City flood disaster scenario simulation based on 1D-2D coupled rain-flood model: A case study in Luoyang, China

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Abstract

In order to realize the reproduction and simulation of urban rainstorm and waterlogging scenarios with complex underlying surfaces. Based on the Mike series models, we constructed an urban storm-flood coupling model considering one-dimensional river channels, two-dimensional ground and underground pipe networks. Luoyang City was used as a pilot to realize the construction of a one-dimensional and two-dimensional coupled urban flood model and flood simulation. where is located in the western part of Henan Province, China. The coupled model was calibrated and verified by the submerged water depths of 16 survey points in two historical storms flood events. The average relative error of the calibration simulated water depth was 22.65%, and the average absolute error was 13.93cm; the average relative error of the verified simulated water depth was 15.27%, The average absolute error is 7.54cm, and the simulation result is good. Finally, 28 rains with different return periods and different durations were designed to simulate and analyze the rainstorm inundation in the downtown area of Luoyang. The result shows that the R^2 of rainfall and urban rainstorm inundation is 0.8776, and the R^2 of rainfall duration and urban rainstorm inundation is 0.8141. Therefore, rainfall is the decisive factor in the formation of urban waterlogging disasters, which is actually the rainfall duration. The study results have important practical significance for urban flood prevention, disaster reduction and traffic emergency management.

Keywords: 1D-2D coupled model, MIKE Urban, MIKE 11, MIKE 21, City flood, Inundation, Urban hydrology

1. introduction

Natural disasters have brought serious life threats and huge economic losses to human society (Sarauskiene, Akstinas, Nazarenko, Kriauciuniene, & Jurgelenaite, 2020). Flood disasters are the most frequent natural disasters in the world that affect the development of China's national economy (Bloom, Canning, & Fink, 2008). As the basis and technical support for disaster prevention and mitigation decision-making, flood disaster risk assessment has important practical significance (Hu, Liu, et al., 2020). However, previous studies mostly focused on natural watersheds. With the acceleration of urbanization, population density and economic output increase, urban flood disasters have gradually become a research hotspot (Grimm et al., 2008). As the process of urbanization continues to accelerate, the natural and ecological systems in the main urban area and surrounding areas have changed (J. Y. Wang, Hu, Ma, & Mu, 2020). The changes in urban hydrological processes have gradually increased the threat of urban rainstorm disasters (Roozbahani, Behzadi, & Bavani, 2020). As an important

method for evaluating and preventing urban rainstorm disasters, numerical models can provide important technical support for flood control and drainage (Turner, Sahin, Giurco, Stewart, & Porter, 2016).

Urban storm flood model is essentially a type of hydrological model or hydrodynamic model, and its basic development process is basically the same as that of traditional hydrological or hydrodynamic model (Jiao, Zhang, & Xu, 2017). From the introduction of inference formulas in the calculation of urban drainage design in 1889, urban flood simulation research is basically at the stage of empirical exploration of the basic methods of flood simulation (S. Wang & Wang, 2018). The introduction of classic hydrological theoretical methods such as the Horton runoff generation theory, unit line, and Chicago flow process line provides theoretical basis and key methods for urban flood simulation (Chao Mei, 2019). In 1971, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) proposed a semi-distributed urban hydrological model SWMM (Storm Water Management Model) (Gironas, Roesner, Rossman, & Davis, 2010), which realized the inherited simulation of surface runoff generation, confluence and pipe network confluence (Chao Mei et al., 2019), which sign of the maturity of the urban storm flood model. In 1986, the first generation of MIKE model was launched (Bach, Rauch, Mikkelsen, McCarthy, & Deletic, 2014), which integrated many new algorithms and data pre-processing and other new technologies in the algorithm innovation stage into the same simulation platform, which promoted the development of urban flood simulation technology and made urban flood modeling more convenient and efficient (Chao Mei, 2019). In the meantime, many representative urban rain and flood models have also been produced. In 1998, the Wallingford model was improved and introduced the Inforworks CS model (Huang, Wang, & Huang, 2017), the European natural disaster engineering flood project team developed the LISFLOOD model in 2010(Van Der Knijff, Younis, & De Roo, 2010), and the Disaster Mitigation Center of the Ministry of Water Resources of the Chinese Academy of Water Sciences launched IFMS/URBAN model (Liu et al., 2019). These model methods are also widely used in the simulation and risk assessment of urban floods. Guoru Huang (Guoru Huang et al., 2019) took the Donghaoyong River Basin in Guangzhou City as the research area and comprehensively considered the characteristics of urban rainfall, runoff, topography and drainage system, and constructed a one-dimensional-two-dimensional coupled urban flood simulation model based on InfoWorks ICM. Zischg et al. (Zischg, Mosimann, Bernet, & Rothlisberger, 2018) simulated flood risks in 4 regions of Switzerland based on a two-dimensional hydrodnamic model and verified their assessment results with insurance claims data. Roland et al. (R. Lowe et al., 2017) conducted a flood risk assessment based on the MIKE FLOOD model coupled with MIKE URBAN and MIKE 21 in a certain area of Melbourne, Australia under different urban development levels and climate change scenarios. These studies have also achieved good study results.

In the previous application of urban storm and flood numerical simulation, underground drainage pipe flow was simulated by one-dimensional Saint-Venant equations, and surface water flow was simulated by two-dimensional shallow water equations (Martins, Leandro, & Djordjevic, 2018). The model also considers the flow exchange between the surface and the underground drainage system, and establishes a connection between the two at rainwater outlets or inspection wells. Predecessors have done a lot of research on simulating surface water flow and underground drainage pipe flow in one- and two-dimensional coupled models (Fraga, Cea, & Puertas, 2017; Leandro, Schumann, & Pfister, 2016). The SWMM 1D model was added to the TUFLOW 2D model to form XP-SWMM (van der Sterren, Rahman, & Ryan, 2014). InfoWorks ICM integrates InfoWorks CS and InfoWorks RS for one- and two-dimensional coupled modeling (Gong et al., 2018). However, these models are incomplete in

describing the urban flood process, because the urban inland rivers are not included in the urban storm flood simulation calculation.

The city is a region, not a closed watershed (J. Y. Wang et al., 2020). It has both the problem of overflowing rivers and waterlogging caused by heavy rains. The simulation forecast of heavy rain and waterlogging in cities with complex underlying surfaces is much more difficult than that of natural basin flood forecasts (Al-Zahrani, 2018). The complexity of the underlying surface of the city is mainly reflected in the hard ground and the underground drainage pipe network, but often only consider the hydrodynamic simulation calculation of the urban pipe network, it is difficult to describe the real urban rainstorm and waterlogging process, which leads to urban rain flood. The simulation forecast accuracy of the model is also difficult to guarantee (Gao, Yuan, Wang, Zhang, & Ye, 2018).

This paper first introduces a newly established model, which is based on MIKE 11, MIKE 21 and MIKE Urban coupled underground drainage systems, river networks, and surface flows. This 2D model is efficient for shallow-water flows and uses the lower-upper symmetric Gauss-Seidel (LU-SGS) implicit dual time-stepping method based on structured grids. Then, we explore the urban inundation response to rainstorm duration in a case study of the Luoyang City Center. Finally, based on the MIKE FLOOD system model, taking into account multiple elements such as urban pipe network, topography, drainage canals, rivers, buildings, etc., construct a storm and flood coupling model under the complex underlying surface conditions of the city, and realize the coupling of ground overflow-pipe network confluence-river confluence Flood inundation simulation and heavy rain scenario application.

Fig. 1 is here

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study site

We selected Luoyang city center, in the northern Henan Province of China, as our study area (34°29'06″-34°45'47″N, 112°15'44″- 112°41'57″ E, at 150 m asl) (Fig. 2). Luoyang city center, which constitutes the northern part of Luoyang city, is a typical small basin city with an area of 803 km^2, and is situated within the Yi-Luo River Basin. The two rivers of Yi he and Luo he passed through the downtown area of Luoyang.

Fig. 2 is here

The annual average temperature and rainfall are 14.6°C and 600.2 mm. And June to September accounted for 63.3% of the annual precipitation. Study area has a semi-arid area with an average water surface evaporation of 1200 mm and an aridity index of 2.0. Luoyang city center is a highly urbanized area, containing numerous businesses, campuses, and residential areas. The coverage of impervious areas reaches 72%.

Although Luoyang city center is a newly developed area, its sewer system is insufficient for its current drainage needs. Most of the sewer system is designed for one- or two-year return periods. Thus, inundation is a normal occurrence during rainstorms in Luoyang city center. In 2019, a rainstorm hit the entire Luoyang City, causing direct economic losses of $9.693 million. Luoyang City experienced significant damage from that rainstorm and many streets were severely flooded. Therefore, it is a suitable site to study the characteristics of rainfall-induced inundations.

2.2. Data availability and processing

2.2.1. Topographic data

In this study, Digital elevation models (DEM) are from Geospatial Data Cloud (http://www.gscloud.cn/sources/accessdata/421?pid=302) with a grid size of 30 m × 30 m to be used in urban dynamic modeling. The building profiles were distinguished through high-resolution Google

remote sensing images. Further, buildings were regarded as non-flooding zones. Here increased the height by 10 m at the corresponding position on the DEM. In this way, the Digital Surface models (DSM) used to construct the surface flow model was obtained. Thus, they were excluded from meshing to ensure that they were not modeled as flooding zones.

2.2.2. Drainage system data

The drainage system data, provided by the Luoyang Drainage Management Bureau, contained geographic and geometric information on the pipes, manholes, rivers, and storage areas (e.g., holding ponds). Rainwater and wastewater in the study area are drained separately. The diameters of the pipes ranged from 0.5 to 2.00 m and the depths of the manholes ranged from 1.00 to 5.00 m. There are 5 rivers in the research region: the Yi, Luo, Chan, Jian and Ganshui rivers (Table 1). These rivers have been improved artificially a few years ago and most of their cross-sections are now rectangular. Thus, the rivers were set as rectangular open channels in the model. There are eight artificial lakes on study area, which were set as storage nodes in the model. Consequently, 3610 pipes and open channels, 4792 manholes, 161 outfalls, and eight storages were included in the model (Fig. 2).

Table.1 is here

2.2.3. Rainstorm data

Two recorded historical rainstorms, Storm 1 and Storm 2 (Fig. 3), were used to calibrate and evaluation the coupled model. These two rainstorms occurred on August 4, 2019 and August 6, 2019, respectively. The rainstorm data were obtained from the China Meteorological Data Service Center (http://cdc.nmic.cn/home.do). Storm 1 started at 1:40 and ended at 23:10 on August 4, 2019. It is a unimodal rainstorm, the first rainfall peak occurred at 3:10 with an intensity of 16.5 mm/h and the second rainfall peak occurred at 17:30 with an intensity of 5.5 mm/h. Storm 2 started at 7:40 and ended at 23:50 lasted about 22h on August 6, 2019 with the maximum intensity of 24.0 mm/h occurred at 12:20. Fig. 3 shows the hydrographs of the storms. Although these two rainstorms are both equivalent to less than 1a return period rainstorm based only on the rainstorm peak intensity, the durations and rainfall totals of historical rainstorms exceed those of design rainstorms. Thus, it is very likely that both rainstorms would cause severe inundation. In fact, according to a news report, Storm 1 caused severe inundation in many streets, including Kaiyuan Road, Houde Road, Jiudu Road, and Anju Road, with an average inundation depth of 0.5 m, resulting in traffic disruption and severe economic losses.

Fig. 3 is here

In addition, three patterns of rainstorms, with return periods of 1a, 2a, 5a, 10a, 20a, 50a, and 100a (Fig. 4), were used as model inputs to study the inundation response. According to the Bureau of Municipal and Rural Construction, the rainfall intensity on Luoyang city can be summarized using Eq. (1). The Chicago approach (Cheng, Qin, Fu, & He, 2020) was used to redistribute the rainfall amounts before and after the peaks. The main difference among the four rainstorm patterns is the position of the rainfall duration, the rainfall duration was set to 60min, 120min, 360min, and 720min (Fig.4). We named these four rainstorms (Fig.4) as Pattern 1, Pattern 2, Pattern 3, and Pattern 4.

$$q = \frac{3336\left(1 + 0.872\,LgP\right)}{\left(t + 14.8\right)^{0.884}} \qquad (1)$$

where q is the rainfall intensity, *mm/hr*; P is the return period of rainstorms, *yr*; t is the rainstorm duration, *min*.

Fig. 4 is here

2.3 1D-2D Couples model

We simultaneously simulated the flow dynamics in sewer networks, rivers, and on overland surfaces by coupling MIKE 11, MIKE 21 and MIKE Urban models. The three models were executed individually at every single time step, and then connected through appropriate linkages to exchange information obtained at suitable locations at the end of every time step (Bruni, Reinoso, van de Giesen, Clemens, & ten Veldhuis, 2015).

In general, flow exchange occurs at the connection between the surface flows and pipe or river flows. Thus, three types of linkages, including vertical, lateral, and longitudinal linkages, were implemented and studied here. The relationships between these three models and the three linkages are presented in Fig. 5.

Note that MIKE Urban is not the best tool for river network modeling. There are key differences between river network models and MIKE Urban (W. Chen, G. Huang, H. Zhang, & W. Wang, 2018). In generally, models divide the entire river into subsections. The river network models, which are more suitable for river network modeling than MIKE Urban, set river cross-sections as gradually varying in each subsection. However, MIKE Urban assumes that each subsection has a fixed cross profile (Bruni et al., 2015). This assumption in MIKE Urban is not generally suitable for a natural river, but it is suitable for urban rivers with similar cross profiles. Therefore, the shortcomings of MIKE Urban for river network modeling have a negligible effect on this study. If a third river network model were chosen to handle river network modeling in the coupled model; the coupled model would be more complicated and a great deal of additional work would be needed. Moreover, MIKE Urban can handle various hydraulic structures, such as pumps, orifices, and water gates, which is commonly encountered in urban sewer pipes and rivers. Thus, MIKE Urban was chosen for the network modeling in the coupled model (Fan, Ao, Yu, Huang, & Li, 2017).

Fig. 5 is here

2.3.1. MIKE 11 model

Mike11 is a one-dimensional river and river network comprehensive simulation model (Bermudez, 2018). This research uses the hydrodynamic module of MIKE 11, which mainly uses the continuity equation of water flow and the equation of water flow motion, given the boundary conditions such as rainfall, soil type, river section and river channel roughness, and then the flow rate of the section is obtained through the equation Water level data information. The principle is to use the finite difference method for numerical solution (Indrawati, 2019).

The basic equations of the one-dimensional hydrodynamic model are as follows:

Water flow continuity equation:

$$B\frac{\partial Z}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial Q}{\partial s}=q \qquad (2)$$

Water flow equation:

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial t}+\frac{2Q}{A}\frac{\partial Q}{\partial s}+\left(gA-\frac{BQ_2}{A^2}\right)\frac{\partial Z}{\partial s}=B\frac{Q_2}{A_2}\left(i+\frac{1}{B}\frac{\partial A}{\partial s}\right)-g\frac{Q^2}{AC^2R} \qquad (3)$$

In the formula, q is the side flow, Q is the total flow, s is the distance coordinate, V is the average flow velocity of the section, h is the water depth, A is the area of the cross section, i is the canal bottom slope, and C is the Xie Cai coefficient. The one-dimensional (1D) model is discretized by the finite difference method, and the difference format is the 6-point center Abbott-Ionescu format. The chasing method is used to solve the discrete equation (Yu Yin, 2016).

2.3.2. MIKE 21 model

MIKE 21 is the most versatile two-dimensional water physical, chemical or biological process simulation tool to date (W. Chen et al., 2018). The HD-two-dimensional hydrodynamic module mainly used in this research: This module is used to simulate the changes in water level and water flow caused by various forces, including a wide range of hydraulic phenomena, and can be used for any two-dimensional with negligible stratification Simulation of free surface flow. Its mathematical principles are mainly continuous equations and momentum equations (Bermudez et al., 2018).

The basic principles of the two-dimensional hydrodynamic calculation model are as follows:

Continuous equation:

$$\frac{\partial Z}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial Hu}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial Hv}{\partial y}=q \tag{4}$$

Momentum equation:

$$\frac{\partial Hu}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial H u^2}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial Hv}{\partial x}=-gH\frac{\partial Z}{\partial x}-g\frac{n^2\sqrt{u^2+v^2}}{H^{\frac{1}{3}}}u+\frac{\partial\left(v_T\frac{\partial Hu}{\partial x}\right)}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(V_T\frac{\partial Hu}{\partial y}\right)+\frac{\tau_{sx}}{\rho}+f_0Hv+qu_0$$

$$(5)$$

$$\frac{\partial Hu}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial H u^2}{\partial y}+\frac{\partial Huv}{\partial x}=-gH\frac{\partial Z}{\partial x}-g\frac{n^2\sqrt{u^2+v^2}}{H^{\frac{1}{3}}}V+\frac{\partial\left(v_T\frac{\partial Hv}{\partial x}\right)}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(V_T\frac{\partial Hv}{\partial y}\right)+\frac{\tau_{sy}}{\rho}+f_0Hu+qv_0$$

$$(6)$$

$$f_0=2\omega_0\sin\varphi \tag{7}$$

In the formula, q is the intensity of the source and sink per unit area; H is the water depth; Z is the water level; u and V are the components of the vertical average velocity in the x and y directions respectively; n is the roughness; g is the acceleration of gravity; V_T is the water flow. Turbulent diffusion coefficient; f_0 is the Coriolis force coefficient, ω_0 is the rotation angular velocity of the earth, ψ is the geographic latitude of the calculation area; ρ is the current density; u_0 and v_0 are the component of the average depth of the source and sink velocity in the x and y directions; τ_{sx} and τ_{sy} respectively represents the x and y directions Wind stress on the water surface. In the calculation process, the mathematical model can be appropriately simplified according to the actual situation to ignore the influence of wind stress and the Earth's Coriolis force (Jang, 2015).

The ADI line-by-line method is used to integrate the continuous and momentum equations of the two-dimensional model in time and space, and the discrete equations are solved by the catch-up method (W. Chen et al., 2018).

2.3.3. MIKE urban model

Drainage pipes or covered channels in cities are usually in the state of open channel flow (Wu et al., 2017). With the increase of rainfall intensity, the flow rate of the drainage pipe increases, and the water level in the pipe gradually rises above the top of the pipe, changing from a pressureless flow state to a pressure flow state (de Souza et al., 2018). With the weakening of the rainfall intensity, the flow rate in the pipe decreases, and the water surface of the pipe gradually drops below the top of the pipe, and a pressureless or open flow appears. The pressureless flow and the pressure flow alternately, from the pressureless open flow to the pressure full flow, and then from the pressure full flow to the pressureless open flow (Kim, Lee, Kim, & Song, 2018). Pressureless flow and pressure flow are two

completely different water flow states. The calculation principle of unpressured flow is the same-dimensional hydrodynamic model.

The calculation principle of pressurized drainage network is as follows:

Water flow continuity equation:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial t}+U\frac{\partial H}{\partial x}+\frac{c^2}{a}\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}+U\sin\varphi=¿0¿ \tag{8}$$

$$c=\sqrt{K/P}\sqrt{1+\frac{K}{F}\cdot\frac{D}{\delta}} \tag{9}$$

Water flow equation:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial t}+g\frac{\partial H}{\partial x}+U\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}+J=0 \tag{10}$$

$$J=g\frac{\lambda UU}{2D} \tag{11}$$

In the formula, H is the head of the piezometer; U is the flow velocity; g is the acceleration of gravity; c is the propagation velocity of the wave, K is the bulk wood modulus of the liquid, D is the pipe diameter, δ is the pipe wall thickness, and E is the spring modulus of the pipe. J is friction head loss, λ is the head loss coefficient along the way (J. Wang, Forman, & Davis, 2018).

2.4 Model evaluation Indicator Selection

2.4.1 Absolute Error

The absolute error (AE) is the absolute value of the difference between the measured value and the true value. Here it refers to the absolute value of the difference between the simulated water depth of the model and the actual measured water depth. The mathematical expression is as follows:

$$AE=¿|S_i-O_i\vee¿ \tag{12}$$

where S_i and O_i are the simulated and observed water depth at the i_{th} number (Hu, Liu, et al., 2020).

2.4.2 Relative Error

Relative error (RE) refers to the value obtained by multiplying the ratio of the absolute error caused by the measurement to the measured (conventional) true value by 100%, expressed as a percentage. Generally speaking, the relative error can better reflect the credibility of the measurement. It is mostly used in the evaluation of urban rain and flood models to indicate the credibility of the simulated value of flood peak discharge. It is described as follows:

$$\Re=\frac{S_i-O_i}{O_i}\times100\% \tag{13}$$

where S_i and O_i are the simulated and observed water depth at the i_{th} number (Hu, Liu, et al., 2020).

2.4.3 The Coefficient of Determination

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is often used to describe the degree of fit between data. When R^2 is closer to 1, it means that the reference value of the related equation is higher; on the contrary, when it is closer to 0, it means that the reference value is lower. It is described as follows:

$$R^2=\frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}(S_i-\overline{S})(O_i-\overline{O})\right]^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(S_i-\overline{S})^2(O_i-\overline{O})^2} \tag{14}$$

where n is the total number of measured data, S_i is the simulated water depth for data point i, O_i is the measured water depth for data point i, and is the averaged value of the measured water depth (Hu, Liu, et al., 2020).

2.4.4 Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency

The mathematical expressions of these metrics can be described as follows:

$$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Q_0 - Q_c)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Q_0 - \overline{Q_c})^2}$$

(15)

where Q_0 (m³/s) and Q_c (m³/s) represent the discharge of the observed and simulated hydrographs, respectively; $\overline{Q_0}$ is the mean value of the observed discharge, and n is the data points number. *NSE* measures the ability of the model to predict variables different from the mean, gives the proportion of the initial variance accounted for by the model, and ranges from 1 (perfect fit) to -∞. Values closer to 1 provide more accurate predictions (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970).

3. Result

3.1. Coupled model calibration and evaluation

Two recorded historical rainstorms, storms 1 and 2, were used to calibrate and validate the coupled model. Due to data limitations, the calibration and validation criteria mainly focused on surface inundation depths and extent (Indrawati et al., 2019). The traditional lumped hydrological model requires multiple flood process data to calibrate the model parameters to obtain the best model parameters on average (Hu, Zhang, Wu, Soomro, & Jian, 2020). However, the MIKE model is a distributed physical hydrological model. Due to its physical significance, theoretically, as long as the flood process used for parameter optimization is accurate and true, as long as a flood can select appropriate model parameters (Kim et al., 2018). This is where the advantages of distributed physical hydrology lie, and the past application experience of the MIKE model has also proved this point. In fact, when selecting the flood process for parameter optimization, there is no need to determine the basis, as long as the flood process data is reasonable and conforms to the law of flow generation and convergence, and there is no requirement for single-peak or double-peak flood process. From the results of this article and the previous application of the MIKE model, the optimal model parameters for a flood can meet the accuracy requirements of different types of flood simulations (Bermudez et al., 2018).

Fig. 6 is here

Table.2 is here

Table.3 is here

The coupling model was calibrated and verified with the submerged water depths of 16 survey points in 2 historical storms and flood events. The average relative error of the calibration simulated water depth was 22.65%, and the average absolute error was 13.93cm; the average relative error of the verified simulated water depth was 15.27%, The average absolute error is 7.54cm.

Fig. 7 is here

We conducted a data analysis on the simulation results of two flood events. The R^2 of the simulated and measured water depths of the 16 water accumulation points in the calibration period was 0.7837, and the R^2 in the verification period was 0.9548. The overall simulation results during the calibration period are all within a reasonable range, but there is an abnormal value during the verification period. The water accumulation point is the No. water accumulation point. The measured water depth at this point is 1.20 meters, the simulated water depth is 0.85 meters, and the *AE* is 0.35 meters. But *RE* is 29.2%, which is also within a reasonable range.

For the reliability of the results, this study verified the simulated flow of the river network model. The results are shown in Figure 8.

Fig. 8 is here

After simulation calculations, the *NSE* during the simulation calibration period for Baimasi Station and Longmen Station in 20190804 were 0.79 and 0.94, respectively; the *NSE* during the simulation verification period for Baimasi Station and Longmen Station in 20190806 were 0.96 and 0.91 respectively; therefore, the model simulation results are considered to be good.

3.2. Inundation result under four different rainstorm patterns

To explore the relationship between the amount of urban flood inundation on the amount of rainfall and the duration of rainfall, we designed the return periods of 1a, 2a, 5a, 10a, 20a, 50a, 100a, and the rainfall duration of 60min, 120min, 360min, 720min. 28 rainstorms were simulated and calculated by storm-inundation. The spatiotemporal results are presented in Sections 3.2.1–3.2.3. From the results of flooding locations, the flooded area of densely constructed central urban areas is larger than that of suburban areas. The greater the amount of rainfall during the event, the greater the submerged area and water depth (Li, Liu, Huisingh, Wang, & Wang, 2017). This explains the frequent occurrence of flooding disasters when the city encounters rainfall. This poses a serious hazard to the safety of urban traffic, pedestrians and vehicles. Therefore, effectively simulating the degree of inundation by heavy rains and floods in urban areas has important practical significance for urban flood control and disaster reduction and traffic emergency management, and can provide important scientific and technological support for solving urban waterlogging problems (Djordjevic, Prodanovic, Maksimovic, Ivetic, & Savic, 2005).

Fig. 9 is here

Fig. 10 is here

Fig. 11 is here

Fig. 12 is here

3.2.1 Total inundation volumes

We know that the maximum amount of inundated water is an important indicator to measure urban flood disasters. Generally speaking, the greater the maximum amount of inundated water, the more serious the urban flooding.

Table 4 presents the peak inundation volumes in each rainstorm, which ranged from 1804911.66 m^3 to24064675.2 m^3, 2091859.56 m^3 to 31751228.07 m^3, 3943031.4 m^3 to 44463856.5 m^3, and 3875545.08 m^3 to 54559375.68 m^3 for patterns 1, 2, 3, and 4. The 28 rainfall scenarios set will all be flooded, and the amount of flooded water shows a trend of increasing with the increase of rainfall duration and return period. respectively. under the condition that the return period is 1 to 2 years, inundation will also occur, which shows that the urban drainage capacity is insufficient, which is also one of the direct causes of urban waterlogging. (Fig.13)

Table.4 is here

3.2.2 Inundation positions and depths

Cities, especially central cities, have concentrated dense buildings and populations. Once urban flooding occurs, it will cause inevitable losses. Therefore, it is particularly important to simulate the spatial distribution of urban inundation scenarios.

Spatial distribution of inundation. Fig. 9-12 shows the spatial distributions of inundation under different design scenarios. Different rainstorm patterns produce different inundation volumes. Fig. 9-12 highlights the differences in inundation volumes, inundation extent, and spatial distributions. Extensive flooding was observed in all design scenarios. There are, however, some differences between them. Even during the same return period, there were considerable differences in the inundation extent between different rain duration. The inundation extents of Pattern 1 were significantly lower than those of the other three rainstorm patterns, which is consistent with the typical pattern of inundation volumes. The inundation extents of Pattern 2 were close to those of Pattern 3, and Pattern 3 were close to those of Pattern 4. (Fig.13)

Table 5 presents the average submerged depth in each rainstorm, which ranged from 0.1242 m to 1.0040 m, 0.1246 m to 1.2123 m, 0.1635 m to 1.2425 m, and 0.1564 m to1.4817 m for patterns 1, 2, 3, and 4. The results show that the longer the rainfall duration, the greater the average submerged depth. The greater the rainfall return period, the greater the average submerged depth. This result is consistent with the amount of submerged water. (Fig.13)

Table.5 is here

3.2.3 Inundation area

After the occurrence of urban waterlogging, the submerged area is also one of the key indicators to measure its severity. Table 6 presents the inundation area in each rainstorm, which ranged from 14.5323 km^2 to 23.9688 km^2, 16.7886 km^2 to 26.1909 km^2, 24.1164 km^2 to 35.7858 km^2, and 24.7797 km^2 to36.8217 km^2 for patterns 1, 2, 3, and 4. Considering the spatial distribution (Fig.9-12), the flooding situation is more serious in densely constructed areas, and the flooding area is relatively large.

Table.6 is here

In this study, a torrential rain and waterlogging simulation calculation was carried out in the downtown area of Luoyang. We selected the submerged water depth, the number of submerged points, the submerged area and the submerged water volume for statistical analysis of the submerged situation (Fig.13). The study found that these four indicators are closely related to the rainfall return period and rainfall duration, and they all show a good linear relationship. The average correlation coefficient with the rainfall return period is 0.8776 (Fig.14), and the average correlation coefficient with the rainfall duration is 0.8131(Fig.15). Therefore, it is concluded that the decisive factor that determines the severity of urban inundation is rainfall, followed by rainfall duration.

Fig. 13 is here

Fig. 14 is here

Fig. 15 is here

4. Discussion

4.1 The rationality of coupling model construction

As we all know, a city is a region, not a closed watershed. Therefore, when considering the problem of inland river overflow and waterlogging, since the upstream and downstream of the river are considered as the boundary of the city, it is necessary to pay attention to whether the boundary condition input of the upper and lower rivers is in line with reality (Jamali et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2016). In this study, the urban inland river system is considered, the upstream uses the measured flow as input, and the downstream uses the measured flow as output. The flooding of the river is jointly determined by the beware of elevation and heavy rain. Secondly, the model constructed by this research adopts the two-by-two connection method for the coupling of the drainage network, river, and surface, which is in line with the actual situation. The MIKE model is a distributed hydrological model with full physical

meaning. Therefore, the parameter calibration only needs to adjust the time step to ensure that the model calculation results do not diverge (Gong et al., 2018). The measured water depth is compared with the simulated water depth to verify and achieve better accuracy. Therefore, the coupling model constructed in this study is reasonable (J. Wang et al., 2018).

All inland rivers in Luoyang have been artificially treated. The shape of the rivers is regular, and the bank slope protection is mostly a single building material. This also reduces the computational complexity of the model and indirectly improves the simulation accuracy.

4.2 Relationship between inundation volume and rainfall duration

In the previous conclusion part, it is concluded that the decisive factor affecting the severity of urban inundation is the amount of rainfall, the second is the rainfall duration. Therefore, we analyze the correlation between the rainfall and the rainfall duration of the 28 design rains, the two main factors affecting inundation and the amount of inundation.

As shown in Figure 16, there is no doubt that the greater the rainfall, the greater the amount of flooding. However, Figure 16 also shows a trend that the longer the rainfall duration, the greater the amount of inundation, which is consistent with the analysis in the conclusion part, but it is different from the common-sense conclusion that "short duration and heavy rainfall cause serious urban waterlogging disasters"(W. J. Chen, G. R. Huang, H. Zhang, & W. Q. Wang, 2018; Kim et al., 2018), even in contrast. We also conducted detailed and rigorous discussion and research on this. In the study, we designed 28 rainfall using the Chicago rain pattern and used it as the rainfall input of the coupling model. In order to avoid the complexity of the research results, we uniformly set the rain front coefficient to 0.4. That is to say, the proportion of the rain fronts of 28 rains is the same, which leads to the longer the rain lasts, the more prominent the rain peaks, and the more concentrated most of the rainfall of a rain. This leads to a trend that the longer the rainfall lasts, the greater the amount of flooding. In fact, this is not inconsistent with the common-sense conclusion mentioned earlier, and even indirectly confirms this conclusion.

Fig. 16 is here

4.3 Relationship between inundation volume and precipitation

Based on the research results, we have compared and analyzed the correlation between rainfall and inundation (Fig.17) and quantitatively described. Rainfall and inundation show a good secondary correlation, R^2 is 0.8672, which is helpful to the study of the relationship between urban waterlogging and rainfall threshold.

Fig. 17 is here

In this study, the two factors of rainfall and rainfall duration have been studied on the impact of urban flooding and inundation. There are still many shortcomings. The uncertainty of rainfall input is the largest source of simulation errors in the urban rain flood model. Rainfall alone includes rainfall, rainfall duration, rain peak location, input events, rainfall sources and other internal factors. This study only discusses Rainfall and rainfall duration are two main factors. The influence of other factors on the urban rainwater model needs further study. Multi-source rainfall input is a research approach. In the current information explosion era, big data technology uses big data to effectively crawl network data as the rainfall model input; this is a topic of intense interest in current urban hydrological research. How to transform unstructured data into structured data and use dense data to drive urban rain and flood models will be a focus of future research (Roland Lowe, Vezzaro, Mikkelsen, Grum, & Madsen, 2016).

5. Conclusion

This research puts forward the construction method of urban rain and flood model based on the complex underlying surface of the city, and explains the principle of urban waterlogging. Based on the one-dimensional-two-dimensional hydrodynamic method, the urban flood coupling model of surface overflow-pipe network overflow-river network overflow was successfully constructed and applied in examples. According to rainfall-inundation, we have systematically discussed the correlation between rainfall and rainfall duration on urban inundation. The main conclusions are as follows:

Based on the Mike series models, a coupled urban storm and flood model considering one-dimensional river channels, two-dimensional ground and underground pipe networks is constructed. Among them, Mike 11 is used to calculate the flood evolution and overflow inundation process of urban inland rivers; Mike Urban is used to build a simulated urban underground pipeline network flow calculation and rainwater well overflow inundation process; Mike 21 is used to simulate two-dimensional surface overflow of pipe networks and rivers Calculation. The above three models were coupled in Mike Flood, and the construction of a one-dimensional and two-dimensional coupled urban flood model and flood simulation were realized with the Luoyang city center as a pilot.

We selected the submerged water depths of 16 survey points in two historical storms and flood events to calibrate and verify the coupled model. The average relative error of simulated water depth during the calibration period was 22.65%, the average absolute error was 13.93cm, and R^2 was 0.7835; The average relative error of the simulated water depth during the verification period is 15.27%, the average absolute error is 7.54 cm, and R^2 is 0.9548. The simulation results are good.

We designed 28 rains with a return period of 1a, 2a, 5a, 10a, 20a, 50a, 100a, and a rainfall duration of 60min, 120min, 360min, 720min, to simulate and analyze the rainstorm inundation in the downtown area of Luoyang. The calculation results: under the same return period, the shorter the rainfall duration, the faster the formation of inundation, the longer the rainfall duration, the longer the inundation duration; the greater the return period, the longer the rainfall duration, and the greater the maximum flooding water volume. Corresponding submerged time, submerged water depth, and maximum submerged water volume in dense building areas. the R^2 of rainfall and urban rainstorm inundation is 0.8776, and the R^2 of rainfall duration and urban rainstorm inundation is 0.8141. Therefore, the influencing factor that determines the magnitude of inundation is rainfall, followed by rainfall duration.

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