Predicting Coastal Flooding in the Mediterranean with Remote Sensing and Machine Learning

- A data-driven approach to the identification of areas susceptible to coastal (and compound) flooding for the Italian region Liguria.
- Supervised binary classification \rightarrow models of varying levels of complexity and spatial aggregation.
- An insight into the use of Remote Sensing (optical and SAR) within the study is presented here.



Data and methods

Desired Output:

Each pixel classified as either flooded or not flooded in the event of a **medium probability** flooding event (RT = 100 yrs) (cf. Fig. 6).

Predictors:

- aspect
- curvature
- slope
- distance from coastline
- DEM
- DEM-derived indices: Overland Flow Distance (OFD) from channel network, its vertical (VOFD) and horizontal (HOFD) components, Vertical Distance to Channel (VDC)
- lithology
- land cover
- spectral indices: NDBI, NDVI, NDWI
- Topographic Position Index (TPI)
- Topographic Wetness Index (TWI)





Preliminary Results erformance metrics: RF models for individual UoA



Figures 3 (upper-left) and 4 (upper-right): Boxplots of model performance metrics for linear (left) and Random Forest (right) models trained on individual Units Of Analysis (cf. Fig. 1). Figure 5 (left): Boxplots of computational times for linear and RF models



ase map for both images: ESRI Satellite.

- EU Floods Directive flood risk maps.
- Several modelling methodologies (numerical/simplified) used within the study area.
- Binary rasters created from maps (cf. Fig. 2) (0 = no flood; 1 = flood).



computational times with known data on hydrodynamic models



Figure 6 (above): Model Outputs obtained with the Random Forest model for the Rapallo area. Different colours are used to identify true negatives (blue), true positives (red), false positives (light blue) and false negatives (orange) produced by the model. The flooded area (TP) is the same as shown in **Fig. 2.**

Camps-Valls, G., et al., eds. Deep learning for the Earth Sciences: A comprehensive approach to remote sensing, climate science and geosciences. John Wiley & Sons, (2021). Cian, F., et al. Normalized Difference Flood Index for rapid flood mapping: Taking advantage of EO big data. Remote Sensing of Environment, vol. 209, pp. 712-730 (2018). Clement, M.A., et al. Multi-temporal synthetic aperture radar flood mapping using change detection. J Flood Risk Management, 11: 152-168 (2018). Guo, Z., et al. Data-driven rapid flood prediction mapping with catchment generalizability. Journal of Hydrology, vol. 609, 127726 (2022). Hamidi, E., et al. Fast Flood Extent Monitoring With SAR Change Detection Using Google Earth Engine. IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing, vol. 61, pp. 1-19, 2023, Art no. 4201419. Hamidi, E., et al. Replication data for: Fast flood extent monitoring with SAR change detection using Google Earth engine, Harvard Dataverse, Jan. 2023.

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Storm Adrian ightarrow October 29-30th, 2018 empesta Vaia).

- Strong winds up to 120 km/h Wave heights up to
- 7-10 m

flooding in apallo and destruction

Available satellite data for flooding event on Oct. 29th, 2018 in Rapallo					
Sensor	Date (dd/mm/yyyy)	Status	Orbit-Polarisation	Resolution	
Sentinel-1B	21/08/2018	Before flood	Ascending/VH	10 m	
Sentinel-1A	22/08/2018	Before flood	Ascending/VH	10 m	
Sentinel-1A	27/08/2018	Before flood	Ascending/VH	10 m	
Sentinel-1B	01/11/2018	After flood	Ascending/VH	10 m	
Sentinel-1A	02/11/2018	After flood	Ascending/VH	10 m	
Sentinel-2A	19/10/2018	Before flood		20 m	
Sentinel-2B	03/11/2018	After flood		20 m	

Figure 7 (top): Damage suffered by the Carlo Riva port in Rapallo after the 29-30th October 2018 storm event. Picture by Parma1983 on Wikimedia Commons, licensed under CC-BY-SA-4.0. Figure 8 (bottom): Damage on the seafront in Rapallo after the 29-30th October 2018 storm event. Picture by Dapa19 on Wikimedia Commons, licensed under CC-BY-SA-4.0.

Option 1: flooded area extent retrieval from optical imagery



Figure 9: Optical (a,b) and SAR (c,d) satellite imagery, before (a,c) and after (b,d) the coastal flood event in Rapallo (Oct. 29th, (a): Sentinel-2 on Oct. 16th, 2018. (b): Sentinel-2 on Nov. 3rd, 2018. (c): Mean of the pre-event image stack backscatter coefficient (Sentinel-1). (d): Minimum of the post-event image stack backscatter coefficient (Sentinel-1). The Carlo Riva port is highlighted by an orange circle in (d).

Clouds in the post-event images \rightarrow ML-based image segmentation on Sentinel-2 imagery has excessive cloud cover over the area (cf. Nov. 3rd, 2018 in Fig. 10).

Option 2: flooded area extent retrieval from Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR)

Mateo-Garcia, G., et al. Towards global flood mapping onboard low cost satellites with machine learning. Sci Rep 11, 7249 (2021).

Portalés-Julià, E., *et al.* Global flood extent segmentation in optical satellite images. Sci Rep 13, 20316 (2023).

Three SAR change detection-based indices are considered.	$RI=rac{ min(\sigma_{0[AF]}) }{ mean(\sigma_{0[BF]})}$
Index thresholding for flood identification is area-dependent and can vary widely.	$egin{aligned} DII &= min(\sigma_{0[AF]}) - med \ NDFI &= rac{ mean(\sigma_{0[BF]}) - min }{ mean(\sigma_{0[BF]}) + min } \end{aligned}$
Validation by comparison with optical flood indices (e.g. MNDWI) not feasible in this case.	Note: $\sigma_{0[BF]}$ is the backscatter coeff. of SAR ima $\sigma_{0[AF]}$ is the backscatter coeff. of SAR ima

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Observed coastal flooding events in the area

Coastal Flooding on Oct. 29th, 2018 in Rapallo



Figure 10: Optical Imagery and corresponding flood extent segmentation for the Rapallo area obtained with the *ML4Floods* package.

 $an(\sigma_{0[BF]})$

 $n(\sigma_{0[AF]})|$ $n(\sigma_{0[AF]}|$

agery before flood agery after flood

flooded pixe RI based on RI threshold with k coeff at 0.1 intervals flooded pixs (21 tot.) based on DI thresholds min = 0.0 max = 2.0 flooded pixs NDFI based on thresholds



Figure 11: RII (a), DII (b) and NDFI (c) for the flood event analysed (Rapallo coastline is outlined in blue in all images, including the Carlo Riva port in the upper-right area). Images (d-e-f) highlight in red pixels considered as flooded based on the default 1.5 k coefficient for flood thresholding, while images (g-h-i) are based on the k-coefficient for flood thresholding optimised for maximum agreement among the three indices. The right-hand side of the image shows histograms of the distribution of the three indices considered across all pixels included in the image, with lines corresponding to default (grey, dashed) and optimised (black, continuous) thresholds for flood identification

Notes:

- explore other approaches
- flooded pixels too few to serve as ground truth

- Consider model uncertainty and explainability
- flood susceptibility locally?

performance improvements worth the increased complexity?

ean flood. *Remote sensing* 7.3, 3372-3399 (2015).

Vanakama, V. S. K., et al. Change detection based flood mapping using multi-temporal Earth Observation satellite images: 2018 flood event of Kerala, India. European Journal of Remote Sensing, vol. 54, no.1 pp 42-58 (2021). Woznicki, S. A., et al. Development of a spatially complete floodplain map of the conterminous United States using random forest. Science of The Total Environment vol. 647, pp. 942-953 (2019).



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SAR flood index thresholding

$Threshold = mean({ m SAR Index Image}) \pm k_f imes stdev({ m SAR Index Image})$

• permanent water mask \rightarrow some flooded pixels lost due to image resolution

Next Steps

2. Compare model performance: global VS local \rightarrow what are the relevant factors for

Compare model performance: less complex VS more complex models \rightarrow are





