

Remote Sensing & GIS in Flood Mapping

Unit 4

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India is the worst flood-affected country in the world after Bangladesh and accounts for one fifth of global death count due to floods.

Around 40 million hectares of land in the country are subject to floods according to National Flood Commission, and an average of 18.6 million hectares of land is affected annually. The annual average cropped area affected is approximately 3.7 million hectares.

The most flood-prone areas in India are the Brahmaputra and Ganga River basins in the Indo-Gangetic-Brahmaputra plains in North and Northeast India, which carry 60 per cent of the nation's total river flow.

The other flood prone areas are the north-west region of west flowing rivers such as the Narmada and Tapti, Central India and the Deccan region with major east flowing rivers like Mahanadi, Krishna and Cauvery

Heavy flood damages had occurred in the country during the monsoons of the years 1955, 1971, 1973, 1977, 1978, 1980, 1984, 1988, 1989, 1998 and 2004. Highlights of the flood damages are given below:

	Maximum	Average
Area affected (in lakh hectares)	175 (1978)	75.1
Crop area affected (in lakh hectares)	101.5 (1988)	35.1
Population affected (in crores)	7.045 (1978)	3.284
Houses damaged (in lakhs)	35.1 (1978)	12.2
Cattle heads lost	618248 (1979)	94830
Human lives lost	11316 (1977)	1587
Damage to public utilities (in Rs. crores)	5604.46 (1998)	820.67
Total damages (in Rs. crores)	8864.54 (1998)	1805.18

Though floods cannot be stopped, its damages can be minimized by proper management measures.

Flood disaster management demands efficient planning measures, implementation and policy making decisions, application of modern scientific and communication tools for smooth functioning of the system

For effective flood management, the concerned flood control departments require information at different phases of the flood disaster cycle

FLOOD

Flood is relatively high flow of runoff which overtakes the natural channel provided for the runoff *Chow(1956)*.

Flood is a body of water which rises to overflow land which is not normally submerged (Ward 1978)

Any high stream flow which overtops natural or artificial banks of a stream

Types of Flooding

Flooding - according to their duration:

1. Slow-Onset Floods

Slow-Onset Floods usually last for a relatively longer period, it may last for one or more weeks, or even months. As this kind of flood last for a long period, it can lead to lose of stock, damage to agricultural products, roads and rail links.

2. Rapid-Onset Floods

Rapid-Onset Floods last for a relatively shorter period, they usually last for one or two days only. Although this kind of flood lasts for a shorter period, it can cause more damages and pose a greater risk to life and property as people usually have less time to take preventative action during rapid-onset floods.

3. Flash Floods

Flash Floods may occur within minutes or a few hours after heavy rainfall, tropical storm, failure of dams or levees or releases of ice jams. And it causes the greatest damages to society.

Floods - according to their location:

1. Coastal Floods

Coastal Floods usually occur along coastal areas. When there are hurricanes and tropical storms which will produce heavy rains, or giant tidal waves created by volcanoes or earthquakes, ocean water may be driven onto the coastal areas and cause coastal floods.

2. Arroyos Floods

A arroyo is river which is normally dry. When there are storms approaching these areas, fast-moving river will normally form along the gully and cause damages.

3. River Floods

This is the most common type of flooding. When the actual amount of river flow is larger than the amount that the channel can hold, river will overflow its banks and flood the areas alongside the river. And this may cause by reasons like snow melt or heavy spring rain.

4. Urban Floods

In most of the urban area, roads are usually paved. With heavy rain, the large amount of rain water cannot be absorbed into the ground and leads to urban floods.

Snow-melt/Glacial Lake Outbursts Formation and Subsequent Bursting of Landslide Dams

Snowmelt is a gradual process and usually does not cause major floods. Glacial melt is usually slower than snowmelt and is not capable of causing severe flood. But sometimes glaciers hold large quantity of bounded water, which may be suddenly released with melting of ice block resulting into Glacial Lake Outburst Floods (GLOFs).

The rivers originating from the Himalayas in the northern part of the country, which are also fed by snowmelt from glaciers, are prone to flash floods. In 1929, the outburst of the Chong Khundam glacier (Karakoram) caused a flood peak of over 22,000 m³ / second at Attock. Glacial outburst is one of the suspected reasons for the flash flood experienced in Sutlej River on the night intervening 31 July and 1 August 2000.

The blockage in the course of the Parechu in China (Tibet) caused by the landslide in 2004 gave way in 2005 and caused severe flooding and damage to infrastructure in Himachal Pradesh.

Littoral Drift in River Estuaries

The flood problems of deltaic regions are attributed to various causes like flatter slope of drains and back flow due to tides. Littoral drift of sand in the form of sand dunes formation and consequent choking of outfalls of rivers into the sea is one of the causes for flood in deltaic regions.

The Biccavole and Tulabhaga drains in the Godavari eastern delta and the Panchanadi, Lower Kowsika, Vasalatippa and Kunavaram drains in Godavari central delta are some of the problem reaches.

Cloudbursts

Due to peculiar climatic conditions, some parts of the country experience sudden unprecedented heavy rain known as cloud bursts.

Hilly areas in Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, the northern areas of West Bengal, Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Mizoram, Meghalaya, Nagaland and Tripura and the coastal areas in the states of West Bengal, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra and Gujarat and Union Territories (UTs) of Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Lakshadweep are more prone to such phenomena.

SOURCES OF FLOOD

Primary – Atmosphere

Secondary – Snow & Ice

- ❖ Floods are physical phenomenon results from input of precipitation into a drainage basin
- ❖ Flood Magnitude: Depends on nature of precipitation and drainage basin

CONTROLLING FACTORS OF FLOOD

A) Hydro – Meteorological

Excessive rainfall / sudden melt of snow

B) Morphological factors

(i) Drainage basin factor

(ii) River Channel factor

DRAINAGE BASIN FACTOR

Contributing Area

Aerial extent of Basin / sub basin that receives rainfall

(Semi arid and arid regions only part of basin gets rainfall Humid regions entire basin receives rainfall)

Drainage Density (DD = Total stream length / area)

Low DD – less runoff, increased infiltration and subsurface flow

High DD- High erosion and high run off

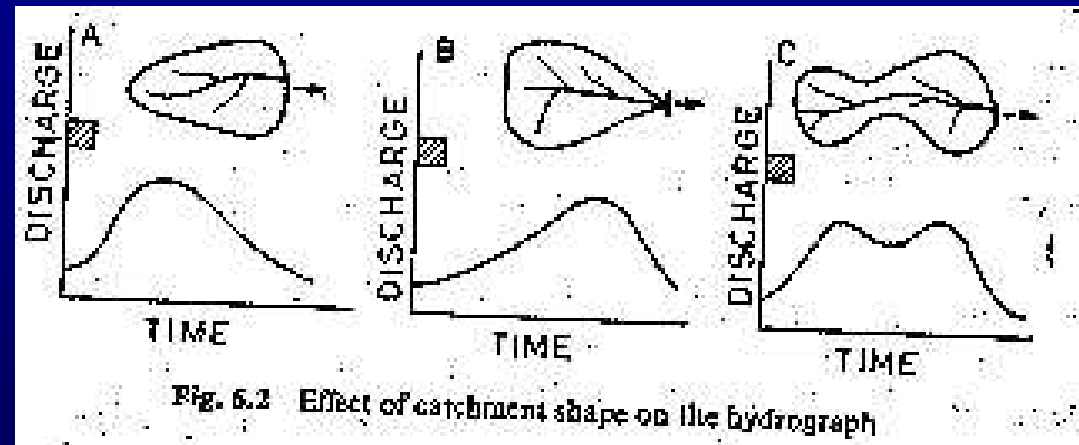
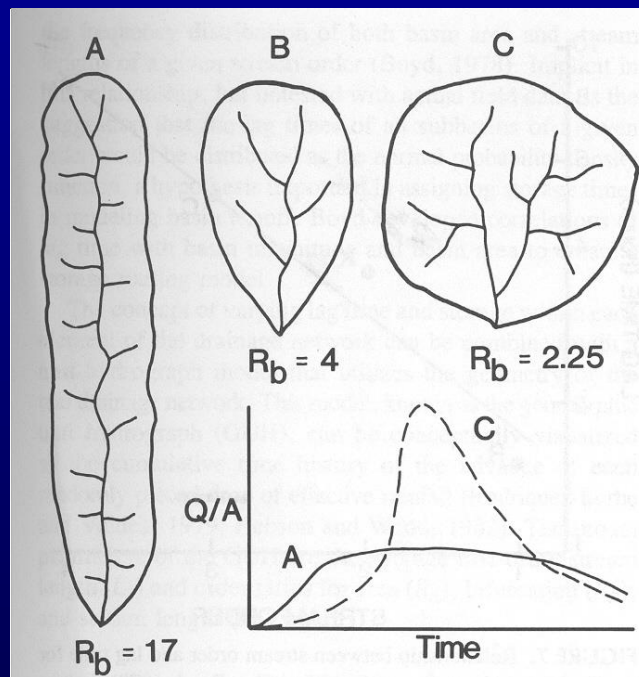
Climate

Dry climate – DD increases

Wet climate – DD decreases

Basin Morphometry

- ❑ Basin with equal shape – surface runoff tends to arrive simultaneously – flash flood
- ❑ Elongated Basin – runoff arrives to mainstream at different times – hence less flashy



Peak Discharge

Flood likely to occur during maximum peak discharge to mean annual discharge ratio

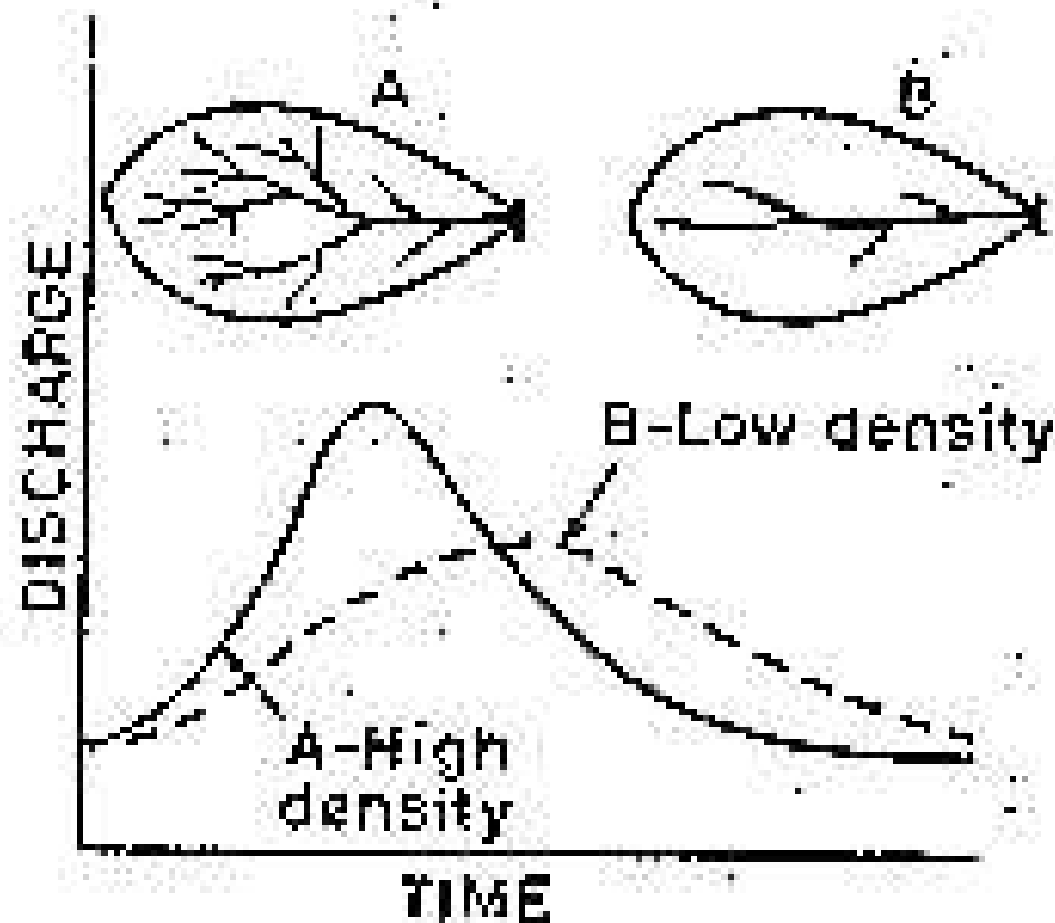


Fig. 6.3 Role of drainage density on the hydrograph

DRAINAGE BASIN FACTOR

Slope

More Slope – Runoff more, High erosion and overland flow

Less slope - less runoff, increased infiltration and subsurface flow

Lithology

Structure

Geomorphology

Landuse/Landcover

River Channel Factors

Channel gradient and Bed Load

Steep gradient – carries coarse bed load causing channel, bank and flood plain erosion results in channel widening in downstream and finally causing flooding

Gentle gradient – less bed load

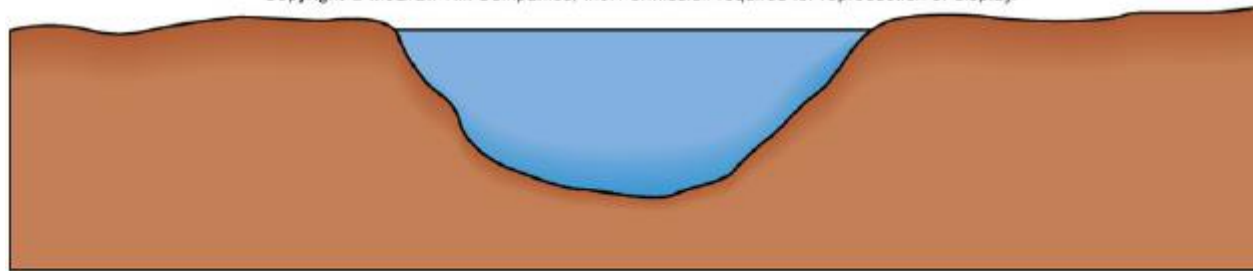
Channel Geometry

Bed rock rivers – uplifted plateaus – narrow and deep
- accommodate flood discharge

Alluvial rivers - channel will be widen - flooding

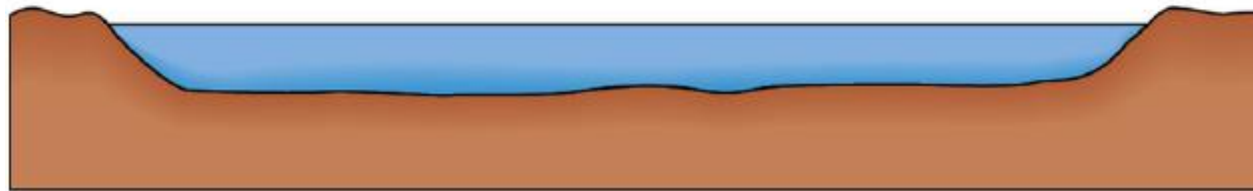
River channel factor controlling flood

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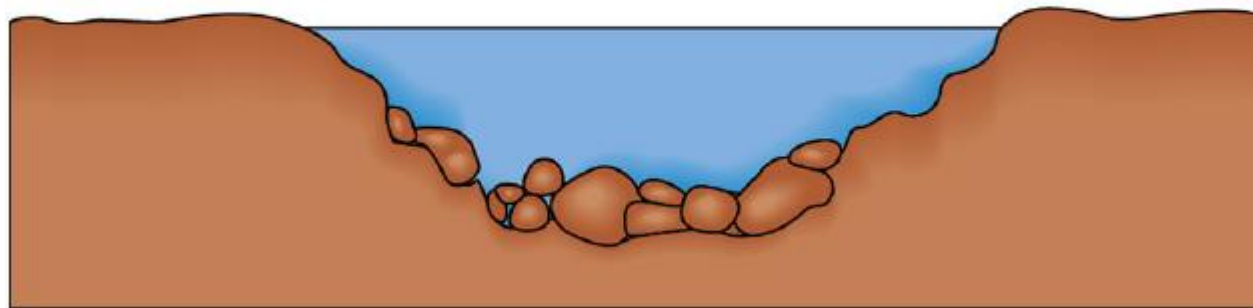
Semicircular
Flow fast

A



Wide channel
Flow slow

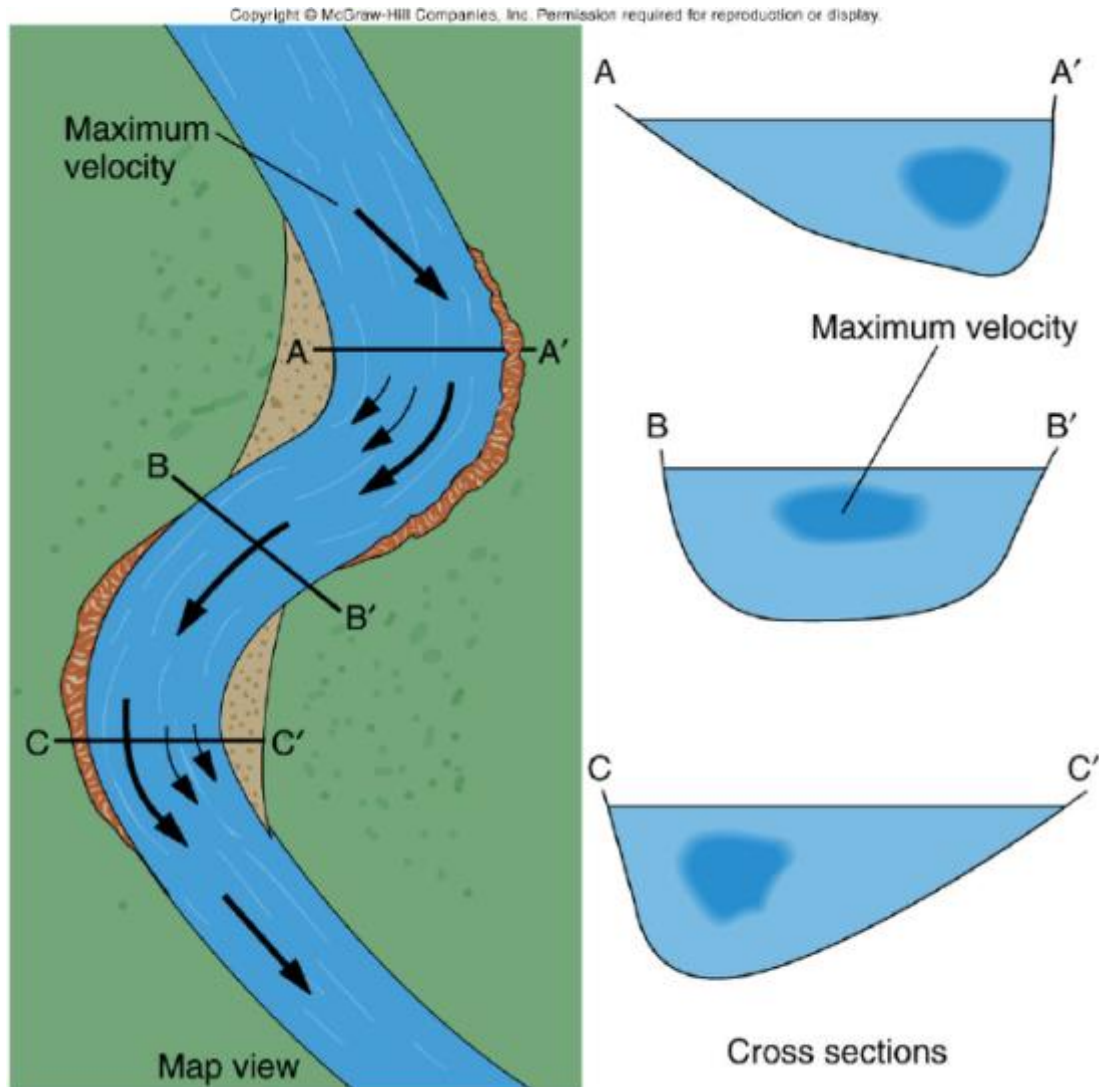
B



Rough bottom
Flow slow

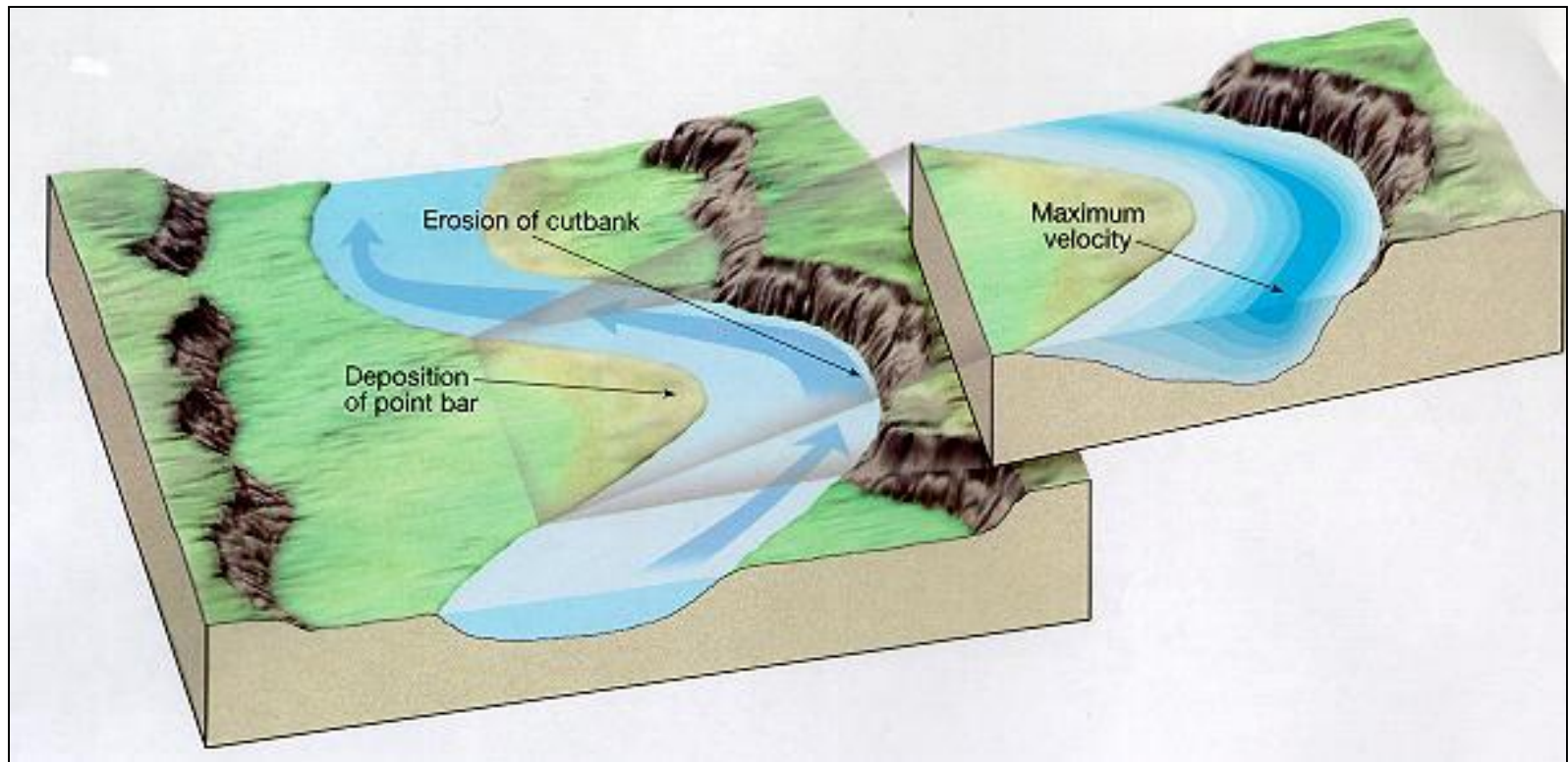
C

River channel factor controlling flood



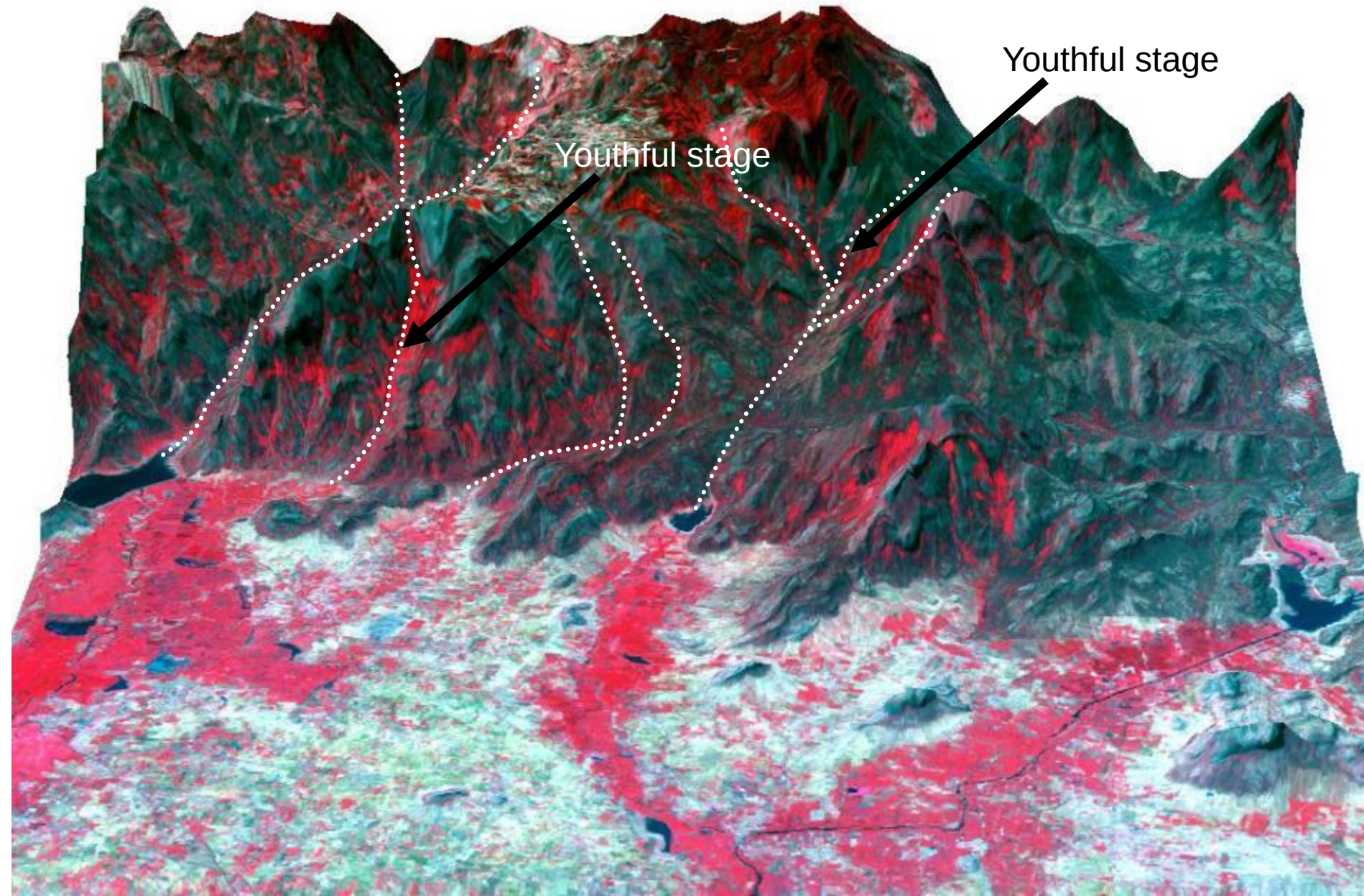
Velocity

Streams generally erode on outer (cut) banks where velocity is greatest, and deposit on the inner sides of bends where velocity is slower.



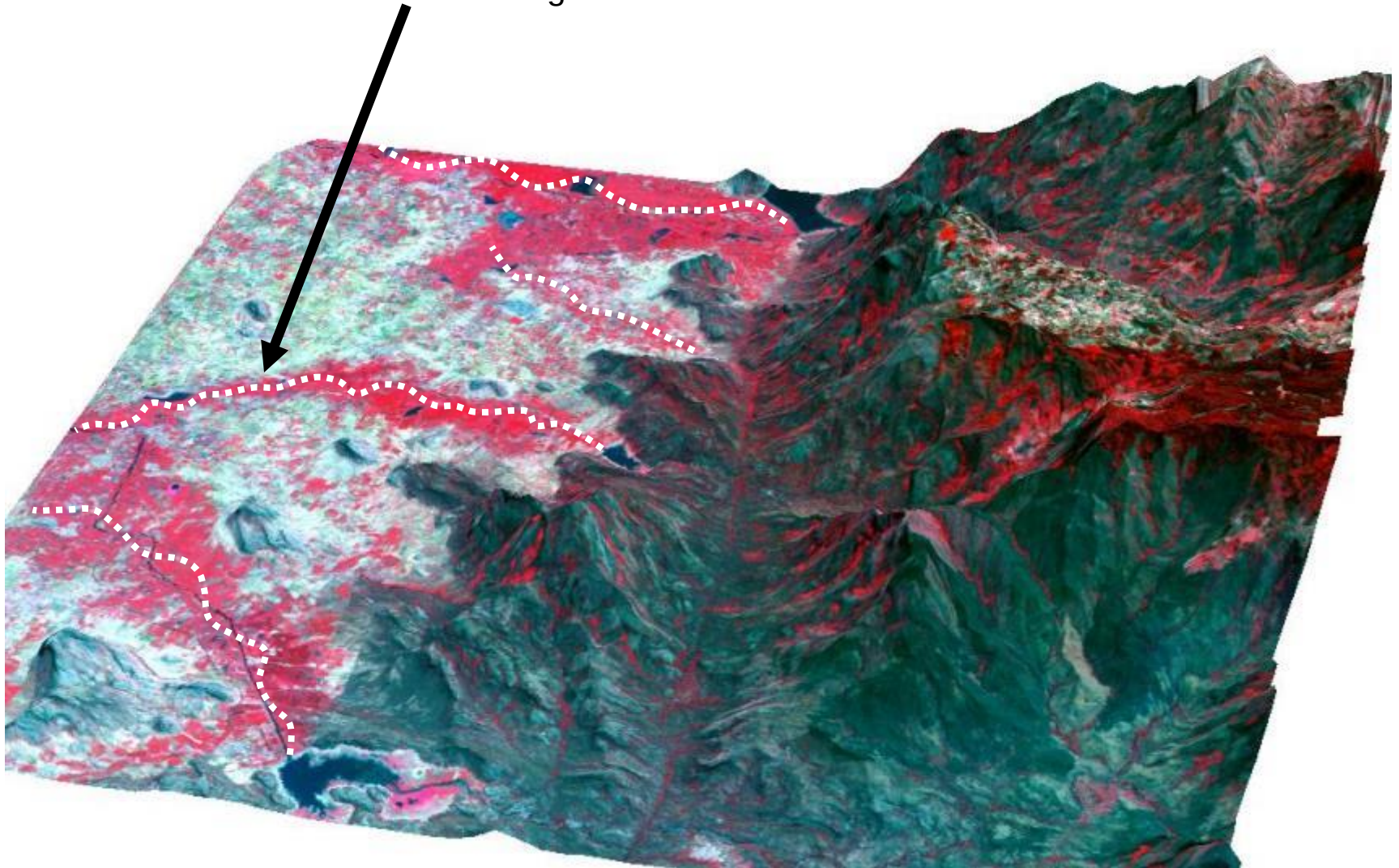
Meanders tend to grow as the flow erodes the banks, favoring development of meandering channels.

Youthful stage of River

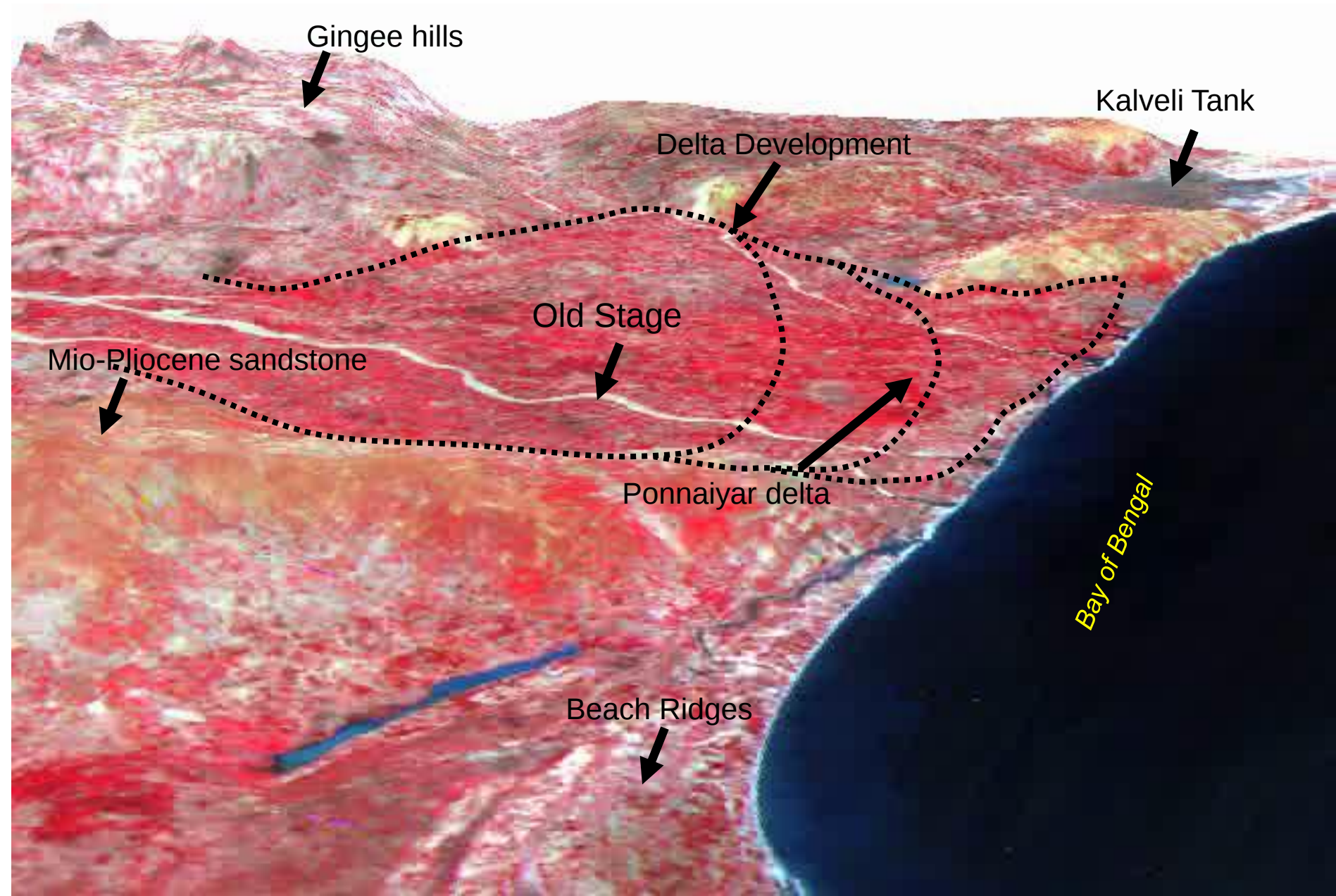


Mature stage of the River

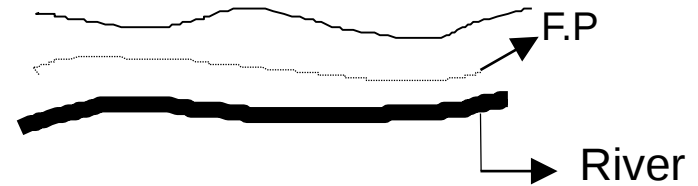
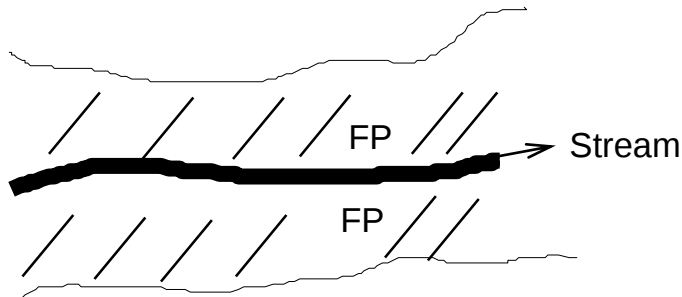
Mature stage



Old stage of the River



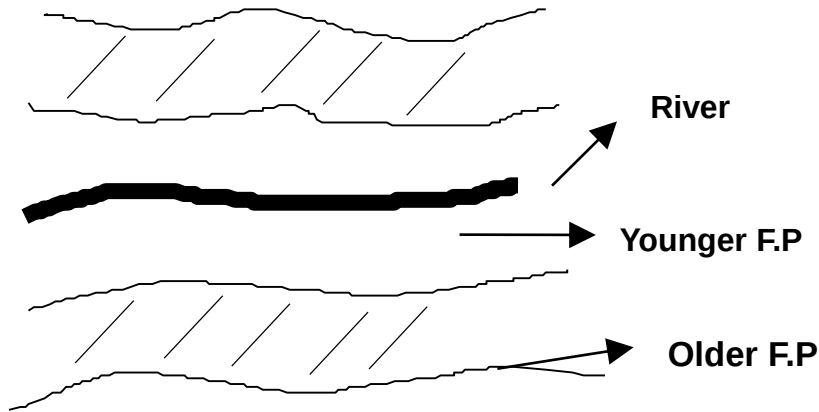
Paired Flood plain



Unpaired Flood Plain

- ➔ Shifting river
- ➔ Northern bank prone for erosion
- ➔ Northern bank prone for flooding
- ➔ Southern half have poor Ground water
- ➔ Southern bank is emerging

Older Flood plain and Younger Flood plain



➔ Show distinct two levels with contrasting tone

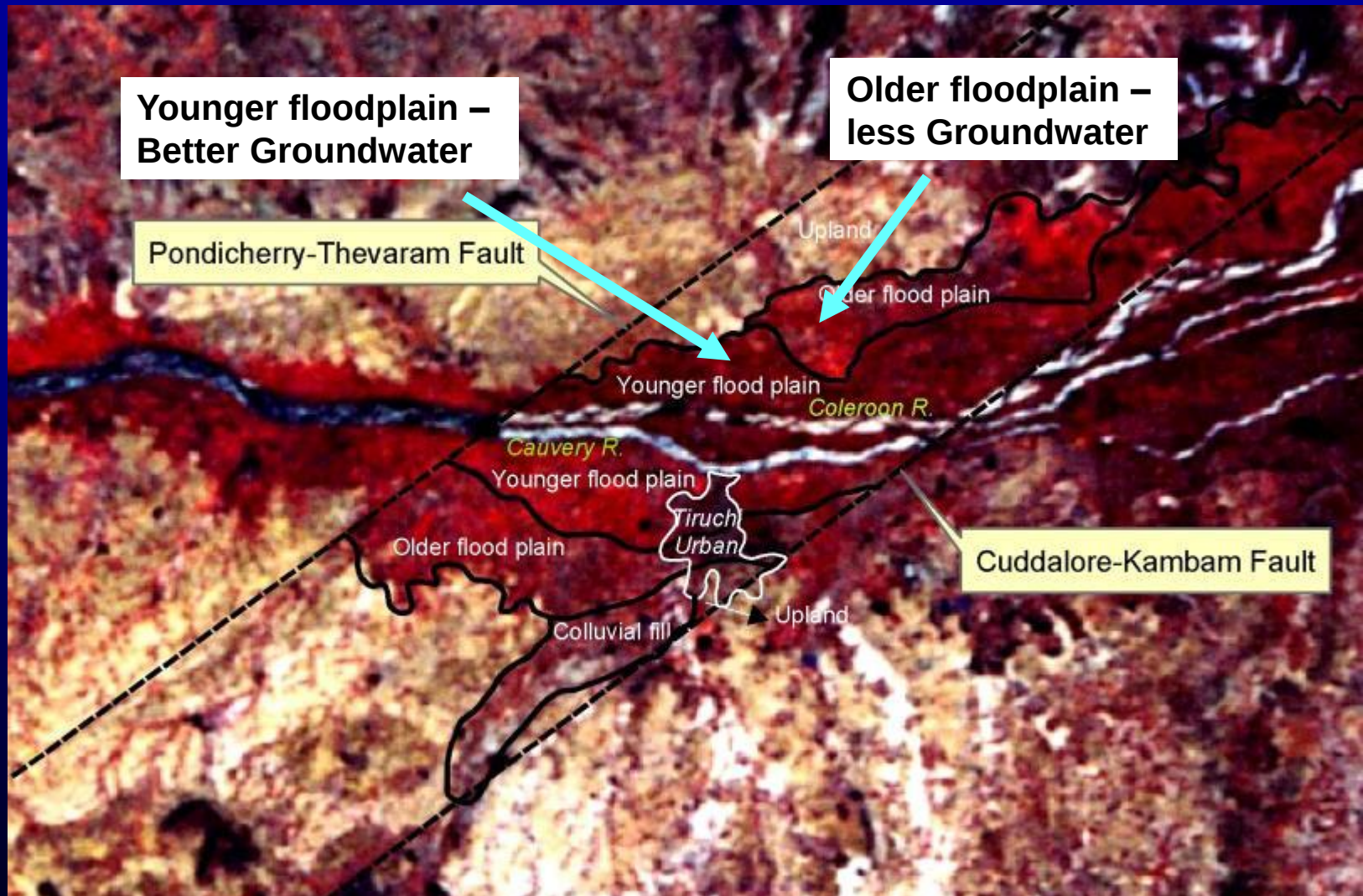
▶ Reasons,

- (i) Rise of land
- (ii) Fall of sea level
- (iii) Excessive daming

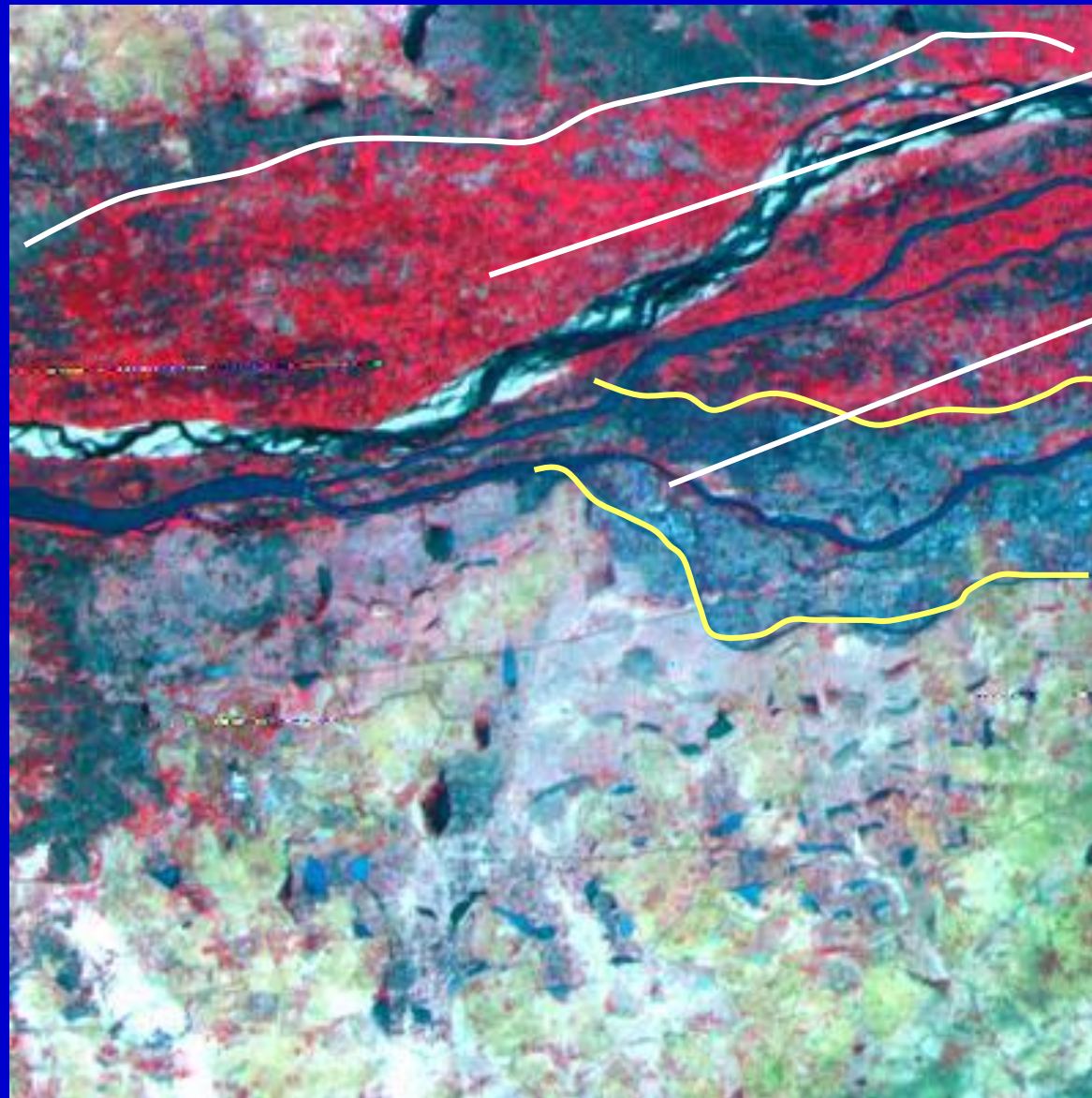
➔ Resources / Environment

- (i) Younger Flood plain - better Ground water
- (ii) Younger Flood plain - prone for flooding
- (iii) Younger Flood plain - better recharge zone.

Multi stage floodplains



FLOOD PLAIN MORPHOLOGY & FLOODING



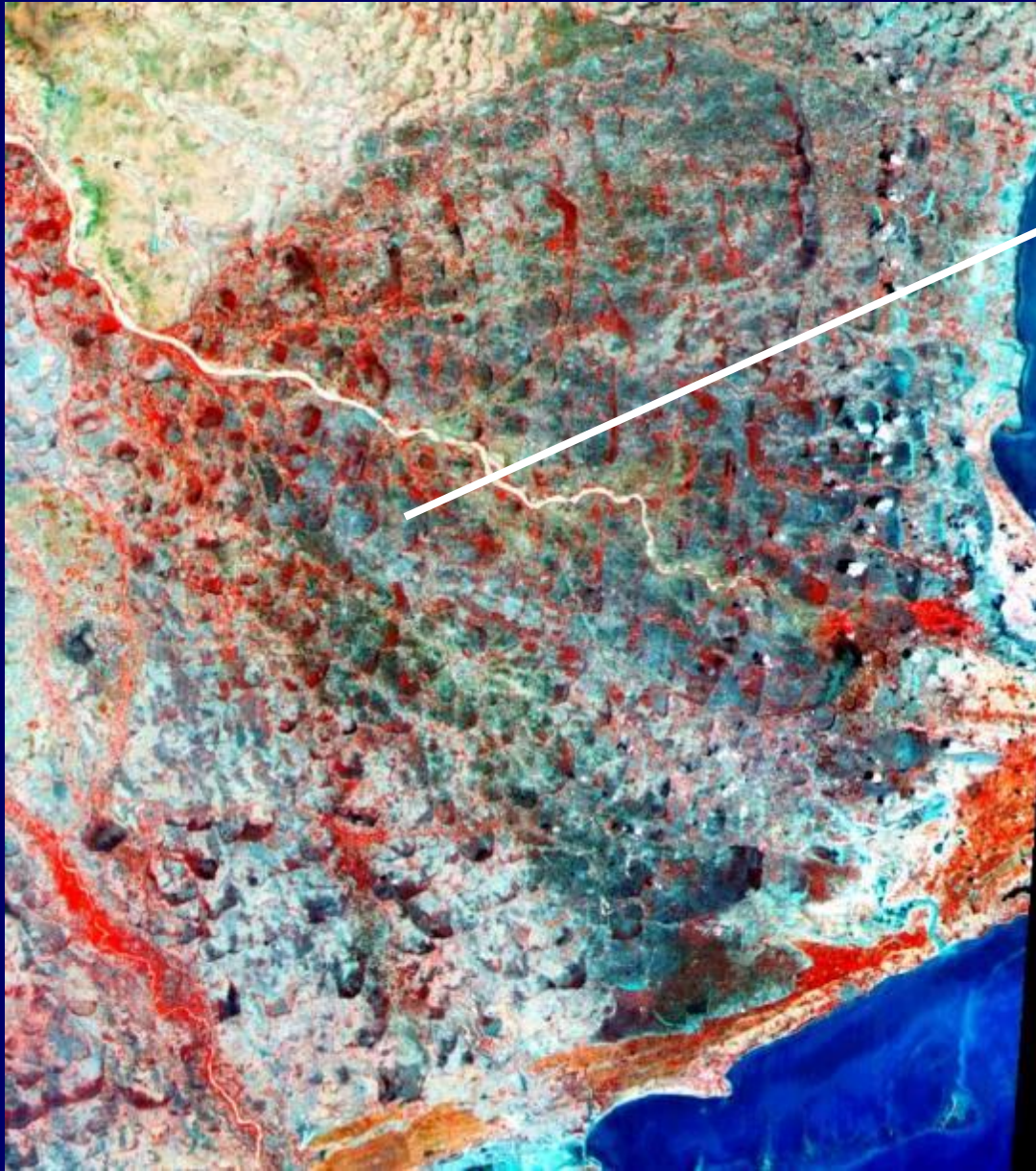
LOWER
FLOODPLAIN

UPPER
FLOODPLAIN

Paired Flood Plain



Deltas & Flooding



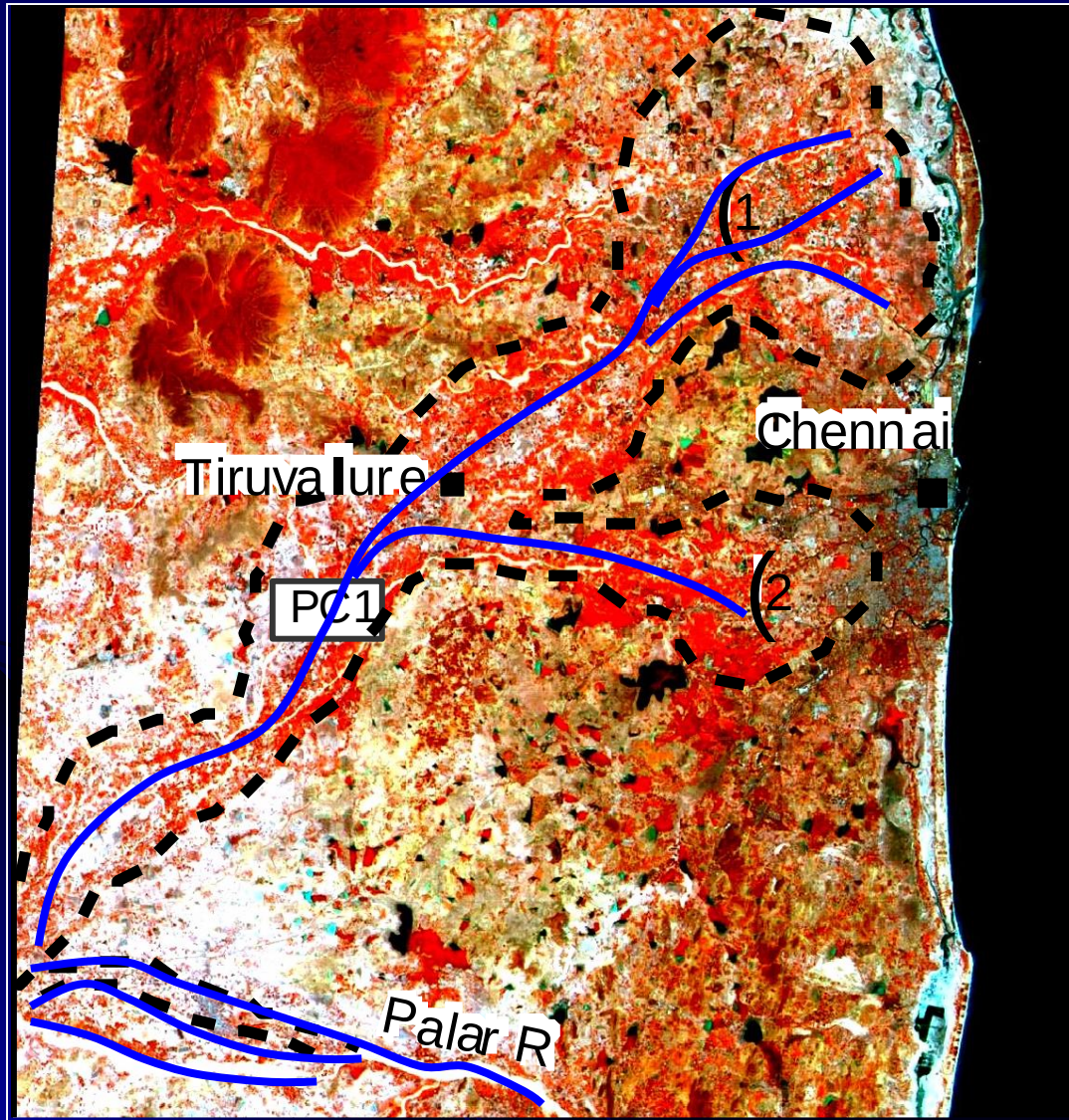
Water bodies lobate
Deltas prone for
heavy siltation –
Tank breach flooding

**Lobate Delta
– Vaigai**

Subsiding deltas Vellar & Flood

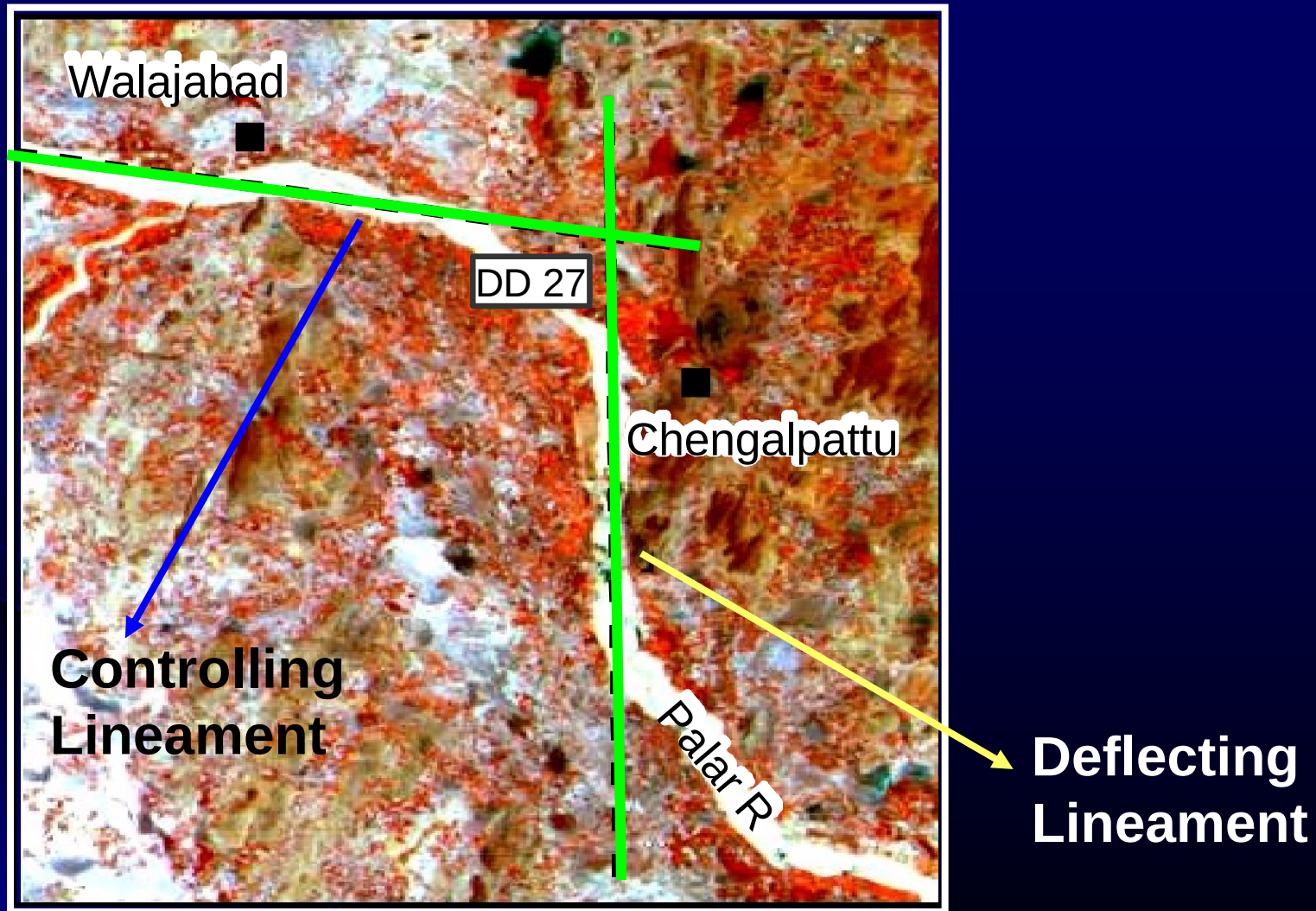


**Water Bodies
Prone for Floods**

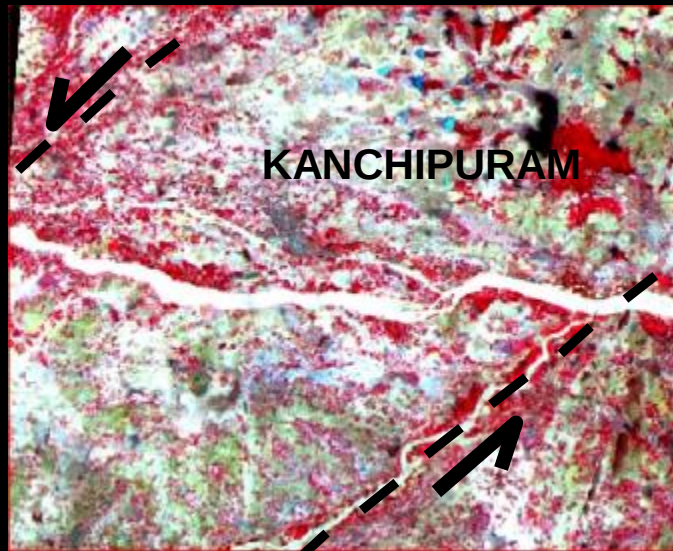


Palaeochannels & Flooding

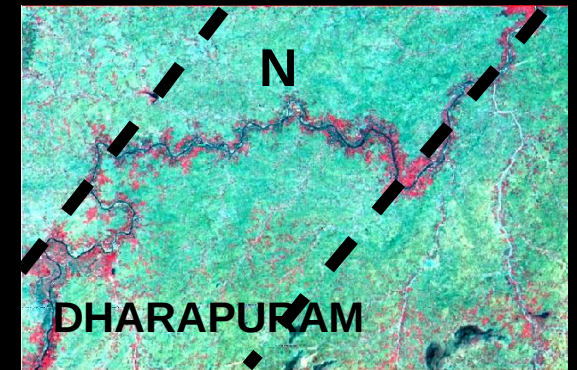
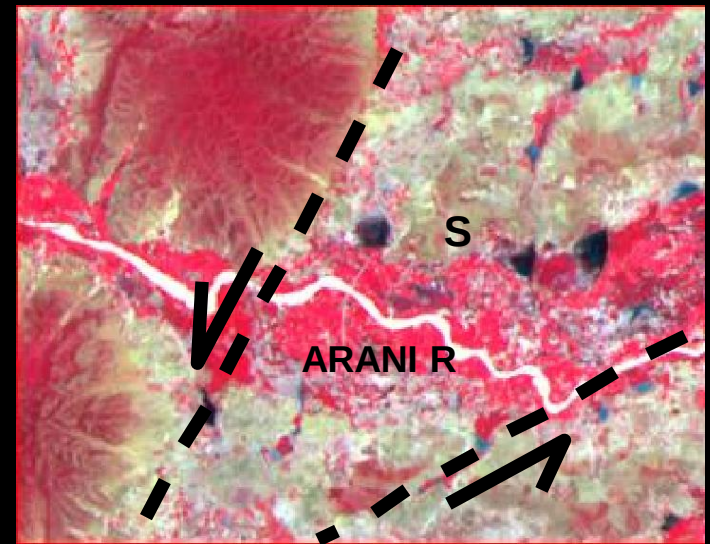
DRINAGE ABBERRATION & Flooding



LATE HOLOCENE NE-SW FAULTS— DRINAGE ABBERRATION

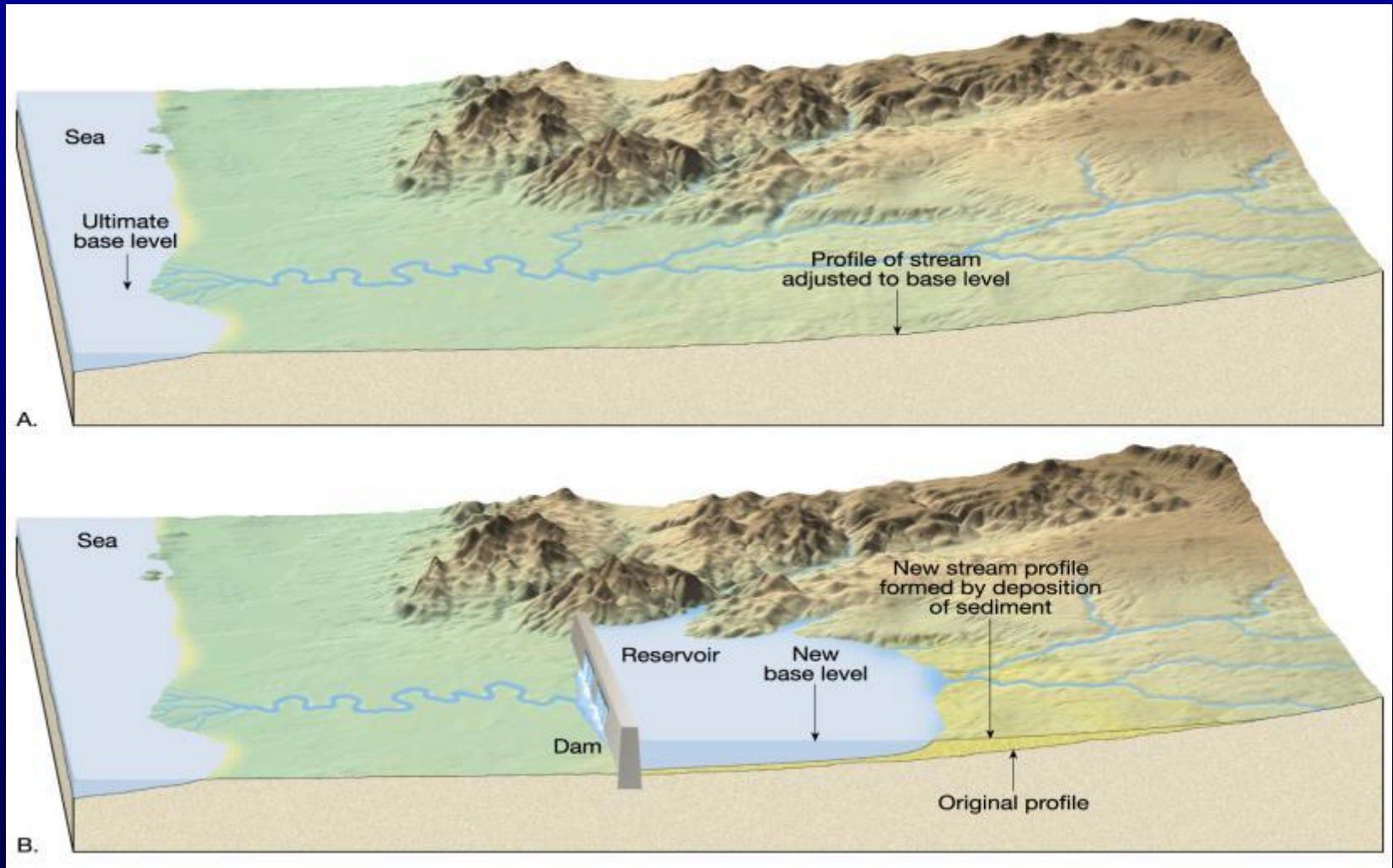


**FLOODING
WATER LOG
SALINITY**



Damming & Flooding in Catchment

Adjustment of Base Level to Changing Conditions



Braided streams

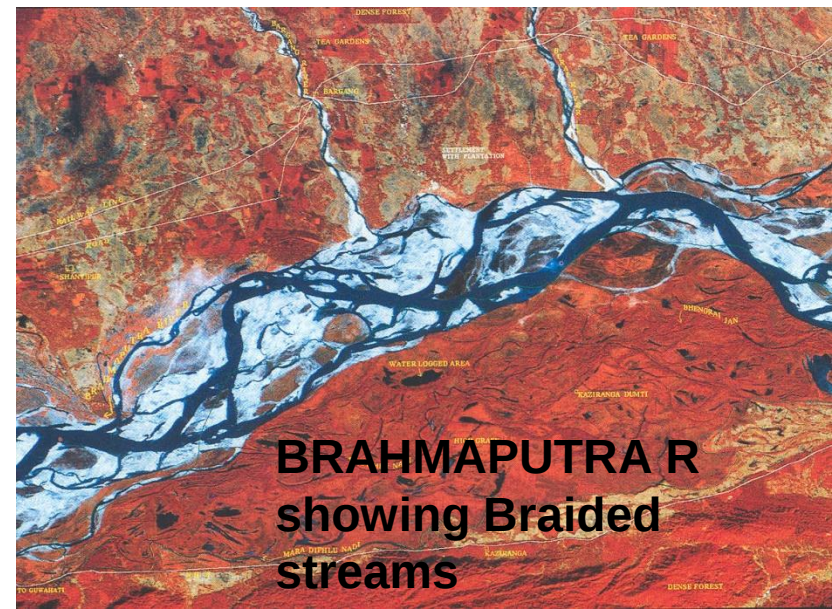
A network of converging and diverging *streams* separated from each other by narrow strips of sand and gravel.

Rivers split up within mother channels

❖ Indicate dams in up stream

❖ Land emergence and seismicity

- High sediment load
- Anastamosing channels
- Constantly changing course
- Floodplain completely occupied by channels
- Many small islands called mid-channel bars
- Usually coarse sand and gravel deposits.



Geological Parameters

Neotectonic activity cause

River rejuvenation

Frequent changes in river courses

Braiding of channels

Meanders etc.,

Sediment Transport

Heavy sediment load due to intensive catchments erosion –
flooding in down stream

Human Activities

Improper landuse / land cover practises – increase runoff and
soil erosion

Deforestation – increase surface runoff and decrease
absorptive capacity

Construction of dams at improper sites

Lack of proper regulatory mechanisms

Obstruction of free flow of water – embankments, bunds etc.,

Consequence of Flood

- ❑ **Excessive Soil Erosion, Landslide, etc. in Hilly region**
- ❑ **Flash flood in Foot hill Region**
- ❑ **River breach & Tank Breach in Plain and Coastal region**
- ❑ **Excessive siltation in the reservoir**

FLOOD PREDICTION

In humid regions

Multi dated analysis of snow cap area

Area of snow melt

Thickness of snow melted

Estimating approximate volume of water going to drain

In Tropic and Sub- tropical regions

Cloud cover analysis using INSAT

Estimating approximate precipitation

Comparing with Past periodical flood history

FLOOD FORECASTING

Identification of main tributary supplying flood water to the basin

Collecting satellite driven rainfall estimates

Rainfall data captured on ground

**A comprehensive communication network to transmit RS data along
With automated ground observation**

Spatial information on catchments characteristics

Geology

Soil

Landuse / Land cover

Preparation of rainfall runoff model

DEM data of the area

Using GIS – probable area of inundation

Role of Remote Sensing and GIS

Role of space applications in disaster management lies in its criticality to produce as well as disseminate the information on real/near real time basis.

The developments in space technology offer tremendous technological potential to address the crucial information needs during mitigation and preparedness, response and recovery/ relief phases of a flood.

Table 12.1: Information requirements for a disaster manager

S.No	Phase	Required Information
1	Flood preparedness (Before Flood)	– Chronically flood prone areas – Prior information on probable flood affected areas with considerable lead time – Optimum evacuation plans
2	Relief and Rescue (During flood)	– Flood affected areas – Flood damage statistics – Updation of the flood condition in terms of flood recedence and persistence etc.
3	Flood Mitigation (After Flood)	– Changes in the river course – The status of flood control works – River bank erosion – Drainage congestion – Flood Risk zones

Role of Space Technology....

During preparation phase

- ❑ Using historic satellite remote sensing data acquired during floods, it is possible to provide the chronically flood prone areas in the form of a map showing severely affected, occasionally affected, etc.
- ❑ Prior information on probable flood affected areas using hydrological models can be provided
- ❑ Using flood inundation models in GIS environment, optimum evacuation plans can be generated for carrying out rescue operations

During floods,

A flood map showing the spatial extent of the flood affected areas

Flood damage statistics like district-wise flood affected area, submerged crop, marooned villages and length of submerged road/rail can be provided

Satellite data can be used at regular intervals for updation of the flood condition on the ground in terms of flood progression, recedence and persistence

The main components of flood mapping and monitoring

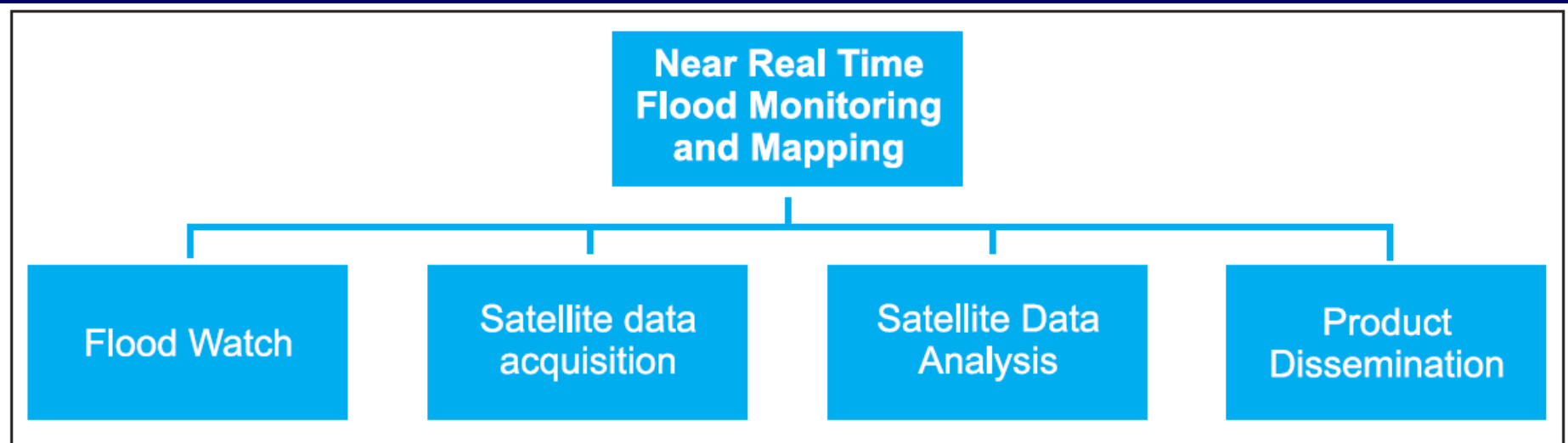
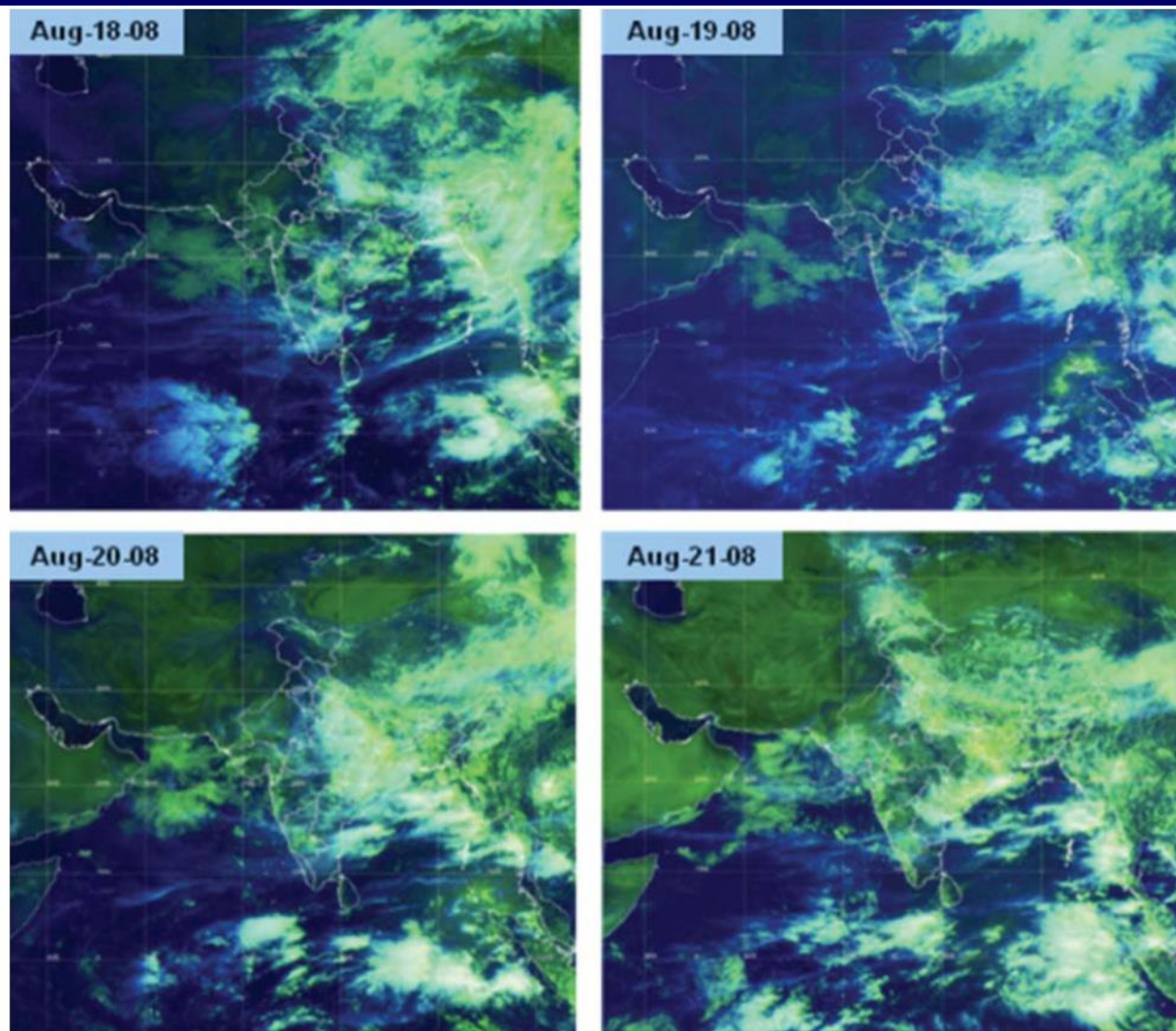


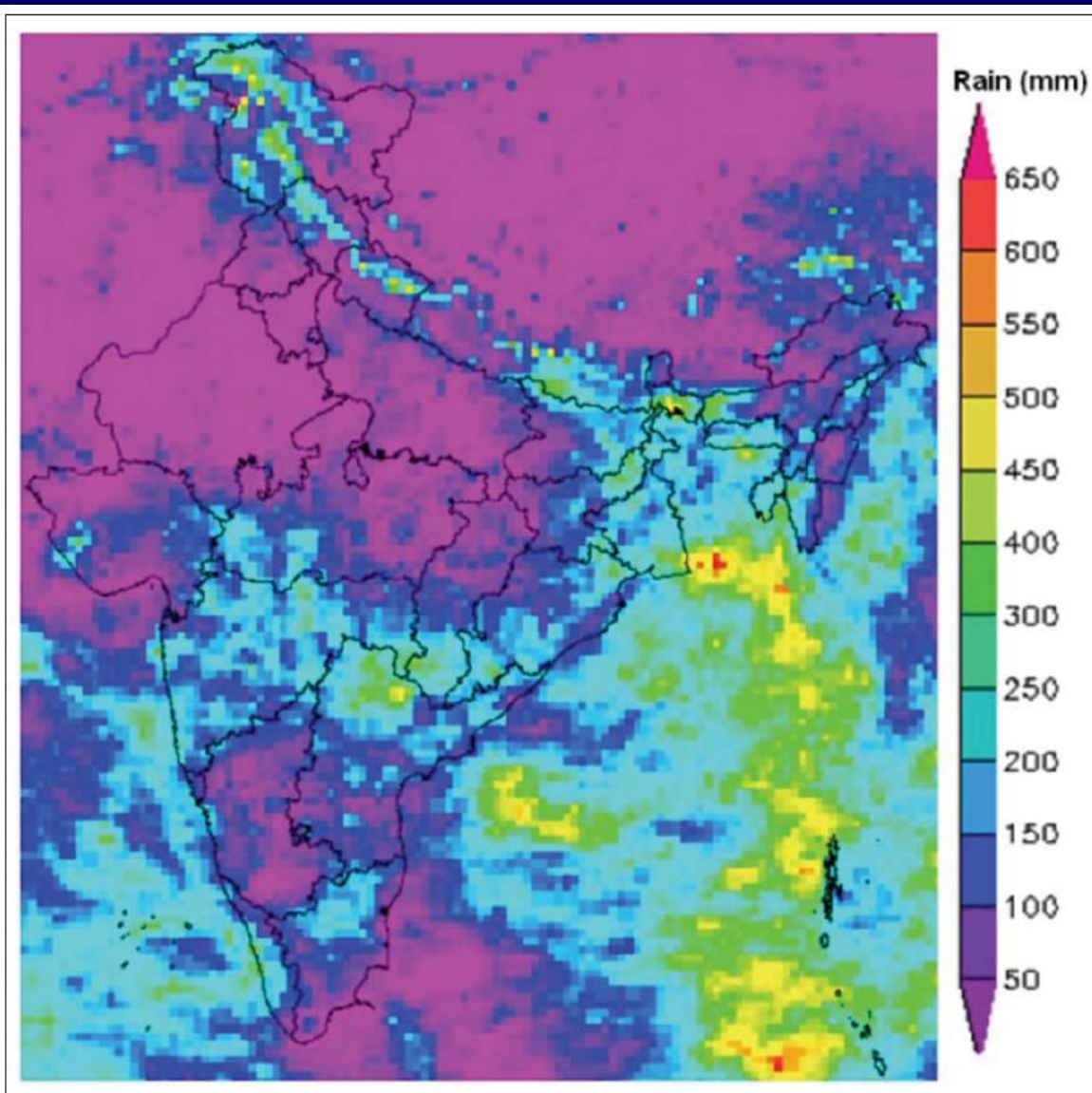
Figure 12.1: Components of the Near Real Time Flood Mapping and Monitoring Activity

FLOOD WATCH



Meteorological satellite KALPANA-1 images over the country were collected to understand the cloud cover pattern. The cloud cover over the country from 18-21 August, 2008 through a series of INSAT images

Figure 12.2: KALPANA-1 images showing cloud cover during 18-21 August 2008 (Source: www.imd.ernet.in)

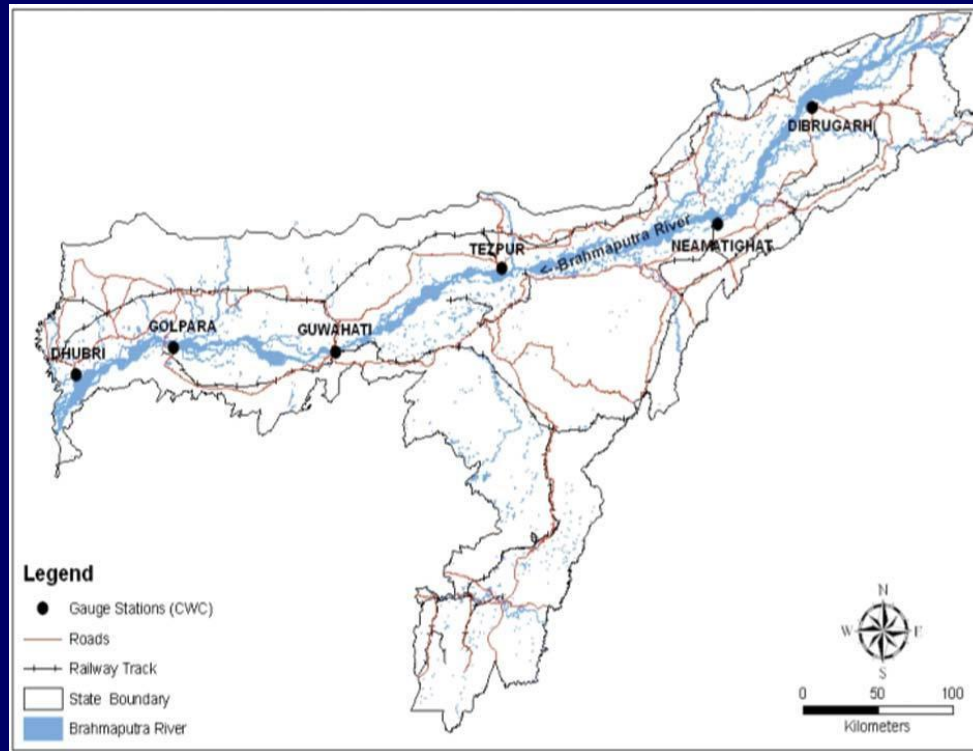


The rainfall distribution from Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) merged products which are available on their website are also downloaded

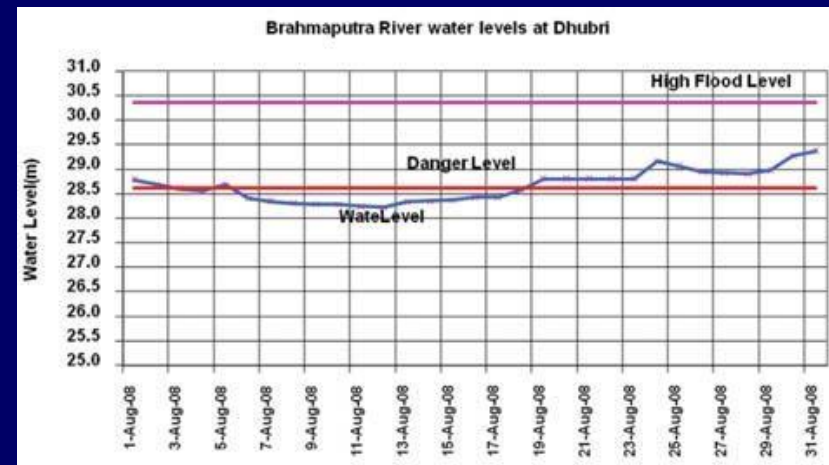
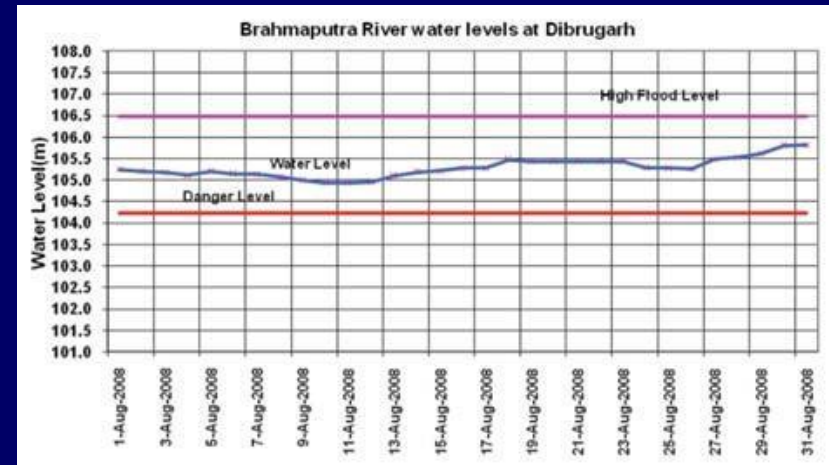
Figure 12.3b: Rainfall distribution maps from TRMM merged product

Water Level Data

The water level data of rivers and its tributaries at various gauge recording stations is obtained from CWC on daily basis



Location of gauge stations along river Brahmaputra in Assam



Satellite Data Acquisition

After the flood watch, the affected regions are identified and all the available satellites onboard covering the affected area are earmarked and coverage charts are prepared

Table 12.3: Satellites and their Sensors used for flood mapping

S.No	Satellite	Sensor/ Mode	Spatial Res(m)	Spectral Res (µm)	Swath (km)	Used For
1	IRS-P6	AWiFS	56	B2: 0.52-0.59 B3: 0.62-0.68 B4:0.77-0.86 B5: 1.55-1.70	740	Regional level flood mapping
2	IRS-P6	LISS-III	23.5	B2: 0.52-0.59 B3: 0.62-0.68 B4:0.77-0.86 B5: 1.55-1.70	141	District-level flood mapping
3	IRS-P6	LISS-IV	5.8 at nadir	B2: 0.52-0.59 B3: 0.62-0.68 B4:0.77-0.86	23.9	Detailed level Mapping
4	IRS-1D	WiFS	188	B3: 0.62-0.68 B4:0.77-0.86	810	Regional level flood mapping
5	IRS-1D	LISS-III	23.5	B2: 0.52-0.59 B3: 0.62-0.68 B4:0.77-0.86 B5: 1.55-1.70	141	Detailed level Mapping
6	Aqua/ Terra	MODIS	250	36 in visible, NIR & thermal	2330	Regional level Mapping

6	Aqua/ Terra	MODIS	250	36 in visible, NIR & thermal	2330	Regional level Mapping
7	IRS-P4	OCM	360	Eight narrow bands in visible & NIR	1420	Regional level Mapping
8	Cartosat-1	PAN	2.5	0.5- 0.85	30	Detailed level Mapping
9	Cartosat-2	PAN	1	0.45-0.85	9.6	Detailed level Mapping
10	Radarsat-1	SAR/ ScanSAR Wide	100	C-band (5.3 cm) HH Polarization	500	Regional level mapping
11	Radarsat-1	SAR/ ScanSAR Narrow	50	C-band (5.3 cm)	300	District-level mapping
12	Radarsat-1	Standard	25	C-band	100	District-level mapping
13	Radarsat-1	Fine beam	8	C-band (5.3 cm)	50	Detailed level mapping
14	ERS	SAR	25	C-band VV Polarization	100	District-level mapping

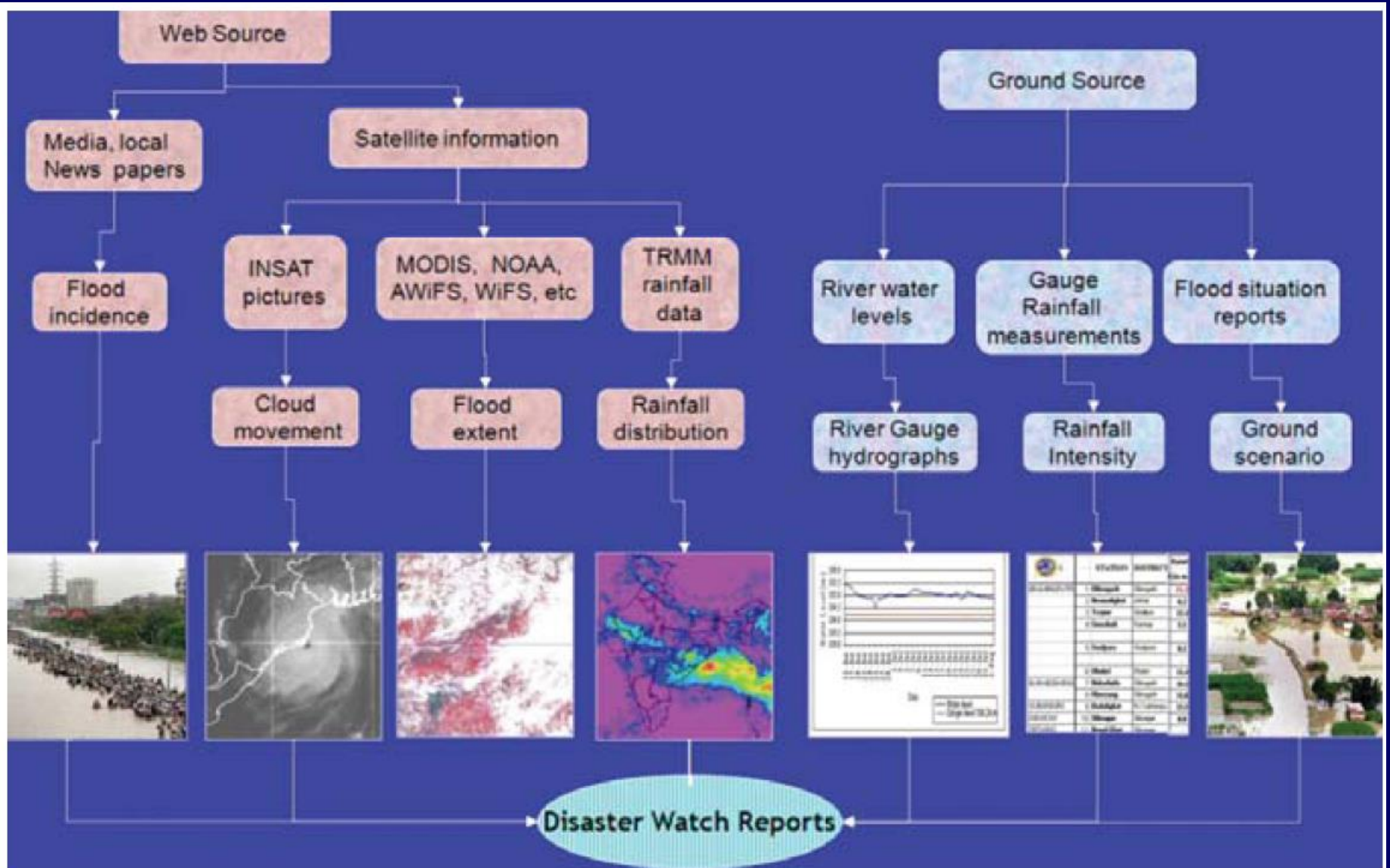
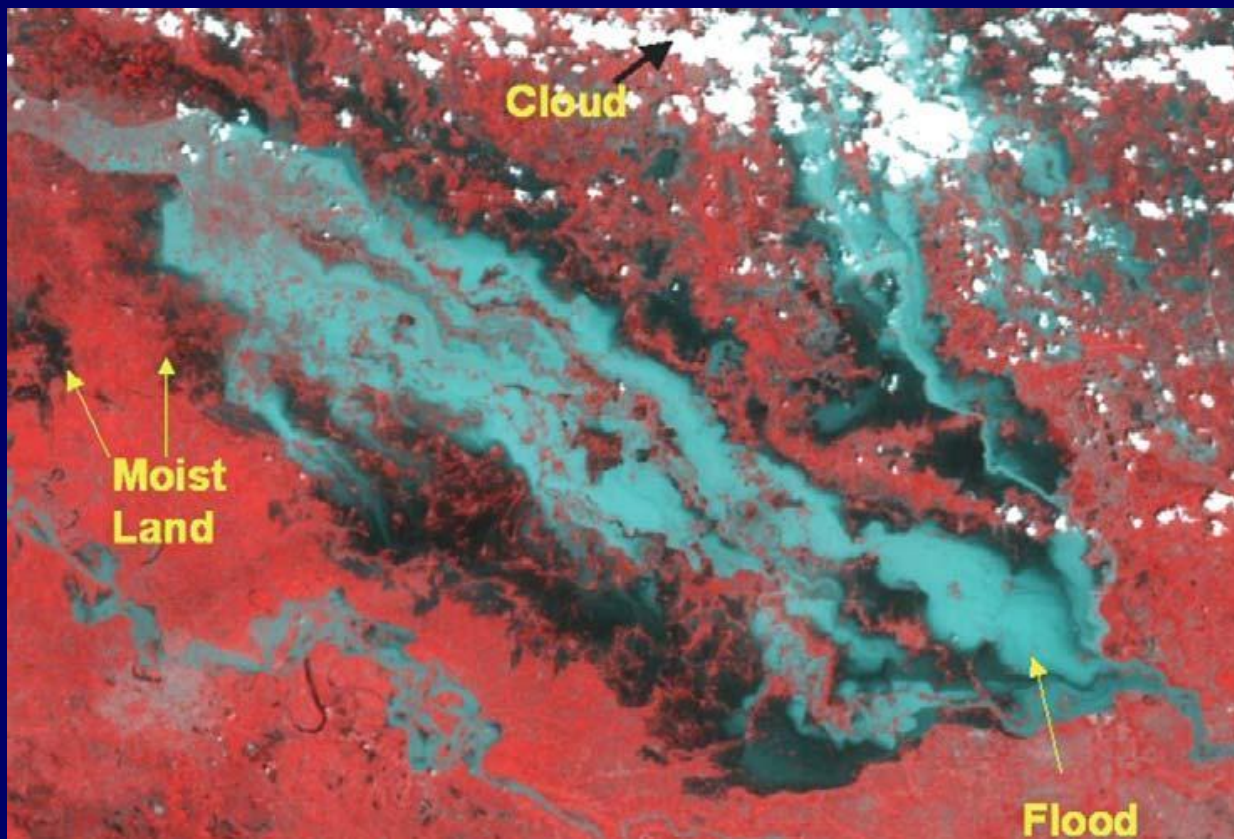


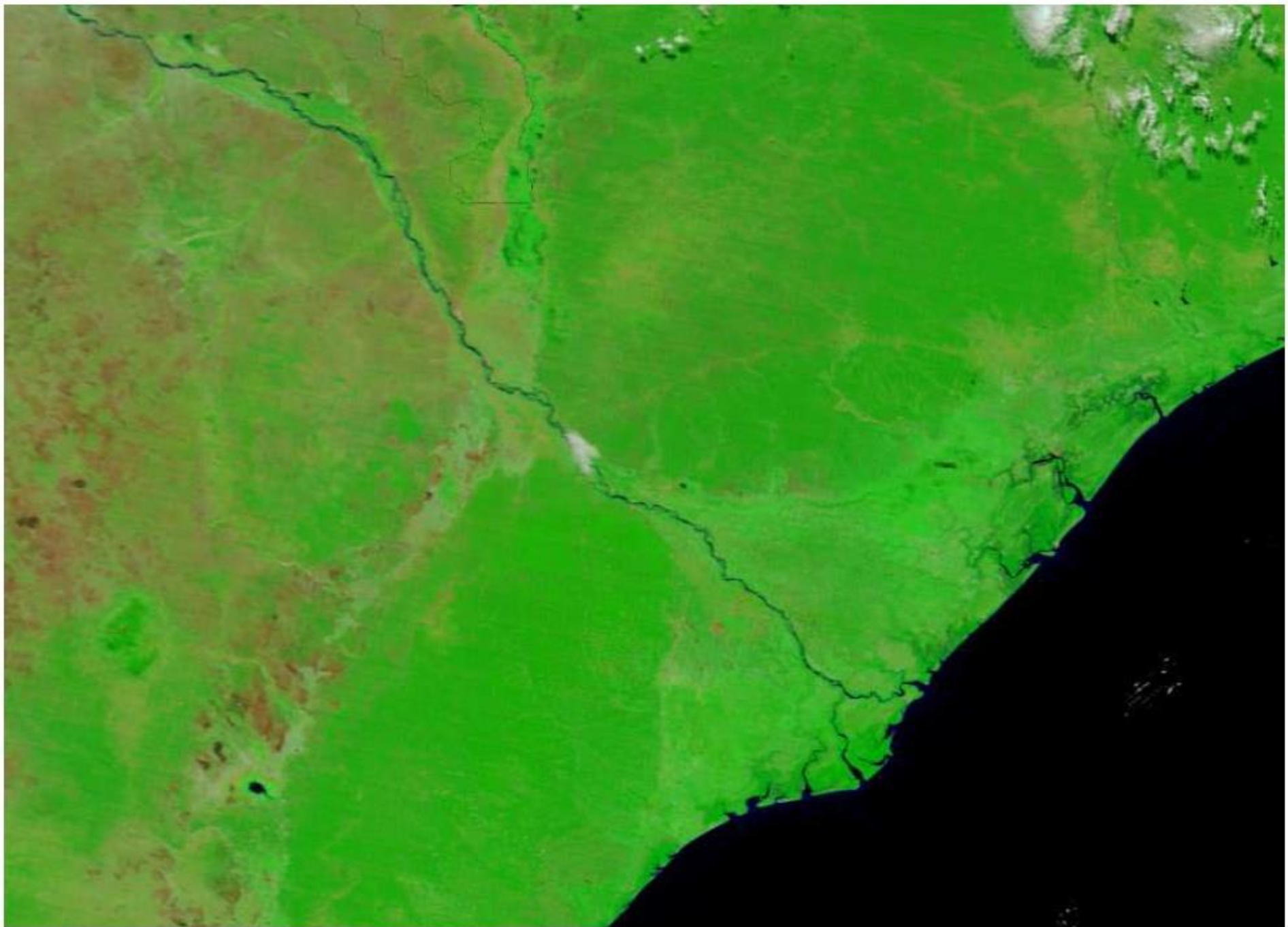
Figure 12.8: Elements for satellite data planning and acquisition



Satellite Data Analysis

Optical Data

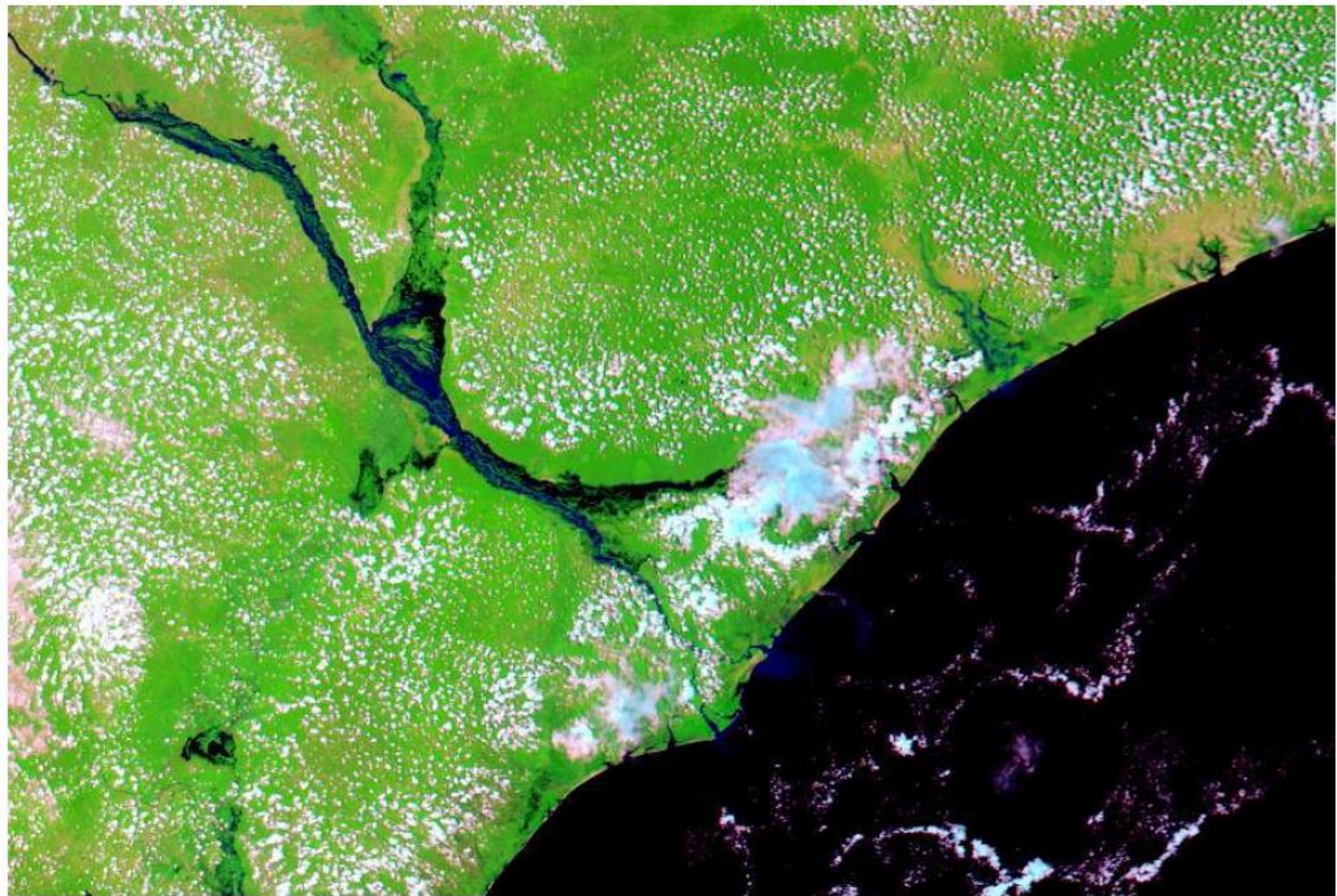
Optical remote sensors measure the reflectance from objects on the ground. Pure and deep-water bodies absorb most of the electro-magnetic energy and reflect very little energy. Flood water, because of different sediment concentrations, reflects considerable energy in different bands, including near infra red (NIR) region



Dry season

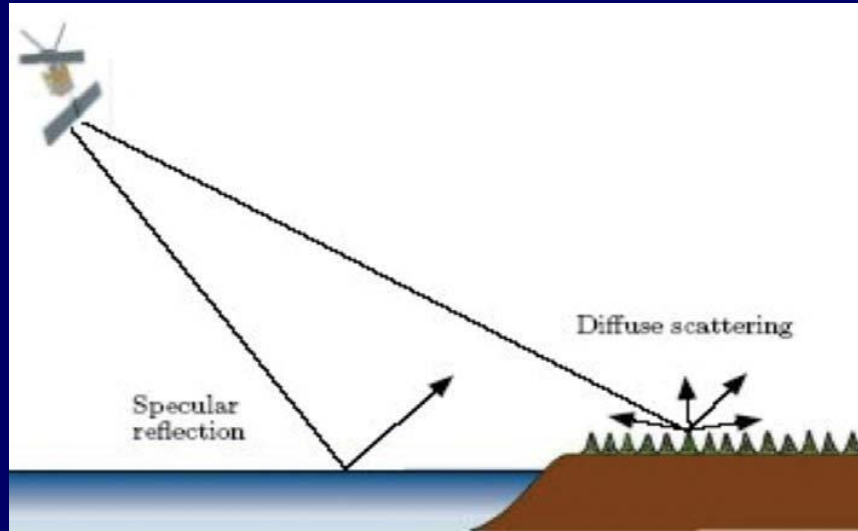


8 January 2008



03 February 2008

Microwave Data



The advantage of using radar data over the optical data is its ability to penetrate cloud cover and also data acquisition during day and night.

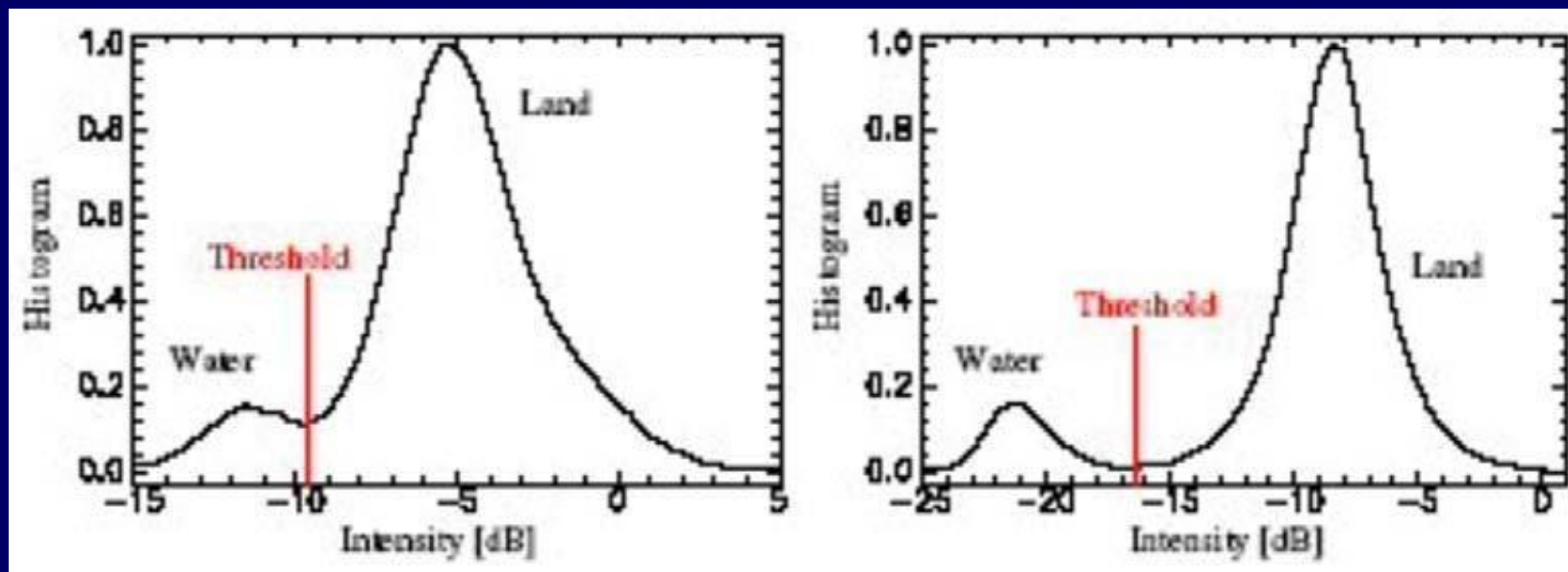
Water surfaces are generally smooth at radar wavelengths and can be regarded as specular reflectors which yield small backscatter.

The surrounding terrain is assumed to be rough at radar wavelengths which exhibits diffuse scattering with moderate backscatter

The backscatter depends on the frequency, incidence angle, polarization and is sensitive to the ripples on the water surface induced by wind waves.

Thresholding is the traditional method of detecting flooding in open areas. Intensities below the threshold are regarded as flood or open water, whereas pixels with intensities above the threshold are regarded as dry land.

We observe that for the 45° incidence angle case the water and land modes are easily separable with the proposed threshold, whereas the proposed threshold at 23° incidence angle introduce classification errors



Histograms of two SAR images covering same area with different incidence angles (Left: 23° & Right: 45°)

FLOOD MAPPING

Remote Sensing & GIS Based Methodology

Before the onset of flood season, pre-flood satellite data over flood prone states are acquired and analysed.

River banklines, permanent water bodies and active river channel are extracted using digitization tools. These datasets and layers will be used as master data sets for further analysis.

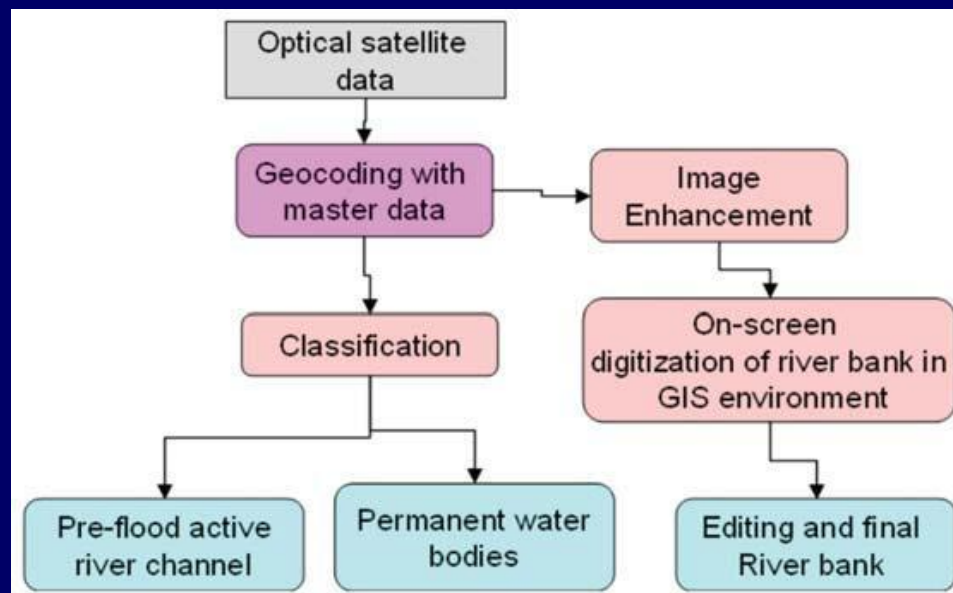
Such pre-flood master layers are prepared every year for all the flood prone rivers in the country.

The satellite data acquired during floods is geocoded with the respective master data sets.

In case of optical data, supervised classification is performed using the infra red band by providing about 10 training classes in water at different pockets. A cloud mask and a cloud shadow mask are also prepared.

Since signature of cloud edges mixes with the water signature, a model was developed to classify water and cloud using different spectral bands for AWiFS data

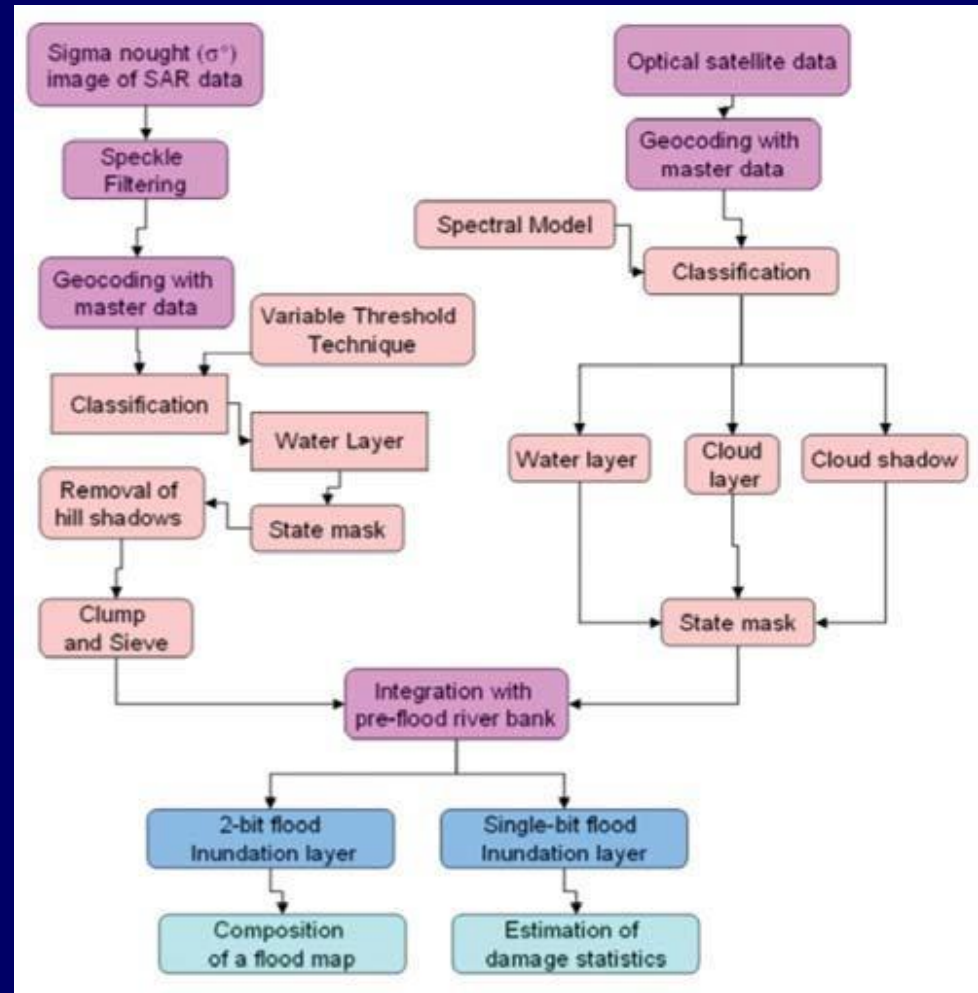
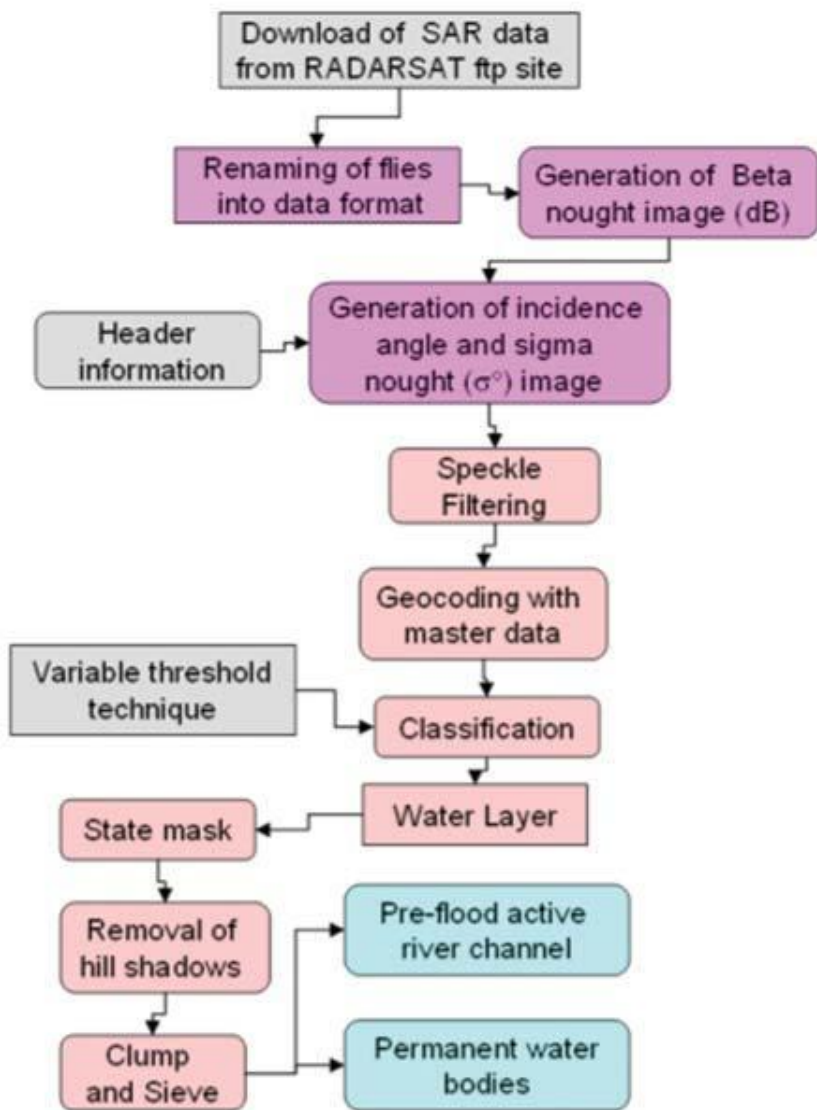
Flow chart for pre-flood analysis of optical data



In case of SAR data, sigma nought is generated and using variable threshold model, water is classified. Post editing tools are applied and final flood layer is prepared.

The flood inundation layer is prepared by integrating the water layer with the pre-flood active river channel, permanent water bodies and river bank. The flood inundation layer is prepared in 2-bit consisting of the pre-flood river bank, permanent water bodies, active river channel as one theme and flood layer as the second theme.

A single-bit flood inundation layer is also generated for estimation of damage statistics. The final flood inundation layer is converted from raster to vector format for composition of a flood map and generation of damage statistics.

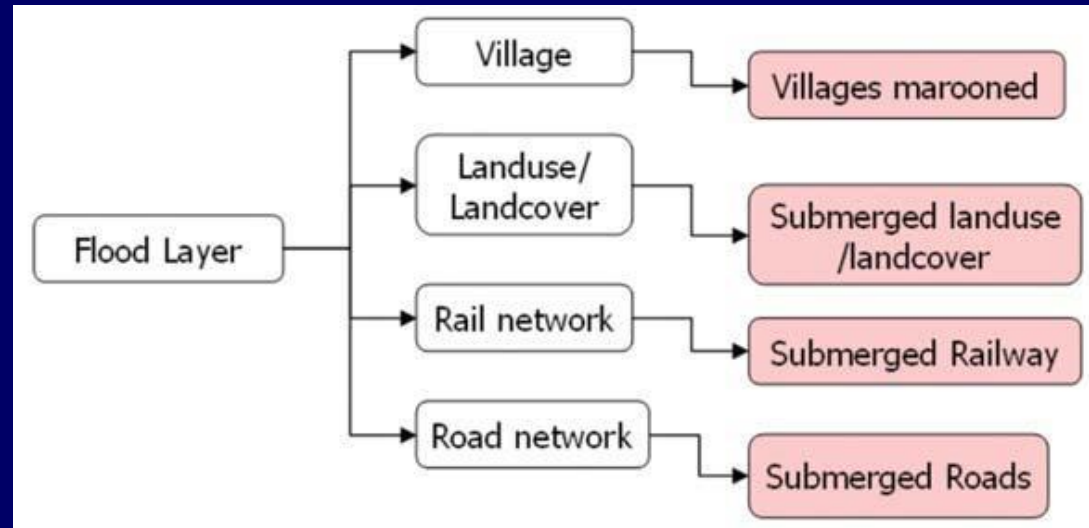


Methodology for analysis of satellite data during floods

Database Needed for Flood Mapping

Table 12.5: Database layers

S.No	Layers
1	Administrative boundaries – International – State – District – Taluk/Mandal/Block – Village Road – National Highway – Major Roads – State Highway – District Road – Village Road – Other Roads Railway Settlements Landuse/Landcover – Kharif crop – Double crop
2	Pre-flood/water bodies
3	Flood Inundation layer
4	Cloud cover

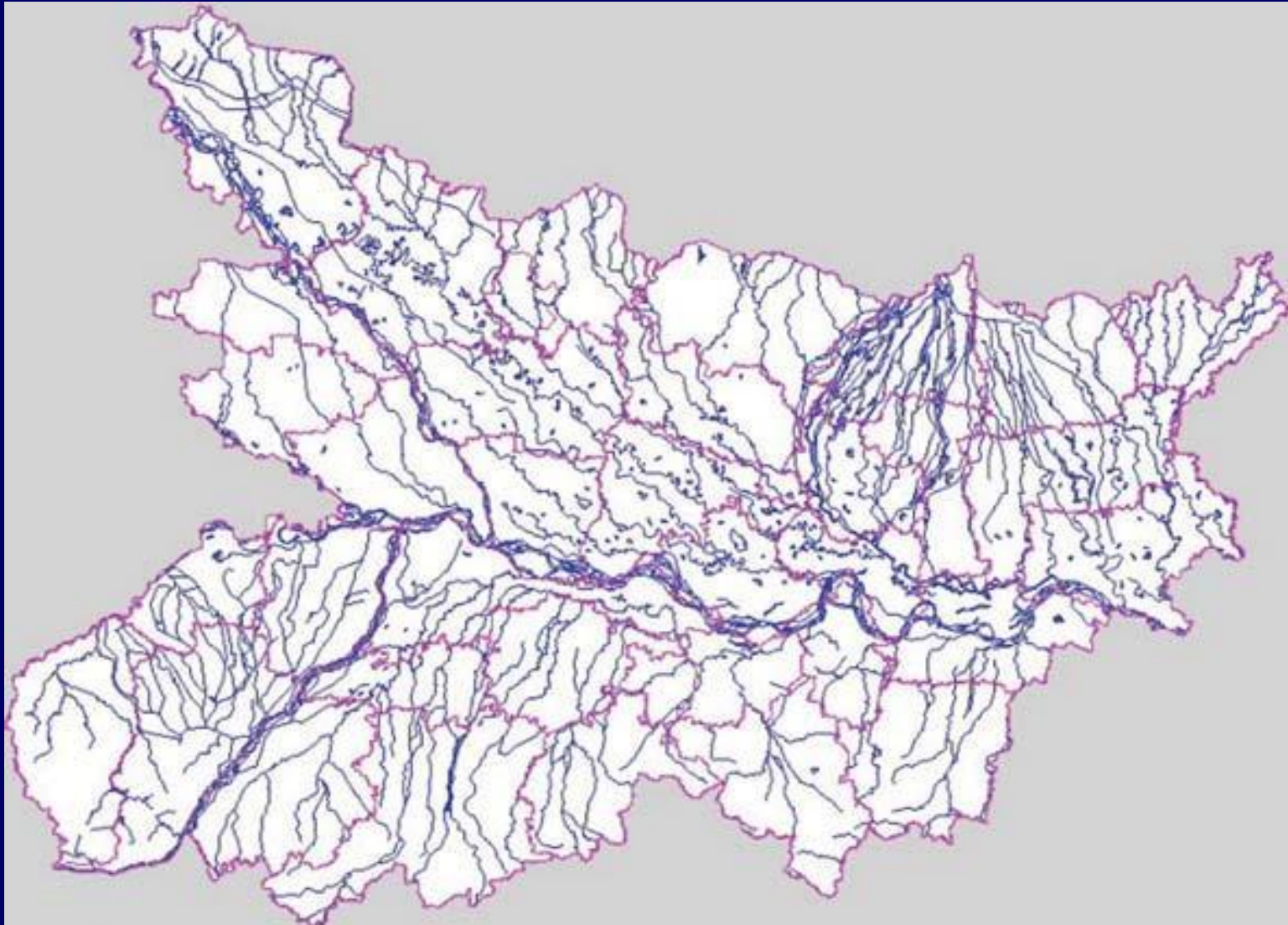


Generation of damage statistics

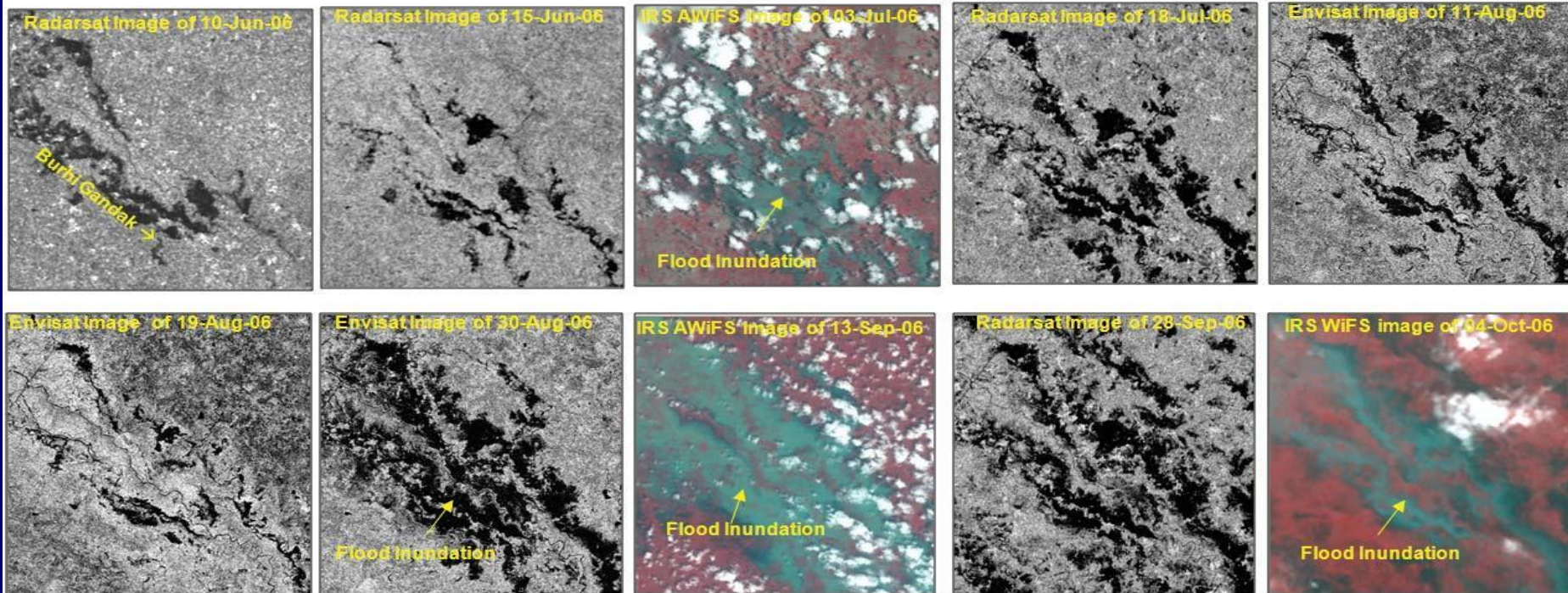
Case Study – 2006 Floods in Bihar, India

Bihar, the land-locked central Indian state that lies in the Gangetic basin, accounts for 16.5% of the flood-prone area and 22.1% of the flood-affected population in India. Out of 94.16 Lakh ha of geographical area, 68.80 Lakh ha is flood prone and 30 out of 37 districts of Bihar are flood prone.

The flood-prone area of Bihar has nearly tripled from 2.5 million hectares in 1954 to 6.8 million hectares in 1994.



River stream network in Bihar



*Continuous monitoring from
June to Oct., 2006*

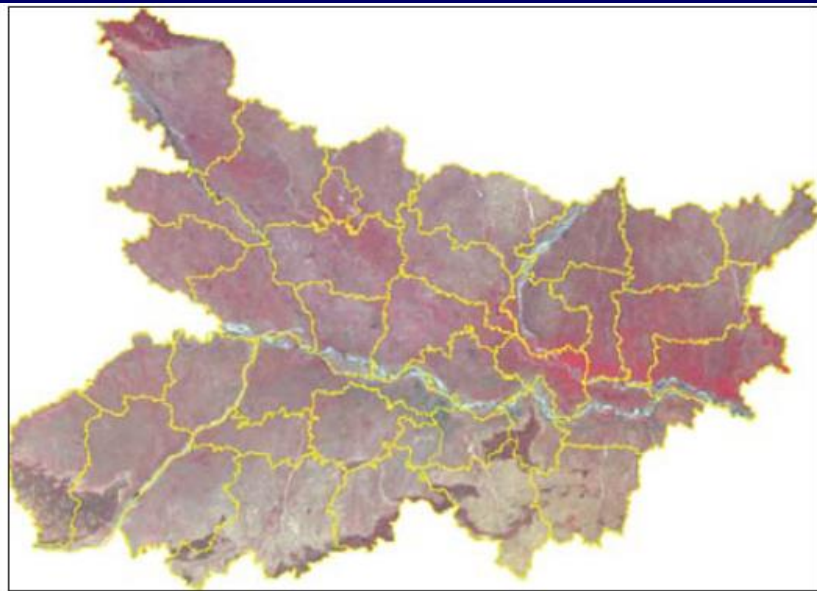


Figure 12.18a: Pre-flood AWiFS image of Bihar state

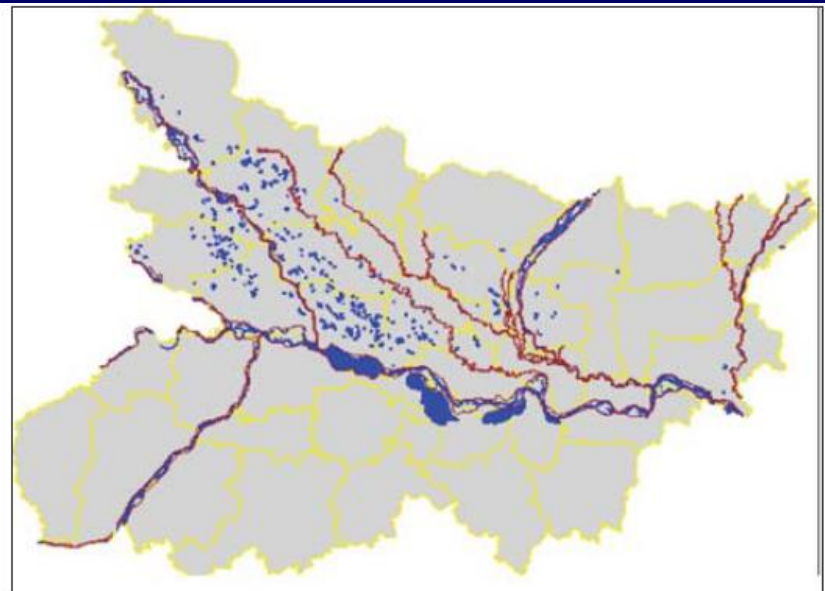


Figure 12.18b: River bank and permanent water bodies

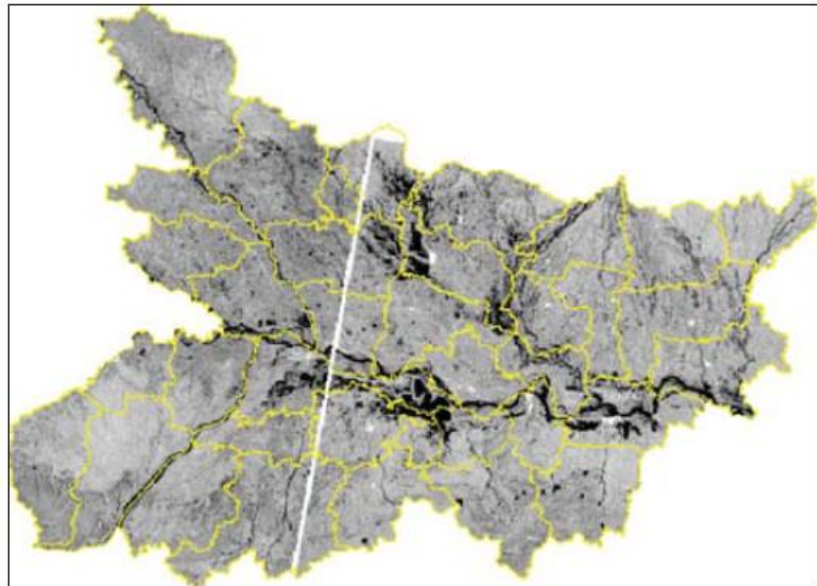


Figure 12.18c: Combined Radarsat image of 28 & 29 Sep., 2006 acquired during flooding

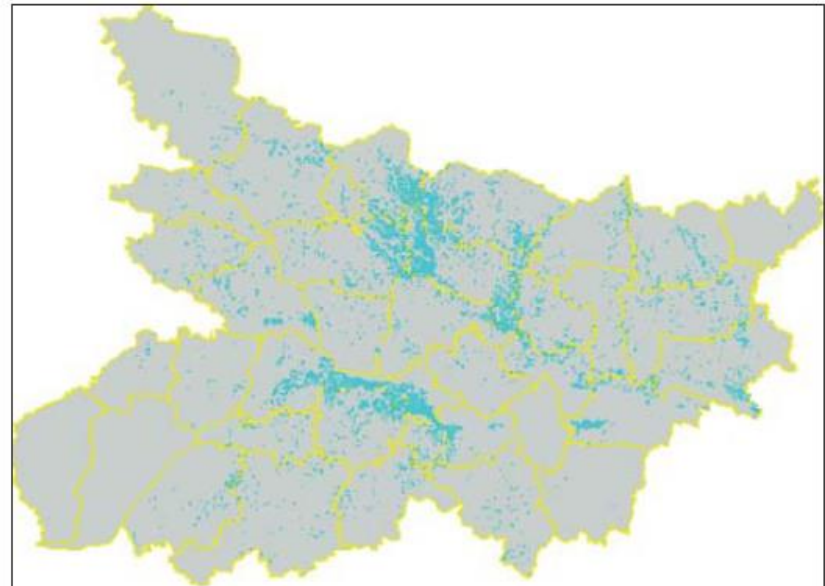
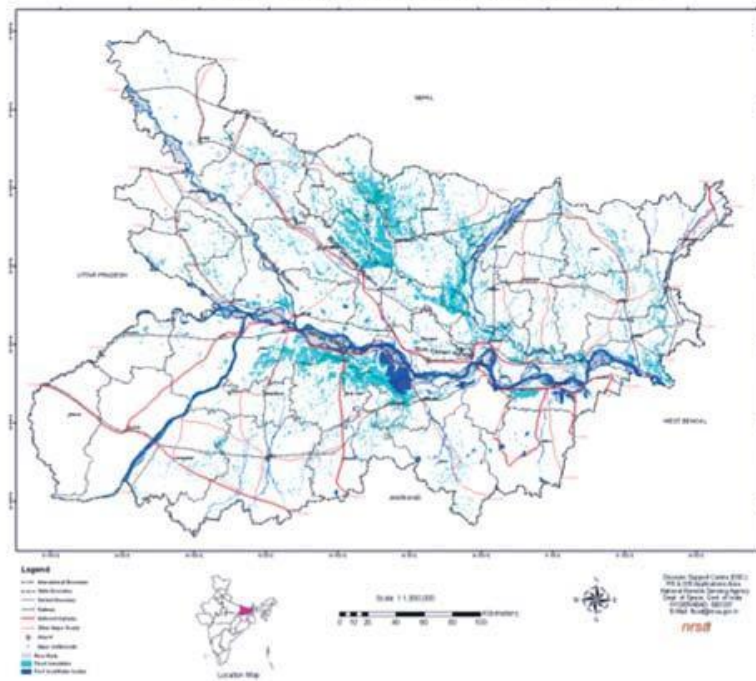
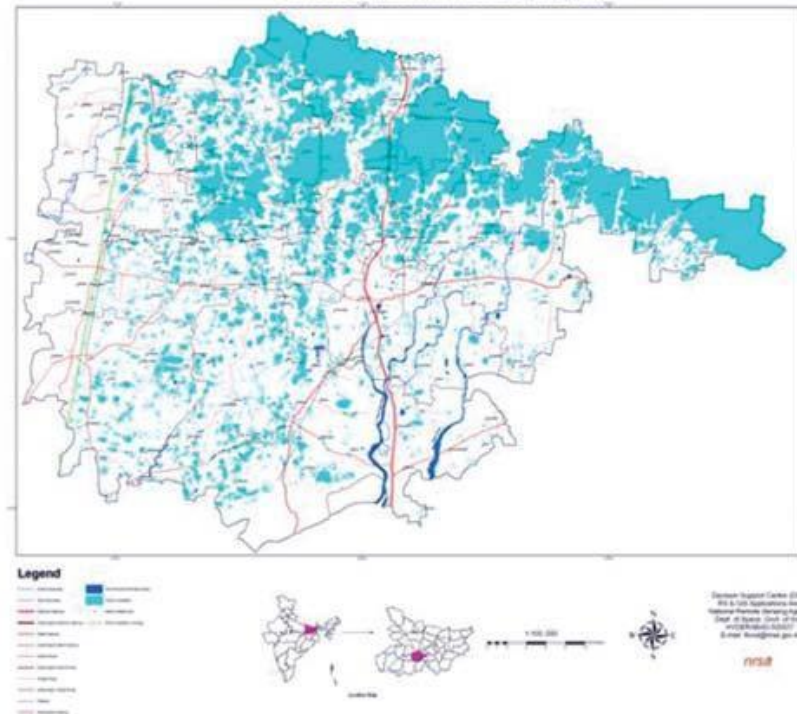


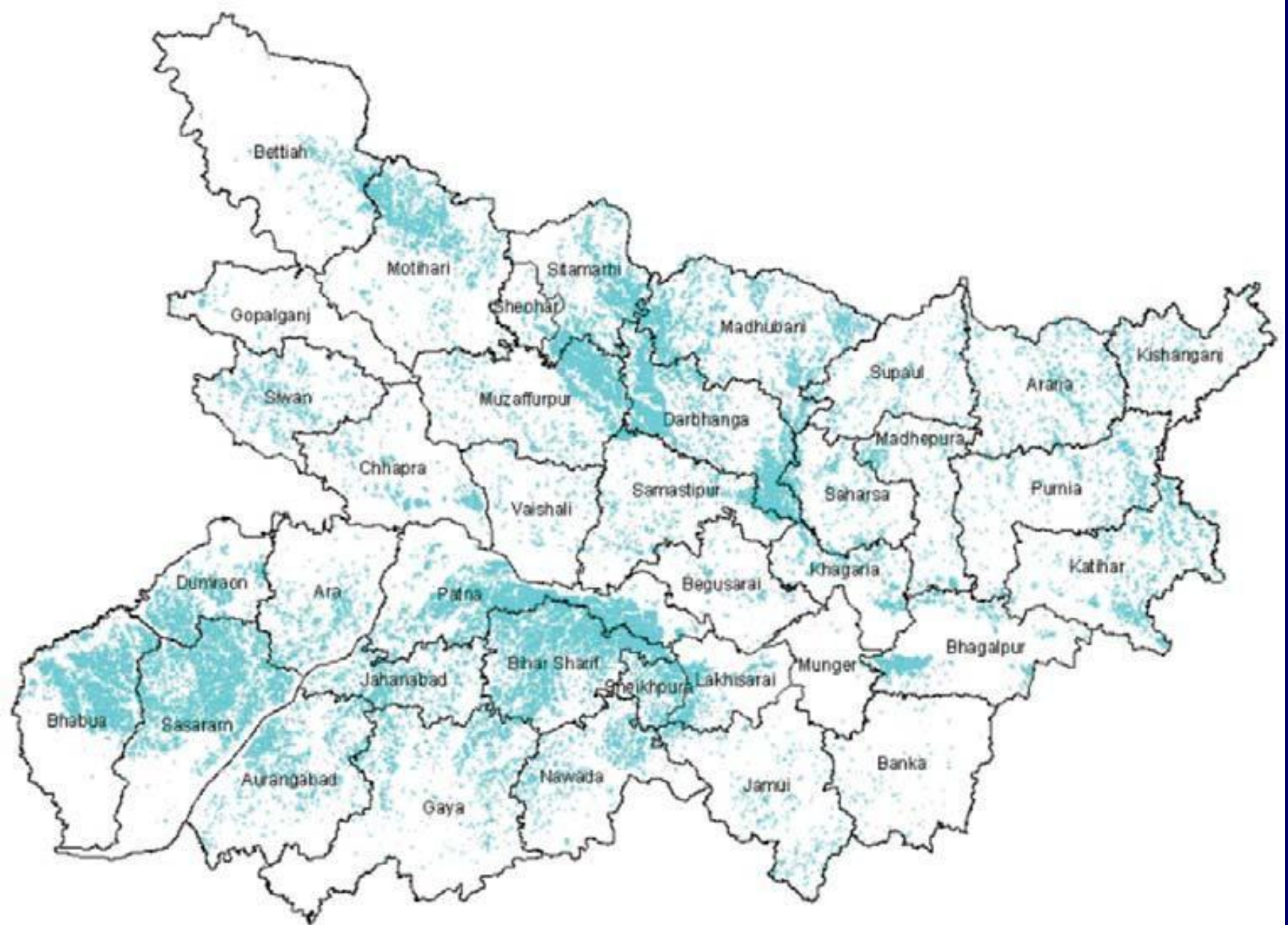
Figure 12.18d: Extracted single-bit flood inundation layer from 28 & 29 Sep., 2006 image

Flood Inundated areas in Bihar state Based on the analysis of Radarsat data of 28 and 29-Sep-2006

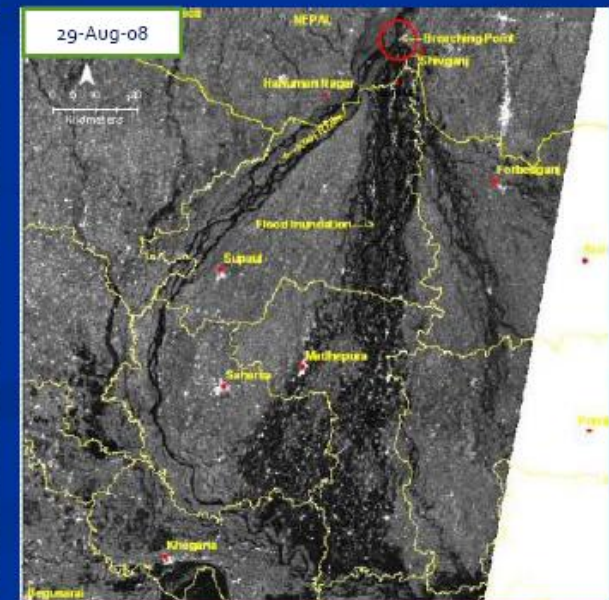
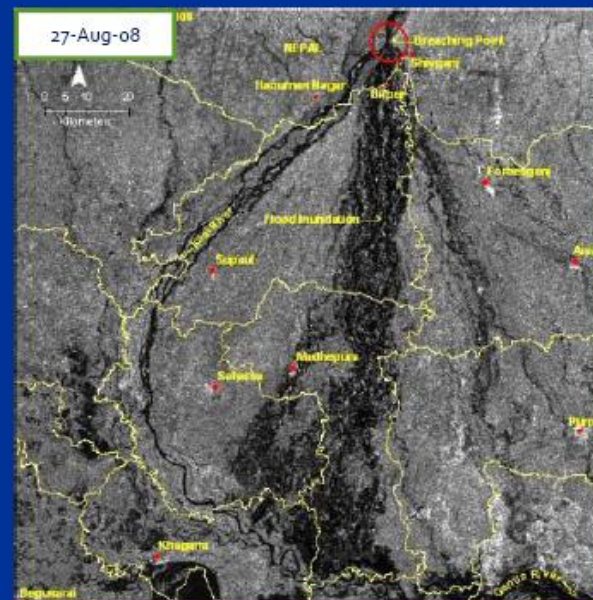
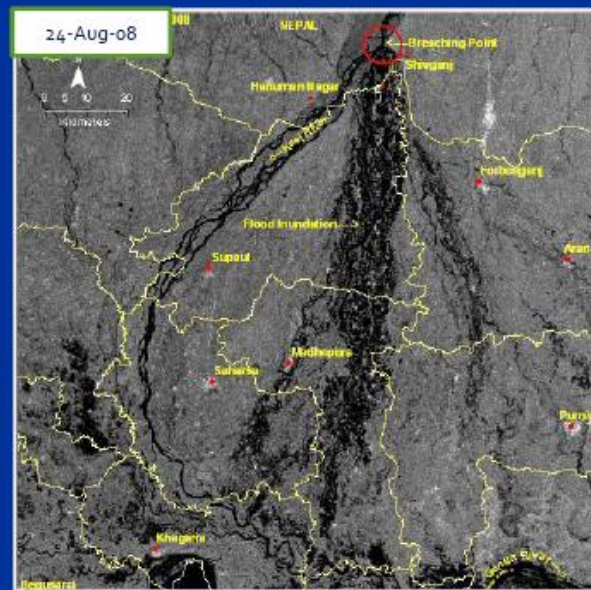
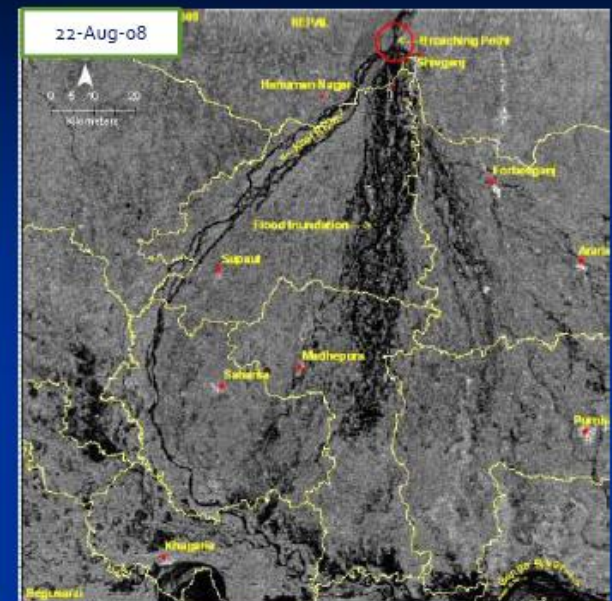
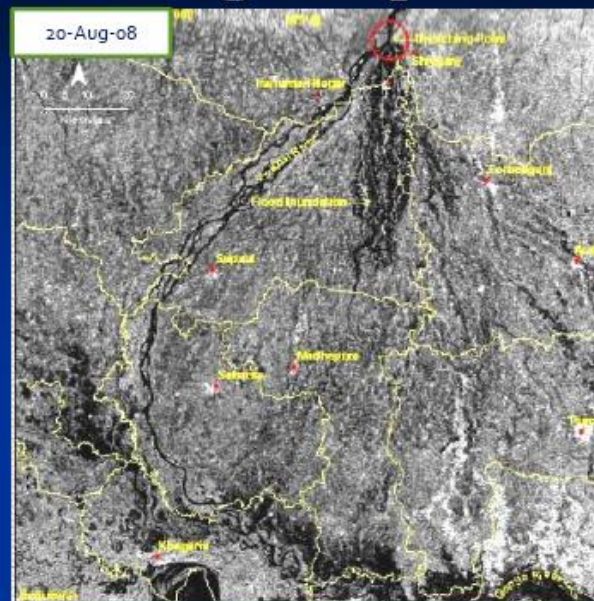
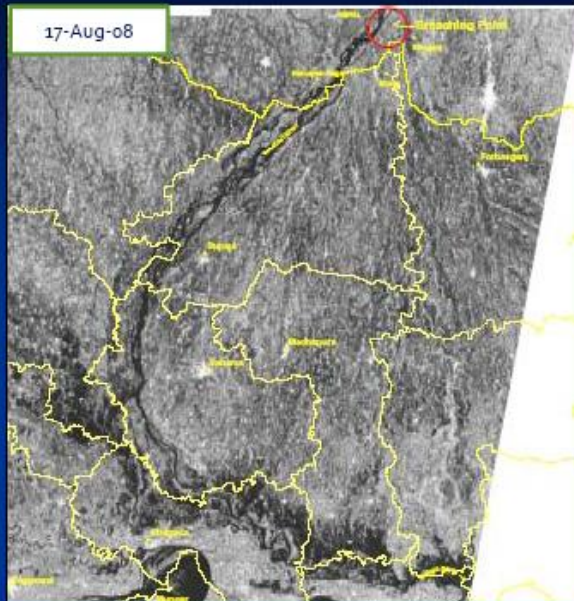


Flood Inundated Areas in Nalanda District, Bihar State Based on the analysis of Radarsat SAR data of 18-July-2006

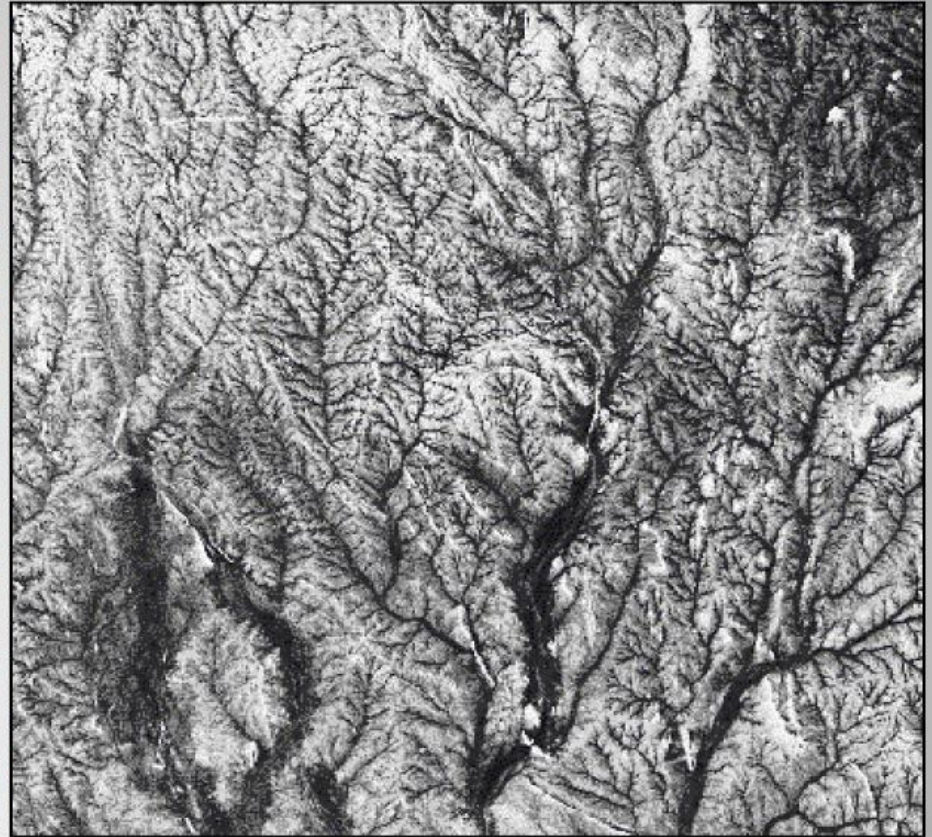




Kosi Embankment Breach-2008 Monitoring Using Temporal Microwave Data

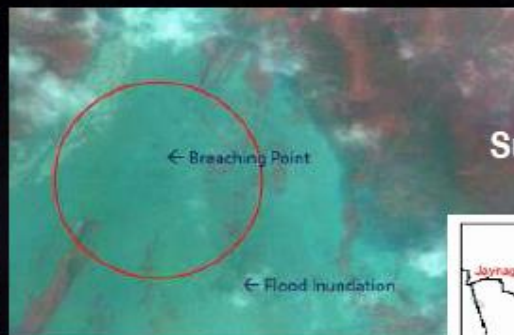


Paleochannels buried under dry sand cover appear with a dendritic pattern hardly visible on optical images. The gravel bed (in bright = high energy deposits) is less visible on ERS image than on Landsat. On the radar image, the coarse material appears in bright and the fine one in dark (fine sand).



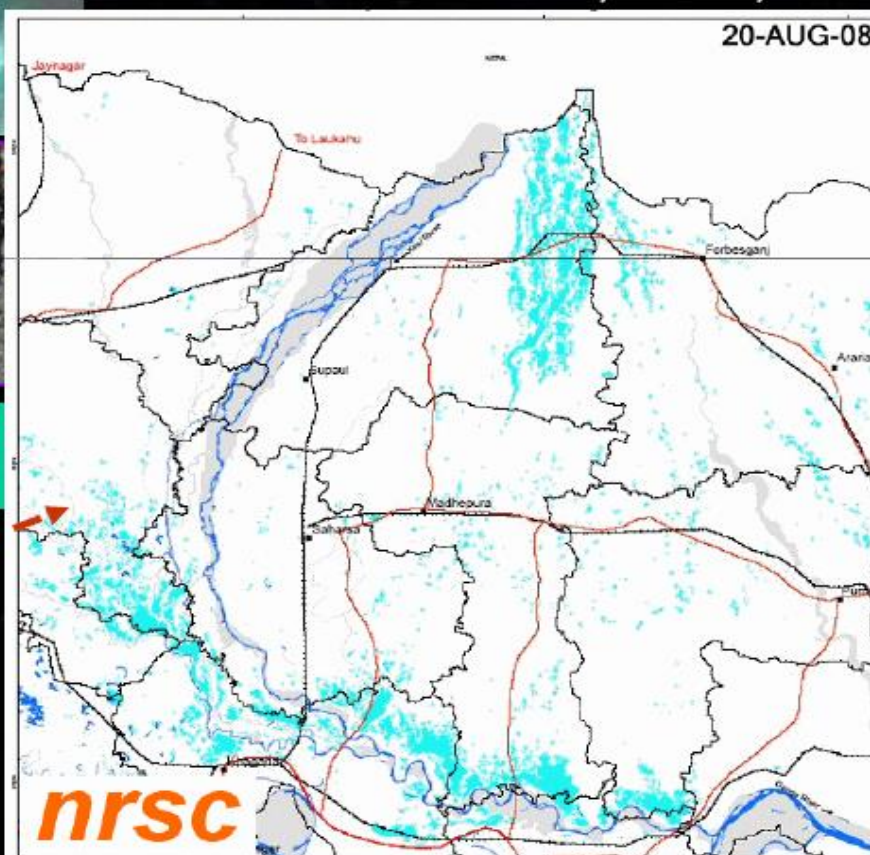
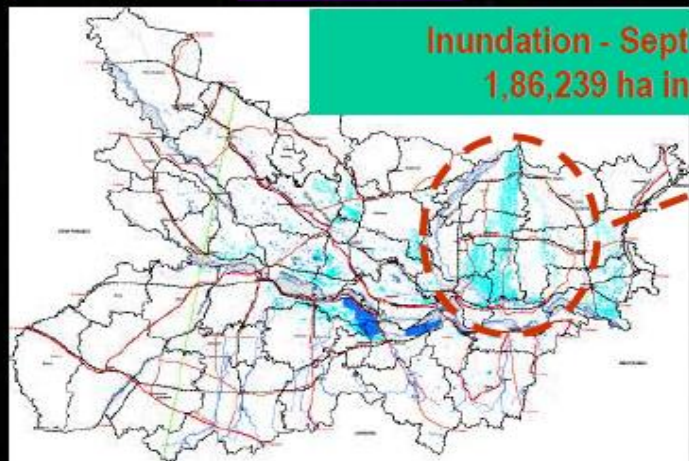
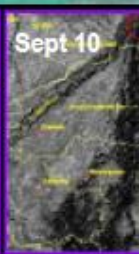
Kosi Embankment breach - Bihar Floods

EO



Inundation Status - Sept 15, 2008

Madhepura - 45,006 ha;
Supaul - 30,474 ha; Saharsa - 14,347 ha; Purnia - 1,997 ha; Araria - 4,406 ha.



1987

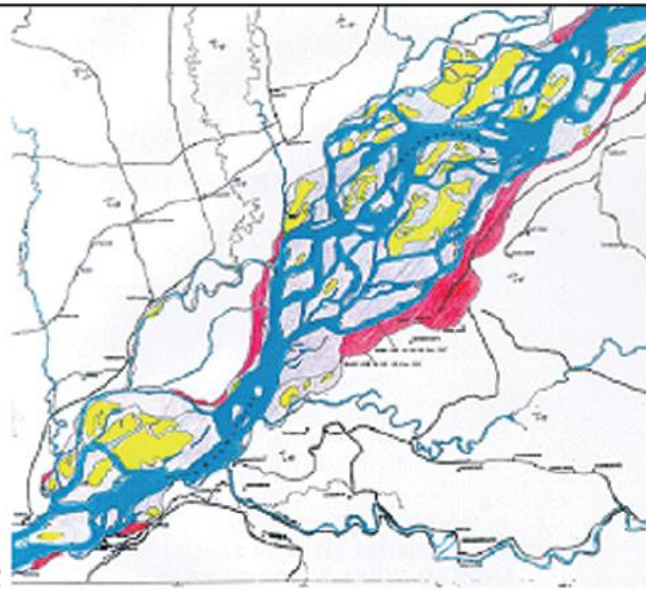


a

1991



b



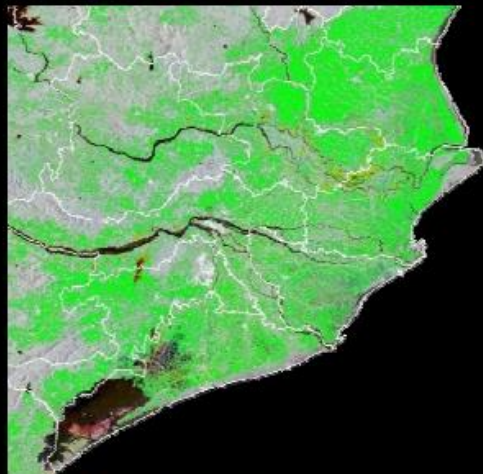
c



Figure 12.24: (a) Landsat –TM satellite image of 1987, (b) Landsat –TM satellite image of 1991 and (c) Bank erosion maps derived from 1987 & 1991 satellite data

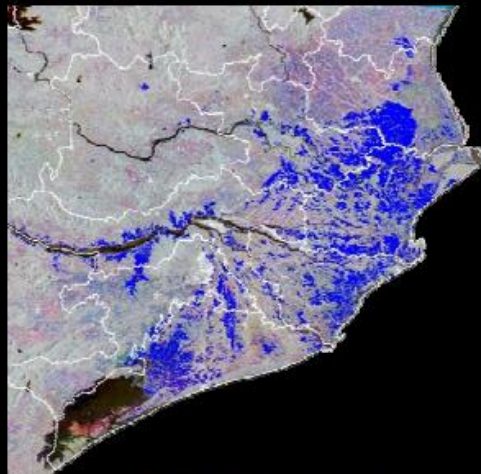
INTEGRATION OF FASAL AND FLOOD – ORISSA STATE

Classified data showing Rice



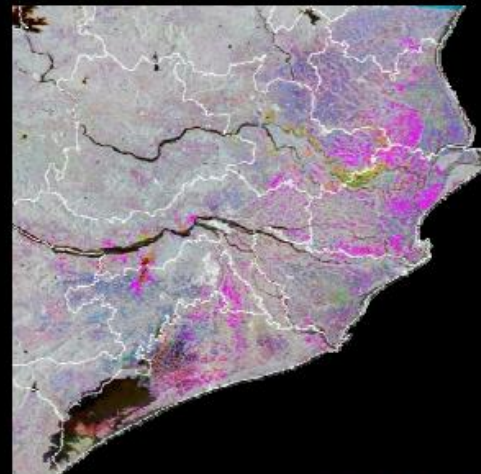
14.0 Lakh ha

Inundated area (Courtesy: DSC)

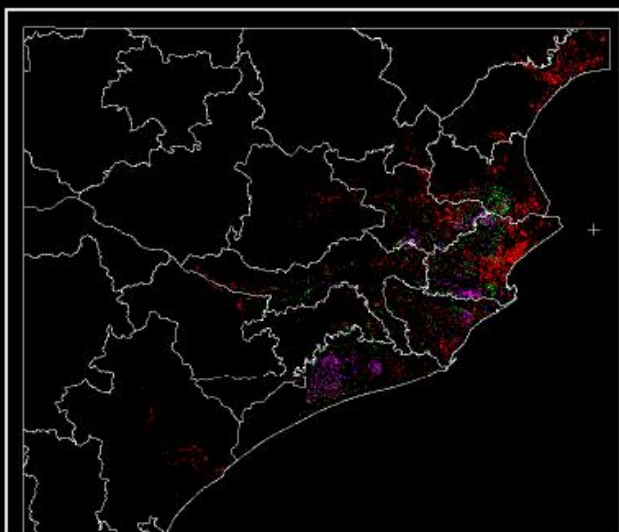


3.75 Lakh ha

Inundated Rice cropped area



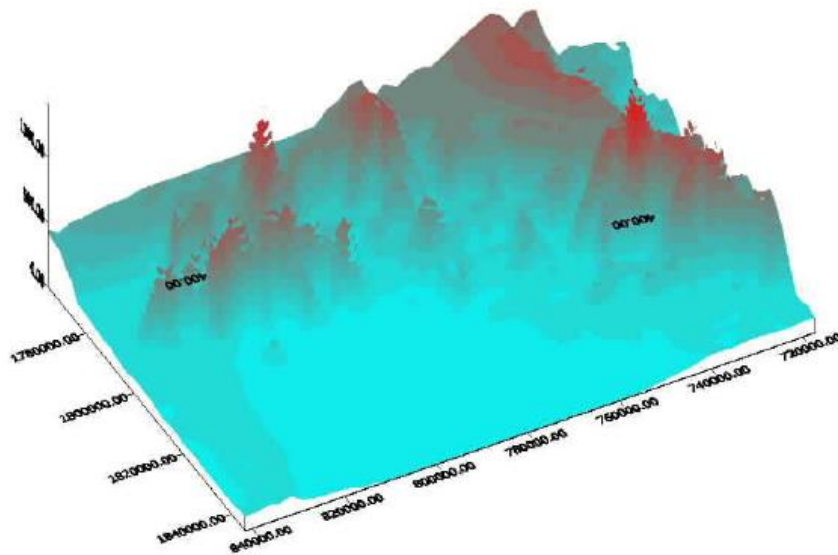
1.54 Lakh ha



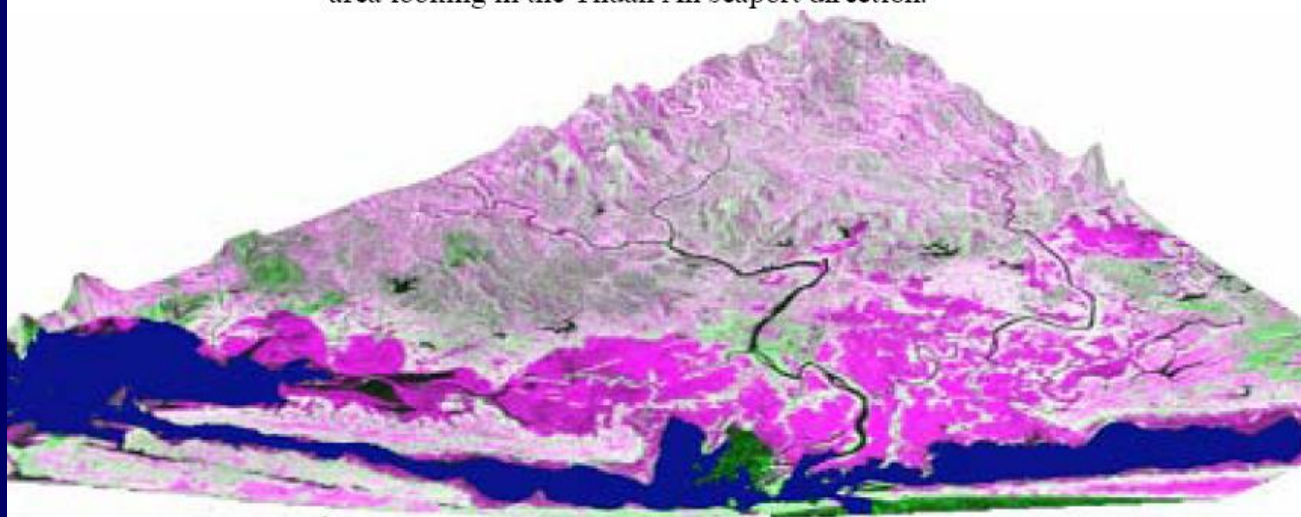
Duration of Flood	Data used	Inundated Area (ha)	Inundated rice cropped area (ha)
01 day	Scansar-N 18-09-08	204010	99923
07 Days	Scansar-w 24-09-08	73890	30941
12 days	Scansar-W 29-09-08	90423	27949
TOTAL		375709	154819

MAPPING OF LOW LYING AREAS AND WATER LOGGED AREAS USING DEM

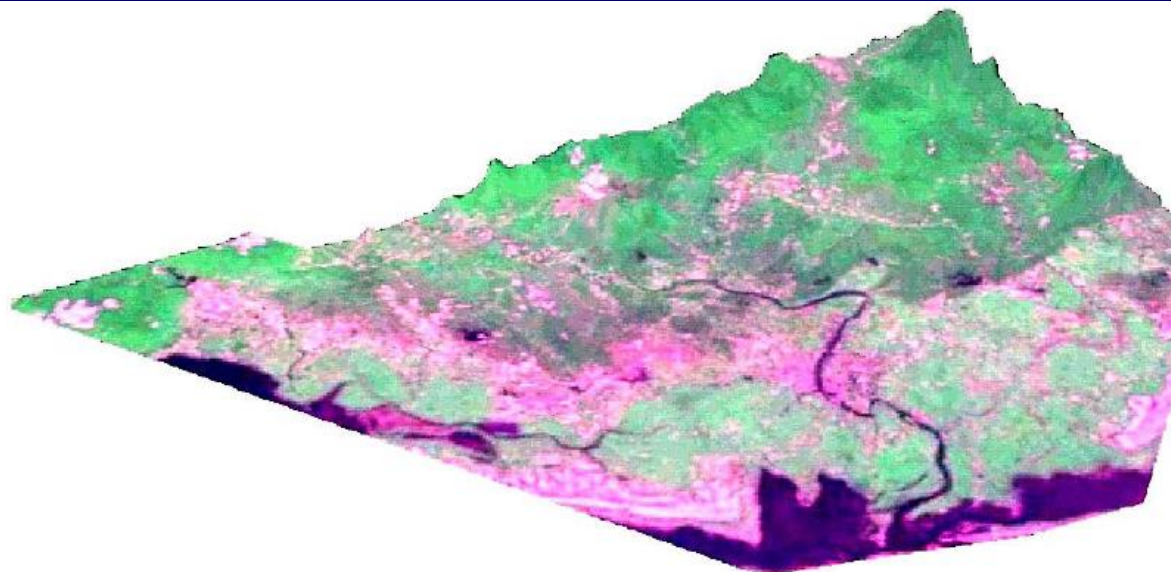
Digital Elevation Model of flood affected regions is a very important parameter in flood studies. With various limitations in optical and microwave data as discussed above, it is possible to overcome these with fine DEM



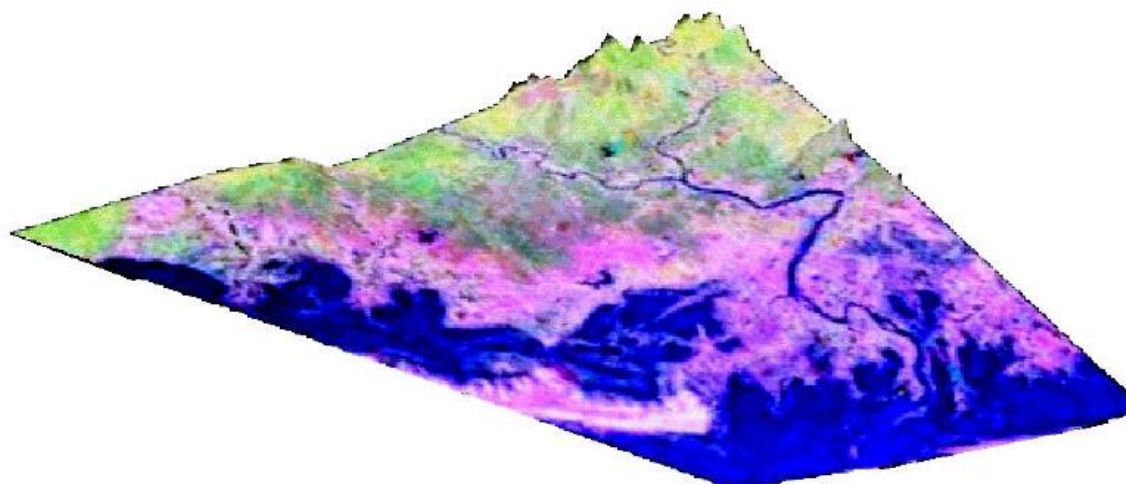
Picture 3: Three dimensional model of Thua Thien Hue area looking in the Thuan An seaport direction.



Picture 4: Three dimensional digital model covered by flooded area taken from RADASAT picture at the time of flood in Thua Thien Hue on November 6th 1999. The dark purple areas represent flooded areas.



Picture 5: Three dimensional model of a digital image at Huong River valley in the dry season. (5/1999)



Picture 6: Three dimensional model of digital image at Huong river valley in the rainy season. (28 September 2000)

Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) is a data collection technique that uses a beam of light to make range-resolved remote measurement of features within the path of a reflected beam of light. The New Brunswick government, through the Department of the Environment and Emergency Measures Organization (EMO), collected LiDAR data sets for great part of the province of New Brunswick after the flood in 2008.

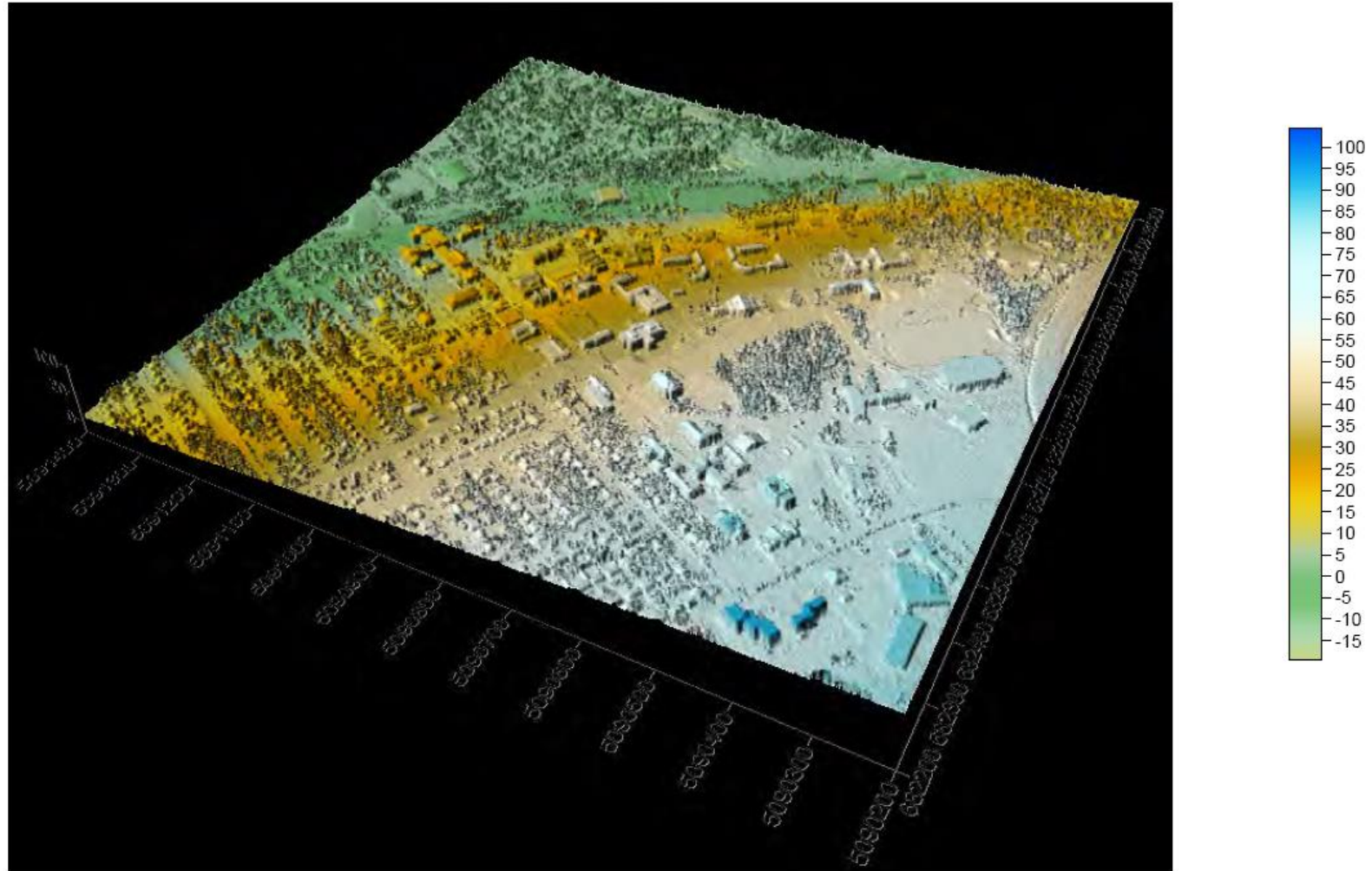


Fig. 6. Downtown Fredericton LiDAR data

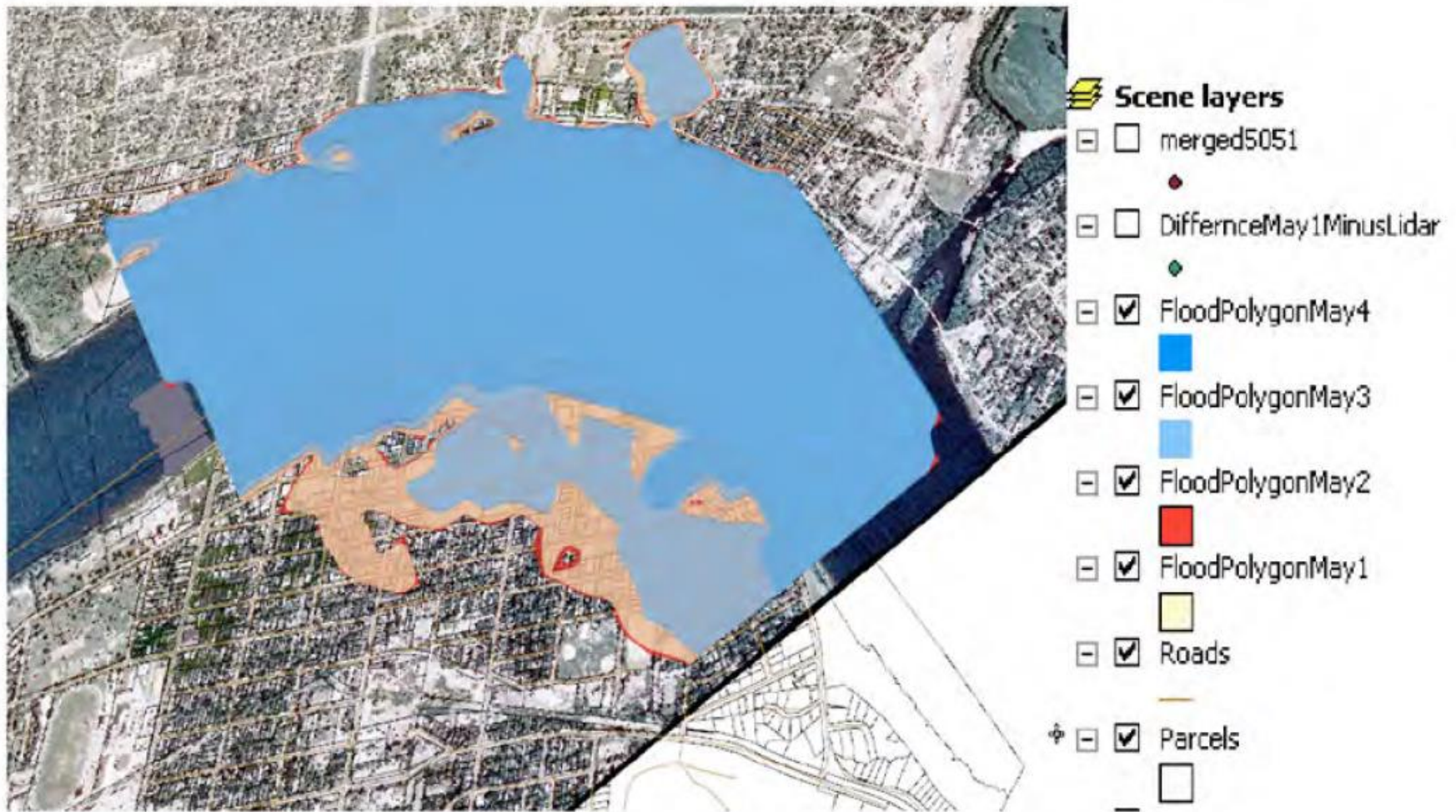
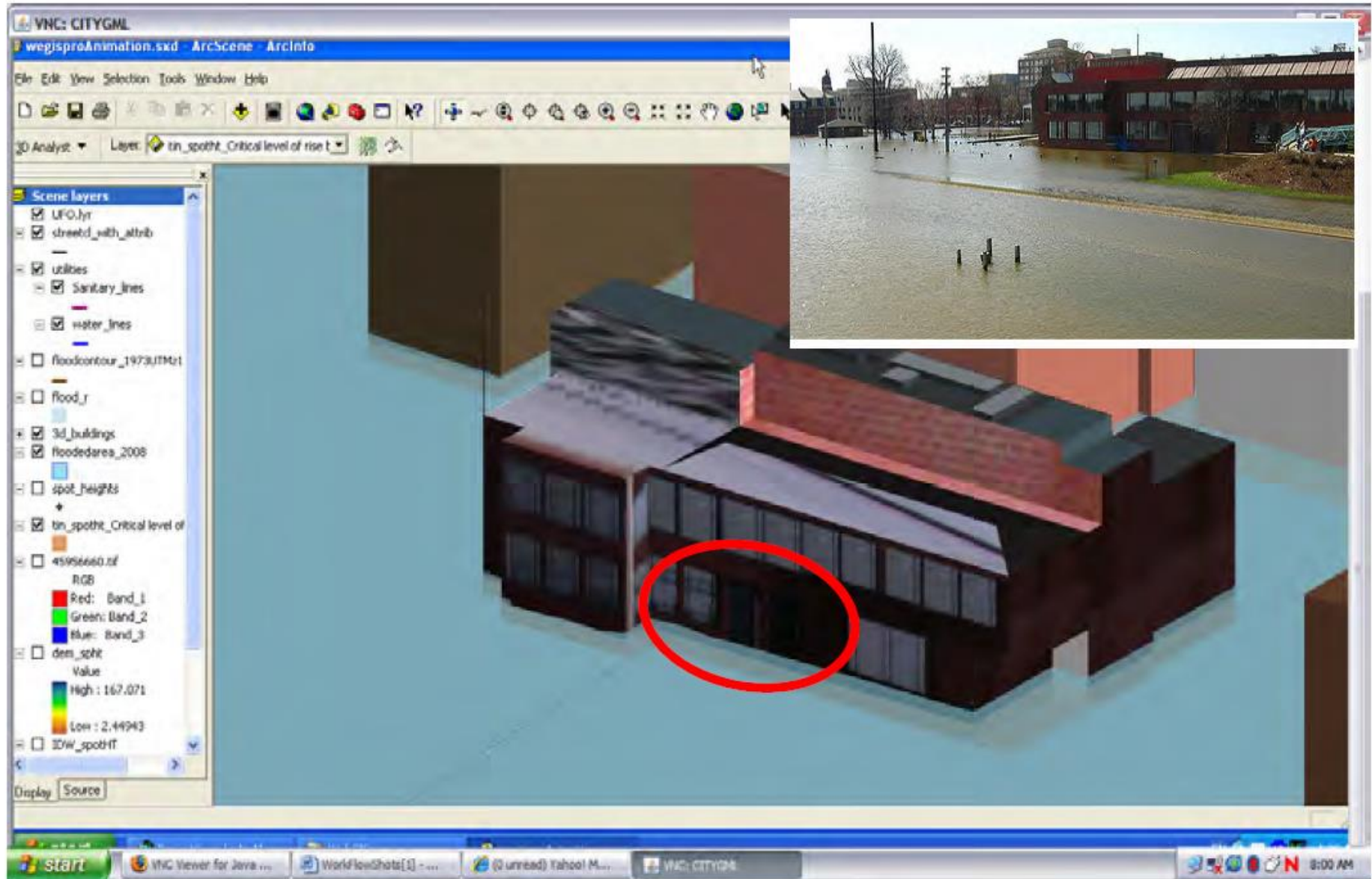
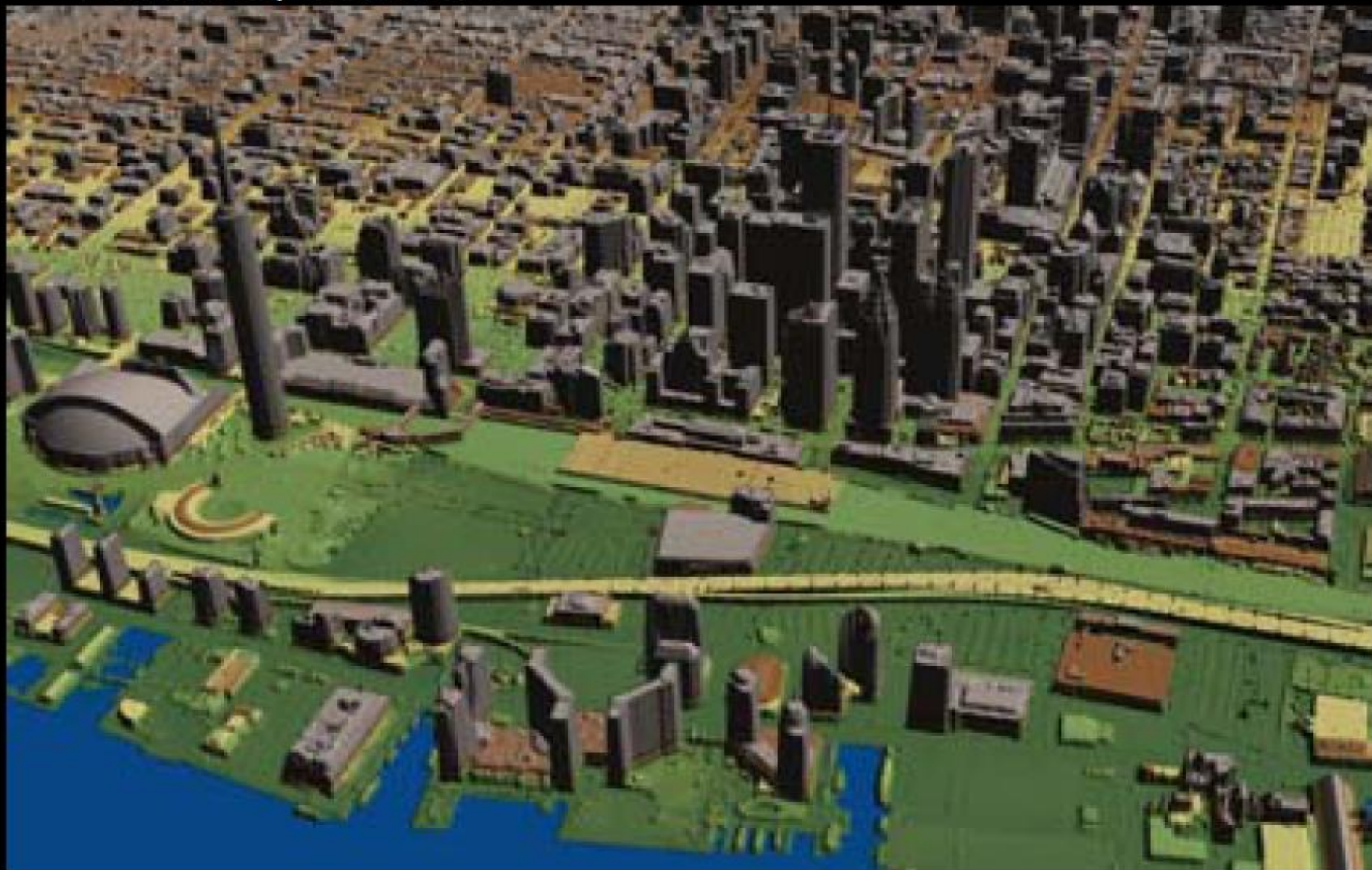


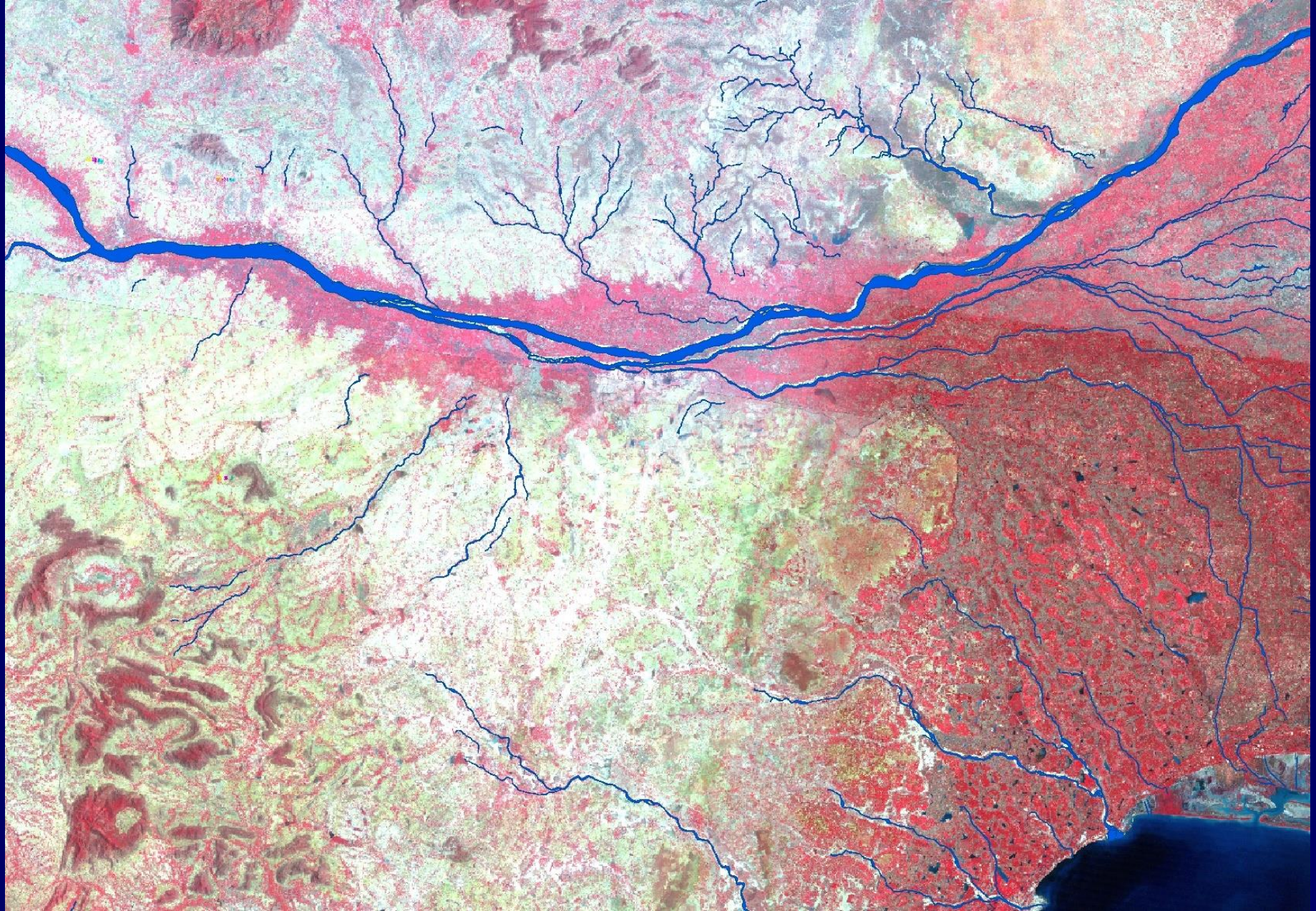
Fig. 12. Flood progression modelling

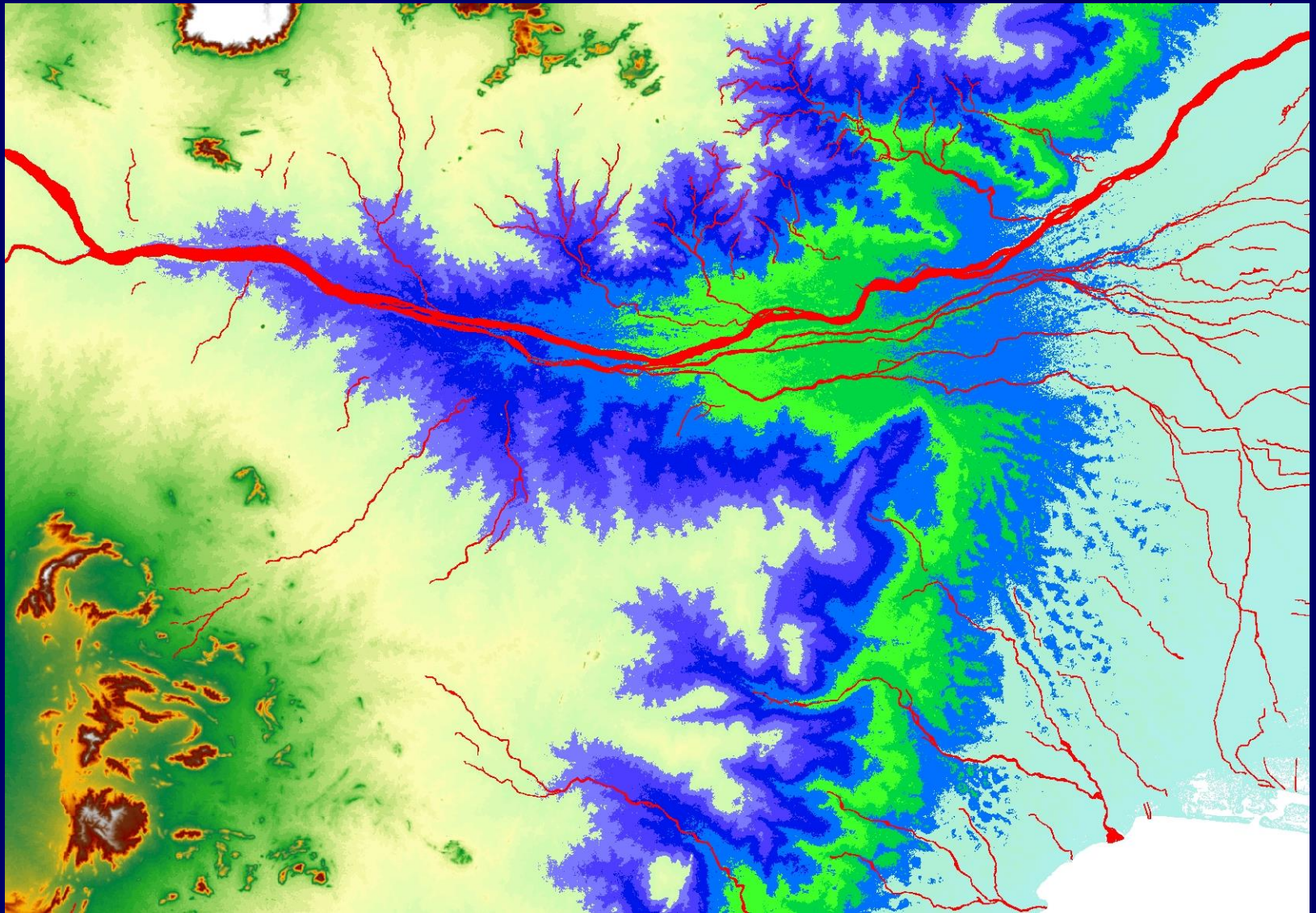


Toronto, Canada

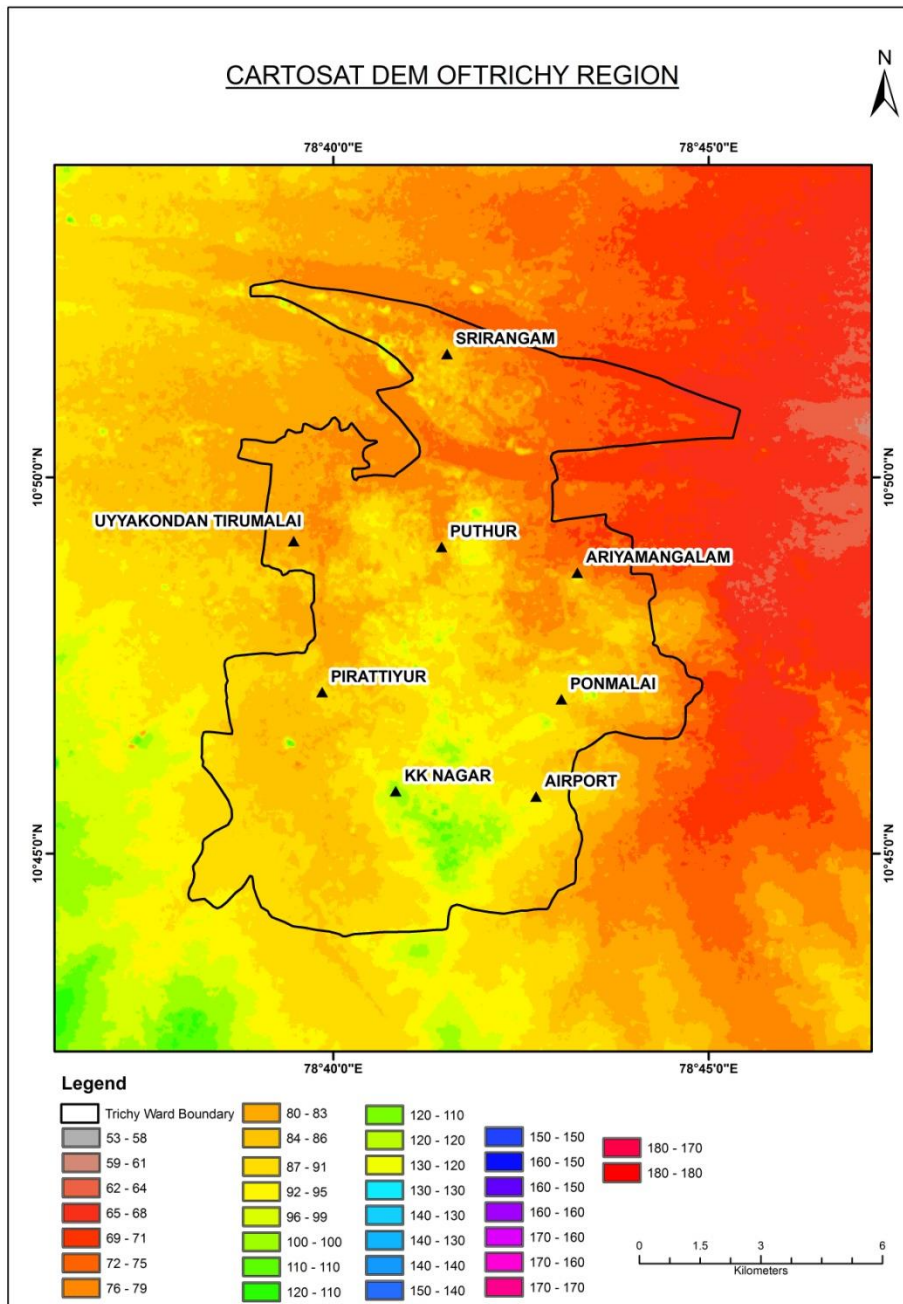


CAUVERY RIVER IN TRICHY – THANJAVUR PLAINS

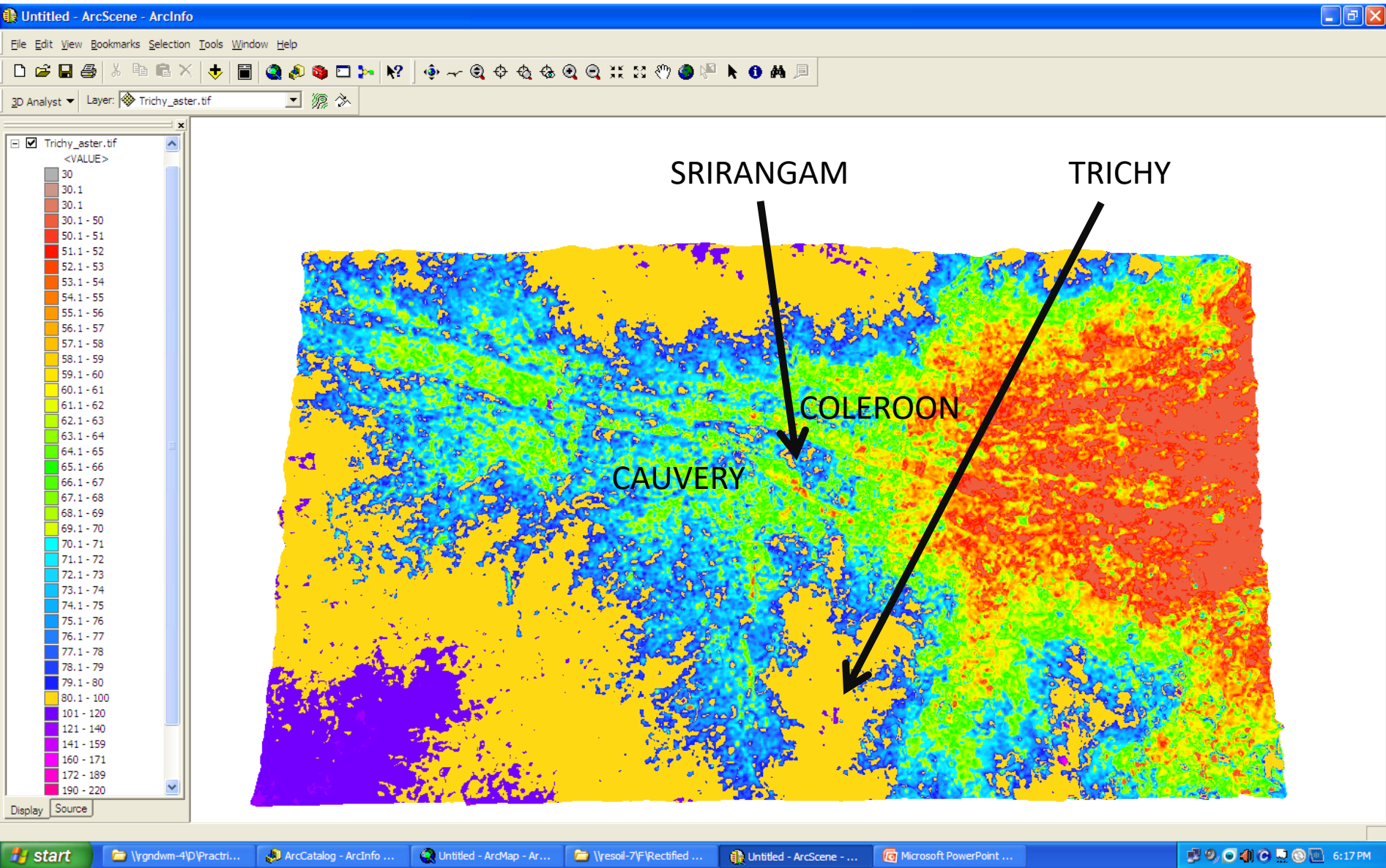


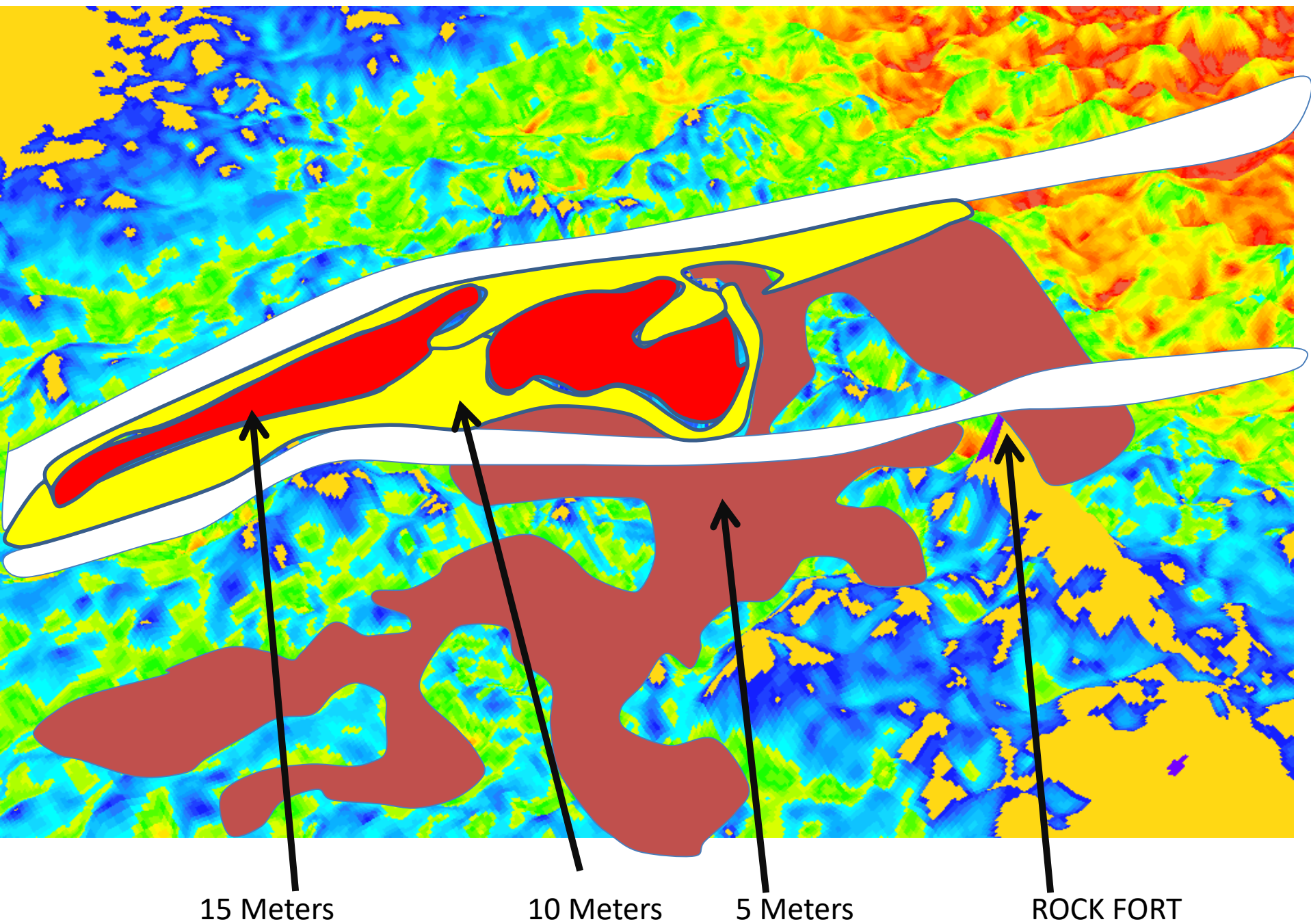


SRTM DATA vs FLOOD INUNDATION



CARTOSAT DEM of TRICHY URBAN





FLOOD DAMAGE ASSESSMENT

Using pre and post flood data along with ground information Flood damage can be estimated

Change detection between normal and flood flow

DEM along with satellite data to identify flood inundated areas even under vegetation cover

Landuse type wise flood risk assessment

Microwave data – Since flood is often associated with heavy cloud cover, the use of radar data from ERS, JERS and RADARSAT permits the imaging of flooded areas through the clouds

FLOOD DAMAGE ASSESSMENT

Mapping flood river configuration

Most Indian rivers changes its course after flood, helps to erect flood control structures

Mapping inundation and erosion prone areas

Identification of drainage congested areas

After flooding, waters are being get stagnated – delineate such basins and provide planning for draining and planning for future improvement

FLOOD RISK ZONE MAPPING

On the basis of past flood Classified as

Prohibition zone : no building activities, only appropriate agriculture activities

Restrictive zone : Building activities under proper preventive measures

Warning zone : Areas liable to inundation by large flood

This can be easily done by using Remote sensing, DEM and GIS

Run-off Estimation SCS-CN method

The Soil Conservation Service (SCS) method developed United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), is another method used to estimate surface runoff from the rainfall. This method takes into account the land use, hydrological soil cover and antecedent moisture conditions for predicting the yield from the basin.

For the simpler storm, the relation between rainfall, runoff and retention can be expressed as,

$$\frac{F}{S} = \frac{Q}{P} \quad \dots (1)$$

where,

F	-	Actual retention in mm
S	-	Potential maximum in mm ($S \geq F$)
Q	-	Runoff in mm
P	-	Precipitation in mm ($P \geq Q$)

The volume of runoff (Q) depends upon the volume of precipitation (P) and the volume of storage that is available for retention. The potential retention S is a constant for a particular storm because it is the maximum that can occur under the existing conditions if the storm continues without limit.

The actual retention F varies because it is the difference between P and Q, or

$$F = P - Q \quad \dots (2)$$

The equation (1) can therefore be rewritten:

$$\frac{(P - Q)}{S} = \frac{Q}{P} \quad \dots (3)$$

Solving for Q produces the equation:

$$Q = \frac{P^2}{(P + S)} \quad \dots (4)$$

which is the rainfall-runoff relation in which the initial abstraction is zero.

If an initial abstraction (I_a) greater than zero is considered, the amount of rainfall available for runoff is $(P - I_a)$ instead of P. By substituting $(P - I_a)$ in equation (1), the following equation result.

$$\frac{F}{S} = \frac{Q}{(P - I_a)} \quad \dots (5)$$

where $F \leq S$, and $Q \leq (P - I_a)$. The total retention for storm consists of I_a and F. The total potential maximum retention (as P gets very large) consists of I_a and S.

Hence the equation (2) becomes

$$F = (P - I_a) - Q \quad \dots (6)$$

By substituting the value of F in equation (3) becomes

$$\frac{(P - I_a) - Q}{S} = \frac{Q}{(P - I_a)} \quad \dots (7)$$

Solving for Q equation (7) becomes

$$Q = \frac{(P - I_a)^2}{(P - I_a) + S} \quad \dots (8)$$

which is the rainfall – runoff relation with the initial abstraction taken into account.

Initial abstraction consists mainly of interception, infiltration, surface storage, are of which occur before runoff begins. The relation between I_a and S (which includes I_a) was developed by means of rainfall and runoff data from experimental small watersheds. The empirical relationship is:

$$I_a = 0.3S \quad \dots (9)$$

The term S is the potential maximum retention and it is given by

$$S = \left(\frac{25400}{CN} \right) - 254 \quad \dots (10)$$

where CN is known as the Curve Number, which can taken from the tables, Chapter – 7, SCS Hand book, Section – 4 (1972)

Substituting the equation (9) in (8) gives,

$$Q = \frac{(P - 0.3S)^2}{(P + 0.7S)} \quad \dots (11)$$

Hydrological Soil Group

Soil properties greatly influence the amount of runoff. In the SCS method, these properties are represented by a hydrological parameter: the minimum rate of infiltration obtained for a bare soil after prolonged wetting. The influence of both the soil's surface condition (infiltration rate) and its horizon (transmission rate) are thereby included. This parameter, which indicates a soil's runoff potential, is the qualitative basis of the classification of all soils into four groups. The Hydrological Soil Groups, as defined by the SCS soil scientists, are:

- Group A: Soils having high infiltration rates even when thoroughly wetted and a high rate of water transmission. Examples are deep, well to excessively drained sands or gravels.
- Group B: Soils having moderate infiltration rates when thoroughly wetted and a moderate rate of water transmission. Examples are moderately deep to deep, moderately well to well drained soils with moderately fine to moderately coarse textures.
- Group C: Soils having low infiltration rates when thoroughly wetted and a low rate of water transmission. Examples are soils with a layer that impedes the downward movement of water or soils of moderately fine to fine texture.
- Group D: Soils having very low infiltration rates when thoroughly wetted and a very low rate of water transmission. Examples are clay soils with a high swelling potential, soils with a permanently high watertable, soils with a clay pan or clay layer at or near the surface, or shallow soils over nearly impervious material.

Cover type	Cover description	Hydrologic condition	Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group—			
			A	B	C	D
Pasture, grassland, or range—continuous forage for grazing. ²		Poor	68	79	86	89
		Fair	49	69	79	84
		Good	39	61	74	80
Meadow—continuous grass, protected from grazing and generally mowed for hay.		—	30	58	71	78
Brush—brush-weed-grass mixture with brush the major element. ³		Poor	48	67	77	83
		Fair	35	56	70	77
		Good	30 ⁴	48	65	73
Woods-grass combination (orchard or tree farm). ⁵		Poor	57	73	82	86
		Fair	43	65	76	82
		Good	32	58	72	79
Woods ⁶		Poor	45	66	77	83
		Fair	36	60	73	79
		Good	30 ⁴	55	70	77
Farmsteads—buildings, lanes, driveways, and surrounding lots.		—	59	74	82	86

¹ Average runoff condition.

² *Poor*: <50% ground cover or heavily grazed with no mulch.

Fair: 50% to 75% ground cover and not heavily grazed.

Good: >75% ground cover and lightly or only occasionally grazed.

³ *Poor*: <50% ground cover.

Fair: 50 to 75% ground cover.

Good: >75% ground cover.

⁴ Actual curve number is less than 30; use CN = 30 for runoff computations.

⁵ CN's shown were computed for areas with 50% woods and 50% grass (pasture) cover. Other combinations of conditions may be computed from the CN's for woods and pasture.

⁶ *Poor*: Forest, litter, small trees, and brush have been destroyed by heavy grazing or regular burning.

Fair: Woods are grazed but not burned, and some forest litter covers the soil.

Good: Woods are protected from grazing, and litter and brush adequately cover the soil.

Table 2-3c.—Runoff curve numbers for arid and semiarid rangelands¹

Cover description		Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group—			
Cover type	Hydrologic condition ²	A ³	B	C	D
Herbaceous—mixture of grass, weeds, and low-growing brush, with brush the minor element.	Poor		80	87	93
	Fair		71	81	89
	Good		62	74	85
Oak-aspen—mountain brush mixture of oak brush, aspen, mountain mahogany, bitter brush, maple, and other brush.	Poor		66	74	79
	Fair		48	57	63
	Good		30	41	48
Pinyon-juniper—pinyon, juniper, or both; grass understory.	Poor		75	85	89
	Fair		58	73	80
	Good		41	61	71
Sagebrush with grass understory.	Poor		67	80	85
	Fair		51	63	70
	Good		35	47	55
Desert shrub—major plants include saltbush, greasewood, creosotebush, blackbrush, bursage, palo verde, mesquite, and cactus.	Poor	63	77	85	88
	Fair	55	72	81	86
	Good	49	68	79	84

¹ Average runoff condition. For rangelands in humid regions, use table 2-3b.

² Poor: <30% ground cover (litter, grass, and brush overstory).

Fair: 30% to 70% ground cover.

Good: >70% ground cover.

³ Curve numbers for group A have been developed only for desert shrub.

Table 2-3d.—Runoff curve numbers for urban areas¹

Cover type and hydrologic condition	Cover description	Average percent impervious area ²	Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group—			
			A	B	C	D
<i>Fully developed urban areas (vegetation established)</i>						
Open space (lawns, parks, golf courses, cemeteries, etc.) ³ :						
	Poor condition (grass cover < 50%)		68	79	86	89
	Fair condition (grass cover 50% to 75%)		49	69	79	84
	Good condition (grass cover > 75%)		39	61	74	80
Impervious areas:						
	Paved parking lots, roofs, driveways, etc. (excluding right-of-way).		98	98	98	98
Streets and roads:						
	Paved; curbs and storm sewers (excluding right-of-way)		98	98	98	98
	Paved; open ditches (including right-of-way)		83	89	92	93
	Gravel (including right-of-way)		76	85	89	91
	Dirt (including right-of-way)		72	82	87	89
Western desert urban areas:						
	Natural desert landscaping (pervious areas only) ⁴		63	77	85	88
	Artificial desert landscaping (impervious weed barrier, desert shrub with 1- to 2-inch sand or gravel mulch and basin borders).		96	96	96	96
Urban districts:						
	Commercial and business	85	89	92	94	95
	Industrial	72	81	88	91	93
Residential districts by average lot size:						
	1/8 acre or less (town houses)	65	77	85	90	92
	1/4 acre	38	61	75	83	87
	1/3 acre	30	57	72	81	86
	1/2 acre	25	54	70	80	85
	1 acre	20	51	68	79	84
	2 acres	12	46	65	77	82
<i>Developing urban areas</i>						
	Newly graded areas (pervious areas only, no vegetation) ⁵		77	86	91	94
Idle lands (CN's are determined using cover types similar to those in table 2-2a).						

¹ Average runoff condition.² The average percent impervious area shown was used to develop the composite CN's. Other assumptions are as follows: impervious areas are directly connected to the drainage system, impervious areas have a CN of 98, and pervious areas are considered equivalent to open space in good hydrologic condition.³ CN's shown are equivalent to those of pasture. Composite CN's may be computed for other combinations of open space cover type.⁴ Composite CN's for natural desert landscaping should be computed based on the impervious area (CN = 98) and the pervious area CN. The pervious area CN's are assumed equivalent to desert shrub in poor hydrologic condition.⁵ Composite CN's to use for the design of temporary measures during grading and construction should be computed using the degree of development (impervious area percentage) and the CN's for the newly graded pervious areas.

Table 2-3a.—Runoff curve numbers for cultivated agricultural lands¹

Cover description			Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group—			
Cover type	Treatment ²	Hydrologic condition ³	A	B	C	D
Fallow	Bare soil	—	77	86	91	94
	Crop residue cover (CR)	Poor	76	85	90	93
		Good	74	83	88	90
Row crops	Straight row	Poor	72	81	88	91
		Good	67	78	85	89
	Straight row + CR	Poor	71	80	87	90
		Good	64	75	82	85
	Contoured (C)	Poor	70	79	84	88
		Good	65	75	82	86
	Contoured + CR	Poor	69	78	83	87
		Good	64	74	81	85
	Contoured & terraced (C&T)	Poor	66	74	80	82
		Good	62	71	78	81
	Contoured & terraced + CR	Poor	65	73	79	81
		Good	61	70	77	80
Small grain	Straight row	Poor	65	76	84	88
		Good	63	75	83	87
	Straight row + CR	Poor	64	75	83	86
		Good	60	72	80	84
	Contoured	Poor	63	74	82	85
		Good	61	73	81	84
	Contoured + CR	Poor	62	73	81	84
		Good	60	72	80	83
	Contoured & terraced	Poor	61	72	79	82
		Good	59	70	78	81
	Contoured & terraced + CR	Poor	60	71	78	81
		Good	58	69	77	80
Close-seeded or broadcast legumes or rotation meadow	Straight row	Poor	66	77	85	89
		Good	58	72	81	85
	Contoured	Poor	64	75	83	85
		Good	55	69	78	83
	Contoured & terraced	Poor	63	73	80	83
		Good	51	67	76	80

¹ Average runoff condition.² Crop residue cover (CR) applies only if residue is on at least 5% of the surface throughout the year.³ Hydrologic condition is based on combination of factors that affect infiltration and runoff, including (a) density and canopy of vegetative areas, (b) amount of year-round cover, (c) amount of grass or close-seeded legumes in rotations, (d) percent of residue cover on the land surface (good $\geq$ 20%), and (e) degree of surface roughness.

Poor: Factors impair infiltration and tend to increase runoff.

Good: Factors encourage average and better than average infiltration and tend to decrease runoff.

Table 4.5 Conversion table for Curve Numbers (CN) from Antecedent Moisture Condition Class II to AMC Class I or Class III (after Soil Conservation Service 1972)

CN AMC II	CN AMC I	CN AMC III	CN AMC II	CN AMC I	CN AMC III
100	100	100	58	38	76
98	94	99	56	36	75
96	89	99	54	34	73
94	85	98	52	32	71
92	81	97	50	31	70
90	78	96	48	29	68
88	75	95	46	27	66
86	72	94	44	25	64
84	68	93	42	24	62
82	66	92	40	22	60
80	63	91	38	21	58
78	60	90	36	19	56
76	58	89	34	18	54
74	55	88	32	16	52
72	53	86	30	15	50
70	51	85	25	12	43
68	48	84	20	9	37
66	46	82	15	6	30
64	44	81	10	4	22
62	42	79	5	2	13
60	40	78	0	0	0

Table 4.4 Seasonal rainfall limits for AMC classes (after Soil Conservation Service 1972)

Antecedent Moisture Condition Class	5-day antecedent rainfall (mm)		
	Dormant season	Growing season	Average
1	2	3	4
I	< 13	< 36	< 23
II	13 – 28	36 – 53	23 – 40
III	> 28	> 53	> 40

Antecedent Moisture Condition

The soil moisture condition in the drainage basin before runoff occurs is another important factor influencing the final CN value. In the Curve Number Method, the soil moisture condition is classified in three Antecedent Moisture Condition (AMC) Classes:

AMC I: The soils in the drainage basin are practically dry (i.e. the soil moisture content is at wilting point).

AMC II: Average condition.

AMC III: The soils in the drainage basins are practically saturated from antecedent rainfalls (i.e. the soil moisture content is at field capacity).

Table 4.6 Values of rainfall depth and corresponding direct runoff depth as a function of rainfall duration and AMC Class for a design return period of 10 years

Design rainfall			Direct runoff	
Duration (h)	Intensity (mm/h)	Depth (mm)	Depth (mm) AMC II	Depth (mm) AMC III
1	2	3	4	5
1	88	88	25	50
2	53	106	37	66
3	39	117	44	76
4	32	128	52	86
5	27	135	58	93
24	8.7	209	118	163
48	5.6	269	172	222
72	4.6	331	229	283

direct runoff
Q in mm

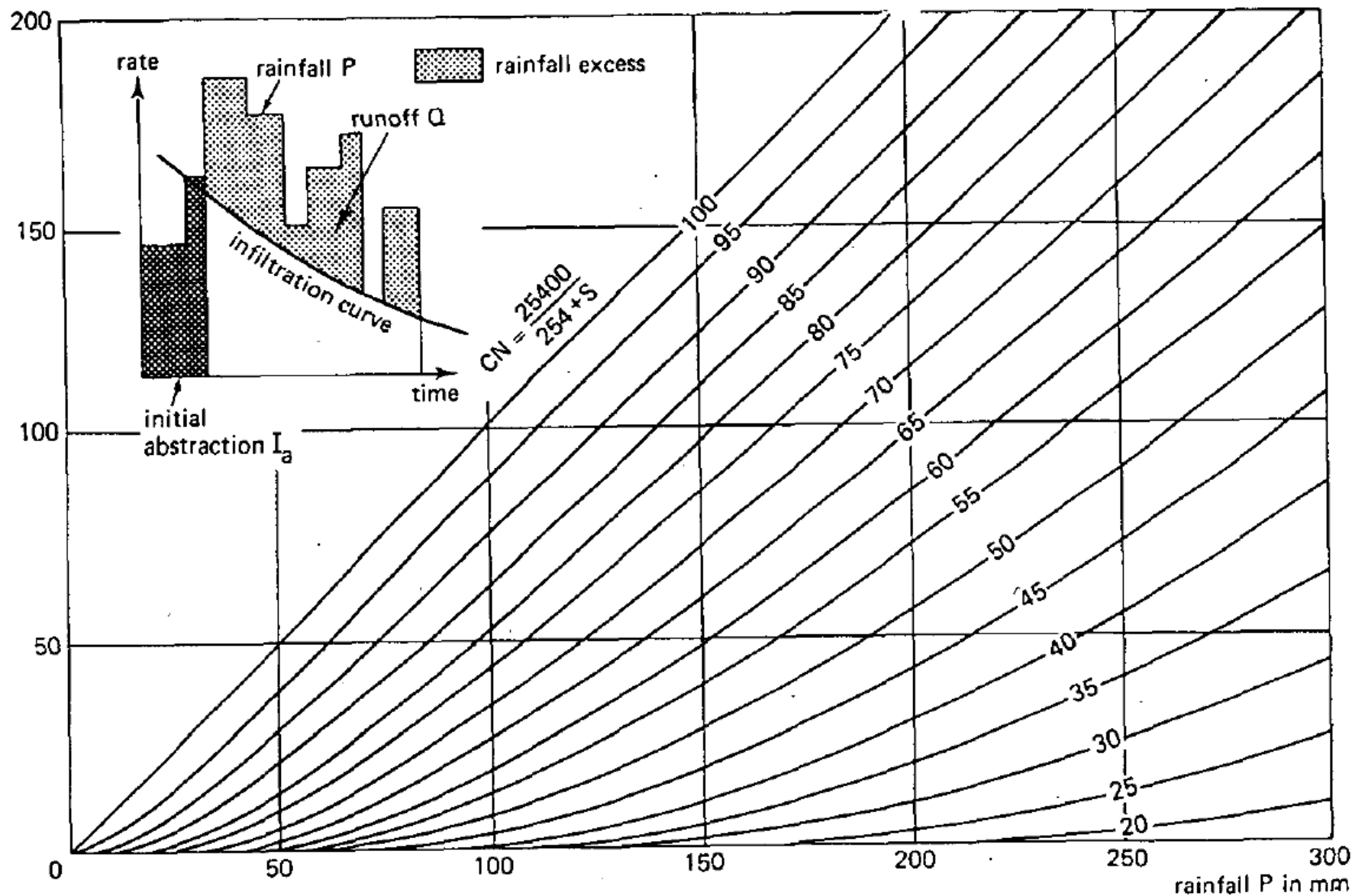


Figure 4.9 Graphical solution of Equation 4.5 showing runoff depth Q as a function of rainfall depth P and curve number CN (after Soil Conservation Service 1972)

TABLE : 1 Weighted Curve Number (AMC II) For The Study Area

S. No.	Land use	Type of soil	Area(sq.km)	CN	%area	%area*CN	Weighted CN
1	Dense Forest	C	7.18	58	3.19	185.17	
2	Degraded Forest	C	2.05	60	0.91	54.61	
3	Gullied\Ravinuous land	C	0.11	91	0.05	4.59	
4	Build up land	C	4.15	91	1.85	168.00	
5	Water bodies	C	6.82	95	3.03	288.00	
6	Upland with\without scrub	C	0.54	85	0.24	20.24	79.34
7	Fallow\harvested land	C	29.82	79	13.26	1047.48	
8	Agricultural plantation	C	103.30	69	45.93	3169.28	
9	Crop land	C	70.93	95	31.54	2996.15	
		Total	224.90		100.00	7933.52	

FLOOD – TAMIL NADU

- Tamil Nadu is one of the fast developing states with very high water demands
- Hence it is a state which is massively mining surface and groundwater resources
- out of 388 blocks, more than 120 blocks fall under over exploited category
- Thus, there is a serious water crisis in Tamil Nadu
- The condition worsens due to inadequate rainfall

Contd...

→ But, frequent floods occur in different parts of Tamil Nadu due to natural & anthropogenic processes

→ Natural processes are

- ♣ Release of excess water from Karnataka during heavy rains and the resultant floods in low lying areas of Cauvery basin
- ♣ Rains in the Western Ghat regions and flooding in rivers like Tamrabharani & Vaigai
- ♣ Rains in the midland regions & flooding (Floods 2005)

Anthropogenic reasons are

- **Destruction of forest & vegetal cover**
- **Excessive soil erosion ,Siltation of reservoirs, river beds and tanks**
- **Choking of irrigation channels and supply canals, Unauthorized cultivation along irrigation channels**
- **Unauthorized encroachments of flood plains, irrigation channels, etc.,**
- **Indistinct network of rivers, tanks and irrigation channels**
- **Weak / broken / damaged irrigation structures**

- ➔ Weak / broken / damaged irrigation structures
- ➔ How ever whether the floods are due to natural or anthropogenic as & when it occur , the only war footing action is the evacuation of the flood and push it into the ocean irrespective of the water scarcity of the flooded areas
- ➔ Tamilnadu is also not an exception for the same , as there are no concrete plans for flood mitigation and flood water harvesting technology as well

METHODOLOGY

★ Mapping of Flood prone areas coarsely by taking (2005) Floods as example with the help of post Flood “MODIS” (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectro Radiometer) satellite data

★ Identification of causative factors of Flood by GIS modeling of Flood vs

- Rock types
- Active tectonics
- Landuse/land cover
- Lineaments
- Geomorphology
- Groundwater level etc.

★ Feasibility of mitigation strategies

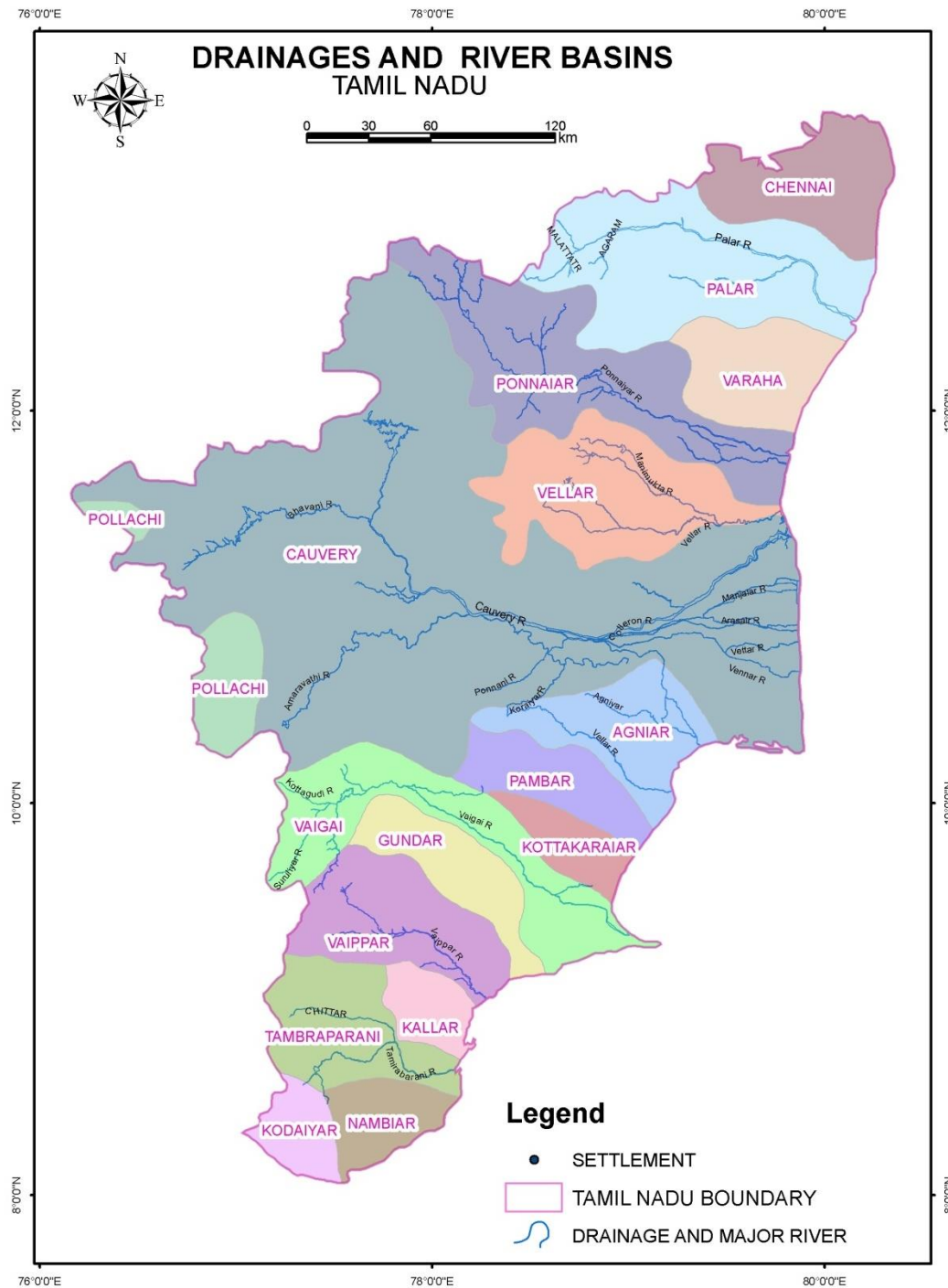
→ Feasibility of Flood water harvesting

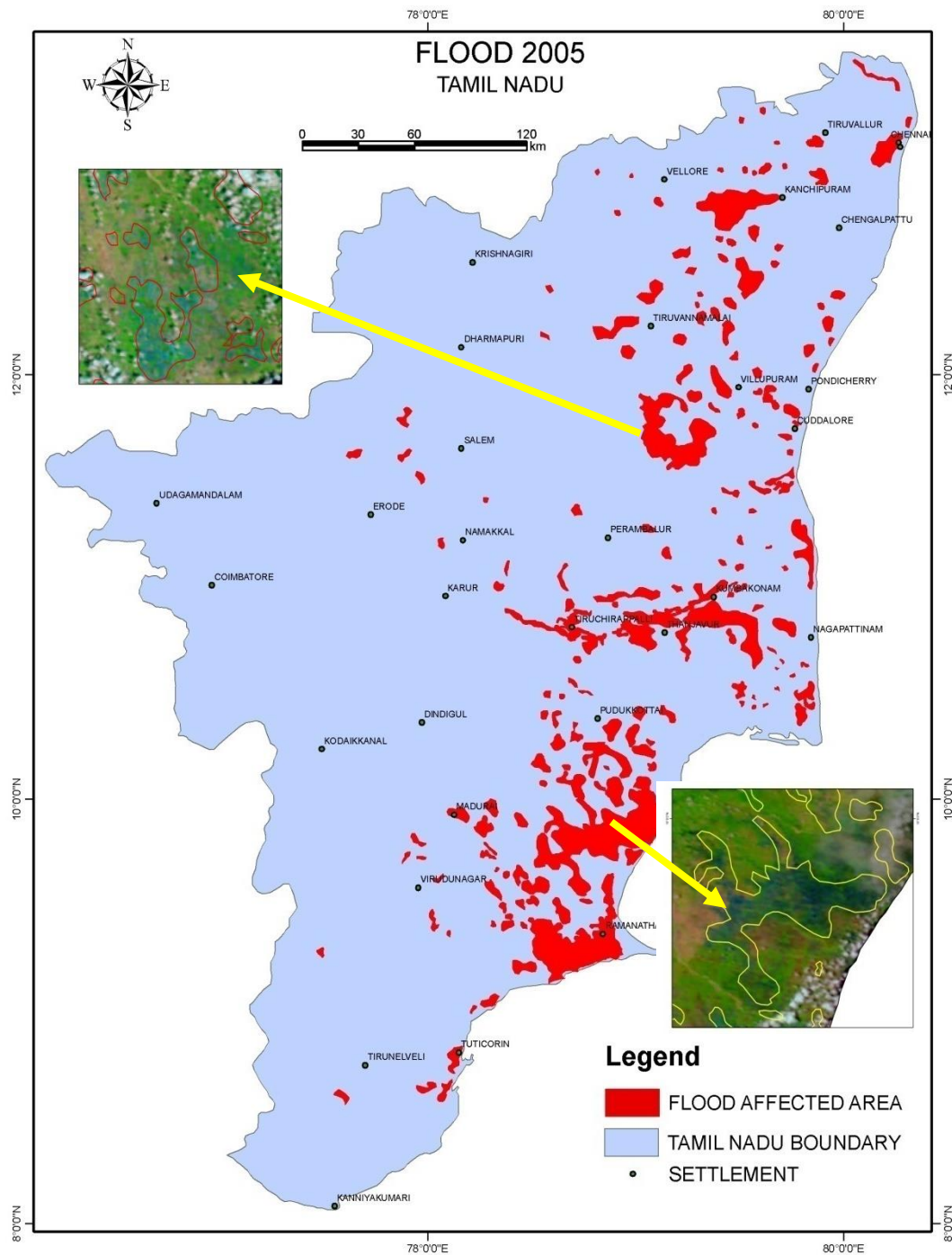
- ★ Flood budgeting
- ★ Identification of recharge windows
- ★ Estimation of allowable recharge
- ★ Detection of water surplus

→ Deficit water

- ★ Plans for insitu recharge
- ★ Plans for inter basin water transfer through optimal routes

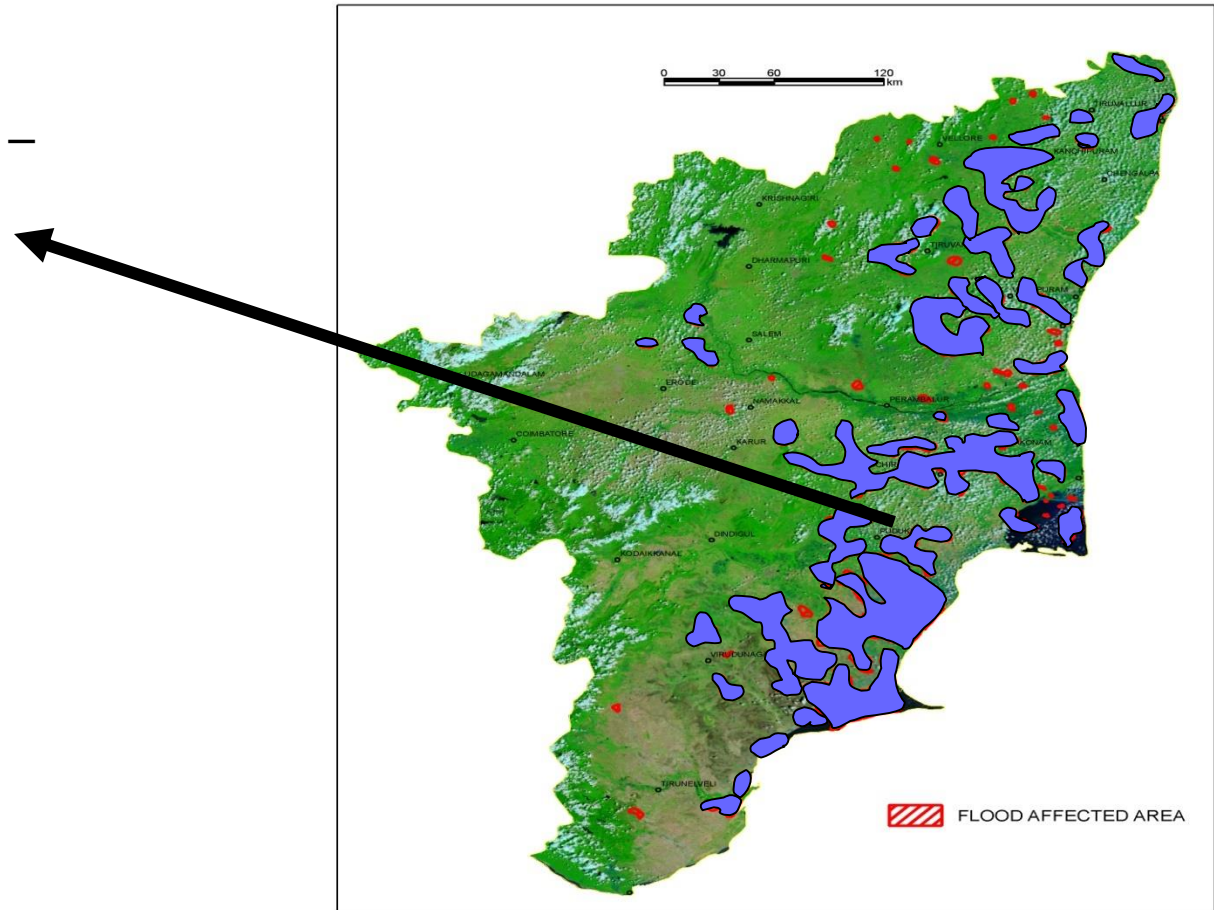




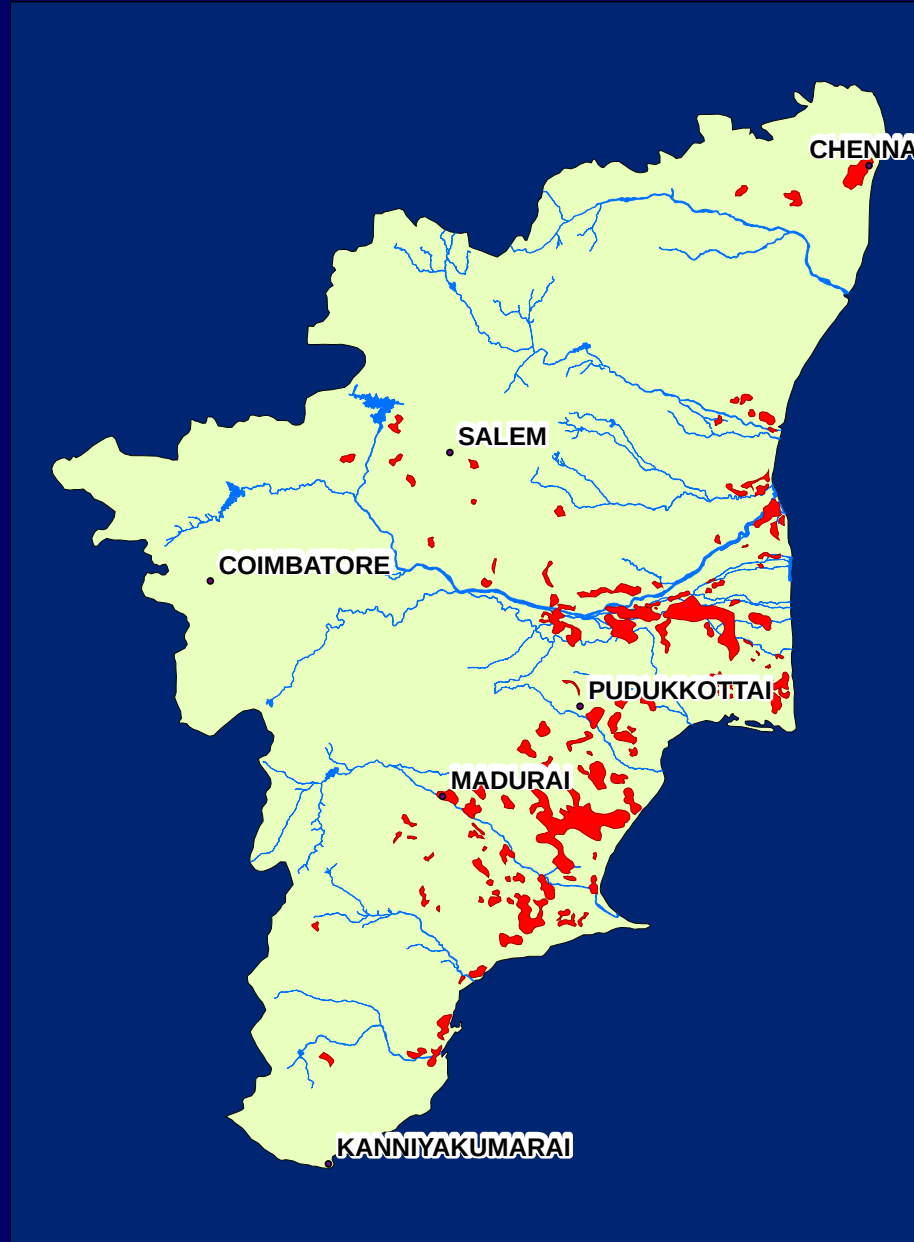


Identification of flood prone areas from historical floods & multi dated satellite Data sets and creation of GIS data bases

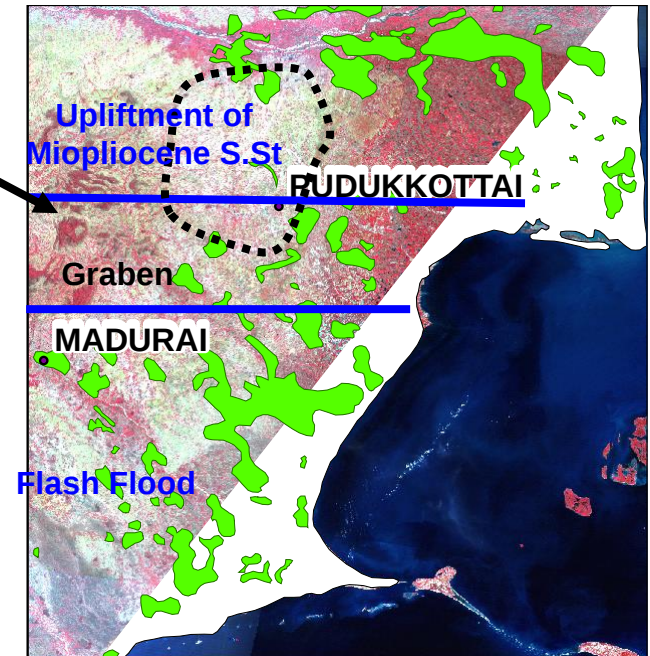
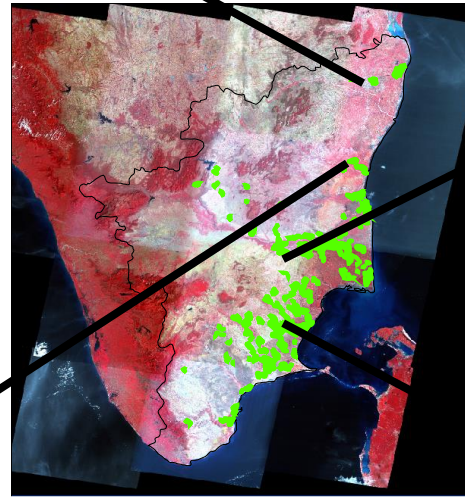
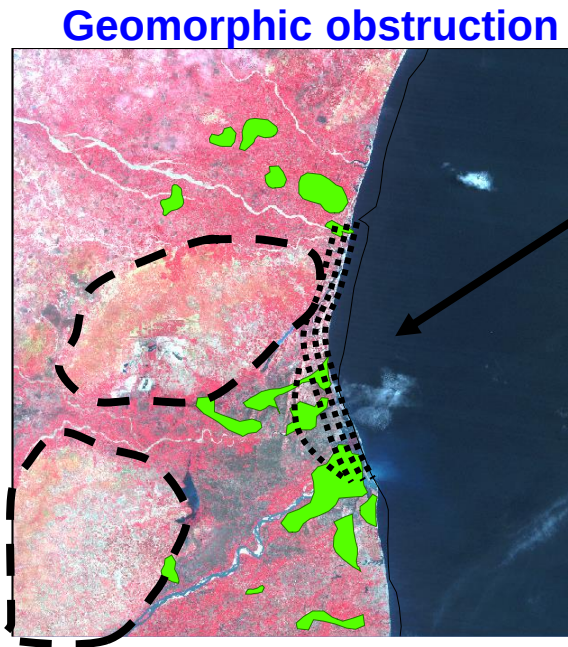
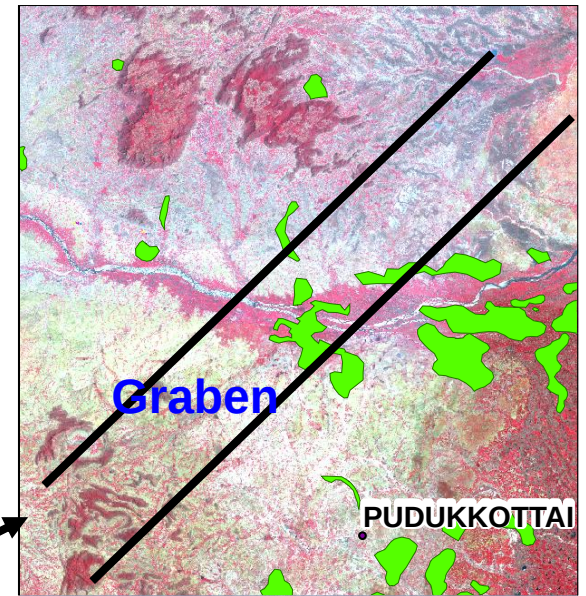
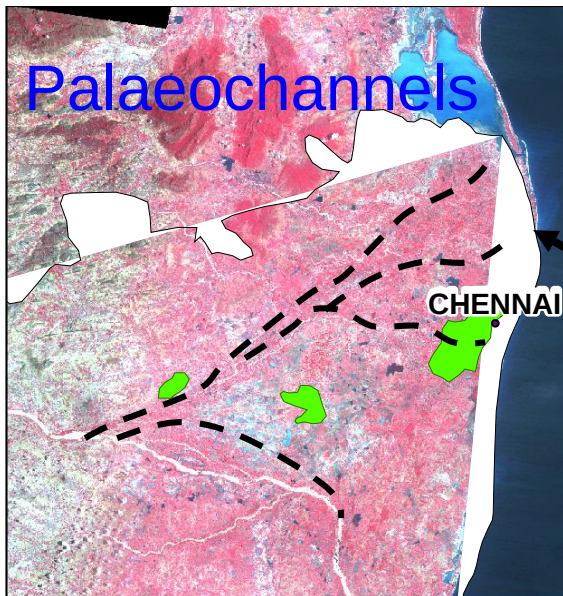
Sample flood map –
MODIS data



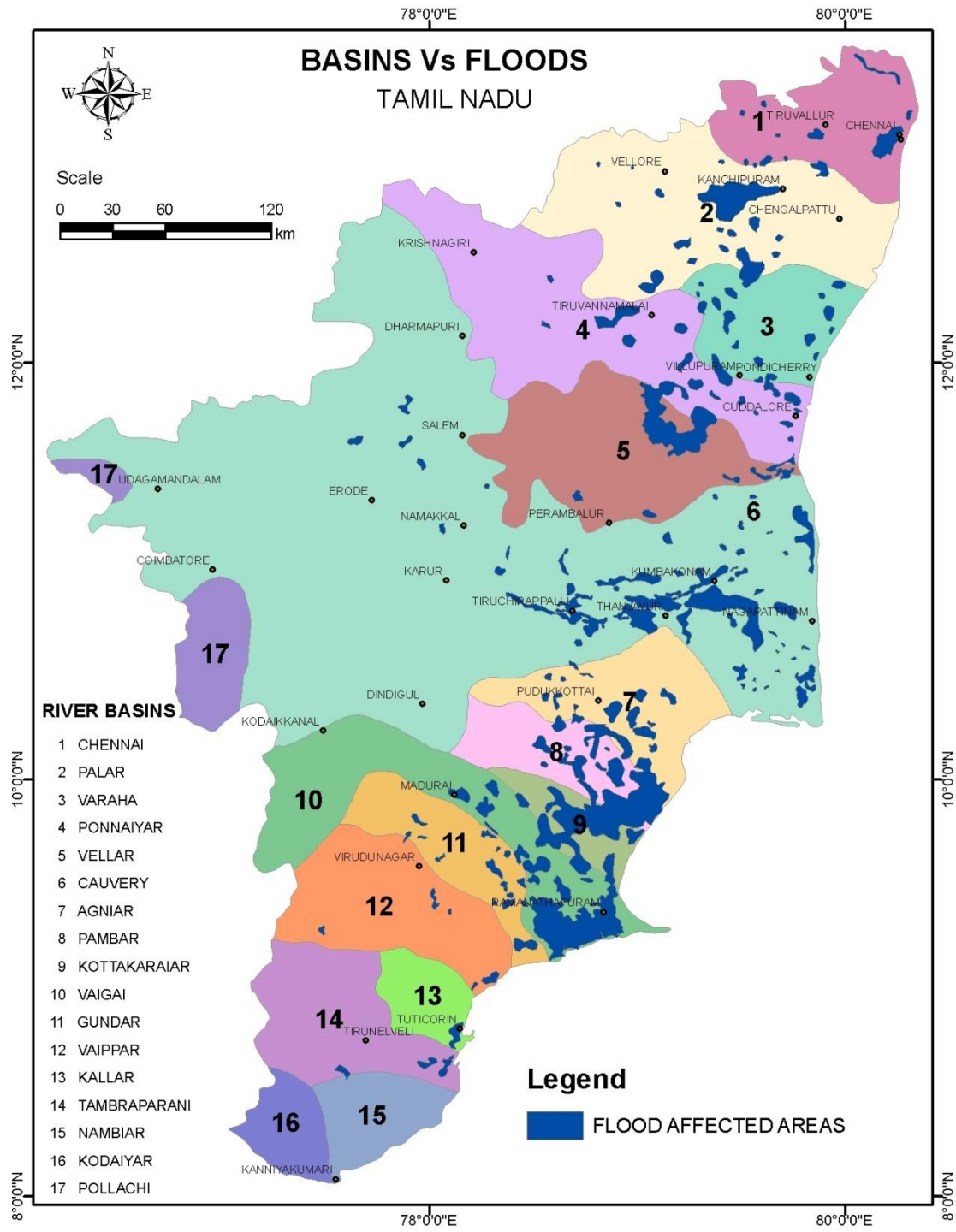
FLOODS IN TAMIL NADU - 2005

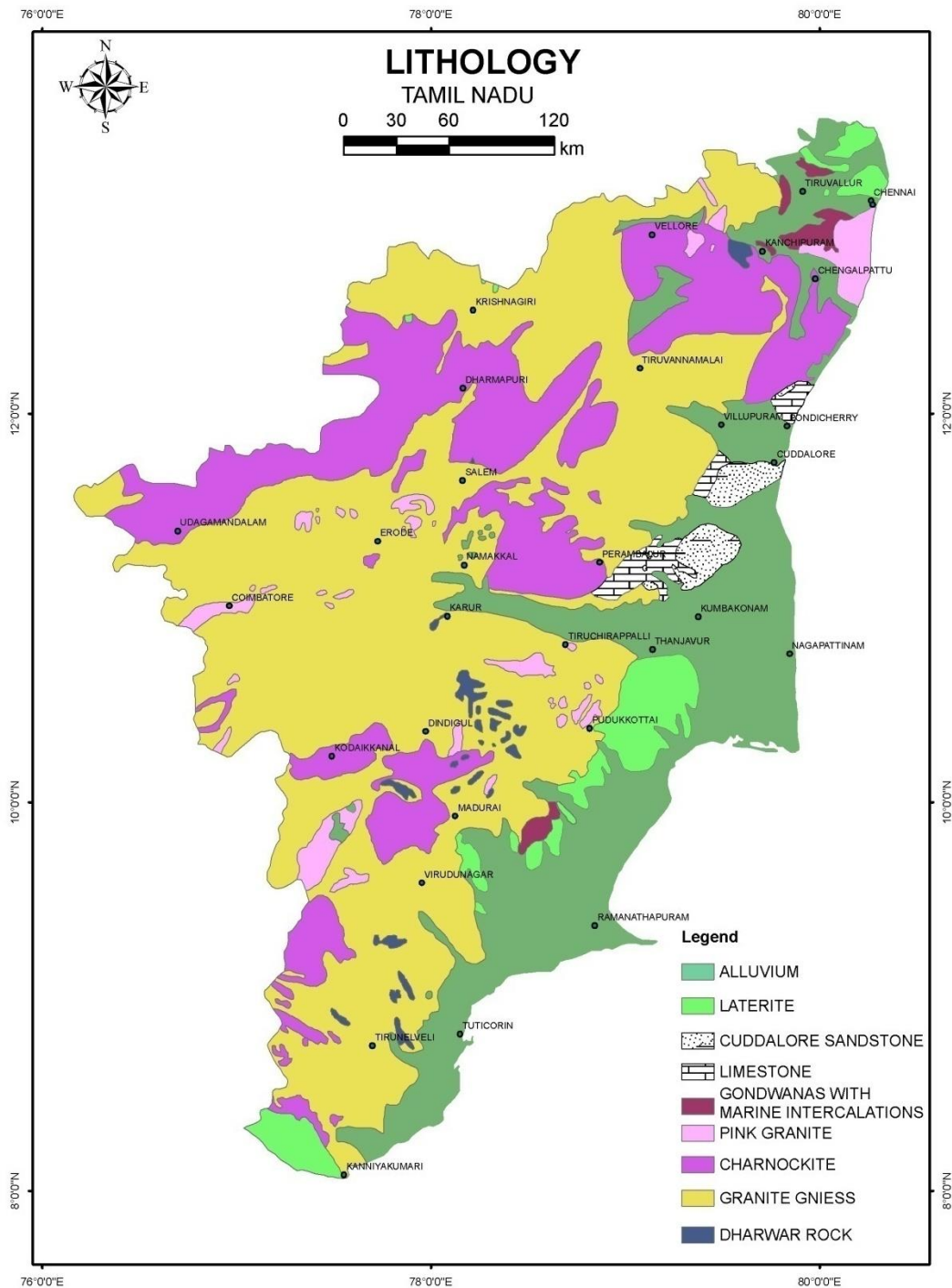


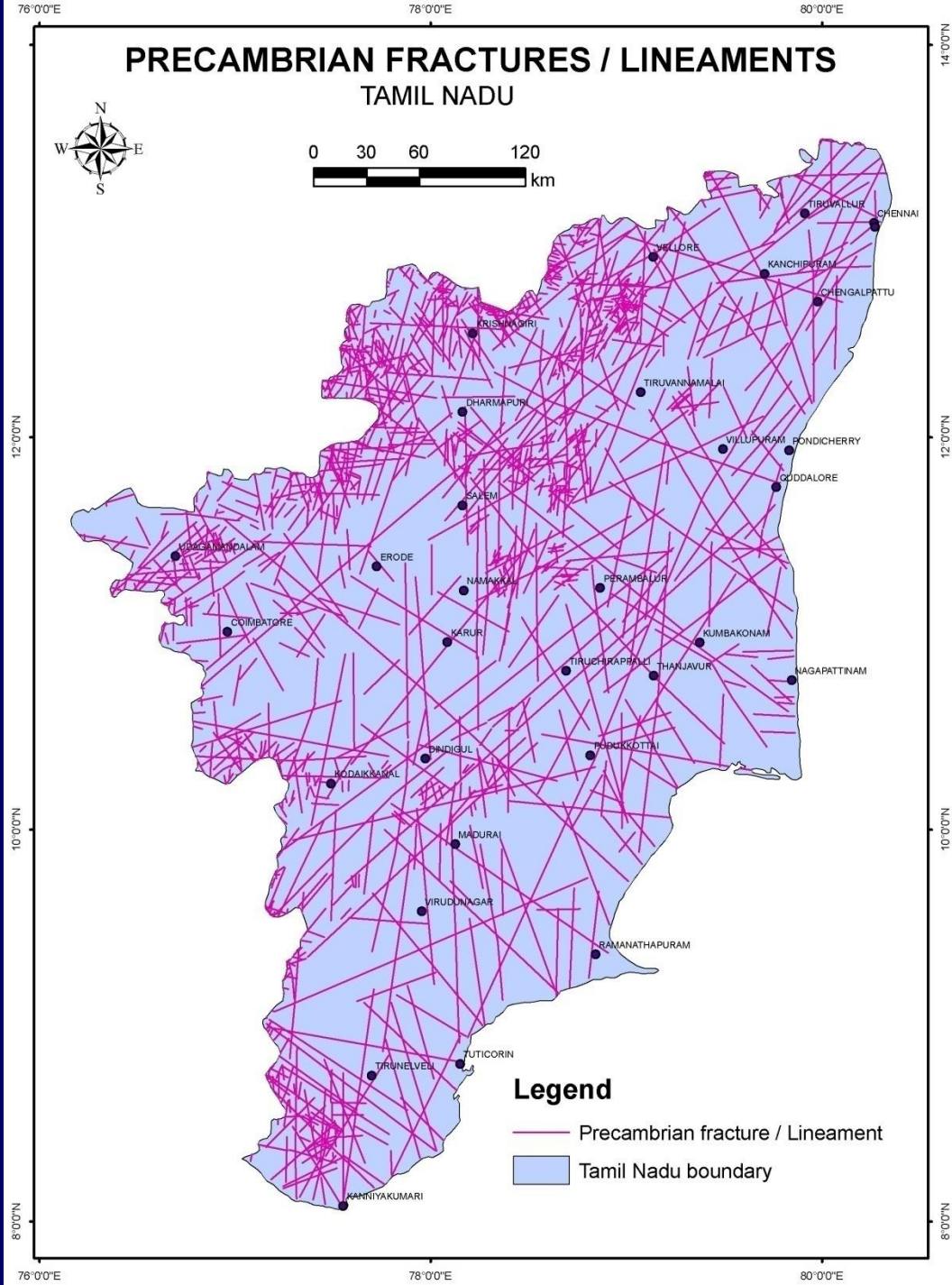
Floods & Terrain Morphology

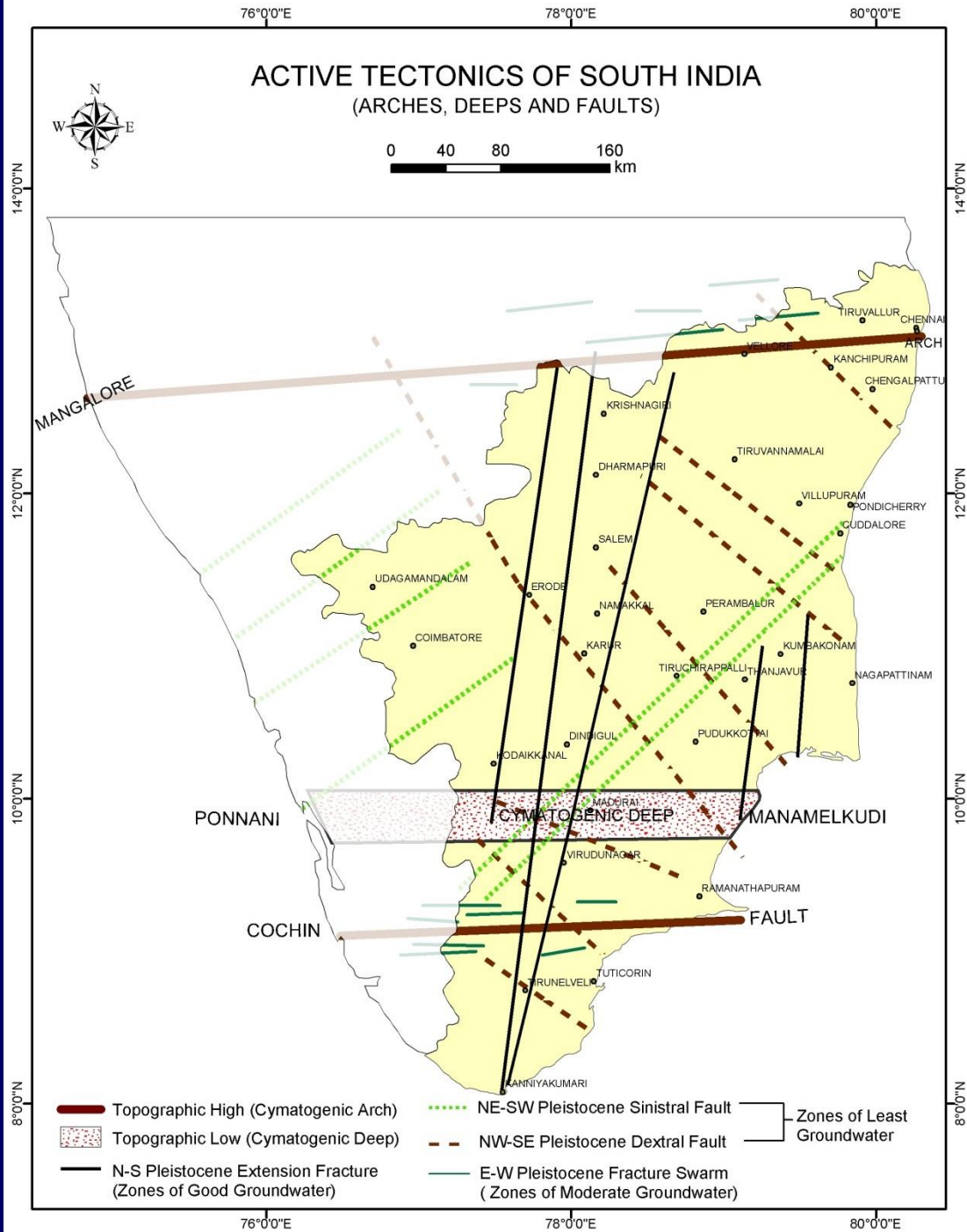


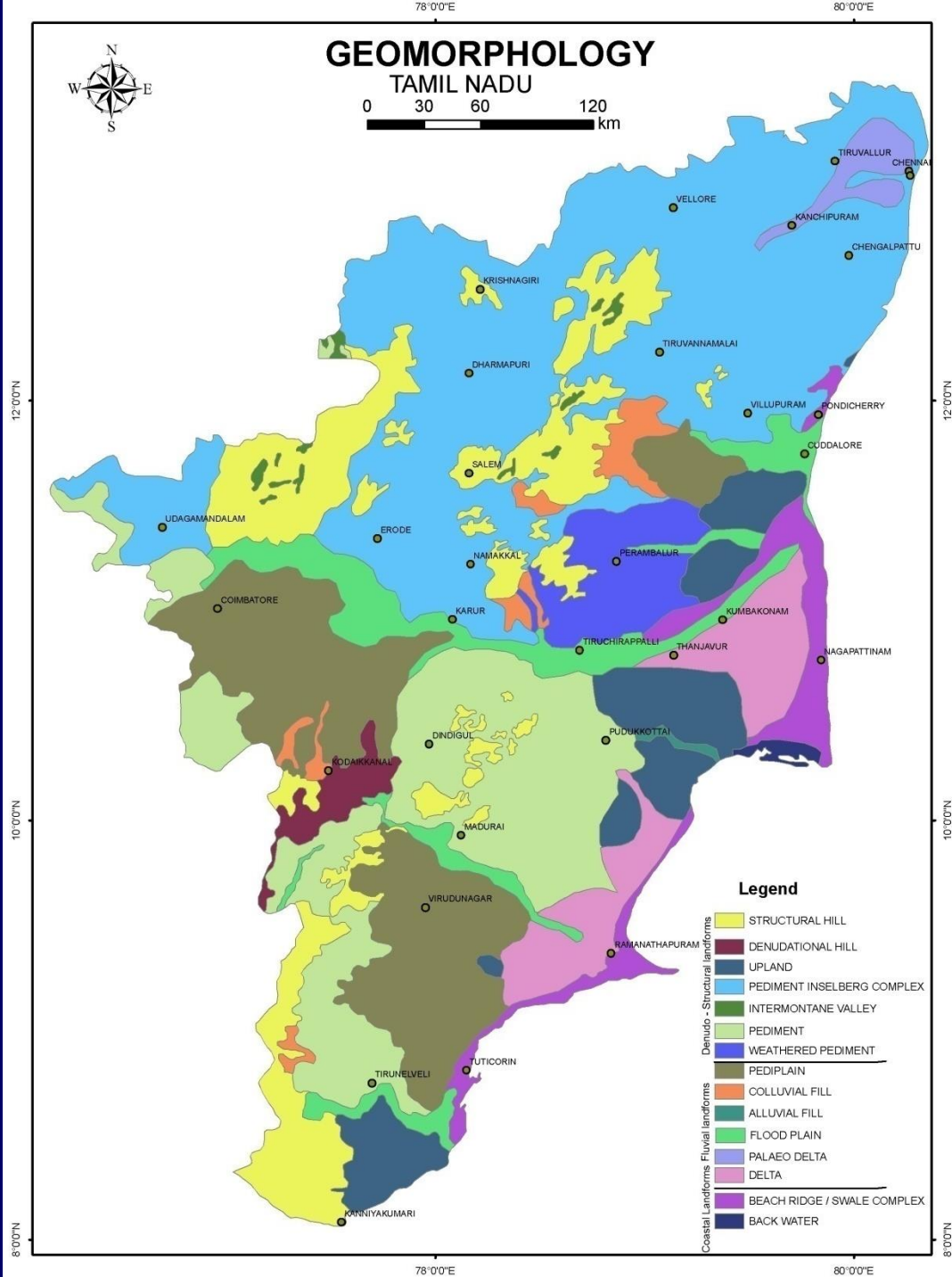
Maps on Flood Related Terrain Systems

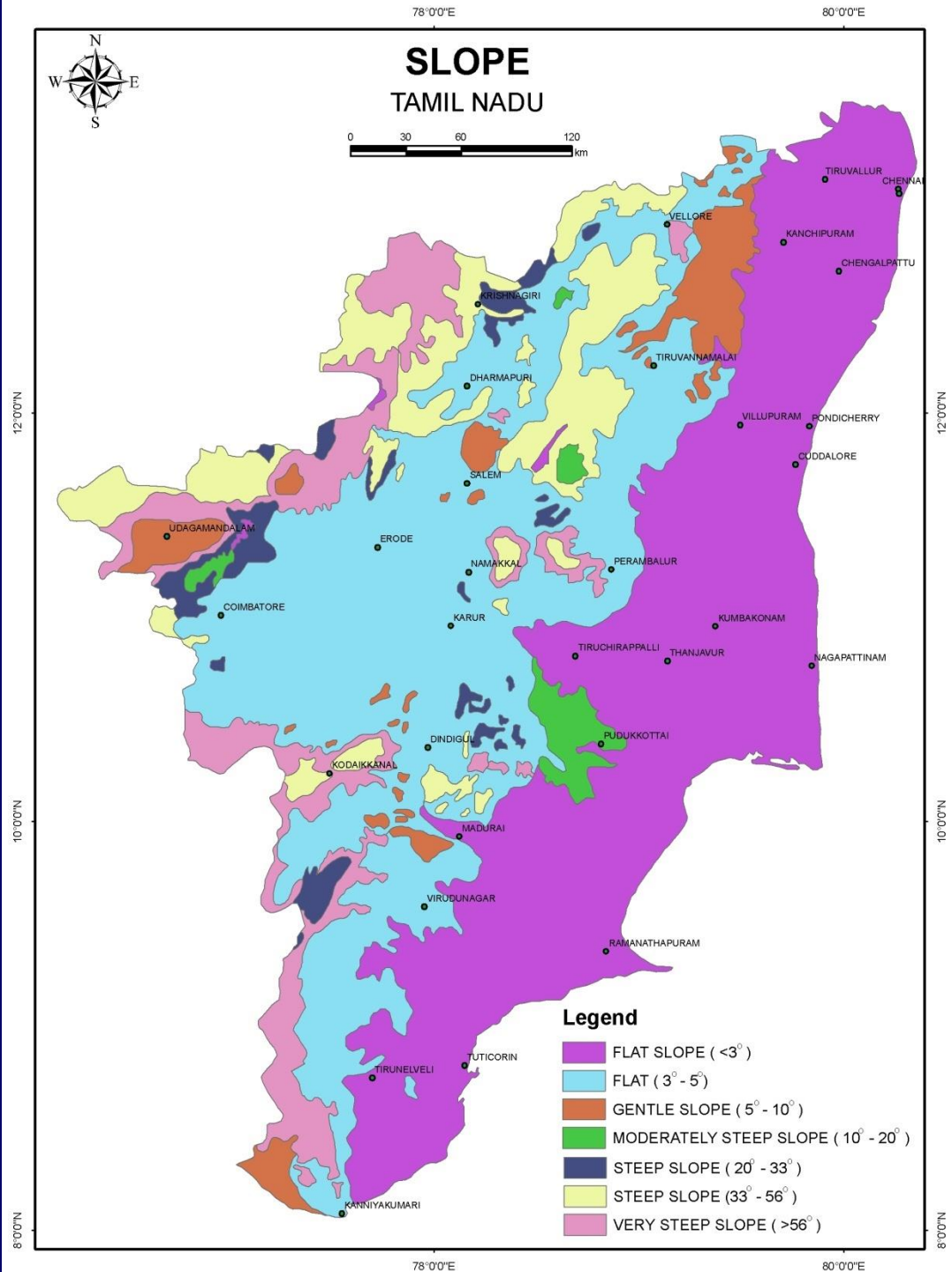


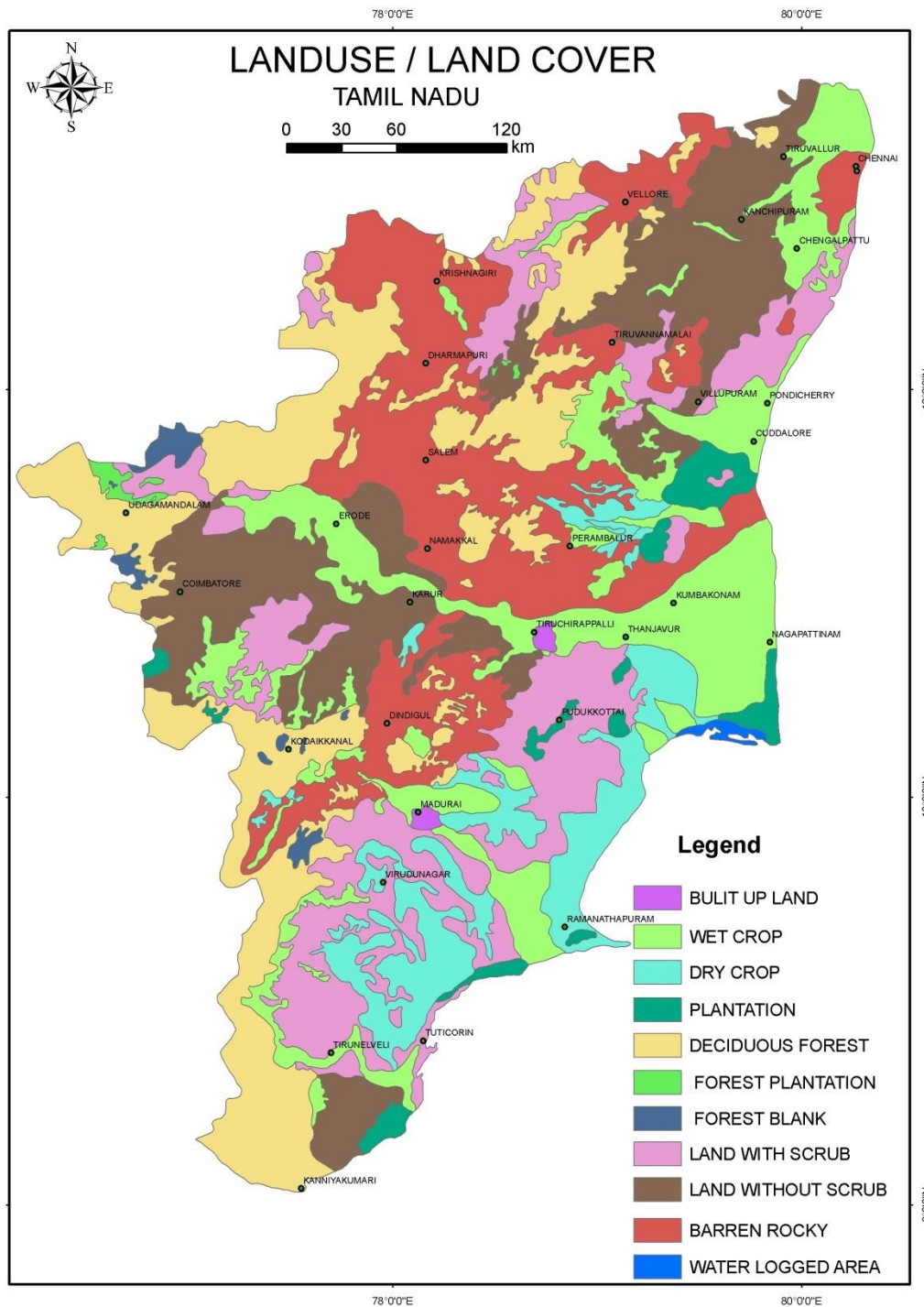








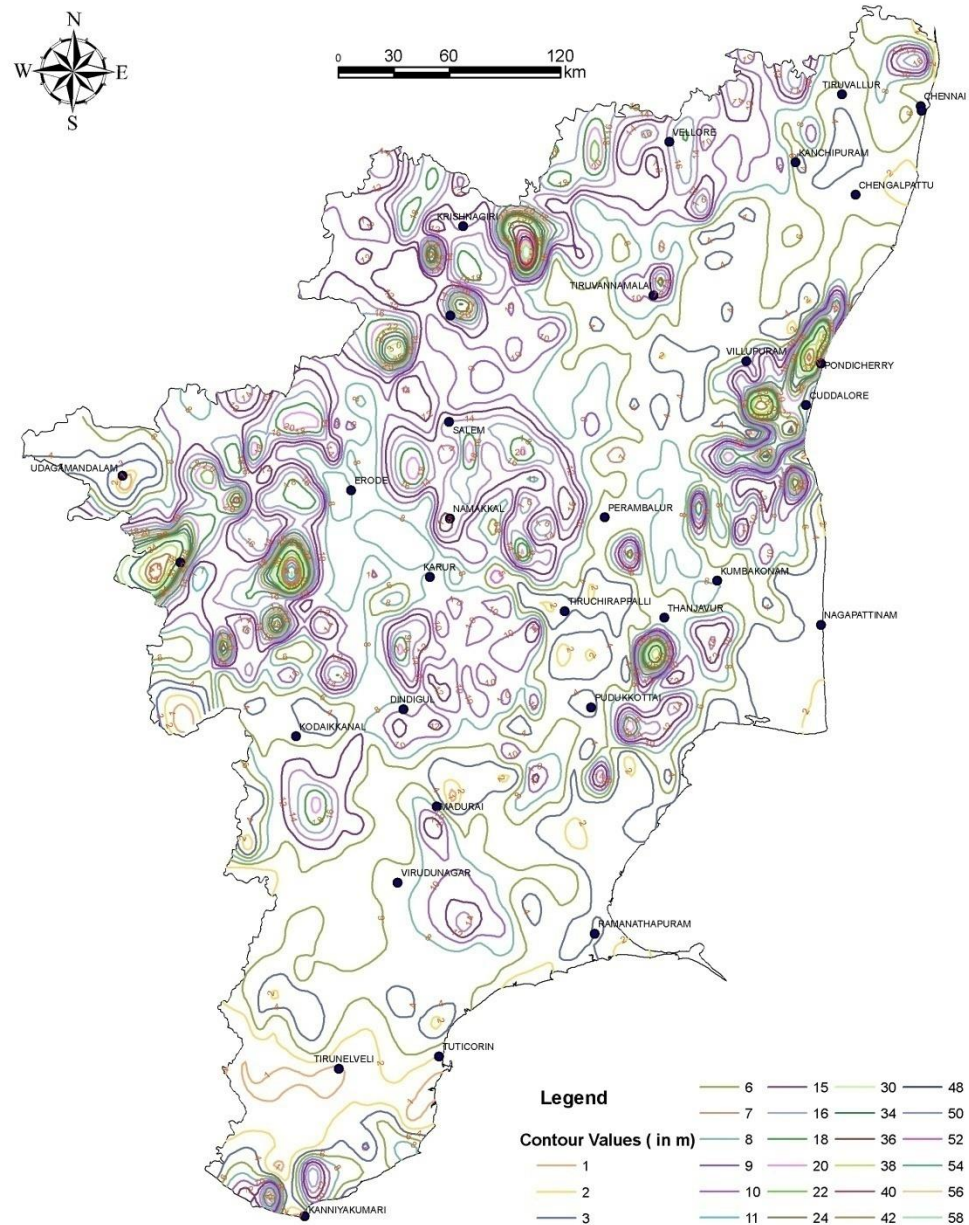




Legend

Contour Values (in m)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----



DEM - WATER LEVEL (1985) OBLIQUE VIEW
MADURAI, DINDIGUL AND TENI DISTRICTS, TAMIL NADU
(PARTS OF TOPO SHEETS 58F, 58G, 58J & 58K)

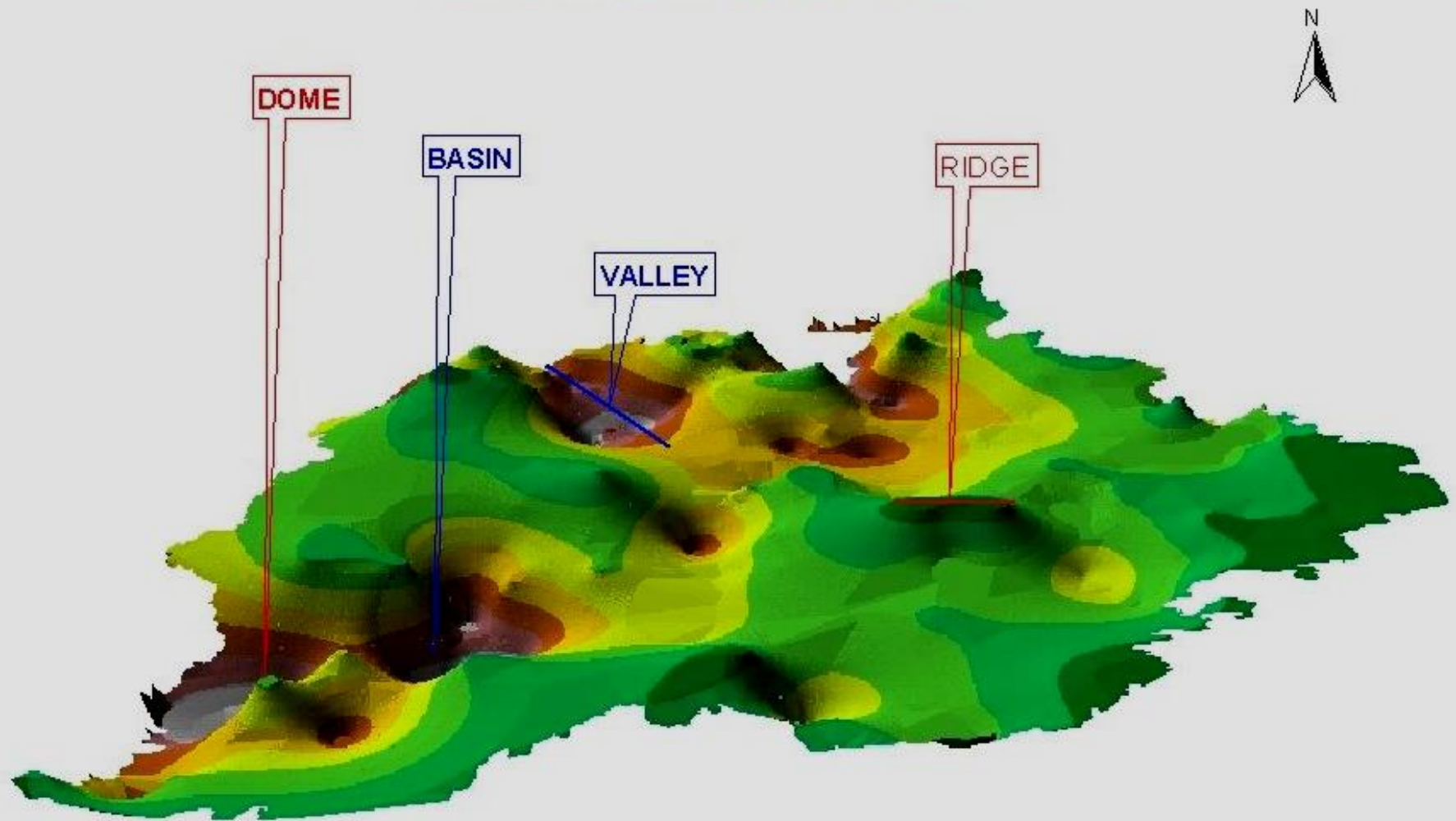
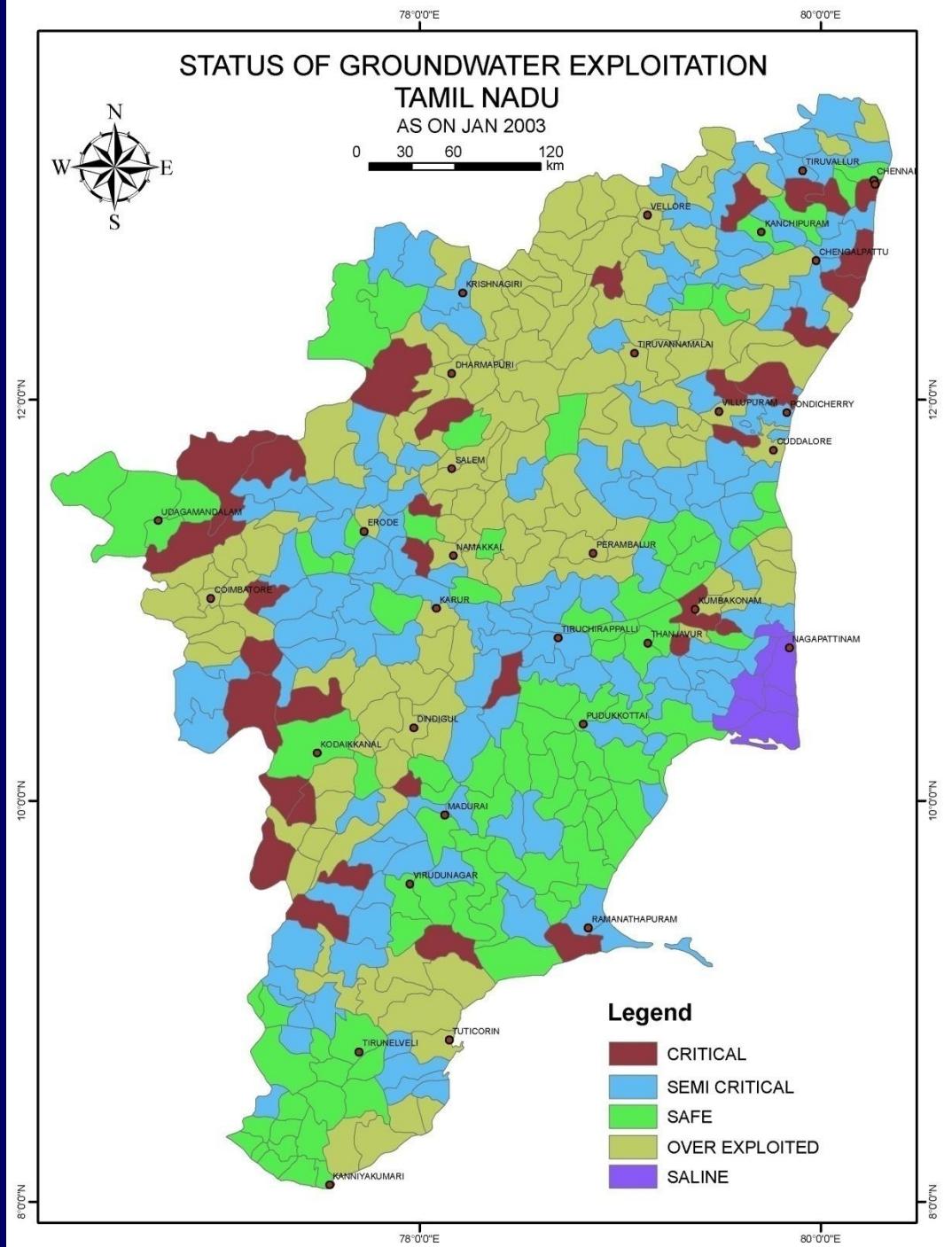
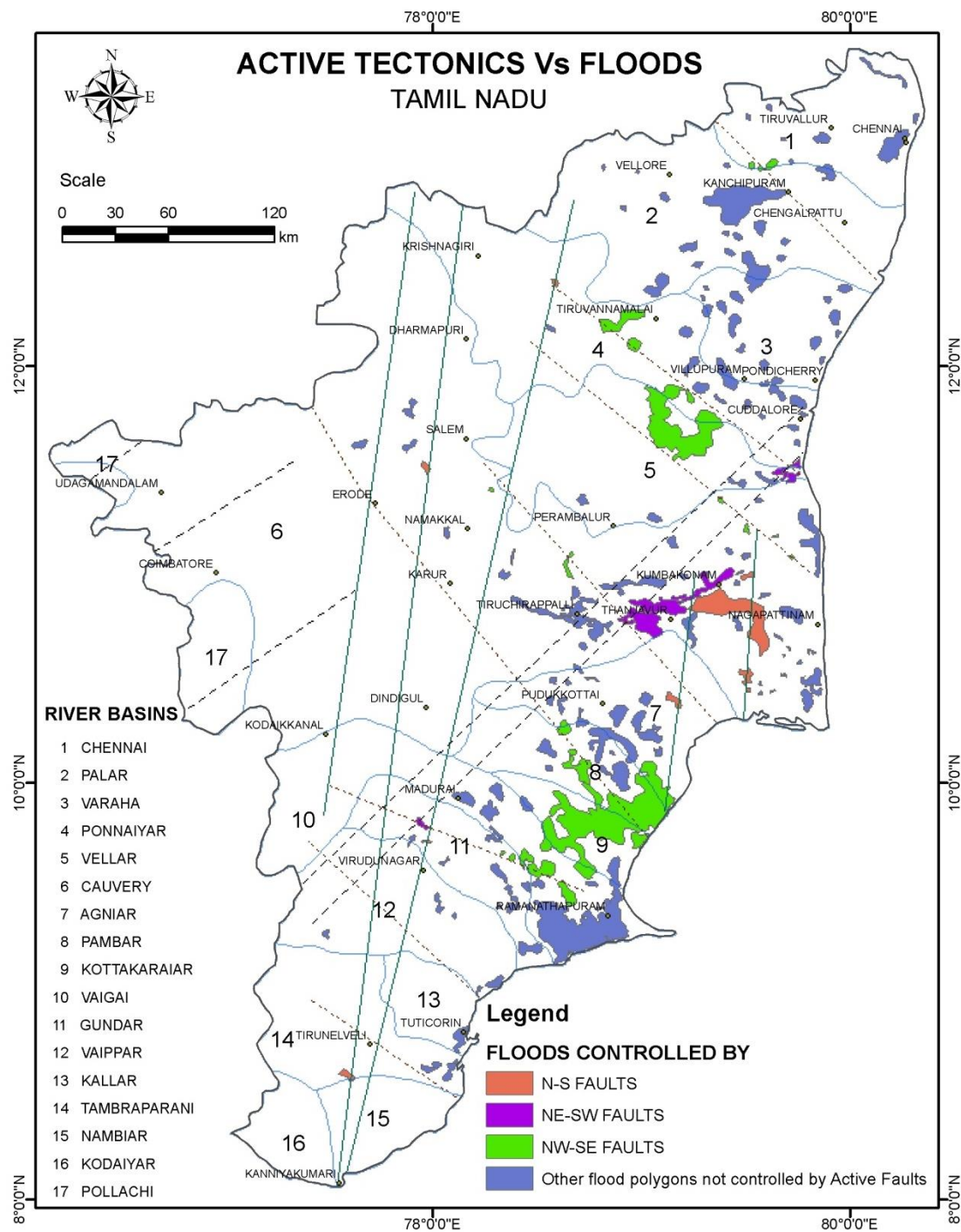
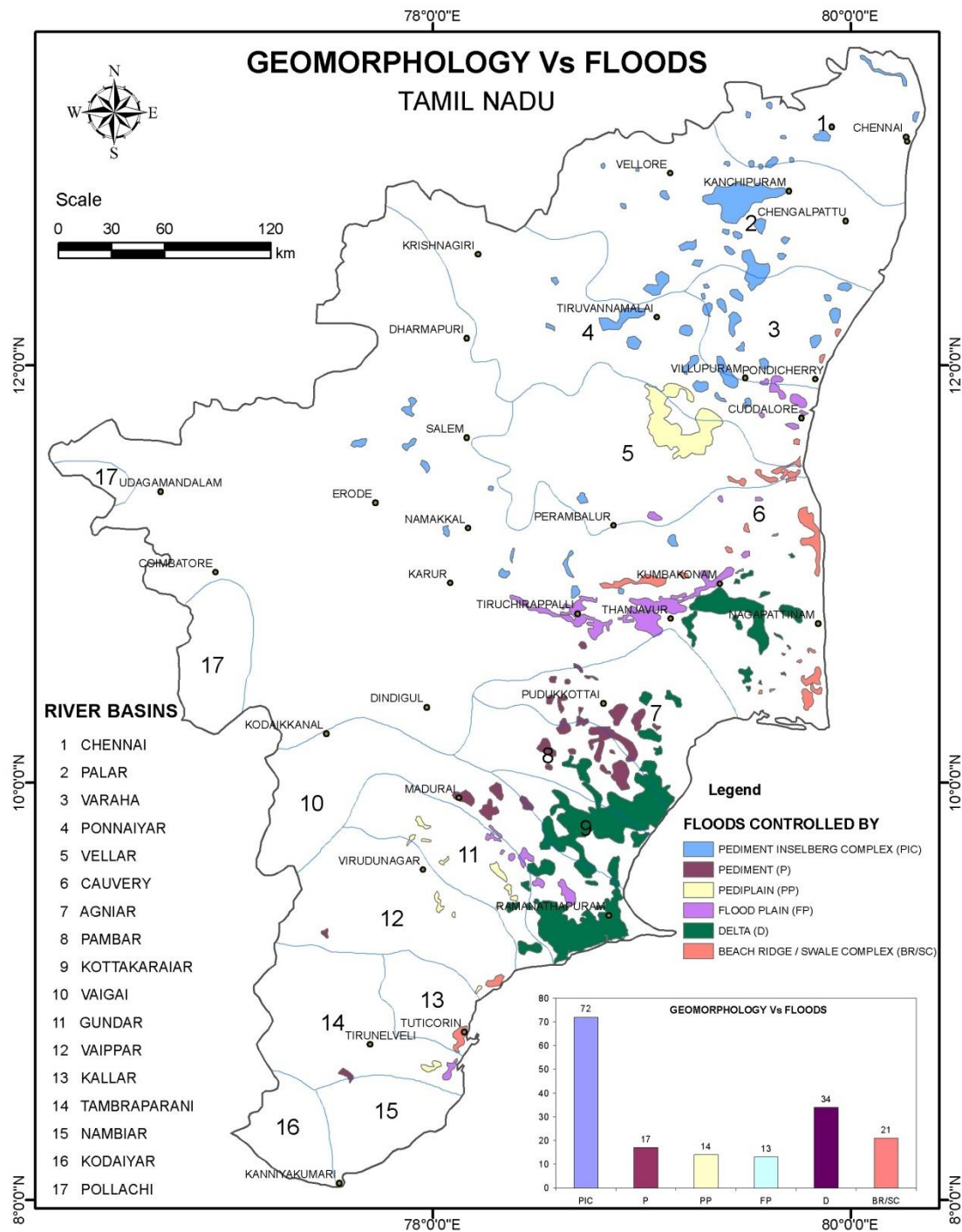


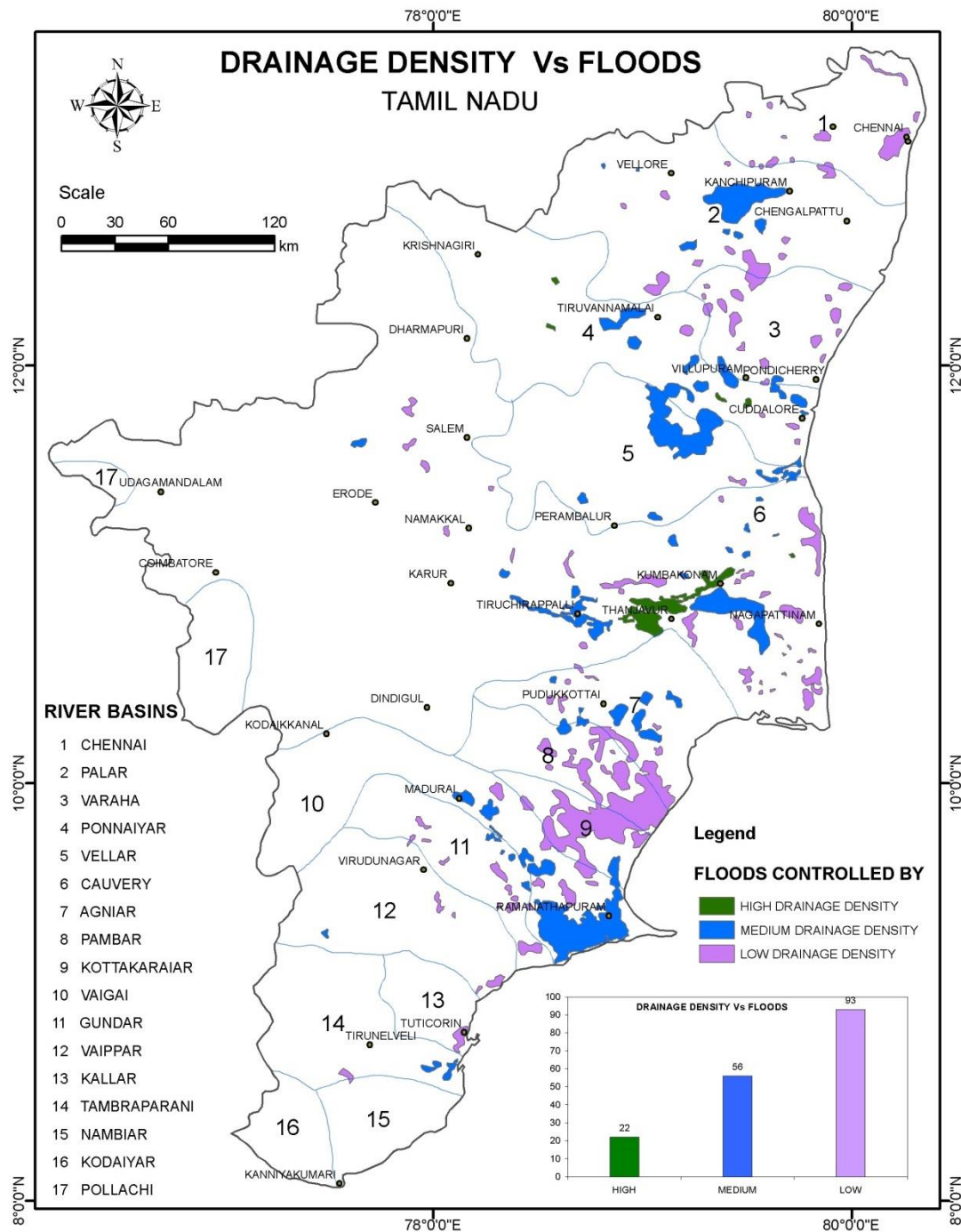
FIG. 1.9

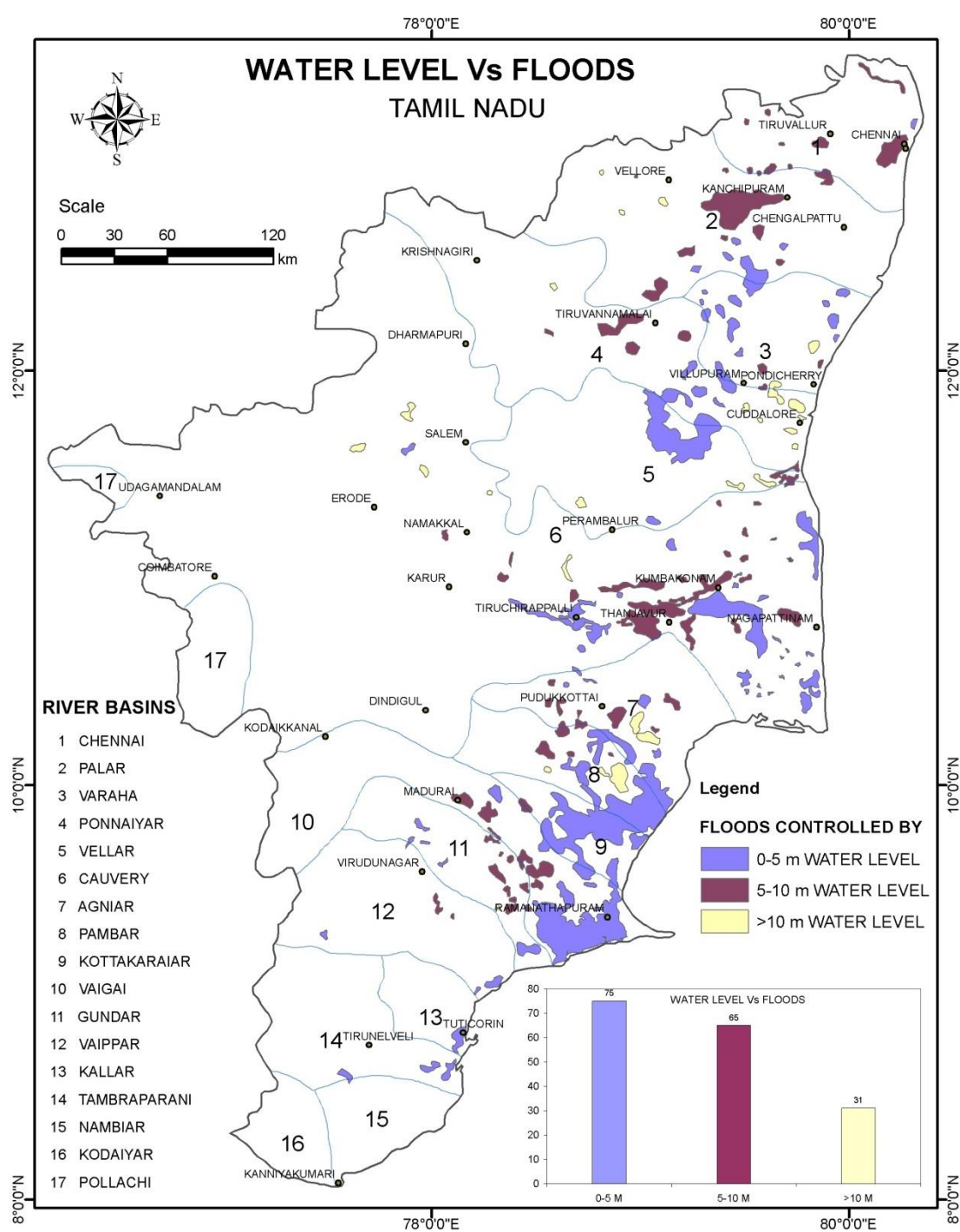


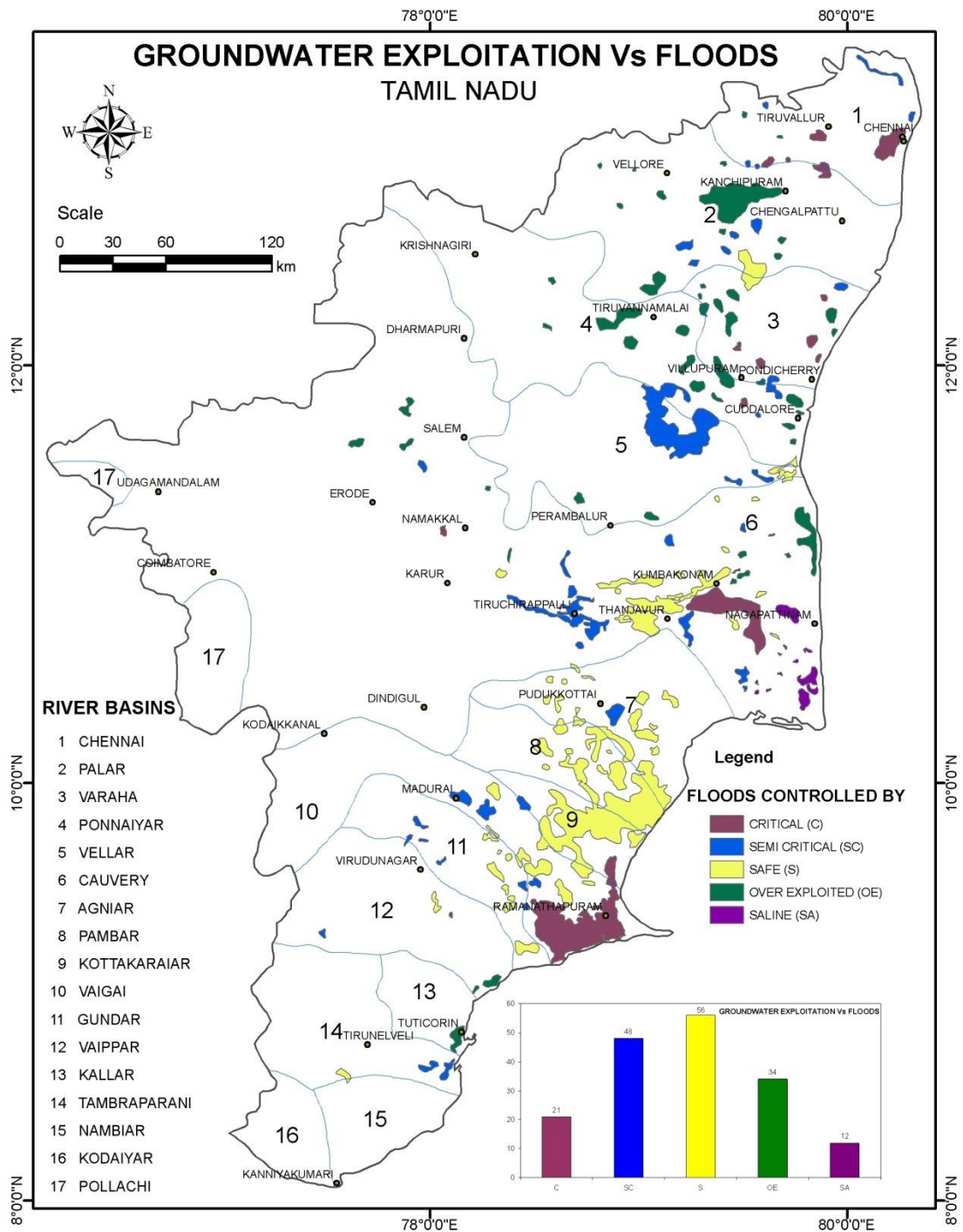
Interface Dynamics between Flood and Geosystems





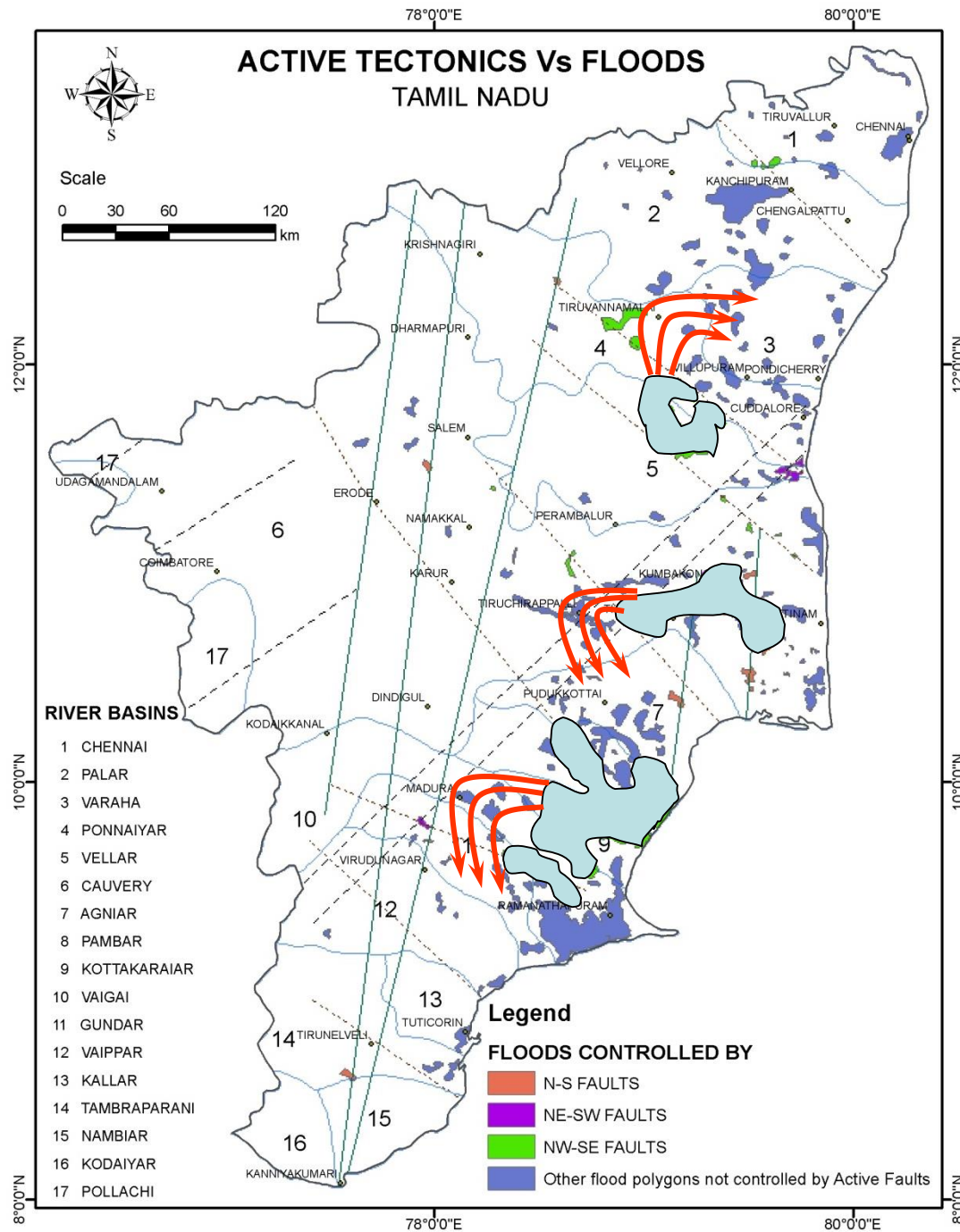






MITIGATION STRATEGIES

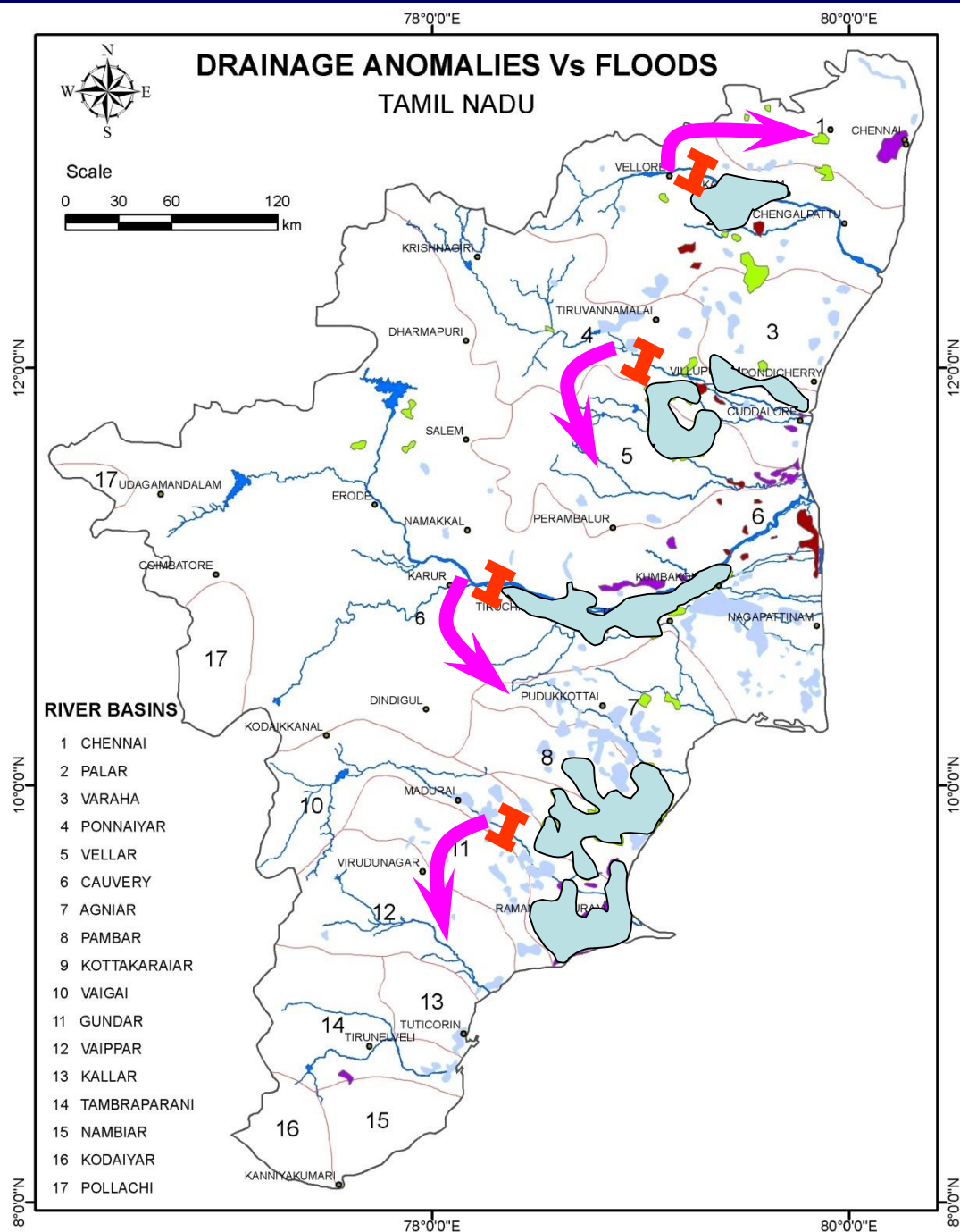
- Pump out and transfer water from flood prone to water starved basins
- Check dams
- Drainage reorganization / create adequate drainages
- Construction of protection walls
- Depression of groundwater levels prior to monsoon to facilitate the faster infiltration of flood water, etc.



FLOOD CONTROLLED BY ACTIVE FAULTS

→ **Transfer to
Other basins**

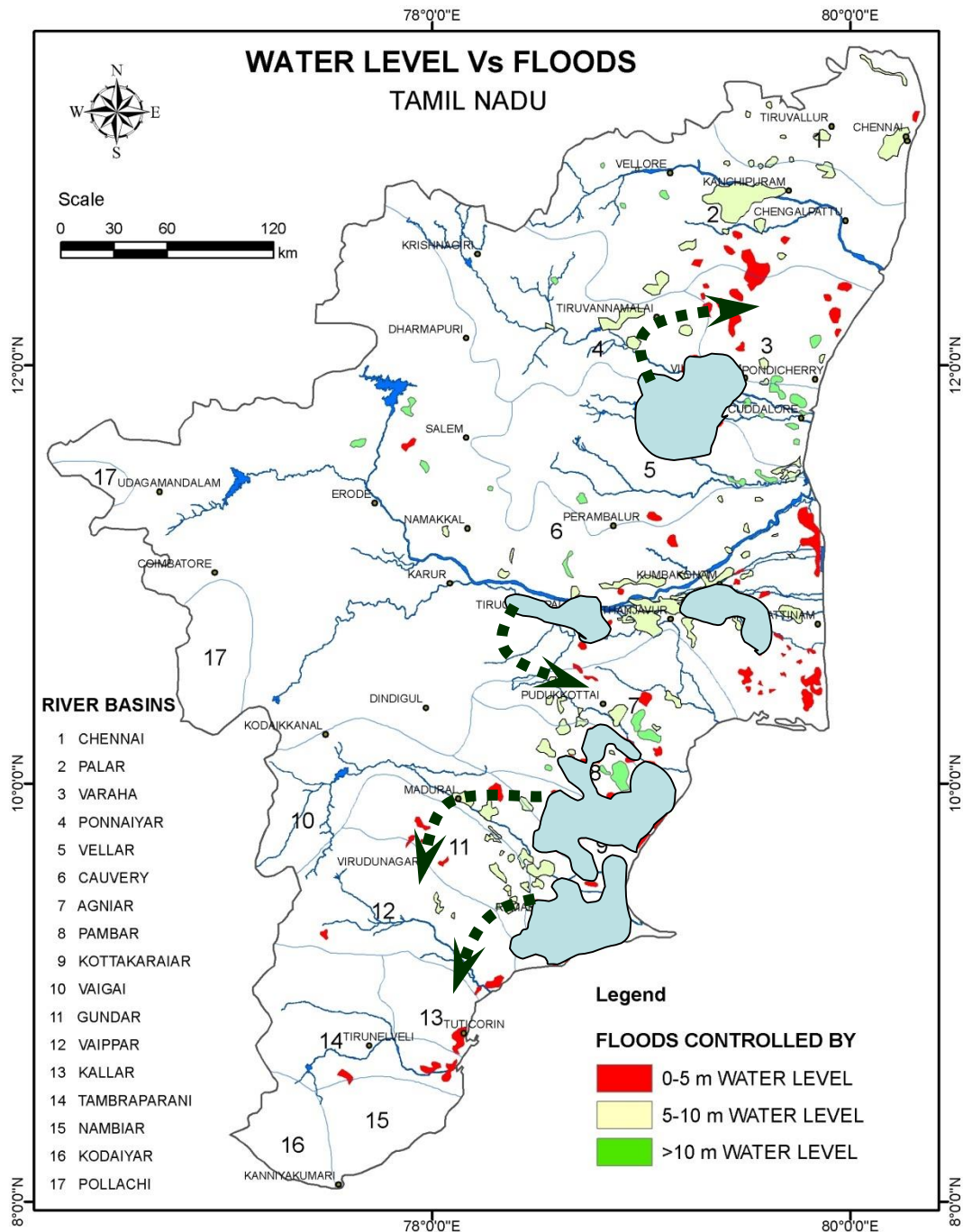
DRAINAGE ANOMALIES Vs FLOODS TAMIL NADU



FLOOD CONTROLLED BY DRAINAGE ANOMALIES

➔ Check dam
upper reaches

➔ Transfer to
Other basins



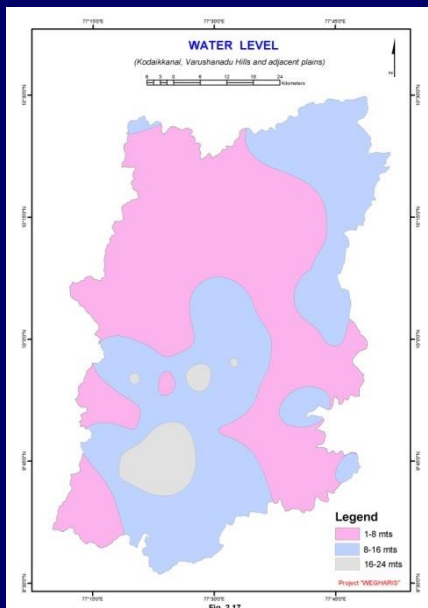
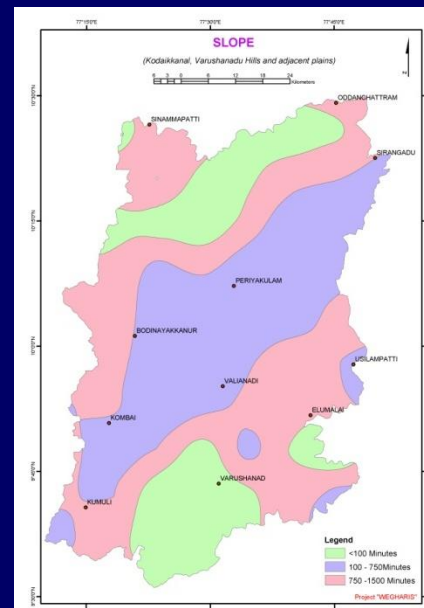
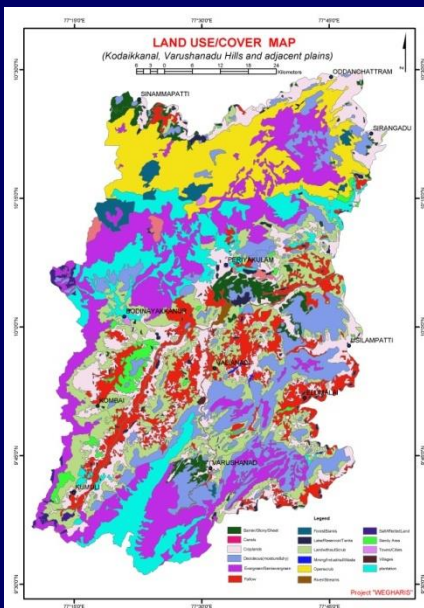
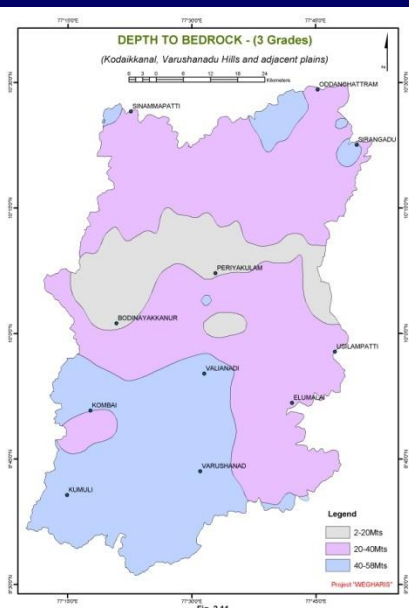
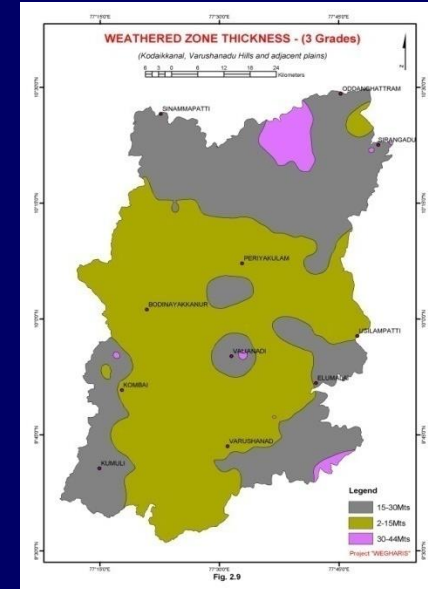
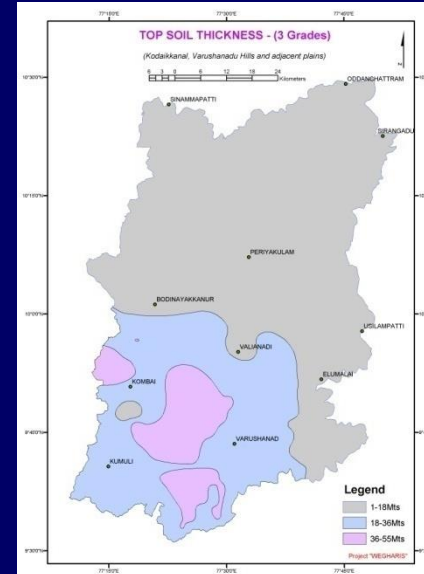
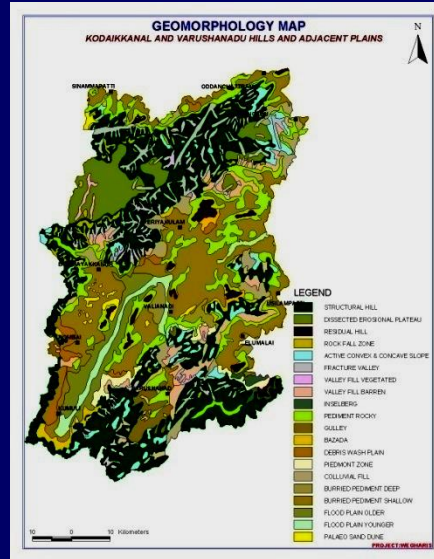
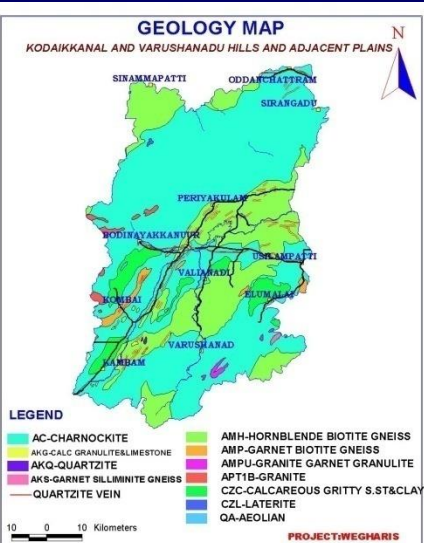
FLOOD CONTROLLED BY WATER LEVEL

- ➔ Depress the water level
- ➔ Transfer to other basin

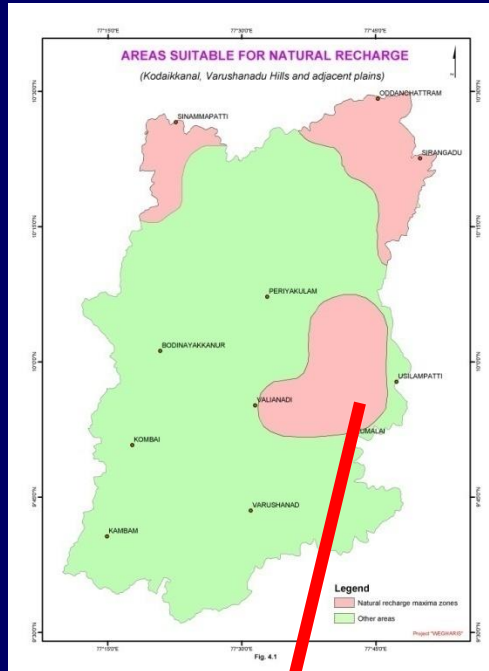
FLOOD WATER HARVESTING TECHNOLOGY

- ♣ Selection of suitable sites for recharge
- ♣ Detection of site specific mechanisms (percolation ponds, Check dams , furrowing, flooding, pitting ,induced recharge Hydrofracturing etc
- ♣ estimation of basin wise flood availability, allowable recharge
Push SUCH acceptable flood water in the respective basins
- ♣ Transfer the surplus water to the water deficit basins along optimal routes
- ♣ All these require in depth geological studies

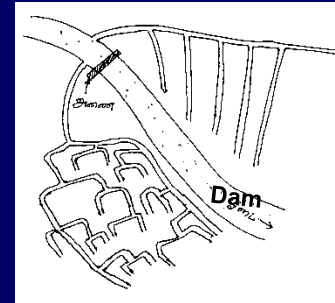
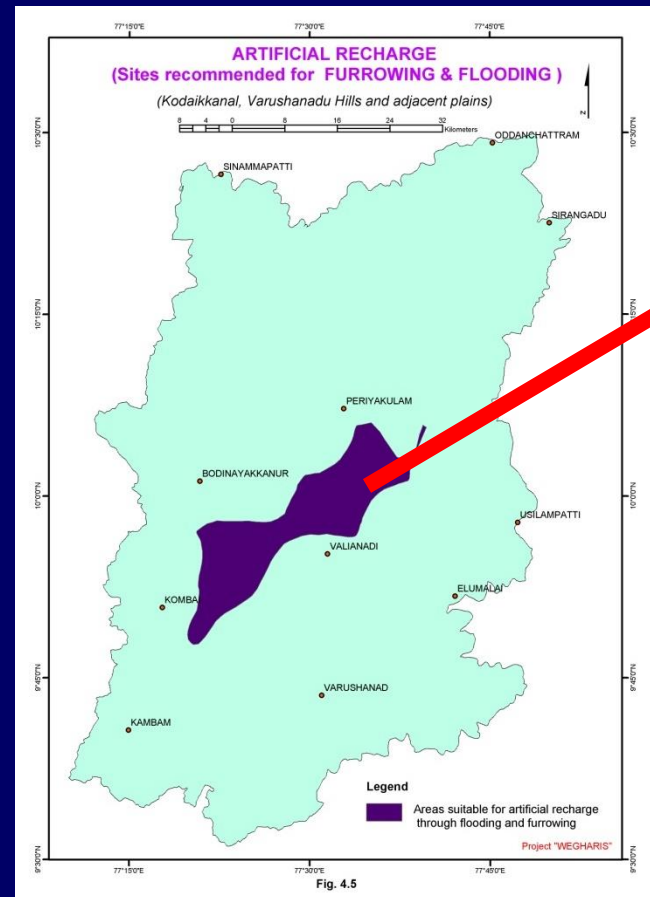
FLOOD WATER HARVESTING TECHNOLOGY – through suitable site selection for Artificial Recharge



FLOOD WATER HARVESTING TECHNOLOGY – through suitable mechanism identification for Artificial Recharge



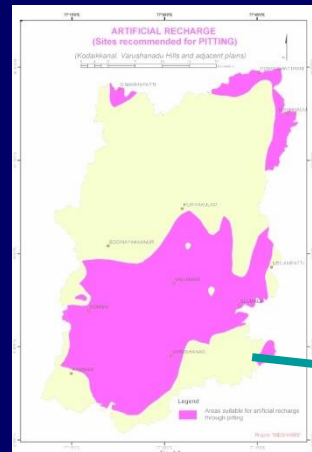
Site favourable for
Artificial Recharge



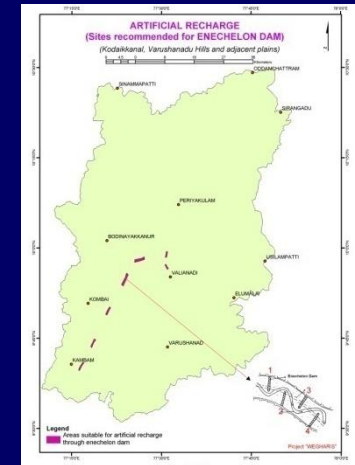
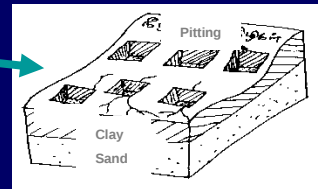
Site suitable for
Furrowing
& Flooding

FLOOD WATER HARVESTING TECHNOLOGY – through suitable mechanism identification for Artificial Recharge

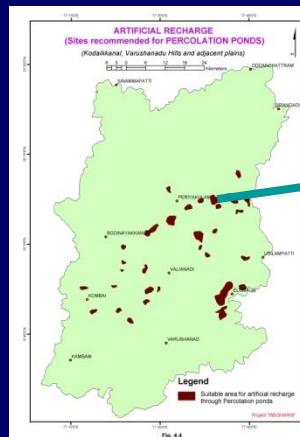
Site suitable
for Enechelon
Dam



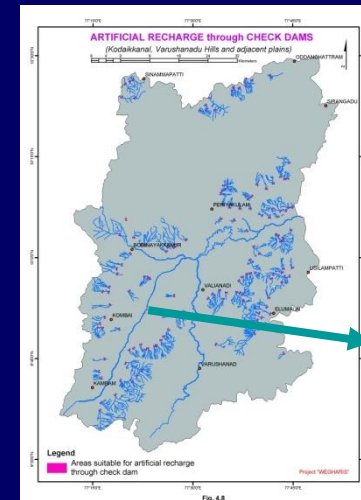
Site suitable
for Pitting



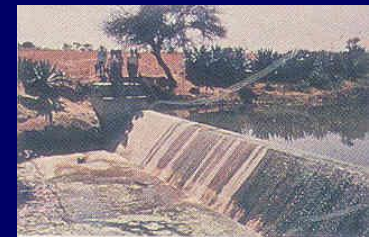
Site
suitable
for
Hydro
fractures



Site suitable
for Percolation
Pond

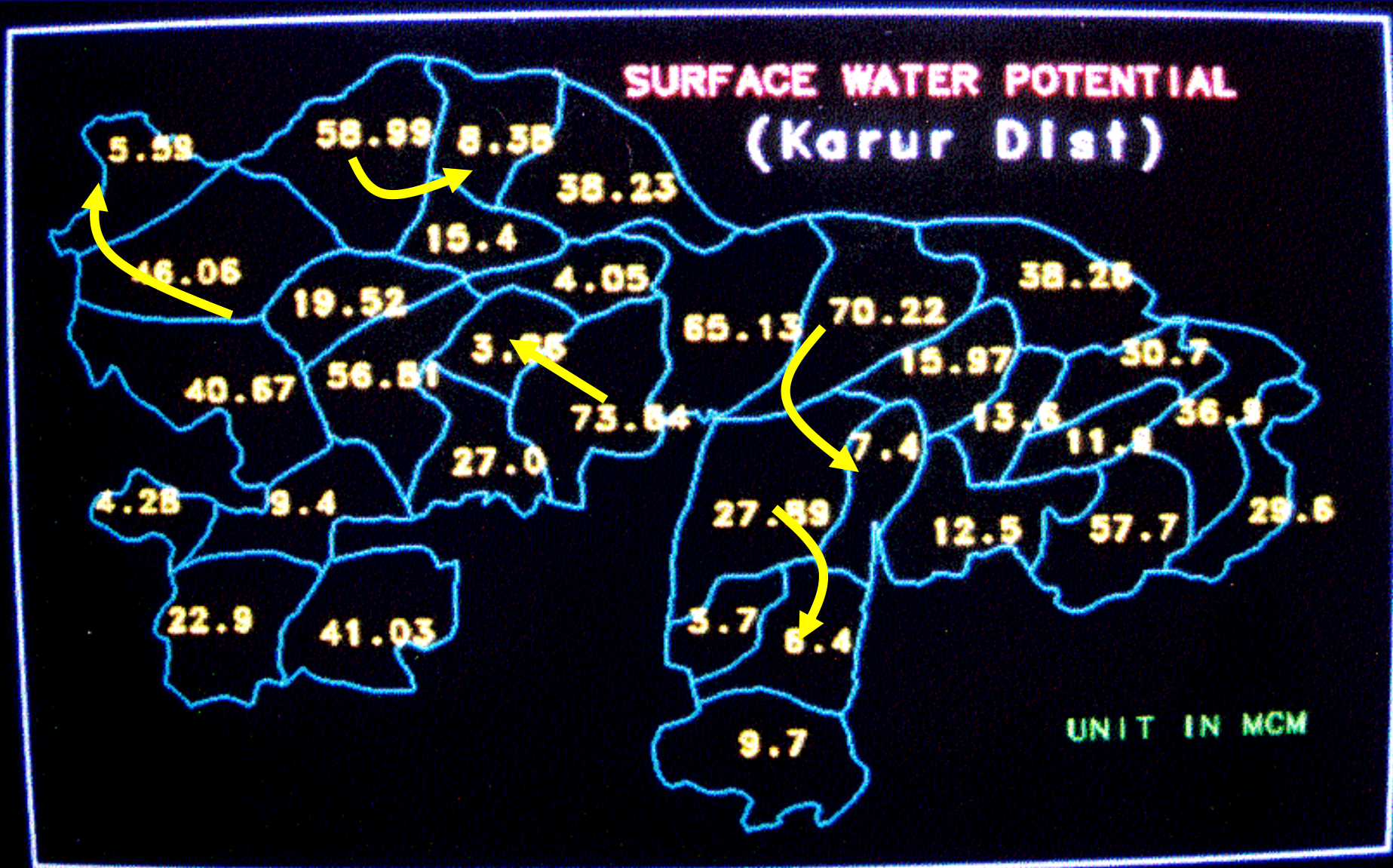


Site suitable for
Check Dam

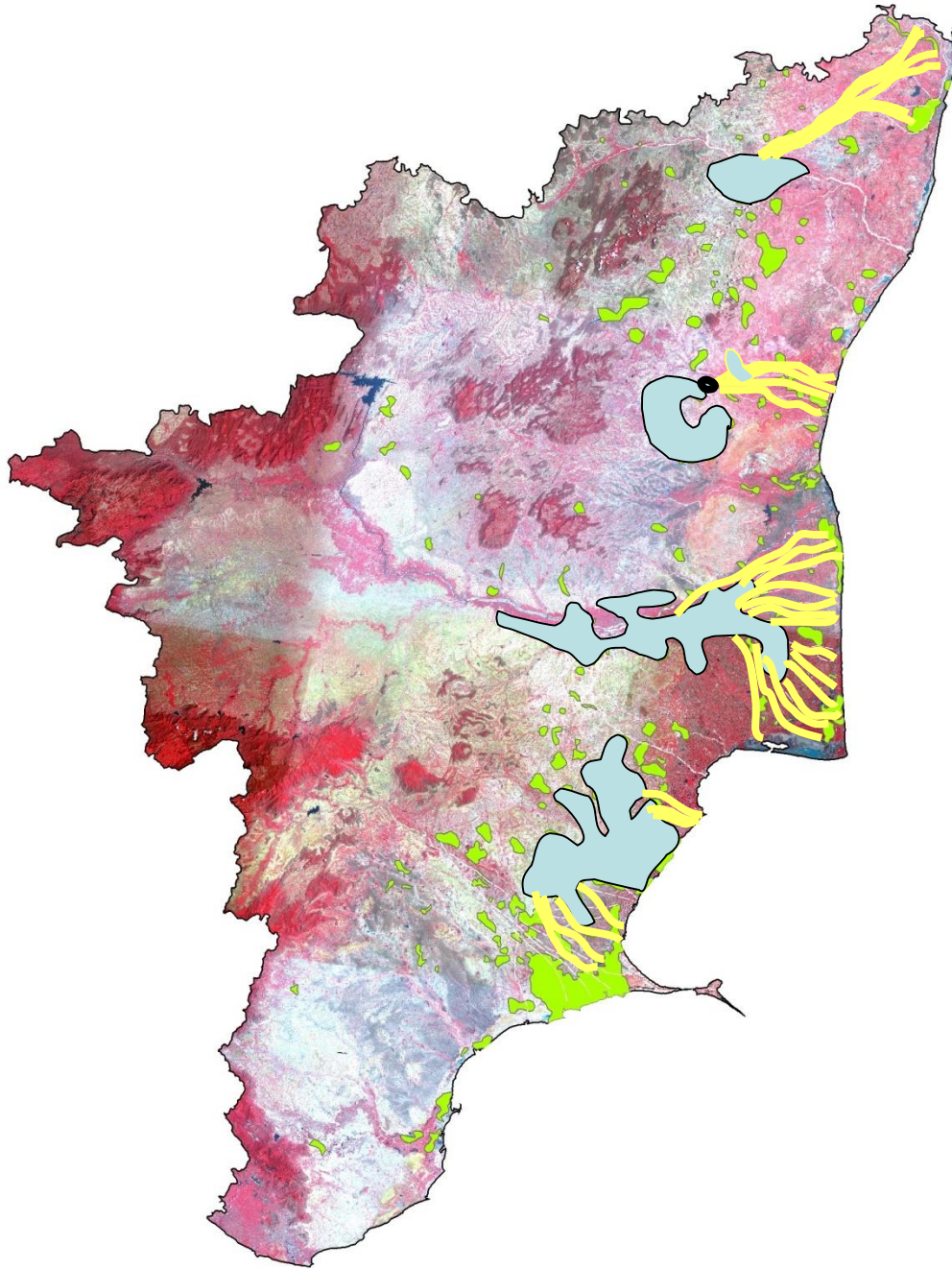


OPTIMAL ROUTES FOR WATER TRANSFER

Water Transfer



DIVERSION OF FLOOD THROUGH BURIED RIVERS



FLOOD : PREVENTIVE MEASURES (case study)

It can be controlled by certain catchments treatment or drainage treatment

Study area demarcated into micro watersheds

Runoff estimation for 1975, 1985 and 1995 and their modifications were Estimated

Causative factors were evaluated for such runoff modification

Mechanisms were suggested to reduce runoff

DEMARCATON OF WATERSHEDS

Data Base Generation for 1975, 1985 and 1995

Rainfall

Slope

Hydrological Soil Group

Landuse Categories

Workout Daily Runoff for each watershed

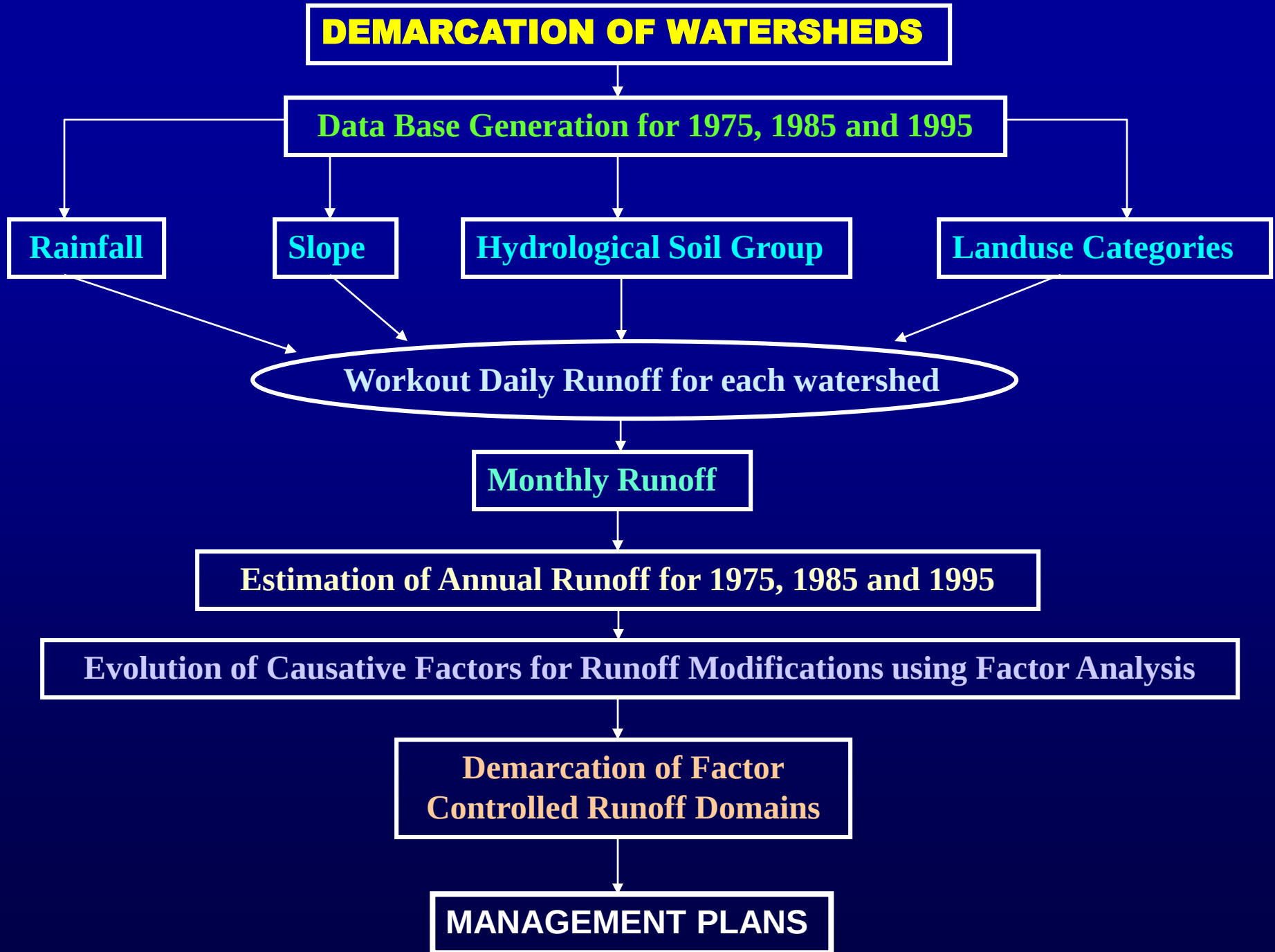
Monthly Runoff

Estimation of Annual Runoff for 1975, 1985 and 1995

Evolution of Causative Factors for Runoff Modifications using Factor Analysis

Demarcation of Factor
Controlled Runoff Domains

MANAGEMENT PLANS

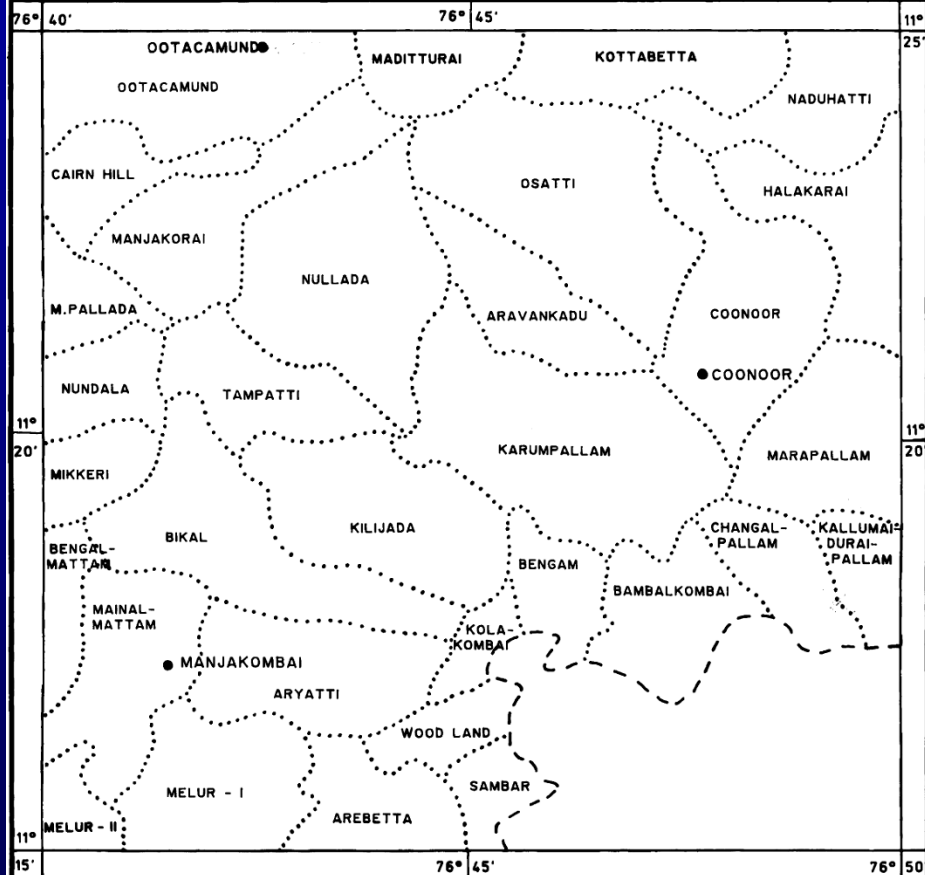


WATERSHEDS

OOTACAMUND - COONNOOR SECTOR (THE NILGIRIS)

SCALE

1 0 1 km



LEGEND



WATERSHED BOUNDARY



DISTRICT BOUNDARY



SETTLEMENTS

DEMARCATON OF WATERSHED

32 MICRO WATERSHEDS OF 5 – 20 SQ.KM

RUNOFF ESTIMATION

From the rain gauge stations rainfall data were collected for 30 years

mean annual rainfall for each stations were worked out

Isoheytal lines were drawn

micro watershed wise rainfall data were derived

SLOPE : controls infiltration rate

Slope calculated for each watershed and converted into radian (log table)

HYDROLOGICAL SOIL GROUP

**Soil map from Tamil Nadu soil survey and Landuse Organisation
From soil 5 derivative maps were derived**

Infiltration rate

Texture

Soil Thickness

Drainage

Water transmission capacity

Integrating all hydrological soil map was prepared

**For each micro watershed aerial extent of hydrological soil group
were worked out**

Landuse / land cover

Using topographic sheets, aerial photographs and satellite data following categories were prepared for the years 1975, 1985 and 1995

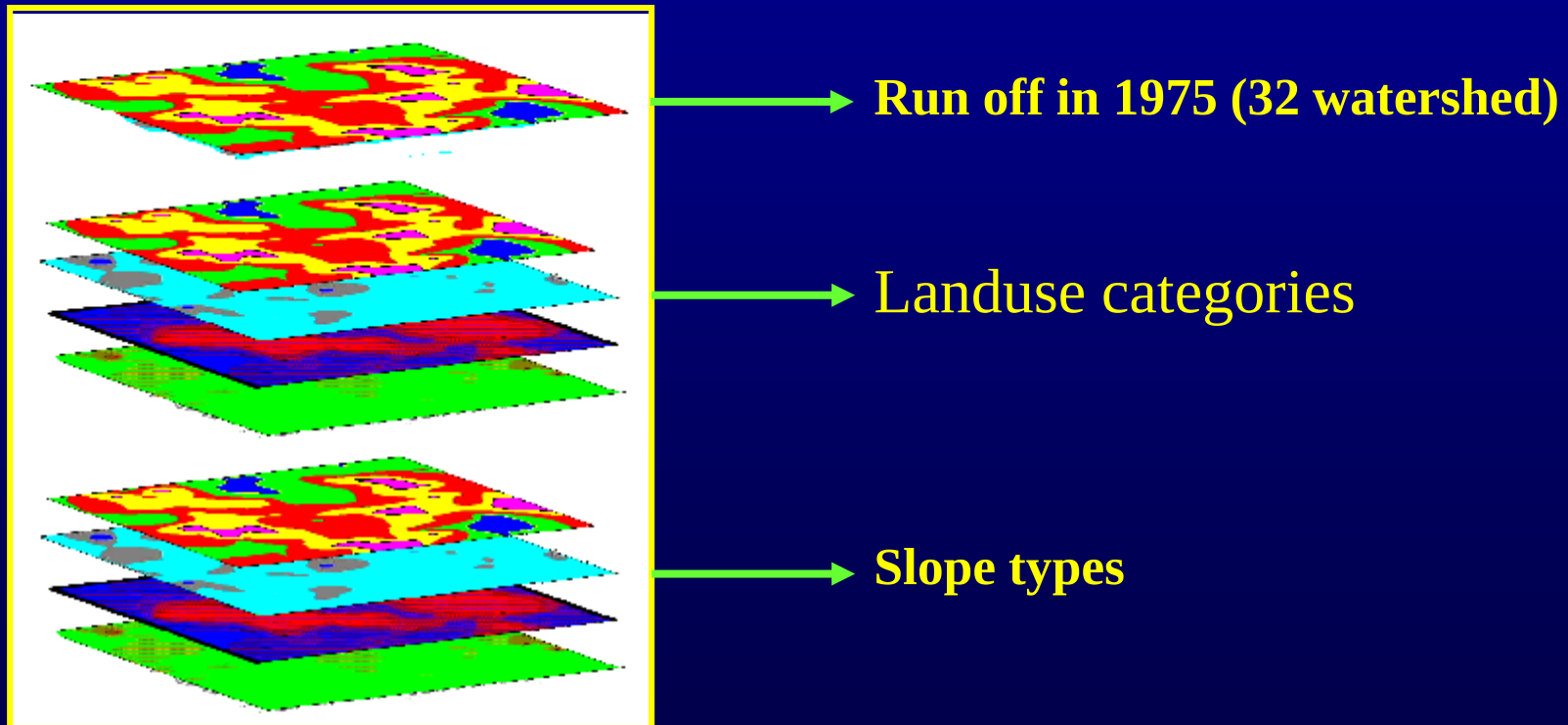
Evergreen forest, Deciduous forest, open forest, degraded forest, forest plantation, horticulture plantation, crop land, fallow land, scrub land grass land, barren rocky area, builtup land

Prepared for 1975, 1985 and 1995

Aerial extent of each land use / land cover category for year 75,85 and 95

CAUSATIVE FACTORS FOR RUNOFF MODIFICATIONS

To find out actual causative factor for runoff modification – factor varimax Analysis carried out between runoff of 32 watersheds vs dependent variables for the years 75,85 and 95



ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX - 1975

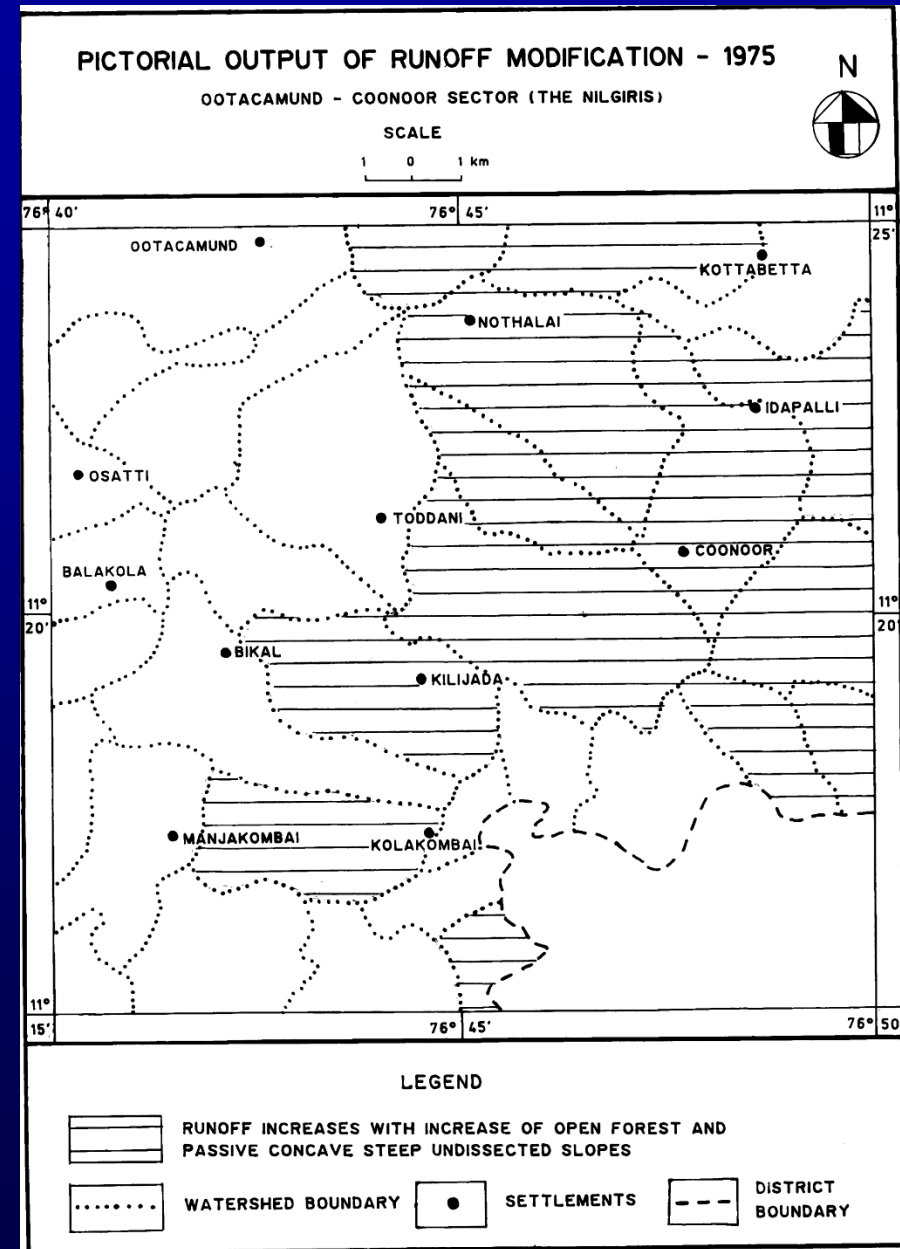
Sl. No.	VARIABLES	FACTOR 8
1	Runoff	0.71996
2	Ever Green Forest	- 0.16297
3	Decidious Forest	0.17831
4	Open Forest	0.77823
5	Buildup Land	- 0.06459
6	Scrub Land	0.09112
7	Fallow Land	- 0.00145
8	Barren Rocky	- 0.06632
9	Grass Land	- 0.11829
10	Crop land	- 0.40511
11	Forest Plantation	0.36778
12	Horticulture Plantation	- 0.06619
13	Active - Shallow - Convex - Undissected Slope	- 0.06619
14	Active - Moderate - Concave - Dissected Slope	0.02455
15	Active - Moderate - Concave - Undissected Slope	- 0.07151
16	Active - Moderate - Plain - Undissected Slope	- 0.00656
17	Active - Moderate - Convex - Dissected Slope	- 0.00447
18	Active - Moderate - Convex - Undissected Slope	- 0.07027
19	Active - Steep - Concave - Dissected Slope	0.03203
20	Active - Steep - Concave - Undissected Slope	0.07854
21	Active - Steep - Plain - Dissected Slope	0.02057
22	Active - Steep - Plain - Undissected Slope	- 0.07036
23	Active - Steep - Convex - Dissected Slope	0.05819
24	Active - Steep - Convex - Undissected Slope	0.19437
25	Passive - Shallow - Convex - Undissected Slope	- 0.0583
26	Passive - Moderate - Concave - Dissected Slope	0.03369
27	Passive - Moderate - Concave - Undissected Slope	- 0.20164
28	Passive - Moderate - Plain - Dissected Slope	- 0.16779
29	Passive - Moderate - Plain - Undissected Slope	0.33346
30	Passive - Moderate - Convex - Dissected Slope	0.00263
31	Passive - Moderate - Convex - Undissected Slope	- 0.05065
32	Passive - Steep - Concave - Dissected Slope	- 0.15100
33	Passive - Steep - Concave - Undissected Slope	- 0.12870
34	Passive - Steep - Plain - Dissected Slope	0.07375
35	Passive - Steep - Plain - Undissected Slope	0.59645
36	Passive - Steep - Convex - Dissected Slope	0.08799
37	Passive - Steep - Convex - Undissected Slope	0.36844

FACTOR VARIMAX SCORES - 1975

SAMPLING POINT	FACTOR SCORES
1	- 0.02093
2	3.75018
3	0.25734
4	0.75284
5	0.44107
6	0.36415
7	0.13452
8	0.09884
9	- 0.67901
10	- 0.28403
11	- 0.63061
12	- 0.30003
13	- 1.86996
14	- 0.42330
15	1.47102
16	0.96976
17	1.01783
18	1.17460
19	- 0.21784
20	- 0.06637
21	0.59002
22	- 0.93123
23	- 0.89316
24	- 0.89051
25	- 0.77709
26	0.91298
27	- 0.57220
28	- 0.16735
29	0.02585
30	- 0.47750
31	- 0.79518
32	- 0.45904

Runoff modification 1975

- **Runoff (0.71996)**
- **Open forest (0.77823),
Passive- Steep-Concave
undissected slope (0.59645)**
- **Factor Scores buffered out**



Runoff modification 1985

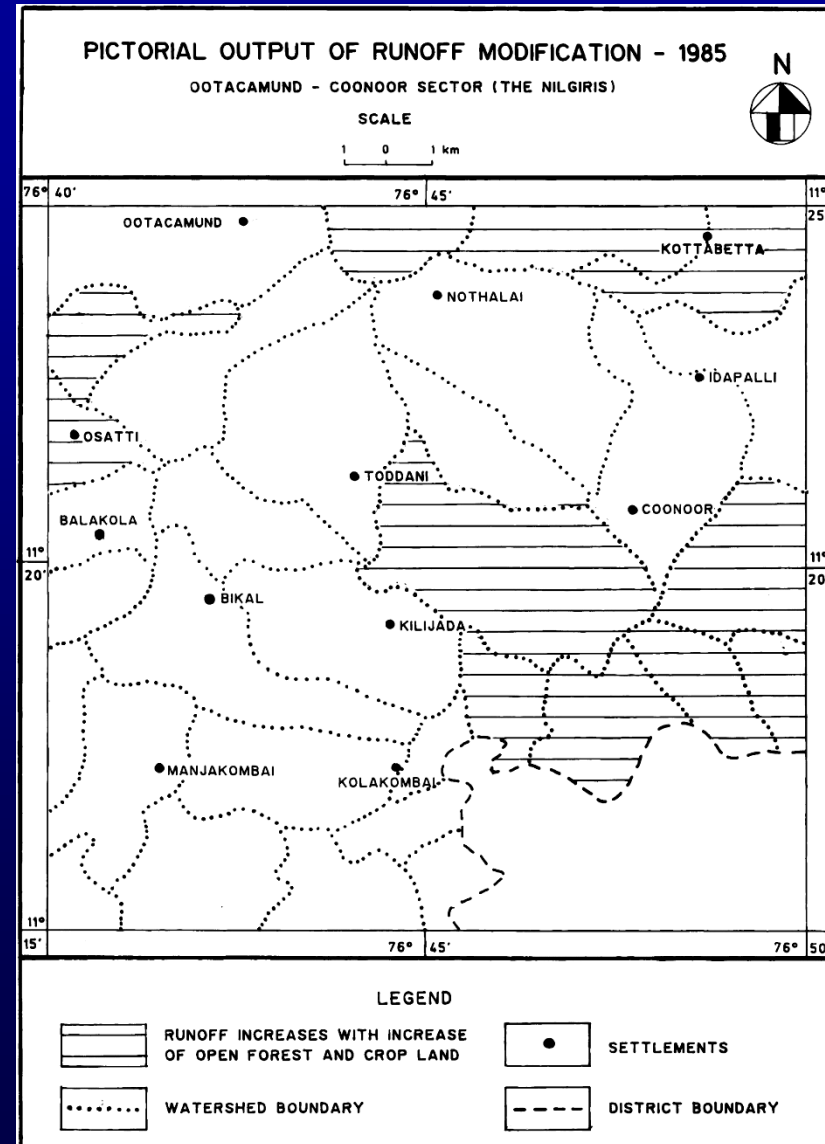
→ Runoff (0.7599)

→ Open forest (0.86103)

→ Crop land (0.34601)

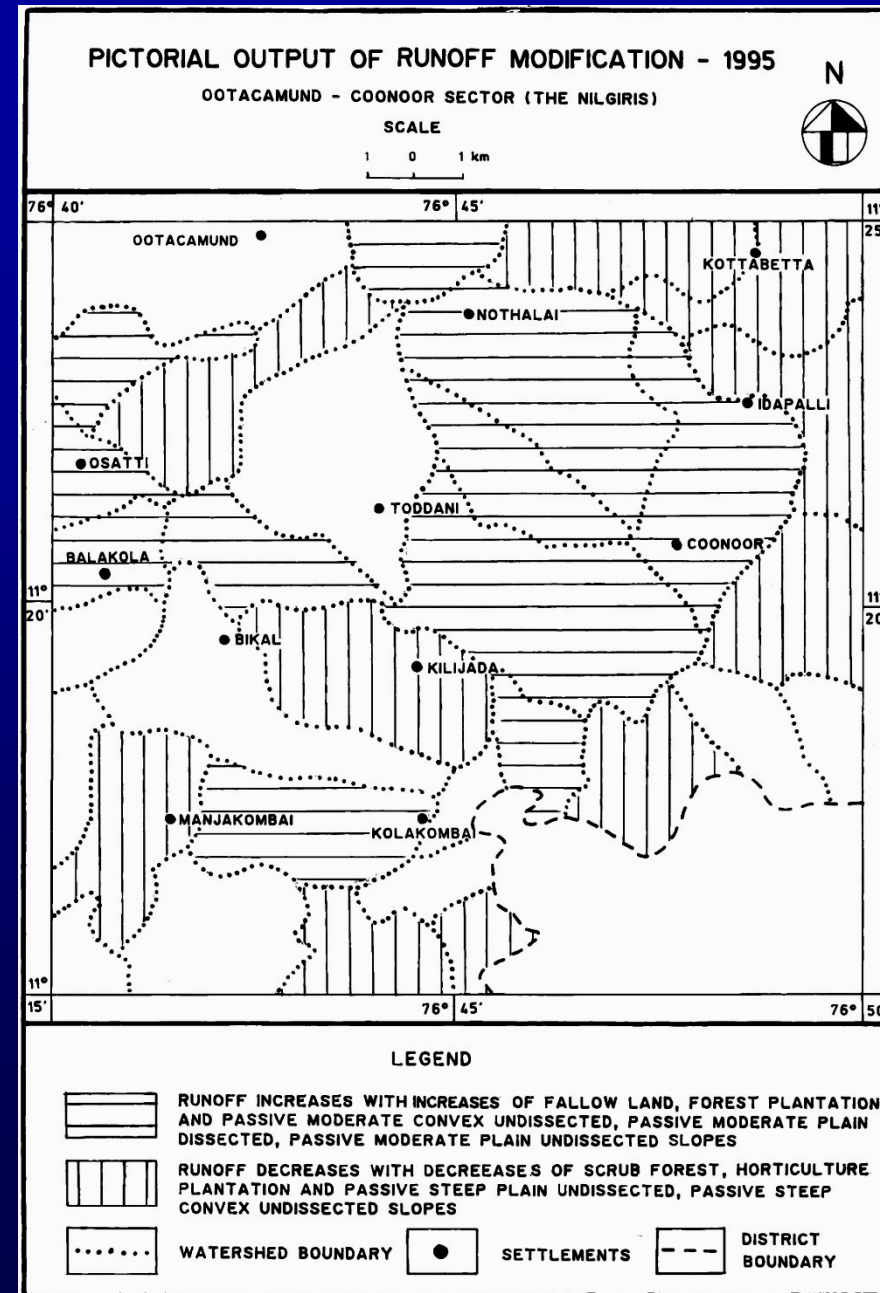
→ Factor Scores buffered out

→ downward reservoirs
warrants more water by increasing
aerial extent of the above



Runoff modification 1995

- ➔ Runoff (-0.48195)
- ➔ Scrub land (-0.70889), Passive- Steep- Plain undissected slope (-0.65824)
Passive- Steep- Convex undissected slope (-0.84097)
- ➔ Runoff – (0.37196)
- ➔ Fallow land (0.52341), forest plantation (0.4743) Passive- Moderate - Plain undissected slope (0.68924) Passive Moderate - Convex undissected slope (0.46571)

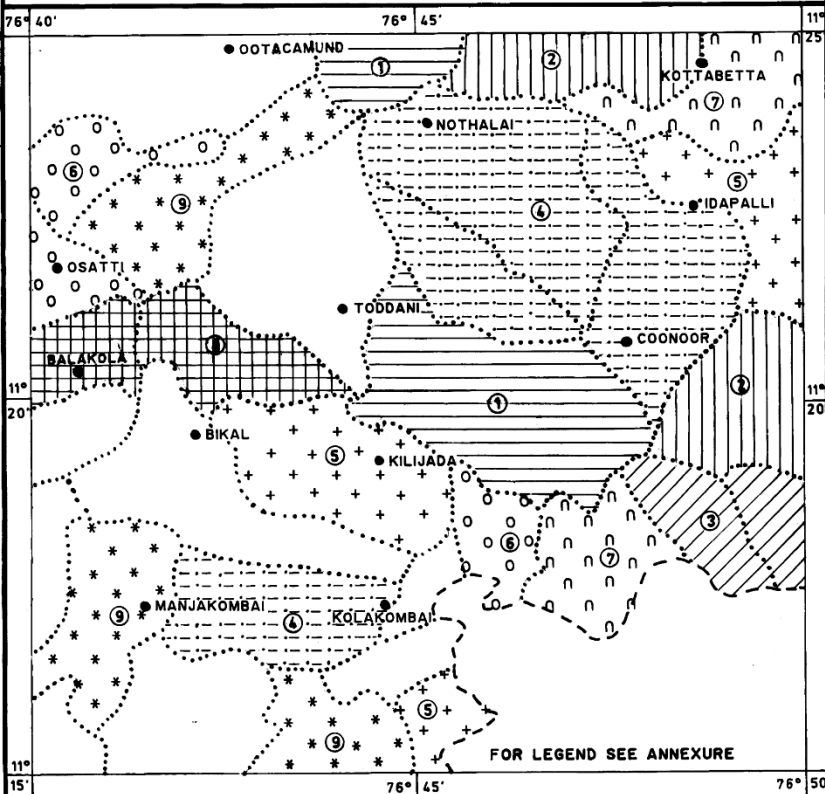


FACTOR CONTROLLED RUNOFF - FLOODING DOMAINS

OOTACAMUND - COONNOOR SECTOR (THE NILGIRIS)

SCALE

1 0 1 km



FOR LEGEND SEE ANNEXURE

LEGEND

..... WATERSHED BOUNDARY

--- DISTRICT BOUNDARY

● SETTLEMENTS

Runoff increases with increase of Open forest, Crop land, Fallow land, Forest plantation, Passive moderate plain dissected, Passive moderate plain undissected, Passive moderate convex undissected and Passive steep concave undissected slopes.

Runoff increases with increase of Open forest, Crop land, Passive steep concave undissected slope areas and Runoff Decreases with decrease of Scrub land, Horticulture plantation, Passive steep plain dissected and Passive steep convex undissected slope areas.

Runoff increases with increase of Open forest, Crop land and Passive steep concave undissected slope areas.

Runoff increases with increase of Open forest, Fallow land, Forest plantation and Passive moderate concave undissected, Passive moderate plain dissected and Passive moderate plain undissected slope areas.

Runoff increases with increase of Open forest, Passive steep concave undissected slope areas and Runoff decreases with decrease of scrub land, Horticulture plantation, Passive steep concave undissected and Passive steep plain undissected slope areas.

Runoff increases with increase of Open forest, Crop land, Fallow land, Forest plantation and Passive moderate plain dissected, Passive moderate plain undissected and Passive moderate convex undissected slope areas.

Runoff increases with increase of Open forest and Crop land and Runoff decreases with decrease of Scrub land, Horticulture plantation, Passive steep concave undissected and Passive steep plain undissected slope areas.

Runoff increases with increase of Fallow land, Forest plantation, Passive moderate concave undissected, Passive moderate plain dissected and Passive moderate plain undissected slope areas.

Runoff decreases with decrease of Scrub land, Horticulture plantation and Passive steep plain undissected, Passive steep convex slope areas.

Runnoff can be reduced by massive afforestation of certain landuse / land cover in particular watersheds

Slopes can be modified by gully plugging, check damming, gully filled vegetation etc

CONCLUSION

- ◎ **FLOODS CAN BE REGULATED BY
CHANGING THE LAND USE PATTERN**

Flash floods washed away seven people, including three children, and displaced about 5,200 people living in 2,000 houses along the banks of Noyyal river on Sunday night.

The floods were the worst of the past two decades in Tirupur, with the one that took place 17 years ago not causing much damage to lives and property in the 12 rain-affected areas of Tirupur.

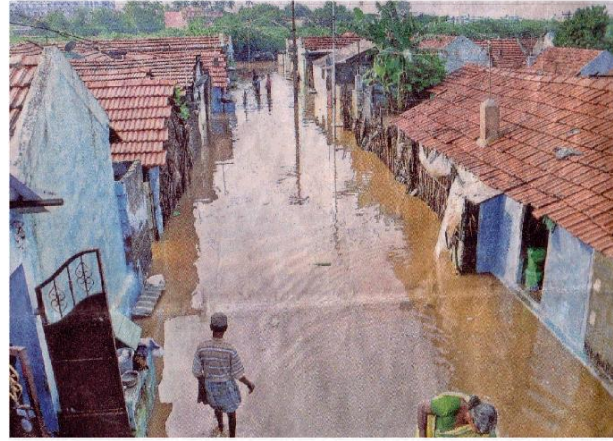
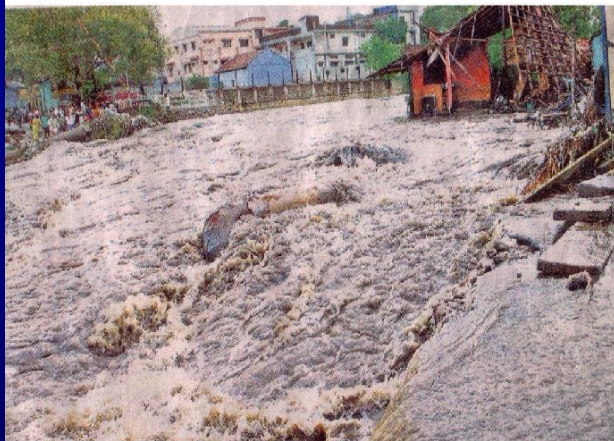
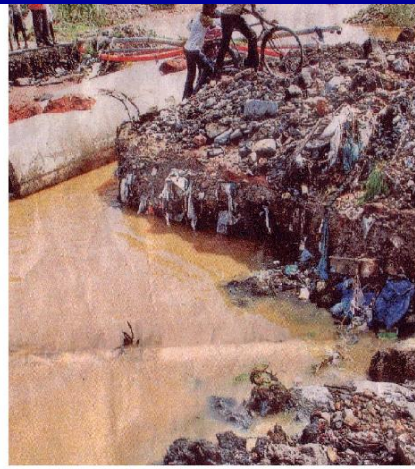
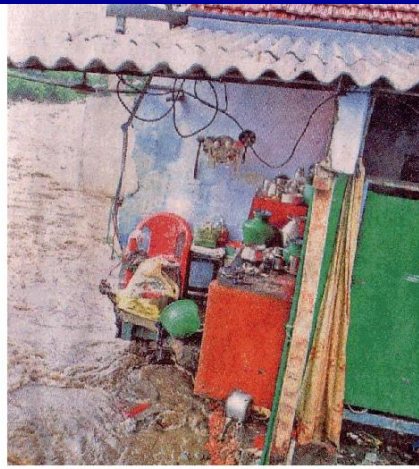
The worst affected areas include Muthaiah Nagar, Poompuhar Nagar, Sangilipallam, KDR Nagar, Pushpa Nagar, Sathya Nagar, Periyathottam and Sugumar Nagar.

The floods took place after midnight, when most people were fast asleep, following the torrential rain that lashed the city since 10 pm on Sunday, police officers said.

The roaring sound of surging waters alerted the people but people in Sugumar Nagar and Sangilipallam could not move out of the area as water quickly swamped the area.

“The waters came surging like a tsunami and the force prevented us from venturing out. We stayed indoors and perched atop houses to save ourselves,” said 45-year-old Devi, a resident of Sugumar Nagar, who along with her daughter, son-in-law and children were sitting on a rooftop.

Her neighbour, Ramjan, who was six-months pregnant, was also carried to the rooftop by her husband Sheik Dawood.



Tirupur Flash Flood

6th Nov 2011 Sunday
Water Cloggin-
Tirupur



The flooded Noyyal river in Tirupur which claimed 7 lives and displaced about 5,200 people living along its banks on Sunday night. – DC