

2 Towards Formulation of a Space-borne 3 System for Early Warning of Floods: 4 Can Cost-Effectiveness outweigh 5 Prediction Uncertainty?

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9 (Received: 04 May 2004; accepted: 12 March 2005)

10 **Abstract.** The three most important components necessary for functioning of an operational
11 flood warning system are: (1) a rainfall measuring system; (2) a soil moisture updating
12 system; and, (3) a surface discharge measuring system. Although surface based networks for
13 these systems can be largely inadequate in many parts of the world, this inadequacy par-
14 ticularly affects the tropics, which are most vulnerable to flooding hazards. Furthermore, the
15 tropical regions comprise developing countries lacking the financial resources for such
16 surface-based monitoring. The heritage of research conducted on evaluating the potential for
17 measuring discharge from space has now morphed into an agenda for a mission dedicated to
18 space-based surface discharge measurements. This mission juxtaposed with two other
19 upcoming space-based missions: (1) for rainfall measurement (Global Precipitation Mea-
20 surement, GPM), and (2) soil moisture measurement (Hydrosphere State, HYDROS), bears
21 promise for designing a fully space-borne system for early warning of floods. Such a system,
22 if operational, stands to offer tremendous socio-economic benefit to many flood-prone
23 developing nations of the tropical world. However, there are two competing aspects that
24 need careful assessment to justify the viability of such a system: (1) cost-effectiveness due to
25 surface data scarcity; and (2) flood prediction uncertainty due to uncertainty in the remote
26 sensing measurements. This paper presents the flood hazard mitigation opportunities offered
27 by the assimilation of the three proposed space missions within the context of these two
28 competing aspects. The discussion is cast from the perspective of current understanding of
29 the prediction uncertainties associated with space-based flood prediction. A conceptual
30 framework for a fully space-borne system for early-warning of floods is proposed. The need
31 for retrospective validation of such a system on historical data comprising floods and its
32 associated socio-economic impact is stressed. This proposal for a fully space-borne system, if
33 pursued through wide interdisciplinary effort as recommended herein, promises to enhance
34 the utility of the three space missions more than what their individual agenda can be
35 expected to offer.

36 **Key words:** flood hazards, early warning systems, space-based missions, remote sensing,
37 prediction uncertainty

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39 1. Introduction

41 Floods are one of the deadliest and economically most destructive natural
 42 hazard; more than 2000 lives are lost and at least 10,000,000 people are
 43 displaced annually since 1991 (see <http://www.dartmouth.edu/~floods>).
 44 Most importantly, due to the climatological abundance of rainfall over the
 45 tropics, floods are more frequent in regions that lack financial resources to
 46 employ surface weather stations necessary for flood monitoring (see Fig-
 47 ure 1 and Table I). This fact worsens further the destructive nature of
 48 floods due to the absence of an early warning system for these ungauged
 49 regions (NOAA, 1994).

50 Rainfall is arguably the primary causative factor for floods. Its intimate
 51 interaction with the landform (i.e., topography, vegetation and channel

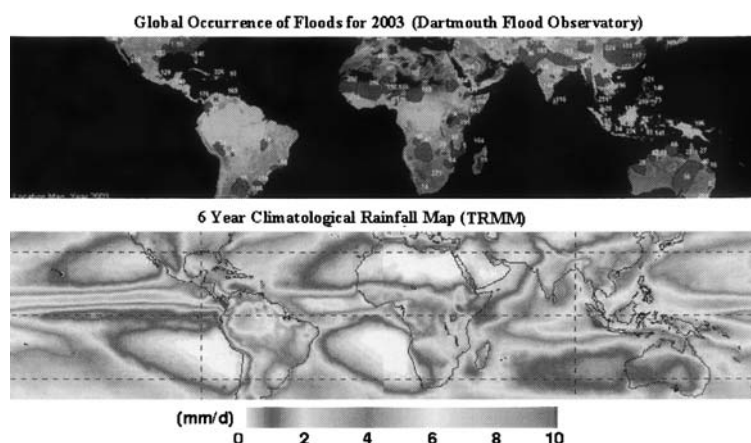


Figure 1. Upper panel – the global occurrence of floods for 2003 (map produced with kind permission of the Dartmouth Flood Observatory, <http://www.dartmouth.edu/~floods>). Lower panel – a 6-year climatologic rainfall map produced by the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (source: <http://www.trmm.gsfc.nasa.gov>).

Table I. Summary of major flooding events that took place in tropical countries between August 1, 2004 and December 15, 2004 (compiled from Dartmouth Flood Observatory).

| Flood-affected tropical countries | Number of major flooding events | Death toll (Approximate) | Economic damage |
|--|---------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|
| Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Indonesia, Philippines, Vietnam, India, Bangladesh, Panama, Nigeria | 14 | > 520 | US\$150,000,000 |

52 network) magnified by highly wet antecedent conditions is the necessary
53 ingredient for catastrophic flooding. For an operational early-warning sys-
54 tem for floods, the three most important components therefore are: (1) a
55 rainfall measuring system (the major input to the hydrological model); (2)
56 a soil moisture updating system (for initializing the hydrological model);
57 and (3) a surface discharge measuring system (for calibration and con-
58 straining predictions of the hydrological model). Although surface-based
59 networks for these systems is inadequate in many parts of the world (Als-
60 dorf and Lettenmaier, 2003), this inadequacy particularly affects the tro-
61 pics that are most vulnerable to flooding hazards (Figure 1). Due to the
62 poor economy of most tropical nations, establishment of an early-warning
63 system based on costly surface-based monitoring is perhaps not always
64 possible.

65 This situation may soon change. The emergence of cost-effective space-
66 based technologies for large-scale measurement of rainfall, soil moisture
67 and discharge now offer promise as an alternative to the costly ground-
68 based system. The heritage of research conducted on evaluating the poten-
69 tial for measuring discharge from space has now morphed into a coherent
70 call by the scientific community for a mission dedicated to space-based sur-
71 face discharge measurements (Alsdorf and Lettenmaier, 2003; Alsdorf
72 *et al.*, 2003; Bjerklie *et al.*, 2003). This proposed mission, juxtaposed with
73 two other upcoming space-based missions: (1) for rainfall measurement
74 (Global Precipitation Measurement, GPM), and (2) soil moisture measure-
75 ment (Hydrosphere State, HYDRoS), bears promise for assimilation of a
76 fully space-borne system for early warning of floods. Such a system, if
77 operational, stands to offer tremendous socio-economic benefit to many
78 flood-prone tropical nations of the world.

79 However, there are two competing aspects that need careful assessment
80 to justify the viability of a fully space-borne system: (1) cost-effectiveness
81 due to (expensive) surface data scarcity universally experienced by poor
82 countries; and (2) flood prediction uncertainty due to uncertainty in the re-
83 mote sensing measurements and hydrologic modeling. This paper presents
84 the flood hazard mitigation opportunities offered by the assimilation of the
85 three space missions (two nearing launch and one being proposed) within
86 the context of these two competing aspects. The objectives of the paper are
87 as follows. (1) To provide a summary of research heritage on space-borne
88 remote sensing of rainfall, soil moisture and surface discharge; (2) To for-
89 mulate a conceptual framework for an operational early-warning system
90 for floods that assimilates the three future space missions; and (3) To brief-
91 ly discuss possible ways for evaluating the viability of the framework. The
92 discussion is cast from the perspective of current understanding of the pre-
93 diction uncertainties associated with space-based flood prediction. The
94 need for retrospective validation of such a system on historical data

95 comprising floods and its associated socio-economic impact is also stressed.
 96 This proposal for a fully space-borne system, if pursued through wide in-
 97 ter-disciplinary effort as recommended herein, promises to enhance the util-
 98 ity of the three space missions more than what their individual agenda can
 99 be expected to offer.

100 2. The Research Heritage of Space-borne Measurements

101 2.1. REMOTE SENSING OF RAINFALL

102 Of the three hydrologic variables (soil moisture, discharge and rainfall),
 103 space-borne rainfall remote sensing is perhaps the most well-researched,
 104 well-understood and promising technology today (Foufoula-Gerogiou and
 105 Krajewski, 1995). The history of rainfall estimation from space dates
 106 back to the 1970s, when infra-red (IR) sensors on geo-stationary plat-
 107 forms were used to track cloud movement, advance climate and weather
 108 prediction and even qualitatively monitor flash floods (Griffith *et al.*,
 109 1978; Scofield and Oliver, 1987; Huffman *et al.*, 2001; Janowiak *et al.*,
 110 2001). While IR radiometers on geo-synchronous satellites provide excel-
 111 lent time and space sampling, the quantity being sensed (mostly cloud-
 112 top temperature) is indirectly connected to rainfall (Huffman *et al.*,
 113 2001). As a response to this limitation, space-borne Passive microwave
 114 (PM) radiometers evolved as a more credible alternative in the late
 115 1980s. PM sensors are more accurate because of the direct interaction
 116 between hydrometeors and the radiation field. In 1987, the first Special
 117 Sensor Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) was launched on the Defense Meteo-
 118 rological Satellite Program (DMSP) F-8 satellite. Currently, there are
 119 three SSM/I spacecrafts (F13, F14 and F15) providing PM rainfall mea-
 120 surements in sun-synchronous orbits. In 1997, the Tropical Rainfall
 121 Measuring Mission was launched (TRMM). TRMM carries a Microwave
 122 Imager (TMI) similar to SSM/I (Simpson *et al.*, 1996). Very recently, an-
 123 other PM sensor rainfall measurement, the Advanced Microwave Scan-
 124 ning Radiometer for EOS (AMSR-E) was launched in 2002 as part of
 125 the AQUA mission.

126 The particular success of TRMM in improving our understanding on
 127 Tropical and Sub-tropical rainfall distribution and precipitation structures
 128 has now spurred a larger scale mission aimed at the study of global water
 129 cycle. This mission, named the GPM, envisions a constellation of PM sen-
 130 sors that will provide global rainfall products at scales ranging from 3 to
 131 6 h over regions as small as 100 km² (Smith, 2001; Bidwell *et al.*, 2002;
 132 Flaming, 2002; Yuter *et al.*, 2003). GPM also envisions the extension of **2**
 133 'scientific and societal applications' of this high-resolution global rainfall
 134 data as one of its major objectives.

135 2.2. REMOTE SENSING OF SOIL MOISTURE

136 Due to the strong sensitivity of dielectric constant to water content, micro-
137 wave (MW) wavelengths are considered most suitable for remote sensing
138 of soil moisture. However, there is currently no operational space-borne
139 mission dedicated fully to its measurement despite the fact that remote
140 sensing of soil moisture has a history comparable to that of rainfall remote
141 sensing. This absence is primarily due to the fact that microwave sensors
142 require operation at low frequencies (<1.5 GHz) to provide reliable esti-
143 mates at wide range of land cover conditions (Entekhabi *et al.*, 1994;
144 Njoku and Entekhabi, 1994; Jackson, 1997). Hence, the same passive radi-
145 ometers used for rainfall measurement have also been evaluated of their
146 accuracy in soil moisture estimation by Jackson (1997) (SSM/I), Njoku
147 and Li (1999) (AMSR-E). While active microwave remote sensing can also
148 be used for soil moisture estimation (Hoeben and Troch, 2000), its applica-
149 tion from space-borne platforms has been almost non-existent due to the
150 absence of active MW space-based sensors (until TRMM, in 1997). Re-
151 cently, Du *et al.* (2000) studied the relative merits of passive and active
152 MW remote sensing for soil moisture measurement.

153 Realizing the importance of soil moisture in understanding the hydro-
154 logical state of the global environment, the scientific community has re-
155 cently translated this realization successfully into a future space mission –
156 HYDROS – dedicated solely to soil moisture measurements. In 2009,
157 HYDROS, armed with low frequency (<1.5 GHz) active and passive MW
158 sensors, is expected to make unprecedented measurements of Earth's
159 changing soil moisture and the freeze/thaw status of land surface that, to-
160 gether, define the state of Earth's hydrosphere (for more information, visit
161 <http://www.hydros.gsfc.nasa.gov>). Although, soil moisture estimates from
162 HYDROS will be limited to the upper 5 cm layer, there is a wide body of
163 literature that has demonstrated an ability to retrieve the soil moisture
164 content at much greater depths when this near-surface information is
165 assimilated into a land surface model (see for example: Entekhabi *et al.*,
166 1994), HYDROS, for the first time, can therefore be actively considered in
167 a flood warning system due to its high level of accuracy (discussed in next
168 section).

169 2.3. REMOTE SENSING OF DISCHARGE

170 In a comprehensive review of satellite remote sensing techniques of river
171 discharge, Smith (1997) presents a promising picture of the technology
172 being applicable for ungauged river reaches. Smith *et al.* (1996) has also
173 demonstrated that the use of Synthetic aperture radar (SAR) imagery is
174 potentially useful even for large braided rivers in Alaska and British

175 Columbia. Using similar SAR imagery combined with topographic infor-
 176 mation, Brakenridge *et al.* (1998) successfully recreated to a reasonable
 177 degree of accuracy the water surface profiles during the Great Flood of
 178 summer 1993 in the Upper Mississippi Valley. Vorosmarty *et al.* (1996a)
 179 on the other hand, have demonstrated the potential for applying 37 GHz
 180 passive MW satellite sensor data to infer discharge dynamics of large riv-
 181 er systems using the main stem Amazon river as their test case. Their
 182 application was, however, confined to a very coarse temporal resolution
 183 (monthly) and suitable only for water balance and climatologic inquiries.
 184 Its application to the much finer flood-scale spatio-temporal resolution
 185 needs to be explored. Recent uncertainty analysis indicates that existing
 186 satellite-based sensors can measure water surface width, elevation and
 187 velocity with accuracies sufficient to provide discharge estimates with less
 188 than 20% uncertainty for large rivers of North America (e.g. Connecticut
 189 river), Africa (Okvango river) and South America (Amazon river)
 190 (Bjerkle *et al.*, 2003).

191 Despite the promising progress made on space-based discharge measure-
 192 ments in the last decade, it is only recently that the pertinent scientific
 193 community has started to voice the desire for a space mission dedicated so-
 194 lely to measurement of surface waters (Alsdorf and Lettenmaier, 2003; Als-
 195 dorf *et al.*, 2003). Bjerkle *et al.* (2003) critically evaluated the pros and
 196 cons of the range of technology options for space-borne discharge mea-
 197 surement. Alsdorf and Lettenmaier (2003) on the other hand, commented
 198 that despite the range of options available (including new missions), none
 199 of these technologies supply the water volume measurements needed to
 200 accurately model the water cycle. Nevertheless, the existing and future mis-
 201 sions provide a conceptual framework for a surface discharge satellite mis-
 202 sion that could provide the required information. Alsdorf and Lettenmaier
 203 (2003) summarized the desired features of such a dedicated space-borne
 204 mission for discharge measurement as follows: (1) it should have a spatial
 205 resolution of 100 m; (2) it should have an overpass frequency less than a
 206 few days to capture the short flood events; and (3) it should have a vertical
 207 resolution of a few centimeters. It should be noted that for many coun-
 208 tries, the overpass frequency would need to be less than a day (3–6 hour-
 209 ly), such as for the case of Bangladesh during the Monsoon season
 210 (Paudyal, 2002). Alsdorf and Lettenmaier (2003) concludes that such a sa-
 211 tellite mission would enable hydrologists to move beyond the point-based
 212 gauging methods of the last century to measurements that capture the spa-
 213 tial variability inherent in surface water hydrology. Furthermore, global
 214 coverage of such a mission would ensure that, despite local economic and
 215 logistic problems, all countries could access measurements critical for fore-
 216 casting of floods.

217 3. A Conceptual Framework for a Space-borne Early Warning System

218 This section provides a conceptual framework for a fully space-borne early
 219 warning system for floods. It assumes that GPM, HYDROS, and the pro-
 220 posed mission for discharge (hereafter called GDM Global Discharge
 221 Measurement) are all in orbit after 2010. The framework is specifically
 222 confined to the tropics bounded by the $\pm 40^\circ$ latitudes where it is expected
 223 to be most cost-effective due to the prevalence ungauged watersheds within
 224 (Figure 1), For this region, GPM will provide rainfall estimates ranging
 225 from 3 to 6 h at the $10 \times 10 \text{ km}^2$ resolution. HYDROS will provide soil
 226 moisture estimates of the upper 5 cm layer at $10 \times 10 \text{ km}^2$ resolution every
 227 2–3 days. Similarly GDM will provide surface discharge measurements
 228 along the channel networks within $10 \times 10 \text{ km}^2$ grids with a 2–3 day repeat
 229 cycle. Except for rainfall, measurements of soil moisture and discharge are
 230 assumed deterministic processes due to their very low uncertainty ($<4\%$
 231 and $<20\%$, respectively). Hence, the primary function of HYDROS and
 232 GDM is in updating and constraining the warnings (prediction) produced
 233 by the framework. Since the framework is only conceptual in nature, its
 234 quantitative specifications that follow hereafter should be regarded as ‘flex-
 235 ible’ and the subjective details of operation are considered open to debate.

236 The proposed framework discretizes the entire domain under the $\pm 40^\circ$
 237 latitudes into $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grids. Past applications of macro-scale hydrological
 238 models for discharge prediction of global rivers (Nijssen *et al.*, 1997; Coe,
 239 2000; Nijssen *et al.*, 2001) and the socioeconomic value of warning over
 240 the tropics (Paudyal, 2002), indicate that this spatial resolution is perhaps
 241 adequate, although it may be altered in accordance with computational re-
 242 sources and specific objectives. This discretization yields about 9000 pixels
 243 overland, each approximately representing an administrative unit within
 244 the tropical countries. Within each pixel, two kinds of model will operate:
 245 (1) an offline Land Surface Model (LSM) in continuous mode (half-hour-
 246 ly); and (2) a Hydrologic/Flood Model in event mode (total time period of
 247 simulation is about 48 h). The purpose of the LSM is to provide reliable
 248 estimates of the antecedent soil moisture conditions for each pixel with
 249 equally reliable estimates of the ranges of uncertainty. These estimates are
 250 then used to initialize the Hydrologic model according to the ranges of
 251 possible initial moisture conditions within the uncertainty limits (predicted
 252 by the LSM). Furthermore, the soil moisture estimates from the LSM will
 253 be regularly updated and constrained by HYDROS measurements using
 254 numerical filtering schemes similar to those currently used in the Land
 255 Data Assimilation System (LDAS, Margulis *et al.*, 2003; Robock *et al.*,
 256 2003; Walker and Houser, 2004). The Hydrologic model will be used for
 257 forecasting of floods by passing through it, the next possible 48-h realiza-
 258 tion of rainfall forecast. The term ‘forecasting’ is used loosely in reference

259 to ‘prediction’ and does not necessarily imply the use of stochastic-dy-
 260 namic models. The rainfall forecast may be derived from either a cloud
 261 model that is initialized with the most current rain estimates from GPM,
 262 or a statistical time-series model, depending on the required level of com-
 263 plexity (which is currently unknown). An ensemble approach is proposed
 264 for modeling the possible scenarios of initial soil moisture conditions, rain-
 265 fall realizations and model parameter states (LSM and Hydrologic event-
 266 based). This ensemble approach has the potential to promote the follow-
 267 ing: (1) probabilistic forecast (i.e., prediction with error bounds) of the
 268 stream discharge; (2) risk assessment and decision-making; (3) conceptual
 269 appeal the ensemble data assimilation schemes for updating model state
 270 with space observations (Margulis *et al.*, 2002). For ensemble approaches
 271 to modeling satellite rainfall and hydrologic model states, the reader is re-
 272 ferred to Hossain and Anagnostou (2004a, b), Hossain *et al.* (2004a, b).
 273 For ensemble modeling of soil moisture states and its updating, Margulis
 274 *et al.* (2002) provides the necessary background to understand in detail its
 275 importance. With the modeling of different scenarios of soil moisture ini-
 276 tial conditions and the probable rainfall realizations, a probabilistic predic-
 277 tion of the flood event for the next 48 h can now produced in a fashion
 278 similar to the Ensemble Prediction System (ESP) used by the National
 279 Weather Service (Day, 1985) or that developed by Hossain and Anagnos-
 280 tou (2005). Similar to the LSM, the hydrograph of discharge predicted by **3**
 281 the Hydrological model can be compared, updated and constrained by the
 282 GDM measurements available every 2–3 days.

283 Literature review suggests the following as potentially suitable set of
 284 candidates for the models: (1) LSM–Common Land Model (CLM) (Dai
 285 *et al.*, 2003) and NOAA–LSM (Chen *et al.*, 1996); and (2) Hydrological
 286 Model – MIKE 11 (DHI, 1999), VIC-2L (Liang *et al.* 1994; Nijssen *et al.*,
 287 2001), HyDRA (Coe, 2000) and TOPMODEL (Beven and Kirkby, 1979).
 288 A large proportion of the supporting data for operating the LSM and
 289 Hydrological model in the above mode is available from space-borne plat-
 290 forms, For example, requisite topographic information (DEM, channel
 291 network) are available from Topex/Poseidon, while vegetation information
 292 can be availed from MODIS or AVHRR on a regular basis.

293 The ultimate objective of the framework is to be able to provide useful
 294 probabilistic estimates of flood warning for the next 48 h on a relative
 295 scale of intensity (say from 1 to 10, like the Fujita scale for tornadoes).
 296 This scale may be calibrated for each pixel depending on the socio-eco-
 297 nomic factors, level of flood protection and public warning infra-structure
 298 at the local level. Measurements from HYDROS and GDM will be used
 299 for the updating of the framework every 2–3 days, while GPM measure-
 300 ments will be the primary driver (e.g. a forecast sequence of 48 h via
 301 Cloud Model or a stochastic time-series model) for forecasting the next

302 48 h sequence of the flood. Figure 2 provides a schematic to summarize
 303 the conceptual nature of the framework. Again, a detailed elaboration of
 304 the framework is deliberately avoided herein, as the main purpose of this
 305 study is to present (qualitatively) the possibility of assimilating future space
 306 missions for an early warning system over ungauged regions. Although it
 307 is recognized that there may be other important criteria that are not exam-
 308 ined here, it is hoped that this paper will lead to further studies involving a
 309 wide range of ideas, model structures, resolutions and objectives towards
 310 optimal integration of remotely sensed data in a space-borne flood warning
 311 framework.

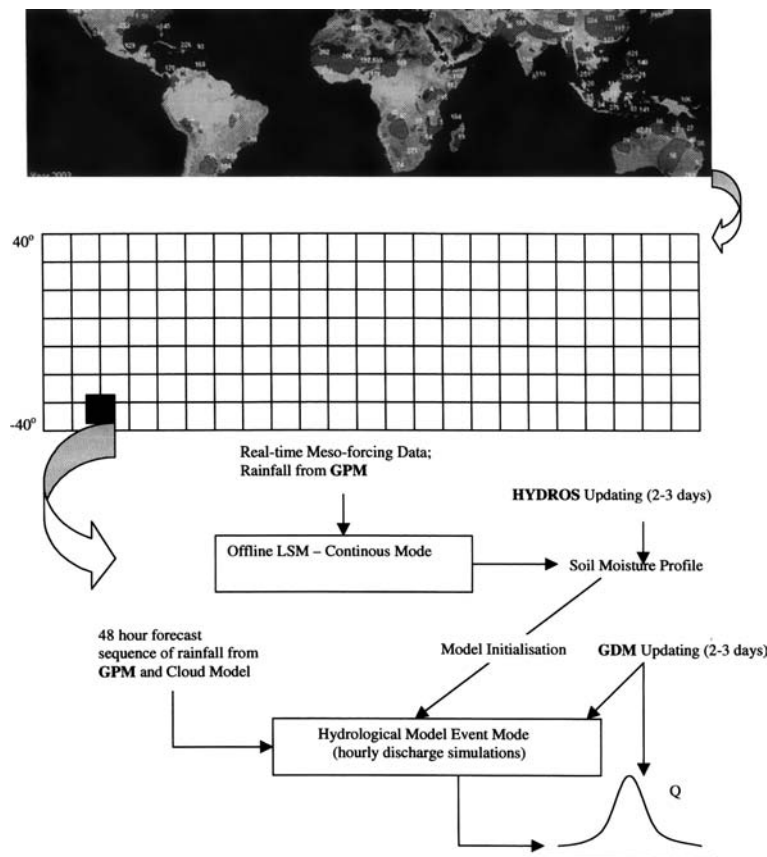


Figure 2. A conceptual framework for a space-borne early warning system for floods over ungauged tropical regions. Uppermost panel – the global occurrence of floods for 2003 (as in Figure 1); Middle panel – a conceptual discretization of the region bounded by $\pm 40^\circ$ latitudes into $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grids (all grids are not shown). Lowermost panel – the conceptual assimilation of models and space missions for flood forecasting.

312 **4. Cost Effectiveness Versus Prediction Uncertainty: The Need for Retro-**
 313 **spective Validation**

314 While any proposed framework for an early warning system for floods
 315 over poor ungauged areas will be highly cost-effective once operational,
 316 one particular aspect that, however, undermines this cost-effectiveness is
 317 the flood prediction (forecast) uncertainty of the framework, This uncer-
 318 tainty arises mainly from the inherent uncertainty in the remote sensing
 319 measurements of rainfall that propagates in the rainfall–runoff transforma-
 320 tion or the rainfall–soil moisture transformation, Hence, the GPM mea-
 321 surements need to be modeled as a random process for an assessment of
 322 the predictive uncertainty (Hossain *et al.*, 2003; Hossain and Anagnostou,
 323 2004). HYDROS soil moisture and GDM discharge measurements on the
 324 other hand, are treated as deterministic processes due to their compara-
 325 tively lower levels of uncertainty.

326 Fortunately, assessment of uncertainty in flood and soil moisture pre-
 327 diction in anticipation of GPM and HYDROS has begun recently (Hoss-
 328 ain and Anagnostou, 2004a; Nijssen and Lettenmaier, 2004; Walker and
 329 Houser, 2004). Hossain and Anagnostou (2004a) have shown that GPM
 330 can be expected to reduce by about 50% of the flood prediction uncer-
 331 tainty although significant uncertainty would still remain for prediction of
 332 flood events longer than 2 days. Walker and Houser (2004) have shown
 333 that HYDROS should have a measurement error less than 4% with a re-
 334 peat time of 1 day to be most useful for updating moisture states. How-
 335 ever, due to absence of studies that assess HYDROS and GPM in a
 336 combined framework, it is not clear right now as to what the level of
 337 uncertainty can be expected at the forecasting level of the conceptual
 338 framework proposed herein. Hence exploratory studies attempting to as-
 339 sess the flood forecasting uncertainty needs to be initiated soon.

340 Addressing the issue of global-scale predictive variability of floods in
 341 anticipation of future remote sensing missions is one of the most complex
 342 and challenging societal applications. The problem is multifaceted, multi-
 343 disciplinary and interface oriented. Knowledge of both the rainfall mea-
 344 surement process and the modeling of its surface transformation to floods
 345 are required. The requirement for this inter-disciplinary knowledge needs
 346 to be further brought under an objective framework that aims to provide
 347 feedback between the efforts at addressing hydrologic application and the
 348 efforts to improve measurement of rainfall. In the past, this feedback has
 349 been virtually absent in literature, hence both these knowledge bases
 350 evolved independently of the other. However, feedback is vital, because it
 351 is the feedback that has the potential to enhance the application of rain-
 352 fall, soil moisture and discharge measurement from future missions for
 353 prediction of floods.

354 Validation (or assessment of the proposed framework) on retrospective
355 (historical) flood data is therefore the only way of assessing the true worth of
356 the cost-effectiveness of a proposed space-borne early warning system. The
357 Dartmouth Flood Observatory (<http://www.dartmouth.edu/~floods>) is per-
358 haps the most resourceful institution in this regard for gaining an insight on
359 historical cases ideal for retrospective validation. Data used by other studies
360 such as Nijssen *et al.* (2001) and Coe (2000) in global discharge measure-
361 ments using hydrological models, combined with the global river database by
362 Vorosmarty *et al.* (1996b) should be considered for the selection of test cases.
363 However, much work needs to be done to finalize the datasets that will
364 numerically allow testing of the proposed scheme. Retrospective validation
365 of the framework should also be based on how effectively the framework is-
366 sues flood warnings compatible with the actual occurrence of the flood. This
367 should also take into consideration the probability of false hopes and false
368 alarms – both of which can actually be economically debilitating for poor
369 tropical economies. Additionally, false hopes and false alarms undermine the
370 faith of the public in the flood warnings of the system.

371 It should be noted therefore that operational sustainability of the pro-
372 posed space-borne framework can be pursued only after satisfactory results
373 in retrospective validation. Hence, the critical question on cost-effectiveness
374 versus prediction uncertainty will need to be closed before an assessment
375 of an actual flood forecasting scenario in real-time can be investigated. For
376 investigating such operational sustainability, we shall need to factor in the
377 currently adopted procedures institutionalized by the flood forecasting
378 agency. The goal will need to be to remain within these procedures so that
379 the existing forecast warning dissemination framework for disaster man-
380 agement is not hampered during the critical flooding season after the nec-
381 essary customizations of the warning system for satellite data.

382 5. Conclusion

383 This paper discussed the state-of-the-art, challenges and opportunities posed
384 by the three most important components necessary for functioning of an
385 operational flood warning system. These components are: (1) a rainfall mea-
386 suring system; (2) a soil moisture updating system; and, (3) a surface dis-
387 charge measuring system. Although surface based networks for these systems
388 are largely inadequate in many parts of the world, this inadequacy particu-
389 larly affects the tropics which are most vulnerable to flooding hazards. Fur-
390 thermore, the tropical regions comprise developing countries lacking the
391 financial resources for adequate maintenance of such surface-based systems.
392 The heritage of research conducted on evaluating the potential for measuring
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394 cated to space-based surface discharge measurements. This mission juxta-
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 400 tional, stands to offer tremendous socio-economic benefit to many flood
 401 prone developing nations of the tropical world, However, there are two com-
 402 peting aspects that need careful assessment to justify the viability of such a
 403 system; (1) cost-effectiveness due to surface data scarcity; and (2) flood pre-
 404 diction uncertainty due to uncertainty in the remote sensing measurements,
 405 This paper has discussed the potential flood hazard mitigation opportunities
 406 offered by the assimilation of the three space missions within the context of
 407 these two competing aspects. The discussion is cast from the perspective of
 408 current understanding of the prediction uncertainties associated with space-
 409 based flood prediction. The need for retrospective validation of such a sys-
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 411 impact was also stressed. This proposal for a fully space-borne system, if
 412 pursued through wide inter-disciplinary effort as recommended herein,
 413 promises to enhance the utility of the three space missions more than what
 414 their individual agenda can be expected to offer.

415 Although the paper aimed at presenting only a conceptual type frame-
 416 work for assimilation of a space-borne early warning system, there are no
 417 doubt certain elements of the framework that may be found to be opera-
 418 tionally intractable once actively pursued. For example, there may be cer-
 419 tain scale mis-match issues in the use of remote sensing data and model
 420 prediction that may require some upscaling approach for reconciliation.
 421 Also, none of these three missions is highly unlikely to have identical sam-
 422 pling overpass pattern for a region. It is therefore vital that the multi-disci-
 423 plinary research community come forward under one umbrella to
 424 communicate their understanding of the potential pros and cons to the
 425 other. There is a need for increased inter-disciplinary collaboration be-
 426 tween the two major disciplines of research most pertinent to floods – (a)
 427 space-borne remote sensing of rainfall, soil moisture and discharge; and (b)
 428 hydrologic modeling of floods using data in (a) as major inputs.
 429

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