

# The Impact of Climate Change on Urban Infrastructure: A Comprehensive Study on Resilient Civil Engineering Design, Adaptation Strategies, and Sustainable Development

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## Abstract

Climate change is becoming more and more unstable in terms of urban infrastructure, as floods are becoming one of the most disruptive risks. This paper explores how urban systems are affected by climate change using a mixed-method design, which combines long-term data on floods with comparative case studies. Quantitative data were used to reveal time and space trends of vulnerability using the India Flood Inventory-Impacts (1967- 2023), and qualitative data were informed by the 2015 Chennai floods and the 2016 Copenhagen Cloudburst Management Plan. The analysis of the dataset showed that the frequency of floods dramatically increased, and nowadays there are more than 2,200 floods every year, whereas in the 1960s, there were fewer than 50. District-level analysis identified Patna, Murshidabad, and Thane to be the most susceptible to floods, with high values of the District Flood Susceptibility Index (DFSI) to indicate repetition of infrastructure strains. Correlation analysis showed that higher percentages of flooded areas are linked to higher human deaths, which is a systemic vulnerability of urban drainage and transport systems. The case studies highlighted divergent paths: Chennai was the illustration of failure because of poor planning and uncontrolled growth, whereas Copenhagen was the example of the advantages of the proactive hybrid solutions that are green and grey. These results indicate that resilient civil engineering should be developed in the direction of adaptive, sustainable, and integrative designs. The paper finds that the connection between the large-scale flood data and case-based strategies can inform policymakers and engineers on how to proceed with creating climate-resilient and sustainable urban development.

**Keywords:** Climate change; Urban infrastructure; Resilient civil engineering; Flood adaptation; Sustainable development

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Climate change isn't a distant idea anymore—it's putting real pressure on the pipes, roads, and power systems that keep cities running. The old assumption of a stable climate no longer holds. Wild swings in rain and storm surges now overwhelm drainage, jam transport, and strain built-up areas already under stress (Committee on Adaptation to a Changing Climate, 2015).

Urban flooding, in particular, has become frequent and expensive. In India, floods have grown more common and more intense over the past 50 years, hitting both rural and urban communities hard (Manabendra Saharia, 2025). The pattern shows up across fast-growing regions too, where unchecked expansion and weak infrastructure magnify disasters. Reviews from African and Asian cities point to a double hit: climate pressures plus gaps in governance push more people into cascading risk (Pal et al., 2025).

We need adaptive engineering. When cities aren't ready, the damage lingers. Chennai's 2015 floods dragged on because drainage was inadequate, land was encroached, and disaster response fell short (Vencatesan, 2021). By contrast, Copenhagen's Cloudburst Management Plan pairs underground reservoirs with parks and other green spaces, turning streets and open areas into water-smart infrastructure (Brudler et al., 2016). Taken together, these experiences show where conventional systems fail, and how proactive, hybrid solutions can make cities far more resilient.

Adaptation must extend beyond discrete flood-control interventions to encompass the full practice of urban development. In this framing, green energy and nature-based infrastructure, advanced construction materials,

and rigorous sustainability-oriented planning are not optional add-ons but core elements of climate-conscious engineering (Ajirotutu et al., 2024). Resilience, likewise, should be understood not as a narrow technical attribute but as a transformative governance and investment paradigm that reshapes how cities are planned, financed, and regulated (Singh, 2025). Consistent with contemporary scholarship, resilience and sustainability are analytically and operationally inseparable: effective urban strategies must address climate risk, ecological integrity, and social well-being in tandem, aligning with the Sustainable Development Goals while remaining attentive to local performance constraints and needs (Das, 2025). Building such futures is inherently interdisciplinary, drawing together environmental sciences, civil and systems engineering, planning, and public administration to enable integrated, cross-sectoral decision-making (Jaiswal et al., 2024).

Accordingly, this study operationalizes an integrated approach that couples macro-scale evidence with context-specific inquiry. We interrogate the India Flood Inventory (1967–2023) to derive spatiotemporal trajectories of flood exposure and vulnerability, and we situate those patterns against two instructive urban cases: Chennai (2015), which illustrates systemic failure under conditions of inadequate drainage, land-use encroachment, and institutional shortfalls, and Copenhagen (2016), which demonstrates the efficacy of proactive, hybrid “green-and-grey” cloudburst strategies. By synthesizing quantitative trends with qualitative institutional and design insights, the paper advances a practice-oriented agenda for civil engineering, adaptation planning, and sustainable urban development that is both SDG-consistent and locally adaptive. The findings aim to inform policymakers, planners, and engineers seeking robust pathways to climate-resilient urban systems under conditions of accelerating climatic variability.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Climate Change and Urban Infrastructure

Climate change has moved from a distant concern to a day-to-day constraint on how cities function, and the vulnerability of civilian infrastructure now sits at the centre of that discussion. Pavements, drainage networks, and structural systems are increasingly exposed to thermal stress, cloudbursts, and sea-level rise, which together erode performance, shorten service life, and amplify maintenance burdens (Saleh & Hashemian, 2022). Among these assets, pavements are especially sensitive to temperature and moisture regimes, underscoring the need for climate-resilient design standards and the adoption of advanced, durable materials tailored to new extremes (Saleh & Hashemian, 2022). Broader assessments of civil works echo this shift in emphasis, arguing for a move away from piecemeal, short-term fixes toward holistic resilience planning that integrates risk, design, operations, and governance across the asset life cycle (Ali, 2023).

### 2.2 Resilience as a Planning and Engineering Paradigm

Resilience has evolved from a narrow technical requirement to an organizing principle for urban planning and infrastructure management. Early conceptualizations framed resilience as the capacity of cities to absorb shocks, adapt to changing conditions, and transform when existing systems no longer suffice (Jabareen, 2013). Subsequent work extends this view by coupling resilience with sustainability to articulate a dual mandate for urban development: maintain functionality under stress while advancing long-term ecological and social goals (Rezvani et al., 2023). In practice, this implies systemic planning that aligns governance reforms—such as coordinated institutions, clear accountability, and adaptive regulation—with engineering interventions in design, construction, and operations, so that the city’s physical and institutional infrastructures reinforce one another.

### 2.3 Green Infrastructure and Ecosystem-Based Approaches

Nature-based solutions have gained prominence as credible, scalable complements to conventional engineering. Wetlands, urban parks, street trees, and green roofs—collectively described as green infrastructure attenuate runoff, moderate urban heat, and deliver ecological and social co-benefits that purely grey systems typically do not. Evidence from Mediterranean cities shows that well-designed green spaces can cool neighbourhoods, reduce flood peaks, and improve habitability at block and district scales (Sturiale & Scuderi, 2019). Building on this, integrated urban landscape planning is advanced as a means to address multiple hazards, flooding, drought, and heatwaves, within a single spatial framework, simultaneously improving long-term sustainability outcomes (Worku, 2017). The implication is clear: treating ecosystems as infrastructure widens the solution set and enhances performance under climate volatility.

### 2.4 Civil Engineering Innovations for Resilient Cities

Recent scholarship highlights how innovations in civil engineering are reshaping the future of urban infrastructure under climate stress. Hybrid grey-green systems, climate-tuned materials, and digital technologies such as real-time sensing, asset-health analytics, and decision-support models are redefining adaptive practice. The emerging consensus is that engineering must be grounded in design logics that anticipate shifting baselines in temperature, precipitation, and urban density, rather than assuming stationary conditions (Ali & Anwaar, 2024). Complementing these technical advances, review studies call for clear adaptation indicators and metrics

that embed resilience into everyday engineering workflows, enabling routine appraisal of vulnerability, performance, and response efficiency across planning horizons (Diaz et al., 2024). Together, these developments push the field toward designs that are modular, upgradable, and responsive to uncertainty.

### 2.5 Sustainable Urban Infrastructure Strategies

Resilience must be pursued within a sustainability framework that supports broader urban development objectives. Contemporary research emphasizes the importance of systemic solutions that integrate spatial planning, policy instruments, and engineering practice to deliver infrastructure that is both robust to shocks and aligned with equity and environmental goals. This imperative is particularly salient in the Global South, where climate risks intersect with infrastructure deficits and socioeconomic disparities, amplifying exposure and constraining adaptive capacity (Freitas et al., 2024). Accordingly, policy directions emerging from these contexts prioritize embedding resilience principles into networked systems, transport, water, and energy—to address localized weather threats while advancing inclusion and affordability (Das, 2025). In sum, sustainable, climate-ready infrastructure is not a single project type but a coordinated portfolio of strategies that tie design standards, financing, governance, and community outcomes into a coherent, long-term program.

### 2.6 Regional and Contextual Insights.

At the regional level, adaptation strategies vary greatly based on governance, resource availability, and the level of exposure. Research in Nigerian construction reveals how climate resilience measures are changing. This takes into account infrastructure gaps and environmental pressures (Unegbu et al., 2024). Case studies from Asia and the Pacific demonstrate valuable lessons in disaster risk management and adaptation in urban areas. Their interdisciplinary approach shows how to effectively address the infrastructure risks caused by climate change.

### 2.7 Insights and Research Gaps

The literature provides several key insights. First, it is widely agreed that traditional engineering methods cannot be effectively used in situations with increasing climate stress, particularly in drainage systems, pavements, and transport systems. Second, nature-based solutions and hybrid designs offer two benefits: they improve resilience and sustainability. Third, the Global South faces layered challenges. Climate-related risks are made worse by rapid urbanization, insufficient resources, and government obstacles. Despite these findings, significant gaps remain. Most studies are either conceptual or thematic, and fewer include large datasets or practical case studies. Additionally, engineering design and urban planning are typically examined separately, while their integration as a system of adaptation gets less attention. Finally, although there are established global best practices, strategies specific to developing countries are not studied enough, especially those that merge quantitative vulnerability analysis with realistic, locally relevant engineering solutions.

## 3. METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Research Design

The present research is based on a mixed-method design, including quantitative analysis of flood data and qualitative case study analysis. The quantitative part relies on the India Flood Inventory-Impacts (IFI-Impacts) database that archives the nationwide floods in India between 1967 and 2023 (Manabendra Saharia, 2025). The qualitative element is the synthesis of the two case studies, Chennai Floods (2015) and Cloudburst Management Plan in Copenhagen (2016), to contextualize the statistical results in the framework of the real-life urban infrastructure context.

### 3.2 Dataset Description

The IFI-Impacts data provides a minute record of Indian floods with information on the length of occurrence of the events, districts affected, human losses, displacement, and damage to infrastructure reported (Manabendra Saharia, 2025). It also includes derived indicators such as the District Flood Susceptibility Index (DFSI) and the percentage of area covered by flooding, which are critical in the spatial risk analysis. Table 1 is utilized to illustrate the key variables utilized in this study to display the scope of this dataset.

**Table 1. Key Variables in the IFI-Impacts Dataset (1967–2023)**

Variable	Description	Relevance to Study
Event ID (UEI)	Unique event identifier	Event tracking across time and space
Start & End Date	Temporal extent of the flood	Analysis of seasonal/annual variability
Duration (days)	Number of days the flood persisted	Infrastructure disruption period
Districts Affected	Administrative units exposed	Spatial mapping of vulnerability
State	State-level aggregation	Regional trend analysis
Human Fatalities/Injured	Number of deaths and injuries	Socioeconomic and infrastructure stress proxy
Human Displaced	Population forced to relocate	Adaptation and emergency response needs

Extent of Damage	Reported damages (narrative/quantified)	Infrastructure performance indicator
DFSI	District Flood Susceptibility Index (derived)	Risk ranking and prioritization
% Flooded Area	Proportion of district land submerged	Land use and infrastructure exposure measure

### 3.3 Analytical Framework

Data analysis was performed to meet three significant goals: (a) determine the long-term temporal increase of floods, (b) determine the spatial hotspots of vulnerability, and (c) examine the links between flood exposure and human influence. Changes in the frequency of floods were determined by time-series analysis, whereas spatial patterns were obtained based on the DFSI scores. Lastly, correlation analysis was used to investigate the relationship between flooded area and human deaths. Table 2 provides a summary of the analytical framework that connects the indicators of the dataset to the objectives of the research.

**Table 2. Analytical Framework Linking Dataset Indicators to Research Objectives**

Research Objective	Dataset Indicator	Analytical Method	Expected Outcome
Assess the temporal escalation of floods.	Year, Number of Events	Time-series analysis (trendline)	Long-term trends in flood frequency
Identify spatial hotspots of vulnerability.	DFSI, Districts Affected	Ranking & GIS mapping	Top 10 vulnerable districts
Link flooding to infrastructure & human impact	% Flooded Area, Fatalities	Correlation & scatter analysis	Relationship between exposure and impact
Compare resilience & adaptation strategies.	Case Studies (Chennai, Copenhagen)	Comparative analysis	Contextual lessons for resilient design

### 3.4 Case Study Selection

To complement the analysis of the data, two case studies were added. The case of the 2015 Chennai floods was chosen as the example of urban infrastructure failure during the extreme rainfall during the monsoon, which demonstrates weaknesses in the drainage and planning systems (Vencatesan, 2021). Copenhagen Cloudburst Management Plan (2016) was selected as the opposite case of a resilience-based approach that combines hybrid green-grey responses to climate change (Brudler et al., 2016). The case studies are chosen according to their relevance, documentation, and failure and success in the process of flood management in cities.

## 4. RESULTS

### 4.1 Temporal Trends of Flood Events

The time series indicates a dramatic increase in the frequency of floods during the last 50 years. The recorded times of floods were already 22 in the 1960s, but more than 2,200 in the first three years of the 2020s. This acceleration is an indication of the increasing role of climate change on hydrological extremes that are overwhelming urban infrastructure systems. Table 3 presents the decadal distribution, and Figure 1 demonstrates the steadily increasing trend of annual flood events.

**Table 3. Decadal Distribution of Flood Events in India (1960–2023)**

Decade	Number of Flood Events
1960s	22
1970s	239
1980s	795
1990s	1185
2000s	1133
2010s	1219
2020–2023	2263

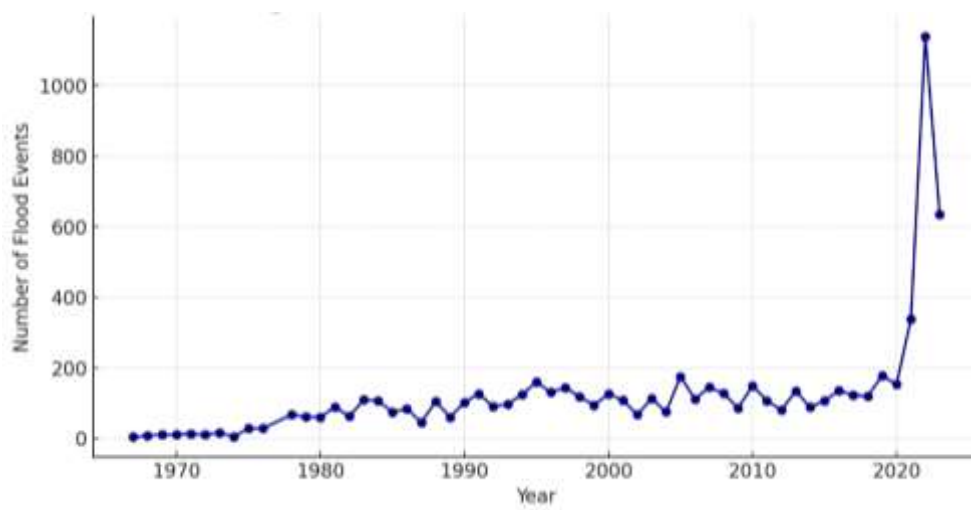


Figure 1: Annual flood events in India (1960–2023).

#### 4.2 Spatial Distribution of Flood Susceptibility

The spatial hotspots of flood susceptibility were determined at the district level. Table 4 contains the top ten districts in the Flood Susceptibility Index (DFSI). Patna, Murshidabad, and Thane became the most vulnerable with both geographical vulnerability and infrastructure constraints. The urgency of targeted resilience planning is supported by these high-risk clusters. Figure 2 presents a heatmap of DFSI values on a geospatial scale.

Table 4. Top 10 Districts by Flood Susceptibility Index (DFSI)

Rank	District	State	DFSI Score
1	Patna	Bihar	19.30
2	Murshidabad	West Bengal	18.91
3	Thane	Maharashtra	18.86
4	Guntur	Andhra Pradesh	18.83
5	North 24 Parganas	West Bengal	18.77
6	Nagpur	Maharashtra	18.69
7	Purba Medinipur	West Bengal	18.37
8	Lakhimpur	Assam	18.34
9	Gorakhpur	Uttar Pradesh	18.30
10	Purba Champaran	Bihar	18.29

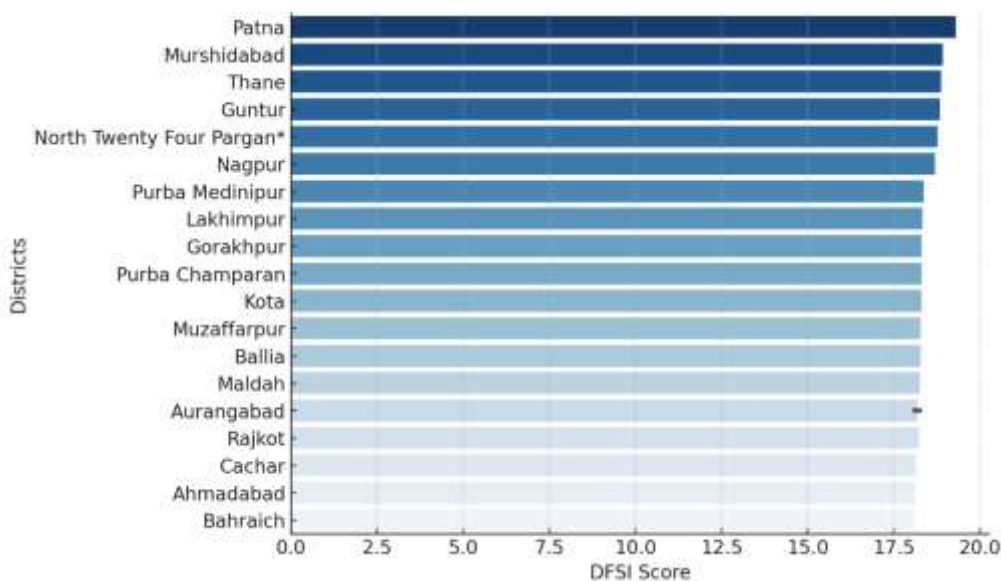
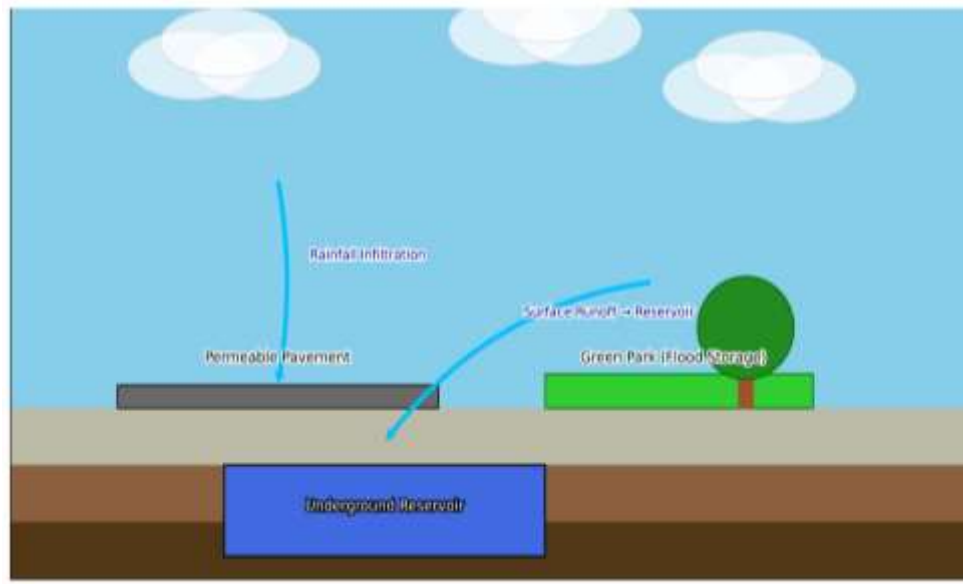


Figure 2: Top 20 districts by Flood Susceptibility Index (DFSI).

#### 4.3 Human and Infrastructure Effects.

The exposure to floods was further investigated by the relationship between the area of land flooded, the human population, and fatality. In Table 5, the correlation is positive between these variables. Interestingly, there was a





**Figure 5: Cross-section of Copenhagen Cloudburst Adaptation Plan (2016).**

## DISCUSSION

This study has clearly demonstrated that floods are on the rise and their severity is due to climate change, and their effects are directly experienced on the urban infrastructure. The analysis of the data showed that floods in India have increased significantly. The frequency of floods exceeded 2,200 during the first three years of the 2020s alone. This clearly indicates a changing climate where traditional design values are becoming more uncertain. District-level spatial vulnerability identified urban areas like Patna, Murshidabad, and Thane as being at high risk. These cities face frequent threats due to their location and weak civil infrastructure. The data also indicated that a higher proportion of flooded land leads to more human fatalities. This highlights failures in drainage, housing, and transport systems that were not built to handle new extremes.

These quantitative findings are complemented by valuable context from case studies. The Chennai floods of 2015 exemplified how rapid urban growth, inadequate stormwater systems, and slums near natural waterways can turn heavy rainfall into a humanitarian crisis. In contrast, the 2016 Cloudburst Management Plan in Copenhagen showed how a combination of engineering solutions can reduce disaster risks. This plan included features like underground reservoirs, permeable pavements, and adaptable parks, all while supporting long-term sustainability. Together, these events underscore that preparedness, effective governance, and flexible infrastructure are crucial for distinguishing between system collapse and resilience.

These results support and add depth to several key observations in the broader literature. Alabi (2024) stressed that sustainable infrastructure is not a cost but a necessary part of climate resilience, especially where infrastructure performance is already weak. This idea is visible in the Chennai case, where failures in planning and sustainability turned into climate-related disasters. Similarly, Madan (2025) suggested that cities facing increased climate risks need flexible design solutions. The growing number of flood events documented in this study shows that civil engineering criteria must change from strict limits to more adaptable approaches. Additionally, transport networks are particularly vulnerable. Beitelmal et al. (2024), in their study of Lagos, found that transport is unevenly affected by climate risks due to its exposure and importance. This finding aligns with the correlations in this study, where areas with high flooding rates experienced cascading failures that often began with transport disruptions. Lastly, Rezvani et al. (2023) pointed out the role of adaptation indicators in incorporating resilience into engineering practice. The DFSI used here demonstrates how big data can be turned into practical measures, connecting the concept of vulnerability with real-world intervention priorities.

While these findings are strong, several limitations should be noted. First, the dataset covers more than five decades, so disorders and gaps in reporting may have affected the accuracy of the districts. Second, case studies provide valuable depth but cannot fully cover the variety of adaptation pathways in different global contexts. Third, hydrodynamic modeling and geospatial simulation as research tools were not used, which could have supported and enriched the observed trends. These shortcomings call for caution in generalizing the results and present an opportunity to improve methods.

Such conclusions hold significant implications for engineering and policy. Global warming is no longer a future issue; it is an ongoing and growing problem that we must address by adapting city infrastructure today. Investment strategies for infrastructure must focus on resilience, while engineering practices should prioritize adaptive design, flexible standards, and a mix of grey and green solutions in new projects and retrofits. Notably, this research

indicates that resilience is not simply a technical solution made possible by technology, but a shift in governance, inclusive urban planning, and citizen involvement. Future studies should increase the use of big data analytics, machine learning, and digital twins to enable real-time forecasting and management of urban flood risks. Cooperation across disciplines will also be crucial, as it will bring together engineering, ecology, social sciences, and governance to create effective solutions. Comparative studies between countries, including India, Nigeria, and Denmark, need to be further developed to extract transferable lessons while considering local realities. Connecting large-scale data to local adaptation plans can help close the existing gap between vulnerability assessments and the actual implementation of resilient, sustainable urban systems in the future.

## CONCLUSION

This paper has shown that climate change is having serious effects on urban infrastructure. The frequency and intensity of floods in India have risen sharply from 1967 to 2023. The India Flood Inventory revealed concerning trends in both the growth over time and the vulnerability of different areas. High-risk districts were identified based on poor infrastructure performance. Correlation tests indicated that the main reason for increased flood coverage and loss of life is the need for stronger city systems. Comparative case studies supported this evidence by showing how results vary based on preparedness and design measures. The example of inadequate drainage, unplanned urbanization, and delayed response during the 2015 Chennai flood highlights the need for proactive measures. This need is further illustrated through the green-grey infrastructure in Copenhagen's 2016 Cloudburst Management Plan. Together, these lessons point to the importance of moving from systematic resilience planning to response measures. The research emphasizes that effective civil engineering must be adaptable, sustainable, and informed by long-term climate data. Policymakers and practitioners should focus on hybrid infrastructure, include resilience indicators in design requirements, and embrace interdisciplinary approaches. While data consistency and generalization have limitations, the research offers a way to connect large-scale datasets to practical adaptation models. These integrated strategies represent the future of urban resilience and support the Sustainable Development Goals.

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