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EAST AVERT Project

TECHNICAL REPORT

COMMON METHODOLOGY FOR PRFA AND HAZARD AND RISK MAPPING

TECHNICAL REPORT

Part 1 - COMMON GIIS SOFTWARE APPLIICATIION – GEODATABASE

Part 2 - COMMON COMPREHENSIIVE GEO-DATABASE USIING A COMMON GIIS SOFTWARE APPLICATION

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PART 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Effective flood prevention and mitigation of transnational rivers requires cooperation between Romania, Ukraine and Republic of Moldova. Harmonization of spatial information is needed in Prut and Siret basins and the rivers must be conceived like a system which does not respect any border.

The objective is to create a common database necessary for mapping historical floods, for production of hazard and risk maps and for configuration of Dispatch and Cartographical applications. Thus, geodatabase structure was developed in order to be used for all mentioned project activities (Fig. 1.1).

Fig. 1.1. - **Inputs and outputs of project activities in the geodatabase**

Spatial data harmonization is not only needed regarding the three nations, but also regarding different user groups who have both different expectations and uses from map content.

Data are the heart of flood forecasting and water modeling process. Inconsistencies or quality deficits may lead to bad results.

Database design is the process of producing a detailed [data model](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data_model) of a [database.](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Database) The geodatabase combines "geo" (spatial data) with "database" (data repository) to create a central data repository for spatial data storage and management.

The geodatabase offers the ability to:

- store a rich collection of spatial data in a centralized location;
- apply rules and relationships to the data;
- define geospatial relational models (e.g., topologies);
- work within a multiuser access and editing environment;
- integrate spatial data with other IT databases;
- create custom features and behaviour.

The geodatabase supports different elements of GIS data, such as:

- geographic features;
- attribute data;
- satellite and aerial images (raster data);
- surface modeling or 3D data;
- GPS coordinates;
- survey measurements.

Establish the necessary geospatial data has to take into consideration conditional spatial variability of hydrological parameters determined by a series of climatic factors (precipitation, evaporation, snow cover, air temperature etc.) or non-climatic factors (geology, topography, soils, vegetation, human activities etc.).

Systematization of physical-geographical layers within a geodatabase, analysis and processing in a GIS environment, including spatial statistics, are meant to identify new causal relations and provide inputs for hydrological or hydraulic models. Also, historical information contained in the geodatabase has to be supported by a digital cartographic content (digital elevation model, hydrographic network, land use, catchments, meteorological and hydrometric gauging stations etc.).

In the past 20 years several studies have been conducted to incorporate processing and analysis of spatial data in hydrological modeling of river basins. These studies have different purposes and can be generally grouped into four categories (Melesse et al, 2003):

- 1. calculate the input parameters for hydrological models;
- 2. mapping hydrological variables;
- 3. representation of catchment area;
- 4. identification of hydrological response units.

Maidment (1993) identified different contributions of GIS in hydrology:

- analyse and hydrological assessment;
- **•** estimation of hydrological parameters;
- coupling scattered spatial data and hydrological models;
- integration of GIS analysis and hydrological models into independent applications (HEC-RAS, HEC-HMS, MIKE, FLDVIEW etc.)

A scheme in which sparse systems are coupled is proposed by National Institute of Hydrology and Water Management (Stanciu et al, 2009) and is presented in the figure 1.2. This hydrologic system approach resides in a package of applications that are coupled through automatic or semi-automatic procedures, exchange of data between different components being aimed to analyse flood-prone areas. The scheme highlights the place GIS and spatial data occupy in this approach.

Fig. 1.2.- **Inputs in GIS-base model to analyse flood-prone areas**

Based on this scheme a geodatabase structure can be developed that satisfies both the requirements of spatial analysis of the hydrologic system components and of hydrological modeling. The main data sources to be included in a geodatabase are topographic and bathymetric measurements, different plans and georeferenced scanned maps, satellite images and orthophotos etc.

2. SPATIAL DATA HARMONIZATION

Before creating the geodatabase a table must be filled by all partners in order to know what data is already available, what data will be produced and some other usefull information. In table 2.1 are presented column headers that need to be filled for each layer or table that will be included in the geodatabase.

Table 2.1 - **Column headers to be filled for each layer, table or flood management plan**

In table 2.2 are presented the layers and tables that the geodatabase will contain and also the flood management plans accompanied by a brief description. The layers are divided into 4 main categories: historical floods, digital elevation models and orthophotos, general layers and layers for flood risk assessment. Layers used for flood risk assessment are split into 5 datasets: economic activities, socio-economic objectives, infrastructure, cultural assets and environment and pollutants.

Each vector layer will have an attribute table where different information will be completed. The fields to be completed are not final for vector layers. In table 2.3 are some examples for each vector type: point, line and polygon.

Table 2.3 – **Column headers of 3 attribute table for all types of vector layers**

| LAYER | Layer TYPE | Field name | Field type | Field description | |
|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--|
| Historical Floods | polygon | ID HF | Text | Historical flood event code (it will include ISO code of the country, cadastral code/other code, year and month when the flood occured, eg. RO_12.01_2008.07) | |
| | | R Name | Text | River name where the flood occured | |
| | | c river | Double | Length of the river sector affected (km) | |

3. COMPOUND COORDINATE REFERENCE SYSTEM

Compound coordinate reference system means a coordinate reference system using two other independent coordinate reference systems, one for the horizontal component and one for the vertical component, to describe a position, in accordance with EN ISO 19111.

3.1. HORIZONTAL COORDINATE SYSTEM

For this project a geodatabase for Prut and Siret basins was designed. The geodatabase that was created contains multiple layers in ESRI file Geodatabase in UTM 35 projection in the ETRS89 datum.

For the common area of Romania, Ukraine and Republic of Moldova 3 horizontal coordinate systems can be used: 2 at the European level and 1 at the local level (Fig. 3.1). The proposed system is UTM 35 zone on GCS ETRS_1989.

Fig. 3.1 - **Different coordinate systems suitable to be used in the project area**

The **Universal Transverse Mercator** (**UTM**) is a [conformal projection](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Map_projection#Projections_by_preservation_of_a_metric_property) which uses a [2](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2-dimensional) [dimensional](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2-dimensional) [Cartesian coordinate system](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cartesian_coordinate_system) to give locations on the surface of the [Earth.](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Earth) It is a [horizontal position representation](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Horizontal_position_representation) and is used to identify locations on the Earth independently of [vertical position.](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Altitude)

The UTM system divides the Earth between 80°S and 84°N latitude into 60 zones, each 6 of longitude in width and uses a [secant](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Secant_line) [transverse Mercator projection](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transverse_Mercator_projection) in each zone. Zone 1 covers longitude 180° to 174° W; zone numbering increases eastward to zone 60 that covers longitude 174 to 180 east.

The zones are then further subdivided into an eastern and western half by drawing a line, representing a transverse Mercator projection, down the middle of the zone. This line is known as the 'central meridian' and is the only line within the zone that can be drawn between the poles and be perpendicular to the equator (in other words, it is the new 'equator' for the projection and suffers the least amount of distortion). For this reason, vertical grid lines in the UTM system are oriented parallel to the central meridian. The central meridian is also used in setting up the origin for the grid system.

Universal Transverse Mercator projection exist both in spherical and ellipsoidal version.

The ETRS89 is a geodetic Cartesian reference frame, in which the Eurasian Plate as a whole is static. The development of ETRS89 is related to the global ITRS geodetic datum, in which the representation of the continental drift is balanced in such a way that the total apparent angular momentum of continental plates is about 0.

The ETRS89 reference system was adopted in 2003 by the European Commission and is recommended to be used by the EuroGeographics – the organization that unifies all the cadaster agencies across Europe. All European countries adopted the ETRS89 reference system and provide tools for transformations between ETRS89 and the national systems.

3.2. VERTICAL COORDINATE SYSTEM

Vertical datum is determined by the mean sea level, which is estimated at one or more tide gauge stations. The tide gauge stations of the national European height systems in Europe are located at Atlantic Ocean and different seas: Baltic Sea, North Sea, Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea. The differences between these sea levels can come up to several decimetres. They are caused by the various separations between the ocean surface and the geoid.

In Europe three different kinds of heights (normal heights, orthometric heights and normal-orthometric heights) are used. Examples for the use of orthometric heights are Belgium, Denmark, Italy and Switzerland. Today normal heights are used in France, Germany, Scandinavia and in most countries of Eastern Europe. In Austria and in countries of the former Yugoslavia normal-orthometric heights are used (Fig. 3.2).

Fig. 3.2 - **Kind of heights of national height systems in Europe**

The European Vertical Reference System (EVRS) is a kinematical height reference system. The EVRS definitions fulfil the following four conventions:

1. The vertical datum is defined as the equipotential surface for which the Earth gravity field potential is constant:

 $W_0 = W_{0E} = const.$

and which is in the level of the Normaal Amsterdams Peil (NAP).

- 2. The unit of length of the EVRS is the meter (SI). The unit of time is second (SI). This scale is consistent with the TCG time coordinate for a geocentric local frame, in agreement with International Astronomical Union (IAU) and International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics (IUGG) resolutions (1991). This is obtained by appropriate relativistic modelling.
- 3. The height components are the differences between the potential ΔW_P of the Earth gravity field through the considered points P , and the potential W_P of the EVRS conventional zero level. The potential difference $-\Delta W_P$ is also designated as the geopotential number c_P

 $-\Delta W_P = C_P = W_{0E} - W_P$

Normal heights are equivalent with geopotential numbers, provided that the reference gravity field is specified.

4. The EVRS is a zero tidal system, in agreement with the IAG Resolutions No. 9 and 16 adopted in Hamburg in 1983.

The European Vertical Reference Frame (EVRF2007) is defined in terms of geopotential. It is realized using geopotential numbers determined by levelling, or alternatively a geopotential model and 3-dimensional coordinates. None of these quantities depend on ellipsoidal reference, and therefore a reference ellipsoid is not part of the EVRS definitions. However, to convert the geopotential numbers to normal heights, a normal gravity field and geodetic latitude is required. The GRS80 normal gravity field is adopted for the purpose, evaluated at ETRS89 coordinates.

The objectives of EVRF2007 are:

- to fulfil the EU requirements for seamless, harmonised vertical data;
- to prepare recommendations to the European Commission for a future adoption of a common European Vertical Reference System to be proposed in the INSPIRE (Infrastructure for Spatial Information in Europe) Directive;
- to provide European users and producers of height information with a vertical reference system, which is based on up-to-date datasets and on advanced conventions for EVRS definition and realization.

Romania altimetry network, the Black Sea 1975 system, is a normal heights system with zero fundamental Constanta Military Chapel, representing annual average sea level.

Routes developed from this mark are found along the passageways, especially railways. These are combined in different orders networks, evidenced by good leveling marks embedded in solid supports.

A standard transformation parameters were computed by EVRF Computing Centre from Federal Agency for Cartography and Geodesy (BKG, Germany). These set of parameters realize the transformation of normal heights from Black Sea 1975 System to EVRF2007 (RO_CONST / NH to EVRF2007).

Transformation parameters were derived from 48 identical points (UELN nodal points) with a transformation RMS of 0.004 m, and residual deviation between -0.012 m and +0.013 m.

A general view of the EVRF2007 realization in comparison with national height reference systems can be seen on the fig. 3.3.

In 2009, NACLR finalized the coordinates transformation including a distorsion model from ETRS89 system to S42 (Krasovski ellipsoid) – Stereographic 1970 projection system and provided TransDatRo software and algorithm for the users.

Currently transformation of normal heights from Black Sea 1975 System to EVRF2007 are completed.

For Republic of Moldova and Ukraine, the Baltic Sea 1977 system altimetry network is a normal heights system with zero fundamental at Kronstadt.

Fig. 3.3 - **Mean differences between EVRF2007 and national height reference systems**

4. ADVANTAGES OF A GEODATABASE

In EastAvert project one ArcGIS Basic Single Use License with Spatial Analyst extension were bought and a number of 5 peoples were specialized with the goal to create *"Atlas – Flood Hazard and Risk Maps",* other internal applications and to increase institutional capacity. The courses which were held during the project were:

- Introduction to GIS;
- Editing Data with ArcGIS for Desktop;
- Essential Workflows:
- ArcGIS Online Subscriptions for Organizations: Publisher Workflows;
- Advanced Analyze in ArcGIS in hydrology domain;

We bought ArcGIS because we have previous knowledge regarding this software and because it gives us advanced editing tools and feature behavior in geodatabases (topologies) that allows us to create and maintain high-quality geographic data.

GIS specialists use geodatabase for many reasons. In our case we use a file geodatabase for single or small groups whether we are working with large or small datasets. Whether we are working on a single-use project or a project involving a small group with one or several editors, we considered using a file geodatabase rather than a personal geodatabase or a collection of shapefiles which both have a size limit of 2 GB, relative to 1 TB for feature class only. File geodatabases offers structural, performance and data management advantages compared to the other two formats.

One of the structural advantage of the file geodatabase is the fact that is stored as a system folder that contains binary files that store and manage geospatial data. It is available at all ArcGIS license levels and functions in the same fashion on Windows and UNIX operating systems. This storage system is based on relational principles and provides a simple, formal data model for storing and working with information in tables. The file geodatabase contains this files when seen in a browser: geographic data, attribute data, index files, lock files, signature files, and other files. Each feature class or table in the geodatabase is stored in two or more files.

Other structural advantage of the file geodatabase is the optimized performance. The data structure of a file geodatabase is optimized for performance and storage. Although individual feature classes can be as large as 1 terabyte (TB) in size and contain hundreds of millions of features, they still provide fast performance. File geodatabases significantly outperform shapefiles for operations involving attributes and allow scaling of dataset size limits way beyond those of shapefiles.

The most important structural advantage of file geodatabase is the fact that the size is limited only by available disk space. By default, individual tables and feature classes can be up to 1 TB. With the use of configuration keywords, this can be expanded to 256 TB.

Regarding the performance advantages there are a few that the file geodatabase is offering. Easy data migration between file geodatabases and personal geodatabases is one of them, because both are designed to be edited by a single user and do not support geodatabase versioning (only enterprise geodatabase permits versioning).

Also, file geodatabases do not lock down the whole geodatabase if a user is editing a feature class, which indicates improved editing model. An edit model similar to that used for shapefiles is deployed. This model supports a single data editor and many data viewers concurrently. Stand-alone feature classes, tables, and feature dataset contents can be edited by different editors simultaneously without the entire geodatabase being locked. If a feature class in a feature dataset is being edited, all feature classes in that feature dataset are unavailable for editing, but features may still be viewed and selected in ArcMap.

Other performance advantage is the raster storage in a file geodatabase which is a shared functionality from both the ArcSDE geodatabase and the personal geodatabase.

Managed raster data is stored in the same way as in an ArcSDE geodatabase, and unmanaged raster data is stored in the same way as in a personal geodatabase. Managed raster data is subdivided into small, manageable areas called tiles, stored as binary large objects (BLOBs) in the database. The tiling is automatic and invisible to end users. These tiles are indexed and pyramided for fast display performance. Pyramiding allows the geodatabase to fetch only data at the specified resolution or level required for display. Unmanaged rasters are maintained by users. Only the path to the location on the disk where the raster dataset is stored is maintained in the file geodatabase.

Regarding the data management advantage customizable storage configuration is one of them. When creating a dataset, applying optional configuration keywords to customize data storage is often used to improve storage efficiency and performance. In most cases, the defaults keyword is used and if the dataset exceeds 1 TB or is less than 4 GB the keywords must be changed.

File geodatabase allows updates to spatial index settings using simple data loader or append tool. Spatial indexes are used by ArcGIS to quickly locate features when you display, edit, or query data. An appropriate spatial index is important, especially when you are working with large datasets. While the spatial index of a personal geodatabase feature class uses a single grid size that cannot be modified, the spatial index of a file geodatabase feature class uses as many as three grid sizes, which can be modified. Additional grids allow feature classes with features of very different sizes to be queried more quickly. ArcGIS automatically rebuilds the spatial index at the end of some update operations to ensure the index and its grid sizes are optimal.

La last data management advantage is data compression. Vector data can be stored in a file geodatabase in a compressed, read-only format that reduces storage requirements. Compression reduces the geodatabase's overall footprint on disk without reducing the performance. Once compressed, display and query performance are comparable to uncompressed data. Compressed data is in a direct-access format, so there is no need to uncompress the data because ArcGIS can read it directly. Compression is ideally suited to mature datasets that do not require further editing. However, if required, a compressed

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dataset can always be uncompressed and returned to its original, read/write format. The compression method applied is lossless, so no information is lost. One of the most important factors affecting spatial data compression is the average number of vertices per feature. As a general rule, the fewer vertices/features, the greater the compression.

PART 2

5. STATE OF THE ART OF OTHER MAPPING PROJECTS

5.1.ELBE-ATLAS, ELLA - PROJECT

The Elbe atlas provides an overview of the flooding hazard in the catchment area of the River Elbe (scale 1:100,000). The Elbe atlas shows the areas endangered by flooding with a recurrence period of 100 years as well as a very extreme event. In order to illustrate the hazard level in particular behind the dykes as well, the situation is examined without taking the effects of the existing flood protection installations into account. The framework for action is to be defined through a cartographical presentation of the areas with the currently existing damage potential (damage risk maps) and the flooding areas (flood information maps). The necessary steps for flood prevention can thus be initiated by the responsible political and administrative bodies. For those who are affected in the immediate vicinity, the atlas serves as a reference work and basis for their own prevention measures and precautions.

The maps were produced within the INTERREG III B CADSES project ELLA and supported by funds of the German Federal Ministry of Transport, Building and Urban Affairs. The atlas is available at this link<https://www.umwelt.sachsen.de/umwelt/wasser/2565.htm>

Fig. 5.1 - **Risk map from the Elbe Atlas**

The geodatabase for this project includes for flood hazard maps:

- areas potentially inundated by 100 year flood;
- areas potentially inundated by extreme floods;
- main levee (designed for 100 year flood);
- minor levee (designed for floods < 100 year).

For risk maps the possible affected land was divided in 4 land use classes: residential areas, agricultural and forestry areas, industrial and transportation areas and other areas.

Population exposed to extreme flooding was represented graphically in 3 classes as in the figure above: below 99 potentially affected inhabitants, between 100 – 999 and over 1000 (Fig. 5.1).

Other points of interest exposed to extreme flooding were considered industrial plant with damage potential, sewage treatment plant and natura 2000 habitat.

5.2.DANUBE ATLAS HAZARD AND RISK MAPS, DANUBE FLOODRISK PROJECT

During the past century flood protection along the Danube River has been generally conducted by constructing dykes, leading to a feeling of safety and, therefore, a decrease of flood awareness. The floods in 2002 in the upper reach of the Danube catchment as well as in 2006 and 2010 in the lower reach of the catchment have again highlighted the limits of implemented protection measures since overtopping or dyke failure occurred, highlighting that residual flood risk always remains despite all efforts (Fig. 5.2). The Danube Atlas represents areas exposed to flood hazard and the associated damage potentials and flood risk. Even though the terrain data are available at high resolution for almost all national river sectors (LiDAR data) and land survey information is at hand for cross sections, the atlas is printed in a scale of 1: 100 000.

Fig. 5.2 – **Cover page of Danube Atlas Hazard and Risk Maps**

The geodatabase for this project includes for flood hazard maps:

- water depth at HQ1000;
- flood extent for HQ1000 without depth information;
- flood extent for HQ100;
- dykes;
- rivers and lakes;
- woodland and parks;
- settlements;

For risk maps the possible affected land was divided in 4 land use classes with minimum 2 subclasses each according to value: residential/settlement, agricultural/forestry, industrial and other.

Population exposed to HQ1000 flooding was represented graphically in 4 classes: below 10 000 potentially affected inhabitants, between 10 000 – 50 000, between 50 000-100 000 and over 100 000.

Also major road, street, railway were considered and many points of interest as industrial site, wastewater, main train station, hospital, cultural heritage, airport etc.

6. DATABASE ACCORDING TO THE FLOODS DIRECTIVE

In order to satisfy Floods Directive requirements, collected data and information have to allow the identification of floods that occurred in the past and that have significant negative effects on human health, environment, cultural heritage and economic activity. To achieve this purpose, a relational database containing information from various documentary sources has to be created.

The reporting schemes, description of the codes and the attributes used, including data type, description of the relationships between the various elements, were developed at EU level and were the subject of Reference books for reporting within Directive. (*Maidens and Wolstrup, 2011; Atkins Danmark, 2011*).

The structure of this database was imposed by the technical specifications adopted according to the Floods Directive. The section for significant historical floods includes attribute regarding general information, source, mechanism, characteristics and consequences of flooding (Table 6.1).

| Flood attribute | Code | Type/Sub-type | Description | | | |
|---------------------------------------------|------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | | Basin name | Name of the river basin | | | |
| | | Flood location code | Unique code for the flood location - up to 40 characters in total. | | | |
| | | Flood location name | Name of the locality, river basin, sub-basin and/or coastal area or other area associated with the flood | | | |
| | | Flood event code | Unique code for the flood event - up to 40 characters in total. | | | |
| | | Name of flood event | Relevant name of flood event; it will include the name of river, month and year | | | |
| | | Event onset date | Date of commencement of the flood | | | |
| | | Duration of the event | Time interval between the beginning and the end of the direct runoff | | | |
| | | Flood extent (kmp) | Extent of land inundated. Indicate the total area in km | | | |
| General information about historical floods | | Length of the affected river sector (km) | Inundated length of river stretches in km | | | |
| | | Frequency | The statistical prediction of years between certain flood magnitude events | | | |
| Source of flooding | | A11 Fluvial | Flooding of land by waters originating from part of a natural drainage system, including natural or modified drainage channels. This source could include flooding from rivers, streams, drainage channels, mountain torrents and ephemeral watercourses, lakes and floods arising from snow melt. | | | |
| | | A12 Pluvial | Flooding of land directly from rainfall water falling on, or flowing over, the land. This source could include urban storm water, rural overland flow or excess water, or overland floods arising from snowmelt. | | | |
| | A13 | Groundwater | Flooding of land by waters from underground rising to above the land surface. This source could include rising groundwater and underground flow from elevated surface waters | | | |
| | | A14 Sea water | Flooding of land by water from the sea, estuaries or coastal lakes. This | | | |

Table 6.1 - **The attributes required by Flood Directive database and floods reporting schema**

Areas with significant potential flood risk are mapped based on the available information about historical floods. For these areas, another database with similar attributes with the first was created at the European level.

European level database within 2007/60/EC Directive has a relatively high degree of complexity, requiring the allocation of a significant range to populate it (Fig. 6.1).

Fig. 6.1. - **Linking tabular information specific to Preliminary Flood Risk Assessment**

7. EASTAVERT GEODATABASE

EastAvert project is an important contribution to the implementation to the EU policy - Flood Directive and INSPIRE Directive. The results of Flood Directive are disseminated to the public at the address below but Prut River hazard and risk maps were not ready at that time (Fig. 7.1).

Fig. 7.1 - **Romanian Hazard and Risk Maps<http://gis2.rowater.ro:8989/flood/>**

Earth's increasingly complex environmental challenges demand increasingly sophisticated solutions. Geographic information system (GIS) technology is one solution to humanity's need to better manage, protect and preserve our environment.

GIS helps the public learn about the restoration efforts and promotes data sharing among those working on the restoration. "There is no doubt that visual information is always easier to interpret than text or numbers. […] This can help the public to understand without specialized knowledge. Therefore, we can show the current situations and problematic points intuitively by using maps as part of the public education." *Masami Kaneko*

GIS has the merit of presenting an overall picture efficiently, it has chosen as a tool to aggregate scientific data systematically related to floods.

Siret is one of the major rivers of Romania, both by discharge (250mc/s) and by area (largest river basin in the country - 42890 kmp inside Romania, 44811 kmp totally). Main tributaries of the Siret river, also with the highest discharges are on the right side of it

(Suceava, Moldova, Bistrita, Neagra, Bistricioara, Bicaz, Tarcau, Cracau, Trotus, Slanic, Oituz, Casin, Tazlau, Buzau), while the main tributary on the left side is Barlad, resulting an obvious asymmetry between the two sides of the main river.

Inside Prut river catchment, although Prut river lengh is considerable (742 km inside Romania), its tributaries are fewer with much lower discharges compared to Siret (Baseu and Jijia, with Sitna and Bahlui).

Fig. 7.2 - **Catchement areas of the Siret and Prut rivers**

GIS spatial data updating is necessary for mapping historical floods, for production of hazard and risk maps and configuration of Dispatch and Cartographical applications.

Thus, the starting point was the verification and correction of the existing layers inside geospatial data. First step in flood analysis is a better representation of the hydrological network in Prut and Siret catchment areas.

Verification and correction of the shapefile "rivers" was made considering topographic maps (1:25000), hydrological maps and satellite images.

After this step, it was necessary the delineation of the rivers catchments, using the same materials as above (for Romania). The rivers in Moldova and Ukraine and their catchments were determined based on a digital terrain model using an ArcGIS extension, named ArcHydro (Fig.7.3).

Fig.7.3 - **Hydrological network and catchment area using ArcHydro extension**

Fig. 7.4 - **Drainage network in the study area**

Next step was to determine the observations points, in the hydrometric gauging stations (HGS) on the main rivers (Prut and Siret) and closing HGS on the tributaries in Ukraine and Republic of Moldova, totaling 24 points – 16 in Ukraine and 8 in Republic of Moldova (Table 7.1). These were correlated with HGS in Romania, verified in earlier stage, resulting a final shape "HGS" with 49 records. Their position was updated according the latest data available (Fig. 7.6). Also, longitudinal profiles along the two main rivers were made (in the graphic below - Fig. 7.5 - there is an example for Prut river).

Table 7.1 - **Hydrometric gauging stations**

Fig. 7.5 - **Longitudinal profile along Prut river**

Fig. 7.6 - **HGS positions**

Further, drainage basins for the HGS on Prut and Siret rivers and also for their tibutaries in Ukraine were determined in the HGS sections, based on DTM and using ArcHydro extension, then they was correlated with drainage basins for Romanian HGS (Fig. 7.7).

Fig. 7.7 - **HGS positions (Romania and Ukraine)and their catchment areas**

Also, morphometric parameters (surface, medium elevation, slope) were determined for drainage basins in Ukraine, further they will be correlated with parameters from Romania and Republic of Moldova (Table 7.2).

| Nr | HGS | River | Surface (km ²) | Mean elevation (m) | Slope (1000) |
|-----------|--------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------|
| | Storozhynets | Siret | 695,44 | 579,43 | 142,12 |
| 2 | Yablunytsya | Bily Cheremosh | 554,46 | 1157,85 | 322,90 |
| 3 | Iltsi | Iltsya | 105,42 | 1033,09 | 304,27 |

Table 7.2 - **Morphometric parameters for drainage basins**

Next, a flood-prone area was created inside the study zone on the main rivers (Prut and Siret), by raising the ground level with 15 m. The resulting polygon was overlaid on "administrative territorial units" layer, this intersection highlighting the ATU who are potentially affected by floods (Fig. 7.8).

Damage evaluation was determined proportionally to the flooded area of each ATU and is approximate.

Fig. 7.8 - **Flood prone area and potentially affected ATU on Siret and Prut rivers**

Fig. 7.9 - **Flooded area in Roman city**

To achieve hazard and risk maps of the area of interest in the project, we needed a digital terrain model to give us a fair representation of the terrain.

Existing DTM for Prut Water Branch is divided into tiles of 500m x 500m with 0.5 m x 0.5 m cell, tiff format.

For the whole territory are approximately 81000 DTM tiles. For the study area, based on created flood prone area 15 m raising the ground level polygon were selected 13393 tiles. The tiles were stitched in a mosaic using the "Raster catalog" ArcToolbox module (Fig. 7.10).

Fig. 7.10 - **Making digital terrain model using ArcToolbox, "Raster catalog" module**

After checking the resulted DTM, we met the following types of errors: negative values in the model, areas where grid cells have no values assigned, called "nodata" zones (Fig. 7.11), wrong referenced tile (Fig. 7.12).

*Fig. 7.11 - G***rid cells have no values assigned ("nodata" areas)**

Fig. 7.12 - **Wrong referenced tile**

After DTM error correction, considering the size of the resulted digital terrain model, were derived two other terrain models with 2mx2m and 5mx5m cell respectively. The models were divided into 4 zones, so depending on the analysis or modeling the computing time will be minimized.

One of the first structure of database for EastAvert project had a structure which was thought to be completed by all three countries.

Here is the initial structure of the database (Fig. 7.13).

Fig. 7.13 – **Initial structure of geodatabase for EastAvert project**

The field's name of all feature classes were in English like in the example below and we created a kind of metadata for all files (Table 7.3). The attribute table was thought to be pretty complex for all files.

For hydrometric gauging stations (HGS) a structure of attributes has been established (Table 7.3). During the project, the information for stations of all 3 countries will be fill-up (at the moment only for Romania the information are completed).

Table 7.3 - **Structure of attributes for HGS**

8. PLANNING THE LAYOUT

The Atlas was published on A3 layout and we had to size each map element relative to its importance for the map purpose. Think about the logic of the position of each element relative to other elements was also a challenge like position of legend which covered the flood extent.

The Atlas was created using Data Driven Pages tool. Data Driven Pages allow to quickly and easily create a series of layout pages from a single map document. In this case we used 4 map documents with 2 different documents for portrait and landscape orientation.

Each orientation had 2 different documents which gave us the freedom to find the best position for the legend. In this case moving from left to right was enough (Fig. 8.1).

Fig. 8.1 – **Legend covering or not the flood band**

Data Driven Pages tool requires a feature layer, or index layer, which divides the map into sections based on each index feature in the layer and generates one page per index feature. We created a regular grid of 46 polygons of equal era using the fishnet tool. We kept only the polygons that intersected the 0.1% flood extent that we centered better afterwards. Each polygon was number starting upstream Prut river. This number was used as dynamic text in the legend and represented sheet name. Using dynamic text allows important information on the page layout to change dynamically as one goes from one page to another keeping the same frame.

A single layout defines the map composition for each data-driven page. Only dynamic parts of the layout change with each page. Static elements stay the same. Any changes made to static elements of the layout will be reflected on each page of the map series.

All dynamic elements used:

- Geographic extent of the map
- Map scale
- Scale bar
- Scale text (1:50 000)
- Dynamic text (page name, page number and 5 flags) Static elements used:
- Size and orientation of layout page
- Size and position of data frames
- Static text
- Neatline

A powerful tool commonly used with Data Driven Pages is the dynamic overview map created using Extent indicators. Extent indicators are a way to show the extent of one data frame within another data frame. They automatically update whenever the extent of an associated data frame (main map or locator map) changes. In our case the main map is the map showing the flood extent and the locator map is displayed in the legend and each index polygon is red outlined by default.

9. COMPLETING THE DATABASE

The final database for the Atlas has a different structure (Fig. 9.1).

Fig. 9.1 – **Final structure of the EastAvert geodatabase**

The basemap of the Atlas is a greyscale shaded relief image which has been created using a hillshade dataset derived from the reprojected ETRS-LAEA version of EU-DEM. EU-DEM is the digital elevation model over Europe, a realization of the Copernicus programme, managed by the European Commission. EU-DEM is a hybrid product based on SRTM and ASTER GDEM data fused by a weighted averaging approach and it has been generated as a contiguous dataset divided into 1 degree by 1 degree tiles, corresponding to the SRTM naming convention.

The spatial reference system is geographic, lat/lon with horizontal datum ETRS89, ellipsoid GRS80 and vertical datum EVRS2000 with geoid EGG08. These tiles have then been aggregated into 5°x5°.

The points of interest have almost the same structure for all the countries (Fig. 9.2).

Fig. 9.2 – **Points of interest for all countries**

The points of interest were selected from different data sources and only some of them can be potentially flooded (ones between the brackets) in case of floods with 1000 years return period (HQ0.1%).

| | RO | MD | UA |
|-------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Churches | 1206 | 47 | 535 (104) |
| Schools | 4004 (10) | 29 | 765 (92) |
| Hospitals | 1811(2) | 25 | 622 (58) |
| Train stations | 437 | 13(2) | 45(1) |
| Industrial sites | 157(4) | 24 | 101 (34) |
| Monuments | 130 | 12 | 19(3) |
| Museums | 91 | 4(1) | 74 (4) |
| Socio- | 1777(3) | 25 | 119 (24) |
| administrative | | | |
| objectives | | | |
| Airports | | | 1 |

Table 9.1 – **Points of interest selected and potentially affected**

10. SOURCE OF DATA

10.1 NAVTEQ

The printing rights for the area of interest was the acquisition made during the project because the standard license has been acquired for the first reporting of the Flood Directive. Navteq is an American Chicago-based provider of geographic information system (GIS) data founded in 1985 and a major provider of base electronic navigable maps.

NAVTEQ's comprehensive data build process ensured the highest quality data available for routing and mapping applications at the time of purchase. The Standard product includes the following layers:

- Major and Secondary Highways;
- Interstate and Secondary Highway Shields;
- Railroads;
- Zones contains zone information (where applicable), for navigable lines and polylines in the Streets layer;
- Administrative Area Boundaries;
- Country boundary;
- Islands;

• Waterway Polygons and Segments include Rivers, Water Channels, Lakes, and Bays/Harbours;

• Building/Landmarks;

Land Use Features which contains polygons that represent various land usage features found within a detailed coverage area. These include Airports, Cemeteries, Hospitals, Industrial Complexes, Military Bases, Parks, National Monuments, Public Use Areas, Shopping Centers, Sports Complexes, Undefined Traffic Areas, University/Colleges and Woodlands;

- Streets;
- Metadata;

• 16 Points of Interest (POIs) layers (Restaurants, Shopping, Parks and Recreation, Historical Monuments, Museums, Hospitals, Transportation Hubs, Financial Institutions, Business Facilities, Community Service Centers, Educational Institutions etc.).

From this data we selected the roads and some points of interest: cultural objectives (churches, museums, monuments), social objectives (schools, hospitals, police, city halls, airports), economic objectives (train station, factories) etc.

10.2 OPEN STREET MAP

The information covering Ukraine were not enough so had to supplement the data with Open Street Map Data. OpenStreetMap (OSM) was created in 2004, it was inspired by the success of Wikipedia and is considered a prominent example of volunteered geographic information. Thus, OSM is a [collaborative project](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Virtual_community) to create a [free](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Free_content) editable [map](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Map) of the world.

We downloaded the data for all three countries in shapefile format. Raw data after download had this structure in the picture below (Fig. 10.1).

Fig. 10.1 – **Open Street Map structure**

From this data we selected the roads and some points of interest: cultural objectives (churches, museums, monuments), social objectives (schools, hospitals, police, city halls, airports), economic objectives (train station, factories) etc. Unfortunately the roads have not aligned perfectly with the roads from the Navteq database and we had to eliminate the roads that intersected on a certain radius.

11. VALIDATION AND MOSAICING OF DATA

The first step in harmonizing the data was to mosaic depth raster data and reclassify in 3 water depth classes:

< 0.5 meters

- $0.5 1.5$ meters
- > 1.5 meters

Then raster data was transformed to vector data keeping the 3 classes and the edge of the polygons will conform to the input raster's cell edges (no simplify polygons). Because of this procedure the hazard flood bands became very big in size so we had to reduce the number of vertices. To do this we have chosen the steps below (Fig. 11.1).

Fig. 11.1 – **Smooth of 3 classes flood band**

For risk maps we used Corine Land Cover 2006 layer, but a modified version. We added 6 classes. This classes were added using different shapefiles (Built-up area and settlements extent, road and rail networks, natural lakes and reservoirs, watercourses, dump sites). We also added 3 new columns representing risk class corresponding to water depth (Tabel 11.1).

Corine Land Cover classes were ranked in 4 classes for each water depth class:

0 – insignificant residual risk

1 – low risk

2 – medium risk

3 – high risk

It was difficult to harmonize the land use for all three countries because Corine Land Cover exist only in Romania even newer versions and because this new classes were hard to add.

| | | New classes | Risk class corresponding to the water depth | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| CLC CODE | Existing CLC classes | | Low | Medium | High |
| | | | $0,5$ | $0, 5 - 1, 5$ | >1,5 |
| | | Agricultural and | | | |
| | Discontinuous | other land on | 0 | 1 | $\overline{2}$ |
| | urban fabric | the outskirts of | | | |
| 112A | | the village | | | |
| | Road and rail | Highways, | | | |
| | networks and | European and | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 122N | associated land | national roads | | | |
| 122J | | County roads | $\overline{2}$ | 3 | 3 |
| 122C | | Municipal roads | $\overline{2}$ | $\overline{2}$ | 3 |
| 122S | | Streets | $\overline{2}$ | 3 | 3 |
| 512P | Water bodies | Fish ponds | 0 | $\overline{2}$ | $\overline{2}$ |

Tabel 11.1 – **Corine Land Cover 2006 – 6 new classes**

The table above was modified and transformed in info format in order to use it in model builder and ArcGIS (Fig. 11.2).

Fig. 11.2 – **Risk model builder**

The first step of this model builder is to clip the Corine Land Cover after 3 class hazard band. Second step is the union of 3 class hazard band with the output of the first step (Corine Land Cover cut after hazard band). Third step is converting the output of the second step from multipart to single part. Fourth step is concatenating the Corine Land Cover Code with the 3 class water depth in the field COMB_ADLU. Fifth step was joining the output of the fourth step with this table using COMB_ADLU field and CODCOMB field. The last step is dissolving the output from the fifth step after CLS RISK field (Fig. 11.3).

Fig. 11.3 **– Risk map**

At the end for each settlement the population density was calculated (inhabitants per square meter). The hazard band was intersected with settlements polygons, containing information about population density, in order to get the potentially affected population (affected area x density).

For the extent to which the population is affected, it was taking in consideration both the potentially affected population and proportion of affected population of the total population of each settlement.

Before beginning the risk analysis the geospatial data was topologically corrected. In geodatabases, topology is the arrangement that defines how point, line, and polygon features share coincident geometry. The geodatabase includes a topological data model using an open storage format for simple features (feature classes of points, lines, and polygons), topology rules, and topologically integrated coordinates among features with shared geometry. The data model includes the ability to define the integrity rules and topological behavior of the feature classes that participate in a topology.

That means in particular, that vector layers must not intersect or overlap where it would logically make no sense, e.g.:

- Hazard and Risk layers must not have gaps or have overlaps;
- The outline of the 100-year-flood must not exceed the outline of the 1000-year-flood;
- Roads and railways from Navteq must not intersect with roads from OSM etc.

At the end the Atlas was exported in .pdf format. PDF is the only export format that supports multiple pages in a single document and we used it based on selected index features depending on the orientation of the document. Fortunately, the publisher has requested this format too.