



1 **Review article: Towards multi-hazard and multi-risk**  
2 **indicators – a review and recommendations for development**  
3 **and implementation**  
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36 **Abstract**

37 Undertaking a natural hazard or risk assessment from a single hazard approach can be considered incomplete  
38 where the interactions between and impacts from multiple hazards and risks are not considered. However, the  
39 development of indicators in disaster risk management has only recently started to explicitly include multi-hazard  
40 and multi-risk approach. Indicators contain observable and measurable characteristics to simplify information to  
41 understand the state of a concept or phenomenon, and/or to monitor it over time. To date, there have been limited  
42 efforts to understand how indicators are being used in this context. Using a systematic review, 194 publications  
43 were identified that mention indicators, covering hazards, vulnerability, and risk/impact. We find that the majority  
44 of studies exploring indicators are multi-layer single hazards and risks; in other words, they did not include the  
45 interactions between hazards. The results also demonstrate a predominance of studies on hazard indicators (88%)  
46 versus risk indicators, with a dominance of hydro-meteorological indicators. Only 20% of the studies integrated  
47 hazard, vulnerability and risk/impact. Based on the findings, we propose 12 recommendations to enable the uptake  
48 of indicators, from advancing research into multi-hazard and multi-risk indicator frameworks, to enabling  
49 partnerships to ensure the inclusion of stakeholder needs in indicator development.

50



51 **1. Introduction**

52 Natural hazard events have the potential to impact areas over diverse temporal and spatial scales as well as  
53 influence each other (Gill and Malamud, 2014). These events also impact environments where there may be  
54 overlapping dynamic vulnerabilities and exposure from the socio-economic conditions of affected areas (Johnson  
55 et al., 2016). Undertaking a natural hazard or risk assessment using a single hazard approach can be considered  
56 incomplete as these approaches do not consider the possible interactions and impacts from multiple hazards on a  
57 specific location (Gill and Malamud, 2016; Sekhri et al., 2020). Despite this, natural hazards and their associated  
58 risks have largely been investigated from a single hazard perspective. However, in recent years there has been an  
59 increased focus on both multi-hazard and multi-risk approaches (e.g., Kappes et al., 2012; Duncan et al., 2016;  
60 Ward et al., 2022). Here multi-hazards are defined as “(1) the selection of multiple major hazards that the country  
61 faces, and (2) the specific contexts where hazardous events may occur simultaneously, cascadingly, or  
62 cumulatively over time, and taking into account the potential interrelated effects” (UNDRR, 2017a).

63 The international shift from single to multi-hazard and multi-risk thinking began in the 1990s, initially with the  
64 United Nations Agenda 21 where pre-disaster planning and settlement planning recommended the inclusion of  
65 “complete multi-hazard research into risk and vulnerability” (United Nations, 1992). This was followed by the  
66 specification of “an integrated, multi-hazard, inclusive approach to address vulnerability, risk assessment and  
67 disaster management” (United Nations, 2002) from the World Summit on Sustainable Development. In 2005, the  
68 Hyogo Framework for Action – with the aim of reducing disaster losses by 2015 – was adopted at the World  
69 Conference on Disaster Reduction. This framework called for the implementation of a multi-hazard approach to  
70 disaster risk reduction (UNISDR, 2005) and its incorporation into policies and planning for sustainable  
71 development. The Sendai Framework for Action (successor to the Hyogo Framework) inspires a multi-hazard  
72 approach to disaster risk reduction (DRR) practices (United Nations, 2015).

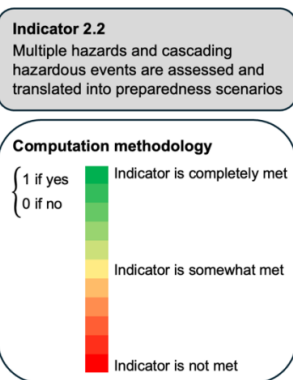
73 Aligned with the development and expansion of international DRR approaches, many indicators have been  
74 introduced to help assess the level of risk, monitor progress, and guide policies and interventions aimed at reducing  
75 disaster risk. Indicators are “observable and measurable characteristics that can be used to simplify information  
76 to help understand the state of a concept or phenomenon, and/or to monitor it over time to show changes or  
77 progress towards achieving a specific change” (Gill et al., 2022 adapted from; Ivčević et al., 2019); see Box 1  
78 (containing Fig. 1). They can be used as a standard, to assist with making decisions and for communications, and  
79 are capable of capturing a broad range of physical, social, and economic parameters. Indicators are used as a tool  
80 to define a baseline and track changes for monitoring and evaluation, allowing for the simplification of  
81 information, a situation, or an event, allowing them to be better understood, replicated, and monitored over time.  
82 Indicators have been used in a wide range of ways and applications, including as single variables representing an  
83 environmental or climatic parameter. For example, a precipitation indicator may be used to represent flood  
84 occurrence or as an indicator of a meteorological drought (AghaKouchak et al., 2023). Other studies use indices  
85 that integrate a combination of indicators to account for a relationship between them, such as the Multivariate  
86 Standardized Drought Index that uses a combination of precipitation and soil moisture (AghaKouchak et al.,  
87 2023).

**Box 1: Indicators and the Sendai Framework for DRR: from single to multi-hazards**



The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (2015–2030) highlights the necessity of multi-hazard risk assessments and encourages countries to adopt indicators that account for the interactions between different hazards. One tool developed by the UNDRR to help cities assess their resilience to disasters in line with the goals of the Sendai Framework is the Disaster Resilience Scorecard for Cities (<https://mcr2030.undrr.org>). The Scorecard is based on the Framework’s four key priorities and provides specific indicators for a range of assessment levels. There are 47 indicators used for the preliminary level and 117 indicator criteria for a detailed assessment. While the Scorecard highlights the importance of identifying and understanding how multiple hazards “might combine, and how repeated small scale disaster events might accumulate in their impact over time” (UNDRR, 2017b p.14), there are no clear metrics associated with interacting multi-hazards. Instead, the emphasis is on cascading impacts between city infrastructure systems under different scenarios.

A more recent initiative for achieving the goals outlined in the Sendai Framework (specifically, Target G) is Early Warnings for All (EW4All), launched in 2022 and co-led by the WMO and UNDRR. As of 2023, 101 countries reported having Multi-Hazard Early Warning Systems (MHEWS), double the number of countries reported in 2015 (UNDRR and WMO, 2023). Progress reporting is through a set of custom indicators that are divided into four areas: disaster risk knowledge; detection, monitoring, analysis and forecasting of the hazards and possible consequences; warning dissemination and communication; and preparedness and response capabilities. Indicators in each area are computed using different methodologies and data sources. Progress is measured using either a binary approach (where 1 = yes, or indicator met, and 0 = no, or indicator not met) or a scale between the two values, pending on the computation method (UNDRR and WMO (2022)). One of these, Indicator 2.2 (see Fig. 1), measures if ‘multiple hazards and cascading hazardous events are assessed and translated into preparedness scenarios’ using a binary approach. According to this methodology, the scoring should be validated using data sources such as: social, environmental, and physical vulnerability assessments; environmental management, response, and contingency plans; multi-hazard risk assessments or risk that consider effects from hazards that occur simultaneously, in cascade or cumulatively over time, and take into account the potential interrelated effects; or assessments considering climate change impacts. It is important to mention that the custom indicators focus on the minimum standard of risk knowledge required to make a MHEWS effective.



**Figure 1.** An example of measuring MHEWS development using Indicator 2.2, measuring if ‘multiple hazards and cascading hazardous events are assessed and translated into preparedness scenarios’ (adapted after UNDRR and WMO (2022)). Progress is measured using a scale from 0 to 1, where 1 = indicator met (yes), and 0 = indicator not met (no).

88

89 The International Decade for Natural Disaster Risk Reduction (IDNDR), which was declared by the United  
90 Nations between 1990 and 1999 (United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs, 1994), saw the growth and



91 use of single hazard and single risk indicators. Today, the use of single hazard and single risk indicators are  
92 commonplace (see Box 1). The development of multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators for disaster risk assessment  
93 and management has not kept pace with the development of multi-hazard DRR approaches and the use of  
94 indicators more generally. While indicator-based methods are commonly used to assess hazards and the  
95 vulnerability of elements at risk, these approaches are limited as they do not integrate analyses of different hazards  
96 or the interaction between them (Julià and Ferreira, 2021). Adopting a multi-hazard and multi-risk approach with  
97 indicators would allow for the identification of interactions and the subsequent impacts of various hazards that  
98 could be used to improve the understanding of both hazards and risk (Depietri et al., 2018). However, existing  
99 approaches largely remain insufficient to support a multi-hazard analysis that take account of the complex  
100 interactions between hazards (Lou et al., 2023a) and it remains a challenge to represent the dynamic nature of  
101 hazards, exposure, vulnerability, and multiple risks. Cardona (2005) is one of the earlier works in this field,  
102 presenting a framework for assessing and managing disaster risks by using indicators that account for various  
103 hazards and vulnerabilities in Latin America and the Caribbean – a region particularly prone to several natural  
104 hazards. However, the development of multi-hazard and multi-risk approaches was in its infancy at that time,  
105 limiting the adoption and uptake of the concepts presented. More recent approaches advocating for the  
106 development and use of multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators have been seen across a range of climate change  
107 adaptation and disaster risk-related studies focusing on hazards, vulnerability, or exposure, but also impact, coping  
108 capacity, and resilience. AghaKouchak et al. (2023) for example calls for drought monitoring and research to  
109 “move beyond individual drivers and indicators to include the evaluation of various potential cascading hazards”  
110 and to develop indicators that establish links between different hazards and the impact. In an assessment of coastal  
111 resilience frameworks that also investigated the use of resilience indicators, Almutairi et al. (2020) note that most  
112 of the frameworks evaluated consider single hazard types only, and that future frameworks should address the  
113 interrelationships between multiple hazards. Sebesvari et al. (2016) similarly calls for a multi-hazard assessment  
114 of vulnerability with the development of new indicators that would be able to capture the complexity and exposure  
115 of multi-hazards, particularly in delta socio-ecological systems and regions. There remains, however, a gap in  
116 knowledge as to what multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators have been developed or a clear demonstration of  
117 what their potential is.

118 Terminology is a particular issue that has affected the development and uptake of multi-hazard indicators up to  
119 now. For example, there are different ways of describing the interaction between hazards. These include triggering  
120 or cascading relationships, where a primary hazard may cause an associated hazard; compound relationships,  
121 where multivariate events and unrelated hazards may overlap spatially and/or temporally; and (de-)amplification,  
122 where one decreases or increases the probability of occurrence or the magnitude of another hazard (Ciurean et al.,  
123 2018; Gill et al., 2022). There are also alternative terms for what an indicator is, including index and metric. In  
124 some instances, these terms are used interchangeably even though there is a distinction between their definitions,  
125 i.e., an indicator is a single measurable variable or metric that provides information about a specific aspect of a  
126 system, condition, or outcome; whereas an index is a composite measure that combines multiple indicators into a  
127 single numerical value or score (OECD, 2008). To establish consistency, a set of definitions are provided in Table  
128 1.

129 **Table 1. List of terms and definitions used in this study.**



Terminology	Definitions	Source
Multi-hazard	“1) the selection of multiple major hazards that the country faces, and 2) the specific contexts where hazardous events may occur simultaneously, cascadingly or cumulatively over time, and taking into account the potential interrelated effects.”	UNDRR (2017a)
Multi-risk	Risk generated from multiple hazards and the interrelationships between these hazards (and considering interrelationships on the vulnerability level).	Zschau (2017)
Compound hazards	“Compound weather and climate events are defined as a combination of multiple drivers and/or hazards that contribute to risk.”	Zscheischler et al. (2020)
Triggering/ cascades	“One hazard causes another hazard to occur, which can result in hazard chains, networks, or cascades.”	Ciurean et al. (2018)
Amplifying	“The occurrence of one hazard can increase the likelihood and/or magnitude of additional hazards in the future.”	Ciurean et al. (2018)
Indicator	“Observable and measurable characteristics that can be used to simplify information to help understand the state of a concept or phenomenon, and/or to monitor it over time to show changes or progress towards achieving a specific change.”	Gill et al. (2022) adapted from Ivčević et al. (2019)
Vulnerability	“The conditions determined by physical, social, economic and environmental factors or processes which increase the susceptibility of an individual, a community, assets or systems to the impacts of hazards.”	Sendai Framework Terminology on Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR, 2015)
Impact	The realised, or potential consequences on natural and human systems, where consequences result from the interactions of hazards, exposure, and vulnerability. Impacts generally refer to effects on lives, livelihoods, health and well-being, ecosystems and species, economic, social and cultural assets, services (including ecosystem services), and infrastructure. Impacts may be referred to as consequences or outcomes.	IPCC (2018)
Qualitative method approach	“Qualitative research methods aim to address societies’ scientific and practical issues and involve naturalistic and interpretative approaches to different subject matters. These methods utilize various empirical materials such as case studies, life experiences, and stories that show the routines and problems that individuals are struggling with in their	Taherdoost (2022)



	lives through focusing on their in-depth meaning and motivations which cannot be defined by numbers. Qualitative research aims to collect primary, first-hand, textual data and analyse it using specific interpretive methods.”	
Quantitative method approach	“Quantitative research methods aim to define a particular phenomenon by collecting numerical data to address specific questions such as how many and what percentage in different fields. It is the method of employing numerical values derived from observations to explain and describe the phenomena that the observations can reflect on them. This method employs both empirical statements, as descriptive statements about the meaning of the cases in real words not about the ought of the cases, and methods. It also applies the empirical evaluations intending to determine to which degree a norm or standard is fulfilled in a particular policy or program. Finally, the collected numerical data is analysed using mathematical methods.”	Taherdoost (2022)
Mixed-method approach	“Mixed-method methods simply employ a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches based on the purpose of the study and the nature of the research question aiming to provide a better understanding of the subject.”	Taherdoost (2022)

130

131 To date, there has been no concerted effort to collate and review existing multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators  
 132 or attempt to unify these approaches and demonstrate their potential value in DRR activities. This paper uses a  
 133 systematic review process to document and explore the use of indicators within the multi-hazard and multi-risk  
 134 contexts for the first time and sets out recommendations for their future development and use. The review paper  
 135 is structured as follows: section 2 lays out the methodology for the systematic literature review and the analysis  
 136 of the findings; section 3 provides a detailed overview of the use of indicators in hazard and risk assessments;  
 137 section 4 provides a wider discussion and a suggested recommendations for the expansion and use of multi-hazard  
 138 and multi-risk indicators; and section 5 provides some concluding remarks.

139 **2. Methods**

140 A systematic literature review approach was employed to identify peer-reviewed literature that either use  
 141 indicators, or analyse the use of indicators, in multi-hazard and multi-risk studies, guided by the Preferred  
 142 Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) protocol (Page et al., 2021). The  
 143 methodology followed six steps: 1) definition of key search terms, 2) identification of records, 3) screening of  
 144 results based on inclusion and exclusion criteria, 4) categorising the research papers into two broad categories of  
 145 multi-hazard and multi-risk studies, 5) selecting key works from each category that are the most significant and

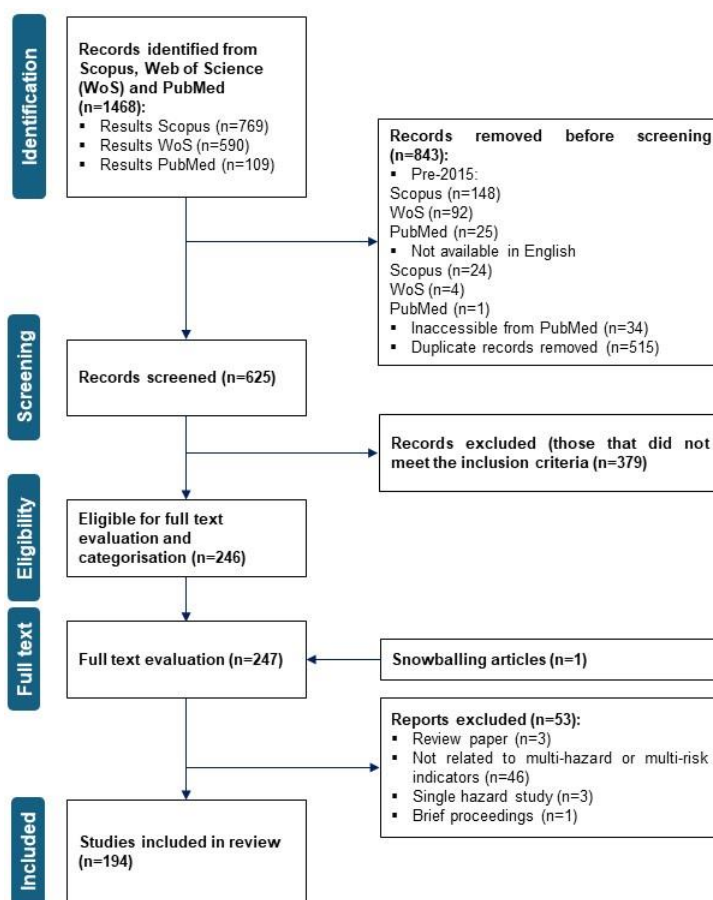


146 provide good examples of multi-hazard and multi-risk indicator use, 6) assessing the suitability of each record in  
147 more detail.

148 The Scopus, Web of Science and PubMed databases were used to extract literature related to indicators in multi-  
149 hazard and multi-risk studies, due to their comprehensive coverage of peer-reviewed articles. The search terms  
150 (Table S1) were stratified into two levels. The first level encompassed terminology associated with multi-hazard  
151 and multi-risk studies, including alternative spellings and descriptors such as “compound”, “interacting”,  
152 “cascading”, and “interconnected” hazards and/or risks. A total of 22 Level 1 search terms were employed. The  
153 alternative terminologies were combined using an “OR” Boolean operator and then paired with Level 2 search  
154 terms using an “AND” Boolean operator. Level 2 comprised five search terms related to indicators and alternative  
155 or related terminology for indicators (i.e., “index”, “indices”, “metric”, “disaster risk indicator”). The search terms  
156 were applied across title, abstract, and keywords. Although not exhaustive, this set of search terms effectively  
157 narrowed the research scope to multi-hazard and multi-risk studies, excluding single hazard or risk papers that fall  
158 outside the scope of this study. The search strings used across all three databases, together with relevant keywords  
159 and Boolean operators, are provided in Table S2.

160 The initial search returned 1468 articles that met the search criteria. A date restriction was applied to include only  
161 papers published post-2015, aligning with the publication year of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk  
162 Reduction and its emphasis for the adoption of a multi-hazard approach. A duplicate removal process, executed  
163 using R, was applied to the 1,140 articles, identifying and excluding 515 duplicates. Fig. 2 provides a flowchart  
164 detailing the screening process, including the number of articles at each stage of the review.





165  
166

167 **Figure 2. Flowchart of the systematic literature review used in this study, showing the identification, screening and**  
168 **inclusion process together with the numbers of articles at each stage.**

169

170 After removing duplicates, a two-part screening process was applied to the remaining unique 625 articles. Initially,  
171 all articles were screened based on their titles and abstracts to create a database comprising papers considered  
172 relevant for further review, while irrelevant papers were excluded. Relevance was primarily assessed based on the  
173 use of multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators in evaluating natural hazards of geo and hydrometeorological origin  
174 across diverse research domains. The first phase of the screening excluded 379 papers, leaving 246 that were  
175 relevant for further investigation. In the second screening phase, the full text of these 246 articles were evaluated.  
176 An additional reference (i.e., snowballing article) was identified and included during the full text evaluation  
177 (n=247) stage. A database was established to collect the retrieved information (Pickering and Byrne, 2014) and  
178 to minimize the risk of bias in the selection process. A total of 53 articles were excluded at the full-text evaluation  
179 stage. The following exclusion criteria were applied during both screening phases:

- 180 • Articles that did not align with the study's objectives, as determined by the title, abstract, or  
181 keywords.



- 182 • Review articles.
- 183 • Studies focusing on risks related to animal, bird, plant species, marine habitats, human health,
- 184 pollution, unmanned vehicles, workplace safety, finance and insurance, and nuclear risks.
- 185 • Studies investigating structures, electrical grids, infrastructure resilience, and transport networks
- 186 in terms of robustness, functionality, or performance based on structural integrity or design.
- 187 • Articles that did not address or utilise multi-hazard or multi-risk indicators.
- 188 • Brief conference proceedings.

189 Following the screening process (i.e., full text evaluation), the remaining 194 papers were analysed and critically  
190 assessed. These papers were used to extract information on single hazard types, categories of single hazards  
191 according to UNDRR hazard information profile (Murray et al., 2021), as well as on vulnerability, impact and  
192 risk assessment approaches, including quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. The terms "risk" and "impact"  
193 were both employed in this analysis to encompass studies that focus on potential future consequences, typical of  
194 risk assessments, as well as those associated with past events. Additionally, the exposure category was not  
195 evaluated separately, as it is implicitly considered in the adopted vulnerability typologies and the consequences  
196 evaluated in the risk/impact assessments. Definitions of the different types of approaches are provided in Table 1.  
197 Two categories of studies were identified:

198 **Category 1:** Multi-layer single hazard and risk – these papers individually analysed multiple single hazards  
199 or risks occurring in a certain location and overlay the outcomes. Although these types of assessments were  
200 termed multi-hazard or multi-risk by the authors, the hazards were analysed individually and therefore not  
201 considered multi-hazards as per the Category 2 definition in this paper.

202 **Category 2:** multi-hazard and multi-risk – herein interactions between hazards were considered. These  
203 studies were further categorised into two broad classes based on the type of interaction: compound; and  
204 triggering and amplification studies. Definitions of different types of multi-hazard interactions or  
205 interrelationships are listed in Table 1.

206 The multi-hazard and multi-risk studies identified were further reviewed to extract information on the indicators.  
207 Indicators were categorised into five classes according to their use to describe hazard characteristics such as  
208 intensity, frequency, and probability (UNDRR, 2017a), and to develop composite indicators, and finally, studies  
209 with no indicator.

## 210 **3. Results**

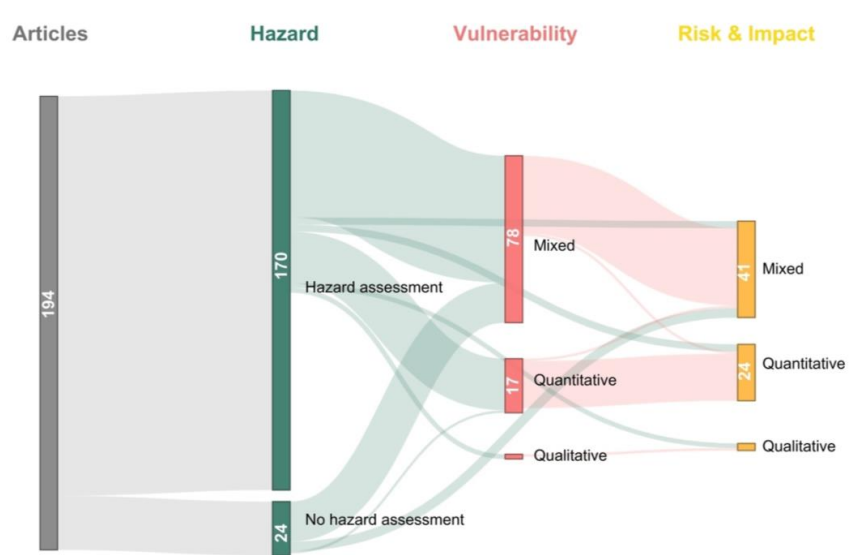
### 211 **3.1 Findings from the articles reviewed**

#### 212 **3.1.1 Distribution of articles with respect to various risk-related components**

213 The majority of the articles (88%) focused on hazard assessment, followed by vulnerability and risk/impact  
214 assessments, as demonstrated in Fig. 3. In terms of vulnerability and impact, 49% of the articles conducted  
215 vulnerability assessments, while 35% included risk/impact assessments. We also analysed the different  
216 combinations of risk-related components (Table 2). Approximately 40% of the articles explored both hazard and  
217 vulnerability, indicating a significant overlap between these two areas. In contrast, only 6% of the articles  
218 considered both hazard and risk/impact, suggesting that direct linkages between these components were less



219 frequently examined. However, 29% of the articles addressed both vulnerability and risk/impact, highlighting the  
 220 importance of understanding how vulnerabilities translate into tangible risk/impacts. Additionally, 20% of the  
 221 articles integrated all three components – hazard, vulnerability, and risk/impact – demonstrating the complexity  
 222 and interdisciplinary nature of a significant portion of the research.



223 **Figure 3.** Sankey diagram illustrating the evolving focus in multi-hazard studies (grey), highlighting a gradual shift  
 224 from exclusive hazard analysis (green) to the integration of vulnerability components (red), and finally, to the inclusion  
 225 of risk and impact (orange). The white numbers indicate the number of articles associated with each node in the  
 226 diagram, and the flow dimensions are proportional to the number of articles transitioning between nodes.

227

228 In terms of the methodologies used (Table 3), we found that for hazard assessment 88% of the articles employed  
 229 quantitative methods, indicating a strong preference for numerical and statistical approaches in this area. The  
 230 methodologies used for vulnerability assessment were more varied: 24% of the articles used quantitative methods,  
 231 2% adopted qualitative approaches, and the majority (74%) employed a mixed-methods approach, integrating  
 232 various analytical techniques. For risk/impact assessment, 35% of the articles applied quantitative methods, 4%  
 233 used qualitative methods, and 60% employed a mixed-methods approach. This suggests that the integration of  
 234 multiple methodologies was considered essential for a comprehensive understanding of the potential/realized  
 235 consequences of risk/impact.

236 **Table 2.** Matrix showing the percentage of papers that consider single or multiple risk components.

	Hazard	Vulnerability	Impact	Combined
Hazard	88%	40%	6%	20%
Vulnerability		49%	29%	
Impact			35%	

237



238 **Table 3. Examples of single-hazard indicators used in risk analyses.**

	No	Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed
Hazard	12%	88%	0%	0
Vulnerability	-	24%	2%	74%
Impact	-	35%	4%	60%

239

240 **3.1.2 Distribution of articles according to hazard interactions**

241 The 194 articles reviewed in this study analysed a total of 493 individual hazards. We analysed the frequency of  
 242 different hazards and their interactions (Fig. 4), finding that meteorological and hydrological hazards are the most  
 243 frequently studied, accounting for 63% (311) of the total hazards, followed by geohazards (22%), environmental  
 244 hazards (10%), and technological hazards (2%). Notably, in 15 instances (3%), no individual hazard was  
 245 considered. We also found that although all articles focused on multi-hazard events, the majority do not analyse  
 246 interactions between hazards. These hazards were categorised as multi-layer single hazards, accounting for 53%  
 247 (260) of the total hazards analysed. In these cases, multiple single hazards were analysed individually, without  
 248 considering their interactions in time and/or space. Compound interactions were the second most common,  
 249 representing 29% (145) of the total hazards, where multiple hazards occurred simultaneously or in close sequence.  
 250 Triggering and amplification interactions accounted for 12% (57) of the hazards, where one hazard might trigger  
 251 or amplify the effects of another. Finally, in 6% (31) of the cases, no interaction between hazards was identified.



252

253 **Figure 4. Sankey diagram illustrating the distribution categories (blue) and interactions (green) of 493 hazards**  
 254 **analysed across 194 research papers. The numbers indicate the number of hazards associated with each node in the**  
 255 **diagram, and the flow dimensions are proportional to the number of hazards transitioning between nodes.**



256

257 Nearly all compound interactions originated from meteorological and hydrological hazards (88%), underscoring  
258 the tendency of these events to co-occur with other hazards in a combined manner (Fig. 4). In contrast, geohazards  
259 exhibited a different pattern. The majority of geohazards were associated with multi-layer single hazard  
260 interactions (77%), indicating that these hazards were often studied as recurring or overlapping events rather than  
261 as part of complex interactions with other hazards. When it came to multi-hazard interactions, geohazards were  
262 almost equally distributed between compound (8%) and triggering and amplification interactions (12%). Finally,  
263 technological hazards displayed a distinct trend where all instances were categorised under layered single hazard  
264 interactions, suggesting that these hazards were primarily analysed as isolated incidents, without significant  
265 consideration of their potential to compound with or trigger other hazards.

### 266 **3.2 Multi-layered single hazard and risk indicators**

#### 267 **3.2.1 Multi-layered single hazard indicators**

268 We found that approximately 44% of the 194 articles reviewed were categorised as multi-layer single hazard  
269 studies, predominantly focusing on meteorological, hydrological, and geo hazards (Fig. 4). In some instances,  
270 weights were assigned to individual hazard layers to reflect their relative importance. However, interactions  
271 between hazards were not considered in any of these cases. Indicators used in multi-layer single hazard studies  
272 were either applied to individual hazards or combined into composite indicators (index). Indicators that describe  
273 hazards on an individual basis tend to define the hazard in terms of its extent and intensity. Single-variable  
274 indicators, which help define the occurrence of a hazard, are commonly employed in Machine Learning (ML)  
275 applications to identify potential locations where a particular hazard may occur. This is prevalent in studies  
276 assessing flood and landslide susceptibility, where past occurrences and specific hazard pre-conditioning factors  
277 (indicators) are used to determine other areas with future hazard potential or susceptibility (Nguyen et al., 2023;  
278 Rehman and Azhoni, 2023; Pourghasemi et al., 2020). These types of studies rely heavily on the quality of the  
279 input data and often face challenges related to insufficient evidence regarding the interactions among diverse  
280 hazards. Although they serve a purpose in identifying areas susceptible to hazards, they frequently overlook the  
281 interactions between different hazards and their temporal overlaps.

282 In multi-layer single hazard studies where composite indicators were used, multiple hazard maps for a specific  
283 geographical region were often overlaid. For example, Emrich et al. (2022) presented a Composite Multi-Hazard  
284 Index (CHI) map, combining 15 natural hazards in the USA and classifying them into five hazard groups: (1)  
285 severe weather, (2) flooding, hurricanes, and storm surges, (3) winter weather, (4) heat, drought, and wildfires,  
286 and (5) earthquakes. Such composite indicators were generally standardized or normalized to categorise them into  
287 various scales, such as 'very low' or 'very high' hazard intensities. This approach allows for the inclusion of a large  
288 number of variables in the analysis, and there are many examples of its use in the development of hazard maps  
289 (e.g., Wang and Sebastian, 2022; Fleming et al., 2023; Ou et al., 2022; Barasa et al., 2022; Murnane et al., 2019).  
290 However, since this approach does not account for hazard interactions, overlaying of multiple hazard maps is not  
291 considered a comprehensive multi-hazard approach.

292 The multi-layer single hazard approach also includes studies that assign weights to individual hazard causative  
293 factors, showing variations in the significance of hazard intensities and developing multi-hazard indicators (Liu et  
294 al., 2016). For instance, Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) (Durlević et al., 2021; Guerriero et al., 2022) and



295 Machine Learning-based algorithms (Mandal et al., 2022) were widely used to estimate such weights and develop  
296 multi-hazard indicators. Nevertheless, these approaches also ignore interactions between hazards in space and  
297 time. Therefore, this study categorised them as multi-layer single hazard studies.

### 298 **3.2.2 Risk indicators based on multi-layer single hazards**

299 In recent years, risk assessment and management research has increasingly focused on the analysis of multi-layer  
300 single hazards. Among the 86 studies analysing multi-layer single hazards, we found that approximately 41%  
301 (n=35) addressed risk, with the majority of these (n=32) focusing on meteorological and hydrological hazards.

302 Risk studies related to multi-layer single hazards were conducted at various scales, from global to national levels,  
303 each offering methodologies suited to their specific contexts. For example, Marulanda Fraume et al. (2020)  
304 presented a holistic assessment framework at the global level using data from 216 countries. This framework  
305 evaluated physical risks based on potential damages directly linked to individual hazard occurrences, while also  
306 assessing underlying risk drivers and amplifiers. At the national level, Zuzak et al. (2022) introduced the National  
307 Risk Index (FEMA US), a multi-hazard risk measurement approach that used diverse geographic data sets and  
308 risk factors to provide a national overview of risk at the county level. This index relied on a robust transdisciplinary  
309 methodology, incorporating direct stakeholder involvement and various composite indicators to produce an  
310 integrated risk assessment.

311 There are notable methodologies for multi-hazard risk assessment that integrate exposure to various natural  
312 hazards along with considerations of social vulnerability. For instance, Bixler et al. (2021) developed a  
313 quantitative social vulnerability indicator adapted from the Social Vulnerability Index (SoVI), combined with  
314 hazard exposure. This assessment was conducted by analysing individual hazards spatially at the census block  
315 scale. Similarly, Guillard-Gonçalves et al. (2015) estimated a SoVI to delineate vulnerable and risk zones for six  
316 natural hazards in Greater Lisbon, including earthquakes, floods, flash floods, landslides, tsunamis, and coastal  
317 erosion. The study used susceptibility maps and population exposure data to develop a risk matrix and map at the  
318 parish level.

319 Existing studies on multi-layer single hazard risk assessment have also considered various assets, ranging from  
320 cultural heritage sites to rural communities, agricultural sectors, and socio-economic and infrastructure systems.  
321 For example, Valagussa et al. (2021) investigated the risks posed by multiple hazards to cultural heritage sites in  
322 Europe, introducing the UNESCO Risk Index, which integrates hazard and potential damage considerations to  
323 prioritize interventions. Asare-Kyei et al. (2017) quantified the risk and vulnerability of rural communities in West  
324 Africa to drought and floods, developing the West Sudanian Community Risk Index, which was validated through  
325 a novel Community Impact Score (CIS).

326 The multi-criteria decision-making approach (MCDA) is widely used to estimate risk from multiple natural  
327 hazards. For instance, Arvin et al. (2023) quantified exposure to floods, earthquakes, and landslides, alongside  
328 infrastructure resilience, at a regional scale in Iran, integrating 25 quantitative indicators using the MCDA.  
329 Similarly, Pagliacci (2019) introduced a risk assessment framework for the Italian agri-food sector, using  
330 composite indicators to represent hazards, exposure, vulnerability, and risk across various municipalities. Nofal  
331 et al. (2023) proposed a methodology for assessing the resilience of buildings, power, and transport infrastructure  
332 to hurricane-induced hazards, incorporating factors such as physical damage, functionality, and demographic  
333 changes. This study also used a composite indicator to explain the extent of structural damage caused by multiple  
334 hazards. Additionally, Asare-Kyei et al. (2017) developed a community-based socio-ecological-systems (SES)



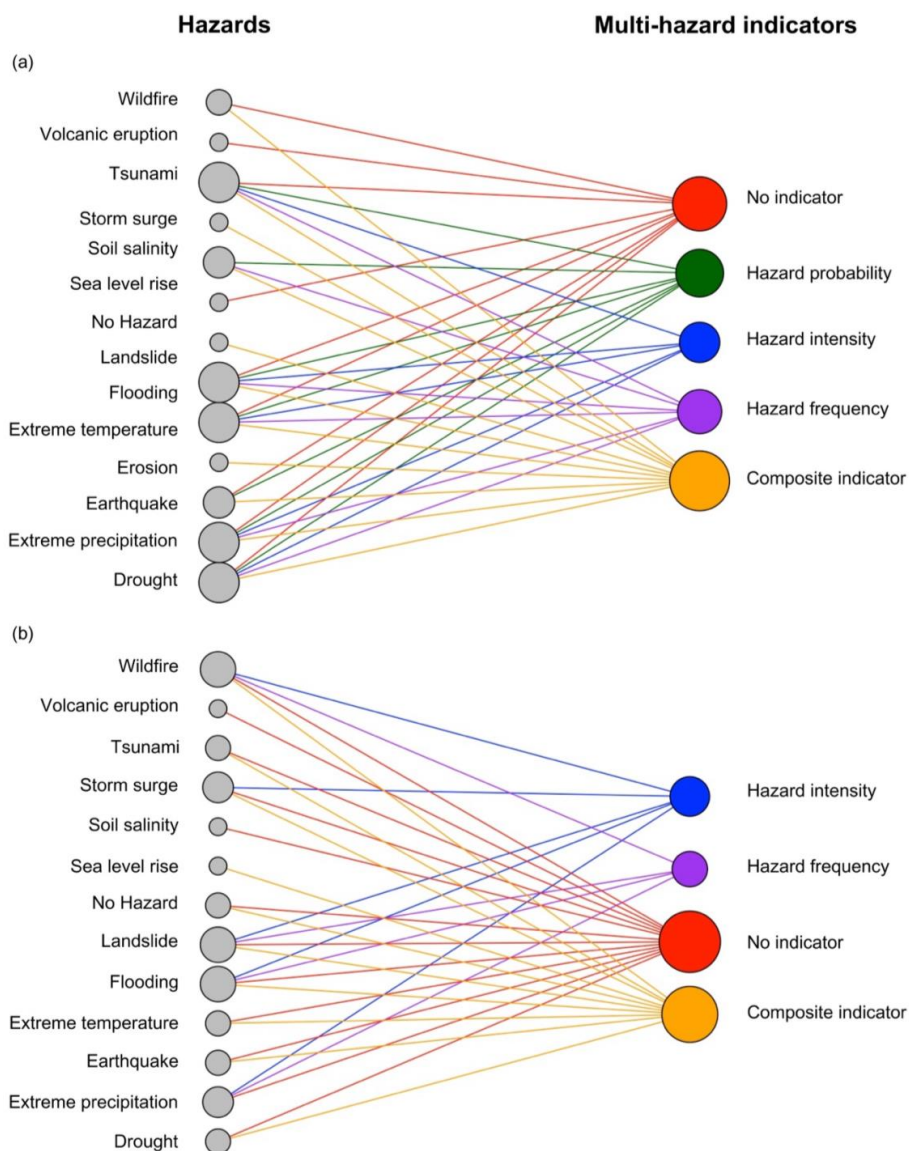
335 indicator to assess risk and vulnerability at the community level, introducing a CIS for validation. Anderson et al.  
336 (2021) assessed vulnerability to hazards in the Mississippi Delta, calculating separate ecological and social  
337 vulnerability indices, which were then integrated to create a multi-hazard vulnerability index.

### 338 **3.3 Multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators**

#### 339 **3.3.1 Compound hazard indicators**

340 Among the 493 different types of hazards included in the 194 reviewed articles, we identified about 29% (n=145)  
341 as compound multi-hazard events (Fig. 4). Various indicators were used to explain these compound events.  
342 Composite indicators were the most common, used to explain 50% of all hazards, followed by probability (16%),  
343 frequency (16%), and intensity (3%). Notably, 14% of the total compound multi-hazard events were not associated  
344 with any specific hazard indicators (Fig. 5a). These studies primarily employed different types of multi-risk  
345 indicators.





346

347 **Figure 5. Bipartite graph illustrating the relationships between 14 natural hazards and five multi-hazard indicators for**  
 348 **(a) compound multi-hazard and (b) triggering and amplification events. The connections represent the extent to which**  
 349 **specific indicators are applied in the assessment of different hazards.**

350

351 We observed a diverse range of compound multi-hazard indicators across the studies. Studies focused on  
 352 meteorological hazards, for example, such as drought and extreme temperatures, primarily used composite  
 353 indicators. However, the development and application of these indicators varied. Feng et al. (2021) evaluated  
 354 compound dry and hot events (CDHEs) across different global regions in maize-producing areas. Their study





355 utilized three different single-hazard drought indices—the self-calibrating Palmer Drought Severity Index  
356 (scPDSI), the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI), and the Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index  
357 (SPEI)—along with the Standardized Temperature Index (STI) as "hot" indicators. Bonekamp et al. (2021)  
358 combined individual and multi-hazard indicators to assess extreme temperature and precipitation under present-  
359 day and future climate change scenarios using a total of seven indicators, five of which were single-hazard  
360 indicators, while the remaining two were multi-hazard indicators associated with spatially and temporally  
361 compounding events.

362 Some studies developed specific compound multi-hazard indicators. For instance, Bian et al. (2022) developed  
363 the Compound Drought Heatwave Magnitude Index (CDHMI) to investigate compound drought-heatwave (CDH)  
364 events in eastern China. This index was based on the non-stationary Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration  
365 Index (NSPEI) and daily maximum temperature (Tmax) to determine the probability of heatwave and drought  
366 events exceeding normal thresholds, reflecting the intensity of such composite events to some extent. Qian et al.  
367 (2023) also applied a CDHMI but used a heatwave magnitude index and a drought magnitude index instead of  
368 Tmax and SPEI data. Another indicator for hot and dry climatic events, the Dry-Hot Magnitude Index (DHMI),  
369 was developed by Wu et al. (2019) to characterize the magnitude of compound dry and hot events using monthly  
370 precipitation and daily maximum temperature data. Hao et al. (2019) proposed the Standardized Compound Event  
371 Indicator (SCEI), which integrates both dry and hot conditions, representing their severity. This study  
372 characterized drought and hot conditions using the two standardized indicators SPI and STI. This indicator was  
373 also used alongside the El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) in a model to predict compound hot-dry events.

374 In studies related to hydrological hazards, such as storms and floods, composite or probabilistic indicators were  
375 primarily used. For instance, to investigate terrestrial and coastal flooding events, Jalili Pirani and Najafi (2022)  
376 employed a statistical approach (copula theory) to derive dependencies between multiple drivers of flooding, such  
377 as extreme precipitation, river overflows, and storm tides. Additionally, they used a Compound Hazard Ratio  
378 (CHR) index to characterize the interactions between different drivers and their effects on return level estimates  
379 of compound events. Ganguli and Merz (2019) analysed spatiotemporal trends in compound flood events caused  
380 by the co-occurrence of fluvial floods and extreme coastal water levels to understand historical trends in compound  
381 flooding in NW Europe from 1901 to 2014, using a CHR Index that links fluvial discharge with coastal water  
382 levels. Mitu et al. (2023) developed a new topographic indicator (D-Index) to identify surge-dominated, flow-  
383 dominated, and compound-dominated areas. Alberico and Petrosino (2015) recognised the need to develop two  
384 indices for multi-hazard events based on their recurrence intervals, demonstrating the link between time and  
385 hazard. These indices were constructed based on the time window considered for hazard assessment or the  
386 probability of the hazard occurring.

### 387 **3.3.2 Triggering and amplification hazard indicators**

388 Of the approximately 12% (n=57) of the 493 hazards (multi-layer single hazards and multi-hazard events)  
389 identified as triggering and amplification types of multi-hazard events (Fig. 4), nearly half of these (49%) were  
390 not associated with any specific hazard indicators. These studies also utilised various indicators to explain  
391 vulnerability and impacts. Composite indicators were the most commonly used, explaining 38% triggering and  
392 amplification events, followed by frequency (7%) and intensity (6%). Notably, probability indicators were not  
393 used for this type of hazard (Fig. 5b).



394 Triggering and amplification events were prominent across various meteorological, hydrological, and geo hazards.  
395 Different approaches were employed to develop composite indicators for meteorological hazards. For example, in  
396 the context of fire events, Khorshidi et al. (2020) considered fire size as an indicator to explain the co-occurrence  
397 of wildfires that triggered 'megafires,' rather than extreme magnitudes of individual drivers or their additive  
398 combinations. They investigated correlations between eight individual drivers and various fire sizes, analysing  
399 data from southern California counties. Similarly, Piao et al. (2022) aimed to create a map identifying areas highly  
400 prone to forest fires where forest fires and droughts spatially coincide; by leveraging existing quantitative  
401 indicators like the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) and the Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) alongside  
402 machine learning techniques, they produced composite indicators.

403 In studies involving geohazards, Bernal et al. (2017) conducted a risk assessment for multi-hazard occurrences in  
404 Manizales, Colombia. They considered probabilistic hazard maps produced for single hazards, such as  
405 earthquakes, volcanic (lahar), and landslide hazards. Landslide susceptibility was determined through an artificial  
406 neural network, with earthquakes and extreme rainfall as triggering factors, each with its own threshold. A risk  
407 assessment was conducted, involving a quantitative and probabilistic relationship assessment between different  
408 hazard intensities and a mean damage ratio. In the context of hydrological hazards, Rocha et al. (2021) developed  
409 a flood risk management framework using hazard data and risk indicators to determine coastal vulnerability for  
410 the western Portuguese coastal zone. This study considered coastal flooding as a precursor to coastal erosion.

411 Regarding the combination of geo and hydrological hazards, Coscarelli et al. (2021) investigated the relationship  
412 between climate indices and the frequency of landslides, floods, and forest fires in Italy. Using climate indices  
413 derived from local weather stations, they compared past hazard occurrences with climate indices to develop  
414 predictive models. Their findings suggest that landslides were more associated with moderate rainfall, floods with  
415 extreme rainfall, and forest fires with moisture content in the fuel. Argyroudis et al. (2019) studied consecutive  
416 earthquake and flood hazards to develop a multi-hazard resilience index, considering "damage state to bridge" as  
417 an indicator. Ramli et al. (2021) developed an Integrated Disaster Risk Assessment Framework (IDRAF), building  
418 on and expanding the theoretical framework established by the EU Project MOVE (Multi-Hazard Spatial  
419 Overlapping and Methods for the Improvement of Vulnerability Assessment in Europe). The IDRAF encompassed  
420 eight meteorological, hydrological, and geo hazards, with the characterization of multi-hazard scenarios involving  
421 two key components: frequency of occurrence and spatial interaction. Risk quantification was facilitated through  
422 a multi-hazard, multi-vulnerability approach, with indicators determined via a semi-quantitative methodology. The  
423 framework's applicability was demonstrated through its implementation at a local administrative scale in Malaysia,  
424 with evaluation conducted by 64 local experts in disaster risk management representing various governmental and  
425 non-governmental entities.

### 426 **3.3.3 Multi-risk indicators**

427 Among the 90 studies related to multi-hazards – including compound, triggering, and amplification hazards – we  
428 found that 31% (n=28) analysed risks or impacts. The overall risk calculation varied across studies, with different  
429 combinations of risk metrics such as hazard, exposure, vulnerability, coping capacity, susceptibility, sensitivity,  
430 and resilience commonly used. Table 4 summarises the various indicators used to explain risks and their  
431 components.

432 **Table 4. Examples of various indicators used in risk analyses.**



	<b>Indicator</b>	<b>References</b>
Hazard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Coastal flooding: time horizon, probabilistic sea level rise height, projected emissions levels, risk a version, storm frequency</li> <li>• Stormwater flooding: flow accumulation, rainfall intensity, geology, land use, slop, elevation, distance from drainage network, percent of land area below highest observed storm surge water level</li> <li>• Landslides: Percent of land area with steep slope (higher than 45 degrees)</li> <li>• Erosion: water erosion, wind erosion</li> <li>• Drought: drought severity, drought coverage</li> <li>• Heatwaves: annual days over 90°F, occurrence of very hot days (a maximum temperature greater than or equal to 33°C) and hot nights (a minimum temperature greater than or equal to 28°C)</li> <li>• Wildfire: fire frequency, potential fire behaviour</li> </ul>	Johnson et al. (2016); Fleming et al. (2023); Ghosh and Mistri (2022)
Exposure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Socioeconomic data (Populations, education)</li> <li>• Topographical factors</li> <li>• State of buildings (e.g., construction and occupancy)</li> <li>• Land use (e.g., forest, buildings, agriculture)</li> <li>• Infrastructure (e.g., roads, railways, bridges, powerlines)</li> </ul>	Johnson et al. (2016); Fleming et al. (2023); Ghosh and Mistri (2022); Haque et al. (2020); Jacome Polit et al. (2019); Sahana and Sajjad (2019); Viavattene et al. (2018); Depietri et al. (2018); Sekhri et al. (2020); Barasa et al. (2022);
Vulnerability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exposure, susceptibility and lack of coping capacity</li> <li>• Exposure, sensitivity and adaptive capacity</li> <li>• Exposure sensitivity and resilience</li> <li>• Socioeconomic (e.g., poverty, employment, access to communications, transport and services)</li> <li>• Physical vulnerability (people or assets)</li> <li>• Social vulnerability (education and food security)</li> <li>• Natural resources</li> <li>• Risk to life</li> </ul>	Murnane et al. (2019)



Coping capacity/lack thereof	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One person households</li> <li>• Language barrier</li> <li>• Governance</li> <li>• Living conditions (e.g., access to mobile phone, electricity, sanitation, water)</li> <li>• Health (e.g., healthcare expenditure, maternal mortality rate, diet, access to healthcare)</li> </ul>	
Adaptive capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Education (e.g., literature rate)</li> <li>• Economic status (e.g., employment)</li> <li>• Health (e.g., access to medical services)</li> <li>• Living conditions (access to banking, electricity, mobile phones)</li> </ul>	
Sensitivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Population descriptors (e.g., density, age, sex)</li> <li>• Living conditions (e.g., housing type)</li> <li>• Economic conditions (e.g., employment)</li> <li>• Land coverage (e.g., built-up areas, agricultural Building material and condition)</li> </ul>	
Susceptibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Population descriptors</li> <li>• Economic status (e.g., employment, income)</li> </ul>	
Resilience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Living conditions (e.g., housing type, access to banking services, access to mobile connection)</li> </ul>	

433

434 We noted that existing studies generally defined risk by overlaying various indicators of vulnerability, exposure,  
 435 and coping capacity to create vulnerability or risk indices (Beltramo et al., 2022). For example, the Cumulative  
 436 Vulnerability Index is an approach that functions as a composite of exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity  
 437 indicators (Krishnan et al., 2019). Similarly, an Integrated Coastal Vulnerability Index was developed by  
 438 combining multiple sub-index parameters, including coastal characteristics or physical variables, wave or coastal  
 439 forcing, and socio-economic factors (Godwyn-Paulson et al., 2022; Ariffin et al., 2023; Hoque et al., 2019).  
 440 Another commonly used vulnerability indicator is the Social Vulnerability Index (SoVI), which combines various  
 441 socioeconomic and built environment variables to quantify social vulnerability (Cutter et al., 2003). Although  
 442 some studies applied the SoVI approach to multi-hazard events, its methodology is hazard-agnostic, allowing for  
 443 interchangeable hazards. For instance, Yang et al. (2015) developed a SoVI to quantify regional social  
 444 vulnerability to natural hazards and mapped its spatiotemporal distribution in China. Socioeconomic variables  
 445 were used as indicators; however, no specific natural hazard or impact was defined. This hazard-agnostic approach  
 446 has also been applied in other risk assessments that did not use the SoVI approach. These composite indicators  
 447 helped create single indicators, simplifying numerous data inputs and providing an efficient method for assessing



448 certain parameters. They were particularly useful in complex systems where one indicator was insufficient to  
449 explain multiple variables (Marulanda-Fraume et al., 2022).

450 More recently, multi-risk indicators such as Social-Ecological Systems (SES) have been developed, incorporating  
451 variables related to hazard, exposure, and vulnerability. For instance, Ou et al. (2022) applied the SES framework  
452 in deltaic regions to assess multi-hazard risks (e.g., cyclones, floods, storm surges, and droughts) by calculating a  
453 Global Delta Risk Index (GDRI). However, Ou et al. (2022) did not consider interactions between hazards when  
454 estimating risks. Similarly, Cremin et al. (2023) used the GDRI to assess socio-ecological systems in river deltas,  
455 allowing for a better understanding of ecosystem exposure, sensitivity, and robustness.

456 Several studies have also developed libraries of multi-risk indicators. These databases allow users and stakeholders  
457 to review, select, and customize indicators for specific needs. Such libraries typically cover indicators related to  
458 social, ecological, and economic factors for various hazards and local contexts (Shah et al., 2020; Sebesvari et al.,  
459 2016). For instance, Hagenlocher et al. (2018) created a library of hazard-dependent and hazard-independent  
460 vulnerability indicators, providing users with access to indicators that can be applied in specific contexts and for  
461 specific hazard types relevant to deltas.

462 The integration of multiple layers of risk indicators can introduce uncertainties, particularly when equal weights  
463 are assigned to each risk component. As a result, we found several recent studies that have developed methods to  
464 estimate weights for each indicator, reflecting the varying significance of different risk parameters. Expert  
465 judgment is a commonly applied method for estimating these weights (Mafi-Gholami et al., 2019; Arvin et al.,  
466 2023; Cotti et al., 2022). For example, Gallina et al. (2016) used multi-hazard weighted scores generated through  
467 influence weightings in a hazard matrix to evaluate multi-risk. However, expert judgment-based weight  
468 calculations can also be subject to systematic bias (Jacome Polit et al., 2019).

#### 469 **4. Discussion and recommendations for development and implementation**

##### 470 **4.1 Key findings**

471 In a context where United Nations' member states are increasingly advocating for multi-hazard approaches, multi-  
472 hazard risk data, and multi-hazard risk governance (United Nations, 2023), there is likely to be a growing demand  
473 for aligned indicators and indicator-informed approaches that support both implementation and monitoring of the  
474 Sendai Framework. The increase in research activity demonstrated in this review is in-part explained by this policy  
475 demand, with a succession of European Union-funded research projects focused on multi-hazards and multi-risks.  
476 These and other ongoing projects have been established to investigate the challenges posed by multi-hazards and  
477 multi-risks, highlighting a clear momentum towards a shift from single to multi-hazard analysis and multi-risk  
478 assessment and management.

479 Our review has highlighted the broad use of indicators for risk assessment and management (i.e., Bernal et al.,  
480 2017; Sekhri et al., 2020), to identify interactions between hazards (i.e., Jalili Pirani and Najafi, 2022), and as  
481 stand-alone indicators for establishing warning thresholds (i.e., Vitolo et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021). However, this  
482 study finds that there are few studies that explicitly develop indicators for multi-hazard and multi-risk contexts.  
483 Through our review and analysis of these indicators, we note the following:



- 484       • The selection and use of different terminology and definitions by different groups affects the  
485       development and use of indicators and remains a challenge for the advancement of multi-hazard  
486       risk work (Sections 1 and 2).
- 487       • While there are many useful examples of indicators being developed and used in layered single  
488       hazard studies, the global hazard and risk literature also recognises that interrelationships exist  
489       between hazards, and between hazards and other risk components. These interrelationships should  
490       be considered in indicators to advance multi-hazard risk work (Section 3.1.2).
- 491       • Current work on indicators supporting multi-hazard risk management is dominated by a focus on  
492       compound event type interrelationships, with less work on indicators for triggering and  
493       amplification type interrelationships. Indicators for triggering and amplification type  
494       interrelationships require understanding of the physical processes coupling two or more hazards  
495       (Sections 3.3.1 and 3.3.2).
- 496       • Research on hazard assessment was found to be more common than studies on other components  
497       of risk (e.g., vulnerability) or broader characterisation of risk itself. There are limited examples of  
498       multi-risk indicators that embed understanding of multi-hazard interrelationships (Sections 3.1.1  
499       and 3.3.3).
- 500       • The findings reveal a lack of stakeholder engagement and prioritisation in developing multi-hazard  
501       multi-risk indicators; the extent to which these can therefore translate effectively into supporting  
502       multi-hazard disaster risk management is ambiguous (Section 4.1).

503       Aspects of these findings align with similar studies on the increase in multi-hazard literature. For example, with  
504       respect to the impact of terminology and varying interpretations of multi-hazard concepts, Kappes et al. (2012)  
505       noted the diversity of terms used for hazard interrelationships, Gill and Malamud (2014) reflect on the impacts of  
506       different interpretations of the multi-hazard concept (the multi-layer single hazard perspective vs. a more holistic  
507       multi-hazard approach), and Ciurean et al. (2018) reviewed different classifications of hazard interrelationships  
508       before synthesising these into a proposed taxonomy (subsequently adopted in Gill et al. (2022)). The impact of  
509       variations in terminology is evident in the development and application of indicators. Risk management would be  
510       strengthened by the creation of and adherence to guidance for the development and use of indicators in multi-  
511       hazard, multi-risk contexts, building on existing good practices and drawing on established and agreed  
512       terminology and definitions.

513       The broader multi-hazard literature also demonstrates a wide array of new and developing methods for  
514       characterising hazard interrelationships (e.g., Gill and Malamud, 2014; Tilloy et al., 2019; Zscheischler et al.,  
515       2020; De Angeli et al., 2022; Claassen et al., 2023; Lee et al., 2024) and dynamics of other components of risk  
516       (e.g., De Ruiter and Van Loon, 2022; Hochrainer-Stigler et al., 2023). A breadth of approaches is likely necessary  
517       to support risk characterisation in different contexts (e.g., data poor vs. data rich), but variation in the approaches  
518       used to characterise hazard interrelationships may make it challenging to develop generic indicators for  
519       monitoring the management of multiple, interrelating hazards and their associated risk.



#### 520 **4.2 Developing effective multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators: challenges and opportunities**

521 The results from this systematic review show the use of indicators in multi-layer single hazard and multi-hazard  
522 and multi-risk contexts. Indicators are selected and used to help characterise interactions between hazards  
523 (including the probability of multi-hazard interrelationships, the co-occurrence of multi-layer single hazard events,  
524 and changes of multi-hazard events), as well as for exposure, vulnerability, risk/impact and resilience in a multi-  
525 hazard context. Many of the papers reviewed in this study (e.g., Li et al., 2021; Lou et al., 2023b; Pal et al., 2023)  
526 imply that their results and the use of indicators may be of potential use to stakeholders who are responsible for  
527 disaster risk management or climate change adaptation, however, the extent to which stakeholders have been  
528 involved in the process of creating and testing indicators to support decision-making in multi-hazard contexts is  
529 not clear. Stakeholder engagement varies from consulting with expert groups (e.g., Damian et al., 2023) to  
530 interactive co-development (e.g., Fleming et al., 2023). Understanding the priorities, interests, ambitions, and  
531 challenges of stakeholders is essential to developing and undertaking effective DRR research (Gill et al., 2021).  
532 Of the 194 papers reviewed, however, only 15 studies include stakeholder engagement, of which 6 studies are  
533 within the multi-hazard category (i.e., Cremen et al., 2023; Gallina et al., 2020; Hagenlocher et al., 2018; Sekhri  
534 et al., 2020; Viavattene et al., 2018; Vitolo et al., 2019). The remaining 9 studies are either layered single hazard  
535 (n=8) or include no specific hazard (n=1). Of the 15 studies that included stakeholder engagement, 14 focused on  
536 multi-hazard risk assessment, which requires consideration of socio-economic vulnerabilities and impacts from  
537 multi-hazard events. When developing multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators for disaster risk management and  
538 climate change adaptation, it is crucial to consider how and where to use multi-hazard information with  
539 stakeholders. For example, interactive stakeholder engagement in setting weighting, prioritisation and thresholds  
540 plays a critical role, as it guides sensitivity to certain impact areas, such as applying physical drought models to  
541 early warning systems for food security (Boult et al., 2022). This approach also enables stakeholders to issue early  
542 and timely warnings (Li et al., 2021).

543 Multi-hazard analysis is inherently interdisciplinary as it involves multiple hazard types that may use different  
544 indicators, each requiring distinct analytical methods and datasets. For example, extreme heat and wildfire multi-  
545 hazard analysis utilises various datasets and indices: Vitolo et al. (2019) used the Fire Weather Index (FWI) and  
546 the Universal Thermal Climate Index (UTCI), while Páscoa et al. (2022) applied the Standardized Precipitation  
547 Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI), Number of Hot Days (NHD), and Number of Hot Nights (NHN) in their  
548 analysis. Bian et al. (2022) and Qian et al. (2023) developed and refined the Compound Drought Heatwave  
549 Magnitude Index (CDHMI) using the Non-Stationary Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index  
550 (NSPEI) and daily maximum temperature (Tmax) to determine the probability of heatwave and drought events.  
551 For compounding flood events, Jalili Pirani and Najafi (2022) developed a Compound Hazard Ratio Index to  
552 characterise the interactions between different drivers of flooding (e.g., extreme precipitation, river overflows,  
553 storm tides) and their effects on return level estimates of compound events. Similarly, Ganguli and Merz (2019)  
554 analysed spatio-temporal trends in compound flood events caused by the co-occurrence of fluvial floods and  
555 extreme coastal water levels, defining a Compound Hazard Ratio Index that links fluvial discharge with coastal  
556 water levels to understand historical trends in compound flooding. Therefore, a collaborative environment across  
557 interdisciplinary expertise, with relevant stakeholder engagement, is essential.

#### 558 **4.3 Recommendations for improved multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators**

559 Based on these well-established challenges associated with multi-hazard research, and the insights on the use of  
560 multi-hazard indicators from our review, we suggest actions that are needed to: (i) advance research and



561 methodologies that allow robust indicators for multi-hazard contexts, (ii) improve uptake and use of indicators,  
562 and (iii) create an enabling and collaborative environment. These recommendations are intended to support the  
563 ambitions of Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction and accelerate multi-hazard risk assessment and  
564 management.

565 *(i) Advancing research into multi-hazard and multi-risk frameworks*

566 The following recommendations focus on strengthening multi-hazard research aligned with the development, use,  
567 and uptake of multi-hazard, multi-risk indicators:

- 568 1. Advance research into the interrelationships between hazards, including specific coupling  
569 processes.
- 570 2. Advance research into the dynamic components of risk and the interrelationship and overlap  
571 between these components, to accelerate multi-(hazard)-risk assessment.
- 572 3. Advance research into frameworks for multi-hazard risk management that integrate data and  
573 indicators to understand the complexity of multi-(hazard)-risk scenarios, and how to reduce risk in  
574 such contexts.
- 575 4. Develop a robust methodology for capturing, recording, and analysing multi-hazard events and  
576 dynamic interrelationships in multi-hazard environments.

577 *(ii) Improving uptake and use of indicators*

578 The following recommendations focus on actions to ensure *multi-hazard and multi-risk* indicators are useful,  
579 useable, and used:

- 580 5. Create guidance for risk management professionals about hazards and their potential interrelated  
581 effects – improving understanding of the multi-hazard and multi-risk concepts, and their  
582 relationship to indicators.
- 583 6. Form partnerships between stakeholders to facilitate cross-disciplinary, cross-sectoral working  
584 arrangements; working with stakeholders to understand indicator requirements and ensure that  
585 developed indicators are relevant and practical for end-users needs.
- 586 7. Create executive summaries and high-level reports that translate technical risk indicator data into  
587 strategic insights for better understanding and decision-making.
- 588 8. Use advanced visualisation tools, such as GIS mapping and interactive dashboards, to present  
589 multi-risk information, indicators, and associated monitoring data in a clear and accessible format.
- 590 9. Extend the use of indicators beyond hazard and risk assessment to establish real-time monitoring  
591 systems and early warning mechanisms that provide up-to-date information on the emergence and  
592 propagation of multi-hazard events.

593 *(iii) Creating an enabling and collaborative environment*





594 The following recommendations focus on opportunities to strengthen the collaborative, interdisciplinary  
595 environment required for the effective and impactful development, use, and uptake of multi-hazard, multi-risk  
596 indicator:

597 10. Use interdisciplinary expertise for collective knowledge generation and problem-solving to  
598 overcome current barriers and challenges in developing effective multi-hazard, multi-risk  
599 indicators.

600 11. Support the development of online open-access collaborative repositories for sharing good  
601 practices and data.

602 12. Develop a multi-hazard, multi-risk indicator library co-developed with stakeholders to provide a  
603 centralised data management solution, potentially integrated into the MYRIAD-EU Disaster Risk  
604 Gateway open-access, editable wiki (<https://disasterriskgateway.net/>).

## 605 5. Conclusions

606 In this study we systematically reviewed existing multi-hazard and multi-risk indicators and present  
607 recommendations for their future development and use. While there is broad use of indicators for risk assessment  
608 and management, and for identifying interactions between hazards and warning thresholds, this study finds that  
609 there are few studies that explicitly develop indicators for either multi-hazard or multi-risk contexts. The majority  
610 of the studies described as multi-hazard or multi-risk were, on inspection, multi-layer single hazard and risk; in  
611 other words, these did not include the interactions between hazards. The results also demonstrated a predominance  
612 of studies on hazard assessment (88% of publications), and a dominance of meteorological and hydrological  
613 hazards, particularly in the context of compounding hazards. Only 20% of the papers included in the review  
614 integrated hazard, vulnerability and risk (or impact) – a reflection of the complexity of multi-hazard risk. The  
615 methodologies used in the reviewed studies included quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods approaches,  
616 with a predominance of mixed methods applied in risk assessment, highlighting the interdisciplinarity and role of  
617 methods such as expert judgment in multi-hazard risk assessment. The ongoing challenge related to the selection  
618 and use of different multi-hazard risk terminology within the literature was echoed in our findings. Based on the  
619 findings of the review, we set out twelve recommendations to progress and enable uptake of indicators, from  
620 advancing research into multi-hazard risk frameworks that integrate indicators, to enabling partnerships with  
621 stakeholders to ensure the inclusion of their needs and the uptake of indicators in disaster risk management. This  
622 review is limited to the peer-reviewed literature; future work could build upon this review through the exploration  
623 of grey literature and direct engagement with stakeholders involved in indicator relevant applications of disaster  
624 risk reduction (e.g., through interviews).

### 625 Author contribution

626 Conceptualization: CW; Data curation: CK; Formal analysis and visualization: MSGA, MA, EN, CK;  
627 Methodology and writing – original draft preparation: all authors.

### 628 Competing interests

629 At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences.



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