

1 **Introduction to the special issue “Venice flooding and sea level: past evolution, present issues and**
2 **future projections”**

3
4 Piero Lionello¹, Robert J. Nicholls², Georg Umgiesser^{3,4}, Davide Zanchettin⁵

5
6 ¹Università del Salento, Dept. of Biological and Environmental Sciences and Technologies, Centro
7 Ecotekne Pal. M - S.P. 6, Lecce Monteroni, Italy

8 ²Tyndall Centre for Climate Change Research, University of East Anglia, Norwich NR4 7TJ, United
9 Kingdom

10 ³CNR - National Research Council of Italy, ISMAR - Marine Sciences Institute, Castello 2737/F, 30122
11 Venezia, Italy

12 ⁴Marine Research Institute, Klaipeda University, H. Manto 84, 92294 Klaipeda, Lithuania⁵University
13 Ca' Foscari of Venice, Dept. of Environmental Sciences, Informatics and Statistics, Via Torino 155,
14 30172 Mestre, Italy

15
16
17 correspondence to: Piero Lionello (piero.lionello@unisalento.it)

18
19
20 **Abstract.**

21 Venice is an iconic place and a paradigm of huge historical and cultural value at risk. The frequency of
22 flooding of the city centre has dramatically increased in recent decades and this threat is expected to
23 continue to grow and even accelerate through this century. This special issue collects three review
24 articles addressing different and complementary aspects of the hazards causing the floods of Venice:
25 (1) the relative sea-level rise, (2) the occurrence of extreme water heights, and (3) the prediction of
26 extreme water heights and floods. It emerges that the effect of compound events poses critical
27 challenges to the forecast of floods, particularly from the perspective of effectively operating the new
28 MoSE mobile barriers and that relative sea-level rise is the key factor determining the future growth of
29 the flood hazard, so that the present defence strategy is likely to become inadequate within this century
30 under a high emission scenario. Two strands of research are needed in the future. Firstly, there is a need
31 to better understand and reduce the uncertainty on the future evolution of relative sea level and its
32 extremes at Venice. However, uncertainty might not be substantially reduced in the near future,
33 reflecting uncertain anthropogenic emissions and structural model features. Hence, complementary
34 adaptive planning strategies appropriate for conditions of uncertainty should be explored and developed
35 in the future.

36
37 **1. Motivation**

38 The great historic, ecologic, and economic interest of the city of Venice and its lagoon and the threats
39 at which they are exposed are known around the world. In 1987, Venice and its lagoon were recognised
40 as a UNESCO World Heritage Site based on six criteria of outstanding cultural, environmental and
41 landscape universal value encompassing the historical and artistic relevance of the city and the
42 exemplarity of the ecosystem (<https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/394/>). In UNESCO's words, Venice
43 symbolizes “*the people's victorious struggle against the elements as they managed to master a hostile*

44 *nature” and its semi-lacustral habitat“ has become vulnerable as a result of irreversible natural and*
45 *climate changes”.*

46 The history and the very essence of Venice are tightly intertwined with the sea and the lagoon, which
47 have represented a source of resources and wealth, and a natural defence system against enemies.
48 However, the threat of floods has always been present (Enzi and Camuffo, 1995). This hazard has been
49 exacerbated by the increased rate of relative sea level (RSL) rise after the 1930’s (Zanchettin et al.,
50 2021; Lionello et al., 2021, hereafter Z2021 and L2021, respectively), posing serious and growing
51 threats to the city of Venice and its lagoon. In fact, the recurrent floods that afflict Venice, referred to
52 as “aqua alta” in the local dialect, are the best known and debated symptom of the frailty of the Venetian
53 lagoon system. The Venetian RSL has risen at an average rate of 2.5mm/year in the past 150 years due
54 to mean sea-level rise and sinking of the ground by natural and anthropogenic subsidence, which
55 accelerated the RSL rise rate up to 5mm/year in the period 1950-1970 (Z2021), leading to increased
56 frequency of floods (L2021). The lowest part of the Venice’s central St. Mark’s Square is approximately
57 55 cm above the present mean sea level and nowadays a positive water height anomaly (see section 3)
58 that is only a few centimetres above astronomical high tide (whose amplitude is about 50cm) can flood
59 it.

60 The dramatic surge of 4 November 1966 showed unequivocally the need for counteracting an increasing
61 hazard level. The event reached the highest ever recorded water height (194 cm) and persisted over 110
62 cm for 22 hours (see L2021; De Zolt et al., 2006; Cavaleri et al., 2010). Figure 1 shows the flooding of
63 the central monumental area at a time close to the peak of the 6 November 1966 event. In 1973, the
64 Italian government established a legal framework, the Special Law for Venice, establishing objectives,
65 responsibilities, regulations, actions and funding allocations to safeguard Venice and its lagoon. The
66 solution finally approved by the Italian government is a system of large mobile barriers (MoSE, Modulo
67 Sperimentale Elettromeccanico) at the three lagoon inlets. Barriers will be raised only during severe
68 events, closing the lagoon inlets and preventing the water height exceeding the safeguard level within
69 the lagoon, while under normal conditions, they lay on the bottom of the lagoon inlets, allowing water
70 exchange and ship traffic between the lagoon and the Adriatic Sea. After a long planning phase,
71 construction started in 2003 and it is foreseen that the barriers will be fully operational at the end of
72 2021. The recent event on 12 November 2019 (Cavaleri et al.; 2020, Ferrarin et al.,2021), which has
73 been the second highest water height (189 cm) ever measured in Venice by a tide gauge, has
74 dramatically reconfirmed the need for an adequate defence system. November 2019 was the worst
75 month since the beginning of the local tide-gauge records for excessive high waters, with 15 events
76 exceeding 110 cm and 4 events above 140 cm. MoSE has already been operated for a few exceptional
77 events, such as on 3 October 2020, when, for the first time, the lagoon was cut off under real hazard
78 conditions from the Adriatic Sea. While the peak water height during the event was 130 cm in the
79 Adriatic, it was kept at 70 cm in the lagoon and at St. Mark’s Square, and flooding was avoided. Figure
80 2 shows an aerial view of the barriers blocking the lagoon inlets and the time series of the water height
81 outside (“Piattaforma CNR”) and inside the lagoon (“Punta Salute Canal Grande” represents the tide
82 gauge commonly used as reference for the sea level in the city centre).

83 A large scientific literature considers the factors leading to the flooding of Venice, predicting the timing
84 and intensity of the events and describing changes in their frequency and intensity under future global
85 warming scenarios. This special issue aims to critically review the current understanding of the Venice
86 flooding phenomenon. It considers the meteorological and climatic factors producing “aqua alta”, its
87 prediction, and its historical and expected future variations under a globally changing climate. The

88 synthesis is oriented toward clarifying consolidated knowledge, highlighting gaps in knowledge, and
89 identifying major opportunities for progress.

90 This special issue comprises three review articles addressing three different and complementary aspects
91 of the hazards causing the flood of Venice. Z2021 considers the Venetian RSL evolution on multiple
92 time scales and the factors determining it. Umgiesser et al. (2021, hereafter U2021) describe the tools
93 that have been developed and are currently used for the prediction of the floods and gives
94 recommendations for further improvements. L2021 describes the factors leading to extreme water-
95 height events, their past evolution, and expected future trends under a climate change perspective. The
96 outcomes of these papers provide a thorough critical review of the scientific literature. It is, hence, a
97 basis for the assessment of present and future risks and helps to define the requirements of the adaptation
98 strategies that are appropriate for Venice over the 21st century.

99 This editorial provides an introduction to these three reviews. It shortly provides general background
100 information by describing the geographical and historical setting (section 2) and the phenomenology of
101 surges and high-water levels (section 3). Section 4 describes the overall key findings produced by the
102 three reviews. Implications for future flooding and its management are addressed in the conclusive
103 section 5.

104 **2. Geographical and historical setting**

105 The Venice Lagoon covers about 550 km² along about 50 km of low-lying coast within the easternmost
106 boundary of the Po Plain, and is connected to the northern Adriatic Sea through three tidal inlets: Lido,
107 Malamocco and Chioggia (Fig. 3). The historical city is located in the centre of the lagoon and is built
108 at low elevation on a basis made of wooden piles reaching an underground hard layer and supporting
109 the buildings.

110 The Venice Lagoon is governed by a fragile equilibrium, which has been artificially preserved over the
111 centuries by contrasting the natural evolution of this transitional area that is driven by coastal dynamics
112 via geomorphological (e.g., erosion and sedimentation), chemical (e.g., salinification), biological and
113 ecological (e.g., loss of wetlands and other ecotypes) changes. Since the 15th Century, Venetians have
114 engaged in an enduring struggle against sedimentation in the lagoon, mainly by diverting away - with
115 variable degrees of success - the major rivers Adige, Bacchiglione, Brenta, Sile, and Piave and their
116 sediment supply, hence altering the morphology of the alluvial plain and the coastal margins. Bondesan
117 and Furlanetto (2012) provide a recent assessment, based on historical cartography analysis, of the
118 artificial fluvial diversions performed during the 16th and 17th centuries. More recent works in the 19th
119 and 20th centuries include deepening of existing channels within the lagoon, excavation of the “Canale
120 dei Petroli” (Oils Channel) and construction of breakwaters at the lagoon’s mouths to allow modern
121 ships to reach the ports of Giudecca and Marittima in the historic city and, more recently, Porto
122 Marghera.

123 The tidal regime is a mixed semidiurnal cycle with a tidal range of more than 1 m at spring tide and
124 only three components above 10 cm, with the semidiurnal M2 and S2, and the diurnal K1 providing the
125 largest contributions (23, 14, 16 cm, respectively) both outside the lagoon inlets and in the city center
126 (Polli, 1952; Ferrarin et al. , 2015)

127 Hydrodynamics linked to tidal exchange are critical for the great ecological variety and biodiversity of
128 the Venice Lagoon, with habitats ranging from tidal flats, marshlands, channels and canals, inlets and
129 tidal deltas with strong hydrodynamics and tidal renewals.

130 Changes in RSL may critically compromise the ecosystem functionality by inducing morphodynamic
131 changes that alter the ecological vocation of such areas (Zanchettin et al., 2007). Several studies show
132 that the increase of extreme floods since the mid-20th century is explained by RSL rise (Lionello et
133 al.,2012; L2021). Further, future sea-level rise (Z2021) might dramatically increase both the frequency
134 of high sea level events and resulting floods, as well as increasing the duration and extent of flooding
135 (L2021). This reinforces the need to understand the historical context of sea-level change in Venice,
136 and consider its prognosis.

137 **3. Characteristics of surges and high water levels**

138 The floods of Venice are associated with the positive anomalies of the water height, defined as the
139 difference between the instantaneous sea level and the bottom level. The term “water height” is
140 introduced because considering only sea level does not account for the fundamental role that the local
141 vertical land motion (subsidence) has and will continue to have in the increased frequency of floods.
142 The contributions leading to large water height anomalies are meteorological surges, seiches, tides,
143 seasonal-to-decadal sea level variability and long term RSL changes. The meteorological surges result
144 from three different contributions characterized by different time scales: surges produced by planetary
145 atmospheric waves (PAW surges) ,with duration from 10 days to 100 days, storm surges produced by
146 mid-latitude cyclones with time scales of a few days, meteotsunamis and surges produced by mesoscale
147 systems (with a short duration of a few hours). The characteristics of the different contributions and the
148 criteria for their distinction are explained in section 2.1 and 2.2 of L2021. Note that this terminology
149 differs from Gregory et al. (2019) in that the term “water height” is introduced and the surge is
150 distinguished by three components, reserving the term “storm surge” for the component produced by
151 the passage of a cyclone.

152 Meteorological surges in Venice are caused by a combination of various physical processes, mainly
153 triggered by the water level in the neighbouring Adriatic Sea. The main component of extreme events
154 is the storm surge produced mostly by the south-easterly wind (Sirocco), pushing the water versus the
155 north-western end of the Adriatic Sea (wind set-up), and the low atmospheric pressure that increases
156 the mean sea level by one centimetre per millibar of pressure decrease (inverse barometer effect). The
157 surge produced by atmospheric planetary waves and mesoscale atmospheric systems can also provide
158 a significant contribution. To these meteorological processes, the contribution of the regular tides has
159 to be considered, which can add about 50 cm during a spring tide (Ferrarin et al., 2015). Another flood
160 process is seiches, i.e., free oscillations of the Adriatic Sea triggered by wind setup. The main seiches,
161 which have a period of around 23 hours, very close to that of the diurnal tides, overlay the
162 meteorological and tidal processes and may cause flooding even if the main meteorological conditions
163 have calmed down (Bajo et al., 2019). These processes and their superposition leading to compound
164 events are described in L2021.

165 The positive water-level anomaly in the Adriatic Sea enters the lagoon nearly undisturbed through the
166 deep inlets (8-13 meters) and then reaches and floods the city centre of Venice (Umgiesser et al., 2004;
167 U2021). While there might be some local water height differences due to wave setup outside the inlets
168 and wind stress inside the lagoon, the water height in the city of Venice closely follows the level outside
169 the lagoon. Wave run-up and infra-gravity waves are not relevant for the water height in the city centre,
170 although they may have an effect at the sea side of the barrier islands separating the lagoon from the
171 Sea (see L2021).

172 **4. Key insights from the papers**

173 The important potential role of compound events (resulting from the superposition of the different
174 contributions introduced in section 3) for causing extreme sea levels emerges clearly from L2021. Many
175 past studies concentrated on the storm surge contribution, which was the determinant contribution for
176 the 4 November 1966 and the 19 October 2018 events, and on the need for a precise prediction of its
177 timing in relation to the phase of the astronomical tide and pre-existing seiches. However, the presence
178 of other factors can determine extreme sea-level events when they act constructively, namely planetary
179 atmospheric wave surges and meteotsunamis, even if their individual magnitude is not exceptionally
180 large (L2021), as it was apparent in the recent 12 November 2019 event (Ferrarin et al., 2021). This
181 poses a great challenge to the prediction of extreme sea levels (U2021) and the management of MoSE.
182 Further, historic floods show large interdecadal and interannual fluctuations, whose dynamics are not
183 sufficiently understood (L2021), preventing reliable seasonal predictions.

184 The water height forecast (U2021) has paramount importance, because it is needed by civil protection
185 for flood warnings and by the consortium that operates the mobile barriers (MoSE), which are currently
186 in a pre-operational phase at the inlets. Considering the operativity of MoSE, a reliable forecast should
187 be able to satisfy the requirements of the different stakeholders, especially in terms of the forecast range
188 and error statistics (Umgiesser, 2000). The present plan is to operate the barriers and to close the lagoon
189 on the basis of the forecast water level, wind and rain only a few hours before the event. The port
190 authority is particularly sensitive to unnecessary closures, which produce unmotivated economic losses
191 by limiting the port operations and to anticipate (in the range from one to two days) the decision to close
192 in order to facilitate proper management of the ingoing and outgoing ship traffic. Residents,
193 shopkeepers and most commercial activities in Venice would support a more conservative approach
194 that minimizes the risk of flood damages to goods and properties. Therefore, the port authority is
195 interested in avoiding false alarms, while other stakeholders are worried about missing closures. Tourist
196 activities would in general be concerned by cancellations of reservations and visits that may be caused
197 by an excessive water level forecast.

198 An operational forecasting system has been in place for the last 40 years, but further developments are
199 needed to match the requests of stakeholders and the requirements for operating MoSE. Lack of
200 accuracy in the forecast of the compound event that led to the exceptional water-height maximum on
201 12 November 2019, produced a severe underestimate (up to 45 cm) of the maximum event height by
202 all available forecast systems (Ferrarin et al., 2021). The need to improve the operational forecasting
203 system has been further demonstrated by the flooding of the city on 8 December 2020, when the MoSE
204 was not operated, in spite of being available, because the forecast underestimated the height of the water
205 level. Therefore, further developments are needed, particularly the use of ensemble methods,
206 assimilation of real time data, and the exploitation of multi-model approaches (U2021). Implementing
207 these features in the forecasting systems can (and should) be done to guarantee an improved and
208 adequate water-level forecast in the near future.

209 RSL rise is the factor that has produced the past increase of the Venice flood frequency. Z2021 shows
210 that the 2.5mm/year RSL trend in Venice has been caused in approximately equal parts by land
211 subsidence and mean sea level (MSL) rise. L2021 shows that increased frequency of floods is attributed
212 to such RSL rise, with no robust evidence of intensification of the meteorological conditions associated
213 with extreme water heights. Figure 4 summarizes these results by showing the RSL rise in Venice and
214 the corresponding increase of frequency of water-height maxima above 120 cm, which has increased
215 from less than two events per decade (average frequency during the first half of the 20th century) to 40
216 events in the last decade (2010-2019). Considering a lower (110 cm) water-height threshold, the number
217 of events has increased from 4.2/decade to 95/decade (L2021).

218 Uncertainty in future greenhouse gas emissions (largely depending on governmental and societal
219 decisions) and structural modelling uncertainties (particularly in relation to the melting of the large
220 Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets) lead to a wide range of possible future sea-level rise scenarios
221 (Zanchettin et al., 2020). Figure 4 shows that the past MSL in Venice closely follows the MSL evolution
222 of the Subpolar North Atlantic. Differences between these two time series consists of inter-annual and
223 inter-decadal sea level fluctuations in the North Adriatic, with no sustained different trends. This and
224 other studies indicate that future sub-regional deviations play a minor role for long term planning and
225 add an uncertainty estimated in the order of ± 10 cm to the RLS at the end of the 20th century (Z2021).
226 Figure 5 shows a RSL rise range from about 30 to 110 cm at the end of the 21st century (with a wider
227 10 to 120 cm range, accounting for the uncertainty associated with sub-regional deviations). This could
228 grow to above 180 cm if an unlikely, but plausible, high-end scenario is realised. These values are
229 obtained considering regional analysis of future RSL (Thiéblemont et al., 2019), integrated by
230 accounting for centennial natural vertical land movement occurring at the past rate) and adding a further
231 10 cm uncertainty caused by sub-regional deviations from the Subpolar North Atlantic sea level
232 (Z2021).

233 Future RSL rise will be the key factor determining the future duration of extreme water heights above
234 the safeguard thresholds, which correspond to the duration of the closures of the inlets by the MoSE
235 mobile barriers. Figure 5 reports the RSL thresholds for the closures based on the consensus between
236 Lionello (2012) and Umgiesser (2020) and it shows that the period of closure will grow at a rate
237 controlled by RSL rise. Closing of the inlets for three weeks per year is unlikely before the 2040's, but
238 virtually certain before the end of this century, even under a low-emission scenario (RCP2.6). Two-
239 months closures per year are unlikely before the late 2050's even under a high-end emission scenario
240 (RCP8.5). However, they become virtually certain by the late 2080's under a high-emission scenario
241 and about as likely as not before the end of this century for a low-emission scenario. Note that a six-
242 month closure per year (which can be used as criterion for considering the present defence strategy to
243 be inadequate and would require new additional actions) is likely to occur before the end of this century
244 under a high-emission scenario.

245 RSL rise will also be the key factor responsible for the future increase of extreme sea-level frequency
246 and height, while the reduction of intensity of meteorological events and changes of tidal regimes will
247 play a secondary role (L2021). In the case of a high-emission scenario the magnitude of 1-in-100 year
248 sea-level events at the northern Adriatic coast is projected to increase by up to 65% in 2050 and 160%
249 in 2100 with respect to the present value, continuing to increase thereafter through the 22nd Century
250 and beyond (L2021).

251 **5. Implications for future flooding and its management**

252 The insights from the three review articles have important implications for our understanding of the
253 future occurrence of floods in Venice and their management. They demonstrate that RSL rise has been
254 and will continue to be the main driver of increasing extreme water heights and increasing flood
255 potential. Projected future RSL rise is the product of local changes due to subsidence and regional and
256 global trends linked to human-induced climate change. Natural background subsidence (up to around 1
257 mm/year) due to enduring long-term geological trends apparent over many centuries and longer is
258 inevitable in Venice (Z2021). Importantly, however, most subsidence in the last 100 years was due to
259 human actions (largely groundwater withdrawal). Since the 1970s, regulation and provision of
260 alternative sources of water for industrial, agricultural and civil use have avoided such subsidence. It is
261 important that these successful regulations to control human-induced subsidence continue to be

262 enforced in the future. Efforts could even be strengthened further, as some localised subsidence can still
263 be measured linked to construction works and related activities (Tosi et al., 2018). Costs, benefits and
264 practicality of the required measures might be considered in the context of building regulations and
265 permitting. Therefore, future human-induced contributions to local subsidence can be controlled based
266 on historic experience and awareness.

267 In contrast, most ongoing and projected future climate-induced sea-level rise is a result of global actions
268 concerning greenhouse gas emissions and resulting temperature rise. It is therefore of paramount
269 importance to identify and support collective global actions to reduce such emissions, especially the
270 Paris Agreement. It is also important for Venice, as in other coastal jurisdictions around the world, to
271 stay aware of future expectations about sea-level rise and plan accordingly. The regular assessments of
272 the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) are especially important in this regard, with
273 the Sixth Assessment being expected in 2021. Currently, it is not clear whether the world is heading
274 towards emissions more comparable to RCP4.5 or RCP6.0 (Hausfather and Peters, 2020), rather than
275 to RCP8.5 (Schwalm et al., 2020). With further reductions, emissions close to RCP2.6 (following the
276 Paris Agreement) is a plausible albeit challenging target to achieve. However, the recent IPCC Special
277 Report on the Cryosphere and Oceans (Oppenheimer et al., 2019) has emphasised the fundamental point
278 that stabilizing temperature does not stabilize sea level, but rather, the rate of sea-level rise.

279 Hence, some RSL rise is inevitable for Venice and extreme water heights and flood potential will grow:
280 uncertainty concerns only the rate of this increase. Significant aspects of this uncertainty relate to future
281 emissions, the response of the Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets to global temperature rise and future
282 subsidence of the Venice Lagoon. It is important to remember that Venice has adapted to RSL rise
283 through its more than 1,000 year history. Hence, the adaptation actions since the 1966 floods,
284 comprising both local adaptation (by raising parts of the historical center), and large-scale adaptation
285 for the whole lagoon (the construction of the MoSE barriers) continue this tradition. With the MoSE
286 barriers being fully commissioned in 2021 the risks of flooding in Venice will be greatly reduced.
287 However, as RSL is still rising and is projected to rise beyond the 21st Century even with the Paris
288 Agreement being fully implemented, ultimately even this new world-class adaptation system will be
289 challenged. The critical question is when a new adaptation strategy will be required, being aware that,
290 considering the uncertainty of future RSL scenarios, it might happen in the worst case within a few
291 decades, or maybe much later during the 22nd century. This suggests that experience from the long-term
292 planning for sea-level rise under uncertainty that is carried in locations such as London (Ranger et al.,
293 2013) and drawing on adaptation pathways more widely (Haasnoot et al., 2019) should be considered
294 also in the Venetian context.

295 Lastly, the recognition of the possible role of compound flood events due to superimposed extreme
296 water heights drivers shows the potential for improved flood forecasts in Venice, which in turn will
297 allow for better control of the MOSE barriers. Thus, improved understanding and forecasting of short-
298 term events will contribute to better long-term adaptation at Venice. With such improved forecasts and
299 greater confidence in those forecasts, this has the potential to extend the operational range of the MoSE
300 barriers and its life as an adaptation tool for Venice. This needs to be more fully explored.

301

302 **Acknowledgments**

303 The authors thank Federica Braga of ISMAR-CNR for providing the image used in Fig. 2a. Scientific
304 activity by GU and DZ performed in the Research Programme Venezia2021, with the contribution of

305 the Provveditorato for the Public Works of Veneto, Trentino Alto Adige and Friuli Venezia Giulia,
306 provided through the concessionary of State Consorzio Venezia Nuova and coordinated by CORILA.
307 The authors thank Gianfranco Tagliapietra for the historical photo of the flooding of Saint Mark square
308 on 4th November 1966.

309

310 **References**

311 Bajo, M., Medugorac, I., Umgiesser, G., and Orlić, M.: Storm surge and seiche modelling in the Adriatic
312 Sea and the impact of data assimilation: *Q J R Meteorol Soc.* 145, 2070– 2084, 2019.

313 Bondesan, A., and Furlanetto, P.: Artificial fluvial diversions in the mainland of the Lagoon of Venice
314 during the 16th and 17th centuries inferred by historical cartography analysis. *Géomorph. Rel. Proc.*
315 *Environ.* 18, 175-200, 2012.

316 Cavaleri, L., Bertotti, L., Buizza, R., Buzzi, A., Masato, V., Umgiesser, G. and Zampieri, M.:
317 “Predictability of extreme meteo-oceanographic events in the Adriatic Sea”, *Q J R Meteorol Soc.*,
318 136(647), pp. 400-413, 2010.

319 Cavaleri, L., Bajo, M., Barbariol, F., Bastianini, M., Benetazzo, A., Bertotti, L., Chiggiato, J., Ferrarin,
320 C., Trincardi, F. and Umgiesser, G.: “The 2019 Flooding of Venice and its implications for future
321 predictions”, *Oceanography*, 33(1), pp. 42-49, 2020.

322 De Zolt, S., Lionello, P., Nuhu, A. and Tomasin, A.: 'The disastrous storm of 4 November 1966 on
323 Italy', *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*, 6(5), pp. 861-879, 2006.

324 Enzi, S. and Camuffo, D.: "Documentary sources of the sea surges in Venice from ad 787 to 1867."
325 *Nat. Hazards*, 12, 225-287, 1995.

326 Ferrarin, C., Tomasin, A., Bajo, M., Petrizzo, A., Umgiesser, G.: Tidal changes in a heavily modified
327 coastal wetland. *Cont. Shelf Res.* 101, 22–33, 2015.

328 Ferrarin, C., Bajo, M., Benetazzo, A., Cavaleri, L., Chiggiato, J., Davison, S., Davolio, S., Lionello, P.,
329 Orlić, M. and Umgiesser, G.: Local and large-scale controls of the exceptional Venice floods of
330 November 2019, *Prog. Oceanogr.*, 2021, submitted.

331 Fletcher, C.A. and Spencer, T. (eds) *Flooding and environmental challenges for Venice and its lagoon:*
332 *State of knowledge.* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 691pp. 2005

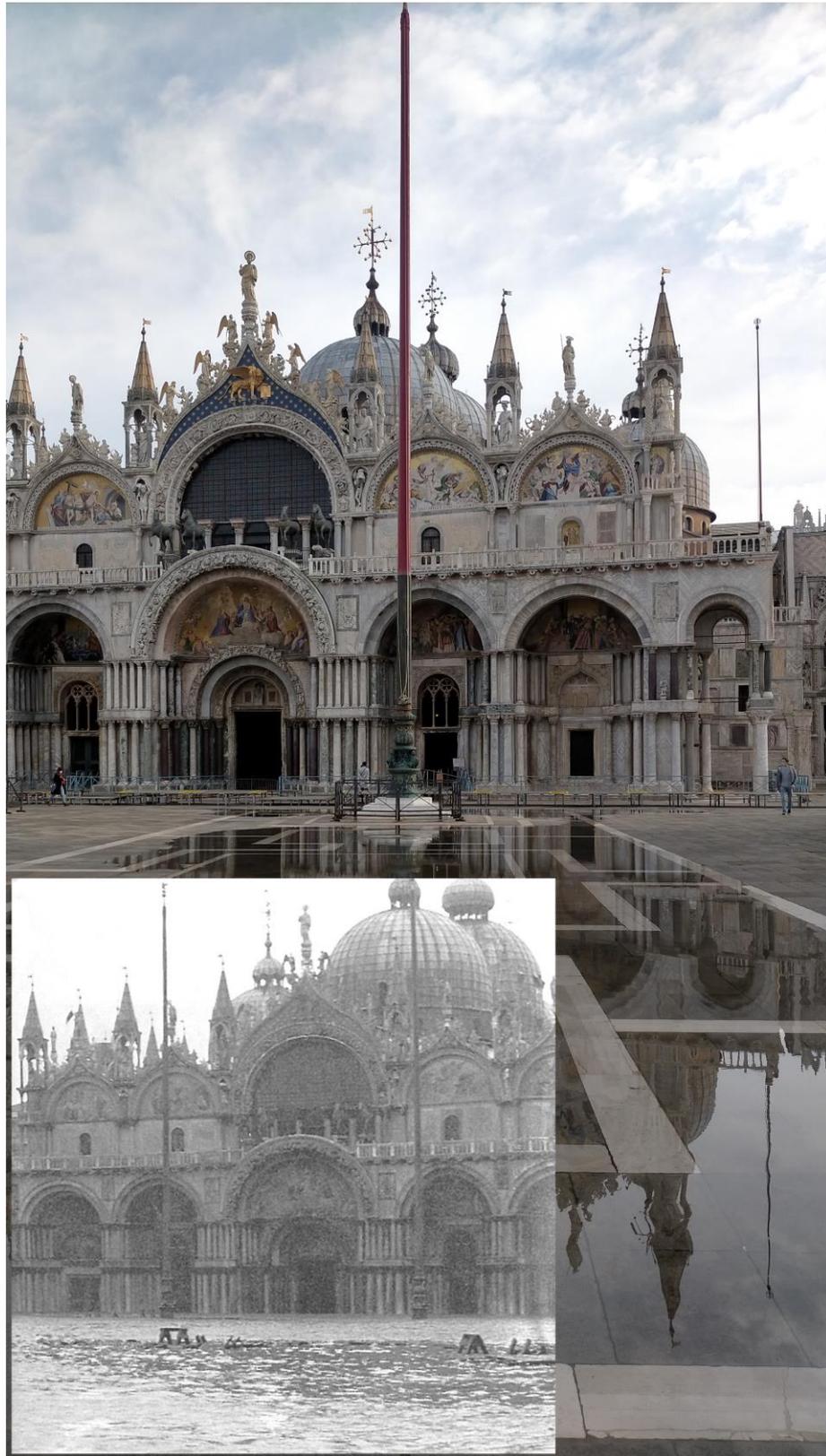
333 Frederikse, T., Landerer, F., Caron, L., Adhikari, S., Parkes, D., Humphrey, V. W., Dangendorf, S.,
334 Hogarth, P., Zanna, L., Cheng, L. and others: The causes of sea-level rise since 1900, *Nature*, 584(7821),
335 393–397, 2020.

336 Gregory, J. M., Griffies, S. M., Hughes, C. W., Lowe, J. A., Church, J. A., Fukimori, I., Gomez, N.,
337 Kopp, R.E., Landerer, F., Le Cozannet, G., Ponte, R.M., Stammer, D., Tamisiea, M.E. and van de Wal,
338 R. S. (2019). Concepts and terminology for sea level: Mean, variability and change, both local and
339 global. *Surv. Geophys.*, 40(6), 1251-1289, 2020.

340 Haasnoot, M. Brown, S., Scussolini, P., Jimenez, J.A., Vafeidis, A.T., and Nicholls, R.J.: Generic
341 adaptation pathways for coastal archetypes under uncertain sea-level rise. *Environm. Res. Comm.* 1,
342 071006, 2019.

- 343 Hausfather, Z. and Peters, G.P.: Emissions – the ‘business as usual’ story is misleading, *Nature* 577,
344 618-620, 2020.
- 345 Lionello, P.: The climate of the Venetian and North Adriatic region: Variability, trends and future
346 change. *Phys. Chem. Earth.* 40-41:1-8, 2012
- 347 Lionello, P., Cavaleri, L., Nissen, K.M., Pino, C., Raicich, F., and Ulbrich, U.: Severe marine storms
348 in the Northern Adriatic: Characteristics and trends." *Phys. Chem. Earth.* , 40-41: 93-105 ,2012.
- 349 Lionello, P., Barriopedro, D., Ferrarin C., Nicholls J. R., Orlic, M., Raicich, F., Reale, M., Umgiesser,
350 G., Vousdoukas, M., and Zanchettin, D.: Extremes floods of Venice: characteristics, dynamics, past
351 and future evolution, *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* (submitted), 2021.
- 352 Oppenheimer, M., B.C. Glavovic , J. Hinkel, R. van de Wal, A.K. Magnan, A. Abd-Elgawad, R. Cai,
353 M. Cifuentes-Jara, R.M. DeConto, T. Ghosh, J. Hay, F. Isla, B. Marzeion, B. Meyssignac, and Z.
354 Sebesvari: Sea Level Rise and Implications for Low-Lying Islands, Coasts and Communities. In: IPCC
355 Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate [Pörtner, H,-O, et al. (eds.)]. In
356 press. 2019.
- 357 Polli, S.: Propagazione della marea nella laguna di Venezia, *Annals of Geophysics* 5: 273-292, 1952.
- 358 Ranger, N., Reeder, T. and Lowe, J.: Addressing ‘deep’ uncertainty over long-term climate in major
359 infrastructure projects: four innovations of the Thames Estuary 2100 Project. *EURO J Decis Process* 1,
360 233–262, 2013.
- 361 Schwalm, C. R., Glendon, S., and Duffy, P. B.: Reply to Hausfather and Peters: RCP8. 5 is neither
362 problematic nor misleading. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*, 117(45), 27793-27794, 2020.
- 363 Thiéblemont, R., Le Cozannet, G., Toimil, A., Meyssignac, B. and Losada, I. J.: Likely and High-End
364 Impacts of Regional Sea-Level Rise on the Shoreline Change of European Sandy Coasts Under a High
365 Greenhouse Gas Emissions Scenario, *Water*, 11(12), 2607, doi:10.3390/w11122607, 2019.
- 366 Tosi, L., Lio, C. D., Teatini, P. and Strozzi, T.: Land subsidence in coastal environments: knowledge
367 advance in the Venice Coastland by TerraSAR-X PSI, *Remote Sens.*, 10, 1191, 2018.
- 368 Umgiesser, G., Melaku Canu, D., Cucco, A., and Solidoro, C.: A finite element model for the Venice
369 Lagoon. Development, set up, calibration and validation. *J. Marine Sys.*, 51, 123-145, 2004.
- 370 Umgiesser, G.: The impact of operating the mobile barriers in Venice (MOSE) under climate change.
371 *J. Nat. Conserv.*, 54, 125783, 2020.
- 372 Umgiesser, G., Bajo, M., Ferrarin, C., Cucco, A., Lionello, P., Zanchettin, D., Papa, A., Tosoni, A.,
373 Ferla, M., Coraci, E., Morucci, S., Bonometto, A., Valentini, A., Orlic, M., Haigh, I.D., Nielsen, J.W.,
374 Bertin, X., Fortunato, A. B., Alvarez Fanjul, E., Pérez Gómez, B., Paradis, D., Jourdan, D., Pasquet, A.,
375 Mourre, B., Tintoré, J., and Nicholls, R. J.: The prediction of floods in Venice: methods, models and
376 uncertainty, *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* (submitted), 2021.
- 377 Zanchettin, D., Bruni, S., Raicich, F., Lionello, P., Adloff, F., Androsov, A., Antonioli, F., Artale, V.,
378 Carminati, E., Ferrarin, C., Fofonova, V., Nicholls, R.J., Rubineti, S., Rubino, A., Sannino, G., Spada,
379 G., Thiéblemont, R., Tsimplis, M., Umgiesser, G., Vignudelli, S., Wöppelmann, G., and Zerbini, S.:

- 380 Review article: Sea-level rise in Venice: historic and future trends *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*
381 (submitted) , 2021.
- 382 Zanchettin, D., Traverso, P., and Tomasino, M.: Observations on future sea level changes in the Venice
383 lagoon. In: *Lagoons and Coastal Wetlands in the Global Change Context: Impacts and Management*
384 *Issues*. P. Viaroli, Lasserre, P., Campostrini, P. (Guest Eds.), *Hydrob.* 577, 41-53, 2007.



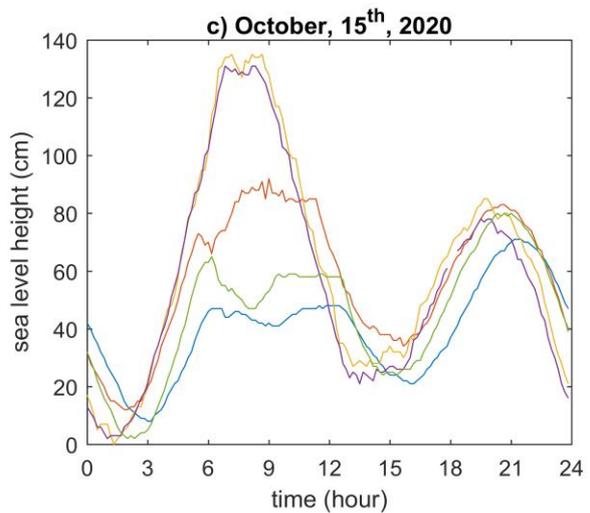
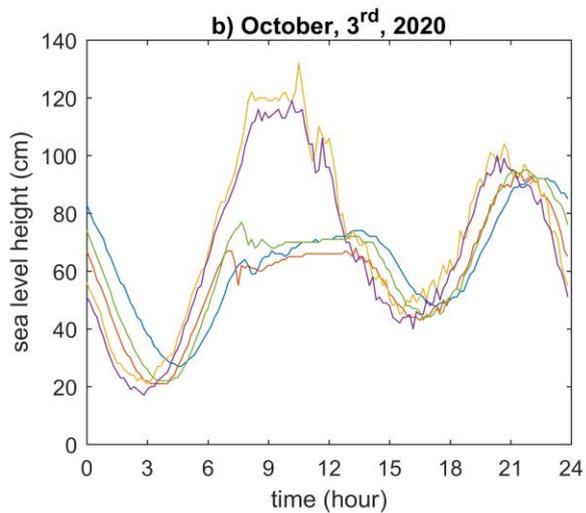
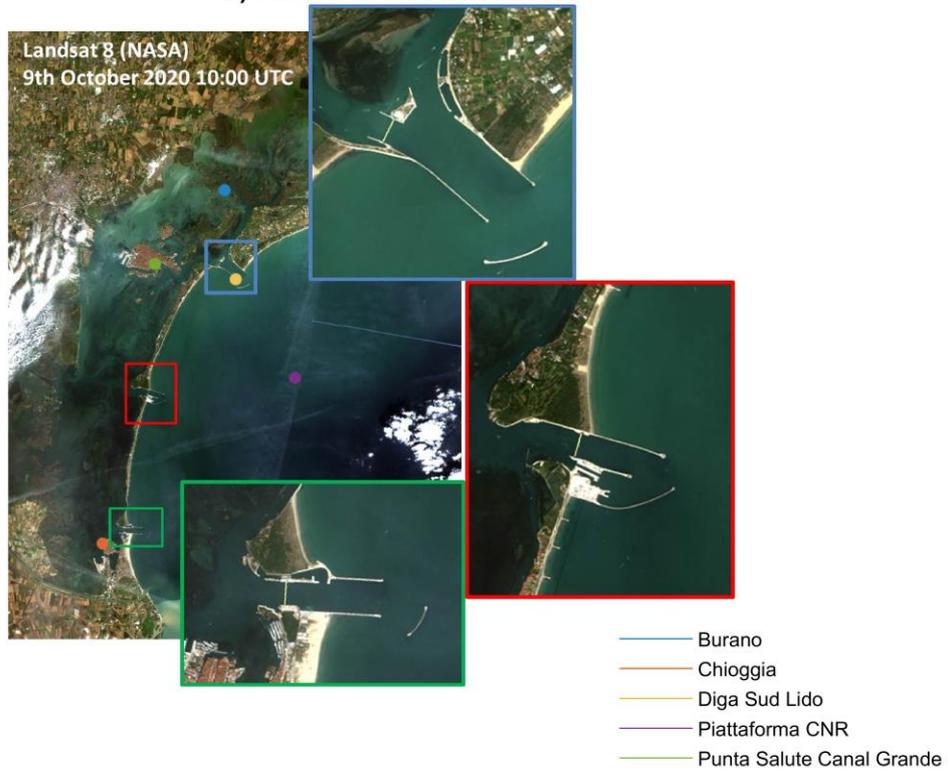
385

386 **Figure 1** - Present condition of St.Mark square during partial flooding of its lowest areas (estimated water
387 height: 80cm) and historical picture close to the time of highest level of the 4 November 1966 flood (black and
388 white photo courtesy of Gianfranco Tagliapietra)

389

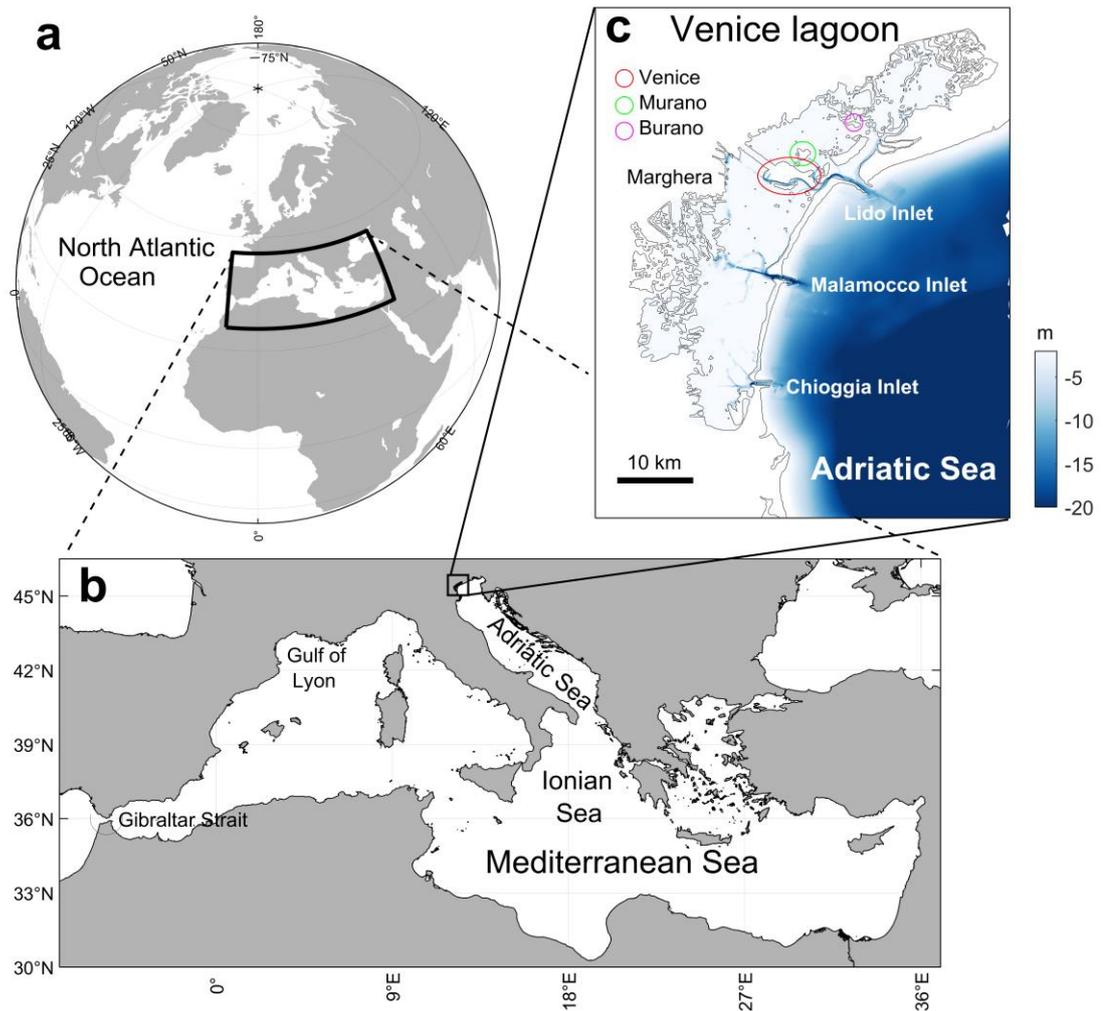
390

a) MOSE infrastructure



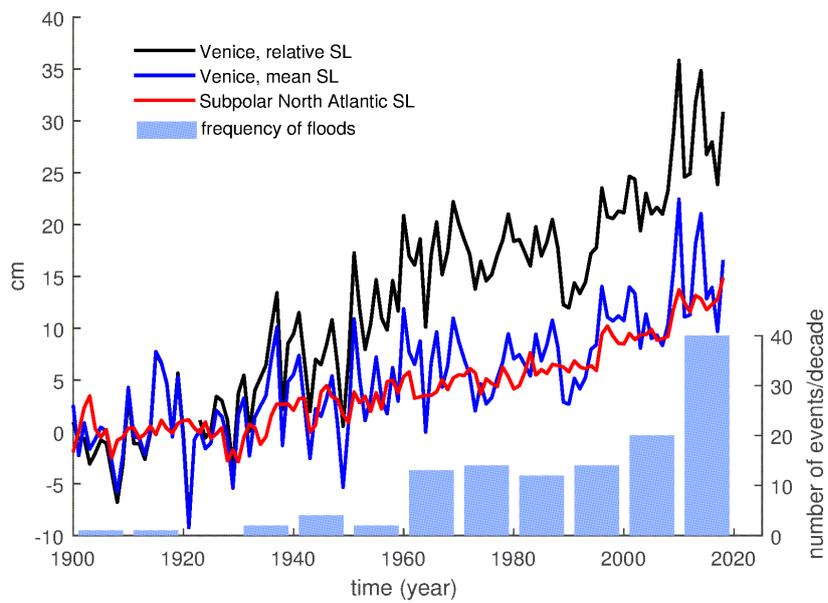
391
392

393 **Figure 2** - Pre-operational closures of the MoSE in October 2020. a) Pseudo-true-colour pan sharpened Landsat
394 8 OLI imagery acquired on 9 October 2020 showing the Venice Lagoon inlets during a test closure of the MoSE.
395 Landsat 8 image is available from the U.S. Geological Survey and processed by CNR-ISMAR. b) water height
396 anomalies measured on 3 October 2020 by tide gauges located within the Venice lagoon (Burano, Chioggia, Punta
397 della Salute-Canal Grande) and in the open Adriatic Sea (Diga Sud Lido, Piattaforma CNR), showing the effect
398 of the MOSE closure on the water-height level inside the lagoon. Panel c) is the same as b) but for the MoSE
399 Closure on 15 October 2020.



400

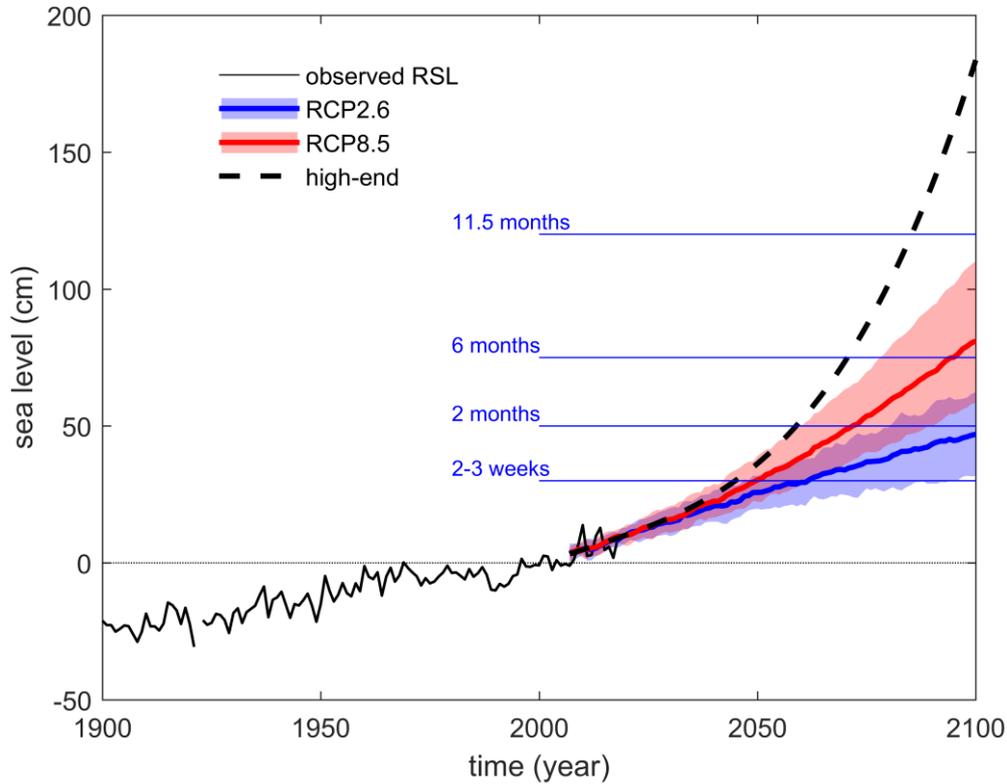
401 **Figure 3** - The Lagoon of Venice in the global context. (a) The Mediterranean Sea is connected with the North
 402 Atlantic Ocean through the Strait of Gibraltar. (b) The Venice Lagoon is located along the northern coast of the
 403 Adriatic Sea, a sub-basin of the Eastern Mediterranean Sea. (c) The historic centre of Venice (indicated) is
 404 located in the centre of the Venice Lagoon.



405
 406
 407
 408
 409

Figure 4 - Comparison between historical evolution of average sea level and flooding events in Venice, and the link with larger-scale changes in sea level. Venetian sea level is reported as annual-average relative sea level obtained from measurements by the Punta della Salute tide gauge (black line) and as annual-average mean sea

410 level obtained by removing the local subsidence estimate from the tide gauge data (blue line, Zanchettin et al.,
 411 2020). The red line illustrates the evolution of the basin-average sea level for the subpolar North Atlantic estimated
 412 by Frederikse et al. (2020). Blue bars show the number of floods exceeding the threshold of 120 cm within each
 413 decade.
 414



415
 416 **Figure 5** - Projected relative sea level change in Venice in the context of historical observations. Observations are
 417 annual-mean tide gauge relative sea-level height anomalies with respect to the 2000-2007 average. Projections
 418 are based on two reference scenarios of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emission, namely RCP2.6 (low emission
 419 scenario) and RCP8.5 (strong emission scenario), and a high-end scenario illustrating a plausible evolution
 420 obtained by combining the highest estimates of all individual contributions to relative sea level rise (shading: 5-
 421 95 percentile range, line: median). The horizontal blue lines shows the relative mean sea level thresholds for
 422 annual persistence of the relative sea level above the present safeguard level (persistence durations of 2-3 weeks,
 423 2, 6, 11.5 months have been considered). These time intervals approximately correspond to the annual duration of
 424 the expected closures of MoSE.
 425