

# Uncovering the dynamics of multi-sector impacts of hydrological extremes: a methods overview

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## Abstract

Hydrological extremes, such as droughts and floods, can trigger a complex web of compound and cascading impacts due to interdependencies between coupled natural and social systems. However, current decision-making processes typically only consider one impact and disaster event at a time, ignoring causal chains, feedback loops, and conditional dependencies between impacts. Analyses capturing these complex patterns across space and time are thus needed to better inform effective adaptation planning. This perspective paper aims to bridge this critical gap by presenting methods for assessing the dynamics of the multi-sector compound and cascading impacts (CCI) of hydrological extremes. We discuss existing challenges, good practices, and potential ways forward. Rather than pursuing a single methodological approach, we advocate for methodological pluralism. We see complementary roles for analyses building on quantitative (e.g. data-mining, systems modeling) and qualitative methods (e.g. mental models, qualitative storylines). We believe the data-driven and knowledge-driven methods provided here can serve as a useful starting point for understanding the dynamics of both high-frequency CCI and low-likelihood but high-impact CCI. With this perspective, we hope to foster research on CCI to improve the development of adaptation strategies for reducing the risk of hydrological extremes.

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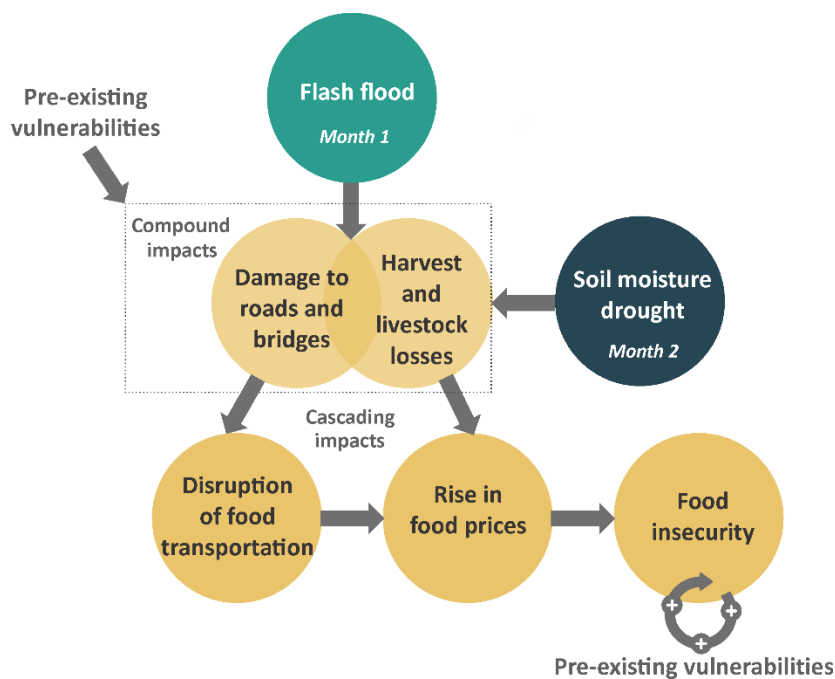
## Abstract

Hydrological extremes, such as droughts and floods, can trigger a complex web of compound and cascading impacts due to interdependencies between coupled natural and social systems. However, current decision-making processes typically only consider one impact and disaster event at a time, ignoring causal chains, feedback loops, and conditional dependencies between impacts. Analyses capturing these complex patterns across space and time are thus needed to better inform effective adaptation planning. This perspective paper aims to bridge this critical gap by presenting methods for assessing the dynamics of the multi-sector compound and cascading impacts (CCI) of hydrological extremes. We discuss existing challenges, good practices, and potential ways forward. Rather than pursuing a single methodological approach, we advocate for methodological pluralism. We see complementary roles for analyses building on quantitative (e.g. data-mining, systems modeling) and qualitative methods (e.g. mental models, qualitative storylines). We believe the data-driven and knowledge-driven methods provided here can serve as a useful starting point for understanding the dynamics of both high-frequency CCI and low-likelihood but high-impact CCI. With this perspective, we hope to foster research on CCI to improve the development of adaptation strategies for reducing the risk of hydrological extremes.

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Future climate projections show an intensification of variations in the hydrological cycle, with  
38 more droughts and floods expected to occur in many regions (Cook et al., 2020; IPCC, 2021;  
39 Merz et al., 2021; Pokhrel et al., 2021; Samaniego et al., 2018; Simpson et al., 2021). In this  
40 context, understanding the magnitude and distribution of the impacts of these hydrological  
41 extremes becomes crucial to inform adaptation planning. Impact assessments can facilitate the  
42 identification of areas that are disproportionately affected, aiming to support the allocation of  
43 resources (Hammond et al., 2015). They can further provide baseline information for evaluating  
44 whether adaptation measures effectively reduce loss and damage. Spatio-temporal impact  
45 datasets can also improve our understanding of risk drivers (Kellermann et al., 2020) and serve  
46 as ground truth information for impact-based early warning systems (Hobeichi et al., 2022).

47 In today’s interconnected world, assessing the risks and impacts of floods and droughts has  
48 become increasingly complex as these events often have far-reaching consequences that spread  
49 throughout various sectors and systems, leading to ‘**compound and cascading impacts**’  
50 **(CCI)** (Fig. 1 and Box 1). Indeed, natural, technological, and social systems are deeply  
51 intertwined, and the adverse outcomes of hydrological extremes heavily depend on how the  
52 elements of the affected systems interact with each other (Matanó et al., 2022; Raymond et al.,  
53 2020; Ruiten et al., 2020; Zscheischler et al., 2018). For example, during the 2021 flood event in  
54 Europe, the flood waters damaged major access routes and destroyed most of the bridges in the  
55 flooded area in Ahr valley (Schäfer et al., 2021). This reduced the accessibility for rescue cars and  
56 fire brigades, leading to cascading impacts.



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58 **Figure 1** Schematization of compound and cascading impacts (CCI) for a fictitious flood followed by a drought  
59 event. The impacts triggered by different hazards interact, compound, and cascade. Unrelated events or pre-  
60 existing vulnerabilities, such as pandemics and conflicts, can also contribute to the impacts.

61  
62 Flood and drought impacts can also spill over beyond their initial geographical location through  
63 the interconnectivity of socioeconomic sectors and ecosystems (UNDRR, 2021a). As a result,  
64 some of the most affected areas can be those not directly affected by the physical hazard (e.g.  
65 flood waters). For instance, the extremely low soil moisture values in the summer of 2018 in  
66 Germany caused severe crop failures, leading to fodder shortages and the consequent early  
67 slaughtering of animals. As a consequence, farmers restrained from investing in fertilizers and  
68 machinery, resulting in ripple effects along supply chains (de Brito, 2021).

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*Box 1 Defining compound and cascading impacts (CCI)*

**‘Socioeconomic impacts’** are defined as the adverse effects of floods and droughts on society. They can include but are not limited to casualties, infrastructure collapse, increased demand for water, need for credit, increased commodity prices, migration, food insecurity, conflicts, reduced quality of life, crop yield losses, and mental health problems. Hydrological extremes can, in exceptional cases, lead to positive consequences. For instance, drought combined with heat waves can benefit fruit growers and winemakers depending on the onset of the event, as they can increase the sugar concentration in fruits.

The term **‘compound impact’** is used to denote impacts that temporally and spatially coincide. These could be, for instance, a drought that simultaneously impairs the transportation of goods and affects tourism via restrictions on boat cruises. The impacts of hydrological extremes can also compound with the effects of other ‘compounding hazards’ or events (i.e. multi-hazard events) and/or circumstances (e.g. conflicts). Even unrelated events, such as the Covid-19 pandemic, can amplify the impacts of droughts and floods and vice versa (UNDRR, 2021c).

**‘Cascading impact’** refers to consecutive impacts triggered or amplified by other impacts or processes. For instance, the delay in sowing and transplanting crops caused by droughts can reduce employment in agriculture, which in turn further reduces employment due to the reduced need of labor for harvesting. Similarly, the direct impacts of floods and droughts on ecosystems and their services can lead to cascading impacts on livelihoods. Cascading impacts can also ripple within and across economic sectors. Energy outages very often impact other services, such as healthcare facilities. Upstream and downstream relations also lead to cascading impacts. For instance, low flows can impair shipping and lead to increased commodity prices.

The concept of **‘systemic impact’** is based on the notion that the impacts of a hazard can be influenced by how the elements of the affected system interact. These interactions can either increase or decrease the overall impact. The interactions between sectors and systems and associated impacts create mutual dependencies, where actions and outcomes in one sector or system can lead to actions and outcomes in another. The term ‘systemic impact’ encompasses both compound and cascading impacts, therefore, both coincidental and consecutive impacts.

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71 A better understanding of CCI’s characteristics and underlying drivers can, therefore, inform the  
72 ex-ante management of systemic risks. The need to investigate CCI has been underscored by the  
73 UNDRR (2021) and has recently been included in the research agenda of the Integrated Research  
74 on Disaster Risk 2021-2030 (ISC-UNDRR-IRDR, 2021). Likewise, the IPCC is moving from a  
75 static understanding of risk to a dynamic framing that considers compounding, cascading, and  
76 systemic effects (IPCC, 2022).

77 Inspired by these calls, research on CCI of floods and droughts is on the rise. In recent years,  
78 scientists have addressed CCI to specific sectors and hazard types, especially critical  
79 infrastructure (Fekete, 2020; Guimarães et al., 2021; Rohr et al., 2020), water quality (Mishra  
80 et al., 2021), agriculture (Christian et al., 2020) as well as cascading impacts linked to the  
81 COVID-19 pandemic and its policy responses to it (UNDRR, 2021c). Interactions between  
82 hydrological extremes have also been investigated. For instance, Matanó et al. (2022) and Ward  
83 et al. (2020) provide examples of interactions between flood and drought impacts. Despite these  
84 advances, research on CCI remains highly fragmented, and an overview of available methods to  
85 study them is missing.

86 In this perspective, we discuss key approaches for investigating CCI dynamics within the context  
87 of climate change and an increasingly connected world. Our goal is to help researchers navigate  
88 the emerging field of CCI by providing a synthesis of existing methods. We first highlight  
89 persisting challenges, such as the lack of multi-sector and longitudinal impact data. Then, we  
90 present a range of qualitative and quantitative methods that can be used to analyze CCI  
91 dynamics, drawing on case study examples. Based on these, we end with six recommendations  
92 to advance this field of research. While the set of methods discussed here is not exhaustive, it  
93 provides a holistic view of how to tackle CCI and serves as a useful starting point for researchers  
94 studying the systemic risks and impacts of droughts and floods on coupled social, technological,  
95 and natural systems.

## 96 **2 Challenges in the understanding of CCI**

97 Due to the complexity of CCI, our ability to identify and understand them is still in its infancy.  
98 While there has been notable progress in compound hazards research (e.g. Batibeniz et al., 2023;  
99 Bevacqua et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2021; Sutanto et al., 2020), the socioeconomic CCI of droughts  
100 and floods remain relatively unexplored (Naumann et al., 2021; Ward et al., 2022; Zscheischler  
101 et al., 2020). One of the reasons for the limited exploration of CCI patterns is the scarcity of data  
102 on the socioeconomic impacts of floods and droughts, especially in the global South. Impact  
103 assessments are often conducted for single hazard types, and standardized, methodologically  
104 comparable impact information for multiple disaster types is hardly available.

105 In this context, we present five challenges that need to be addressed to provide targeted  
106 information to understand CCI (Fig. 2). It should be highlighted that the field of CCI research  
107 encompasses many more challenges than those depicted in Fig. 2, such as the understanding of  
108 the risk drivers of CCI. However, these aspects fall outside the scope of this perspective paper.



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**Figure 2** Set of challenges and needs that must be addressed to provide targeted information to understand CCI. In this study, we focus on methods that can be used to address the needs of challenges 3 to 5, which are related to dynamic aspects.

Challenge 1 is linked to the focus of existing impact assessments on **single socioeconomic sectors or systems** and tangible losses (Fronzek et al., 2019; Ward et al., 2022). Studies typically address isolated impacts to single sectors, including damage to critical infrastructure (Qiang et al., 2020), agriculture losses (H. Chen et al., 2019; Rahman & Di, 2020; Tapia-Silva et al., 2011), damage to buildings (Gerl et al., 2014; Serpico et al., 2012), and fatalities (e.g. Papagiannaki et al., 2022). Furthermore, existing databases are almost exclusively limited to impacts measured in monetary terms (Ding et al., 2011), which are more easily quantified compared to intangible losses, such as societal and cultural impacts (e.g. decrease of subjective

122 well-being and growing lack of trust in institutions) (Ding et al., 2011). However, these intangible  
123 losses can be just as severe, if not more so. As a result, a holistic understanding of all sectors and  
124 systems affected is missing. This gap is related to difficulties in deriving reliable estimates of  
125 indirect or intangible losses such as adverse social, psychological, and environmental  
126 consequences (Allaire, 2018; Walz et al., 2021). Exceptions include initiatives such as the  
127 HOWAS21 database (Kellermann et al., 2020), which includes detailed data on objects affected  
128 by European floods. For drought events, the few existing multi-sector impact databases are  
129 based on the analysis of news (e.g. U.S. Drought Impact Recorder (NDMC, 2019), European  
130 Drought Impact Inventory – EDII (Stahl et al., 2016), and country specific databases (de Brito  
131 et al., 2020)). While these studies represent significant methodological advances, they are  
132 currently not widespread. Hence, multi-sector impact databases encompassing  
133 underrepresented sectors such as health, tourism, energy and forestry, are needed.

134 Related to this issue is the **lack of longitudinal impact datasets encompassing both**  
135 **large and small-scale events** (Challenge 2) (de Brito et al., 2020; R. L. Jones et al., 2022).  
136 Impact assessments are conducted mostly ad hoc, following a specific disaster (Ding et al., 2011).  
137 Existing impact datasets covering multiple years are limited to large-scale disasters (e.g. EM-  
138 DAT, NatCatSERVICE) and suffer from underreporting (R. L. Jones et al., 2022). As such, they  
139 may overlook the risks posed by smaller, more frequent events that can be equally damaging  
140 when considering their cumulative occurrence (UNDRR & CRED, 2020). According to the  
141 UNISDR (2015), 99.7% of all disasters between 1990 and 2013 were smaller-scale disasters, with  
142 fewer than 30 deaths or less than 5,000 affected buildings. Thousands of these smaller-scale  
143 events are unreported as they do not result in high impacts at the national or international levels.  
144 Nevertheless, they bring a constant stream of local losses and damages (UNDRR, 2021b) and are  
145 thus relevant for understanding local patterns of CCI. Therefore, impact datasets covering low  
146 and high-impact events over multiple years are required to understand the cumulative and long-  
147 term consequences of floods and droughts.

148 Challenge 3 refers to the lack of understanding regarding the **relationships between the**  
149 **socioeconomic impacts** of hydrological extremes (Pescaroli & Alexander, 2016; Simpson et  
150 al., 2021; UNDRR, 2021c). Impact outputs from one sector or system can become inputs into  
151 other sectors or systems depending on system/sector dependencies (Ding et al., 2011; UNDRR  
152 & UNU-EHS, 2022). For example, droughts can lead to crop failures, food shortages, and  
153 increased prices, resulting in ripple effects and social and political instability. Empirical studies  
154 investigating CCI relationships have often focused on single and small-scale case studies (e.g.  
155 Fekete, 2020; Gonzva et al., 2017; Zeng et al., 2021). Research addressing how impacts to one  
156 sector or system can lead to consequences in others is thus needed to support effective mitigation  
157 measures.

158 Challenge 4 is linked to the limited research on the **interconnectivity between impacts**  
159 **across regions, borders, and spatial scales** (Andrew J. Challinor et al., 2017; Helbing,  
160 2013). Namely, cascading impacts spread not only across sectors and systems but also spill

161 beyond geographical scales and administrative or national borders, and can lead to globally  
162 networked impacts (UNDRR, 2021a). For instance, drought-related harvest failures in Russia in  
163 2010, combined with an export ban, led to a global spike in cereal prices. This amplified the food  
164 security risk in Pakistan and is associated with an increase in the use of food banks in the U.K.  
165 (Andy J. Challinor et al., 2018; Hunt et al., 2021). Upstream and downstream relations can also  
166 exacerbate the impacts of floods and droughts. For instance, low flows in the Rhine impaired  
167 shipping during the 2018 drought in Germany (Erfurt et al., 2019), increasing fuel prices in  
168 Switzerland. As such, analyses of the interplay between CCI across local, regional, and even  
169 global spatial scales (e.g. Lawrence et al., 2020; Mishra et al., 2021) are needed to identify critical  
170 nodes in the system that can lead to higher impacts.

171 Finally, research on the **effects of response measures** (i.e. impacts linked to risk  
172 management or adaptation interventions) on CCI is scarce (Challenge 5). While humans  
173 influence the propagation of extreme events, they also respond to their impacts (AghaKouchak  
174 et al., 2021). Within this context, risk management and adaptation responses to one impact may  
175 inadvertently lead to unintended consequences such as an increased vulnerability in the long  
176 run (e.g. Giuliani et al., 2022; Niggli et al., 2022; Schipper, 2022; Simpson et al., 2023). For  
177 instance, temporary water abstraction licenses may exacerbate underlying water scarcity as they  
178 can be difficult to reverse when the drought ends (Di Baldassarre et al., 2018). Therefore, it is  
179 difficult to measure to which extent adaptation measures reduce impacts or lead to unintended  
180 consequences. Thus, a parallel investigation of impacts and response measures adopted is crucial  
181 to understand how they co-evolve.

182 Challenges 1 and 2 are closely tied to the quality and availability of socioeconomic impact data,  
183 whereas challenges 3 to 5 relate to understanding CCI dynamics. Since significant research has  
184 already been conducted on improving impact data collection (Alfieri et al., 2016; Allaire, 2018;  
185 Ding et al., 2011; Enenkel et al., 2020; Merz et al., 2020), we focus here on methods that can be  
186 used to address challenges 3 to 5, which are rooted in the complexity of CCI interactions.

### 187 **3 Key methods for investigating CCI patterns and relationships**

188 Several recent studies have provided valuable guidelines on how to assess compound hazard  
189 interrelationships (e.g. Bevacqua et al., 2021; Tilloy et al., 2019), the dynamics of risk  
190 components (e.g. De Angeli et al., 2022; de Ruiter and van Loon, 2022; Terzi et al., 2019) and  
191 multi-sector dynamics (e.g. Reed et al., 2022). However, similar syntheses that incorporate both  
192 qualitative and quantitative approaches are still missing for research on CCI.

193 In the subsequent sections, we present an overview of knowledge-driven, data-driven, and mixed  
194 methods that hold the potential to enhance our understanding of the dynamic nature of CCI  
195 (Table 1). These were selected based on the experience of the co-authors, which come from  
196 different fields, including sociology, engineering, physics, geography and economics. A general  
197 description is provided for each method, followed by applications in CCI or related fields and



198 how the method can address challenges 3 to 5 in Fig. 2. Besides considering the strengths of each  
199 analytical approach, the choice for a specific method should be guided by the study's objective,  
200 data requirements, and complexity level as illustrated in Fig. 3.

201 Although the examples of applications here focus on drought and flood hazards, these methods  
202 can be used for other hazard types (e.g. earthquakes, storms, heatwaves, and landslides). Also,  
203 many of these methods can also be applied to understand the relationship between risk drivers  
204 (e.g. vulnerability, exposure, and hazard) and their corresponding CCI.

205 It is worth highlighting that this overview is not intended to encompass all existing methods  
206 which can be used to understand complex relationships. Rather, we strive to emphasize key  
207 approaches that can aid in comprehending CCI dynamics. Additionally, the articles presented  
208 here represent only a fraction of the extensive literature on climate change impacts in a broader  
209 sense.

### 210 **3.1 Knowledge-driven methods**

211 Knowledge-driven methods rely on expert judgment and domain-specific information to analyze  
212 complex phenomena. These methods leverage existing knowledge, whether formal or informal,  
213 theoretical or practical, to delve into the systemic aspects of CCI. Their foundation lies in  
214 recognizing the significance of tacit and explicit knowledge, collective wisdom, and context-  
215 specific expertise in generating insights into complex systems (Aminpour et al., 2020). As their  
216 development can be done in a co-creation process with relevant actors, they also allow the  
217 integration of perspectives of vulnerable and marginalized groups, often overlooked in more  
218 data-driven approaches. In this section, we focus on methods such as mental models, visual  
219 techniques, and qualitative scenarios and storylines.

**Table 1** Overview of methods that can be used to investigate CCI dynamics. The groups of methods here are, to some extent, subjective, and overlap exists between them. Thus, they should be used as a general guide rather than a definitive categorization.

Group of methods	Methods and key references	Strengths	Weaknesses
Knowledge-driven	Mental models <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Causal loop diagrams (Groesser &amp; Schaffernicht, 2012; Rest &amp; Hirsch, 2022)</li> <li>▪ Fuzzy cognitive maps (Ballesteros-Olza et al., 2022; Mehryar &amp; Surminski, 2022)</li> <li>▪ Impact chains (Hagenlocher et al., 2018; Zebisch et al., 2022)</li> <li>▪ Impact webs (Sparkes et al., 2023)</li> <li>▪ Rich pictures (Suriya &amp; Mudgal, 2013)</li> </ul>	Visualize the interplay between CCI (Challenge 3). When built in a participatory way, it enables the inclusion of perspectives of marginalized and vulnerable groups. It also facilitates mapping CCI to responses (Challenge 5)	Criticized as subjective representations of reality. Risk of oversimplification as it is difficult to map the full complexity of a system. Spatial and temporal dynamics are usually not explicitly addressed (Challenge 4)
	Visual techniques <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Event timelines (Matanó et al., 2022; Seebauer et al., 2023)</li> <li>▪ Qualitative matrices (Gill &amp; Malamud, 2014, 2016; Matanó et al., 2022)</li> <li>▪ Network diagrams (Gill &amp; Malamud, 2014, 2016)</li> </ul>	Simplify complex ideas and enhance their comprehensibility for a wider audience. Visualize relationships between CCI and response measures over time (Challenges 3 and 5)	Can carry ethical risks (e.g. power relations). Comparability between studies is limited. Are often unsuitable for addressing spatial dynamics (Challenge 4)
	Qualitative storylines and scenarios <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Qualitative storylines (van den Hurk et al., 2023)</li> <li>▪ (Semi)-qualitative scenarios (Di Baldassarre et al., 2021; Rusca et al., 2023)</li> </ul>	Allow to take into account political, cultural, and economic contexts. Give more power to participants to shape the story. Spatial and temporal changes play a key role in these methods (Challenge 4)	Highly context-specific. Risk of making arbitrary assumptions and oversimplification. Limited ability to predict outcomes.
Data-driven	Multivariate statistics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Logistic regression and other machine learning algorithms (Ben-Ari et al., 2018; Martius et al., 2016)</li> <li>▪ Markov chains (Ronizi et al., 2022)</li> <li>▪ Co-occurrence analysis (de Brito, 2021)</li> </ul>	Capable of capturing non-linear relationships between CCI (Challenges 3 and 5). Can handle large and complex datasets with numerous variables	Data-intensive. Sensitive to data biases and dependency on historical observations, which leads to limitations in a changing climate and/or contexts of under-reporting
	Data mining <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Dimensionality reduction (Anowar et al., 2021)</li> <li>▪ Clustering (Lam et al., 2016)</li> <li>▪ Sequential pattern mining (de Brito, 2021)</li> </ul>	Extracting key patterns from high-dimensional and noisy data (Challenge 3). Allow uncovering hidden dependencies, also spatially (Challenge 4)	Potential loss of complexity and details when reducing high-dimensional data to lower-dimensional representation
Mixed	Systems modelling <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Agent-based modelling (ABM) (Wijermans et al., 2022)</li> <li>▪ System dynamics and multi-sector dynamics models (Savelli et al., 2023; Yoon et al., 2021)</li> </ul>	Can portray the temporal dynamics of complex systems (Challenges 3). Allow the assessment of the effects of different adaptation measures (Challenges 5). AMB can account for spatial dynamics (Challenge 4)	Empirical models require comprehensive data coverage of the underlying system. Require careful calibration and validation. Models without empirical components run at risk of being ‘toy’ models
	Network analysis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Network analysis (Naqvi &amp; Monasterolo, 2021)</li> </ul>	Intuitive visualization of interconnected systems (Challenges 3 and 5). Enable the identification of key nodes within the	Requires data and knowledge on both impacts and causal relationships between impacts

Economic-based models

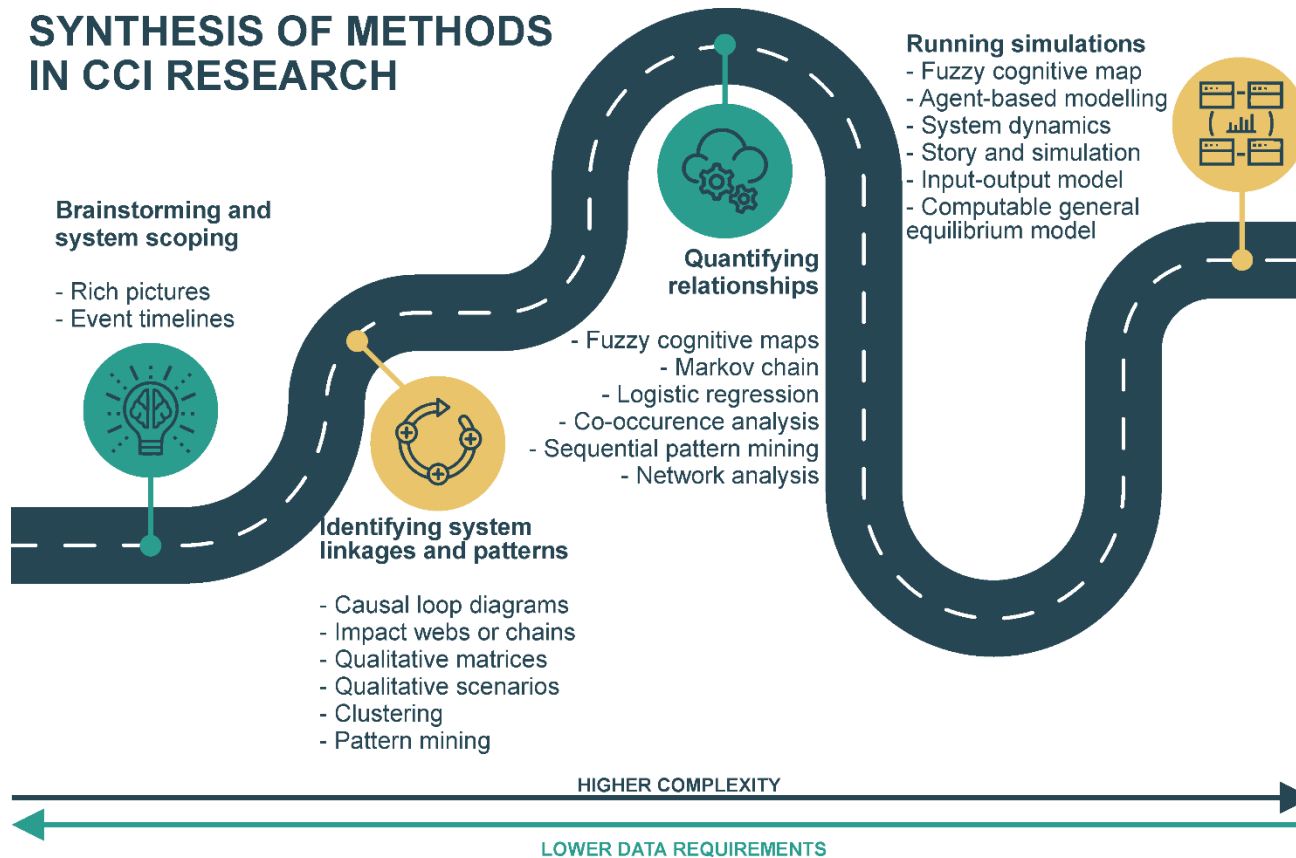
- Input-output analysis (Koks et al., 2019)
- Computable general equilibrium model (Bachner et al., 2023)

network. Allow investigating spatial patterns (Challenge 4)  
 Allow identifying how changes in one sector can propagate through the economy, affecting other sectors and causing cascading effects (Challenge 3). Can analyze cross-sectoral and cross-regional economic impacts (Challenge 4)

Can represent an oversimplistic view of the economy. Data-intensive

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**Figure 3** Synthesis of methods used in CCI research to brainstorm, identify system linkages and patterns, quantify relationships, and run simulations. Some methods can be used for multiple purposes.

### 227 **3.1.1. Mental models**

228 Mental models are schematic representations of the world as perceived by humans. By  
229 articulating complex relationships between system components (Levy et al., 2018) they aid in  
230 comprehending how systems respond to risks and factors such as human activity or  
231 environmental changes. However, since individuals' perspectives differ, mental models are  
232 subjective depictions of reality (N. A. Jones et al., 2011). They are typically constructed through  
233 stakeholder involvement (Romero-Lankao & Norton, 2018) and are often paired with other  
234 methods, such as system dynamics (Perrone et al., 2020).

235 Several approaches are used to elicit mental models, ranging from **causal loop diagrams**  
236 **(CLD)** to free drawing (see Doyle et al., 2022 for a review). CLD are a popular method that  
237 demonstrates how changes in one variable can influence others by reinforcing (positive link) or  
238 balancing them (negative link). CLD have been widely applied to understand the relationships  
239 between socioeconomic impacts (Challenge 3), including the investigation of cascading impacts  
240 of hydrological extremes on transport infrastructure, electricity, and healthcare systems (e.g.  
241 Berariu et al., 2015; Rest and Hirsch, 2022), as well as multi-sectoral impacts (e.g. Montgomery  
242 et al., 2012; Perrone et al., 2020). CLD have also been used to analyze coping and adaptation  
243 strategies and their effectiveness in mitigating impacts (Challenge 5) (e.g. Armah et al., 2010;  
244 Sanga et al., 2021; Song et al., 2018). While CLD can represent temporal dynamics adequately,  
245 spatial aspects are usually not explicitly addressed (Challenge 4). Furthermore, due to their  
246 reliance on human interpretation may, their ability to capture the nuances of real-world CCI is  
247 compromised, potentially leading to oversimplification.

248 **Fuzzy cognitive maps (FCM)** are CLD that account for uncertainty by using weights to define  
249 relationship strengths (Challenge 3). FCM have been employed to study drought and flood  
250 adaptation solutions and their effect on socioeconomic impacts (e.g. Ballesteros-Olza et al.,  
251 2022; Chandra and Gaganis, 2016; Mehryar and Surminski, 2022) (Challenge 5). They have been  
252 used to examine past disasters as well as to simulate plausible CCI futures (e.g. D'Agostino et al.,  
253 2020). Vanwindekens et al. (2018) incorporated spatial dynamics into the FCM by coupling it  
254 with geolocated data to analyze crops' vulnerability to soil moisture drought. Recently, FCM have  
255 also been used to address CCI interactions across neighborhood, city, and regional scales (e.g.  
256 White et al., 2021) (Challenge 4).

257 **Impact chains** are conceptual models used to capture the interplay of hazard, vulnerability,  
258 and exposure factors that lead to a specific risk or impact (Menk et al., 2022). This mixed-  
259 methods approach draws on elements of CLD and network analysis to investigate complex  
260 systems. Impact chains have been applied in various contexts and settings (e.g. Fritzsche et al.,  
261 2014; Hagenlocher et al., 2018; Zebisch et al., 2022). For instance, Kabisch et al. (2014) used  
262 impact chains to identify the relationships between direct and indirect impacts on multiple  
263 sectors resulting from heatwaves, floods, and storm surges (Challenge 3). One of the strengths  
264 of impact chains is their ability to link impacts and adaptation strategies (Challenge 5) directly.

265 However, it is important to note that impact chains often neglect or overly simplify complex  
266 systemic interrelations, including transboundary relationships (Menk et al., 2022), which poses  
267 a challenge in addressing Challenge 4.

268 More recently, an approach called **impact webs** was explicitly designed to tackle the complex  
269 nature of CCI risks (UNDRR, 2021c). Drawing on the foundations of CLD, impact chains, and  
270 network analysis, impact webs provide a comprehensive framework for characterizing the  
271 interconnected components of multiple systems, capturing their underlying risk drivers, and  
272 visualizing the dynamics of cascading effects (Challenge 3). Unlike impact chains, which often  
273 converge towards a single risk, impact webs offer a holistic overview of system interactions  
274 without directional constraints. While they have been initially used to understand CCI linked to  
275 the COVID-19 pandemic and responses to it, impact webs are now finding application in the  
276 study of CCI related to droughts and their compounding hazards, along with exploring potential  
277 adaptation options (Challenge 5) (Cotti et al., 2023; Sparkes et al., 2023).

### 278 **3.1.2. Visual techniques**

279 In addition to mental models, visualization techniques, such as rich pictures, event timelines,  
280 and qualitative matrices, are used for visually capturing the elements of a system. They are often  
281 part of brainstorming processes and aim to simplify complex ideas and enhance their  
282 comprehensibility for a wider audience. However, while these tools help synthesize information  
283 at a high level, they may not provide a detailed understanding of the underlying dynamics of CCI.  
284 Another concern pertains to the transferability and generalisability of results. While visual  
285 techniques facilitate a deep qualitative understanding of a given CCI event, the challenge lies in  
286 identifying comparable and scalable results that can be applied more broadly.

287 **Rich pictures** are visual depictions of a system, portraying elements and actors involved in a  
288 problematic situation (Barbrook-Johnson & Penn, 2022). When used in a participatory setting,  
289 this technique enables participants to share experiences about a certain problem and learn from  
290 each other (Bell et al., 2019). For instance, Suriya and Mudgal (2013) used the rich pictures  
291 method to examine the factors contributing to toxic floods and how their effects cascade  
292 downstream (Challenge 4). Similarly, Bunch (2003) used it to investigate the interactions  
293 between drought and flood impacts (Challenge 3). In both cases, this brainstorming exercise  
294 facilitated the development of a shared understanding of the situation. Although rich pictures  
295 are a useful visual aid, comparing their results is challenging since they are typically created  
296 without a structured approach.

297 **Event timelines** or timelining are another visualization method for representing the sequence  
298 of events over time. This approach involves plotting events related to a problem on a graph by  
299 considering participants' storytelling as a means to document past experiences (Sheridan et al.,  
300 2011), present, or project possible futures. Timelining has been successfully used in group  
301 settings to examine climate change impacts (e.g. Dolan and Walker, 2006; Schmook et al., 2023)  
302 and to understand the impact of recovery measures on disaster occurrence (e.g. Sword-Daniels

303 et al., 2015) (Challenge 5). Timelines can also be developed using document analysis. For  
304 instance, Matanó et al. (2022) conducted an extensive literature review to develop event  
305 timelines exploring the temporal interactions between floods and droughts (Challenge 3).  
306 Similarly, Seebauer et al. (2023) combined document analysis and interviews to create a timeline  
307 depicting the sequence of flood events and adaptation measures from 1980 to 2020 in Austria  
308 (Challenge 5). While timelines are an effective tool for visualizing cascades of events, they are  
309 constrained by their linearity and, thus, unsuitable for depicting interactions across regions  
310 (Challenge 4).

311 **Qualitative matrices and network diagrams** offer another approach to studying CCI.  
312 Originally proposed by Gill and Malamud (2016, 2014) for visualizing hazard interactions, these  
313 tools were later adapted to investigate disaster impacts. The matrices illustrate how a primary  
314 impact can trigger and increase the probability of a secondary impact, thus revealing the strength  
315 of these relationships. Clark-Ginsberg (2017) used these tools in a participatory setting to  
316 examine how multi-hazard events can lead to multiple socioeconomic impacts (Challenge 3).  
317 Meanwhile, Chen et al. (2022) reconstructed how the 1920 drought in China affected multiple  
318 socioeconomic sectors building qualitative matrices based on newspaper articles. Multiple  
319 hazards can also be considered. For instance, Matanó et al. (2022) developed matrices of floods  
320 and droughts CCI using stakeholder interviews and a literature review. The matrix results can  
321 serve as input for network diagrams, which present the same information in a network format.  
322 Since spatial dynamics are usually not addressed in qualitative matrices and their resulting  
323 diagrams, they are often unsuitable for addressing Challenge 4.

### 324 **3.1.3. Qualitative storylines and scenarios**

325 Qualitative storylines and scenarios are commonly used in social sciences to understand the  
326 temporal dynamics of systems (Shanahan et al., 2018). These methods have recently gained  
327 popularity in climate change science as an alternative approach to studying human-  
328 environmental dynamics when information is scarce (van den Hurk et al., 2023; Shepherd et al.,  
329 2018). They are often derived in participatory settings i.e. through narrative interviews or  
330 workshops (Shanahan et al., 2018), document analysis, or modeling.

331 **Qualitative storylines** are temporal accounts of a series of interrelated events, often presented  
332 in a storytelling format (Andrews et al., 2013). They provide descriptive narratives of CCI  
333 developments without specific quantification, emphasizing plausibility and contextual  
334 understanding (Rounsevell & Metzger, 2010). They allow exploring how impacts have occurred  
335 in the past or can unfold in the future, highlighting the causality and temporal dimensions.  
336 Through qualitative storylines, participants can describe the trickle-down effects and  
337 propagation of impacts to one sector through a system (Challenge 3) and between regions – or  
338 even across borders (Challenge 4) (e.g. Carter et al., 2021; Liguori et al., 2021; van Delden and  
339 Hagen-Zanker, 2009). The synthesis of a collection of storylines enables the extraction of generic  
340 principles and can inform the definition of both qualitative and quantitative scenarios (e.g.

341 Lottering et al., 2021; Rounsevell and Metzger, 2010), as well as conceptual system dynamic  
342 models. A protocol for constructing storylines in the field of CCI is provided by van den Hurk et  
343 al. (2023).

344 Findings from qualitative storylines can be used to feed into (semi)-**qualitative scenarios**,  
345 which are alternative representations of plausible futures. Scenarios can encompass qualitative  
346 or quantitative elements, involve structured assumptions and models, and offer a broader range  
347 of possible future trajectories for analysis (Rounsevell & Metzger, 2010; Wiebe et al., 2018). They  
348 can be instrumental in developing descriptions of how CCI can succeed through the cross-scale  
349 interaction of actors and networks in a system (Challenge 4). Qualitative scenarios are recently  
350 gaining momentum in CCI research. For example, Rusca et al. (2021) developed qualitative  
351 scenarios of unprecedented flood events and societal recovery trajectories for them (Challenge  
352 5). To this end, the authors relied on a series of qualitative and quantitative data from interviews,  
353 focus groups, and empirical analysis. Similarly, Liguori et al. (2021) developed qualitative  
354 scenarios to imagine future adaptation scenarios (Challenge 5).

### 355 **3.2 Data-driven methods**

356 Data-driven methods rely on analyzing and extracting insights from large amounts of data to  
357 understand complex systems. Their foundation lies in the principle that data contains valuable  
358 insights that can be harnessed to uncover hidden relationships and patterns. In this section, we  
359 focus on multivariate statistics and data mining approaches, but many others exist. These  
360 methods allow quantifying interdependencies between impacts and response measures,  
361 enabling a comprehensive understanding of CCI dynamics (Challenges 3 and 4). However, a  
362 significant challenge of these methods lies in their reliance on the quality and quantity of  
363 available impact data.

#### 364 **3.2.1. Multivariate statistics**

365 A broad range of tools are available to study multivariate statistics in climate data (e.g. Bevacqua  
366 et al., 2022; Jane et al., 2020), many targeted specifically at extreme events (e.g. Salvadori and  
367 De Michele, 2013). Recent years have also seen the rapid growth of machine learning  
368 applications (e.g. Feng et al., 2021). However, the above approaches are often data-intensive,  
369 especially when both temporal and spatial components need to be accounted for (Liu et al., 2021;  
370 Messori & Faranda, 2021). The lack of impact datasets covering multiple sectors and over many  
371 years (Challenges 1 and 2) and the difficulty of accounting for the effect of response measures  
372 (Challenge 5) in past data in practice means that many of these approaches have limited  
373 applicability for analyzing CCI. We, therefore, propose here simple statistical methods that may  
374 be used to investigate CCI in data-limited contexts and that can be applied to multiple types of  
375 data and spatial and temporal scales.

376 Regression models, specifically **logistic regressions**, have proven to be effective in examining  
377 temporally successive or spatially co-occurring climate hazards (e.g. Ben-Ari et al., 2018;

378 Martius et al., 2016). Data-efficient machine-learning models, including random forests, have  
379 also been used to link hydroclimatic indicators to socioeconomic impacts (e.g. Bachmair et al.,  
380 2017; Torelló-Sentelles and Franzke, 2022). These same models could profitably be applied to  
381 quantitative socioeconomic impact data, for example, to quantify changes in the odds of a given  
382 impact occurring prior to, concurrently, or after another impact (Challenge 3). A further  
383 application could be to investigate the spatial propagation of impacts (Challenge 4).

384 In a similar vein, **Markov chains** can be used to describe systems that transition between  
385 different states over time. This method has proven effective in examining the succession of  
386 interactions between multiple climate drivers and events (e.g. Sedlmeier et al., 2016) and could  
387 be directly ported to the analysis of CCI (Challenge 3). For example, Markov chains have recently  
388 been used to predict the impact of drought changes on water and soil quality (Ronizi et al.,  
389 2022). Markov chains offer particular advantages in addressing spatial changes (Challenge 4)  
390 and generating scenarios with different response measures (Challenge 5), as has been  
391 demonstrated in neighboring fields (e.g. Rifat and Liu, 2022).

392 The above methods may still struggle in extremely data-limited contexts, and in such cases, even  
393 simpler **co-occurrence analyses** may be favored. These provide a statistical indication of  
394 whether the spatial or temporal concurrence of specific impacts is larger than one may expect by  
395 random, helping to address Challenge 3. A number of co-occurrence indicators have been  
396 developed explicitly for extreme events, exactly by virtue of their effectiveness, even when  
397 applied to small data samples. For example, Kornhuber and Messori (2023) used co-occurrence  
398 statistics to identify regions of significant concurrence of climate extremes in Europe and North  
399 America, and a similar approach could be applied to their impacts. In CCI research, de Brito  
400 (2021) conducted a co-occurrence analysis to identify drought impact types often reported  
401 together by the media. While this method is useful for identifying relationships between two  
402 variables, it has limitations when dealing with patterns that emerge from multiple variables.

### 403 **3.2.2. Data mining**

404 Data mining methods such as dimensionality reduction, clustering, and sequential pattern  
405 mining are well-suited for identifying patterns in complex and high-dimensional datasets. These  
406 methods help transform datasets with many variables into interpretable information, making it  
407 easier to understand relationships among multiple observations (Challenge 3). However, the  
408 data transformation may lead to the loss of relevant information. Similar to other data-driven  
409 methods (see section 3.2.1), the application of data mining in CCI research is constrained by the  
410 availability of multi-sector and longitudinal data (Challenges 1 and 2).

411 **Dimensionality reduction methods** allow for simplifying the analysis of high-dimensional  
412 data by transforming them into lower-dimensional representations while retaining the most  
413 informative aspects (Anowar et al., 2021). These transformations enable to capture a high share  
414 of the original dataset's variance using fewer dimensions, thereby maintaining its key  
415 characteristics. Principal component analysis, self-organizing maps, and t-SNE (t-distributed



416 stochastic neighbor embedding) are a few examples of such techniques. By leveraging these  
417 methods, researchers can better understand the relationships between multiple socio-economic  
418 impacts ([Challenge 3](#)). Although dimensionality reduction methods have been successfully  
419 applied to identify underlying risk patterns (e.g. hazard, vulnerability) that drive impact  
420 occurrence (e.g. Johnson et al., 2020; Maity et al., 2013), their application in the field of CCI is  
421 yet to be explored. Adopting dimensionality reduction approaches in CCI research holds promise  
422 for gaining a comprehensive perspective on the relationships between different multi-sector  
423 impacts ([Challenge 3](#)) as well as across different regions ([Challenge 4](#)). Furthermore, indicators  
424 developed through dimensionality reduction could act as holistic measures for tracking  
425 developments through time and space or evaluating the effects of response measures ([Challenge](#)  
426 5).

427 **Clustering methods** are another powerful tool for discovering underlying patterns in high-  
428 dimensional data. Unlike dimensionality reduction methods, clustering seeks to group similar  
429 data points based on their characteristics. Popular clustering methods include k-means,  
430 hierarchical clustering, or density-based clustering. Although hardly applied in CCI research,  
431 inspiration for application to CCI can be drawn from other fields, especially hazard research (e.g.  
432 Brunner and Stahl, 2023). For example, a study by Lam et al. (2016) leveraged clustering  
433 analysis to assess resilience to climate-related hazards for U.S. counties based on 28 variables.  
434 For CCI, similar research designs could allow researchers to better understand how CCI impacts  
435 affect regions in complex ways and whether these impacts occur in similar patterns across time  
436 and space ([Challenge 4](#)).

437 **Sequential pattern mining** methods are effective for identifying rules which describe  
438 frequent temporal patterns (e.g. sequences or cascading events) in a dataset. Respective  
439 algorithms such as SPADE or generalized sequential pattern aim at finding events that occur in  
440 predictable orders throughout a given dataset. By leveraging these methods, researchers can  
441 uncover important temporal relationships and dependencies. Indeed, the application of  
442 sequential pattern mining to CCI of hydrological extremes has been demonstrated by de Brito  
443 (2022), who detected cascading drought impact patterns for the case of Germany in 2018 and  
444 2019 ([Challenge 3](#)). Given datasets of sufficient geographic scope, sequential pattern mining  
445 could also investigate interrelationships of CCI spanned between regions ([Challenge 4](#)).

### 446 **3.3 Mixed approaches**

447 Mixed approaches refer to methods that combine both qualitative and quantitative data to  
448 understand complex systems. These approaches leverage the strengths of both data-driven  
449 methods, which rely on patterns and insights derived directly from the data, and knowledge-  
450 driven methods, which incorporate domain knowledge, rules, or expert opinions. By doing so,  
451 these approaches offer a holistic perspective on the phenomenon under study.

### 452 **3.3.1. Systems modelling**

453 **Systems modeling** encompasses a range of methods for understanding complex systems  
454 through mathematical and computational models. Here, we focus on two widely used methods:  
455 system dynamics and agent-based modeling (ABM). These methods have gained popularity due  
456 to their capacity to incorporate the interplay between social and natural system components (de  
457 Brito, 2023). A limitation, however, is that they often require large amounts of data to be  
458 effective (Challenges 1 and 2). In such cases, the accuracy and reliability of the models may be  
459 compromised.

460 **Agent-based modeling (AMB)** is used to study the behavior of individuals or agents within  
461 a social system. The agent's behavior is described by a set of rules implemented by the researcher  
462 to fit the system under investigation. They often combine data from behavioural experiments or  
463 survey data (Wijermans et al., 2022). ABM can help to answer questions on how and why social  
464 systems react in response to different stimuli compared to counterfactuals. ABMs represent a  
465 well-established method for studying social-ecological systems (Biggs et al., 2021). For CCI  
466 research, models for varying purposes have been developed which capture the interactions of a  
467 social and hydrological system. For example, Michaelis et al. (2020) developed an ABM to  
468 capture processes between floods, impacts, and vulnerability. Galán et al. (2009) investigated  
469 domestic water demand using an ABM that reflects individual households. The model allowed  
470 the testing of different what-if scenarios concerning varying socioeconomic indicators and urban  
471 dynamics. Both applications highlight the capabilities of ABM to reflect on spatial  
472 interconnectivity (Challenge 4) and its effectiveness in evaluating policy measures (Challenge 5).

473 **Systems dynamics and multi-sector dynamic models** focus on studying the complexity  
474 of a system through understanding causal relationships and feedback patterns (Yoon et al.,  
475 2022). Gaining such understanding is beneficial for predicting future system behavior,  
476 identifying detrimental or supportive system components, and evaluating the likely impact of  
477 policy strategies. System dynamic models are typically based on a set of mathematical equations  
478 and can incorporate various data types to derive model-specific parameters as well as qualitative  
479 data from surveys. Integrative models based on both qualitative and quantitative data are  
480 increasingly being applied in the context of floods and drought impacts (e.g. Savelli et al., 2023;  
481 Yoon et al., 2021). For example, water supply and demand dynamics have been studied for  
482 varying climate change scenarios and management decisions (ElSawah et al., 2015). For CCI,  
483 these models can help identify how cascades propagate and how impacts across different sectors  
484 are connected through complex causal structures (Challenge 3). Additionally, integrated system  
485 dynamics models excel in evaluating response measures across different social-ecological  
486 systems (Challenge 5) and have already been used to evaluate the efficiency of future adaptation  
487 strategies (e.g. Giuliani et al., 2022). The development of system dynamics models is, however,  
488 often constrained by the availability of data to sufficiently parametrize all model components  
489 and their causal relationships.

### 490 **3.2.2. Network analysis**

491 **Network analysis** is a frequently employed method for examining the connections between  
492 variables. It involves representing network structures using nodes and links, which help reveal  
493 the relationships between variables in a system and capture their associations (Bodin et al.,  
494 2019). These structures can be derived from various methods such as CLDs, FCM, co-occurrence  
495 analysis, or observational data. In flood and drought research, network analysis can provide  
496 insights into the interrelationships among individual actors or the flows between impacts,  
497 response measures, and risk drivers. While the conceptual (and metaphorical) idea of thinking  
498 of CCI as a network is widely adopted throughout CCI studies, few have adopted network analysis  
499 as an empirical approach.

500 In CCI research, network analysis metrics can be leveraged for understanding cascading patterns  
501 among manifold socio-economic impacts of hydrological extremes (Challenge 3). Graph theory  
502 measures can reveal highly central, relevant, or influential variables in these mental models  
503 (Olazabal & Pascual, 2016). For example, de Brito (2021) used network structures to capture and  
504 visualize the cascading impacts of drought, while graph theory measures were used to identify  
505 highly central variables. Network analysis can also help to understand the spatial  
506 interconnectivity of CCI, particularly when networks represent a spatial dimension through  
507 which impacts cascade (Naqvi & Monasterolo, 2021) (Challenge 4).

### 508 **3.3.3. Economic-based models**

509 Macro-economic models have been widely applied to identify and quantify the cross-sectoral  
510 and cross-regional economic impacts due to hydrological extremes. The most commonly applied  
511 models are input-output and computable general equilibrium models. Both models describe our  
512 economy through a set of inter-relations between economic actors (e.g. industries, households,  
513 and governments) (E. E. Koks et al., 2016). These models are particularly helpful in identifying  
514 potential spillover effects across regions (Challenge 4). However, a key limitation is that they  
515 may rely on assumptions that do not always hold in reality (e.g. either no or full substitution  
516 between production inputs). Additionally, they may not fully capture intangible impacts, such as  
517 the psychological distress experienced by individuals affected by extreme events. To cope with  
518 some of these limitations, economic models are increasingly being used together with  
519 noneconomic methods.

520 Traditional **input-output (IO) models** are static linear models in which substitution between  
521 products is not possible, and price effects are disregarded. Due to these characteristics, IO  
522 models often overestimate the economic losses due to their linearity and lack of substitution. In  
523 general, they are considered to best represent the economic situation in the short term, in which  
524 the economy is generally inflexible to large changes. While there are no clear examples of  
525 applications within CCI, IO models have been used to, for example, assess the cascading effects  
526 of flooding towards business disruptions and economy-wide impacts (e.g. Koks et al., 2019) and  
527 to analyze global supply-chain effects due to COVID-19 (Guan et al., 2020).

528 **Computable general equilibrium (CGE)** models mostly assume a market with perfect  
529 competition and are generally built around the rationale that: (i) firms aim to maximize profits  
530 and minimize costs and (ii) households aim to maximize their utility within their budget  
531 constraint. As such, CGE models may underestimate the economic losses due to ‘over’-  
532 optimizing the economic situation (E. E. Koks et al., 2016). They are thus most suitable for  
533 assessing the long-term impacts of droughts and floods on a national economy and the potential  
534 of welfare impacts. For example, García-León et al. (2021) assessed the impacts of droughts on  
535 the Italian economy, and Bachner et al. (2023) applied a CGE model to highlight the cross-  
536 sectoral impacts of flood events within Austria.

537 Capturing CCI of hydrological extremes requires economic-based models capable of coupling a  
538 physical footprint of the event to disruptions within our economy. This means that CGE and IO  
539 models should be extended to convert physical asset damages and employment reductions (i.e.,  
540 because of casualties and/or displacement) into a ‘shock’ affecting economic activity. This could  
541 either mean disruptions on the supply side of our economy (i.e., reduction in production output)  
542 or disruption on the demand side of our economy (i.e., reduction in demand for goods and  
543 services). Moreover, capturing cross-regional economic impacts ([Challenge 4](#)) requires using  
544 multi-regional economic trade data. Finally, a time dimension should be included to assess the  
545 effects of cascading events.

#### 546 **4 Pathways for future research**

547 The above synthesis highlights the diversity of methods used to study CCI dynamics. In general,  
548 while methods supporting the identification of patterns between impacts ([Challenge 3](#)) are well-  
549 represented and widely applied, progress in measuring the strength of the causal relationships  
550 between socioeconomic impacts has been limited. Furthermore, while most methods are used to  
551 study interactions within one geographical scale, relatively few methods support the analysis of  
552 cross-scale dynamics ([Challenge 4](#)), as shown in Table 1. Also, the majority of the reviewed  
553 applications primarily address past or present CCI (e.g. de Brito, 2021; Matanó et al., 2022), with  
554 few examining plausible futures (e.g. D’Agostino et al., 2020; Liguori et al., 2021). The analysis  
555 of interactions between the impacts of hydrological extremes and response measures is also in  
556 its early stages ([Challenge 5](#)). Considering these gaps, we point towards recommendations for  
557 advancing the field of CCI research.

##### 558 **(1) Systematic efforts to collect data on impacts across multiple sectors, systems, 559 and years are needed**

560 The quality and quantity of longitudinal and multi-sector impact data constrain our  
561 understanding of CCI dynamics. Although a wide range of approaches exists to study complex  
562 systems, CCI research tends to rely on simple methods due to data availability limitations. Thus,  
563 systematic efforts must be made to collect drought and flood impact data. Emerging impact  
564 assessment methods that use text, digital traces, new sensors, and citizen science data are

565 potential ways forward. For instance, newspaper and social media data can provide a fine-scale  
566 mapping of socioeconomic impacts across sectors (e.g. de Brito et al., 2020; Erfurt et al., 2020;  
567 Sodoge et al., 2023). Drones and satellite data can support detailed property and infrastructure  
568 damage assessment (e.g. West et al., 2019; Wouters et al., 2021). Moreover, digital traces such  
569 as credit card transactions and online communications can enable rapid impact assessments  
570 (e.g. Jackson and Gunda, 2021; Yuan et al., 2022b, 2022a). The adoption of these new methods  
571 presents valuable opportunities for gathering crucial data to address CCI, especially in currently  
572 underrepresented regions.

## 573 **(2) Disciplinary diversity should be promoted to foster innovation**

574 To better understand the complexity of CCI, engaging in interdisciplinary collaboration among  
575 scientists from different fields, such as ecology, economics, engineering, geography, hydrology,  
576 law, political sciences, and social sciences, is crucial. Although interdisciplinary research  
577 positively correlates with research impact and innovation (Okamura, 2019), evidence suggests  
578 that researchers in natural hazards research often work within their own disciplinary silos  
579 (Vanelli et al., 2022). This may limit the scope of their analyses, overlooking crucial  
580 interdependencies and multi-sectoral impacts. By breaking down these barriers and  
581 collaborating across disciplines, CCI research can be decompartmentalized and offer a more  
582 comprehensive explanation of how droughts and floods impact critical infrastructure, people,  
583 and assets, reducing the potential for disciplinary bias in findings. By working together,  
584 interdisciplinary teams can thus advance the understanding of compound and cascading impacts  
585 of hydrological extremes. Numerous of the applications highlighted in this paper are already  
586 moving in this direction, showcasing the positive outcomes of embracing interdisciplinary  
587 collaboration (e.g. Matanó et al., 2022; Rusca et al., 2023).

## 588 **(3) Methodological pluralism is necessary to fully address the complexity of CCI** 589 **and their underlying risk drivers**

590 Data and knowledge-driven approaches are commonly used separately in CCI research, and  
591 integration of methods is limited. However, no single method can by itself capture all aspects of  
592 the intertwined nature of CCI and its underlying risk drivers. We, thus, advocate for  
593 epistemological and methodological pluralism to consider the different aspects of CCI. Since  
594 each method has its own assumptions, strengths, and weaknesses (Table 1), combining different  
595 methods can help reveal various facets of CCI and compensate for the limitations of individual  
596 methods. For instance, while quantitative assessments allow us to identify generalizable patterns  
597 and dynamics, qualitative analyses help to contextualize and interpret them (Di Baldassarre et  
598 al., 2021; Rusca et al., 2021). Hence, by triangulating the outcomes of these approaches, several  
599 lines of evidence can be delivered (Raymond et al., 2020). This can strengthen the research  
600 confidence as results that agree across different methods are less likely to be artefacts (Munafò  
601 & Davey Smith, 2018). The outcomes from one method can be used as input for others. For  
602 instance, information obtained from questionnaires and focus group discussions can be used to

603 build agent-based models. By using multi and mixed method approaches, researchers can be  
604 more flexible and take advantage of the strengths of particular methods while still grounding the  
605 research in biophysical and socioeconomic realities. The examples of methodological pluralism  
606 discussed in our paper suggest the feasibility and added value of this approach (e.g. Savelli et al.,  
607 2023; Yoon et al., 2021).

608 **(4) Generalizable theories of how socioeconomic impacts compound, cascade, and**  
609 **interact with response measures are required**

610 Studies expressing an explicit ambition to develop theories about the dynamics of drought and  
611 flood socioeconomic impacts and their response measures with an understanding of CCI as  
612 described above, are still needed. The heterogeneity among case studies has prevented  
613 researchers from engaging in comparative analyses. Therefore, we advocate for building a corpus  
614 of empirical data on the dynamics of droughts and floods CCI with the specific aim of seeking  
615 generalizations across multiple case studies. This effort will support the development of a  
616 generalizable theory about CCI dynamics and their interactions with response measures. To  
617 achieve this, the findings of multiple case studies could be synthesized, aiming to identify  
618 common patterns and draw conclusions that can be applied across a broader range of contexts  
619 (Kuhlicke et al., 2023). This task involves disentangling the idiosyncrasies of case-specific  
620 findings by considering various contextual and research design factors (Bodin et al., 2019). A  
621 way forward would be combining empirical explanations of observed and/or anticipated  
622 phenomena with modelling (e.g. ABM or FCM) to test and explore possible explanations.  
623 Developing such theories can help overcome the limitations of individual case studies and  
624 provide a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of causality and dynamic  
625 interactions in droughts and floods CCI research.

626 **(5) Investigation of the risks of future CCI should be guided not only by probability**  
627 **but also by plausibility considerations**

628 When investigating the risks of CCI and their root causes, attention should also be paid to less  
629 frequent impact types, whose probability may be lower but with higher consequences (Shepherd  
630 et al., 2018; Sillmann et al., 2021). In an increasingly interconnected world, the complexity of  
631 coupled natural-technological-social systems can make probability calculations futile (Engels &  
632 Marotzke, 2023). Therefore, understanding CCI entails recognizing that they cannot be fully  
633 predicted and that uncertainty is inherent. Instead, we can explore different possibilities for the  
634 evolution of CCI under different conditions. This also requires a deep understanding of the  
635 underlying risk drivers of different sectors and systems and their interlinkages. To address the  
636 plausibility question and better prepare for potential CCI, knowledge-driven tools can be  
637 instrumental. They enable us to explore the range of possible outcomes and the associated  
638 uncertainty while also offering explanations of why CCI might occur. For instance, mental  
639 models and qualitative storylines can be coupled with theories about transformative social  
640 change, disruptive change, social inertia, and path dependency. This can help us identify key

641 drivers that can lead to high impacts in a given future scenario as well as adaptation measures  
642 that can support risk reduction.

643 In summary, the overview of methods and linked recommendations for future research  
644 described here can contribute to an improved characterization and understanding of CCI  
645 dynamics and hence support the reduction of CCI risks linked to hydrological extremes. In doing  
646 so, this perspective aims to enable researchers to make informed decisions about the choice of  
647 methods (or the combination of them) to be used.

648

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655

## 656 **Data availability statement**

657 No new data were created or analysed during this study. Data sharing is not applicable to this  
658 article.

659

## 660 **CRedit statement**

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# Uncovering the dynamics of multi-sector impacts of hydrological extremes: a methods overview

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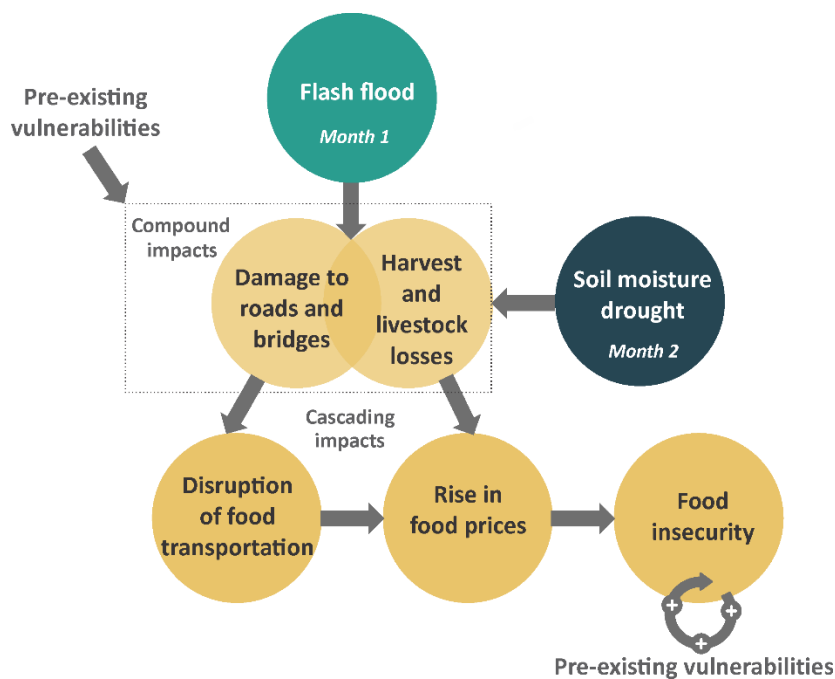
## Abstract

Hydrological extremes, such as droughts and floods, can trigger a complex web of compound and cascading impacts due to interdependencies between coupled natural and social systems. However, current decision-making processes typically only consider one impact and disaster event at a time, ignoring causal chains, feedback loops, and conditional dependencies between impacts. Analyses capturing these complex patterns across space and time are thus needed to better inform effective adaptation planning. This perspective paper aims to bridge this critical gap by presenting methods for assessing the dynamics of the multi-sector compound and cascading impacts (CCI) of hydrological extremes. We discuss existing challenges, good practices, and potential ways forward. Rather than pursuing a single methodological approach, we advocate for methodological pluralism. We see complementary roles for analyses building on quantitative (e.g. data-mining, systems modeling) and qualitative methods (e.g. mental models, qualitative storylines). We believe the data-driven and knowledge-driven methods provided here can serve as a useful starting point for understanding the dynamics of both high-frequency CCI and low-likelihood but high-impact CCI. With this perspective, we hope to foster research on CCI to improve the development of adaptation strategies for reducing the risk of hydrological extremes.

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Future climate projections show an intensification of variations in the hydrological cycle, with  
38 more droughts and floods expected to occur in many regions (Cook et al., 2020; IPCC, 2021;  
39 Merz et al., 2021; Pokhrel et al., 2021; Samaniego et al., 2018; Simpson et al., 2021). In this  
40 context, understanding the magnitude and distribution of the impacts of these hydrological  
41 extremes becomes crucial to inform adaptation planning. Impact assessments can facilitate the  
42 identification of areas that are disproportionately affected, aiming to support the allocation of  
43 resources (Hammond et al., 2015). They can further provide baseline information for evaluating  
44 whether adaptation measures effectively reduce loss and damage. Spatio-temporal impact  
45 datasets can also improve our understanding of risk drivers (Kellermann et al., 2020) and serve  
46 as ground truth information for impact-based early warning systems (Hobeichi et al., 2022).

47 In today’s interconnected world, assessing the risks and impacts of floods and droughts has  
48 become increasingly complex as these events often have far-reaching consequences that spread  
49 throughout various sectors and systems, leading to ‘**compound and cascading impacts**’  
50 **(CCI)** (Fig. 1 and Box 1). Indeed, natural, technological, and social systems are deeply  
51 intertwined, and the adverse outcomes of hydrological extremes heavily depend on how the  
52 elements of the affected systems interact with each other (Matanó et al., 2022; Raymond et al.,  
53 2020; Ruiten et al., 2020; Zscheischler et al., 2018). For example, during the 2021 flood event in  
54 Europe, the flood waters damaged major access routes and destroyed most of the bridges in the  
55 flooded area in Ahr valley (Schäfer et al., 2021). This reduced the accessibility for rescue cars and  
56 fire brigades, leading to cascading impacts.



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58 **Figure 1** Schematization of compound and cascading impacts (CCI) for a fictitious flood followed by a drought  
59 event. The impacts triggered by different hazards interact, compound, and cascade. Unrelated events or pre-  
60 existing vulnerabilities, such as pandemics and conflicts, can also contribute to the impacts.

61  
62 Flood and drought impacts can also spill over beyond their initial geographical location through  
63 the interconnectivity of socioeconomic sectors and ecosystems (UNDRR, 2021a). As a result,  
64 some of the most affected areas can be those not directly affected by the physical hazard (e.g.  
65 flood waters). For instance, the extremely low soil moisture values in the summer of 2018 in  
66 Germany caused severe crop failures, leading to fodder shortages and the consequent early  
67 slaughtering of animals. As a consequence, farmers restrained from investing in fertilizers and  
68 machinery, resulting in ripple effects along supply chains (de Brito, 2021).

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*Box 1 Defining compound and cascading impacts (CCI)*

**‘Socioeconomic impacts’** are defined as the adverse effects of floods and droughts on society. They can include but are not limited to casualties, infrastructure collapse, increased demand for water, need for credit, increased commodity prices, migration, food insecurity, conflicts, reduced quality of life, crop yield losses, and mental health problems. Hydrological extremes can, in exceptional cases, lead to positive consequences. For instance, drought combined with heat waves can benefit fruit growers and winemakers depending on the onset of the event, as they can increase the sugar concentration in fruits.

The term **‘compound impact’** is used to denote impacts that temporally and spatially coincide. These could be, for instance, a drought that simultaneously impairs the transportation of goods and affects tourism via restrictions on boat cruises. The impacts of hydrological extremes can also compound with the effects of other ‘compounding hazards’ or events (i.e. multi-hazard events) and/or circumstances (e.g. conflicts). Even unrelated events, such as the Covid-19 pandemic, can amplify the impacts of droughts and floods and vice versa (UNDRR, 2021c).

**‘Cascading impact’** refers to consecutive impacts triggered or amplified by other impacts or processes. For instance, the delay in sowing and transplanting crops caused by droughts can reduce employment in agriculture, which in turn further reduces employment due to the reduced need of labor for harvesting. Similarly, the direct impacts of floods and droughts on ecosystems and their services can lead to cascading impacts on livelihoods. Cascading impacts can also ripple within and across economic sectors. Energy outages very often impact other services, such as healthcare facilities. Upstream and downstream relations also lead to cascading impacts. For instance, low flows can impair shipping and lead to increased commodity prices.

The concept of **‘systemic impact’** is based on the notion that the impacts of a hazard can be influenced by how the elements of the affected system interact. These interactions can either increase or decrease the overall impact. The interactions between sectors and systems and associated impacts create mutual dependencies, where actions and outcomes in one sector or system can lead to actions and outcomes in another. The term ‘systemic impact’ encompasses both compound and cascading impacts, therefore, both coincidental and consecutive impacts.

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71 A better understanding of CCI’s characteristics and underlying drivers can, therefore, inform the  
72 ex-ante management of systemic risks. The need to investigate CCI has been underscored by the  
73 UNDRR (2021) and has recently been included in the research agenda of the Integrated Research  
74 on Disaster Risk 2021-2030 (ISC-UNDRR-IRDR, 2021). Likewise, the IPCC is moving from a  
75 static understanding of risk to a dynamic framing that considers compounding, cascading, and  
76 systemic effects (IPCC, 2022).



77 Inspired by these calls, research on CCI of floods and droughts is on the rise. In recent years,  
78 scientists have addressed CCI to specific sectors and hazard types, especially critical  
79 infrastructure (Fekete, 2020; Guimarães et al., 2021; Rohr et al., 2020), water quality (Mishra  
80 et al., 2021), agriculture (Christian et al., 2020) as well as cascading impacts linked to the  
81 COVID-19 pandemic and its policy responses to it (UNDRR, 2021c). Interactions between  
82 hydrological extremes have also been investigated. For instance, Matanó et al. (2022) and Ward  
83 et al. (2020) provide examples of interactions between flood and drought impacts. Despite these  
84 advances, research on CCI remains highly fragmented, and an overview of available methods to  
85 study them is missing.

86 In this perspective, we discuss key approaches for investigating CCI dynamics within the context  
87 of climate change and an increasingly connected world. Our goal is to help researchers navigate  
88 the emerging field of CCI by providing a synthesis of existing methods. We first highlight  
89 persisting challenges, such as the lack of multi-sector and longitudinal impact data. Then, we  
90 present a range of qualitative and quantitative methods that can be used to analyze CCI  
91 dynamics, drawing on case study examples. Based on these, we end with six recommendations  
92 to advance this field of research. While the set of methods discussed here is not exhaustive, it  
93 provides a holistic view of how to tackle CCI and serves as a useful starting point for researchers  
94 studying the systemic risks and impacts of droughts and floods on coupled social, technological,  
95 and natural systems.

## 96 **2 Challenges in the understanding of CCI**

97 Due to the complexity of CCI, our ability to identify and understand them is still in its infancy.  
98 While there has been notable progress in compound hazards research (e.g. Batibeniz et al., 2023;  
99 Bevacqua et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2021; Sutanto et al., 2020), the socioeconomic CCI of droughts  
100 and floods remain relatively unexplored (Naumann et al., 2021; Ward et al., 2022; Zscheischler  
101 et al., 2020). One of the reasons for the limited exploration of CCI patterns is the scarcity of data  
102 on the socioeconomic impacts of floods and droughts, especially in the global South. Impact  
103 assessments are often conducted for single hazard types, and standardized, methodologically  
104 comparable impact information for multiple disaster types is hardly available.

105 In this context, we present five challenges that need to be addressed to provide targeted  
106 information to understand CCI (Fig. 2). It should be highlighted that the field of CCI research  
107 encompasses many more challenges than those depicted in Fig. 2, such as the understanding of  
108 the risk drivers of CCI. However, these aspects fall outside the scope of this perspective paper.



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**Figure 2** Set of challenges and needs that must be addressed to provide targeted information to understand CCI. In this study, we focus on methods that can be used to address the needs of challenges 3 to 5, which are related to dynamic aspects.

Challenge 1 is linked to the focus of existing impact assessments on **single socioeconomic sectors or systems** and tangible losses (Fronzek et al., 2019; Ward et al., 2022). Studies typically address isolated impacts to single sectors, including damage to critical infrastructure (Qiang et al., 2020), agriculture losses (H. Chen et al., 2019; Rahman & Di, 2020; Tapia-Silva et al., 2011), damage to buildings (Gerl et al., 2014; Serpico et al., 2012), and fatalities (e.g. Papagiannaki et al., 2022). Furthermore, existing databases are almost exclusively limited to impacts measured in monetary terms (Ding et al., 2011), which are more easily quantified compared to intangible losses, such as societal and cultural impacts (e.g. decrease of subjective

122 well-being and growing lack of trust in institutions) (Ding et al., 2011). However, these intangible  
123 losses can be just as severe, if not more so. As a result, a holistic understanding of all sectors and  
124 systems affected is missing. This gap is related to difficulties in deriving reliable estimates of  
125 indirect or intangible losses such as adverse social, psychological, and environmental  
126 consequences (Allaire, 2018; Walz et al., 2021). Exceptions include initiatives such as the  
127 HOWAS21 database (Kellermann et al., 2020), which includes detailed data on objects affected  
128 by European floods. For drought events, the few existing multi-sector impact databases are  
129 based on the analysis of news (e.g. U.S. Drought Impact Recorder (NDMC, 2019), European  
130 Drought Impact Inventory – EDII (Stahl et al., 2016), and country specific databases (de Brito  
131 et al., 2020)). While these studies represent significant methodological advances, they are  
132 currently not widespread. Hence, multi-sector impact databases encompassing  
133 underrepresented sectors such as health, tourism, energy and forestry, are needed.

134 Related to this issue is the **lack of longitudinal impact datasets encompassing both**  
135 **large and small-scale events** (Challenge 2) (de Brito et al., 2020; R. L. Jones et al., 2022).  
136 Impact assessments are conducted mostly ad hoc, following a specific disaster (Ding et al., 2011).  
137 Existing impact datasets covering multiple years are limited to large-scale disasters (e.g. EM-  
138 DAT, NatCatSERVICE) and suffer from underreporting (R. L. Jones et al., 2022). As such, they  
139 may overlook the risks posed by smaller, more frequent events that can be equally damaging  
140 when considering their cumulative occurrence (UNDRR & CRED, 2020). According to the  
141 UNISDR (2015), 99.7% of all disasters between 1990 and 2013 were smaller-scale disasters, with  
142 fewer than 30 deaths or less than 5,000 affected buildings. Thousands of these smaller-scale  
143 events are unreported as they do not result in high impacts at the national or international levels.  
144 Nevertheless, they bring a constant stream of local losses and damages (UNDRR, 2021b) and are  
145 thus relevant for understanding local patterns of CCI. Therefore, impact datasets covering low  
146 and high-impact events over multiple years are required to understand the cumulative and long-  
147 term consequences of floods and droughts.

148 Challenge 3 refers to the lack of understanding regarding the **relationships between the**  
149 **socioeconomic impacts** of hydrological extremes (Pescaroli & Alexander, 2016; Simpson et  
150 al., 2021; UNDRR, 2021c). Impact outputs from one sector or system can become inputs into  
151 other sectors or systems depending on system/sector dependencies (Ding et al., 2011; UNDRR  
152 & UNU-EHS, 2022). For example, droughts can lead to crop failures, food shortages, and  
153 increased prices, resulting in ripple effects and social and political instability. Empirical studies  
154 investigating CCI relationships have often focused on single and small-scale case studies (e.g.  
155 Fekete, 2020; Gonzva et al., 2017; Zeng et al., 2021). Research addressing how impacts to one  
156 sector or system can lead to consequences in others is thus needed to support effective mitigation  
157 measures.

158 Challenge 4 is linked to the limited research on the **interconnectivity between impacts**  
159 **across regions, borders, and spatial scales** (Andrew J. Challinor et al., 2017; Helbing,  
160 2013). Namely, cascading impacts spread not only across sectors and systems but also spill

161 beyond geographical scales and administrative or national borders, and can lead to globally  
162 networked impacts (UNDRR, 2021a). For instance, drought-related harvest failures in Russia in  
163 2010, combined with an export ban, led to a global spike in cereal prices. This amplified the food  
164 security risk in Pakistan and is associated with an increase in the use of food banks in the U.K.  
165 (Andy J. Challinor et al., 2018; Hunt et al., 2021). Upstream and downstream relations can also  
166 exacerbate the impacts of floods and droughts. For instance, low flows in the Rhine impaired  
167 shipping during the 2018 drought in Germany (Erfurt et al., 2019), increasing fuel prices in  
168 Switzerland. As such, analyses of the interplay between CCI across local, regional, and even  
169 global spatial scales (e.g. Lawrence et al., 2020; Mishra et al., 2021) are needed to identify critical  
170 nodes in the system that can lead to higher impacts.

171 Finally, research on the **effects of response measures** (i.e. impacts linked to risk  
172 management or adaptation interventions) on CCI is scarce (Challenge 5). While humans  
173 influence the propagation of extreme events, they also respond to their impacts (AghaKouchak  
174 et al., 2021). Within this context, risk management and adaptation responses to one impact may  
175 inadvertently lead to unintended consequences such as an increased vulnerability in the long  
176 run (e.g. Giuliani et al., 2022; Niggli et al., 2022; Schipper, 2022; Simpson et al., 2023). For  
177 instance, temporary water abstraction licenses may exacerbate underlying water scarcity as they  
178 can be difficult to reverse when the drought ends (Di Baldassarre et al., 2018). Therefore, it is  
179 difficult to measure to which extent adaptation measures reduce impacts or lead to unintended  
180 consequences. Thus, a parallel investigation of impacts and response measures adopted is crucial  
181 to understand how they co-evolve.

182 Challenges 1 and 2 are closely tied to the quality and availability of socioeconomic impact data,  
183 whereas challenges 3 to 5 relate to understanding CCI dynamics. Since significant research has  
184 already been conducted on improving impact data collection (Alfieri et al., 2016; Allaire, 2018;  
185 Ding et al., 2011; Enenkel et al., 2020; Merz et al., 2020), we focus here on methods that can be  
186 used to address challenges 3 to 5, which are rooted in the complexity of CCI interactions.

### 187 **3 Key methods for investigating CCI patterns and relationships**

188 Several recent studies have provided valuable guidelines on how to assess compound hazard  
189 interrelationships (e.g. Bevacqua et al., 2021; Tilloy et al., 2019), the dynamics of risk  
190 components (e.g. De Angeli et al., 2022; de Ruiter and van Loon, 2022; Terzi et al., 2019) and  
191 multi-sector dynamics (e.g. Reed et al., 2022). However, similar syntheses that incorporate both  
192 qualitative and quantitative approaches are still missing for research on CCI.

193 In the subsequent sections, we present an overview of knowledge-driven, data-driven, and mixed  
194 methods that hold the potential to enhance our understanding of the dynamic nature of CCI  
195 (Table 1). These were selected based on the experience of the co-authors, which come from  
196 different fields, including sociology, engineering, physics, geography and economics. A general  
197 description is provided for each method, followed by applications in CCI or related fields and

198 how the method can address challenges 3 to 5 in Fig. 2. Besides considering the strengths of each  
199 analytical approach, the choice for a specific method should be guided by the study's objective,  
200 data requirements, and complexity level as illustrated in Fig. 3.

201 Although the examples of applications here focus on drought and flood hazards, these methods  
202 can be used for other hazard types (e.g. earthquakes, storms, heatwaves, and landslides). Also,  
203 many of these methods can also be applied to understand the relationship between risk drivers  
204 (e.g. vulnerability, exposure, and hazard) and their corresponding CCI.

205 It is worth highlighting that this overview is not intended to encompass all existing methods  
206 which can be used to understand complex relationships. Rather, we strive to emphasize key  
207 approaches that can aid in comprehending CCI dynamics. Additionally, the articles presented  
208 here represent only a fraction of the extensive literature on climate change impacts in a broader  
209 sense.

### 210 **3.1 Knowledge-driven methods**

211 Knowledge-driven methods rely on expert judgment and domain-specific information to analyze  
212 complex phenomena. These methods leverage existing knowledge, whether formal or informal,  
213 theoretical or practical, to delve into the systemic aspects of CCI. Their foundation lies in  
214 recognizing the significance of tacit and explicit knowledge, collective wisdom, and context-  
215 specific expertise in generating insights into complex systems (Aminpour et al., 2020). As their  
216 development can be done in a co-creation process with relevant actors, they also allow the  
217 integration of perspectives of vulnerable and marginalized groups, often overlooked in more  
218 data-driven approaches. In this section, we focus on methods such as mental models, visual  
219 techniques, and qualitative scenarios and storylines.

**Table 1** Overview of methods that can be used to investigate CCI dynamics. The groups of methods here are, to some extent, subjective, and overlap exists between them. Thus, they should be used as a general guide rather than a definitive categorization.

Group of methods	Methods and key references	Strengths	Weaknesses
Knowledge-driven	Mental models <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Causal loop diagrams (Groesser &amp; Schaffernicht, 2012; Rest &amp; Hirsch, 2022)</li> <li>▪ Fuzzy cognitive maps (Ballesteros-Olza et al., 2022; Mehryar &amp; Surminski, 2022)</li> <li>▪ Impact chains (Hagenlocher et al., 2018; Zebisch et al., 2022)</li> <li>▪ Impact webs (Sparkes et al., 2023)</li> <li>▪ Rich pictures (Suriya &amp; Mudgal, 2013)</li> </ul>	Visualize the interplay between CCI (Challenge 3). When built in a participatory way, it enables the inclusion of perspectives of marginalized and vulnerable groups. It also facilitates mapping CCI to responses (Challenge 5)	Criticized as subjective representations of reality. Risk of oversimplification as it is difficult to map the full complexity of a system. Spatial and temporal dynamics are usually not explicitly addressed (Challenge 4)
	Visual techniques <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Event timelines (Matanó et al., 2022; Seebauer et al., 2023)</li> <li>▪ Qualitative matrices (Gill &amp; Malamud, 2014, 2016; Matanó et al., 2022)</li> <li>▪ Network diagrams (Gill &amp; Malamud, 2014, 2016)</li> </ul>	Simplify complex ideas and enhance their comprehensibility for a wider audience. Visualize relationships between CCI and response measures over time (Challenges 3 and 5)	Can carry ethical risks (e.g. power relations). Comparability between studies is limited. Are often unsuitable for addressing spatial dynamics (Challenge 4)
	Qualitative storylines and scenarios <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Qualitative storylines (van den Hurk et al., 2023)</li> <li>▪ (Semi)-qualitative scenarios (Di Baldassarre et al., 2021; Rusca et al., 2023)</li> </ul>	Allow to take into account political, cultural, and economic contexts. Give more power to participants to shape the story. Spatial and temporal changes play a key role in these methods (Challenge 4)	Highly context-specific. Risk of making arbitrary assumptions and oversimplification. Limited ability to predict outcomes.
Data-driven	Multivariate statistics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Logistic regression and other machine learning algorithms (Ben-Ari et al., 2018; Martius et al., 2016)</li> <li>▪ Markov chains (Ronizi et al., 2022)</li> <li>▪ Co-occurrence analysis (de Brito, 2021)</li> </ul>	Capable of capturing non-linear relationships between CCI (Challenges 3 and 5). Can handle large and complex datasets with numerous variables	Data-intensive. Sensitive to data biases and dependency on historical observations, which leads to limitations in a changing climate and/or contexts of under-reporting
	Data mining <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Dimensionality reduction (Anowar et al., 2021)</li> <li>▪ Clustering (Lam et al., 2016)</li> <li>▪ Sequential pattern mining (de Brito, 2021)</li> </ul>	Extracting key patterns from high-dimensional and noisy data (Challenge 3). Allow uncovering hidden dependencies, also spatially (Challenge 4)	Potential loss of complexity and details when reducing high-dimensional data to lower-dimensional representation
Mixed	Systems modelling <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Agent-based modelling (ABM) (Wijermans et al., 2022)</li> <li>▪ System dynamics and multi-sector dynamics models (Savelli et al., 2023; Yoon et al., 2021)</li> </ul>	Can portray the temporal dynamics of complex systems (Challenges 3). Allow the assessment of the effects of different adaptation measures (Challenges 5). AMB can account for spatial dynamics (Challenge 4)	Empirical models require comprehensive data coverage of the underlying system. Require careful calibration and validation. Models without empirical components run at risk of being ‘toy’ models
	Network analysis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Network analysis (Naqvi &amp; Monasterolo, 2021)</li> </ul>	Intuitive visualization of interconnected systems (Challenges 3 and 5). Enable the identification of key nodes within the	Requires data and knowledge on both impacts and causal relationships between impacts

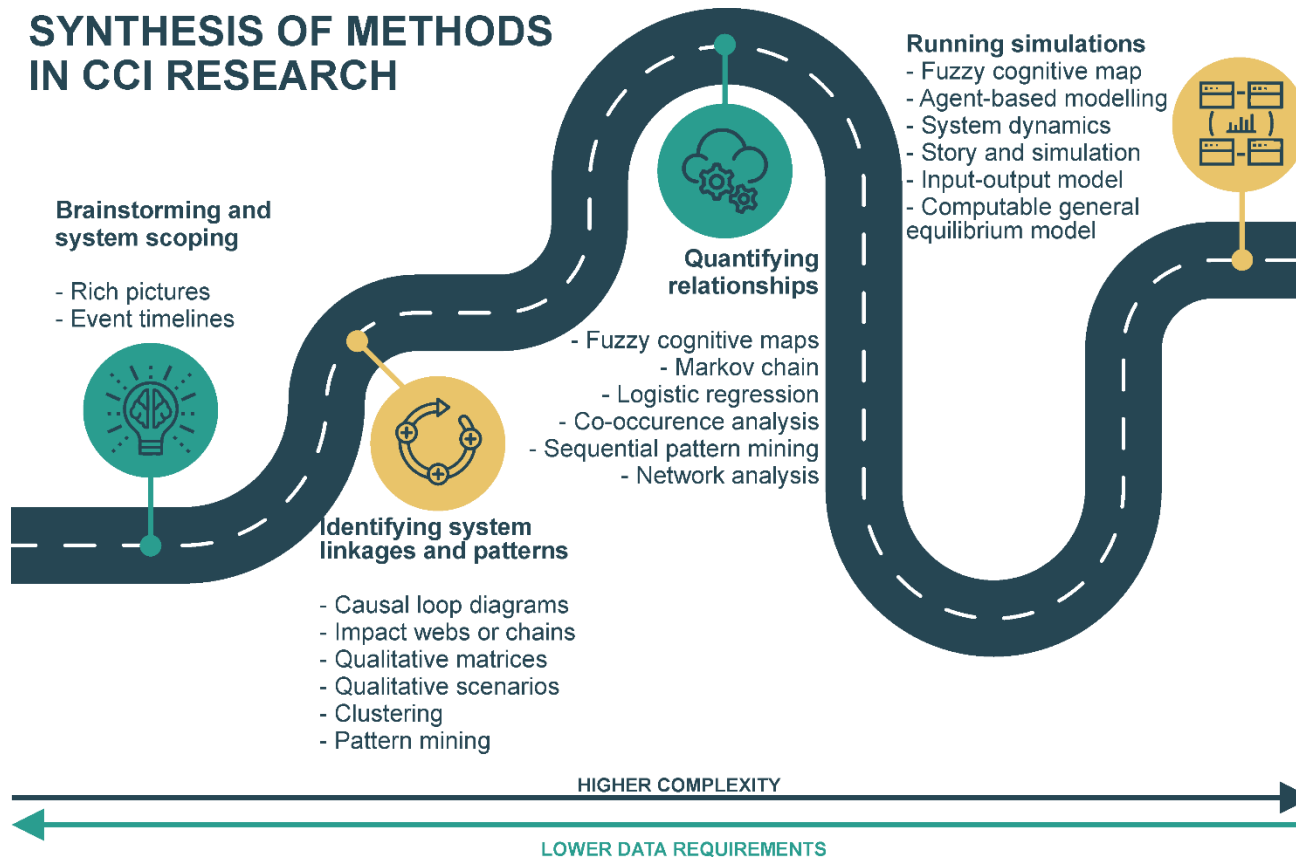
Economic-based models

- Input-output analysis (Koks et al., 2019)
- Computable general equilibrium model (Bachner et al., 2023)

network. Allow investigating spatial patterns (Challenge 4)  
 Allow identifying how changes in one sector can propagate through the economy, affecting other sectors and causing cascading effects (Challenge 3). Can analyze cross-sectoral and cross-regional economic impacts (Challenge 4)

Can represent an oversimplistic view of the economy. Data-intensive

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**Figure 3** Synthesis of methods used in CCI research to brainstorm, identify system linkages and patterns, quantify relationships, and run simulations. Some methods can be used for multiple purposes.

### 227 **3.1.1. Mental models**

228 Mental models are schematic representations of the world as perceived by humans. By  
229 articulating complex relationships between system components (Levy et al., 2018) they aid in  
230 comprehending how systems respond to risks and factors such as human activity or  
231 environmental changes. However, since individuals' perspectives differ, mental models are  
232 subjective depictions of reality (N. A. Jones et al., 2011). They are typically constructed through  
233 stakeholder involvement (Romero-Lankao & Norton, 2018) and are often paired with other  
234 methods, such as system dynamics (Perrone et al., 2020).

235 Several approaches are used to elicit mental models, ranging from **causal loop diagrams**  
236 **(CLD)** to free drawing (see Doyle et al., 2022 for a review). CLD are a popular method that  
237 demonstrates how changes in one variable can influence others by reinforcing (positive link) or  
238 balancing them (negative link). CLD have been widely applied to understand the relationships  
239 between socioeconomic impacts (Challenge 3), including the investigation of cascading impacts  
240 of hydrological extremes on transport infrastructure, electricity, and healthcare systems (e.g.  
241 Berariu et al., 2015; Rest and Hirsch, 2022), as well as multi-sectoral impacts (e.g. Montgomery  
242 et al., 2012; Perrone et al., 2020). CLD have also been used to analyze coping and adaptation  
243 strategies and their effectiveness in mitigating impacts (Challenge 5) (e.g. Armah et al., 2010;  
244 Sanga et al., 2021; Song et al., 2018). While CLD can represent temporal dynamics adequately,  
245 spatial aspects are usually not explicitly addressed (Challenge 4). Furthermore, due to their  
246 reliance on human interpretation may, their ability to capture the nuances of real-world CCI is  
247 compromised, potentially leading to oversimplification.

248 **Fuzzy cognitive maps (FCM)** are CLD that account for uncertainty by using weights to define  
249 relationship strengths (Challenge 3). FCM have been employed to study drought and flood  
250 adaptation solutions and their effect on socioeconomic impacts (e.g. Ballesteros-Olza et al.,  
251 2022; Chandra and Gaganis, 2016; Mehryar and Surminski, 2022) (Challenge 5). They have been  
252 used to examine past disasters as well as to simulate plausible CCI futures (e.g. D'Agostino et al.,  
253 2020). Vanwindekens et al. (2018) incorporated spatial dynamics into the FCM by coupling it  
254 with geolocated data to analyze crops' vulnerability to soil moisture drought. Recently, FCM have  
255 also been used to address CCI interactions across neighborhood, city, and regional scales (e.g.  
256 White et al., 2021) (Challenge 4).

257 **Impact chains** are conceptual models used to capture the interplay of hazard, vulnerability,  
258 and exposure factors that lead to a specific risk or impact (Menk et al., 2022). This mixed-  
259 methods approach draws on elements of CLD and network analysis to investigate complex  
260 systems. Impact chains have been applied in various contexts and settings (e.g. Fritzsche et al.,  
261 2014; Hagenlocher et al., 2018; Zebisch et al., 2022). For instance, Kabisch et al. (2014) used  
262 impact chains to identify the relationships between direct and indirect impacts on multiple  
263 sectors resulting from heatwaves, floods, and storm surges (Challenge 3). One of the strengths  
264 of impact chains is their ability to link impacts and adaptation strategies (Challenge 5) directly.



265 However, it is important to note that impact chains often neglect or overly simplify complex  
266 systemic interrelations, including transboundary relationships (Menk et al., 2022), which poses  
267 a challenge in addressing Challenge 4.

268 More recently, an approach called **impact webs** was explicitly designed to tackle the complex  
269 nature of CCI risks (UNDRR, 2021c). Drawing on the foundations of CLD, impact chains, and  
270 network analysis, impact webs provide a comprehensive framework for characterizing the  
271 interconnected components of multiple systems, capturing their underlying risk drivers, and  
272 visualizing the dynamics of cascading effects (Challenge 3). Unlike impact chains, which often  
273 converge towards a single risk, impact webs offer a holistic overview of system interactions  
274 without directional constraints. While they have been initially used to understand CCI linked to  
275 the COVID-19 pandemic and responses to it, impact webs are now finding application in the  
276 study of CCI related to droughts and their compounding hazards, along with exploring potential  
277 adaptation options (Challenge 5) (Cotti et al., 2023; Sparkes et al., 2023).

### 278 **3.1.2. Visual techniques**

279 In addition to mental models, visualization techniques, such as rich pictures, event timelines,  
280 and qualitative matrices, are used for visually capturing the elements of a system. They are often  
281 part of brainstorming processes and aim to simplify complex ideas and enhance their  
282 comprehensibility for a wider audience. However, while these tools help synthesize information  
283 at a high level, they may not provide a detailed understanding of the underlying dynamics of CCI.  
284 Another concern pertains to the transferability and generalisability of results. While visual  
285 techniques facilitate a deep qualitative understanding of a given CCI event, the challenge lies in  
286 identifying comparable and scalable results that can be applied more broadly.

287 **Rich pictures** are visual depictions of a system, portraying elements and actors involved in a  
288 problematic situation (Barbrook-Johnson & Penn, 2022). When used in a participatory setting,  
289 this technique enables participants to share experiences about a certain problem and learn from  
290 each other (Bell et al., 2019). For instance, Suriya and Mudgal (2013) used the rich pictures  
291 method to examine the factors contributing to toxic floods and how their effects cascade  
292 downstream (Challenge 4). Similarly, Bunch (2003) used it to investigate the interactions  
293 between drought and flood impacts (Challenge 3). In both cases, this brainstorming exercise  
294 facilitated the development of a shared understanding of the situation. Although rich pictures  
295 are a useful visual aid, comparing their results is challenging since they are typically created  
296 without a structured approach.

297 **Event timelines** or timelining are another visualization method for representing the sequence  
298 of events over time. This approach involves plotting events related to a problem on a graph by  
299 considering participants' storytelling as a means to document past experiences (Sheridan et al.,  
300 2011), present, or project possible futures. Timelining has been successfully used in group  
301 settings to examine climate change impacts (e.g. Dolan and Walker, 2006; Schmook et al., 2023)  
302 and to understand the impact of recovery measures on disaster occurrence (e.g. Sword-Daniels

303 et al., 2015) (Challenge 5). Timelines can also be developed using document analysis. For  
304 instance, Matanó et al. (2022) conducted an extensive literature review to develop event  
305 timelines exploring the temporal interactions between floods and droughts (Challenge 3).  
306 Similarly, Seebauer et al. (2023) combined document analysis and interviews to create a timeline  
307 depicting the sequence of flood events and adaptation measures from 1980 to 2020 in Austria  
308 (Challenge 5). While timelines are an effective tool for visualizing cascades of events, they are  
309 constrained by their linearity and, thus, unsuitable for depicting interactions across regions  
310 (Challenge 4).

311 **Qualitative matrices and network diagrams** offer another approach to studying CCI.  
312 Originally proposed by Gill and Malamud (2016, 2014) for visualizing hazard interactions, these  
313 tools were later adapted to investigate disaster impacts. The matrices illustrate how a primary  
314 impact can trigger and increase the probability of a secondary impact, thus revealing the strength  
315 of these relationships. Clark-Ginsberg (2017) used these tools in a participatory setting to  
316 examine how multi-hazard events can lead to multiple socioeconomic impacts (Challenge 3).  
317 Meanwhile, Chen et al. (2022) reconstructed how the 1920 drought in China affected multiple  
318 socioeconomic sectors building qualitative matrices based on newspaper articles. Multiple  
319 hazards can also be considered. For instance, Matanó et al. (2022) developed matrices of floods  
320 and droughts CCI using stakeholder interviews and a literature review. The matrix results can  
321 serve as input for network diagrams, which present the same information in a network format.  
322 Since spatial dynamics are usually not addressed in qualitative matrices and their resulting  
323 diagrams, they are often unsuitable for addressing Challenge 4.

### 324 **3.1.3. Qualitative storylines and scenarios**

325 Qualitative storylines and scenarios are commonly used in social sciences to understand the  
326 temporal dynamics of systems (Shanahan et al., 2018). These methods have recently gained  
327 popularity in climate change science as an alternative approach to studying human-  
328 environmental dynamics when information is scarce (van den Hurk et al., 2023; Shepherd et al.,  
329 2018). They are often derived in participatory settings i.e. through narrative interviews or  
330 workshops (Shanahan et al., 2018), document analysis, or modeling.

331 **Qualitative storylines** are temporal accounts of a series of interrelated events, often presented  
332 in a storytelling format (Andrews et al., 2013). They provide descriptive narratives of CCI  
333 developments without specific quantification, emphasizing plausibility and contextual  
334 understanding (Rounsevell & Metzger, 2010). They allow exploring how impacts have occurred  
335 in the past or can unfold in the future, highlighting the causality and temporal dimensions.  
336 Through qualitative storylines, participants can describe the trickle-down effects and  
337 propagation of impacts to one sector through a system (Challenge 3) and between regions – or  
338 even across borders (Challenge 4) (e.g. Carter et al., 2021; Liguori et al., 2021; van Delden and  
339 Hagen-Zanker, 2009). The synthesis of a collection of storylines enables the extraction of generic  
340 principles and can inform the definition of both qualitative and quantitative scenarios (e.g.

341 Lottering et al., 2021; Rounsevell and Metzger, 2010), as well as conceptual system dynamic  
342 models. A protocol for constructing storylines in the field of CCI is provided by van den Hurk et  
343 al. (2023).

344 Findings from qualitative storylines can be used to feed into (semi)-**qualitative scenarios**,  
345 which are alternative representations of plausible futures. Scenarios can encompass qualitative  
346 or quantitative elements, involve structured assumptions and models, and offer a broader range  
347 of possible future trajectories for analysis (Rounsevell & Metzger, 2010; Wiebe et al., 2018). They  
348 can be instrumental in developing descriptions of how CCI can succeed through the cross-scale  
349 interaction of actors and networks in a system (Challenge 4). Qualitative scenarios are recently  
350 gaining momentum in CCI research. For example, Rusca et al. (2021) developed qualitative  
351 scenarios of unprecedented flood events and societal recovery trajectories for them (Challenge  
352 5). To this end, the authors relied on a series of qualitative and quantitative data from interviews,  
353 focus groups, and empirical analysis. Similarly, Liguori et al. (2021) developed qualitative  
354 scenarios to imagine future adaptation scenarios (Challenge 5).

### 355 **3.2 Data-driven methods**

356 Data-driven methods rely on analyzing and extracting insights from large amounts of data to  
357 understand complex systems. Their foundation lies in the principle that data contains valuable  
358 insights that can be harnessed to uncover hidden relationships and patterns. In this section, we  
359 focus on multivariate statistics and data mining approaches, but many others exist. These  
360 methods allow quantifying interdependencies between impacts and response measures,  
361 enabling a comprehensive understanding of CCI dynamics (Challenges 3 and 4). However, a  
362 significant challenge of these methods lies in their reliance on the quality and quantity of  
363 available impact data.

#### 364 **3.2.1. Multivariate statistics**

365 A broad range of tools are available to study multivariate statistics in climate data (e.g. Bevacqua  
366 et al., 2022; Jane et al., 2020), many targeted specifically at extreme events (e.g. Salvadori and  
367 De Michele, 2013). Recent years have also seen the rapid growth of machine learning  
368 applications (e.g. Feng et al., 2021). However, the above approaches are often data-intensive,  
369 especially when both temporal and spatial components need to be accounted for (Liu et al., 2021;  
370 Messori & Faranda, 2021). The lack of impact datasets covering multiple sectors and over many  
371 years (Challenges 1 and 2) and the difficulty of accounting for the effect of response measures  
372 (Challenge 5) in past data in practice means that many of these approaches have limited  
373 applicability for analyzing CCI. We, therefore, propose here simple statistical methods that may  
374 be used to investigate CCI in data-limited contexts and that can be applied to multiple types of  
375 data and spatial and temporal scales.

376 Regression models, specifically **logistic regressions**, have proven to be effective in examining  
377 temporally successive or spatially co-occurring climate hazards (e.g. Ben-Ari et al., 2018;

378 Martius et al., 2016). Data-efficient machine-learning models, including random forests, have  
379 also been used to link hydroclimatic indicators to socioeconomic impacts (e.g. Bachmair et al.,  
380 2017; Torelló-Sentelles and Franzke, 2022). These same models could profitably be applied to  
381 quantitative socioeconomic impact data, for example, to quantify changes in the odds of a given  
382 impact occurring prior to, concurrently, or after another impact (Challenge 3). A further  
383 application could be to investigate the spatial propagation of impacts (Challenge 4).

384 In a similar vein, **Markov chains** can be used to describe systems that transition between  
385 different states over time. This method has proven effective in examining the succession of  
386 interactions between multiple climate drivers and events (e.g. Sedlmeier et al., 2016) and could  
387 be directly ported to the analysis of CCI (Challenge 3). For example, Markov chains have recently  
388 been used to predict the impact of drought changes on water and soil quality (Ronizi et al.,  
389 2022). Markov chains offer particular advantages in addressing spatial changes (Challenge 4)  
390 and generating scenarios with different response measures (Challenge 5), as has been  
391 demonstrated in neighboring fields (e.g. Rifat and Liu, 2022).

392 The above methods may still struggle in extremely data-limited contexts, and in such cases, even  
393 simpler **co-occurrence analyses** may be favored. These provide a statistical indication of  
394 whether the spatial or temporal concurrence of specific impacts is larger than one may expect by  
395 random, helping to address Challenge 3. A number of co-occurrence indicators have been  
396 developed explicitly for extreme events, exactly by virtue of their effectiveness, even when  
397 applied to small data samples. For example, Kornhuber and Messori (2023) used co-occurrence  
398 statistics to identify regions of significant concurrence of climate extremes in Europe and North  
399 America, and a similar approach could be applied to their impacts. In CCI research, de Brito  
400 (2021) conducted a co-occurrence analysis to identify drought impact types often reported  
401 together by the media. While this method is useful for identifying relationships between two  
402 variables, it has limitations when dealing with patterns that emerge from multiple variables.

### 403 **3.2.2. Data mining**

404 Data mining methods such as dimensionality reduction, clustering, and sequential pattern  
405 mining are well-suited for identifying patterns in complex and high-dimensional datasets. These  
406 methods help transform datasets with many variables into interpretable information, making it  
407 easier to understand relationships among multiple observations (Challenge 3). However, the  
408 data transformation may lead to the loss of relevant information. Similar to other data-driven  
409 methods (see section 3.2.1), the application of data mining in CCI research is constrained by the  
410 availability of multi-sector and longitudinal data (Challenges 1 and 2).

411 **Dimensionality reduction methods** allow for simplifying the analysis of high-dimensional  
412 data by transforming them into lower-dimensional representations while retaining the most  
413 informative aspects (Anowar et al., 2021). These transformations enable to capture a high share  
414 of the original dataset's variance using fewer dimensions, thereby maintaining its key  
415 characteristics. Principal component analysis, self-organizing maps, and t-SNE (t-distributed

416 stochastic neighbor embedding) are a few examples of such techniques. By leveraging these  
417 methods, researchers can better understand the relationships between multiple socio-economic  
418 impacts (Challenge 3). Although dimensionality reduction methods have been successfully  
419 applied to identify underlying risk patterns (e.g. hazard, vulnerability) that drive impact  
420 occurrence (e.g. Johnson et al., 2020; Maity et al., 2013), their application in the field of CCI is  
421 yet to be explored. Adopting dimensionality reduction approaches in CCI research holds promise  
422 for gaining a comprehensive perspective on the relationships between different multi-sector  
423 impacts (Challenge 3) as well as across different regions (Challenge 4). Furthermore, indicators  
424 developed through dimensionality reduction could act as holistic measures for tracking  
425 developments through time and space or evaluating the effects of response measures (Challenge  
426 5).

427 **Clustering methods** are another powerful tool for discovering underlying patterns in high-  
428 dimensional data. Unlike dimensionality reduction methods, clustering seeks to group similar  
429 data points based on their characteristics. Popular clustering methods include k-means,  
430 hierarchical clustering, or density-based clustering. Although hardly applied in CCI research,  
431 inspiration for application to CCI can be drawn from other fields, especially hazard research (e.g.  
432 Brunner and Stahl, 2023). For example, a study by Lam et al. (2016) leveraged clustering  
433 analysis to assess resilience to climate-related hazards for U.S. counties based on 28 variables.  
434 For CCI, similar research designs could allow researchers to better understand how CCI impacts  
435 affect regions in complex ways and whether these impacts occur in similar patterns across time  
436 and space (Challenge 4).

437 **Sequential pattern mining** methods are effective for identifying rules which describe  
438 frequent temporal patterns (e.g. sequences or cascading events) in a dataset. Respective  
439 algorithms such as SPADE or generalized sequential pattern aim at finding events that occur in  
440 predictable orders throughout a given dataset. By leveraging these methods, researchers can  
441 uncover important temporal relationships and dependencies. Indeed, the application of  
442 sequential pattern mining to CCI of hydrological extremes has been demonstrated by de Brito  
443 (2022), who detected cascading drought impact patterns for the case of Germany in 2018 and  
444 2019 (Challenge 3). Given datasets of sufficient geographic scope, sequential pattern mining  
445 could also investigate interrelationships of CCI spanned between regions (Challenge 4).

### 446 **3.3 Mixed approaches**

447 Mixed approaches refer to methods that combine both qualitative and quantitative data to  
448 understand complex systems. These approaches leverage the strengths of both data-driven  
449 methods, which rely on patterns and insights derived directly from the data, and knowledge-  
450 driven methods, which incorporate domain knowledge, rules, or expert opinions. By doing so,  
451 these approaches offer a holistic perspective on the phenomenon under study.

### 452 **3.3.1. Systems modelling**

453 **Systems modeling** encompasses a range of methods for understanding complex systems  
454 through mathematical and computational models. Here, we focus on two widely used methods:  
455 system dynamics and agent-based modeling (ABM). These methods have gained popularity due  
456 to their capacity to incorporate the interplay between social and natural system components (de  
457 Brito, 2023). A limitation, however, is that they often require large amounts of data to be  
458 effective (Challenges 1 and 2). In such cases, the accuracy and reliability of the models may be  
459 compromised.

460 **Agent-based modeling (AMB)** is used to study the behavior of individuals or agents within  
461 a social system. The agent's behavior is described by a set of rules implemented by the researcher  
462 to fit the system under investigation. They often combine data from behavioural experiments or  
463 survey data (Wijermans et al., 2022). ABM can help to answer questions on how and why social  
464 systems react in response to different stimuli compared to counterfactuals. ABMs represent a  
465 well-established method for studying social-ecological systems (Biggs et al., 2021). For CCI  
466 research, models for varying purposes have been developed which capture the interactions of a  
467 social and hydrological system. For example, Michaelis et al. (2020) developed an ABM to  
468 capture processes between floods, impacts, and vulnerability. Galán et al. (2009) investigated  
469 domestic water demand using an ABM that reflects individual households. The model allowed  
470 the testing of different what-if scenarios concerning varying socioeconomic indicators and urban  
471 dynamics. Both applications highlight the capabilities of ABM to reflect on spatial  
472 interconnectivity (Challenge 4) and its effectiveness in evaluating policy measures (Challenge 5).

473 **Systems dynamics and multi-sector dynamic models** focus on studying the complexity  
474 of a system through understanding causal relationships and feedback patterns (Yoon et al.,  
475 2022). Gaining such understanding is beneficial for predicting future system behavior,  
476 identifying detrimental or supportive system components, and evaluating the likely impact of  
477 policy strategies. System dynamic models are typically based on a set of mathematical equations  
478 and can incorporate various data types to derive model-specific parameters as well as qualitative  
479 data from surveys. Integrative models based on both qualitative and quantitative data are  
480 increasingly being applied in the context of floods and drought impacts (e.g. Savelli et al., 2023;  
481 Yoon et al., 2021). For example, water supply and demand dynamics have been studied for  
482 varying climate change scenarios and management decisions (ElSawah et al., 2015). For CCI,  
483 these models can help identify how cascades propagate and how impacts across different sectors  
484 are connected through complex causal structures (Challenge 3). Additionally, integrated system  
485 dynamics models excel in evaluating response measures across different social-ecological  
486 systems (Challenge 5) and have already been used to evaluate the efficiency of future adaptation  
487 strategies (e.g. Giuliani et al., 2022). The development of system dynamics models is, however,  
488 often constrained by the availability of data to sufficiently parametrize all model components  
489 and their causal relationships.

### 490 **3.2.2. Network analysis**

491 **Network analysis** is a frequently employed method for examining the connections between  
492 variables. It involves representing network structures using nodes and links, which help reveal  
493 the relationships between variables in a system and capture their associations (Bodin et al.,  
494 2019). These structures can be derived from various methods such as CLDs, FCM, co-occurrence  
495 analysis, or observational data. In flood and drought research, network analysis can provide  
496 insights into the interrelationships among individual actors or the flows between impacts,  
497 response measures, and risk drivers. While the conceptual (and metaphorical) idea of thinking  
498 of CCI as a network is widely adopted throughout CCI studies, few have adopted network analysis  
499 as an empirical approach.

500 In CCI research, network analysis metrics can be leveraged for understanding cascading patterns  
501 among manifold socio-economic impacts of hydrological extremes (Challenge 3). Graph theory  
502 measures can reveal highly central, relevant, or influential variables in these mental models  
503 (Olazabal & Pascual, 2016). For example, de Brito (2021) used network structures to capture and  
504 visualize the cascading impacts of drought, while graph theory measures were used to identify  
505 highly central variables. Network analysis can also help to understand the spatial  
506 interconnectivity of CCI, particularly when networks represent a spatial dimension through  
507 which impacts cascade (Naqvi & Monasterolo, 2021) (Challenge 4).

### 508 **3.3.3. Economic-based models**

509 Macro-economic models have been widely applied to identify and quantify the cross-sectoral  
510 and cross-regional economic impacts due to hydrological extremes. The most commonly applied  
511 models are input-output and computable general equilibrium models. Both models describe our  
512 economy through a set of inter-relations between economic actors (e.g. industries, households,  
513 and governments) (E. E. Koks et al., 2016). These models are particularly helpful in identifying  
514 potential spillover effects across regions (Challenge 4). However, a key limitation is that they  
515 may rely on assumptions that do not always hold in reality (e.g. either no or full substitution  
516 between production inputs). Additionally, they may not fully capture intangible impacts, such as  
517 the psychological distress experienced by individuals affected by extreme events. To cope with  
518 some of these limitations, economic models are increasingly being used together with  
519 noneconomic methods.

520 Traditional **input-output (IO) models** are static linear models in which substitution between  
521 products is not possible, and price effects are disregarded. Due to these characteristics, IO  
522 models often overestimate the economic losses due to their linearity and lack of substitution. In  
523 general, they are considered to best represent the economic situation in the short term, in which  
524 the economy is generally inflexible to large changes. While there are no clear examples of  
525 applications within CCI, IO models have been used to, for example, assess the cascading effects  
526 of flooding towards business disruptions and economy-wide impacts (e.g. Koks et al., 2019) and  
527 to analyze global supply-chain effects due to COVID-19 (Guan et al., 2020).

528 **Computable general equilibrium (CGE)** models mostly assume a market with perfect  
529 competition and are generally built around the rationale that: (i) firms aim to maximize profits  
530 and minimize costs and (ii) households aim to maximize their utility within their budget  
531 constraint. As such, CGE models may underestimate the economic losses due to ‘over’-  
532 optimizing the economic situation (E. E. Koks et al., 2016). They are thus most suitable for  
533 assessing the long-term impacts of droughts and floods on a national economy and the potential  
534 of welfare impacts. For example, García-León et al. (2021) assessed the impacts of droughts on  
535 the Italian economy, and Bachner et al. (2023) applied a CGE model to highlight the cross-  
536 sectoral impacts of flood events within Austria.

537 Capturing CCI of hydrological extremes requires economic-based models capable of coupling a  
538 physical footprint of the event to disruptions within our economy. This means that CGE and IO  
539 models should be extended to convert physical asset damages and employment reductions (i.e.,  
540 because of casualties and/or displacement) into a ‘shock’ affecting economic activity. This could  
541 either mean disruptions on the supply side of our economy (i.e., reduction in production output)  
542 or disruption on the demand side of our economy (i.e., reduction in demand for goods and  
543 services). Moreover, capturing cross-regional economic impacts ([Challenge 4](#)) requires using  
544 multi-regional economic trade data. Finally, a time dimension should be included to assess the  
545 effects of cascading events.

#### 546 **4 Pathways for future research**

547 The above synthesis highlights the diversity of methods used to study CCI dynamics. In general,  
548 while methods supporting the identification of patterns between impacts ([Challenge 3](#)) are well-  
549 represented and widely applied, progress in measuring the strength of the causal relationships  
550 between socioeconomic impacts has been limited. Furthermore, while most methods are used to  
551 study interactions within one geographical scale, relatively few methods support the analysis of  
552 cross-scale dynamics ([Challenge 4](#)), as shown in Table 1. Also, the majority of the reviewed  
553 applications primarily address past or present CCI (e.g. de Brito, 2021; Matanó et al., 2022), with  
554 few examining plausible futures (e.g. D’Agostino et al., 2020; Liguori et al., 2021). The analysis  
555 of interactions between the impacts of hydrological extremes and response measures is also in  
556 its early stages ([Challenge 5](#)). Considering these gaps, we point towards recommendations for  
557 advancing the field of CCI research.

##### 558 **(1) Systematic efforts to collect data on impacts across multiple sectors, systems, 559 and years are needed**

560 The quality and quantity of longitudinal and multi-sector impact data constrain our  
561 understanding of CCI dynamics. Although a wide range of approaches exists to study complex  
562 systems, CCI research tends to rely on simple methods due to data availability limitations. Thus,  
563 systematic efforts must be made to collect drought and flood impact data. Emerging impact  
564 assessment methods that use text, digital traces, new sensors, and citizen science data are



565 potential ways forward. For instance, newspaper and social media data can provide a fine-scale  
566 mapping of socioeconomic impacts across sectors (e.g. de Brito et al., 2020; Erfurt et al., 2020;  
567 Sodoge et al., 2023). Drones and satellite data can support detailed property and infrastructure  
568 damage assessment (e.g. West et al., 2019; Wouters et al., 2021). Moreover, digital traces such  
569 as credit card transactions and online communications can enable rapid impact assessments  
570 (e.g. Jackson and Gunda, 2021; Yuan et al., 2022b, 2022a). The adoption of these new methods  
571 presents valuable opportunities for gathering crucial data to address CCI, especially in currently  
572 underrepresented regions.

## 573 **(2) Disciplinary diversity should be promoted to foster innovation**

574 To better understand the complexity of CCI, engaging in interdisciplinary collaboration among  
575 scientists from different fields, such as ecology, economics, engineering, geography, hydrology,  
576 law, political sciences, and social sciences, is crucial. Although interdisciplinary research  
577 positively correlates with research impact and innovation (Okamura, 2019), evidence suggests  
578 that researchers in natural hazards research often work within their own disciplinary silos  
579 (Vanelli et al., 2022). This may limit the scope of their analyses, overlooking crucial  
580 interdependencies and multi-sectoral impacts. By breaking down these barriers and  
581 collaborating across disciplines, CCI research can be decompartmentalized and offer a more  
582 comprehensive explanation of how droughts and floods impact critical infrastructure, people,  
583 and assets, reducing the potential for disciplinary bias in findings. By working together,  
584 interdisciplinary teams can thus advance the understanding of compound and cascading impacts  
585 of hydrological extremes. Numerous of the applications highlighted in this paper are already  
586 moving in this direction, showcasing the positive outcomes of embracing interdisciplinary  
587 collaboration (e.g. Matanó et al., 2022; Rusca et al., 2023).

## 588 **(3) Methodological pluralism is necessary to fully address the complexity of CCI** 589 **and their underlying risk drivers**

590 Data and knowledge-driven approaches are commonly used separately in CCI research, and  
591 integration of methods is limited. However, no single method can by itself capture all aspects of  
592 the intertwined nature of CCI and its underlying risk drivers. We, thus, advocate for  
593 epistemological and methodological pluralism to consider the different aspects of CCI. Since  
594 each method has its own assumptions, strengths, and weaknesses (Table 1), combining different  
595 methods can help reveal various facets of CCI and compensate for the limitations of individual  
596 methods. For instance, while quantitative assessments allow us to identify generalizable patterns  
597 and dynamics, qualitative analyses help to contextualize and interpret them (Di Baldassarre et  
598 al., 2021; Rusca et al., 2021). Hence, by triangulating the outcomes of these approaches, several  
599 lines of evidence can be delivered (Raymond et al., 2020). This can strengthen the research  
600 confidence as results that agree across different methods are less likely to be artefacts (Munafò  
601 & Davey Smith, 2018). The outcomes from one method can be used as input for others. For  
602 instance, information obtained from questionnaires and focus group discussions can be used to

603 build agent-based models. By using multi and mixed method approaches, researchers can be  
604 more flexible and take advantage of the strengths of particular methods while still grounding the  
605 research in biophysical and socioeconomic realities. The examples of methodological pluralism  
606 discussed in our paper suggest the feasibility and added value of this approach (e.g. Savelli et al.,  
607 2023; Yoon et al., 2021).

608 **(4) Generalizable theories of how socioeconomic impacts compound, cascade, and**  
609 **interact with response measures are required**

610 Studies expressing an explicit ambition to develop theories about the dynamics of drought and  
611 flood socioeconomic impacts and their response measures with an understanding of CCI as  
612 described above, are still needed. The heterogeneity among case studies has prevented  
613 researchers from engaging in comparative analyses. Therefore, we advocate for building a corpus  
614 of empirical data on the dynamics of droughts and floods CCI with the specific aim of seeking  
615 generalizations across multiple case studies. This effort will support the development of a  
616 generalizable theory about CCI dynamics and their interactions with response measures. To  
617 achieve this, the findings of multiple case studies could be synthesized, aiming to identify  
618 common patterns and draw conclusions that can be applied across a broader range of contexts  
619 (Kuhlicke et al., 2023). This task involves disentangling the idiosyncrasies of case-specific  
620 findings by considering various contextual and research design factors (Bodin et al., 2019). A  
621 way forward would be combining empirical explanations of observed and/or anticipated  
622 phenomena with modelling (e.g. ABM or FCM) to test and explore possible explanations.  
623 Developing such theories can help overcome the limitations of individual case studies and  
624 provide a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of causality and dynamic  
625 interactions in droughts and floods CCI research.

626 **(5) Investigation of the risks of future CCI should be guided not only by probability**  
627 **but also by plausibility considerations**

628 When investigating the risks of CCI and their root causes, attention should also be paid to less  
629 frequent impact types, whose probability may be lower but with higher consequences (Shepherd  
630 et al., 2018; Sillmann et al., 2021). In an increasingly interconnected world, the complexity of  
631 coupled natural-technological-social systems can make probability calculations futile (Engels &  
632 Marotzke, 2023). Therefore, understanding CCI entails recognizing that they cannot be fully  
633 predicted and that uncertainty is inherent. Instead, we can explore different possibilities for the  
634 evolution of CCI under different conditions. This also requires a deep understanding of the  
635 underlying risk drivers of different sectors and systems and their interlinkages. To address the  
636 plausibility question and better prepare for potential CCI, knowledge-driven tools can be  
637 instrumental. They enable us to explore the range of possible outcomes and the associated  
638 uncertainty while also offering explanations of why CCI might occur. For instance, mental  
639 models and qualitative storylines can be coupled with theories about transformative social  
640 change, disruptive change, social inertia, and path dependency. This can help us identify key

641 drivers that can lead to high impacts in a given future scenario as well as adaptation measures  
642 that can support risk reduction.

643 In summary, the overview of methods and linked recommendations for future research  
644 described here can contribute to an improved characterization and understanding of CCI  
645 dynamics and hence support the reduction of CCI risks linked to hydrological extremes. In doing  
646 so, this perspective aims to enable researchers to make informed decisions about the choice of  
647 methods (or the combination of them) to be used.

648

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655

## 656 **Data availability statement**

657 No new data were created or analysed during this study. Data sharing is not applicable to this  
658 article.

659

## 660 **CRedit statement**

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