

1 **Brief Communication: Inclusiveness in designing an early warning**
2 **system for flood resilience**

3 **Tahmina Yasmin¹, Kieran Khamis¹, Anthony Ross², Subir Sen³, Anita Sharma⁴, Debashish Sen⁴, Sumit**
4 **Sen³, Wouter Buytaert², David M. Hannah¹**

5 ¹School of Geography, Earth & Environmental Sciences, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK.

6 ²Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Imperial College London, London, UK

7 ³Centre of Excellence in Disaster Mitigation and Management, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, India.

8 ⁴People's Science Institute, Dehradun, India.

9
10 **Correspondence:** Tahmina Yasmin (t.yasmin@bham.ac.uk) and David M. Hannah (d.m.hannah@bham.ac.uk)

11
12 ~~Abstract. Floods remain a wicked problem and are becoming more destructive with widespread ecological,~~
13 ~~social and economic impacts. The problem is particularly acute in modified, formerly pristine, mountainous~~
14 ~~river catchments where plausible assumptions of risk behaviour relevant to flood exposure and vulnerability~~
15 ~~are crucial for robust early warning system development. In particular more focused conversation with the~~
16 ~~community at risks is required. In such context, we advocate the use of a SMART approach to facilitate~~
17 ~~bottom up initiatives to facilitate development of inclusive and purposeful early warning systems that benefit~~
18 ~~the community at risk by engaging them every step of the way along with including other stakeholders at~~
19 ~~multiple scales of operations.~~

20
21 **Abstract**

22
23 Floods remain a wicked-problem and are becoming more destructive with widespread ecological-social-and-
24 economic impacts. The problem is acute in mountainous-river-catchments where plausible-assumptions of risk-
25 behaviour to flood-exposure-and-vulnerability are crucial. Inclusive approaches -are required to design suitable
26 flood-early-warning-systems (ESW) -with a focus on local social-and-governance context rather technology, as
27 is the case with existing practice. We assess potential approaches for facilitating inclusiveness in designing
28 EWS by integrating diverse-contexts and identifying preconditions and missing-links. We advocate the use of
29 a SMART-approach as a checklist for good-practice to facilitate bottom-up-initiatives that benefit the
30 community-at-risk by engaging them in every stage of the decision-making process.

51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100

1 Introduction

The theme for World Meteorological Day 2022 (March 23) was ‘Early Warning and Early Action – Hydrometeorological and Climate Information for Disaster Risk Reduction’ which emphasises the vital importance of information generation and sharing to minimize the risks from hydrometeorological extremes. Further, the United Nations secretary-general announced a major initiative, to be delivered via COP 27 (UN Climate Conference), for ‘everyone on Earth should be protected by early warning systems against extreme weather and climate change within the next five years.’ These policy initiatives indicate the growing need for new information and knowledge relating to risks arising directly from hazard but also from the complex interactions with exposure and vulnerability (IPCC defined risk=hazard × exposure × vulnerability, see details in Cardona et al., 2012). Although our understanding of hydrological extremes, such as floods, has evolved in recent decades as we view them through the lens of hydro-complexity (Kirschke & Kosow, 2021; Kosow et al., 2022). However, floods remain a “wicked” problem and are becoming more destructive with ecological, social and economic impacts (i.e., source of water pollution, damages to wastewater and irrigation system, excessive erosion damaging riverbank settlements, see details in Kosow et al., 2022; Hannah et al., 2020). In mountainous regions floods are becoming more unpredictable and destructive in response to increasing climatic extremes. This is exacerbated by anthropogenic pressures which have severely modified formerly pristine, high altitude river catchments. Furthermore, increased encroachment of riverbanks, dumping of solid and sewer waste and rapid urbanisation has increased the proportion of low-income communities living in flood-prone areas (Mao et al., 2018; Paul et al., 2018). The lack of adequate hydrometeorological monitoring networks or early warning system in these regions causes undue damage to lives and property (Mountain-EVO, 2017; Pandeya et al., 2021). Yet prediction of risks associated with floods is difficult to achieve in such data-scarce mountainous regions.

Indeed, the most recent report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2022) highlighted the urgent need for investment in adaptation and resilience, particularly in developing regions which have been historically underfunded but are already impacted by extreme weather events. A key requirement is to improve early warning alerts of anticipated storms, heatwaves, floods and droughts. To generate such warning information for floods, systematic development of monitoring networks that utilise appropriate technologies are required. These systems should also consider social, cultural and political dimensions to identify context-specific understanding on inequality and its impact on assessing vulnerabilities and exposure, so that the warning system can ensure inclusiveness in ensure responses following appropriate decision-making chains (Mao et al., 2018; Acosta-Coll et al., 2018). Such an integrated and interconnected monitoring system requires science, policy and local community-led approaches that can bring diverse engaged-stakeholders (i.e., gender, sex, age, socio-economic status and physical abilities) together and generate knowledge to guide their decision to propose solutions that fit the local context (Buytaert et al., 2018; Kosow et al., 2022; Roque et al., 2021; Zulkafli et al., 2017). Despite this call for an inclusive approach for generating an early warning alert system, the existing flood monitoring practices and designs are strongly technology-driven (i.e., information and communications technology [ICT]) and focus less on converging with the local socio-cultural and governance context (Mao et al., 2018; Westerhoff et al., 2021). There are still questions on how, where and at what level science, policy and society may converge and facilitate bottom-up initiatives for decision-making and develop innovative solutions to address challenges posed by floods.

In this commentary, we assess potential approaches for facilitating inclusiveness in the design of a flood early warning system by integrating social, cultural and political aspects, and identify preconditions and missing links.

2 Current approaches- embedding to facilitates-inclusiveness in water and disaster research

In water and disaster research several approaches are emerging to provide concepts, tools and framings that can be used to support inclusiveness and disciplinary convergence for actionable knowledge production. The concept of knowledge co-production has emerged from science-society interaction under the umbrella of adaptive governance thinking where polycentric models and power relation received attention (see details in Buytaert et al., 2018; Paul et al., 2018 and Zulkafli et al., 2017). Scholarly research has identified several

101 potential approaches to achieve knowledge co-production under the broader umbrella of the participatory action
102 research (PAR) including participatory modelling (Sterling et al., 2019), community-based participatory
103 approaches (Wallerstein et al., 2017), participatory scenario analysis (Birthisel et al., 2020; Lakhina et al., 2021;
104 Westerhoff et al., 2021), among others. More recently, citizen science has emerged with an emphasis on with
105 an emphasis on “knowledge co-creation and co-generation” (i.e. the interactive processes across science, policy
106 and implementation to collaborate and to generate knowledge for supporting environmental decision-making
107 and is adopted from two distinct paradigms: (1) science-society interaction and (2) collaborative knowledge
108 production—see further details in Buytaert et al., 2018) with limited focus on action and development but more
109 on and new technologies, especially ICT, but limited focus on action and development. In addition, citizen
110 science focuses more on participation by volunteers, developing trust and nurturing existing working
111 relationships among involved actors towards knowledge co-production (Buytaert et al., 2018; Zulkafli et al.,
112 2017).

113
114 In the contemporary disaster research literature, knowledge co-production is advocated along with participatory
115 actions and transdisciplinary research, which laid the foundation for the participatory convergence concept to
116 translate research into practice (Lakhina et al., 2021; Peek et al., 2020; Roque et al., 2021). Peek et al. (2020)
117 define the participatory convergence research as ‘an approach to knowledge production and action that involves
118 diverse teams working together in novel ways—transcending disciplinary and organizational boundaries—to
119 address vexing social, economic, environmental, and technical challenges in an effort to reduce disaster losses
120 and promote collective well-being’ (pp. 2). While this research approach has been identified as one of the best
121 ten big ideas in funding allocation and research direction by the National Science Foundation of USA (2016),
122 there has been little exploration on the framing (i.e., methods and ethics) to apply this in practice (Westerhoff
123 et al., 2021). Indeed, scholars are focusing on more empirical exploration of convergence research to generate
124 ethics and methods that may deliver successful outcomes. For example, research attempting to address coping
125 with water extremes such as floods and droughts (Lakhina et al., 2021, Roque et al., 2021; Westerhoff et al.,
126 2021). Recently scholars have proposed ethics that have proven useful. For example, Lakhina et al., (2021)
127 proposed ‘convergence with CARE: collaboration, accountability, responsiveness and empowerment’ which
128 require community engagement and further highlight their perspective, questions and experiences while
129 disregarding traditional hierarchical approaches. However, much of hydrological research is focused on
130 improving scientific measurements and developing technological solutions. For example, improving model
131 uncertainty or the instruments and networks used to measure different facets of the hydrosphere (Beven et al.,
132 2020) while being useful for advancing the discipline result in solutions that are often difficult to disseminate
133 to local communities (Birthisel et al., 2020; Roque et al., 2021; Westerhoff et al., 2021). Earlier reviews indicate
134 many empirical investigations on how social context, such as culture, politics and economics have shaped water
135 knowledge and how and what interventions influence or shape communities’ respond differently (Roque et al.,
136 2021). This emphasises a need for future research to understand the underlying principles and ethics that would
137 facilitate bottom-up driven activities or active participation of engaged stakeholders for knowledge co-
138 production to responds and reshape convergence research methods.

139 140 **3 Processes and preconditions in early warning system development**

141 A synthesis of the literature on flood early warning systems was reviewed to develop a schematic representation
142 of an idealised framework for developing an inclusive early warning system (Figure 1) (for more details see
143 Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Buytaert et al., 2018; Mashi et al., 2020; Paul et al., 2018; Zulkafli et al., 2017). The
144 foundation of this schematic representation (Figure 1) is adapted from the concept of knowledge co-generation
145 processes (Buytaert et al., 2018) and co-design framing for environmental decision-making processes in a
146 polycentric system (Zulkafli et al., 2017) and then applied with the key elements (i.e., risk knowledge; technical
147 monitoring and warning service; communication and dissemination of warnings and community response
148 capability (ISDR, 2020) identified by the World Meteorological Organization, International Strategy for
149 Disaster Reduction (ISDR). All these concepts, in general advocated participatory and citizen science approach
150 to become inclusive and generate actionable knowledge (Buytaert et al., 2018; ISDR, 2020; Paul et al., 2018;
151 WMO, 2020). The disaster risk equation provided by the IPCC ($risk = hazard \times expoure \times$

152 *vulnerability ÷ capacity to cope*) suggest that reduction in risk is dependent not only on efficient forecasting
153 of hazard, but also on the understanding of associated exposure, vulnerability and capacity to cope by the
154 exposed community. Therefore, in Figure 1, we present three interdependent steps, i.e., collate data on risk
155 generate data and models to facilitate forecasting and disseminate that is necessary to develop a system that not
156 only produce flood alerts, but also provide risks information through monitoring exposure, vulnerability and
157 capacity of the community-at-risk.

159 *3.1 Mapping the risks through data collection and observation*

160 In this step, it is crucial to collect as much information possible, to generate knowledge on the locality and the
161 community at risk to design a purposeful early warning system. The knowledge generated can also inform on
162 exposure, vulnerability and ability to cope if a disaster strikes and enables decision-makers to adjust or adapt
163 necessary precautionary measures to respond efficiently in a timely manner (Buytaert et al., 2018; Pandeya et
164 al., 2020). The required knowledge includes scientific measurements of the hydrological hazard, various context
165 of risks information (i.e., vulnerability and exposure mapping) across the socio, cultural and political domains
166 that contribute to the risk portfolio to be more intense and having long-term consequences (Mao et al., 2018).
167 In general, we found most studies generate information on risk through a baseline survey of exposure and
168 vulnerability analysis vis observation, interviews, focus group discussions, stakeholders' meetings. The data
169 focuses on a variety of aspects including historical analysis, geographical aspects, environmental, social,
170 economic and governance structures. All these are relevant, however, what is missing here is the lens through
171 which it is possible to explore the complexity of the risk portfolio determined through different angles of
172 exposure and vulnerability perceived by different stakeholders. Reaction to risks in terms of exposure and
173 vulnerability are dependent on the social, cultural and political stances of stakeholders, and thus is highly
174 variable (Mashi et al., 2020; Hermans et al., 2022). For instance, the communities that are living in flood
175 vulnerable areas might not have legal rights to do so therefore, they might decide to tolerate that risk due to fear
176 of eviction. Other stakeholders may be from state organisations which are not bound to provide services to this
177 illegal settlement and therefore, will not engage. People might not engage also as they already lost their trust on
178 the governance system (i.e., did not receive compensation for their previous flood damage, recurring failed
179 commitments from the political parties to reduce flood vulnerability). Previous research partly discussed these
180 complexities (e.g., Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Hermans et al., 2022; Mashi et al., 2020) however, solutions to
181 these challenges are limited.

183 [Figure 1]

185 The citizen science approach, in such cases, recommend utilising social capital tools, such as building a
186 relationship with trust across stakeholders, identifying the people with leadership qualities or local champions
187 (i.e., community members or a social activist/government/non-government employee who have some form of
188 knowledge of flood risks and keen to learn about the early warning system) (Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Mashi et
189 al., 2020). Previous research and project experiences in a similar context demonstrated conducting structured
190 dialogue through stakeholders' meetings, focus group discussions and forming of community groups (see
191 further details in Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Mashi et al., 2020). However, these interactions can lead to confusion
192 and unrealistic expectation relating to the monitoring system. Therefore, it is crucial to make plausible
193 assumptions of risk behaviour relevant to flood exposure and vulnerability that can feed into designing the early
194 warning system including having more focused conversation with the community at risks, specifying the aim
195 and expected outcome of the flood monitoring system.

197 *3.2 Forecasting hazard risks and establish an alert system in real time*

198 This step utilises information from the previous step to identify design specifications to build the early warning
199 system. For example, suitable sensor technology, identification of relevant variables (i.e., rainfall, water level),
200 suitable location(s) to install the components and transmit/receive data. In addition, decision-making on data
201 collection attributes, such as data transmission frequency, among others is critical because there will always be
202 a trade-off between lead time and the potential for an early warning to facilitate appropriate community

203 responses to reduce the likelihood of life. Thus, an understanding of what the optimal lead time in a certain
204 context should be is crucial. To enable any data processing activity, adequate monitoring of relevant variables
205 must be undertaken at the relevant spatial and temporal resolution or scale. This scale will vary depending on
206 the topographic complexity, landcover, geology and hydrodynamic properties of the catchment of interest
207 (Lauden and Sponseller 2018). If historical data is limited (often the case with mountainous and logistically
208 challenging environments) a period of baseline data collection through the previous step is required to “get to
209 your catchment” before establishing a monitoring network. A range of analytical tools are available, including,
210 statistical modelling and simulation, to provide robust thresholds to trigger alert levels based on the collected
211 data. This forecasting step – i.e., predicting the likelihood of flood based on antecedent conditions - is a
212 challenge in data-scarce regions like the Himalaya where there may be significant uncertainty associated with
213 any alert/alarm thresholds due to insufficient training data (Mountain-EVO, 2017; Pandeya et al., 2019).
214 Therefore, many risk assumptions are involved in this step such as over-promising for a sensor-based alert
215 system and if the forecasts are not accurate, there may be a resentment in the community regarding the project.
216 This raises an important question relating to understanding the local context to get a good understanding on how
217 risk management happens and what this means for the design? Moreover, how and when to involve the
218 community (non-scientists) in the development process? Also, what is the purpose of involving the community
219 and other organisations and how will their involvement shape the design process? [All these questions are also](#)
220 [important for the emerging disaster risk management paradigm, where leading organisations \(e.g. World](#)
221 [Meteorological Organisation \(WMO\) and other humanitarian agencies \(i.e. International Federation of Red](#)
222 [Cross and Red Crescent Societies\) are suggesting moving towards impact-based forecasting and anticipatory](#)
223 [humanitarian actions so that context specific risks could be identified and necessary relevant action plan could](#)
224 [develop on time \(please see further details in report link 6\).](#)

225
226 Previous research has highlighted the importance of involving relevant state organisations, such as disaster
227 management departments or meteorological organisations at this stage (Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Pandeya et al.,
228 2019). However, this can potentially lead to a divergence in terms of priorities; scientist and engineers are
229 generally focused on the success of the adopted technique and necessary data generation, while the state-led
230 organisations might focus on bureaucracy, policy, existing government beliefs and long-term operational plans
231 (e.g., maintenance and legacy costs). Therefore, engaging with the state departments at this stage can become
232 very difficult (Mashi et al., 2020), nonetheless from a design perspective, understanding both contexts are very
233 crucial for building a purposeful early warning system. The previous researcher recommended utilising a
234 bridging or boundary organisation that can act as a mediator and bridge the gap (Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Mashi
235 et. al., 2020). Few projects involved local technological start-up companies or local research and development
236 organisations. However, there is limited exploration on the community engagement at this stage who struggle
237 to visualise such technical details in real-time application. Further, there are also missing on the crucial aspects
238 of what levels of technical details to share and which is the right time/phase to share with the community or the
239 state authority. This inadequate understanding to decide the right time or phase will risk of over-promising for
240 warning alert.

241 *3.3 Communication and dissemination*

242 After installation of the alert system, identification of the best possible modes of dissemination is critical to
243 further interact with the vulnerable communities and communicate the potential risks along with tentative
244 necessary actions to minimise the risks. While this has been the most critical part, it is also one of the most
245 interactive components in the entire scheme. New ICT technologies such as interactive dashboard visualisations,
246 give more flexibility in developing the visualisation to disseminate the EWS outputs in a way that can be easily
247 understood by the community is a major challenge (Mashi et al., 2020; Pandeya et al., 2019). Several questions
248 arise in this step including a strategy to ensure the alert levels reaches to all those who are at risk, the risk
249 information is easy to understand and there is a desired reaction to such information. Previous research
250 highlights different visualisation techniques to showcase alert levels such as text, colour coding, graphics, audio
251 mobile messages, and showcasing locational maps (Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Pandeya et al., 2019). What may
252 be missing in this step is what would be the best possible methods to communicate with the community at risk
253

and understanding how they perceived and responded to such forms of alerts or warnings? Here, communication not only with the communities but also with the responsible state authorities and how they are supporting or ~~involving engaged in~~ with the decision-making processes to respond in a timely manner.

4 A SMART way ~~to~~ forward

We believe that through this commentary we have raised critical questions and identified missing links ~~in the context of disaster resilience and the development of tools to improve preparedness and response. The most important of which include:~~ include i) ~~the absence of diverse contextual risks angle and community reactions;~~ ii) ~~a lack of community trust on government –agencies and technology focused forecasting;~~ iii) ~~lack of significant data limitations to ensure effective EWS effectiveness operation and impact-based forecasting;~~ ~~and,~~ iv) ~~a lack of effective communication strategies. All these missing linkspoints that~~ need deeper exploration to ensure inclusive EWS are developed in data-scarce mountainous regions or geographic regions similar in context. ~~We acknowledge that many countries are currently implementing EWS focusing on active community participation (please see reports links 1-5) however, solutions to address these missing links are limited and thus ensuring inclusiveness and impact remained challenging. We have highlighted the need for M~~multiple lenses to establish and explore the complexity of the risk portfolio and ~~thus~~ understand the architecture of the engaged stakeholders and their behaviour. ~~This is essential to ensure~~ actionable knowledge ~~is generated~~ and bottom-up initiatives ~~are strengthened and the capacity to respond is improved.~~

Based on the above discussions ~~of~~ key questions, ~~missing links~~ and design needs, we propose the ‘SMART convergence participatory research’ approach ~~to support the EWS development phases as and provide a checklist of good practices. –The SMART approach highlights crucial activity layers to incorporate into EWS development which steps for can help accommodating guide~~ multi-disciplinary teams (e.g. disaster risk manager, hydrologist, engineer, and social scientist) ~~to follow when exploring risk architectures and planning response actions (Figure 2). This will enable to incorporate diverse disciplinary lenses (i.e., social science and meteorological data) along with risks diversity identify by the community-at-risk (illegal settlement beside riverbank or slums) which mentioned earlier as missing-link. This will support to expose vulnerability and risks from different socio-cultural, institutional and scientific context. These include: Following a SMART approach will ensure inclusiveness throughby helping to identifying –and connecting missing components and linkages-links while designingwhen designing an EWS.~~

~~The first step, S, representsenting~~ ‘Shared understanding of the risks’ ~~providing a scope for includingensuring all diverse stakeholder engagements are diverse and representative (irrespective to their gender, sex, age, socio-economic status and physical abilities) in–~~ and a wide range of ~~different data forms and collection methods are utilised, collection~~ as stated in EWS step-1 (Figure 1). This knowledge generated from the community will help ~~the expert group to better understand context specific risks with more focused portfolio to map out risks factors through exposure and vulnerability analysis. This further helps to identifyidentify common goals and anticipate damage from the natural hazards and thus ensures impact though appropriate forecasting.~~

Secondly, ~~M~~ representing ‘Monitoring of the risks’ aligned closely with establishing alert system and forecasting hazard information as stated in step-2 (Figure 1). This includes an intersection of generated knowledge that will lead towards ~~–practicing collaborative activities, such as through knowledge co-production and collaboration (i.e., trust-building (which is key to inclusive and impact based forecasting), exchanging critical risk information to enrich data sets, providing–~~feedbacks, forming small groups ~~for maintaining forecasting system.~~

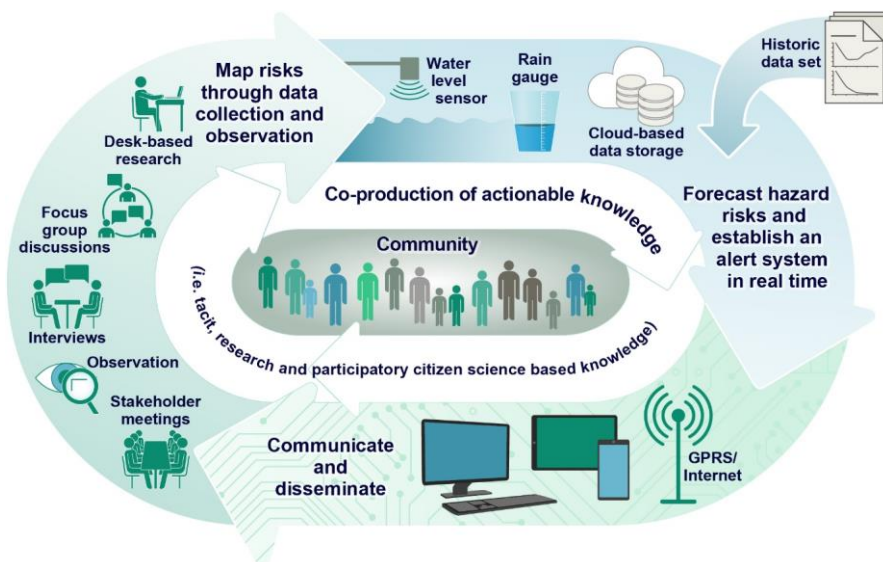
~~Thirdly, A– as in–~~, building Awareness (i.e., training and capacity development activities ~~to ; understandingembed understanding of real time weather and alert information)–in real-time)–~~ is critical for this approach and is a continuous process throughout the development and utilisation of early warning system, in particular focus to EWS step 3 to support effective communication and dissemination and will further also support legacy and sustainability of the warning system into the local context.

305 Finally, **RT** indicating ~~and~~ ~~pre-plan~~ ~~planning~~ ~~Response~~ actions on Time (i.e., comprehensive disaster
 306 management plan, evacuation plan) based on the alert produced by the EWS and could be used to inform the
 307 effectiveness of the overall EWS to minimize risks from the anticipated ~~damages from the hazard information~~
 308 hazard. This ~~further~~ will inform further the level of knowledge produced through collaboration and how this
 309 can be used to take facilitate effective action by the ~~the existing~~ community and responsible agencies.

311 [Figure 2]

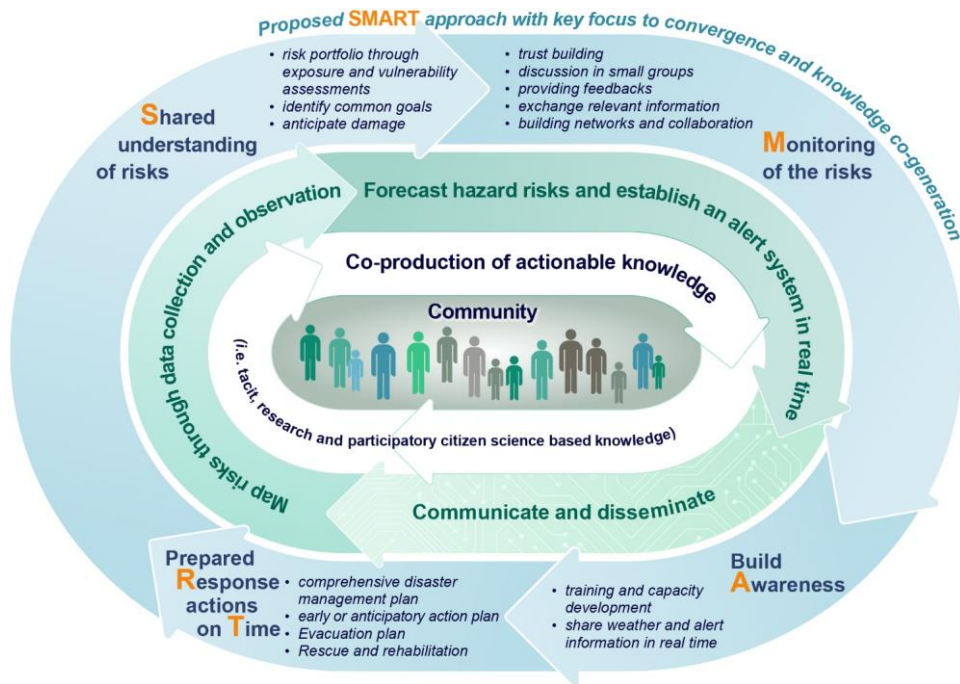
312 We advocate the use of ~~the this~~ SMART approach ~~that will to to~~ facilitate bottom-up initiatives for developing
 313 an inclusive and purposeful early warning system and ~~that would to~~ benefit the community ~~at risk~~ by engaging
 314 them every step of the way along with including other stakeholders at multiple scales of operations (i.e.,
 315 scientific and policy actors). ~~Broadly, this~~ We advocate that the SMART convergence approach along with the
 316 dominant largely top-down initiatives will contribute to developing capacity and redefining adaptation and
 317 resilience in the face of ~~increased hydrological~~ more extreme water extremes (floods, droughts) and increased
 318 uncertainty under global change.

327 Figures (1 & 2)



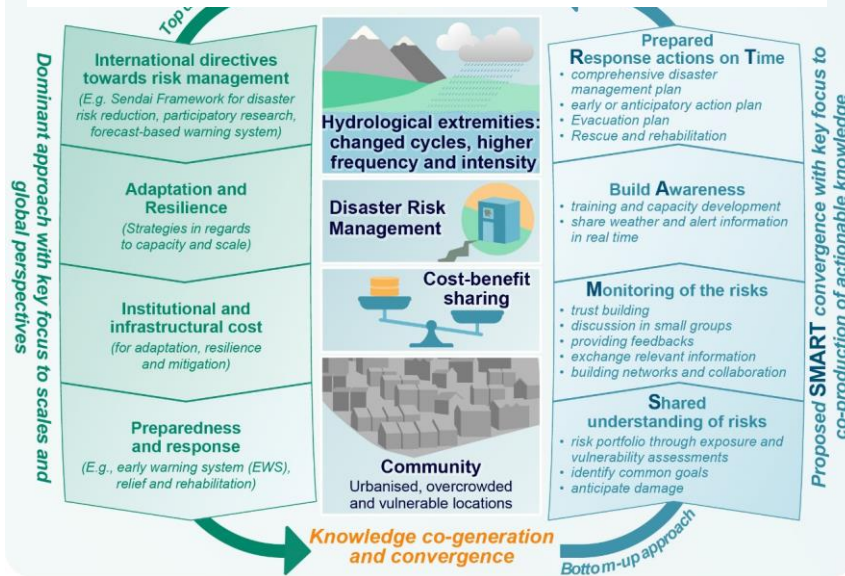
328 Figure 1: An idealised scenario for developing a monitoring and alert system to provide an early
 329 warning of potentially life/livelihood threatening natural ~~disasters~~ hazards.

341
342



343

Figure 2: A SMART convergence research approach to ensure inclusiveness in designing monitoring and alert system to provide early warning information to minimize disaster risks.



345
346
347
348
349
350
351
352
353
354
355
356
357
358

359

360 **Authors contribution**

361 TY and DMH prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

362

363 **Acknowledgement**

364 The research was funded by the Natural Environment Research Council (UKRI NERC), Research grant
365 reference no: NERC COP26 A&R Project Scoping Call -2021COPA&R31Hannah.

366

367 **Useful links and report links**

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

382 **References**

1. Acosta-Coll, M., Ballester-Merelo, F., Martinez-Peiró, M., & la Hoz-Franco, D. (2018). Real-time early warning system design for pluvial flash floods—A review. *Sensors*, 18(7), 2255. doi:10.3390/s18072255.
2. Beven, K., Asadullah, A., Bates, P., Blyth, E., Chappell, N., Child, S., ... & Wagener, T. (2020). Developing observational methods to drive future hydrological science: Can we make a start as a community?. *Hydrological Processes*, 34(3), 868-873. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.13622>.
3. Birthisel, S. K., Eastman, B. A., Soucy, A. R., Paul, M., Clements, R. S., White, A., & Dittmer, K. M. (2020). Convergence, continuity, and community: a framework for enabling emerging leaders to build climate solutions in agriculture, forestry, and aquaculture. *Climatic Change*, 162(4), 2181–2195.
4. Buytaert, W., Ochoa-Tocachi, B. F., Hannah, D. M., Clark, J., & Dewulf, A. (2018). Co-generating knowledge on ecosystem services and the role of new technologies. In *Ecosystem Services and Poverty Alleviation* (pp. 174-188). Routledge.
5. Cardona, O. D., Van Aalst, M. K., Birkmann, J., Fordham, M., Mc Gregor, G., Rosa, P., ... & Thomalla, F. (2012). Determinants of risk: exposure and vulnerability. In *Managing the risks of extreme events and disasters to advance climate change adaptation: special report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change* (pp. 65-108). Cambridge University Press. 10.1017/CBO9781139177245.005.
6. Hannah, D. M., Lynch, I., Mao, F., Miller, J. D., Young, S. L., & Krause, S. (2020). Water and sanitation for all in a pandemic. *Nature Sustainability*, 3(10), 773–775. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-020-0593-7>.
- 6-7. Hermans, T.D., Šakić Trogrlić, R., van den Homberg, M.J., Bailon, H., Sarku, R. and Mosurska, A., (2022). *Exploring the integration of local and scientific knowledge in early warning systems for disaster risk reduction: a review. Natural Hazards*, pp.1-28.
7. Kirschke, S., & Kosow, H. (2021). *Designing policy mixes for emerging wicked problems. The case of pharmaceutical residues in freshwaters. Journal of Environmental Policy and Planning*, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1523908X.2021.1960808>

Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, 9 pt, Font color: Custom Color(RGB(34,34,34)), Pattern: Clear (White)

Formatted: Font: 9 pt

Formatted: Font: 9 pt

Formatted: Font: 7 pt

Formatted: Font: 11 pt, Font color: Auto

- 409 8. Kosow, H., Kirschke, S., Borchardt, D., Cullmann, J., Guillaume, J. H. A., Hannah, D. M., Schaub, S.,
410 & Tosun, J. (2022). Scenarios of water extremes: Framing ways forward for wicked problems.
411 *Hydrological Processes*, 36(2), e14492. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.14492>
- 412 9. Lakhina, S. J., Sutley, E. J., & Wilson, J. (2021). “How do we actually do convergence” for disaster
413 resilience? Cases from Australia and the United States. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Science*,
414 12, 1–13.
- 415 10. Laudon, H., & Sponseller, R. A. (2018). How landscape organization and scale shape catchment
416 hydrology and biogeochemistry: Insights from a long-term catchment study. *Wiley Interdisciplinary*
417 *Reviews: Water*, 5(2), e1265. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wat2.1265>.
- 418 11. Mao F, Clark J, Buytaert W, Krause S, Hannah DM. Water sensor network applications: Time to
419 move beyond the technical? *Hydrological Processes*. 2018; 32:2612–2615.
420 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.13179>
- 421 12. Mashi, S. A., Inkani, A. I., Obaro, O., & Asanarimam, A. S. (2020). Community perception, response
422 and adaptation strategies towards flood risk in a traditional African city. *Natural Hazards*, 103(2),
423 1727-1759.
- 424 13. Paul, J. D., Buytaert, W., Allen, S., Ballesteros-Cánovas, J. A., Bhusal, J., Cieslik, K., ... & Supper, R.
425 (2018). Citizen science for hydrological risk reduction and resilience building. *Wiley Interdisciplinary*
426 *Reviews: Water*, 5(1), e1262. doi: 10.1002/wat2.1262
- 427 14. Pandeya, B., Uprety, M., Paul, J. D., Sharma, R. R., Dugar, S., & Buytaert, W. (2021). Mitigating
428 flood risk using low-cost sensors and citizen science: A proof-of-concept study from western
429 Nepal. *Journal of Flood Risk Management*, 14(1), e12675.
- 430 15. Peek, L., Tobin, J., Adams, R. M., Wu, H., & Mathews, M. C. (2020). A framework for convergence
431 research in the hazards and disaster field: The natural hazards engineering research infrastructure
432 CONVERGE facility. *Frontiers in Built Environment*, 6, 110.
- 433 16. Roque, A., Wutich, A., Quimby, B., Porter, S., Zheng, M., Hossain, M. J., & Brewis, A. Participatory
434 approaches in water research: A review. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Water*, e1577.
- 435 17. Sterling, E. J., Zellner, M., Jenni, K., Leong, K. M., Glynn, P. D., BenDor, T. K., Bommel, T. K.,
436 Hubacek, K., Jetter, A. J., Jordan, R., Schmitt Olabisi, L., Paolisso, M., & Gray, S. (2019). Try, try
437 again: Lessons learned from success and failure in participatory modelling. *Elementa Science of the*
438 *Anthropocene*, 7(1), 9. <https://doi.org/10.1525/elementa.347>
- 439 18. Wallerstein, N., Duran, B., & Oetzel, J. G. (2017). In M. Minkler (Ed.), *Community-based*
440 *participatory research for health: Advancing social and health equity*. John Wiley & Sons.
- 441 19. Westerhoff, P., Wutich, A., & Carlson, C. (2021). Value propositions provide a roadmap for
442 convergent research on environmental topics. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 55(20), 13579-
443 13582.
- 444 20. Zulkafli, Z., Perez, K., Vitolo, C., Buytaert, W., Karpouzoglou, T., Dewulf, A., ... & Shaheed, S.
445 (2017). User-driven design of decision support systems for polycentric environmental resources
446 management. *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 88, 58-73.

447