



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

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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.

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51 **1 Introduction**

52 The theme for World Meteorological Day 2022 (March 23) was ‘Early Warning and Early Action –
53 Hydrometeorological and Climate Information for Disaster Risk Reduction’ which emphasises the vital
54 importance of information generation and sharing to minimize the risks from hydrometeorological extremes.
55 Further, the United Nations secretary-general announced a major initiative, to be delivered via COP 27 (UN
56 Climate Conference), for ‘everyone on Earth should be protected by early warning systems against extreme
57 weather and climate change within the next five years.’ These policy initiatives indicate the growing need for
58 new information and knowledge relating to risks arising directly from hazard but also from the complex
59 interactions with exposure and vulnerability (IPCC defined risk=hazard × exposure × vulnerability, see details
60 in Cardona et al., 2012). Although our understanding of hydrological extremes, such as floods, has evolved in
61 recent decades as we view them through the lens of hydro-complexity (Kirschke & Kosow, 2021; Kosow et al.,
62 2022). However, floods remain a “wicked” problem and are becoming more destructive with ecological, social
63 and economic impacts (i.e., source of water pollution, damages to wastewater and irrigation system, excessive
64 erosion damaging riverbank settlements, see details in Kosow et al., 2022; Hannah et al., 2020). In mountainous
65 regions floods are becoming more unpredictable and destructive in response to increasing climatic extremes.
66 This is exacerbated by anthropogenic pressures which have severely modified formerly pristine, high altitude
67 river catchments. Furthermore, increased encroachment of riverbanks, dumping of solid and sewer waste and
68 rapid urbanisation has increased the proportion of low-income communities living in flood-prone areas (Mao et
69 al., 2018; Paul et al., al., 2018). The lack of adequate hydrometeorological monitoring networks or early warning
70 system in these regions causes undue damage to live and property (Mountain-EVO, 2017; Pandeya et al., 2021).
71 Yet prediction of risks associated with floods is difficult to achieve in such data-scarce mountainous regions.

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73 Indeed, the most recent report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2022) highlighted the
74 urgent need for investment in adaptation and resilience, particularly in developing regions which have been
75 historically underfunding but are already impacted by extreme weather events. A key requirement is to improve
76 early warning alerts of anticipated storms, heatwaves, floods and droughts. To generate such warning
77 information for floods, systematic development of monitoring networks that utilise appropriate technologies are
78 required. These systems should as also consider social, cultural and political dimensions to ensure responses
79 following appropriate decision-making chains (Mao et al., 2018; Acosta-Coll et al., 2018). Such an integrated
80 and interconnected monitoring system requires science, policy and local community-led approaches that can
81 bring engaged stakeholders together and generate knowledge to guide their decision to propose solutions that
82 fit the local context (Buytaert et al., 2018; Kosow et al., 2022; Roque et al., 2021; Zulkafli et al., 2017). Despite
83 this call for an inclusive approach for generating early warning alert system, the existing flood monitoring
84 practices and designs are strongly technology-driven (i.e., information and communications technology [ICT])
85 and focus less on converging local socio-cultural and governance context (Mao et al., 2018; Westerhoff et al.,
86 2021). There are still questions on how, where and at what level science, policy and society may converge and
87 facilitate bottom-up initiatives for decision-making and develop innovative solutions to address challenges
88 posed by floods.

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

91 **2 Current approaches to facilitates inclusiveness in water and disaster research**

92 In water and disaster research several approaches are emerging to provide concepts, tools and framings that can
93 be used to support inclusiveness and disciplinary convergence for actionable knowledge production. The
94 concept of knowledge co-production has emerged from science-society interaction under the umbrella of
95 adaptive governance thinking where polycentric models and power relation received attention (see details in
96 Buytaert et al., 2018; Paul et al., 2018 and Zulkafli et al., 2017). Scholarly research has identified several
97 potential approaches to achieve knowledge co-production under the broader umbrella of the participatory action
98 research (PAR) including participatory modelling (Sterling et al., 2019), community-based participatory
99 approaches (Wallerstein et al., 2017), participatory scenario analysis (Birthisel et al., 2020; Lakhina et al., 2021;
100 Westerhoff et al., 2021), among others. More recently, citizen science has emerged and emphasises on



101 “knowledge creation” with limited focus on action and development but more on new technologies, especially
102 ICT. In addition, citizen science focuses more on participation by volunteers, developing trust and nurturing
103 existing working relation among involved actors towards knowledge co-production (Buytaert et al., 2018;
104 Zulkafli et al., 2017).

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

132 **3 Processes and preconditions in early warning system development**

133 A synthesis of the literature on flood early warning systems was reviewed to develop a schematic representation
134 of an idealised framework for developing an inclusive early warning system (Figure 1) (for more details see
135 Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Buytaert et al., 2018; Mashi et al., 2020; Paul et al., 2018; Zulkafli et al., 2017). The
136 foundation of this schematic representation (Figure 1) is adapted from the concept of knowledge co-generation
137 processes (Buytaert et al., 2018) and co-design framing for environmental decision-making processes in a
138 polycentric system (Zulkafli et al., 2017) and then applied with the key elements (i.e., risk knowledge; technical
139 monitoring and warning service; communication and dissemination of warnings and community response
140 capability (ISDR, 2020) identified by the World Meteorological Organization, International Strategy for
141 Disaster Reduction (ISDR). All these concepts, in general advocated participatory and citizen science approach
142 to become inclusive and generate actionable knowledge (Buytaert et al., 2018; ISDR, 2020; Paul et al., 2018;
143 WMO, 2020). The disaster risk equation provided by the IPCC ($risk = hazard \times exposure \times$
144 $vulnerability \div capacity\ to\ cope$) suggest that reduction in risk is dependent not only on efficient forecasting
145 of hazard, but also on the understanding of associated exposure, vulnerability and capacity to cope by the
146 exposed community. Therefore, in Figure 1, we present three interdependent steps, i.e., collate data on risk
147 generate data and models to facilitate forecasting and disseminate that is necessary to develop a system that not
148 only produce flood alerts, but also provide risks information through monitoring exposure, vulnerability and
149 capacity of the community-at-risk.

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152 *3.1 Mapping the risks through data collection and observation*

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

174

175 [Figure 1]

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

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189 *3.2 Forecasting hazard risks and establish an alert system in real time*

190 This step utilises information from the previous step to identify design specifications to build the early warning
191 system. For example, suitable sensor technology, identification of relevant variables (i.e., rainfall, water level),
192 suitable location(s) to install the components and transmit/receive data. In addition, decision-making on data
193 collection attributes, such as data transmission frequency, among others is critical because there will always be
194 a trade-off between lead time and the potential for an early warning to facilitate appropriate community
195 responses to reduce the likelihood of life. Thus, an understanding of what the optimal lead time in a certain
196 context should be is crucial. To enable any data processing activity, adequate monitoring of relevant variables
197 must be undertaken at the relevant spatial and temporal resolution or scale. This scale will vary depending on
198 the topographic complexity, landcover, geology and hydrodynamic properties of the catchment of interest
199 (Lauden and Sponseller 2018). If historical data is limited (often the case with mountainous and logistically
200 challenging environments) a period of baseline data collection through the previous step is required to “get to
201 your catchment” before establishing a monitoring network. A range of analytical tools are available, including,
202 statistical modelling and simulation, to provide robust thresholds to trigger alert levels based on the collected



203 data. This forecasting step – i.e., predicting the likelihood of flood based on antecedent conditions - is a
204 challenge in data-scarce regions like the Himalaya where there may be significant uncertainty associated with
205 any alert/alarm thresholds due to insufficient training data (Mountain-EVO, 2017; Pandeya et al., 2019).
206 Therefore, many risk assumptions are involved in this step such as over-promising for a sensor-based alert
207 system and if the forecasts are not accurate, there may be a resentment in the community regarding the project.
208 This raises an important question relating to understanding the local context to get a good understanding on how
209 risk management happens and what this means for the design? Moreover, how and when to involve the
210 community (non-scientists) in the development process? Also, what is the purpose of involving the community
211 and other organisations and how will their involvement shape the design process?
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213 Previous research has highlighted the importance of involving relevant state organisations, such as disaster
214 management departments or meteorological organisations at this stage (Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Pandeya et al.,
215 2019). However, this can potentially lead to a divergence in terms of priorities; scientist and engineers are
216 generally focused on the success of the adopted technique and necessary data generation, while the state-led
217 organisations might focus on bureaucracy, policy, existing government beliefs and long-term operational plans
218 (e.g., maintenance and legacy costs). Therefore, engaging with the state departments at this stage can become
219 very difficult (Mashi et al., 2020), nonetheless from a design perspective, understanding both contexts are very
220 crucial for building a purposeful early warning system. The previous researcher recommended utilising a
221 bridging or boundary organisation that can act as a mediator and bridge the gap (Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Mashi
222 et. al., 2020). Few projects involved local technological start-up companies or local research and development
223 organisations. However, there is limited exploration on the community engagement at this stage who struggle
224 to visualise such technical details in real-time application. Further, there are also missing on the crucial aspects
225 of what levels of technical details to share and which is the right time/phase to share with the community or the
226 state authority. This inadequate understanding to decide the right time or phase will risk of over-promising for
227 warning alert.
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229 3.3 Communication and dissemination

230 After installation of the alert system, identification of the best possible modes of dissemination is critical to
231 further interact with the vulnerable communities and communicate the potential risks along with tentative
232 necessary actions to minimise the risks. While this has been the most critical part, it is also one of the most
233 interactive components in the entire scheme. New ICT technologies such as interactive dashboard visualisations,
234 give more flexibility in developing the visualisation to disseminate the EWS outputs in a way that can be easily
235 understood by the community is a major challenge (Mashi et al., 2020; Pandeya et al., 2019). Several questions
236 arise in this step including a strategy to ensure the alert levels reaches to all those who are at risk, the risk
237 information is easy to understand and there is a desired reaction to such information. Previous research
238 highlights different visualisation techniques to showcase alert levels such as text, colour coding, graphics, audio
239 mobile messages, and showcasing locational maps (Acosta-Coll et al., 2018; Pandeya et al., 2019). What may
240 be missing in this step is what would be the best possible methods to communicate with the community at risk
241 and understanding how they perceived and responded to such forms of alerts or warnings? Here, communication
242 not only with the communities but also with the responsible state authorities and how they are supporting or
243 involving with the decision-making processes to respond in a timely manner.
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245 **4 A SMART way to forward**

246 We believe that through this commentary we have raised critical questions and identified missing links that need
247 deeper exploration to ensure inclusive EWS are developed in data-scarce mountainous regions or geographic
248 regions similar in context. Multiple lenses are required to establish and explore the complexity of the risk
249 portfolio and to understand the architecture of the engaged stakeholders and their behaviour in generating
250 actionable knowledge and strengthening bottom-up initiatives to respond and improve capacity. Based on the
251 above discussions on the key questions and design needs, we propose the ‘**SMART** convergence participatory
252 research’ approach as a checklist of good practices with greater promise in this context. We highlight crucial
253 steps for multi-disciplinary team to follow when exploring risk architectures and planning response actions



254 (Figure 2). These include: **Shared** understanding of the risks (i.e., developing a risk portfolio to map out risks
255 factors through exposure and vulnerability analysis and associated actors, identify common goals), **Monitoring**
256 of the risk through knowledge co-production and collaboration (i.e., trust-building, providing feedbacks,
257 forming small groups), building **Awareness** (i.e., training and capacity development activities) and pre-plan
258 **Response** action on **Time** (i.e., comprehensive disaster management plan, evacuation plan).

259
260 [Figure 2]

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262 We advocate the use of the **SMART** approach to facilitate bottom-up initiatives for developing an inclusive and
263 purposeful early warning system that would benefit the community at risk by engaging them every step of the
264 way along with including other stakeholders at multiple scales of operations (i.e., scientific and policy actors).
265 Broadly, this **SMART** convergence approach along with the dominant largely top-down initiatives will
266 contribute to developing capacity and redefining adaptation and resilience in the face of increased hydrological
267 uncertainty.

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291 **Figures (1& 2)**

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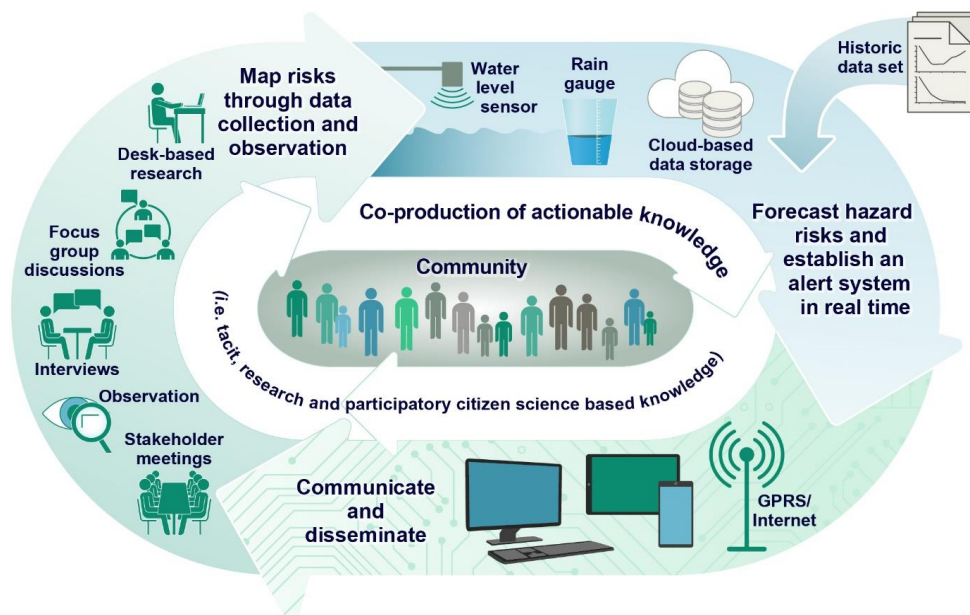


Figure 1: An idealised scenario for developing a monitoring and alert system to provide an early warning of potentially life/livelihood threatening natural disasters.

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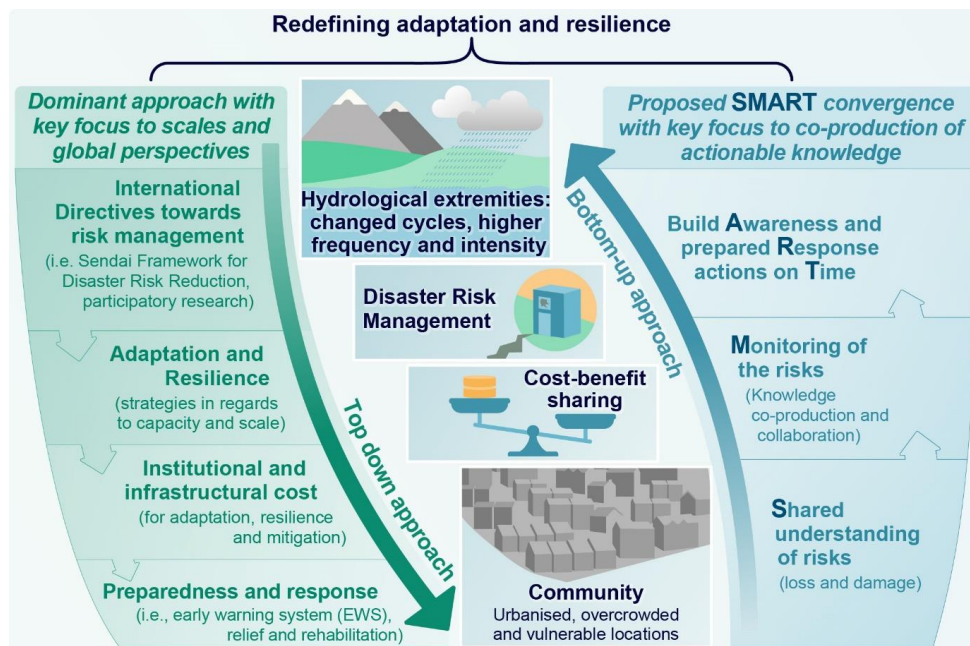


Figure 2: A SMART convergence research approach to ensure inclusiveness in disaster risk management

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324 **Authors contribution**

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

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331 **Useful links and report links**

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