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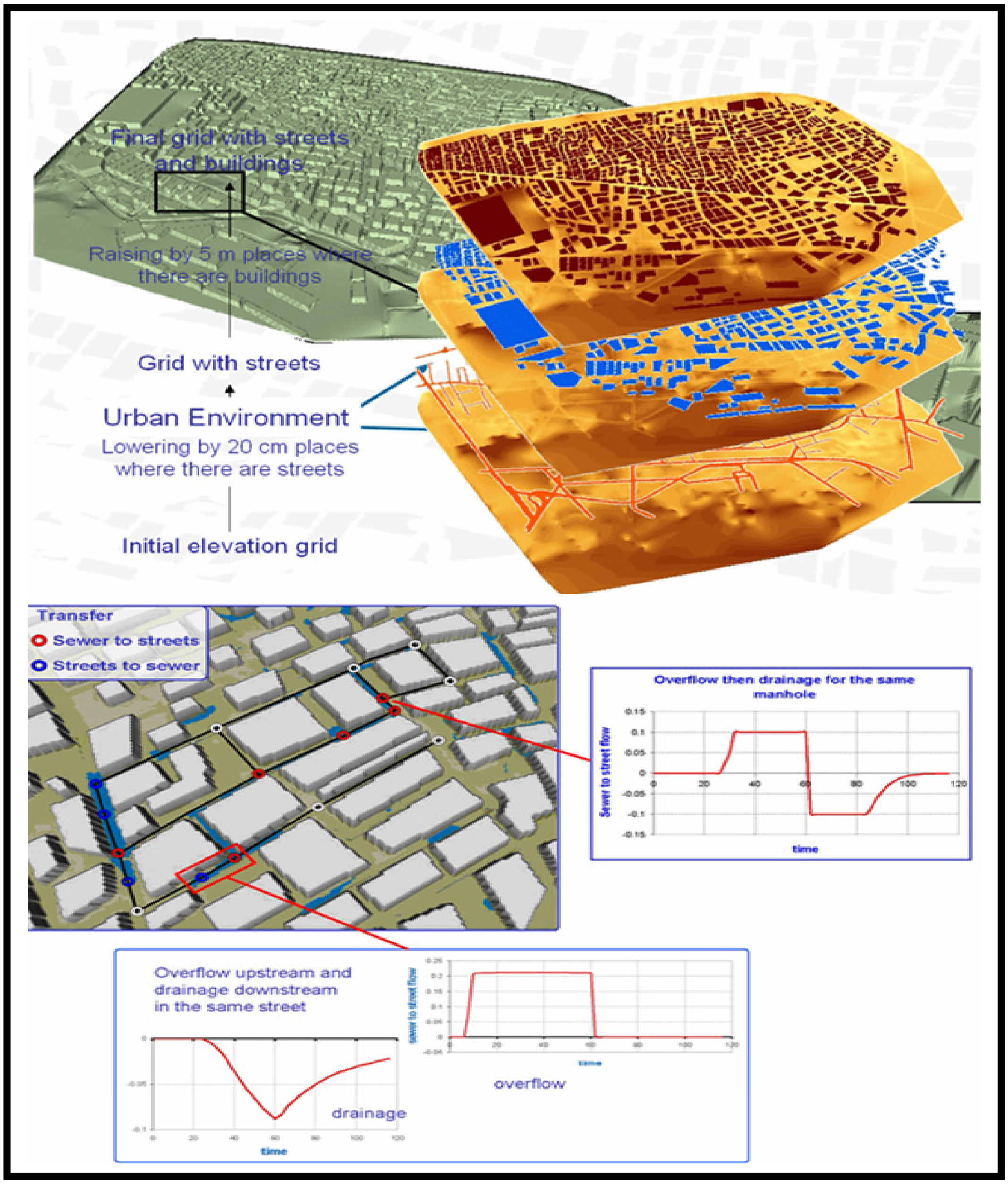

Effects of Model Schematisation, Geometry and Parameter values on Urban Flood wave Approximations

Manning Jasson Mwalwaka

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Master of Science Thesis
by
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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my parents, brothers and sisters whose love, support and encouragement have brought me this far.

Special dedication is to my wife Atupakisye Mlawa and my daughter Rachel for their patient and moral support during the entire period of my studies.

Above all, dedication is to the Almighty God who granted me strength and good health for the entire period of my studies.

Abstract

Advancements in computer processing power, accurate terrain data acquisition methods, and the integration between 1D and 2D flood modelling make possible to model dynamic flooding in a complex urban environment. Two-dimensional flood modelling requires information on terrain, which quality depends more on acquisition techniques and the terrain of the study area. In urban areas, the characteristics of floodwater flow are controlled by the distribution of buildings, roads channels and elevated area. Accurate representation of all these features requires accurate Digital Terrain Model (DTM). Changes in urban area as a result of urbanization can be simulated through modification of the existing DTM and /or land use or land cover information. The main objective of the research was to assess how these changes affect urban flood wave prediction.

This study has focussed on how different DTM resolution, presence of different features on DTM (roads and building structures) and different roughness coefficients affects the simulation results in urban flood modelling. This study was mainly focussed on comparisons of the flood modelling results obtained from three scenarios and to quantify which out of the three scenarios is more influential on final computational results.

The model simulations were made using MIKE FLOOD modelling systems which comprised MIKE 11 and MIKE 21 models. In order to carryout this research, the Island Territory of St Maarten N.A was used as a case study. The comparison of the results was made on a basis of inundation extent, flood depths and flow velocities.

The digital terrain models were prepared using ArcGIS software. All the modelling results were processed and mapped using waterRIDE software. The MIKEFLOOD results stored in MIKE11 and MIKE 21 were then analysed and comparisons between them was made.

From the analysis of model results it can be concluded that applying high DTM resolution and the change in complexity of terrain features has the most significant influence on model results. On other hand, the change in roughness coefficients along the flood plain has the least influence on model results when compared to the other two aspects considered in this research. In terms of computational time, the higher the DTM resolution the more computational time was observed.

Keywords: Urban flood Modelling, 1D and 2D flood modelling, Digital Terrain Model, Digital terrain model features, ArcGIS, Roughness Coefficients.

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First of all, I would like to express my sincere thanks to my supervisor Dr. Zoran Vojinovic for providing and supervising this research topic. Thanks for his patient guidance, interest, encouragement and critical discussions through the study period of the research. My sincere thanks to Mr. Solomon D.Seyoum for his guidance and support throughout the entire research period. The time they have spent assisting to build and run the model of this research deserves to be acknowledged. I will not forget to thank Mr. Ahamad Fikri Abdullah for his support in building Digital Terrain Models using GIS software.

I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to Nuffic (Netherlands Fellowship Programme) for all financial assistance for my studies and research at UNESCO-IHE.

My sincere thanks to TANconsult Ltd, consulting Engineer and Planners via CEO Eng George H Alliy, for my nomination with study leave to this master study programme.

I extend my great thanks to all staff members of Hydroinformatics department and the community of UNESCO-IHE for providing a pleasant study atmosphere, their helpfully assistance and support during my studies.

I would like to express my deeply feelings and appreciation towards my parents, my brother Gilbert Jasson Mwalwaka and his family, my wife Atupakisye Mlawa and my daughter Rachel for their patient and moral support during my studies and long stay in the Netherlands.

Finally I will not forget to thank my Hydroinformatics classmates and friends for their constant encouragements during my studies.

Table of Contents

Abbreviations

N.A.	Netherlands Antilles
1D	One-Dimensional
2D	Two-Dimensional
DEM	Digital Elevation Model
DTM	Digital Terrain Model
DHI	Danish Hydraulic Institute
GIS	Geographic Information System
ESRI	Environmental Systems Research Institute
HD	Hydrodynamic
ARI	Average Recurrence Interval
RR	Rainfall Runoff
M	Manning's number
MIKE 11®	One-Dimensional modelling Software
MIKE 21®	Two-Dimensional modelling Software
MIKE FLOOD®	Modelling software for coupling 1D and 2D models
MOUSE®	One-Dimensional modelling software for Urban Sewer System
HEC-1	One-Dimensional Open Channel Flow Model
SWMM	Storm Water Management Model
TIN	Triangular Irregular Network
SWMM	Storm Water Management Model
ALS	Airborne Laser Scanning
LIDAR	Light Detection and Ranging
GPS	Global Positioning System
UTM	Universal Transverse Mercator
ASCII	American Standard Code for Information Interchange
UHM	Unit Hydrograph Method
SCS	Soil Conservation Service
AMC	Antecedent Moisture Conditions
CN	Curve Number
RAM	Random Access Memory

List of Tables

List of figures

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background

Urban flooding is one of the major problems in many cities, particularly in those with a rapid and uncontrolled population growth causing the major impacts in social, economy and political aspects. Most of developing countries rapid and uncontrolled urbanization has become one of the major issues in hazard and risk management. Certainly this is one of the major environmental problems in the developing world, today and in the future. The more difficult and complex hazard management in urban areas are caused by massive concentration of people, large number of business activities and properties in the area. Increasing in property values in urban areas such as buildings and roads, the potential damage from long-lasting and severe flooding such as flash flood can easily extend into huge costs. Moreover, more loss due to flood is often occur in crowded area due rapid urbanisation.

Urbanization has a great influence on rainfall runoff and flood behaviour. Due to complicated buildings distributions and structures in urban areas, the flow of the floodwater becomes more complex. Paved surface converts heavy rainfall into run-off, and due to improper urbanization planning, water will accumulate and increase the potential of flooding. As a result, urban flood forecasting and potential damage calculations become a big challenge. An efficient and accurate numerical flood modelling will be important in predicting possible inundated area and assessing flood risk.

Investments for flood management are made on the basis of the model result. The growing need to manage floods and flood-related disasters, availability of a wide range of information and communication technologies offering improved opportunities to develop more effective flood management information systems has raised the demand for urban flood modelling(Z.Vojinovic and Tutulic'. 2007). At present, most of the flood simulation tools calculate flooding flows over fixed structured or unstructured grids. In the case of urban floods, a difficulty for the existing flood models is to accurately represent the complex floodplain topography consisting of different types of buildings, streets, embankments. In order to obtain a satisfactory description of the floodplain, small grid cells have to be used throughout the entire computational domain (figures 1 and 2). However, the complex topography has to be accurate represented as it could have significant effects on the development of a flood event and thus influence the reliability of the predicted results. Recently, 1-D and 2-D hydraulic simulation model has been established to simulate stormwater flooding processes in urban areas(Xing Fang and Dehui Su, 2006),(Mark *et al.*, 2004),(Mignot *et al.*, 2006),(Vojinovic, 2006) for ground stormwater pipes and drainage channels (1-D) and overland flow (2-D). Furthermore, coupled 1D-2D flood modelling approach has been applied for floodplain analyses of urban areas in a catchment with a steep and irregular topography to treat the transition from channel flows to over-ground shallow-depth flows(Mark *et al.*, 2004), (Z.Vojinovic and Tutulic'. 2007) and (Vojinovic, 2006).

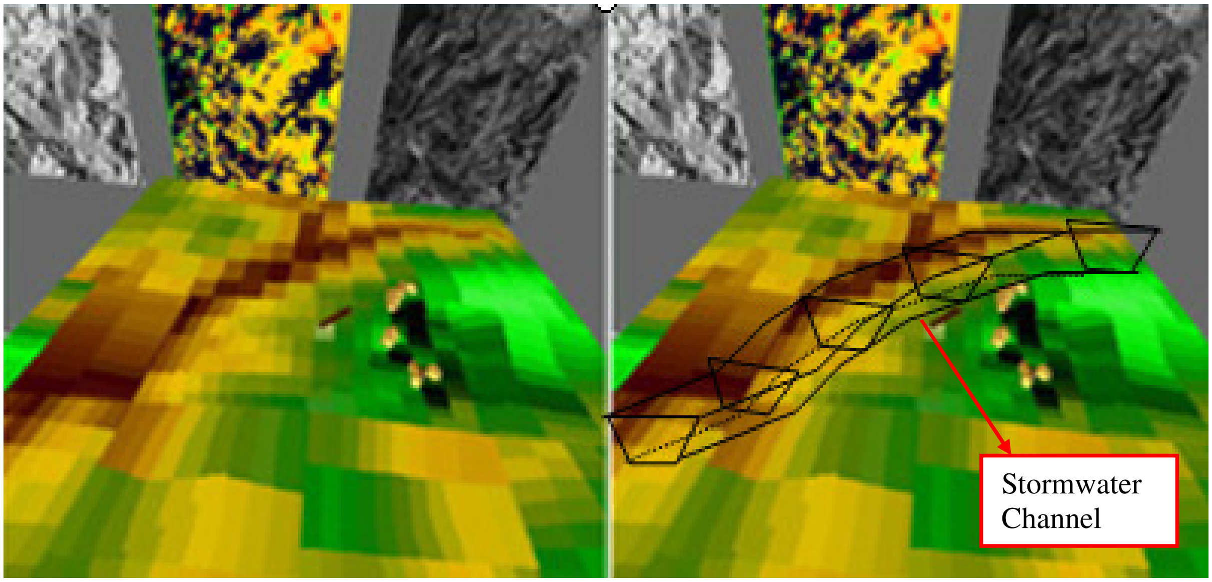


Figure 1: Floodplain with Large grid cells**.**
Left: Flood plain only (2D model).Right: floodplain and stormwater channel (1D and 2D model)

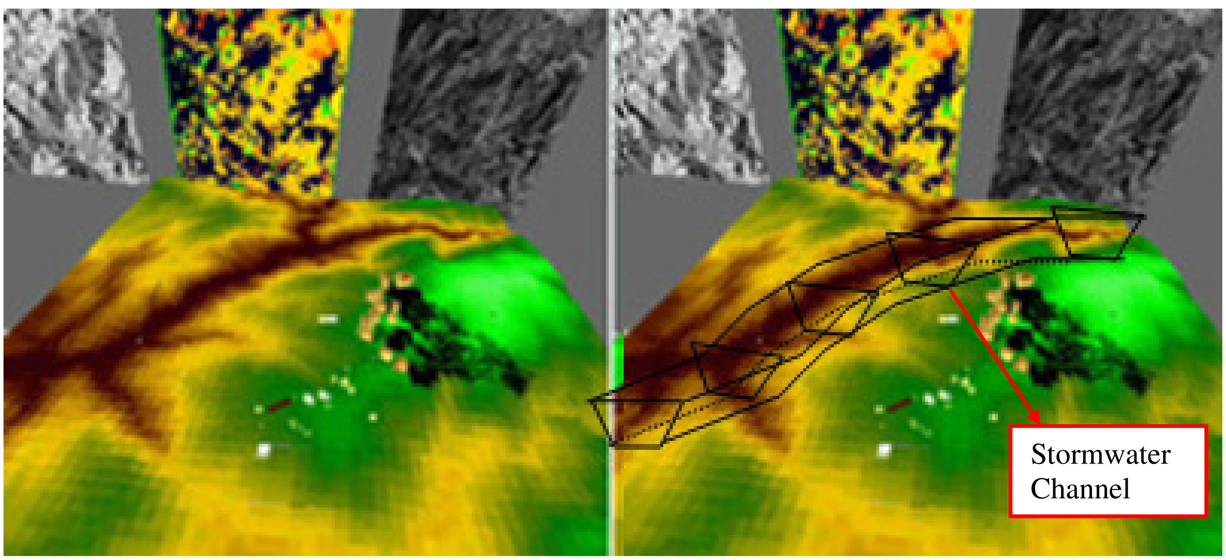


Figure 2: Floodplain with fine grid cells.
Left: Flood plain only (2D model). Right: floodplain and stormwater channel (1D and 2D model).

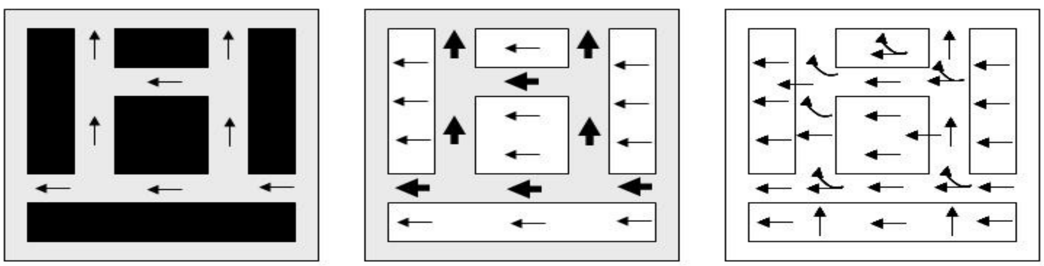
Flood modelling especially in urban areas suffers from in adequacy representation of topographic data. Recent advances in high resolution topographic data acquisition such as LIDAR may have the potential to improve the problem. Therefore due their potential for flood modelling there is a need to be tested.

The aim of this research is to assess on how model schematization and geometry with different land use affect predictive capability of coupled 1D-2D modelling approaches for the purpose of urban flood analysis.

1.2 Problem statement

Floodplain inundation modelling is an important aspect for flood management and decision making. However, growing awareness of the uncertainties underlying both the parameterisation and structure of inundation models, leads to demands for high resolution modelling of urban floodplain inundation to be used within an ensemble prediction framework(H.McMillan and J.Brasington, 2005). In reaching this goal there is a need for developing reduced complexity models that will cope with highly variable geometries and flow parameters. Assessment of flood hazards depends mostly on the nature of the physical situation and on the availability of data such as urban topography, drainage network layouts and geometrical details.

The rising and lowering of water levels together with the estimation of flow directions, velocities, flood durations and inundation extents are important aspects in urban flood modelling and need accurate representations (Z.Vojinovic and Tutulic'. 2007). To achieve accurate representations and consequent interpretations of urban floodplains, the Digital Terrain Model (DTMs) created from Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR) data plays a key role. The DTM data could be processed to represent the smooth land surface, land surface with roads or land surface with roads and building networks (figure 3)



a) b) c)

Figure 3: Schematisation of flow vectors in Urban Areas.
a) DTM with buildings and roads represented as solid objects; b) DTM with road network; c) DTM only- buildings and road network are represented as hollow objects. (Z.Vojinovic and Tutulic'. 2007)

The modelling of urban floods has to cope with highly variable geometry and flow parameters. The available distributed, physically based models offer the best insight into the process. However, the application of such models to refine urban flood modelling is not feasible (D.Yu and S.N.Lane, 2005). An alternative approach could be to use models based on modified version to represent the nature of urban environment.

Advancement of computer processing power, accurate terrain data acquisition and the integration between 1D and 2D flood modelling make possible to model dynamic flooding in a complex urban environment. Two-dimensional flood modelling requires information on terrain, which quality depends more on acquisition techniques and the terrain of the study area. In urban areas, the characteristics of floodwater flow are controlled by the distribution of buildings, roads and elevated area. All these require accurate Digital Terrain Model (DTM). Changes in urban area as a result of urbanization can be simulated through modification of the existing DTM and /or land use or land cover information. Therefore, there is a need to assess how these changes have impact on urban flood wave prediction.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 Main Objective

The main objective of this research is to explore the influence of model schematisation and geometry with different parameter values in urban flood wave approximations on flood simulation results.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

More specific objectives can be summarised to the following:

- Build a Coupled 1D-2D models for a case study
- Use different topographical resolutions to represent the nature of urban environment
- Test the model sensitivity at different DTM resolutions with roads and Building structures and roughness coefficients.
- Analysis and discussion of the results.

1.4 Research question

How different schematisation and geometry with different parameters affect the predictive capability of numerical models in urban environment?

2 LITERATURE RIVIEW

2.1 Definition, types and characteristics of flooding

Flooding is the localized hazard as a result of heavy rainfall. It is natural and recurring event for a river or stream. Flooding occurs most commonly from heavy rainfall when natural watercourses do not have the capacity to convey the excess water. It is a result of heavy rainfall or continuous rainfall exceeding the capacity of soil absorptions, and the flow capacity of rivers, streams and coastal areas causes the water overflow its bank onto adjacent lands. Floods can be generally categories as flash flood, occurs as a product of heavy localized rainfall in a short period of time over a given location; and general floods, occurs due to heavy rainfall over a longer time period and over a given river basin. Flash flooding occurs mainly in urban areas with relative flat terrain and can result in severe in property damages as well the loss of lives.

Also (Nie, 2004) define flooding as a condition, where wastewater and (or) surface water escapes from or cannot enter into a drain or sewer system and either remains on the surface or enter into buildings (NS-EN752 (1), 1996,). Furthermore flooding he classified as shown in table 1 below.

Table 1: Types of flooding.

Agent	Details and examples
Rainfall	Slow on-set or flash flood
Snowmelt	Overland flood Riverine flood
Icemelt	Flood caused by glacial melt water
Flooding during freeze-up	Riverine
Flooding by ice breakup	Riverine (also called ice-jam floods)
Mudfloods	Floods with high sediment content
Storm surge	Coastal/sea/tidal floods
Dam	Dam-break flood, Dam overtopping
Urban drainage flooding	Storm discharge exceeds capacity of sewers or drains
Water mains	Flood caused by pipe burst
Raising water tables (high Groundwater levels)	Land subsidence, rising sea level, temporal reduction in water abstractions from aquifers
Combined events	Rainfall/tidal flooding/snow melt/ice melt…

2.2 Urban drainage systems

Urban drainage systems are “physical facilities (streets, storm sewers, inlets, open channels, manholes) that collect, store, convey, and treat runoff in urban areas (figure 4) (Nie, 2004). Urban drainage systems consists of the sewer systems (separate or combines) and the emergency (major) systems. The sewer system can be represented conceptually as a network consisting of catchments and subcatchments, nodes (manholes or inlets), links (open or closed sewer), ancillary structures (weirs, gates and pump stations) and outlet. The system receives inflow from nodes (manholes or inlets), and then transports the sewage to wastewater treatment plant (WWTP), or drains directly to receiving water. While the emergency systems composed of road networks, detention or retention facilities, which take into action when the sewer system components are full of their capacities (figure 4) (Nie, 2004). As can be seen in (figure 5) below, the roadways with ditches or curbs are not only for transport but also provide temporary storage for surface stormwater. Moreover, parking lots, flat roofs, natural ponds and impervious open surface also can serve as a temporary storage of excess water.

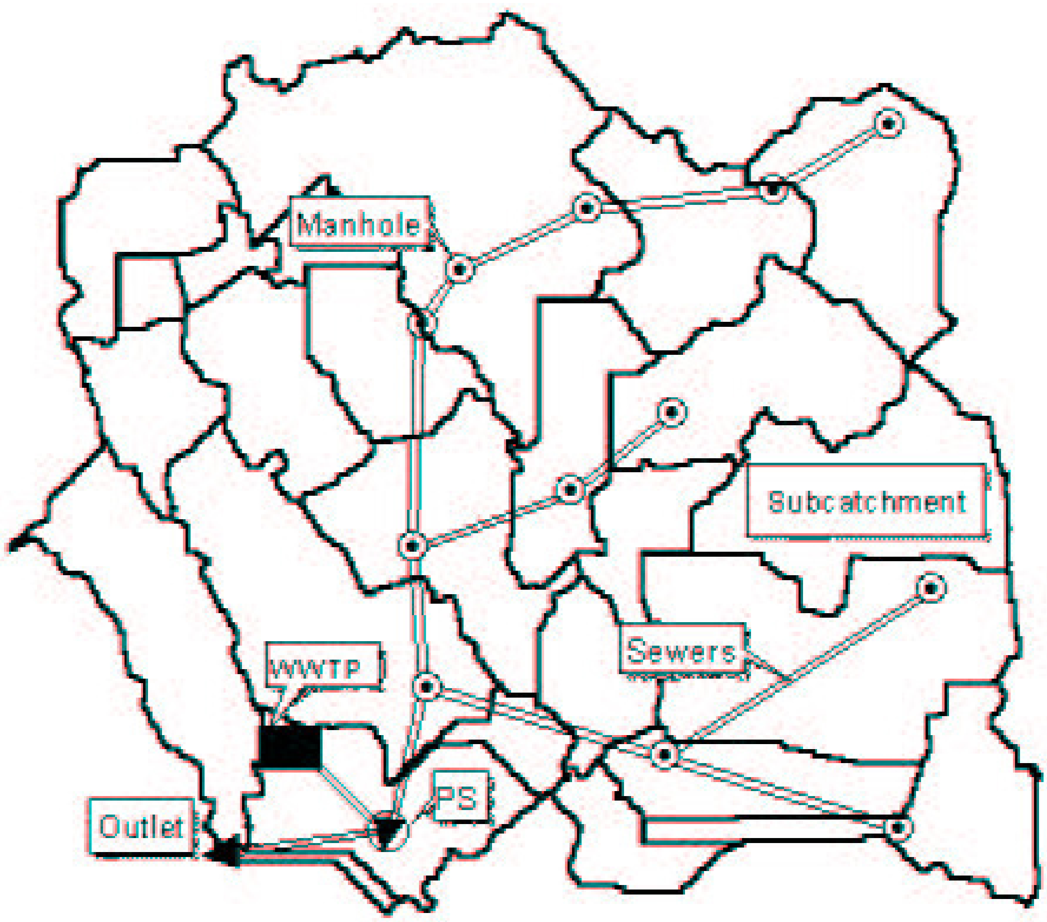


Figure 4: Sewer systems representations.
(Adopted from Nie, 2004)

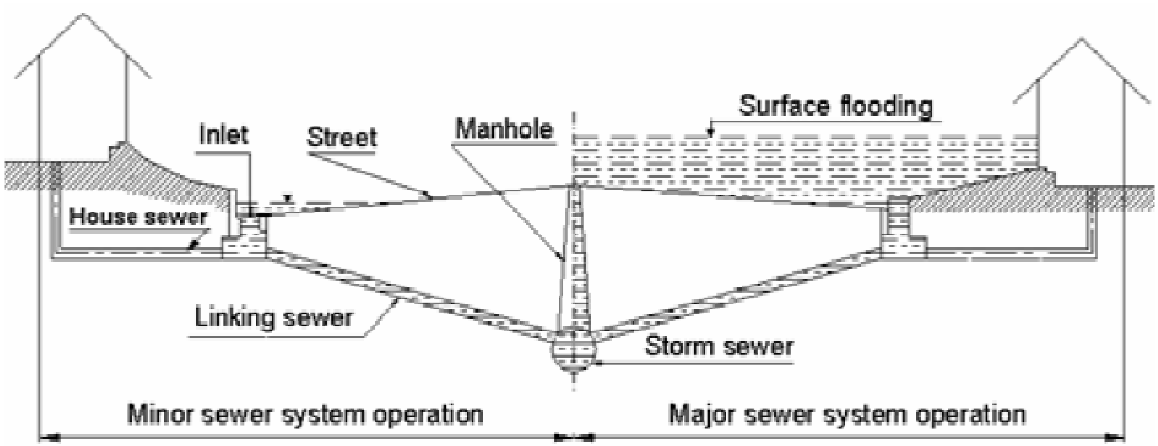


Figure 5: Minor and major urban drainage systems**.**
(Adopted from Nie, 2004)

2.3 Recent urban flood modelling techniques.

Considering the frequency and influencing extent, flooding has long been recognized as the most damaging and costly natural hazard in many countries. Due to uncontrolled human activities, rapid urbanization and the global climate change, the frequency of devastating floods tends to be higher and the loss of human lives and property show no sign of decreasing. In order to address the impact of floods, an effective flood management is required. To address the flooding problems, more modeling techniques have been developed.

Floodplain inundation modelling is a vital tool for catchment management, flood risk assessment and mitigation applications. However, growing awareness of the uncertainties underlying both the parameterization and structure of inundation models leads to demands for high-resolution models to be used within an ensemble prediction framework (H.McMillan and J.Brasington, 2005). An important step in reaching this goal is to develop reduced complexity models, which achieve accurate results while benefiting from a computationally efficient algorithm. In this approach, recent coupling 1D - 2D models has been achieved for flodplain flows approximations (Tutulic', 2007). To parameterize flows through riparian areas, a digital elevation model (DEM) allows heterogeneous floodplains to be efficiently represented in the model. To test model functionality, stability and efficiency due to increase of resolutions, (H.McMillan and J.Brasington, 2005) desribed a series of experiments, by applying a raster floodplain model to reconstruct a 1:100 year flood event on the River Granta in eastern England, which flooded 72 properties in the town of Linton in October 2001. In the experiment the author use the data in the form of high-resolution DEM derived from a single-pulse LIDAR data, together with surveyed data and aerial photography. According to the author, at this resolution, inundation forecasts become highly sensitive to the precise representation of floodplain topography. Model efficiency may also be compromised by the relative speed of the floodwave across individual cells, and methods to improve this includes with the use of a nested-scale model, where an inner urban zone represented at 1-2m scale is embedded within a lower-resolution model application at the reach scale which provides boundary conditions based on recorded flood stage. Other methods considered are reprojection of the inundation pattern from a model run at lower resolution, and the use of a timestep differential between channel and floodplain. Importantly, all such techniques are considered alongside their implications for model stability. Finally, the author concluded that the high resolution predictions on a scale commensurate with urban structures make possible a multi-criteria validation which combines verification of reach-scale characteristics such as downstream flow and inundation extent with internal validation of flood depth at individual sites

In the last decades significant advances in flood inundation modelling have been made through the use of a new generation of 2D hydraulic numerical models(McMillana and Brasington, 2006). These offer the potential to predict the local pattern and timing of flood depth and velocity, enabling informed flood risk zoning and improved emergency planning. With the availability of high resolution DEMs derived from airborne LIDAR, these models can theoretically now be routinely parameterized to represent considerable topographic complexity in urban areas where the potential exists to represent flows at the scale of individual buildings. (McMillana and Brasington, 2006), reviews two strategies to address the mismatch between model and data resolution in an effort to improve urban flood forecast. The first strategy was to use a simplifying mathematical formulation of the model by using a computationally efficient 2D raster storage cell approach coupled to a 1D channel model. This model structure enables simulations over large model domains offering the opportunity to employ a topographic discretization strategy, which explicitly represents the built environment. To reduce the computational overhead of the raster method, the second strategy was to employ a subgrid parameterization to represent the effect of buildings and micro-relief on flow pathways and floodplain storage. This multi-scale methodology enables highly efficient model applications at coarse spatial resolutions while retaining information about the complex geometry of the built environment. These two strategies were evaluated through numerical experiments designed to reconstruct a flood in the small town of Linton in southern England, which occurred in response to a 1 in 250 year rainfall event in October 2001. According to the author the results from both approaches were encouraging, with the spatial pattern of inundation and flood wave propagation-matching observations well. Both show significant advantages over a coarse resolution model without subgrid parameterisation, particularly in terms of their ability to reproduce both hydrograph and inundation depth measurements simultaneously, without need for recalibration. The subgrid parameterization is shown to achieve this without contributing significant computational complexity and reduces model run-times by an order of magnitude.

(Chen, 2007), outlined the flood impact assessment using Hydrodynamic Modelling in Bangkok, Thailand. In the study a 1D2D hydrodynamic model using SOBEK was constructed and applied to simulate the flood scenarios for return periods of 5, 10 and 25 years. The author pointed out that the overall flooding study could be divided into three steps: 1) Constructing hydrologic models, DEM (or DSM), land cover/use map and hydrometeorological information of the study area as input data. 2) Generation of flooding information, including possible inundation areas, water depth, flow velocity and flooding duration. 3) Proposing a relative mitigation measures based on the results from previous step.

The author tried to examine the effect of building structures represented in the terrain for scenario floods at different return periods (5, 10 and 25 years). In the modelling approach, two ways to represent the build-ups: solid structure and rough surface was used. The effects of these two ways were examined in the scenario results. Furthermore, a multi-parameter flood impact assessment was proposed to categorize the flood impact according to different interests, such as human safety and property/estate damage. Another flood impact assessment method, which integrates depth and velocity, was carried out and compared with the proposed one.

It can be concluded that the manner to represent buildings in modelling approach has a significant impact on the flooding characteristics. Compared to solid building structures, flood extent for rough surface scenarios increased 90%, 30% and 36% at 5, 10 and 25 return periods, respectively. For water depth, the percentages of low categories (from 1 to 3) of Rough Surface scenarios are higher than that of Solid Structure scenarios for all the three return periods. In terms of flow velocity and warning time, the distinctness between two surface types for the same return period decreased from low category to high category. Further, the author pointed that, the more parameters integrated in the flood impact assessment, the better the tangible and intangible impacts can be assessed. Due to various limitations, flood impact assessment requires simplification of the complex reality, which is achieved through choosing several important parameters. To derive applicable flood impact maps, the characteristics of flood, such as extent, water depth, velocity and warning time, must be given emphasis. The specific flood impact maps, which have particular focus can better help the governments, the insurance industry and common people to make their decision towards the flood. The study suggested that more attention should be given in selection on how to deal with the building structure in hydrodynamic modeling for urban areas. Also higher resolution DEM/DSM should be considered in the future study

Due to occurrence of flood events experiencing in many parts of the world, the need for reliable information on flood characteristics is also increasing. Society needs accurate and detailed information on magnitude and likeliness of hazardous flood events for design of flood mitigation measures. In urban areas, features like roads, buildings, riverbanks and dykes have great effects on flow dynamics and flood propagation, and therefore must accounted for in the model setup. This is possible by considering a high-resolution input data that relates to the topography of the systems and to the identified features. (Alemseged Tamiru Hailea and Rientjes, 2005) presented the effects of LIDAR DEM resolution in flood modeling a model sensitivity study for the city of Tegucigalpa, Honduras that severely has been affected by flooding as caused by extreme rainfall events. The main aim of the author was to show the potential of LIDAR data for the flood simulation in urban areas and evaluate the effect of the DEM averaging process, as caused by selected re-sampling procedures, on flood model simulation results. For the study area, a DEM with grid size of 1.5 m. was generated from LIDAR data and served as a base line case for various flood simulations. In the study, DEM was re-sampled and DEM's of resolutions up to 15 m was created and serve as input to the flood simulations. According to the author, re-sampling to course grid elements resulted in an increased loss of detailed topographical properties and that affected flood simulations. To extract buildings the author used the original DEM by using geomorphologic filters and GIS operations. For the simulation, buildings were represented as solid, partially solid and hollow objects by varying the surface roughness value (Figure 3). It was concluded by the author that, the sensitivity analysis to DEM resolution, topographic representation is critical and that model output is significantly affected by the resolution of the DEM.

(Ole Marka *et al.*, 2004), outlined the modelling approaches and principles for analyses of urban flooding. The author described on how urban flooding can be simulated by 1D hydrodynamic modelling incorporating the interaction between the buried pipe system, the streets (with open channel flow) and the areas flooded with stagnant water. The paper has outlined the potential and limitations of a special modelling technique, where a hydrodynamic urban flood model built in two layers describes the conditions both in the surcharged pipe system and flooding on the catchment surface. According to the author, the modelling approach was generic in the sense that it handles both urban flooding with and without flood water entry into houses. In order to visualize flood extent and impact, the modelling results are presented in the form of flood inundation maps produced in GIS. In this paper, only flooding from local rainfall was considered together with the impact in terms of flood extent, flood depth and flood duration. The author further discussed the data requirement for verification of urban flood models together with an outline of a simple cost function for estimation of the cost of the flood damages.

(Guinot and Gourbesville, Not Published) , applied 2D runoff modelling in urban area with high definition DEM. The author has tried to meet the increased requirements in modelling accuracy by a possible strategy consists of a combination of the traditional 1D modelling for the sewage network and a 2D approach for the runoff which can occur on the streets. The study area was at The French Riviera characterized by large and dense urbanized areas. It was found that this methodology is strongly dependent on the quality of the topographical data and the way they are used in DEM. The 2D model can be used to investigate extreme hydrological situations, which could be included in different urbanization master plans.

(Sylvain NÉELZ and PENDER, 2007), studied Sub-grid scale parameterisation of 2D hydrodynamic models of inundation in the urban area. The study considers the 2D modelling of a hypothetical flood event affecting ~4 km2 area of lowlands along the Thames estuary in England. The author presented preliminary results from a study considering the parameterisation of coarse-grid 2D flood models to take into account sub-grid scale flow patterns occurring in the urban area. A simulation of a severe flood in an urbanized coastal floodplain was first run using a fine grid that can resolve the flow around and between buildings. Next, the same model was run again using the same underlying topography, although stripped from any buildings, and a set of 7 values of the roughness parameter (Manning's n), all larger than (or equal to) the value used in the original run. A further set of simulations was carried out using a five-fold increased grid cell size. It was found that while it may be possible to model the overall effects of the buildings using strongly increased roughness parameter values, using a coarse grid otherwise has implications related to the loss of information about the site topography that results in flood flow routes being incorrectly modelled.

(D.Yu and S.N.Lane, 2005), described the coupling of a 2D diffusion-based flood inundation model to a 1D river flow model. The coupled model (FlowMap) was applied to simulate the 2000 flood event occurred on the River Ouse which runs through the city centre of York, UK. The 1D river model solves the full one-dimensional St. Venant equations for unsteady flow using the Preissmann Scheme. Two coupling approaches were investigated: (i) a loosely coupled approach where a 1-D river flow model was used to provide boundary condition to the 2D model at the river-floodplain interface prior to the initialisation of the 2D model; and (ii) a tightly coupled approach where the 1D river flow is solved simultaneously with the 2D floodplain flow model by treating the flux exchange at the river-floodplain boundary explicitly through mass control at each time step. The two approaches were tested on a 10 km long river reach across the city centre of York. The 1D component of the model was calibrated against the recorded stage hydrograph upstream of the river and inundation extents were validated against the aerial imagery obtained during the flood event. According to the author, the accuracy statistics results showed that the tightly coupled model performs better than the loosely coupled model in terms of the prediction of inundation extents. The study was demonstrated the complex interaction between river flow and floodplain flow in terms of the momentum and mass transfer at their common boundary and its effect upon flood inundation. Also the study was focused upon mass transfer and shows that floodplain flow routing might change the way water flows back to the river and hence affects channel flow, which in turn affects flood inundation. In relation to prediction of inundation extent, the study showed that, the flood inundation extent would not be modelled correctly if in diffusion-types of flood models, the flow exchange between river and floodplain is not represented correctly. Further according to the author, the study emphasized the importance of boundary conditions for flood inundation predictions and the need for improved approaches to channel and floodplain flow coupling, particularly in terms of momentum representation.

(Guinot and Gourbesville, Not Published), studied the Modelling Flash Floods in Mediterranean areas. Several models of the Var catchment (France) were built using the Mike She hydrological modeling systems and run to simulate the flood event of 05.11.1994 and used to analyse sources of uncertainty. These models were based on different structures, geometries and parameter values. According to the author, the results demonstrate that the nature of the phenomena occurring on the catchment and geometry are much more influential to the model results than particular values of the physical parameters.

2.4 Data requirements for flood modelling

The most time–consuming step in numerical modelling is the collection of data, depending on data availability and extent of model area (Ladislav Hluchy, 2002). In general, the following data should be collected:

- bathymetric data, describing topography of the model area,
- boundary data,
- wind data (optional),
- information on the bed resistance (roughness),
- Calibration and validation data.

Based at the data collected, it is possible to set up the numerical model. It means transforming real world events and data into a format, which can be understood by the numerical models. All the data collected have to be resolved on the spatial grid selected and in time with the time step selected.

After preparing all the above mentioned data sets, the model is almost ready for the run. Specification of time step and simulation time is the last step. The time step of computation should be small enough (usually seconds), in order to avoid numerical instabilities. When specifying simulation time, user has to take into account travel time of water in the model area (a time, in which water travels through the model – from upstream to downstream boundary), additional „warm-up“ time, necessary for the setting of initial conditions into correct values and proposed real time of simulated event. At the end, user specifies frequency of storing the output results, in order to avoid creation of too large result files, which can occupy a lot of space at the computer disk.

After completion of above mentioned steps, the model is ready to the calibration and validation procedure. The purpose of calibration is to tune the model in order to reproduce satisfactorily known – measured conditions for a particular period – calibration period. The calibrated model is then validated by running one or more simulations, for which measurements are available, without changing any calibration parameters. This should ensure that simulations can be made for any period similar to the calibration and validation periods with satisfactory results. The calibration and validation periods should include different discharge situations, in order to have model reasonably calibrated in the widest range possible, taking into account simulated scenarios. The results of the first calibration run – simulated water level, velocities and discharge distribution are compared with the measured ones. Definitely, there are differences. The purpose of calibration procedure is to minimize these differences, into negligible values. Because of this reason, user changes model parameters in the next calibration runs. The most frequently used calibration parameter in the hydrodynamic simulations is the roughness, which influences results very significantly. The other calibration parameters can be bathymetry, boundary conditions, wind friction, eddy viscosity. After several calibration simulations and successful validation runs at different conditions, the model can be considered well calibrated and ready for the simulation of various scenarios, which are the subject of given study or investigation. The output files of simulations usually contain huge amount of data, which have to be checked, presented and visualized.

2.4.1 Topographical data

Preparation of bathymetry file is the most important task and usually also the most time-consuming. In the models, topography is schematized in the grid of nodal points, which can be either regular, or irregular. Each nodal point is defined by the (x,y,z) coordinates, z being either the altitude, or the depth of given point below the selected reference level. Import of a GIS files or ASCII files in the specific prescribed formats is usually possible. This group of data is the most important from the viewpoint of model setup. It significantly influences the results of modelling. Based at the selected type, the form of input topographical data differs. In the 1-D models, river system is schematized by the network of cross-sections, which cover both the river channel and the floodplains. In 2-D models, topography of the model area is schematized in the mesh of computational points, which can be either regular or irregular.

2.4.2 Data, describing the roughness conditions

Roughness is the parameter, which significantly influences simulation results. It has to be specified in every nodal point of computational grid (matrix file of roughness values). Overall values of roughness can be derived from the measurements of water levels in the model area under different discharge conditions in the past. In the case of large model area, the estimate of roughness can be based at the aerial photos. From them, it is possible to identify different types of vegetation and land use, which also differ in the roughness values. In the literature, one can find a lot of recommendations for the selection of resistance value. The Manning roughness coefficient is used in the models. It is also possible to use constant value of roughness in the whole model area. Such an approach is applicable in the areas of uniform bed or land cover, like reservoirs and also for the first rough estimates. Roughness values are usually used as a calibration parameter. Comparing with the terrain altitude, roughness cannot be measured exactly. Anyway, there exist recommendations, what values should be used for a different conditions, based at river bed substrate, type of vegetation, land use.

2.4.3 Hydrological data

The hydrological data will be used for the overall evaluation of the model area from the hydrological viewpoint, calibration and validation purposes and last, but not least for the definition of scenarios, which will be computed**.**

2.4.4 Wind data

The wind conditions can be specified in a different ways. The basic wind parameters are wind direction and wind magnitude. They can be included in the calculation as either constant or varying in time and space. Wind can play important role in the large reservoirs or extensive flat lowland areas.

2.4.5 Boundary data

The open boundaries indicate the places of water inflow or outflow to/from the model area. As the unknown variables are water surface elevation and flux densities in the x- and y- directions, the user has to specify two of these three variables in all grid points along the open boundaries at each time step. In most cases, user knows the water surface elevation or the total flow through the boundary, possibly also the flow direction. Both water level and discharge at the boundary can be specified as either constant (steady flow) or time varying (unsteady flow). In the case of unsteady flow, boundaries are given in the form of time series. The direction of flow through the boundaries should be perpendicular to them, but it is also possible to specify flow direction individually.

2.4.6 Calibration and validation data

In the process of calibration and validation, the basic results of computer simulations (water level, discharge hydrograph, flow velocity) are compared with the data, which have been recorded, or observed „in-situ“ – in the past real situations.

2.5 Theoretical background of 1-D and 2-D Hydrodynamic modelling

Based on objectives of the research, both 1D and 2D modelling approaches will be used for the purpose of building the coupled model. The aim of the chapter is to discuss the theoretical bases both on 1D and 2D modelling approaches, their main features, data requirements and limitations and available urban drainage modelling software.

2.5.1 1-D Hydrodynamic modelling

According to (Borsányi, 1998), "fluid is modelled on the base of cross sectional calculations, the cross sections are divided by vertical lines or into cells", and in these units each hydrological parameter is assumed to be uniform. The theory of 1-D hydrological modelling is based on the following assumptions:

- The water is incompressible and homogeneous; i.e. without significant variation in density.
- The bottom slope is small
- The water-lengths are large as compared to water-depths. This ensures that the flow everywhere can be regarded as having a direction parallel to the bottom i.e. vertical acceleration can be neglected and hydrostatic pressure variation along the vertical can be assumed.

In many applications, rivers, streams or canals are modelled as 1-D full hydrodynamic systems since in a river or stream flow direction can be well defined to a linear network.

The basic equations for 1-D hydrodynamic modelling are derived considering conservation of mass (Continuity equation) and momentum. Considering the hydraulic resistance and lateral inflow, the equations can be written as:

Continuity:

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} = q \quad \text{.......(1)}$$

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{\alpha Q^2}{A}\right) + gA\frac{\partial h}{\partial x} - gA(S_0 - S_f) = 0 \quad \text{.......(2)}$$

$$S_f = \frac{n^2 Q^2}{A^2 R^{4/3}} \quad \text{.......(3)}$$

Where **Q** is Discharge (m^3/s), **A** is Flow area (m^2), **q** is Lateral inflow (m^2/s), **α** is Velocity distribution coefficient, **x** is Distance in the flow direction (m), **t** is time (s), **g** is Acceleration due to gravity (m/s^2), **h** is water depth (m), $\mathbf{S_0}$ is Bottom slope, $\mathbf{S_f}$ is friction (energy) slope and **n** is manning's coefficient.

To set up a 1-D hydrodynamic model, the typical data requirements can be divided into two categories that are boundary conditions and topographic data. The required model boundary conditions to satisfy the boundary conditions of the 1-D model are the series discharges and water levels at upstream and downstream model boundaries respectively. Cross sections of the main River and floodplains are required to define the topographic set up of the model. The 1-D model output consists of water level and discharges at each cross sections which can only be obtained at a point where cross section information is available.

Among the several 1-D hydrodynamic models available today widely used models are:

2.5.1.1 MOUSE (1D)

The MOUSE software was developed by the Danish Institute of Water and Environment (DHI). It is an advanced and comprehensive software package, used for surface runoff, open channel flow, pipe flow, water quality and sediment transport modeling for urban drainage systems, storm water and sanitary sewers. The software provides powerful facilities to solve water quantity and quality problems in urban catchments by running one model, or combing several submodels *(*Rainfall-Runoff, Hydrodynamic (HD), Water Quality process (WQ) and Sedimentation Transportation (ST), (DHI, 2008). The computation is based on an implicit, finite difference numerical solution of the basic 1D, free surface flow equations (Saint Venant). Free surface and pressurized flows are computed within the same algorithm using preissman scheme. Three types of surface runoff computation are included in the MOUSE surface runoff module i.e. Time Area Model, Kinematic wave Model and Linear Reservoir Model. All these models are integrated using an easy-to- use GUI-GIS application

2.5.1.2 The Storm Water Management Model (SWMM).

SWMM was developed by a consortium of American engineers for the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). It is a comprehensive water quantity and quality simulation (1D) model developed primarily for urban areas. It is used in the United State for the design of stormwater drainage systems and has been incorporated in regional water quality management planning. The model takes the rainfall and catchment characteristics, determines quantity and quality of runoff, routes the runoff through a combined or separate sewer system and identifies the effluent impact on receiving waters. Single-event and continuous simulation can be performed for almost all components of the rainfall, runoff, and quality cycles for a watershed. The Extra block of WMM also includes complete dynamic flow routing for hydraulic simulation of dynamic backwater conditions, looped drainage networks, surcharging, etc. Thus, it is a mathematical model capable of representing urban storm runoff including sewage storage and treatment and combined sewer overflow phenomenon (Hubor. Wayne C and Dickinson. Robert E, 1992)**.** Public domain source code could be available

2.5.1.3 Sewer CAD

SewerCAD is a powerful design and analysis tool that allows to layout a collection system, develop and compute sanitary loads, and simulate the hydraulic response of the entire system. It is used to design, analyze, and plan wastewater collection systems. Developed by Bentley (Bentley). It uses a gradually varied, standard-step algorithm. For a dynamic engine that solves the full Saint Venant equations for solving sub-critical, critical, supercritical conditions, and complex composite profiles. It uses friction methods like Manning, Kutter, Darcy-Weisbach, and Hazen-Williams, and calculates structure head loss with a variety of methods including FHWA HEC-22 and AASHTO. SewerCAD can be used to model both pressurized force mains and gravity hydraulics with ease, by using steady-state analysis with various standard peaking factors and extended-period simulations.

2.5.1.4 Info-Works CS (Hydro Works).

The model is 1D using the preissman 4-point scheme to approximate the Saint venant equations. The package consists of a single environment that integrates hydraulic modeling with comprehensive data management and links to GIS systems. It can analyse both steep and flat sewers or open channels. The model also deals with subcritical flow and wet-dry conditions.

2.5.1.5 MIKE 11.

MIKE 11 is a 1-D hydrodynamic modelling tool developed by DHI group in Denmark (DHI Group) for simulating flow and water level, water quality and sediment transport in rivers, flood plains, irrigation canals, reservoirs and other inland water bodies. It is an implicit finite difference model for one-dimension unsteady flow computation. The model has been designed to perform detailed modelling of rivers, including special treatment of floodplains, road overtopping, culvert, gate openings and weirs. An add-on geographic information systems (GIS) model provides an interface for display of river modelling results for floodplain management.

Hydrodynamic model operates on the basis of information about the river and floodplain topography, including man-made flood control measures as embankments, dredging scheme and flood retention basins.

MIKE 11 is capable of using kinematic, diffusion or fully dynamic, vertically integrated mass and momentum equations (The Saint Venant equations). The solution of continuity and momentum equations is based on the implicit finite difference scheme, which structured to be independent of the wave description specified (i.e. Kinematic, Diffusive or dynamic) (Ahmad and Simonovic, 1999). The complete non-linear equations of open channel flow (Saint. Venant) are solved numerically between all grid points at specified - and adaptive - time intervals for given boundary conditions.

The typical data requirements to set up a 1-D hydrodynamic model can be divided into two categories: Boundary conditions and topographic data. Series of discharges and water levels at upstream and downstream model boundaries are required to satisfy the boundary conditions of the model while Cross sections of the main channel and flood plains are required to define the topographic setup of the model (Ahmad and Simonovic, 1999). The model output consists of water level and discharge at each cross-section.

2.5.2 2-D Hydrodynamic modelling

2D model are capable of providing information not only regarding the inundation depth and spatial distribution but also the variation of flood extent and flow velocities over a user-defined time frame(K.P.M.Tennakoon, 2004). The following basic equations for conservation of mass and momentum are used to describe the flow and water level variations in two-dimensional models:

Continuity: $\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial p}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial q}{\partial y}=0$ ....(4)

Momentum in x-direction

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{p^2}{h}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{pq}{h}\right)+gh\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial x}+\frac{gp\sqrt{p^2+q^2}}{C^2h^2}-\frac{1}{\rho_w}\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(h\tau_{xx})+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(h\tau_{xy})\right]-\Omega q$$

$$-fvv_x+\frac{h}{\rho w}\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(p_a)=0 \text{ ....(5)}$$

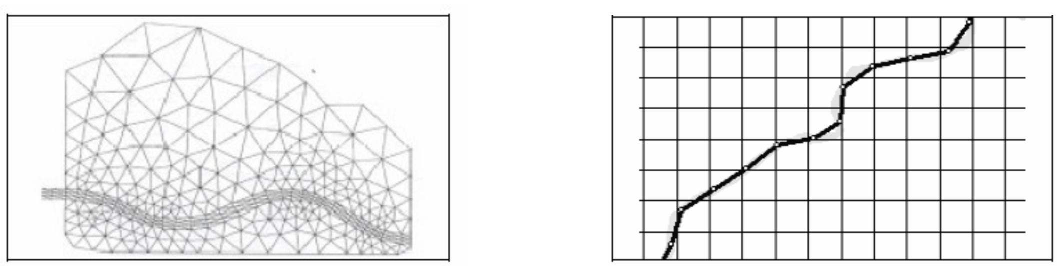
Momentum in y-direction

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{q^2}{h}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{pq}{h}\right)+gh\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial y}+\frac{gq\sqrt{p^2+q^2}}{C^2h^2}-\frac{1}{\rho_w}\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(h\tau_{yy}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(h\tau_{xy}\right)\right]-\Omega p$$

$$-fvv_y+\frac{h}{\rho w}\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(p_a\right)=0 \quad \text{...(6)}$$

Where:
h(x,y,t) is water depth(m), **ζ(x,y,t)** is surface elevation, **p,q,(x,y,t)** are flux densities in x and y-directions ($m^3/s/s$) =(uh,vh); (u,v) = depth averaged velocities in x- and y-directions, **c(x,y)** is Chezy resitance ($m^{1/2}/s$), **g** is acceleration due to gravity (m^2/s), **f(v)** is wind friction factor, **Ω(x,y)** is Coriolis parameter, latitude dependent (s^{-1}), $\mathbf{p_a}$**(x,y,t)** is atmospheric pressure ($kg/m/s^2$), $\boldsymbol{\rho_w}$ is density of water (kg/m^3), **x,y** is space coordinates (m), **t** is time(s), $\boldsymbol{\tau_{xx}}$, $\boldsymbol{\tau_{xy}}$, $\boldsymbol{\tau_{yy}}$ is components of effective shear stress, V, $\mathbf{V_x}$, $\mathbf{V_y}$ **(x,y,t)** is wind speed and components in x- and y-directions (m/s).
In 2-D modelling, equations of continuity and momentum are written in two dimensions and results are calculated at each grid point in the solution domain. Thus only a fine resolution (dx) can be used that makes computing slow and hence requires a lot of computer memory.

There are two approaches in modelling flood plain in 2D model. These could be as rectangular grids format or a triangular mesh structure (Figure 6). In the triangular representation, each cell is built out triangles having different sizes. Accurate of the result representation is achieved by higher the concentration of triangles. In rectangular (raster) based approach, cells are identical all over the model.



Triangular mesh structure   Rectangular grid structure

Figure 6: Approaches to model the flood plain
(Adopted from (K.P.M.Tennakoon, 2004))

The main advantage of using the 2-D approach is that, it provides information on variable discharges and velocities in both x- and y-directions at each grid point at each computational The computation of velocity profiles in two dimensions allows the accurate representation of flood wave propagation and better prediction of effects of river training, scouring and sediment transport processes. Contrary to quasi-2-D approach in full two-dimensional modelling, the path followed by flood wave is computed from the topographic information. Thus the 2-D modelling approach provides correct description of flood wave propagation over floodplain.

The most important data required for 2-D modelling of a river system is accurate description of topography and bathymetry of river and floodplains. Prediction of water levels depends heavily on accurate representation of floodplain. Other necessary data can be divided into three groups (Ahmad and Simonovic, 1999) i.e. basic model parameters, calibration parameters and boundary conditions. Basic model parameters includes with model grid cells and extent, time step and length of simulation and type of output required and its frequency. The required parameters for calibration are bed resistance and wind friction factors. Hydrographic boundary conditions can be specified as a constant or variable (in time and space) level or flux at each open model boundary, as constant or variable source or sink anywhere within the model, and as initial free surface level map applied over the entire model.

The basic output of the 2-D Model is water surface elevation and flux densities in x-and y-directions. The derived output includes water particle velocity and flow direction, and the output results are computed at each grid point for each time step.

In very large basins, 1-D approach was a preferred choice for modelling floods; this is was due to significant requirements of topographic data and computational time for 2-D modelling. However, with advances in topographic data acquisition and processing techniques and advancement in parallel computing, 2-D modelling applications are increasing in river environment(Ahmad and Simonovic, 1999).

Among the several 2-D hydrodynamic models available today widely used models are:

2.5.2.1 RMA 2

RMA2 is a two-dimensional depth averaged finite element hydrodynamic numerical model developed by Norton, King and Orlob (1973)(GMS/WMS/SMS Group), It computes water surface elevations and horizontal velocity components for subcritical, free-surface flow in two-dimensional flow fields. RMA2 computes a finite element solution of the Reynolds form of the Navier-Stokes equations for turbulent flows. Friction is calculated with the Manning's or Chezy equation, and eddy viscosity coefficients are used to define turbulence characteristics. Both steady and unsteady state (dynamic) problems can be analyzed using RMA2.

2.5.2.2 Delft-FLS.

Delft-FLS is specially suited to simulate the two dimensional dynamic behavior of overland flow over initially dry land, the influence of existing or future infrastructure on the flow pattern, as well as flooding and drying processes on every kind of geometry, in lowland and mountain areas. Delft-FLS is based on the finite differences method applied to a rectangular grid. It used very robust numerical scheme, known as the Delft or Stelling scheme which makes possible the simulation of both supercritical and subcritical flow, as well as flooding and drying without the use special procedures.

2.5.2.3 SOBEK-Urban

SOBEK-Urban is a comprehensive tool for a simple and complex urban drainage system. It consists of sewers and open channels. It can model the rainfall runoff process for various types of paved and unpaved areas. This model can also model street flow.
For hydrodynamic module, SOBEK-Urban used the complete Saint Venant equation including backwater and transient flow phenomena. Hydraulics structure can be specified virtually in the model to see its performance so that the urban drainage can be improved. The Real Time Control module allows the system to react optimally to water level, discharges and rainfall anywhere in the sewer system or its environment. The output can be superimpose over a GIS or Aerial Photo map of the area so sewer pipes, manholes, canals weirs and pumping stations can be seen at a glance. It also has animation option. This software is conforms to strict Dutch guideline for sewerage

calculation.
SOBEK-Urban consists of three modules:

- Hydrology
- Hydrodynamics
- Real Time Control

The SOBEK flow software is also a 1D-2D integrated model consisting with 1D and Delft FLS as 2D. It solves the Saint Venant flow equations and fully 2D shallow water equations in an implicit way using finite differences. It works for super and sub-critical flow and also it is capable to deal the wetting and drying areas.

2.5.2.4 RisUrSim(1D-2D).

The dual drainage model RisUrSim has been developed in order to meet the requirements of simulating urban flooding, focueing on the occurrence of distinct surface flow and its possible interaction with the surcharged sewer system(Theo G. Schmitta and Martin Thomasa and Norman Ettrich, 2004). It uses a 1D fully hydrodynamic model (dynamic sewer flow routing-HamokaRis) and a 2D model (RisoSurf) that solves the shallow water equations (Navier-Stokes equations) neglecting the inertia terms. Both models are coupled through the manholes and catch pits. The model was developed by ITWM (www.itwm.fhg.de).

2.5.2.5 MIKE 21.

MIKE 21 is a comprehensive modeling software for 2-D free surface flows, also developed by Danish Hydraulic Institute Water & Environment (DHI Group). It can be used for the simulation of hydraulic and related phenomena in rivers, lakes, estuaries, and coastal areas where stratification can be neglected. It can be used to simulate a wide range of hydraulic and related items, including tidal hydraulics, wind and wave generated currents, storm surges, dam break, water quality and flood waves. MIKE 21 is well suited for detailed analysis, design and management of flooding behaviour where a description of the 2D flow structure of rivers, lakes and their floodplains is required. This application have been tried to extend to urban areas where sometimes-2D flow description is required.

In MIKE 21, the hydrodynamic (HD) module is the basic computational module. The hydrodynamic module simulates water level variations and flows in response to a variety of forcing functions. The water levels and flows are resolved on a rectangular grid covering the area of interest when provided with the bathymetry, bed resistance coefficients, wind field and hydrographic boundary conditions. The software is capable to model the wide range of conditions likely to be encountered in urban areas like flooding and drainage of streets, parks, depressions, etc.

The modeling system solves the fully time-dependent non-linear equations of continuity and conservation of momentum. The solution is obtained using an Alternating Direction implicit (ADI) finite difference scheme of second - order accuracy. It simulates unsteady, two-dimensional flows in one layer (vertically homogeneous) fluids. MIKE 21 HD is based on the numerical finite difference solution of full nonlinear equations of conservation of mass and momentum integrated over the vertical to describe flow and water level variations. The application of the implicit finite difference scheme results in a tridiagonal system of equations for each grid line in the model. The solution is obtained by inverting the tridiagonal matrix using the Double Sweep algorithms, a fast and accurate form of Gauss elimination.

Data required for the development of a MIKE 21 model include:

Topographic data – Topographic data in x,y,z format to known horizontal and vertical references is required. The data should be collected at a resolution fine enough to describe urban features such as the buildings, streets, positions of divider and pavement and elevated roads. If the model is to simulate flooding in an urban environment, the location and footprint of buildings in the floodplain will also be required.

Boundary Data – Time series of flow or water level for the upstream and downstream boundaries of the area of interest. These data may be result of any suitable rainfall runoff model or constant discharge or otherwise depending on perception of flooding in the area or perhaps be extracted from a broader scale, one-dimensional model.

Roughness Coefficients – a value of roughness for the modelled area will be required. Roughness coefficients may be entered as a global value adopted for the whole model area, or a map of roughness coefficients varying for different streets reaches and floodplain areas may be developed and used. Variations of model roughness coefficient will form the basis of model testing regime in this study.

Structure Data – If the chosen model grid resolution is fine enough, hydraulic structures such as culverts and bridge piers may be represented with model grid elements. If a coarser grid size is used, the flow between grid points may be controlled by a stage/structure flow area curve similar to those commonly used in one-dimensional models. The equations for the conservation of mass and momentum integrated over the vertical to describe the flow and water level variations are as described in equations 4, 5 and 6 under section 2.5.2.

2.5.2.5.1 MIKE 21 model output

MIKE 21 HD provides output as time varying maps of water surface level and water flux in two dimensions (x-and y-directions) with scale values defined on the model grid specified by the user. MIKE 21 HD utilizes the MIKE Zero Graphical User Interface, which allows graphical interpretation of the model results. In addition data viewer in MIKE Zero can be used to view the data like velocities in both directions, speed, depth of flow and time series at a point in the model can be obtained..

2.5.2.6 MIKE FLOOD

MIKE FLOOD also developed by Danish Hydraulic Institute Water & Environment (DHI Group) is a tool that integrates the 1D-models MIKE 11/MIKE URBAN and the 2D-model MIKE 21 into a single, dynamically coupled modelling system. The coupled approach enables that best features of both 1D model and 2D model can be utilized, while at the same time avoiding many of the limitations of resolution and accuracy encountered when using MIKE 11, MIKE URBAN (MOUSE engine) or MIKE 21 separately.

Special features of MIKE FLOOD include:

- Momentum preservation through links,

- Lateral links, enabling simulation of over bank flow from river channel to flood plain,
- Comprehensive hydraulic structure package,
- Implicit structure links,
- Manhole links whereby the interaction of the sewer/storm system may interact with the overland flow,
- GIS integration,
- Links possible along any alignment in MIKE 21 (not just horizontally or vertically),
- A graphical user interface standard (MIKE ZERO), allowing easy data input and output as well as data preparation and analysis,
- A thorough on-line help system, user manual and technical reference documentation and
- Support and continuing commitment from DHI Water and Environment.

MIKEFLOOD has many advantages and many model applications can be improved through its use, including: Floodplain applications, storm surge studies, urban drainage, dam break, hydraulic design of structures and broad scale estuarine applications.

By combining the three systems available under MIKE FLOOD (MIKE 11, MIKE URBAN and MIKE 21), the modeler can choose the best features of each and make the best model with these features. MIKE FLOOD enables this integration to be performed easily, but it is still the modeler who decides how to design the integrated model.

2.5.2.6.1 General description of MIKE FLOOD

There are five different types of linkage available within MIKE FLOOD. Four of these link MIKE 11 and MIKE 21whereas the last one is reserved for linking a node/manhole in MIKE URBAN with one or more cells/elements in MIKE 21.

2.5.2.6.1.1 Standard Link

This is the standard linkage in MIKE FLOOD, where one or more MIKE 21 cells are linked to the end of a MIKE 11 branch. This type of link is useful for connecting a detailed MIKE 21 grid into a broader MIKE 11 network, or to connect an internal structure (with an extent of more than a grid cell) or feature inside a MIKE 21 grid. The Potential applications are shown on Figure 7.

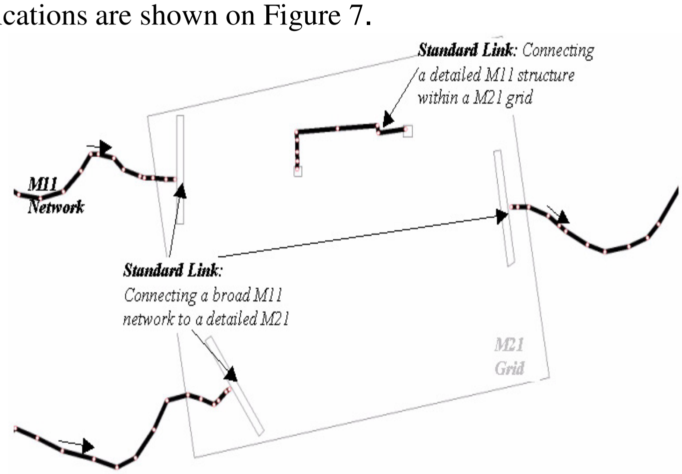


Figure 7: Application of Standard Links

2.5.2.6.1.2 Lateral Link

A lateral link allows a string of MIKE 21 cells to be laterally linked to a given reach in MIKE 11, either a section of a branch or an entire branch. Flow through the lateral link is calculated using a structure equation or a QH table. This type of link is particularly useful for simulating overflow from a river channel onto a flood plain, where flow over the river levee is calculated using a weir equation. An example is shown on Figure 8.

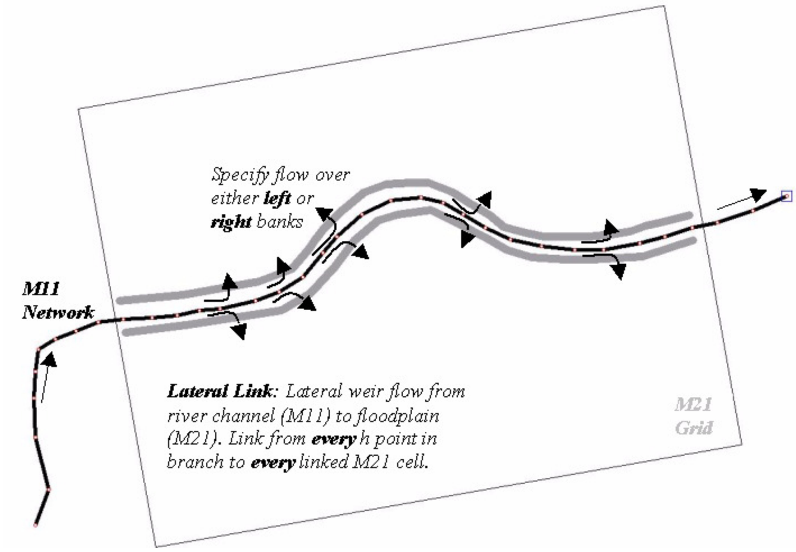


Figure 8: Application of Lateral Links

2.5.2.6.1.3 Structural Link

The structure link takes the flow terms from a structure in MIKE 11 and inserts them directly into the momentum equations of MIKE 21. This is fully implicit, so should not affect time step considerations in MIKE 21.
The structure link is useful for simulating structures within a MIKE 21 model. The link consists of a 3 point MIKE 11 branch (upstream cross- section, structure, downstream cross-section), the flow terms of which are applied to a MIKE 21 cell or group of cells. An example is shown on Figure 9.

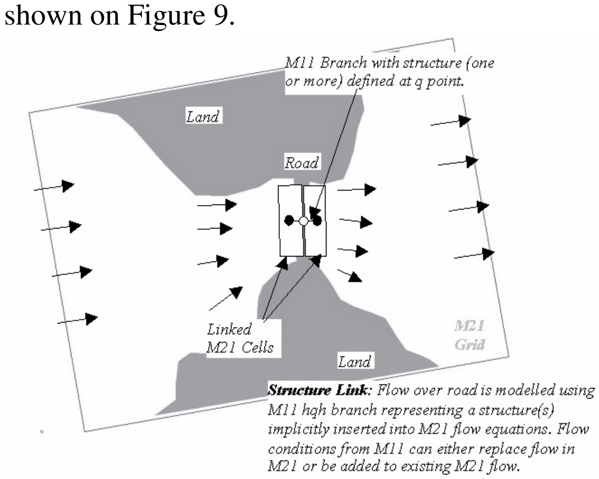


Figure 9: Application of Structural Links

2.5.2.6.1.4 Urban Link

The urban link is designed to describe the interaction of water when the manhole is over topped (Figure 10) or when overland flow enters the sewer/storm water network (Figure11).

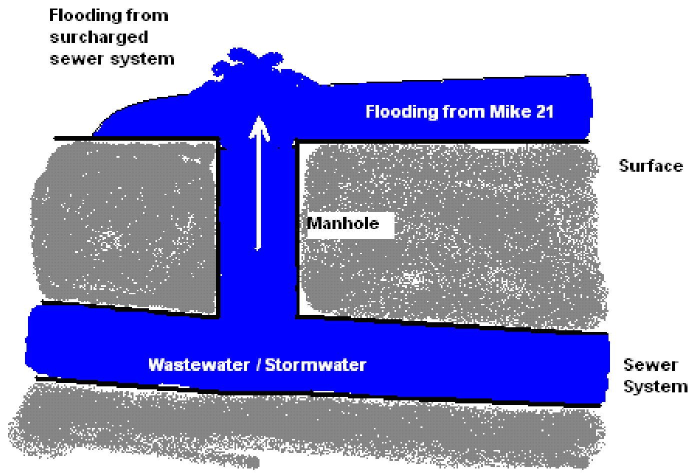


Figure 10: Flooding from a surcharged sewer system into MIKE 21

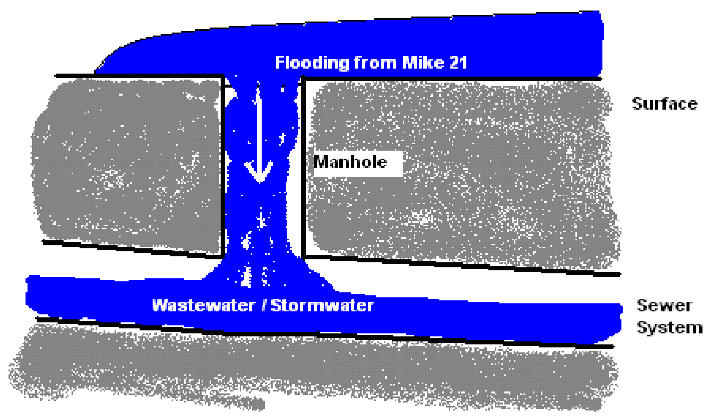


Figure 11: Flooding from MIKE 21 into a non-surcharged sewer system

The link is designed such that one or more cells in MIKE 21 may be linked to a manhole/node in MOUSE/MIKE URBAN.

2.5.2.6.1.5 Zero Flow Link (X and Y)

A MIKE 21 cell specified as a zero flow link in the x direction will have zero flow passing across the right side of the cell. Similarly, a zero flow link in the y direction will have zero flow passing across the top of the cell. The zero flow links were developed to complement the lateral flow links. To ensure that floodplain flow in MIKE 21 does not travel directly across a river to the opposite side of the floodplain without passing through MIKE 11, zero flow links are inserted to block MIKE 21 flows. An alter-native to using the zero flow links is to apply land cells which, depending upon grid resolution may not be appropriate.

Another useful application of zero flow links is to represent narrow block- ages on a flood plain, such as roads and levees. Rather than using a string of land cells, a string of zero flow cells can be used. It will be noted that, this link is only available when linking to MIKE 11.

2.6 Model Selection

Due to hydrological and hydraulic uncertainties in flood modelling, estimation of the extent of floodplain inundation has been, and will continue to be a challenging issue. In order to identify areas subjected to flooding, urban flood modeling techniques are proven to be useful. These models provide the basis on flood management and control and further as means for solving engineering problems.

The choice of a suitable model for flood simulation depends on the purpose of the overall project and the problem to be solved. For example, in river flood modeling, if a building is being built on the flood plain such that the building will not significantly affect the flooding characteristics of the river, but it will be sensitive to flooding, the authority may be concerned with the peak water level at the construction site and also in how long the flood will be above a certain level, here the shape of the stage hydrograph will be interested (Kazi Emran Bashar, 2005). Also the quality and amount of data including with geometry of the channel and floodplain, terrain models (DTM and DEM), magnitude and variation of the width of the floodplain along the channel are important factors to be considered in the choice of a simulation model.

In this research, the coupled 1D-2D modeling approach was used. The modeling software used consists of MIKE 11 model as 1D free surface flow model for stormwater channel modelling and MIKE 21 as 2D free surface flow model for floodplain modelling and MIKE FLOD for coupling MIKE 11 and MIKE 21 models.

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Approach

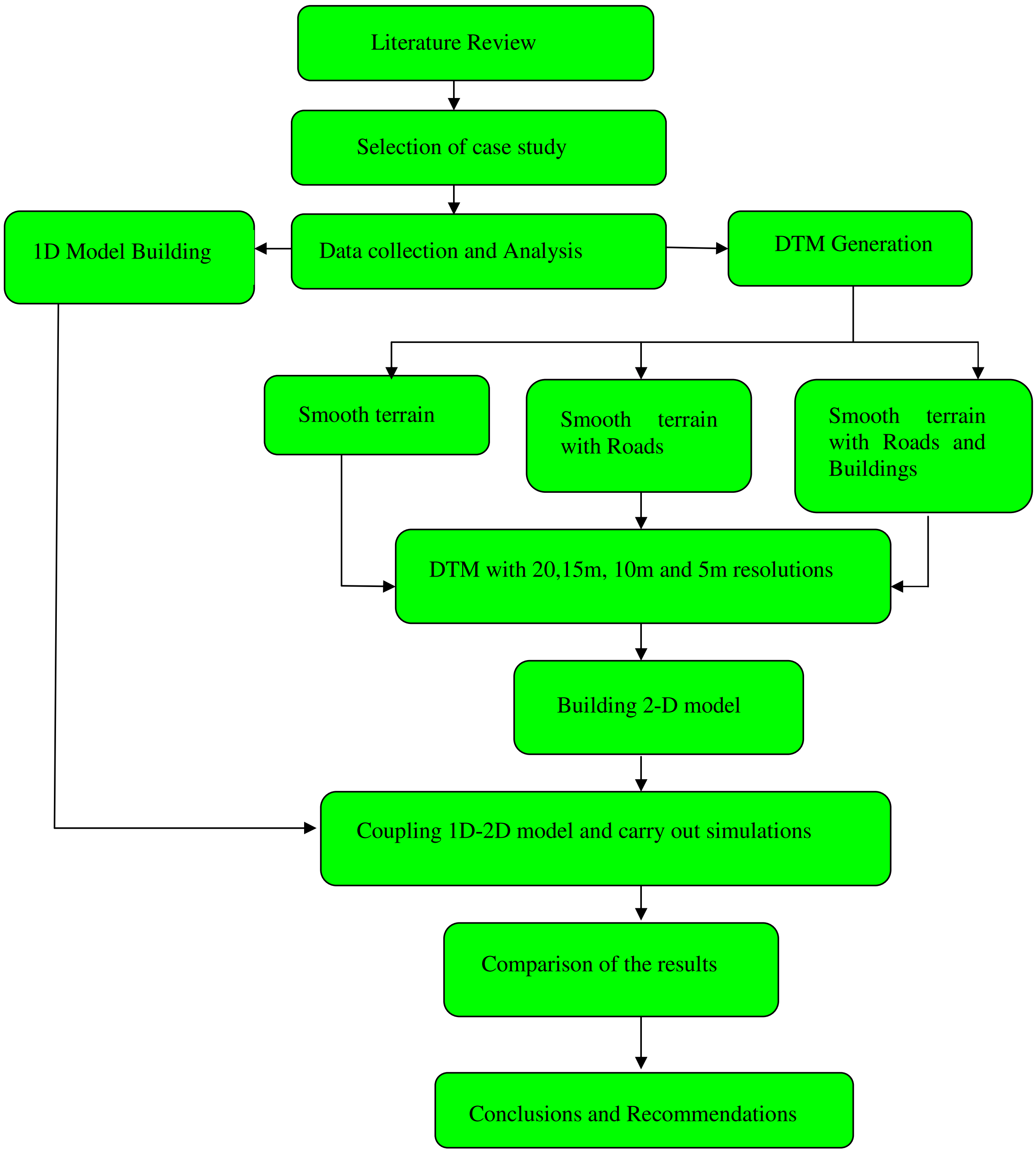


Figure 12: The flow chart of methodology applied in this Research

3.1.1 Selection of Case Study area.

Based on data availability, the study area of this research was chosen to be from St.Maarten N.A. The Cul De Sac catchment area (Figure 13) was used to carry out the research work. Details of the study area refer to section 3.3

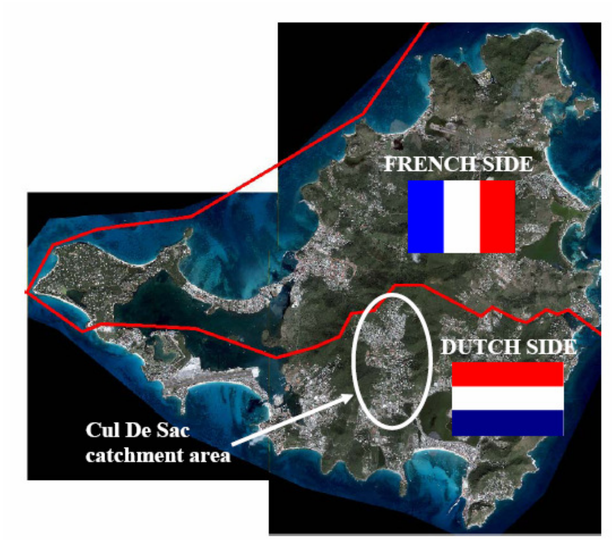


Figure 13: The Cul De Sac catchment area
(Adopted from (Tutulic', 2007))

3.1.2 Data Collection and Analysis

Fieldwork is very important for every project for the purpose of collecting essential data for the study. This helps to understanding the existing conditions and to collect the considerable data for model. Those data is based on the selected tools to be used in the study and expected output. In this study, the data available from UNESCO-IHE is St. Maarten project included: contour maps/terrain data, road network shape file map, building shape file map, stormwater channel network, rainfall (rainfall event with intensity of 150mm/hour) was used.

3.1.3 1D model Building

Building of 1D model was done using the existing cross sectional and chainage data (Tutulic', 2007) using MIKE 11 modelling systems. The computational points from existing MIKE11 network was opened into Microsoft Office excel and saved as DBF IV format (*.dbf). These points were then added into ArcGIS and by right hand click the, the X, Y data was specified. To get the elevation of the computational points based on the prepared Digital Terrain Models with resolutions 5m, 10m,15m and 20m, the existing computational network points was extracted using ArcGIS toolbox/ Spatial Analyst tools/Extraction/ Extract the values to the points. All other parameters such as boundary data (hydrographs), rainfall runoff parameters and hydrodynamic parameters were used as from the previous study. Only the cross sections were changed to V-shapes for research purposes. The same depth of the network was used for all Digital Terrain models in order to retain the same capacity of the channel network.

3.1.4 Terrain model Building

A Digital terrain model (DTM) is a crucial starting point for building a 2D hydrodynamic model. The technology such as Airborne Laser Scanning (ALS) or Light Detection and ranging (RIDAR) is used in providing a comprehensive topographic coverage of entire floodplain areas in an accurate and economic manner. In order to provide a good spatial framework a sufficiently fine resolution of the data is required to compensate for a course resolution of the hydrodynamic model (Tutulic', 2007). In this study, the following 12 DTMs were developed:

- DTM with resolutions (grid scale of 5m, 10m, 15m and 20m) for smooth land surface with hydraulic roughness coefficients (Manning's number 20 and 30).
- DTM with resolutions (grid scale of 5m, 10m, 15m and 20m) for land surface with road network with hydraulic roughness coefficients (Manning's number 20 and 30).
- DTM with different resolutions (grid scale of 5m, 10m, 15m and 20m) for land surface with road network and buildings with hydraulic roughness coefficients (Manning's number 20 and 30).

Table 2: Summary of models developed in this study

Model	Geometry	Resolution	Manning's Number
5	Smooth land surface only	5m x 5m	20
			30
10	Smooth land surface only	10 x 10m	20
			30
15	Smooth land surface only	15m x 15m	20
			30
20	Smooth land surface only	20m x 20m	20
			30
5a	Land surface with Road network	5m x 5m	20
			30
10a	Land surface with Road network	10m x 10m	20
			30
15a	Land surface with Road network	15m x 15m	20
			30
20a	Land surface with Road network	20m x 20m	20
			30
5b	Land surface with Road + buildings	5m x 5m	20
			30
10b	Land surface with Road + buildings	10m x 10m	20
			30
15b	Land surface with Road + buildings	15m x 15m	20
			30
20b	Land surface with Road + buildings	20m x 20m	20
			30

3.1.5 Building 2D model

This was done by preparing the bathymetry using ascii file prepared in ArcMap. The ascii files was prepared by converting the Digital Terrain models prepared under 3.1.4 into ascii file using conversion tools found in ArcGIS. Different bathymetry with digital terrain model resolutions of 5m, 10m, 15m and 20m was prepared in different geometries, i.e., land with smooth surface only, land with smooth surface plus roads and land with smooth surface, roads and buildings. After getting the bathymetry, the MIKE 21 flow model was then prepared keeping all basic parameters and hydrodynamic parameters as in the previous studies except the roughness coefficient in hydrodynamic parameters. Based on research objectives, two values of roughness coefficient (Manning's number) of 20 and 30 were used in the model.

3.1.6 Building the coupled 1D-2D Model

After building the 1D and 2D models using MIKE11 and MIKE21 software respectively, the coupled 1D-2D model was then prepared in MIKE FLOOD software. This was done by linking a 1D open channel drainage network (MIKE11) and 2D surface (MIKE21). The lateral link option was used for coupling MIKE11 and MIKE21

3.1.7 Carrying out simulations

After building the coupled MIKE FLOOD, the simulation for Digital Terrain Models was carried out using a rainfall event of 150mm/hour intensity. In terms of the 2D model parameters the roughness coefficient (Manning's number) of 20 and 30 was used.

3.1.8 Simulation result analysis

The model simulation outputs including the peak discharge, water level and velocity maps were analysed and compared between different scenarios.

3.1.9 Conclusions and recommendations

Further to the analysis of the results, conclusion and recommendations were drawn and outlined at the end of this thesis.

3.2 Tools used.

In order to carryout the research and to meet the intended objective, the following tools were used: Arcmap, MIKE11, MIKE21, MIKEFLOOD and waterRIDE.

3.2.1 ArcMap

ArcMap is the ArcGIS tool used to create and visualize various types of geographic data, including maps and map features (West Virginia GLOBE. West Virginia View). ArcMap is the application used to view and edit geographic data, query spatial data to find and understand relationships among geographic features, and create professional quality maps, graphs, and reports. It allows users to create and interact with maps. A map is the fundamental component to work with in ArcMap. Maps help to visualize geographic data by showing where things are and what they look like(Michelle Zeiders, 2002). ArcMap is the product of ESRI and it represents the most application for desktop geographic information systems (GIS) and mapping. ArcMap is also used to resolve basic geographic questions of location, size, juxtaposition, and can even answer "WHAT IF?" "How much...?" and "Where is...?" questions - geographic modeling scenarios.

3.2.2 waterRIDE Software Package

waterRIDE is an acronym for Water Resources Integrated Development Environment. The software was developed by Patterson Britton & Partners Pty Ltd Company from Sydney, Australia. It is a suite of software components for creating tools to serve GIS functionality and connectivity to traditional water resource applications.

The GIS functionality includes a basic engine for displaying, zooming, panning map layers and extracting spatial data from them. The connectivity provides a means of integrating water resource datasets, such as flood modelling results with GIS layers, where the water resource datasets are mapped to a spatial framework and can include time varying data suitable for animation. In this manner, complex water resource investigation results can be visualized in a controlled graphical display, and integrated and connected to geographical information system data such as cadastre. Information from the water resources domain can be converted back to the GIS data files for further analysis and distribution with corporate GIS tools.

Two dimensional flood modelling packages typically generate complex and extensive data results that require a degree of interpretation before a wider distribution of planning and end implementation. waterRIDE provides the user with a rich suite of tools to creatively display and investigate typical results for a variety of different possible scenarios. Once meaningful displays have been appropriately interpreted and created, they can be distributed to the end user (communities) in a package that facilitates ease of use and access, whilst protecting the data and inappropriate access to the sensitive information.

Three main types of files can be displayed in the main viewing window of the waterRIDE interface. These are:

• Georeferenced images - file types such as bitmaps (*.bmp files), JPEGs (*.jpg and *.jpeg files), and Enhanced Compressed Wavelet (*.ecw files), MrSID files (*.sid), and JPEG2000 files (*.jp2, j2k) with defined bottom-left coordinates and pixel size,

• GIS files - files from GIS packages such as ArcGIS (*.shp files) and MapInfo (*.mif/mid files) and

• Result data files - Depending on the specific waterRIDE application, various hydraulic model results can be displayed (such as: RMA, MIKE 21, MIKE 21, TUFLOW, SOBEK, DRAINS, ESTRY, HEC-RAS etc.). waterRIDE can read and display model output results in a specific file format. These files may be read natively or translated into the waterRIDE binary format (*.wrb). A description of the structure and format of .wrb files is provided in a separate document.

In addition to these spatially referenced data files, non-spatially referenced data including text (*.txt and *.rtf files), tables (*.csv files), photographs (*.bmp and *.jpg files), multimedia (*.avi and *.mpeg files), Microsoft Excel spreadsheets, (in fact, any OLE compatible file - a file that can be opened by "double clicking" in windows explorer) from external sources can be linked to objects in GIS files displayed by waterRIDE. These files can be displayed in a separate Links Display Window when certain objects in a GIS layer are selected with the mouse.

3.3 Description of the Case study

The research work was carried out using the data from St. Marten, N.A. St. Maarten is one of the five islands that form the Netherlands Antilles, which in turn is a part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. This Kingdom comprises of the Netherlands, Dutch Antilles, and Aruba. This unique island is located approximately 280 miles east of Puerto Rico, or 18.1 degrees north and 63.3 degrees west. St. Maarten is unique in that it shares the island with St Martin, a French dependency that occupies 21 square miles on the northern part of the island. The area comprises the Dutch side of the Island Territory having area of approximately 3380ha. The north and south side of the area is bonded by the French side of the island and the Caribbean Sea respectively (figure 14). For the past of 10 years St. Maarten has characterized with increase in both residential and commercial infrastructure that further led in increasing the covered surface areas which result in reduction of the rainfall infiltration into the ground.

Large areas of the island are steep with irregular geometry (figure 15) with elevation of the area, ranging from near sea level at the southern end to 380 m above mean sea level at the northern hilly part along the borderline. Overland flows converge towards the low-lying areas and the stormwater runoff is discharged at many locations. This is due to improper design of the channel. The drainage network in the area is mainly lined and natural channels, natural waterways and roads.

Figure 14: Location of St. Maarten Island.
(**Source:** http://www.worldatlas.com)

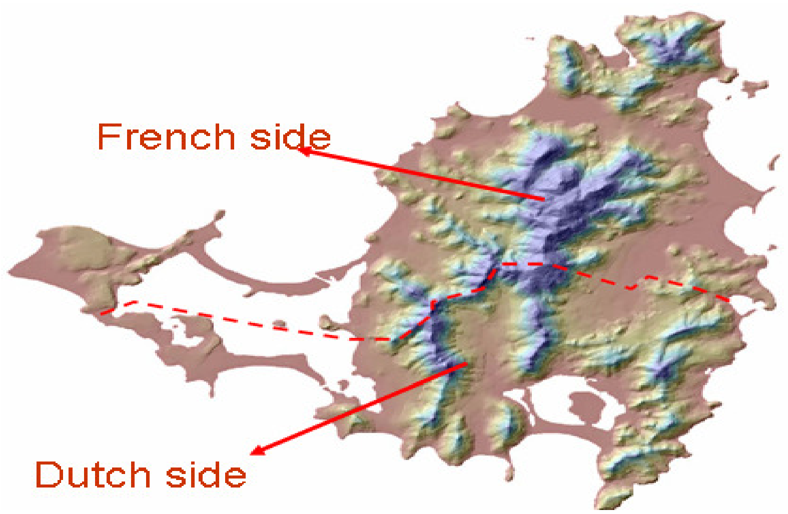


Figure 15: Topography of St. Maarten Island
(Adopted from Vojinovic, 2006)

The main Cul De Sac area, being surrounded by the mountains and relatively close to the sea shore, is subjected to orographic rainfall. It is a type of precipitation which occurs when an air-stream crosses a mountain barrier.

The Climate of St.Maarten is characterized by wet season over several months, heavy rainfalls exceeding 150mm/hr intensities and a higher mean temperature throughout the year; this is due to the area being in tropical climate. Urban environments on St. Maarten are situated on low-lying areas, with little consideration for stormwater drainage and as such they are subject to flash flooding from surrounding hills, or extreme rainfall events such as direct thunderstorms. The area is also characterized with short stormwater channels and they are inadequate to convey excess rainfall-runoff due to limited capacity, obstructions and morphological rising of the streambed.

Due to inadequate development control, the streets in residential area are almost as such the limiting factor for enlargement of storm water channels (Figures 16). The island of St.Maarten is frequently affected by flash flood (figure 17) caused by intensity of the subtropical rainfalls and mountainous morphology. The flooding in the area has becoming a serious problems not only in severe property and infrastructure damages but also with increasing incidence of injury and in the recent two people lost their lives (31st July 2005). The topography of the area is predominantly steep with irregular geometry.

Figure 16: One of the residential streets after the storm.

Figure 17: Flash flood occurred in 30th July 2005.

Most of the studies in the island of St. Maarten for urban flood modelling and flood management, so far, have been done using either 1D, 2D or coupled 1D-2D models. In order to describe the flood waves across the flood plains in the area (Tutulic', 2007) applied the flood plain modelling with 1D and 2D models. (Tutulic', 2007) has made an attempt to use a coupling of 1D-2D modelling approach whereby one dimensional open channel flow model was combined with two-dimensional model of flood plain and to compare the result with 1D model. The findings show that for steep terrain and highly urbanised area, a 1D-2D modelling approach can be sufficient to represent physics of the phenomena. In terms of the flat terrain (terrain topographies with no changes in elevation), the result obtained from 1D model and 1D-2D modelling approach do not show significant difference. One of the shortcomings of the previous study was that effects of model schematization with different DTM resolutions and different land use have not been assessed.

Therefore the present study covers mainly issues associated with schematisation, geometry and parameter values and their affects on simulation results. The DTM representation of the St.Maarten N.A case study is shown in figures 18

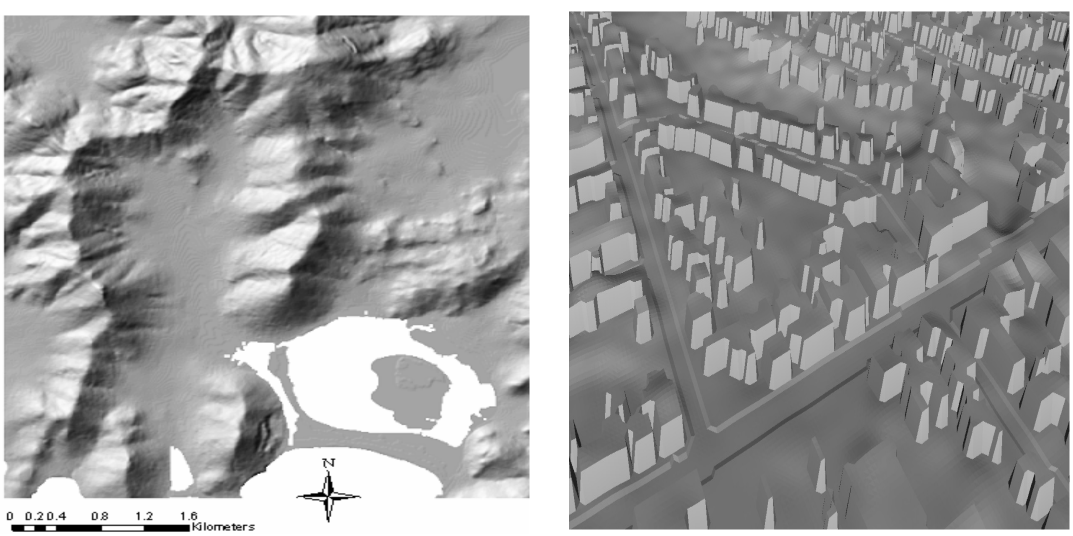


Figure 18: DTM representation for St.Maarten N.A. Case study.
Left: Land Surface only, Right: Land Surface, Roads and Buildings (Adopted from Vojinovic and Tutulic, 2007)

4 DTM GENERATION

4.1 Introduction

In the case of urban flood modelling with the use of a 2D surface model, the topography has to be very accurate represented to permit reproducing the natural flows as good as possible. When the flood affects any floodplain, an accurate topographic representation of the floodplain is needed, which is always provided in the form of Digital Terrain Model (DTM). One of the main problems is frequent land use changes in major cities, where frequent updating of the DTM for flood modelling might be needed. A DTM that includes surface features such as buildings is customarily referred to as Digital Elevation Model (DEM). Most widely used DTMs and DEMs for flood modelling applications are made of a collection of surface elevation values on a regular square grid (Sylvain NÉELZ and PENDER, 2007).

In urban area, features like roads, buildings, river banks and dykes have great effects on flow dynamics and flood propagation, and as such must be accounted for in the model set up. Overland flows are primarily conveys along the roads. Buildings and other structures changes the direction of flow. Accountability of urban features is possible by means of high resolution input data that relates to the systems topography as well as to the identified features. Society demands accurate and detailed information on magnitude and likeliness of hazardous flood events for design flood mitigation measures. Therefore in 2D modelling, accurate representation of buildings and roads within the Digital Terrain Model (DTM) is crucial. In this research, DTMs with natural (Smooth) surface, Smooth with Roads and Smooth with Roads and buildings was generated using ArcGIS Software for comparison purposes.

4.2 Data used for DTM generation

In this study the following shape files data was used to generate the DTM for the St. Maarten N.A case study.

- Contour lines map
- Road network map
- Building structures map
- Extent of the study area
- Ponds map

The above listed data has been previously generated for entire Island. However, using the Clip tool for shape file located under Analysis Tools/Extract, the DTM was adjusted to the size of the coverage area required for the study. The DTM was created first as a smooth (natural) land surface without including buildings and road network in 20x20m, 15x15m, 10x10m and 5x 5m cell sizes followed by lowering road elevation for 25cm and raising building elevations for 5m.

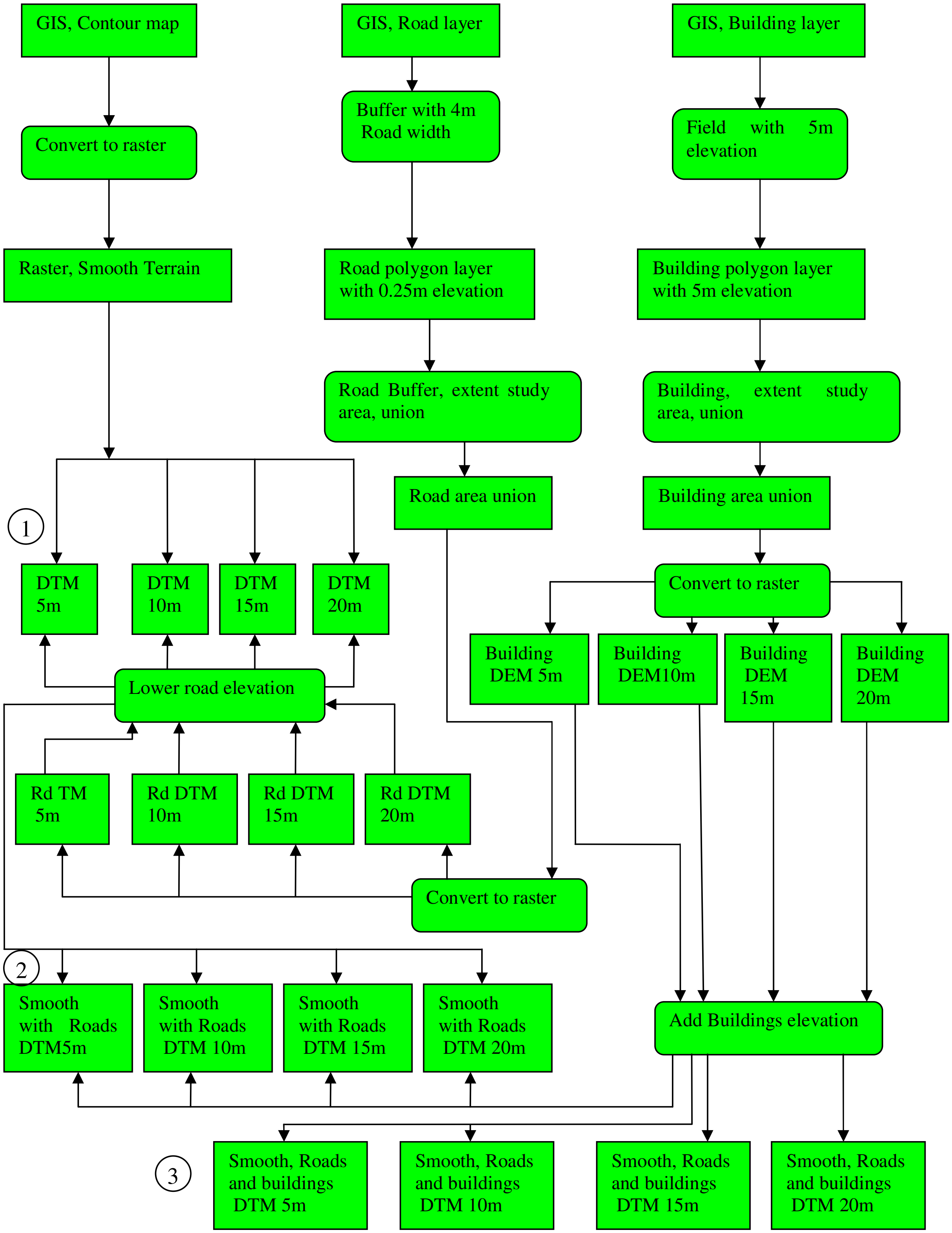


Figure 19: Flow chart for DTM generation

4.3 DTM of natural (Smooth) surface

Based on the objective of the study, separate DTMs for natural surface, road surface and buildings were developed with different grid cells and then used as input for 2D hydrodynamic model.

The DTM was created based on Topo to Raster interpolation tool available in ArcGIS with Spatial Analyst Extension and contour map as input shape file. The Topo to Raster function is an interpolation method specifically designed for the creation of hydrologically correct Digital Terrain Model (DTM)(ESRI, 2006). It interpolates elevation values for a raster, imposing constraints that ensure a connected drainage structure and Correct representation of ridges and streams from input contour data. Topo to Raster is the only ArcGIS interpolator specifically designed to work intelligently with contour inputs. It is uses information inherent to the contours to build a generalized drainage model. By identifying areas of local maximum curvature in each contour, the areas of steepest slope are identified, and a network of streams and ridges is created (Hutchinson, 1988). This information is used to ensure proper hydrogeomorphic properties of the output DTM and may also be used to verify accuracy of the output DTM.

In this study, DTM has been generated based on shape files data including with contour maps/terrain data obtained from the previous study. All these data has previously generated as a whole Island. Using the Clip tool for shape file located under Analysis Tools/Extract, the DTM was adjusted to the size of the coverage area required for the study. The contour map and study area shape file was used as input features and clip features respectively. The DTM with 20 x 20m, 15 x 15m, 10 x 10m and 5 x 5m resolutions was created first as a smooth land surface without including buildings and road network by specifying a value of 20, 15, 10 and 5 as output cell size respectively (see figures 20, 21, 22 and 23).

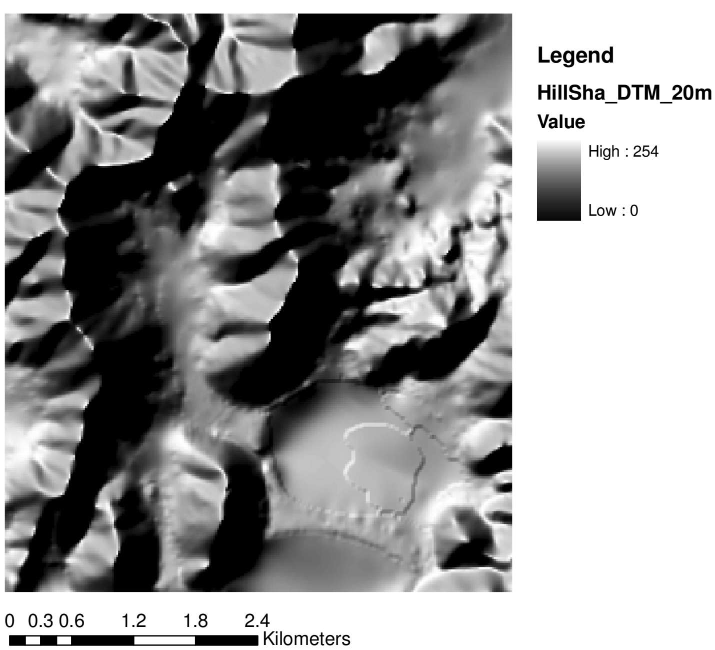


Figure 20: DTM with Smooth Land Surface- 20m Resolution

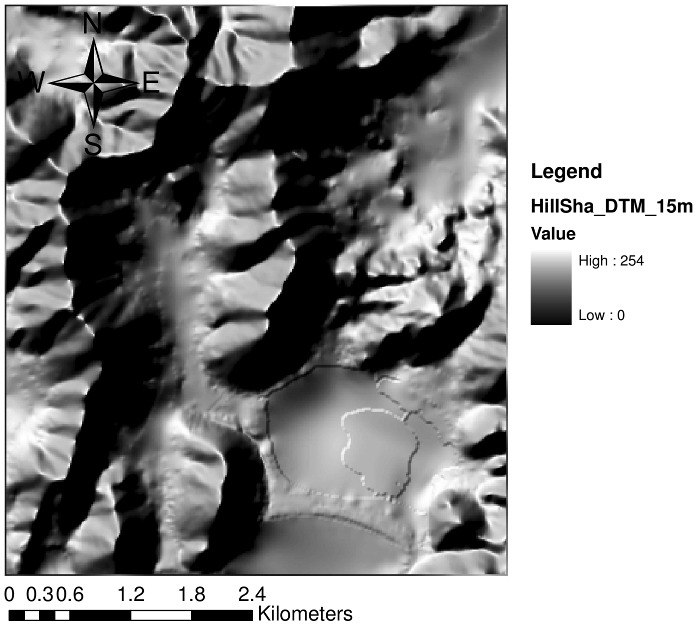


Figure 21: DTM with Smooth Land Surface- 15m Resolution

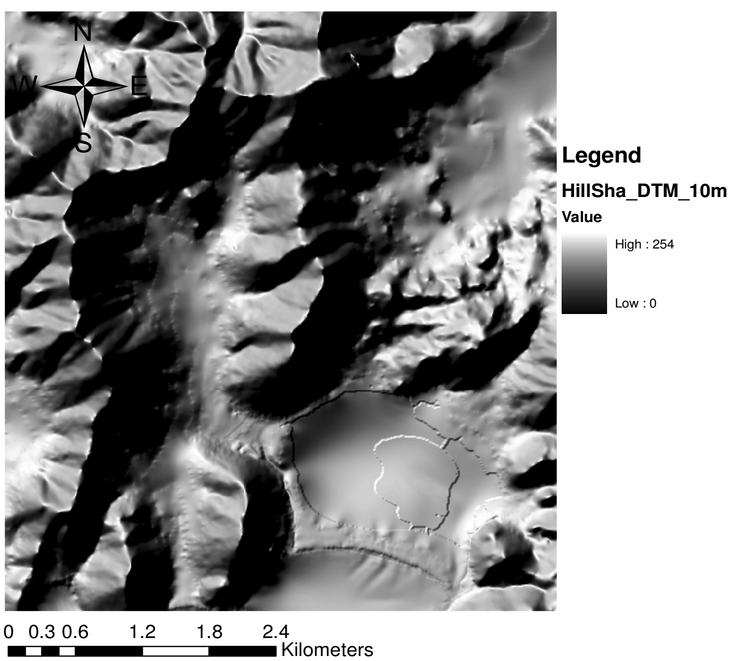


Figure 22: DTM with Smooth Land Surface- 10m Resolution

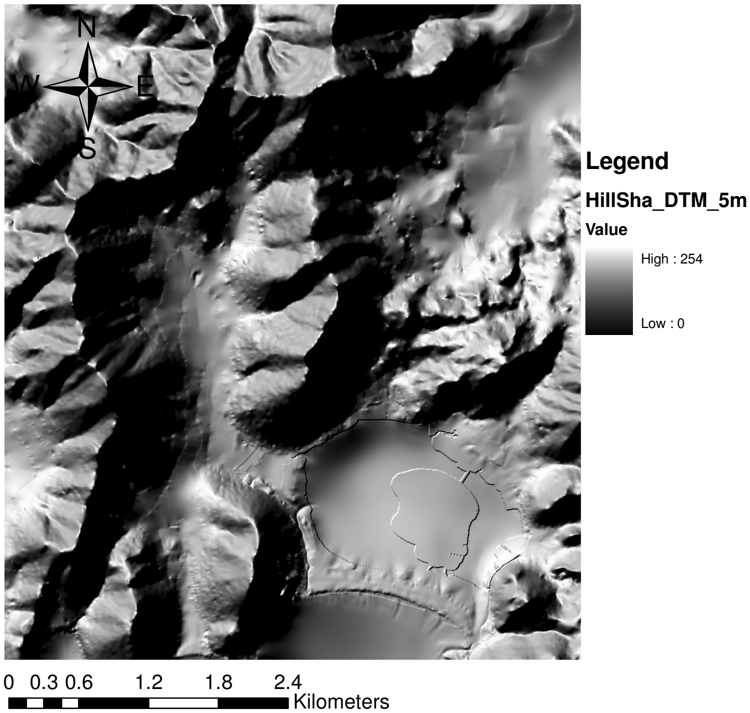


Figure 23: DTM with Smooth Land Surface- 5m Resolution

4.4 Adding terrain information in the DTM with Smooth Surface

For accurate analysis of urban flooding, it is necessary to incorporate terrain features like buildings and road networks in DTM. In this research, road network and buildings were incorporated using ArcMap GIS tools with smooth land surface DTM obtained from section 4.3. For the features to be seen on the figure, the feature Hillshade found on spatial analyst tools/Surface/Hillshade was used.

4.4.1 Adding road network in the DTM

Addition of road network to the DTM with smooth land surface has been carried out using ArcGIS with analysis tools. This has been done by lowering the road level by the curb height. Due to lack of detailed information, an average curb height of 25cm has been used for the main streets of the model area with width of 4m.

In ArcGIS, the polyline road network shape file was first converted to a polygon shape file with 4m width using Analysis Tools/proximity/buffer. The field where the elevation of 25cm modification induced by the road to be in stored, has then added to the polygon file. For a better mathematical operation between the topography raster and a road raster, the study area extent shape file has been added to a road network shape file by making a union between the polygon road shape file and a study area shape file using Analysis Tools/Overlay/Union. The road area DTM was then created by converting the union shape file to a raster file using ArcToolbox/ Conversion Tools/ To raster/Feature to raster. Different DTM with 20x20m, 15 x 15m, 10 x 10m and 5 x 5m was created by specifying a value of 20, 15, 10 and 5 as output cell size respectively.

The final DTM with smooth and road network was created by lowering the topography at the place where there are roads using mathematical operation found on ArcToolbox/ Spatial analyst tools/Maths/Minus. In this operation, the DTM with smooth land surface and road area was used as input raster file. The final DTM with road networks are as shown in figures 24, 25, 26 and 27.

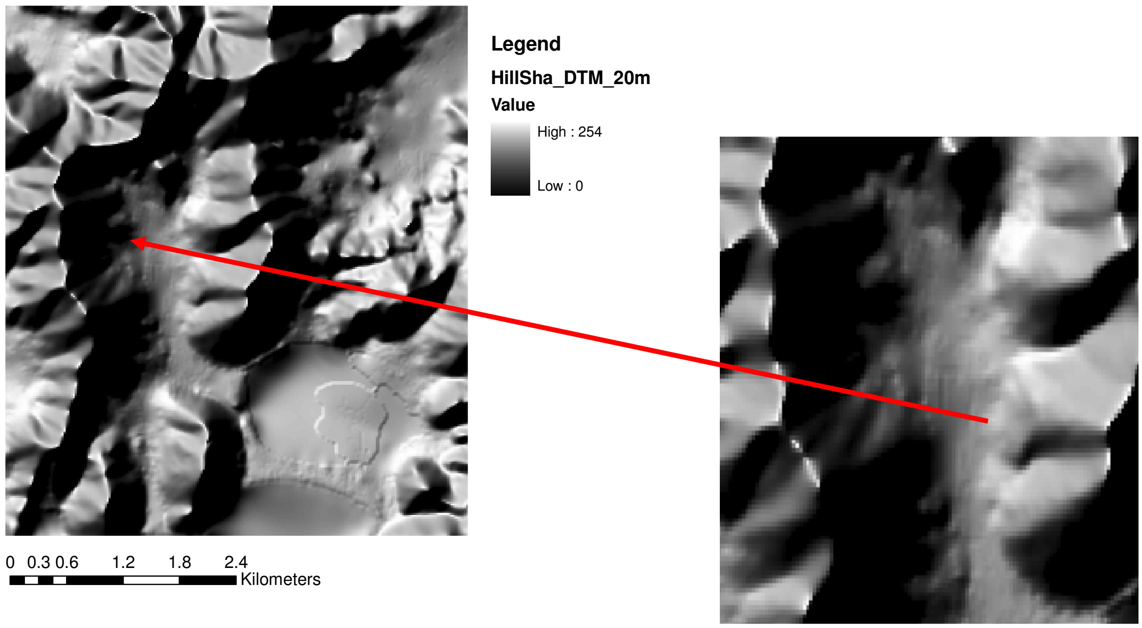


Figure 24: DTM with Smooth and Road network- 20m Resolution

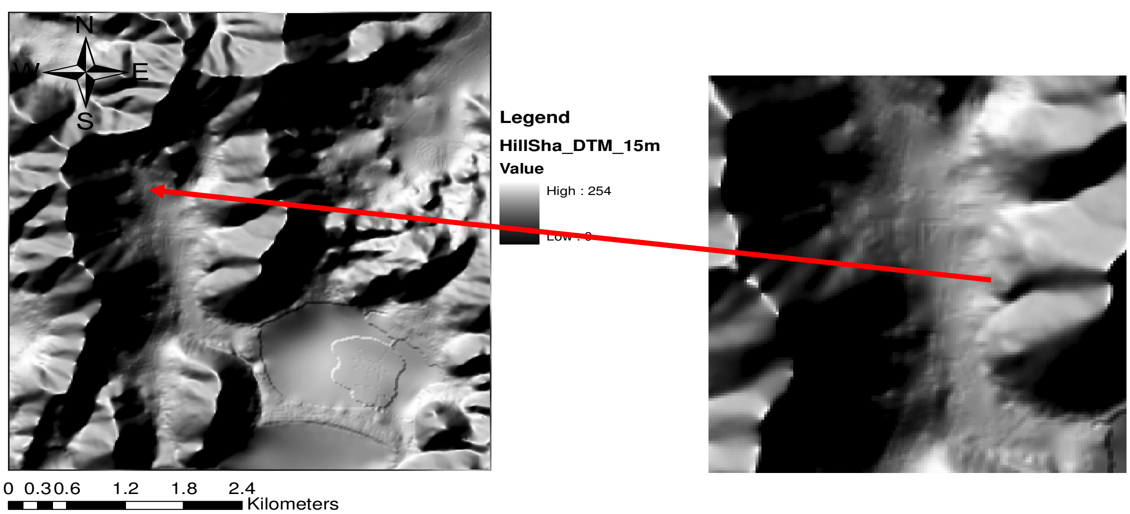


Figure 25: DTM with Smooth and Road network- 15m Resolution

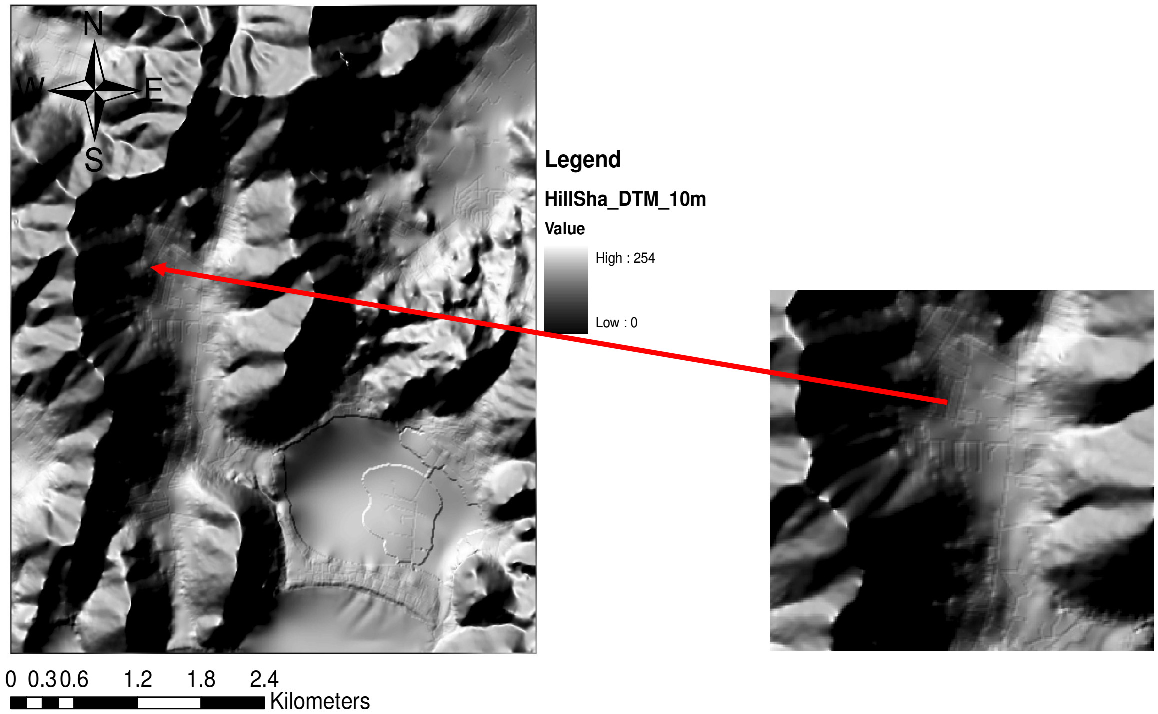


Figure 26: DTM with Smooth and Road network- 10m Resolution

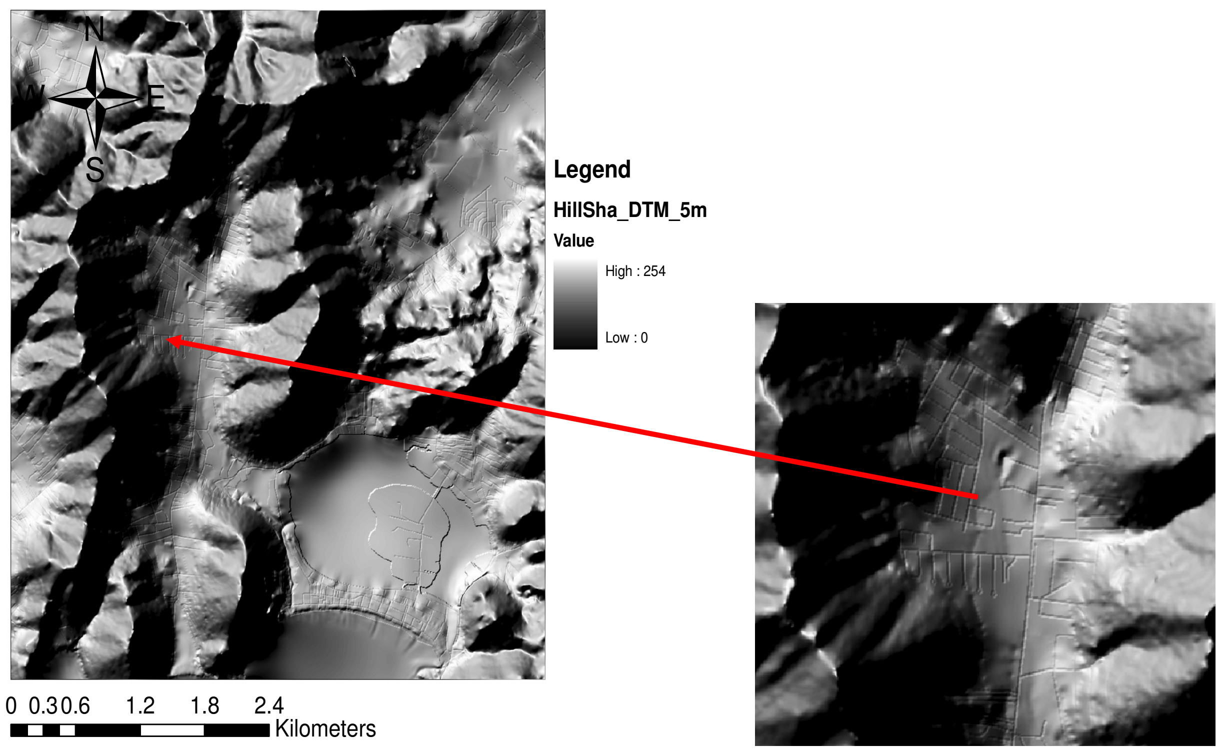


Figure 27: DTM with Smooth and Road network- 5m Resolution

4.4.2 Adding Buildings and Road network in the DTM

In a densely developed urban area, during flood event the direction of overland flow are primarily governed by buildings and structures present in the terrain. Therefore accurate representation of buildings footprints in DTM as an obstruction to the flow is essential in hydrodynamic modelling.

The DTM with Buildings and Road network was created by adding building block to the DTM with road network prepared under section 4.4.1 above. This was done by raising the building block by an average value of 5m. The arbitrary height was used to convert building footprint feature class into a raster layer representing a building height, as a pixel value.

In ArcGIS, the field with an average elevation of 5m was added to the building shape file, and the study area shape file was added to a building shape file using Analysis Tools/Overlay/Union. The building area DTM was created by converting the union shape file to a raster file using ArcToolbox/ Conversion Tools/ To raster/Feature to raster. Different DTM with 20x20m, 15 x 15m, 10 x 10m and 5 x 5m was created by specifying a value of 20, 15, 10 ad 5 as output cell size respectively.

The final DTM with building and road network was created by raising the buildings with average elevation of 5m using mathematical operation found on ArcToolbox/ Spatial analyst tools/Maths/plus. In this operation, the final DTM with road network and building area DTM was used as input raster file. The final DTM with buildings and road networks are as shown in figures 28, 29, 30 and 31.

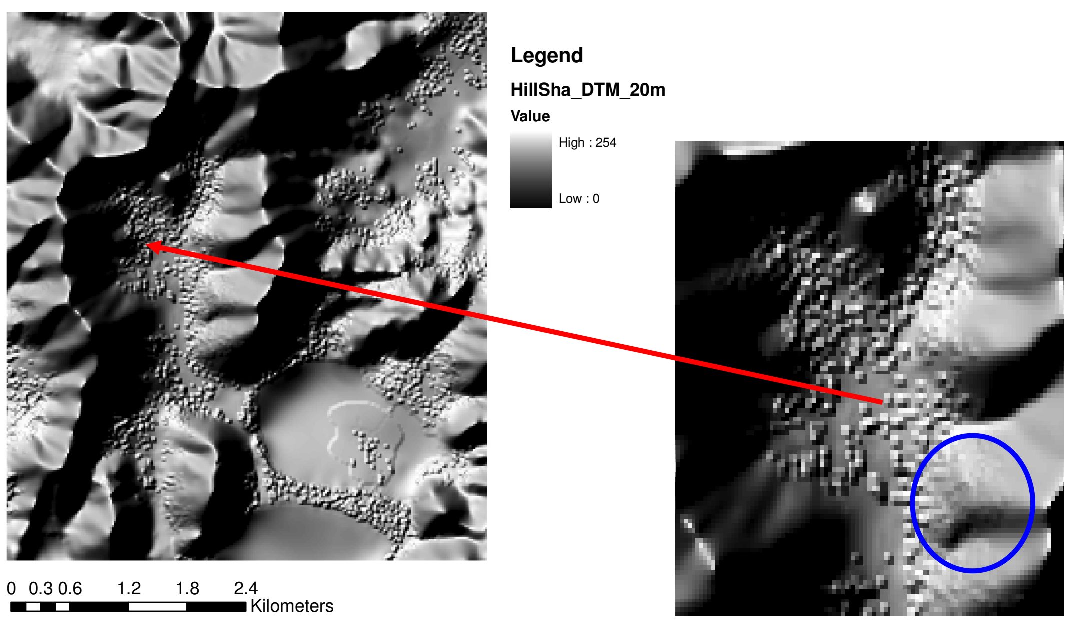


Figure 28: DTM with Smooth, Road network and Buildings- 20m Resolution

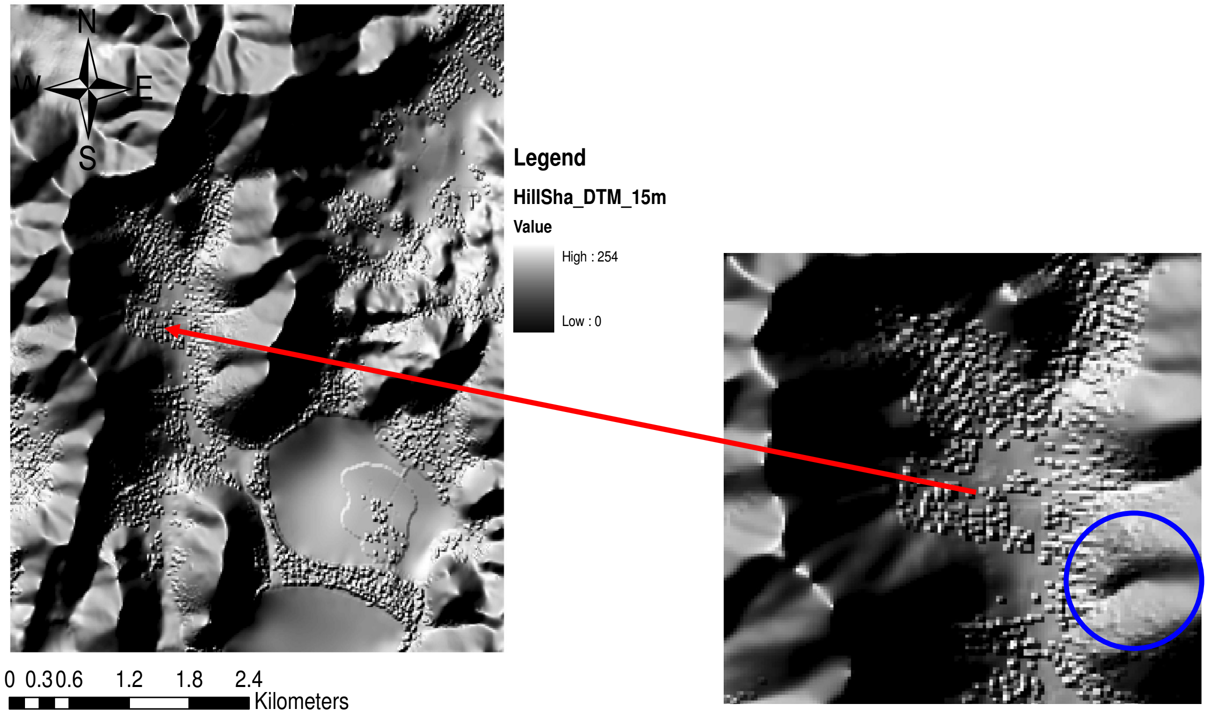


Figure 29: DTM with Smooth, Road network and Buildings- 15m Resolution

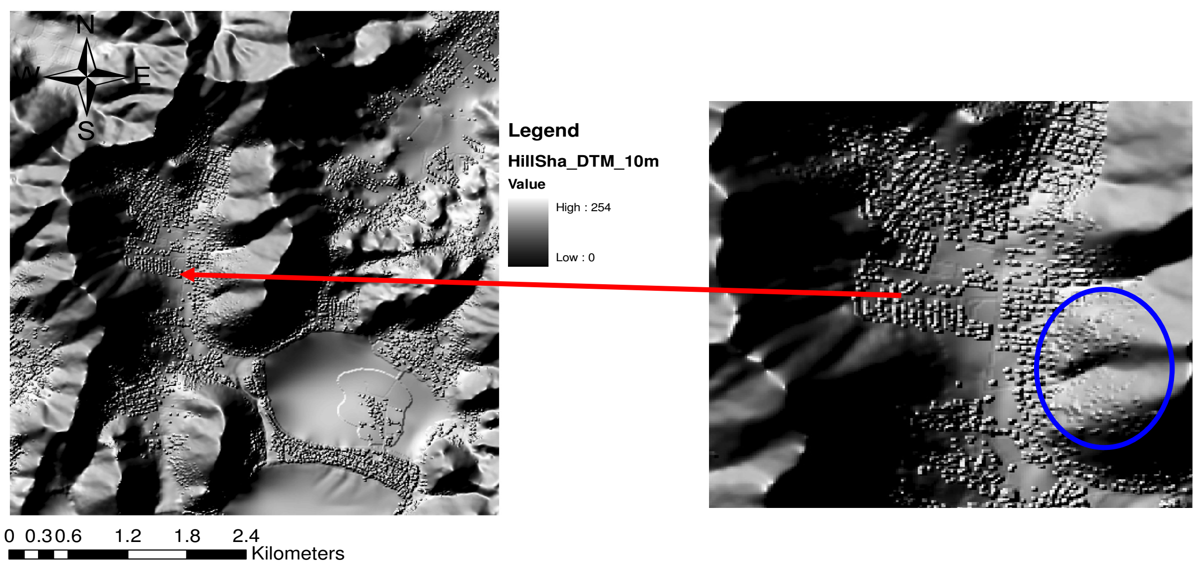


Figure 30: DTM with Smooth, Road network and Buildings- 10m Resolution

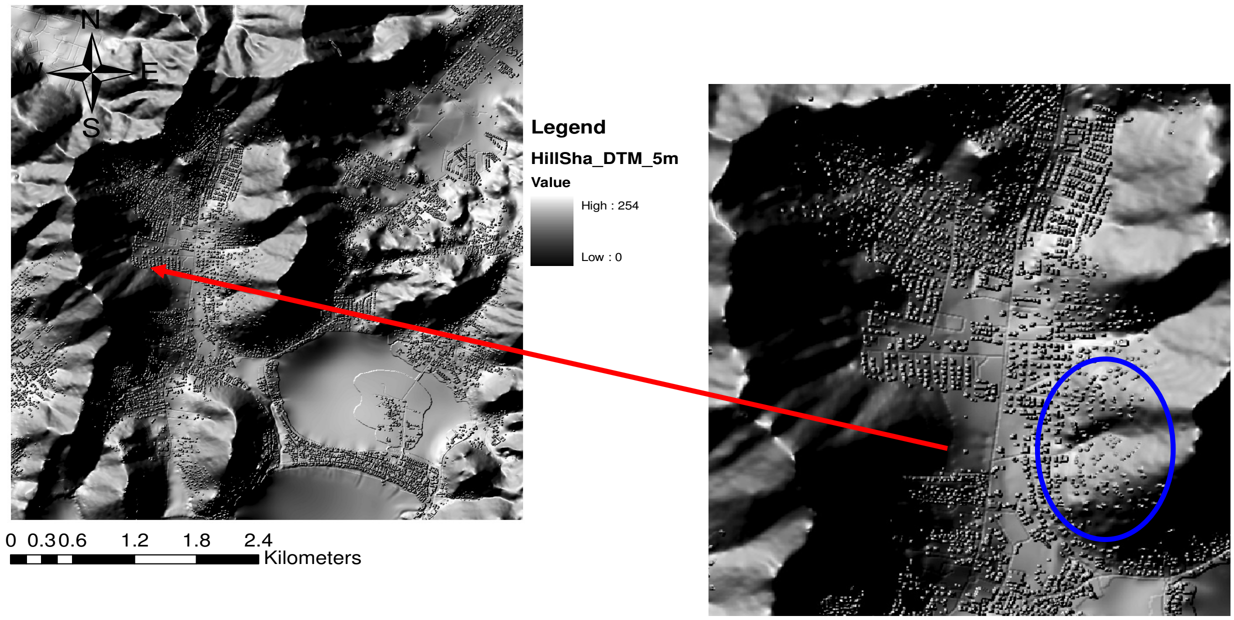


Figure 31: DTM with Smooth, Road network and Buildings- 5m Resolution

The blue circle shown in figures 28-31 shows example of an area where some of the houses were lost due to change of grid cells from 5m to 20m

4.5 Preparation of DTM for input to 2D models

Once the processing of DTM data was finalised, all the DTMs were then converted into ASC II raster format using ArcToolbox/Conversion Tools/from raster to ASCII of ArcGIS software. The 2D model (MIKE 21) accepts the terrain elevation in ASCII file format.

More details procedures in preparation of 2D models as DTM one of input data to the model is described in chapter 5 on Flood modelling.

5 FLOOD MODELLING

5.1 Introduction

The procedures for building a 1D and 2D hydrodynamic models including with data input and description of output results is described in this chapter. In this study the MIKE FLOOD (1D-2D) model was used for the flood modelling. MIKE FLOOD is the 1D-2D model combines one dimensional channel flow (MIKE11) with overland represented by a 2D grid of elevation information (MIKE21) into a single dynamically coupled modelling systems.

Using a coupled approach enables the best features of both a one-dimensional and two-dimensional models to be utilised, whilst at the same time avoiding many of the limitations of resolution and accuracy encountered when using MIKE11 and MIKE21 separately. MIKE 11 and MIKE 21 were firstly prepared before building MIKEFLOOD. In the MIKE11 same network as used from previous study (Tutulic', 2007) was adopted in this research. The main adjustment made was the cross section, whereby the cross sections were changed to V-shapes for research purposes. The same channel depth was used for all Digital Terrain Models with resolutions 20m, 15m, 10m and 5m.

5.2 Building 2D Model-MIKE21 Flow Model

In preparing the 2D model, all the necessary parameters inside the MIKE 21 model were set, so that the model could be ready for coupling and running. The basic parameters and Hydrodynamic parameters were involved in setting up theMIKE21 model.

Within Basic Parameters, the model selection, Bathymetry, Simulation Period, Boundary and Flood and Dry options was performed. While Initial Surface Elevation, Boundary, Source and sink, Eddy Viscosity, Resistance and Results, options were performed within Hydrodynamic Parameters.

5.2.1 Basic Parameters

The following basic parameters for MIKE 21 Flow Model simulation were performed.

5.2.1.1 Model Selection

Hydrodynamic only (the HD module alone) was selected in this model. It is a full non-linear equation of continuity and conservation of momentum.

5.2.1.2 Bathymetry

The first step and by far the most important task in a modelling process were setting up the bathymetry model. The main element of 2D MIKE 21 model is the digital terrain model (DTM), which represents the numerical value of the surface topography. The topography has to represent all the detail of urban topography such as streets and buildings. This is because the main utility that can be provided by adding this model to 1D model is to add the information of flow on surface during urban flooding.

The bathymetry was prepared using an option of making a MIKE 2D grid (.dfs2 file) found in MIKE Zero features from ascii file prepared in ArcMap. Different bathymetry with digital terrain model resolutions of 20m, 15m, 10m and 5m was prepared in different geometries i.e. Land with smooth surface only, land with smooth surface plus Roads and land with smooth surface, roads and buildings. The bathymetry prepared for DTM with 20, 15m, 10m and 5m resolutions are as shown in figure 32, 33, 34 and 35 respectively.

The MIKE 21 flow model requires information about the number of dynamically nested grids to be applied in the simulation. The maximum number of nested areas is 9. The first area, area number 1, is referred to as the "main area". But in this case there is only one main grid to work with. There is option to start a simulation in two different ways:

- as a cold start or
- as a hot start.

For a cold start the velocity field is initialized to zero. The hot start facility requires a hot file for each area. These must originate from a previous simulation. The hot start files contain all necessary information to continue a simulation. In this way simulation time can be reduced if for instance a number of scenarios are to be compared, all based on the same (hot start) initial conditions. In this research the cold start option was selected.

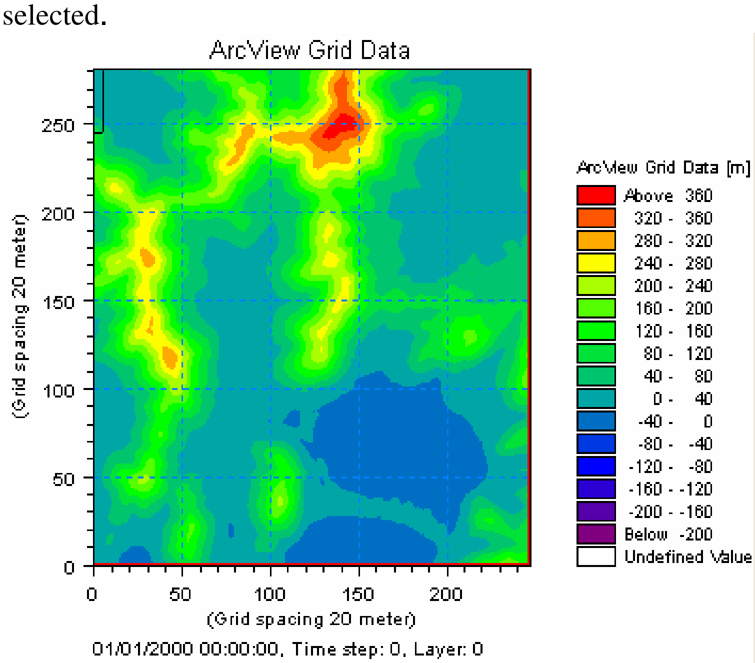


Figure 32: Bathymetry Prepared for MIKE21-DTM 20m resolution

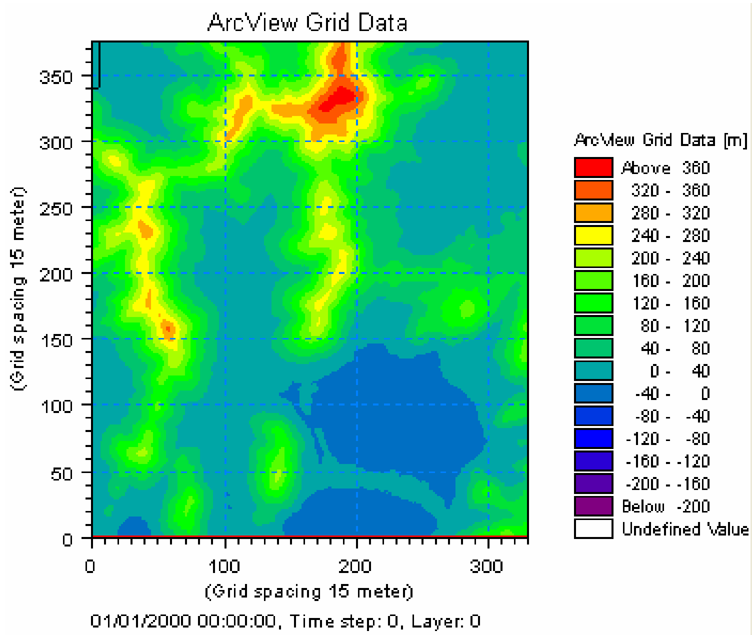


Figure 33: Bathymetry Prepared for MIKE21-DTM 15m resolution

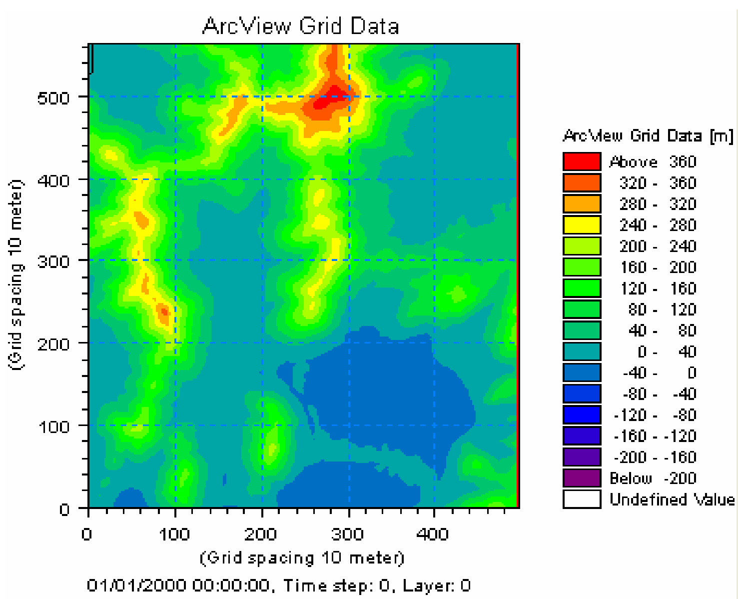


Figure 34: Bathymetry Prepared for MIKE21-DTM 10m resolution

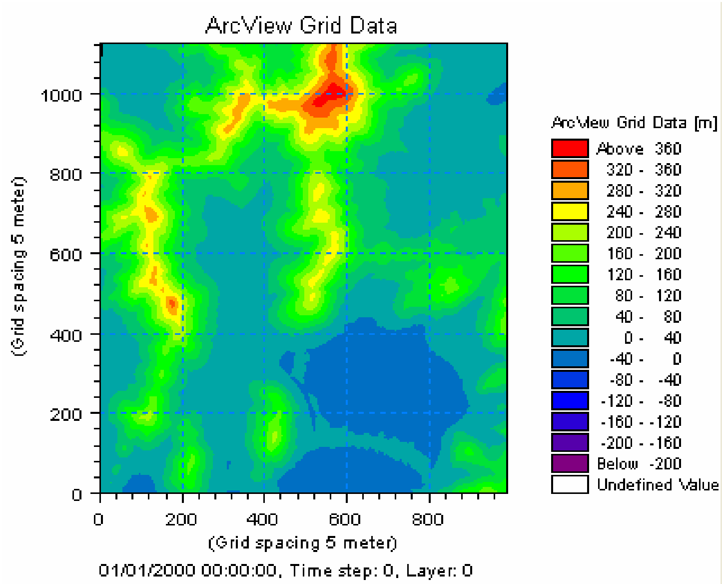


Figure 35: Bathymetry Prepared for MIKE21-DTM 5m resolution

5.2.1.3 Simulation Period

Information on simulation period was provided. Time step range is the number of time steps the simulation should cover. The time step interval is the value for which the time is incremented between each time step (equal for all areas). The simulation start date is the historical date and time corresponding to time step zero. The warm-up period is a number of time steps over which the forcing functions are gradually increased from zero to 100% of their true value. The simulation period was specified with suitable time step keeping stability of the model in mind. In this study, time step was chosen to be 1 s and the simulation period was set to be 30 June 2005 from 12 till 18 hours.

5.2.1.4 Boundary

The boundaries of the models are closed since no flow is assumed into and out of the model area. So, the boundaries were assigned with high land value, which represent the true land and act as walls. A value representing land means that all grid points with a depth value equal to or greater than the land value will always be considered to be land and will not be subject to possible flooding and drying. In this study, the boundary conditions were set to Program Detected option. The program selects the boundaries automatically which can be changed if needed.

5.2.1.5 Flood and Dry

In case of urban flooding it may occur that some reach of a street become dry for some time and may get water again after sometime. To take care of this, flooding and drying depths are defined in this section. This is done to set the minimum water depth allowed in a point before it is taken out of calculation (drying depth), and also the water depth at which the point will be re-entered into the calculation (flooding depth). In this study these depths have been set to 0.002 and 0.003 m respectively.

5.2.2 Hydrodynamic Parameters

The following Hydrodynamic parameters MIKE 21 Flow Model simulation were performed

5.2.2.1 Initial Surface Elevation

Having selected a cold start simulation under Bathymetry, information about the initial surface (water) level was also to be provided. The initial surface elevation for each area can be specified in two ways:

- as a constant value for the respective area or
- to be read from a 2D (.dfs2) data file.

Most often the initial surface level can be set to a constant value to be applied over the whole model area. This means that the simulation will start out with the surface level raised accordingly.

In this study, where there are two ponds downstream (Fresh Pond and Great Salt Pond), the initial surface elevation file for the two ponds was prepared in ArcMap to set up the initial water level on the ground with different values.

5.2.2.2 Boundary

All the boundary data were supplied here for the boundaries defined in the earlier section. As discussed earlier, the choice of variation at an open boundary can be either level or flux (the flux is the total amount of discharge passing the open boundary).
Actual values, level or flux, at each boundary can be specified in one of five different formats: a constant value, a sine series, a time series, a line series and transfer data.
Since the boundaries within Basic Parameters were set to be detected by the program, all settings inside this part were automatically set up by the program itself. It is important to note that while deciding and applying boundary conditions in MIKE 21 model the grid itself implies that the open boundaries must be positioned parallel to one of the coordinate axes (this is not a fundamental property of a finite difference scheme but it is essential when using MIKE 21 HD). Furthermore, as per the manual of the MIKE 21 supplied by DHI, the best results can be expected when the flow is approximately perpendicular to the boundary. This requirement may already be in contradiction with the above mentioned grid requirements, and may also be in contradiction with "nature" in the sense that flow directions at the boundary can be highly variable so that, for instance "360" flow directions occur, in which case the boundary is a most unfortunate choice. However the same normal flow could have been achieved during model running also.

Two primary boundary conditions of flux and water level, for MIKE 21 HD module must be given at all the grid points and at all the time steps. Due to space staggered scheme the values of the flux densities at the boundary are set half a grid point inside the topographical boundary.

Being a 2D model, MIKE 21 needs secondary boundary conditions also. This is chosen because it coincides conveniently with the fact that the simplified MIKE 21 HD, the