Eigenvalues of centroids for vulnerability to flood hazard

Class (<i>j</i>)		1	2	3	4	5
Per-capita GDP		0.84	0.06	0.83	0.04	0.23
Population Density		0.59	0.23	0.93	0.12	0.45
Arable Land Density		0.39	0.68	0.41	0.21	0.54
Road Density		0.61	0.32	0.32	0.25	0.37
Vulnerability to Flood Hazard ($i_{1,1}$)	Eigenvalue ($k_{1,1,j}$)	0.64	0.27	0.70	0.13	0.38
	Number of units in reference groups	56	343	81	1129	266
	Ranks	'High'	'Low'	'Very high'	'Very low'	'Medium'
	Total number of units	77	359	146	1489	268

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713 **Table 6** Spatial distribution of Zones I, II, III and IV in mainland China

Zones	Regions	No of units	Percentage of land area (%)
Zone I Under-developed areas in north-western China	Xinjiang, west of Inner Mongolia, parts in Gansu, Qinghai & Hebei	193	31
Zone II Rapidly developing areas in central and eastern China	Most north-eastern areas, Hebei, Shandong, South-east plains, east and southeast costal areas	1061	23
Zone III Resource-based areas in western and north-central China	Tibet, west of Sichuan, north of Yunnan, Ningxia, Gansu, Qinghai, Shanxi and Shaanxi	460	32
Zone IV Fragile-ecological areas in south-western China	Sichuan basin, south Yunnan, Guizhou, and most Guangxi, minority in south-east plains	625	14

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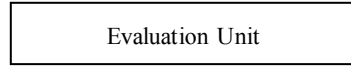
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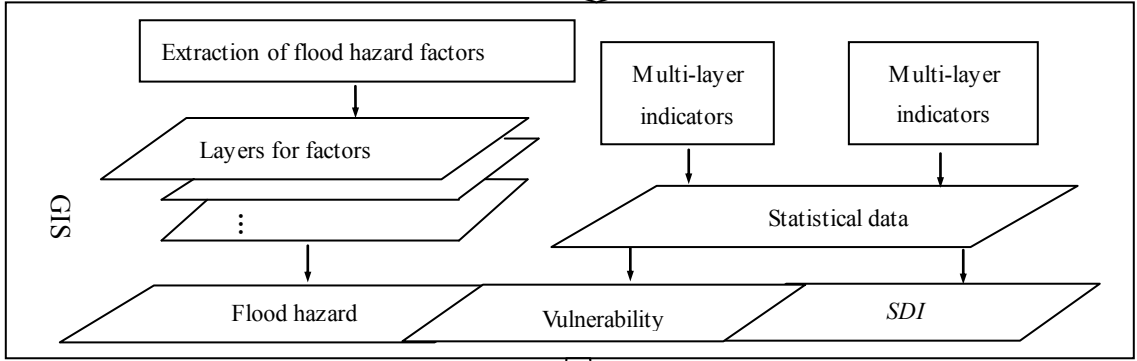
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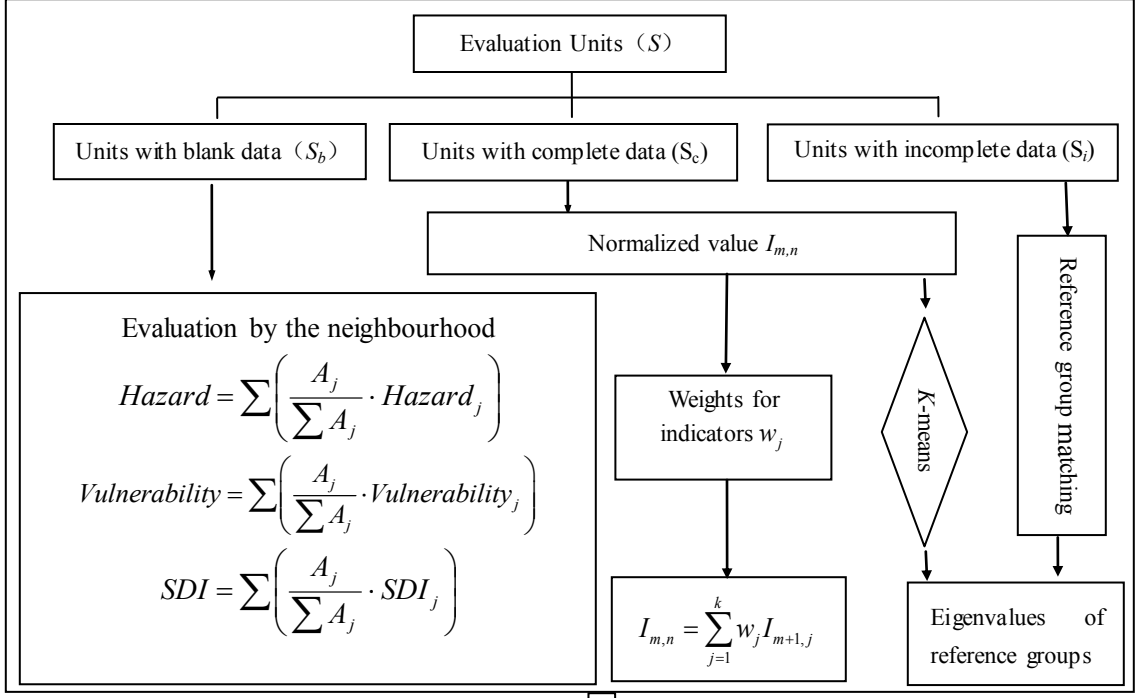
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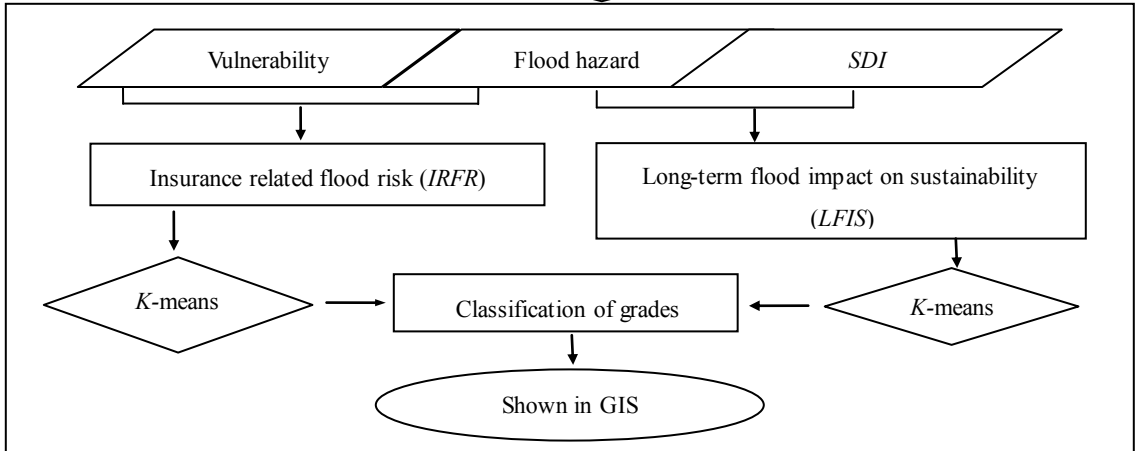
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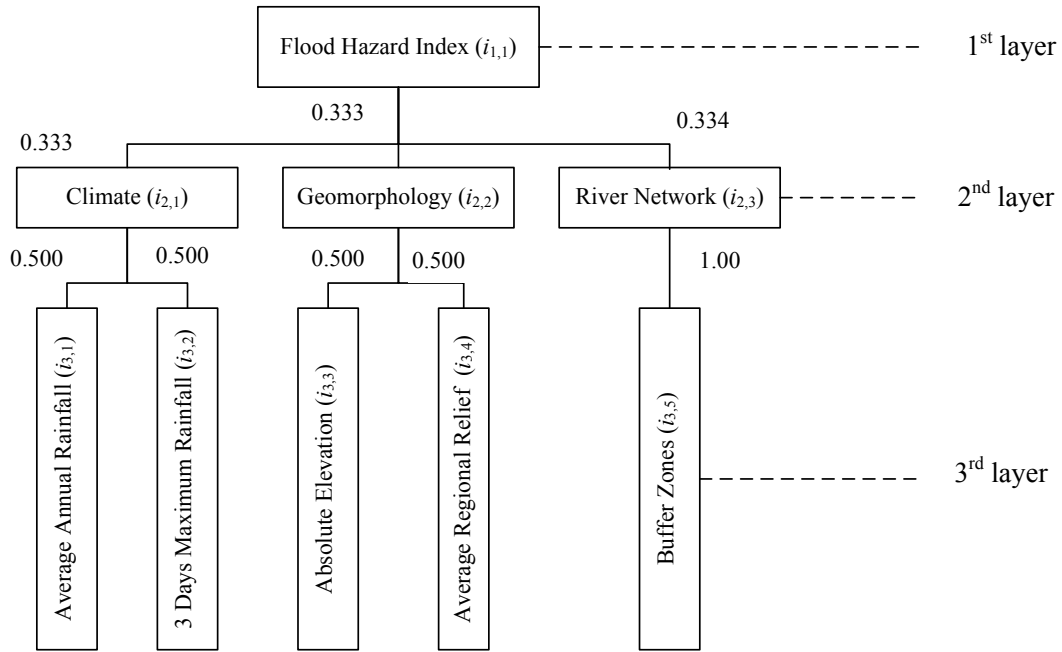
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Fig. 1 Technique route of rapid assessment

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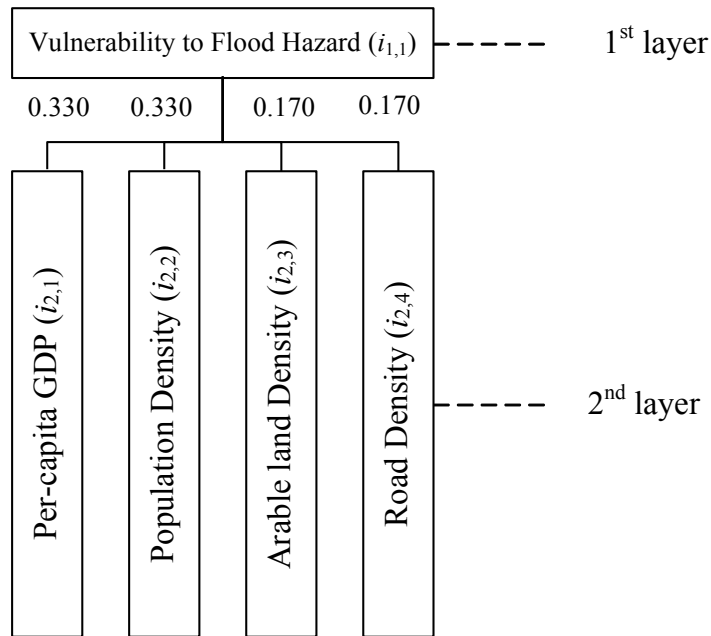
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Fig. 2 Indicator system for flood hazard in mainland China



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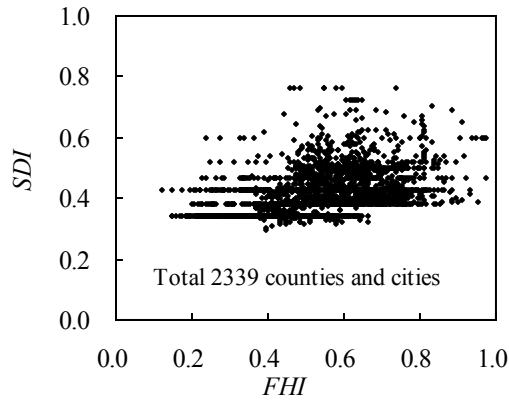
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Fig. 3 Indicator system for vulnerability to flood hazard in mainland China

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Fig. 4 Scatter plot of *SDI* against *FHI*

Grade of <i>SDI</i>	Very high	3 %	1 %	3 %	1 %	1 %
	High	5 %	1 %	4 %	2 %	2 %
	Medium	15 %	6 %	3 %	4 %	3 %
	Low	3 %	3 %	3 %	4 %	2 %
	Very low	21 %	5 %	4 %	1 %	
		Very low	Low	Medium	High	Very high

(a)

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Grade of <i>SDI</i>	Very high	Zone I		Zone II		
	High					
	Medium					
	Low					
	Very low	Zone III		Zone IV		
		Very low	Low	Medium	High	Very high

(b)

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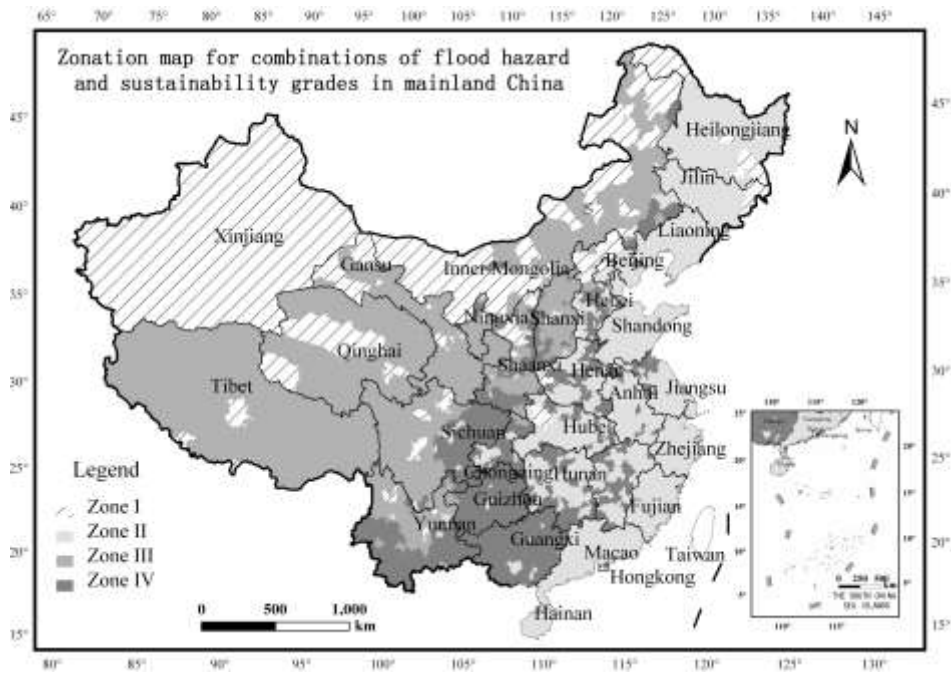
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Fig. 5 Area percentages and combinations of *FHI* and *SDI* according to their grades and Zonal classification according to *SDI* and *FHI* grading
(The number in the grid of (a) is the area percentage of each combination of *SDI* and *FHI*)

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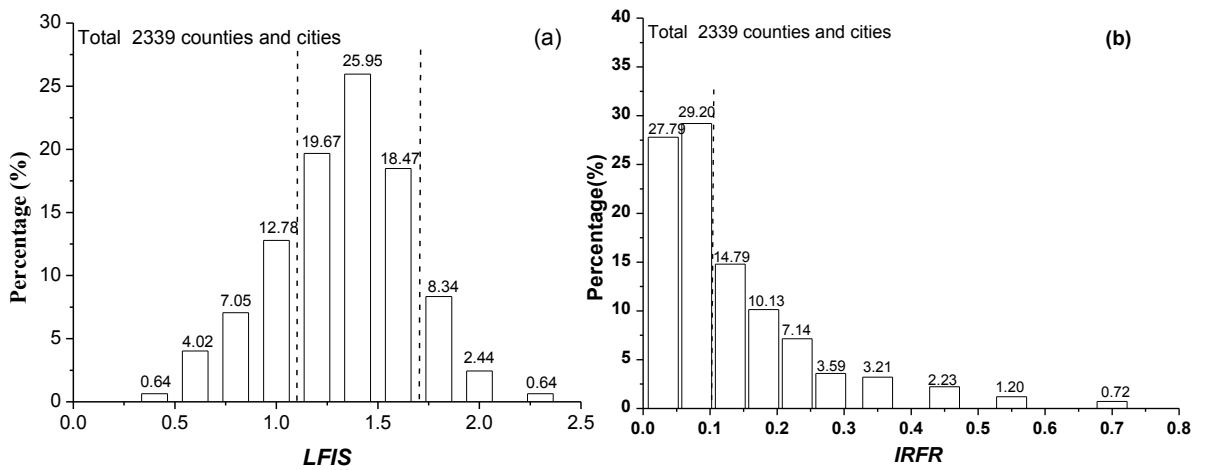


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Fig. 6 Zonation map for combinations of flood hazard and sustainability grades in mainland China

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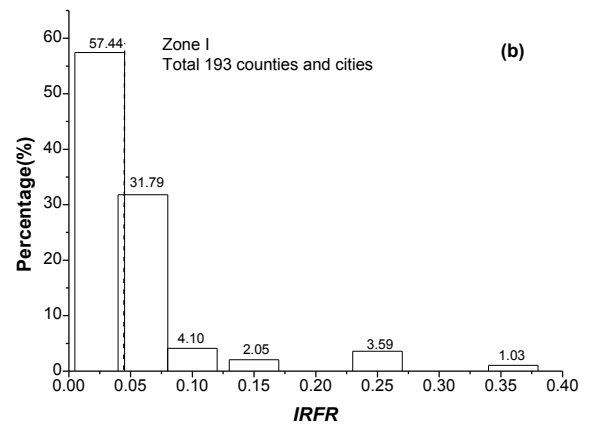
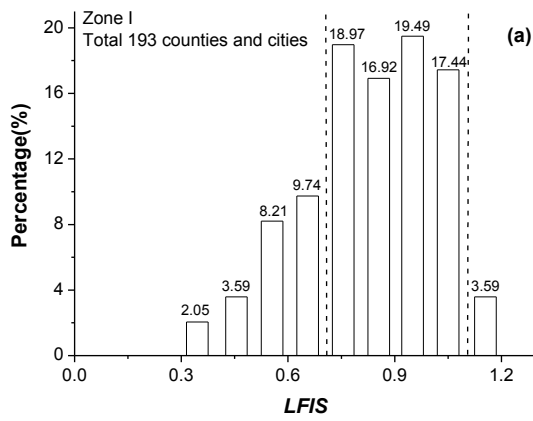
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Fig. 7 Frequency bars for LFIS and IRFR at national level

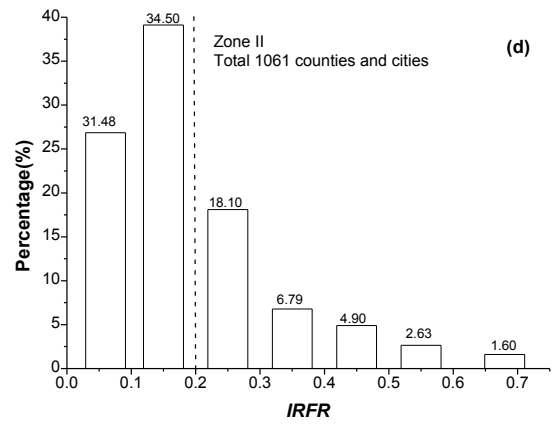
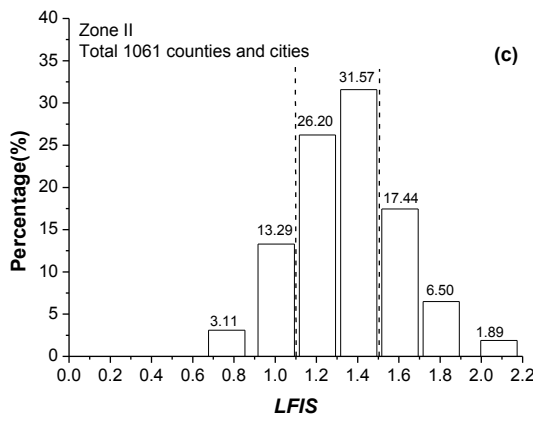
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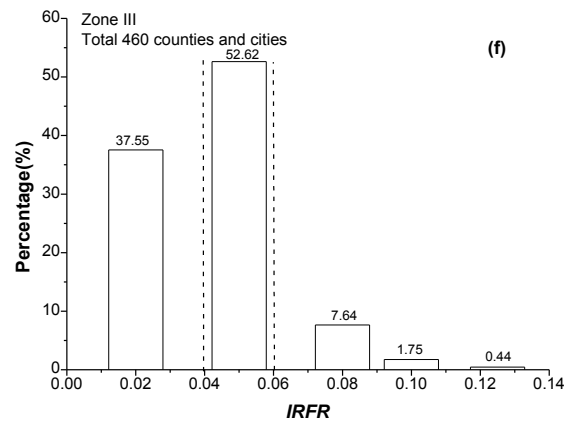
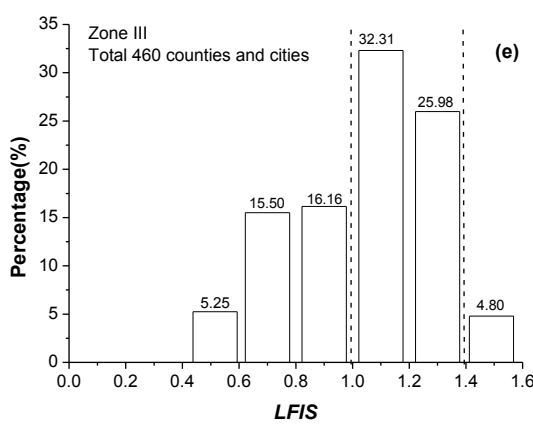
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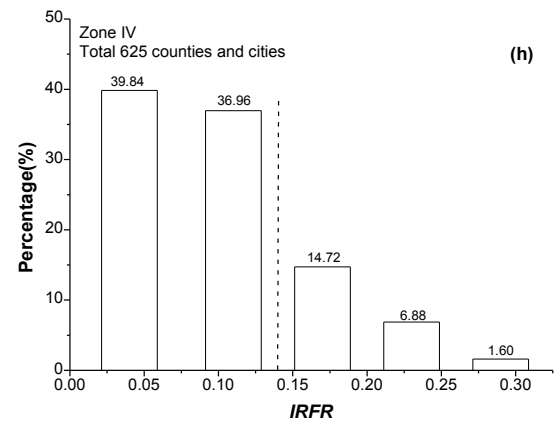
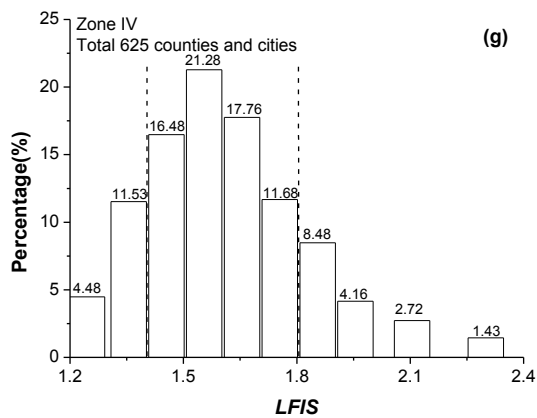
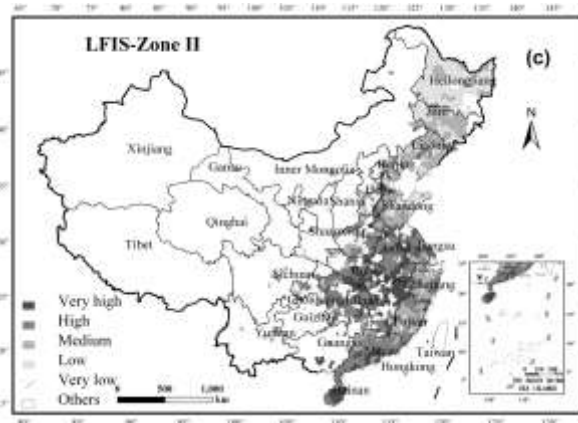


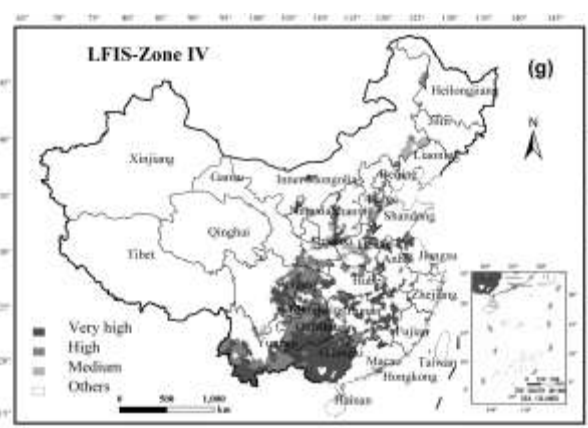
Fig. 8 Frequency bars for *LFIS* and *IRFR* according to the 4 zones





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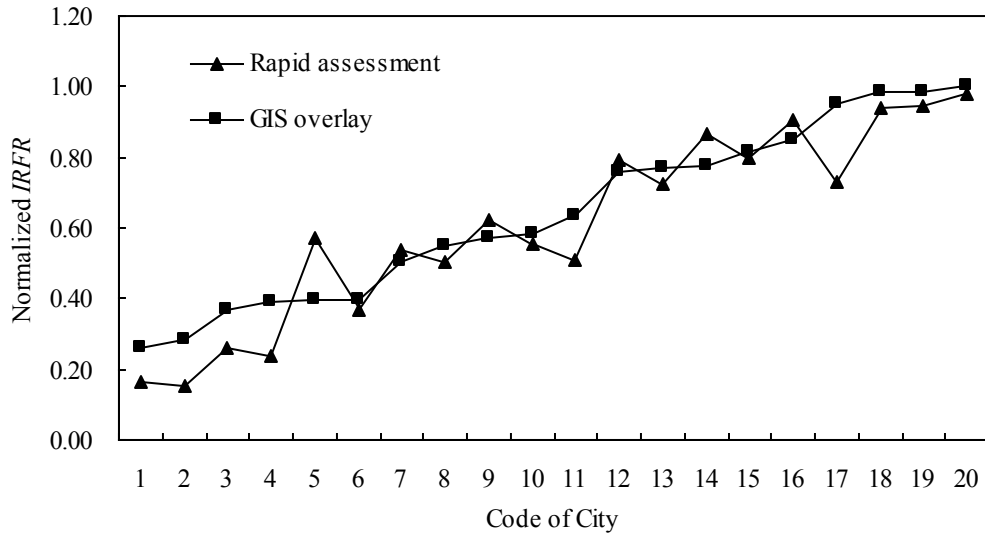
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Fig. 9 Spatial distribution of *LFIS* and *IRFR* according to the 4 zones



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796 Fig. 10 Comparison of normalized values for *IRFR* obtained using the present approach
 797 and GIS overlay approach

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