

# Urban Floodwater Mapping From Aerial Imagery With Dense Shadows via Semi-Supervised Learning

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Workshop**

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# Outline

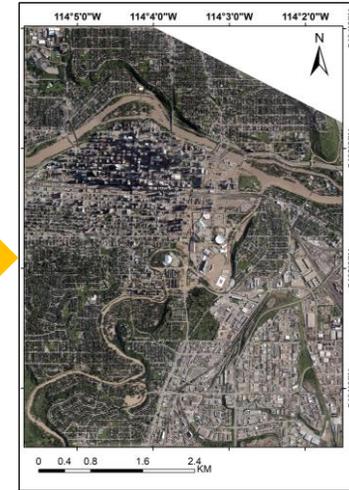
- **1. Background**
- **2. Research question**
- **3. Methodology**
- **4. Experiments and results**
- **5. Conclusions**

# 1. Background

- A growing number of flooding events with the increased intensity of climate change (Armenakis et al., 2017; Feng et al., 2015).
- More earth observation data available from various remotely sensed platforms (Ghaffarian et al., 2018).
- Floodwater mapping based on aerial imagery can offer timely information for emergency response and rescue operations in urban areas (Shen et al., 2019).



**Urban flood**



**Remote sensing Image**



**Flooding Map**



**Disaster Response**

# 1. Background

- **Floodwater mapping methods**



- **Spectral index methods**

e.g., floodwater index (FWI) (Zhang & Crawford, 2020).

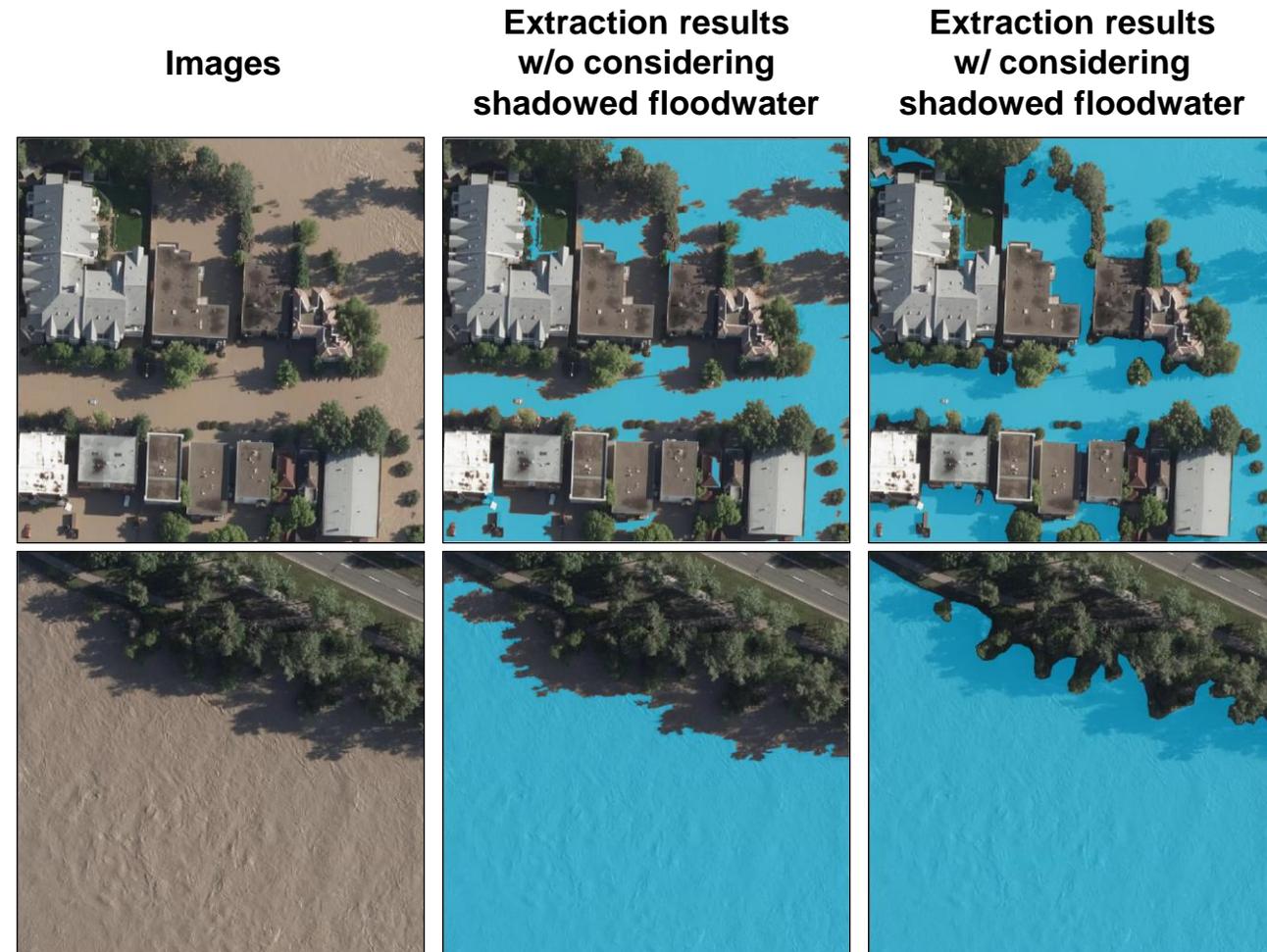
$$FWI = \frac{(B_r - B_b) + (B_r - B_g)}{100}$$

**Advantage**

Simple and fast deployment

**Disadvantage**

- (1) Need more processing steps, such as image segmentation, spectral analysis
- (2) Cannot extract the visible floodwater covered by shadows, which underestimates the flooding outcome in dense urban areas



# 1. Background

## ➤ Traditional machine learning

e.g., support vector machine, random forest, etc.

### Advantage

- (1) Only requiring a small number of training samples
- (2) Higher accuracy than spectral index method

### Disadvantage

- (1) Relying on manually designed features (e.g., spectrum, texture, and shape, etc.) with expert knowledge
- (2) Performance does not increase with training data size
- (3) Hard to design proper features to extract the floodwater in shadows

## ➤ Deep learning

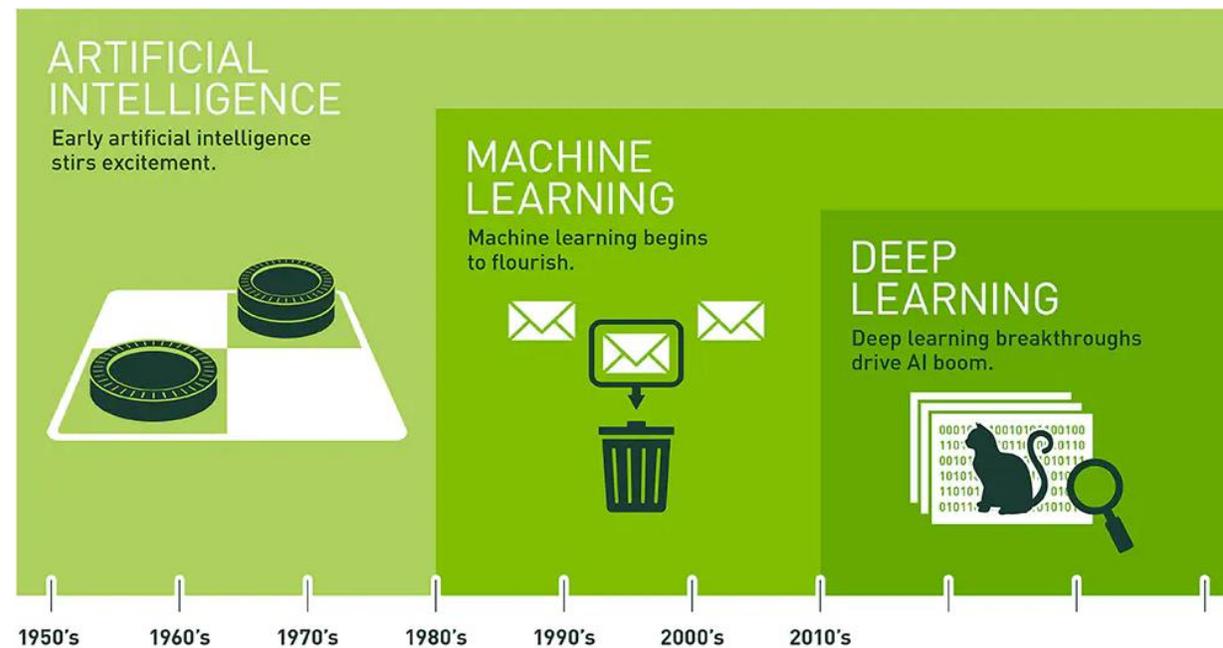
e.g., convolutional neural networks (CNNs), etc.

### Advantage

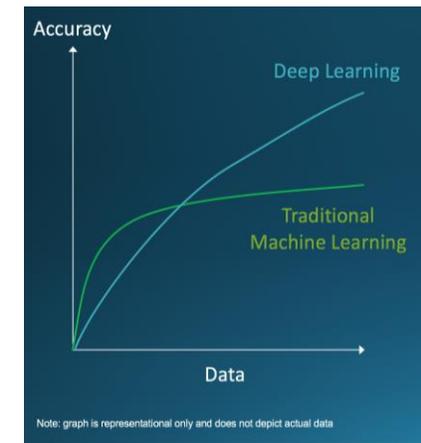
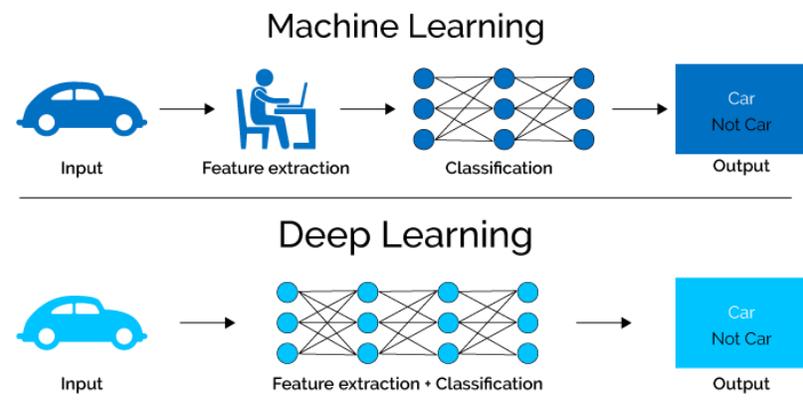
- (1) Automatic feature extraction
- (2) The more training data, the better performance

### Disadvantage

- (1) Requiring huge computing resources
- (2) Requiring a large amount of labeled training data



Since an early flush of optimism in the 1950s, smaller subsets of artificial intelligence – first machine learning, then deep learning, a subset of machine learning – have created ever larger disruptions.



## 2. Research question

- **Existing issues**

- (1) Spectral index and traditional machine learning methods cannot efficiently detect visible floodwater in shadows.
- (2) Deep learning methods perform better than traditional methods. However, It is time-consuming to create a mass of labels for model building.



- **Research question?**

How can we extract the floodwater (including shadowed and non-shadowed) from the aerial imagery base on deep learning algorithm with a limited number of labeled samples?



# 3. Methodology

- **Semi-supervised learning**

Incorporating **a small number of labeled data** and **a large amounts of unlabeled data** to determine a better decision boundary.



- **Consistency regularization** encourages the model to give consistent predictions for unlabeled inputs perturbed in different ways .
- **Loss function:**

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_S + \mathcal{L}_{Cons}$$

$\mathcal{L}_S$  denotes the supervised loss.

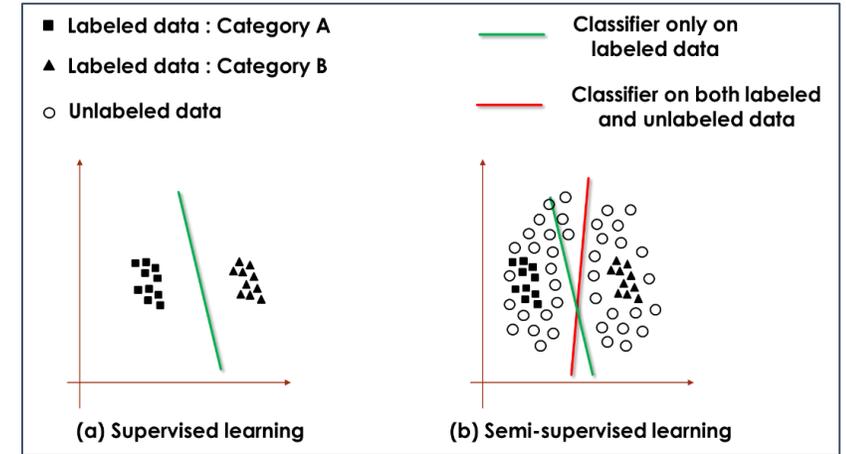
$\mathcal{L}_{Cons}$  denotes the consistency loss.

- **Why works?**

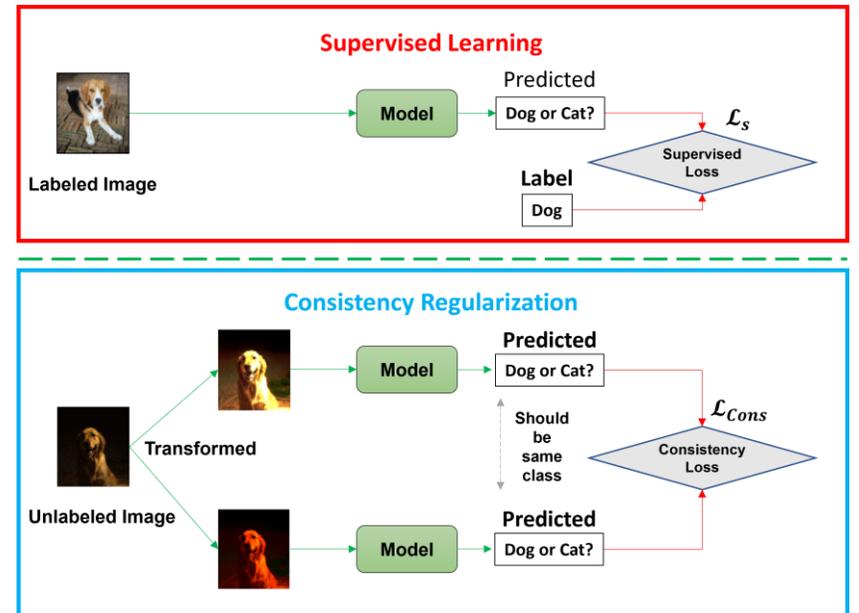
The use of large amounts of unlabeled data can **enlarge the training data distribution** and **help learn more hidden features** to improve the model generalizability.

- **Advantages**

A large number of unlabeled data can be utilized to improve the model performance when there are very few labels.

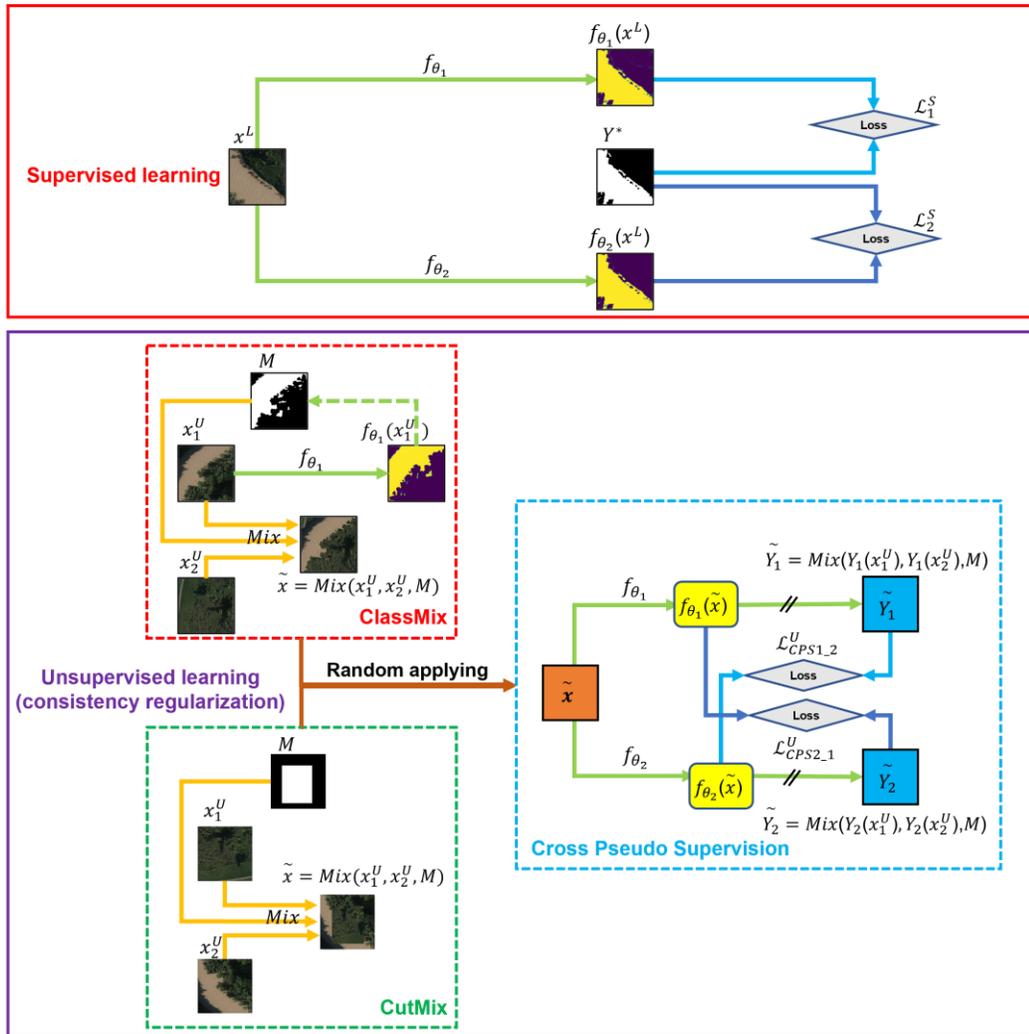


Semi-supervised Learning



# 3. Methodology

## Proposed semi-supervised framework



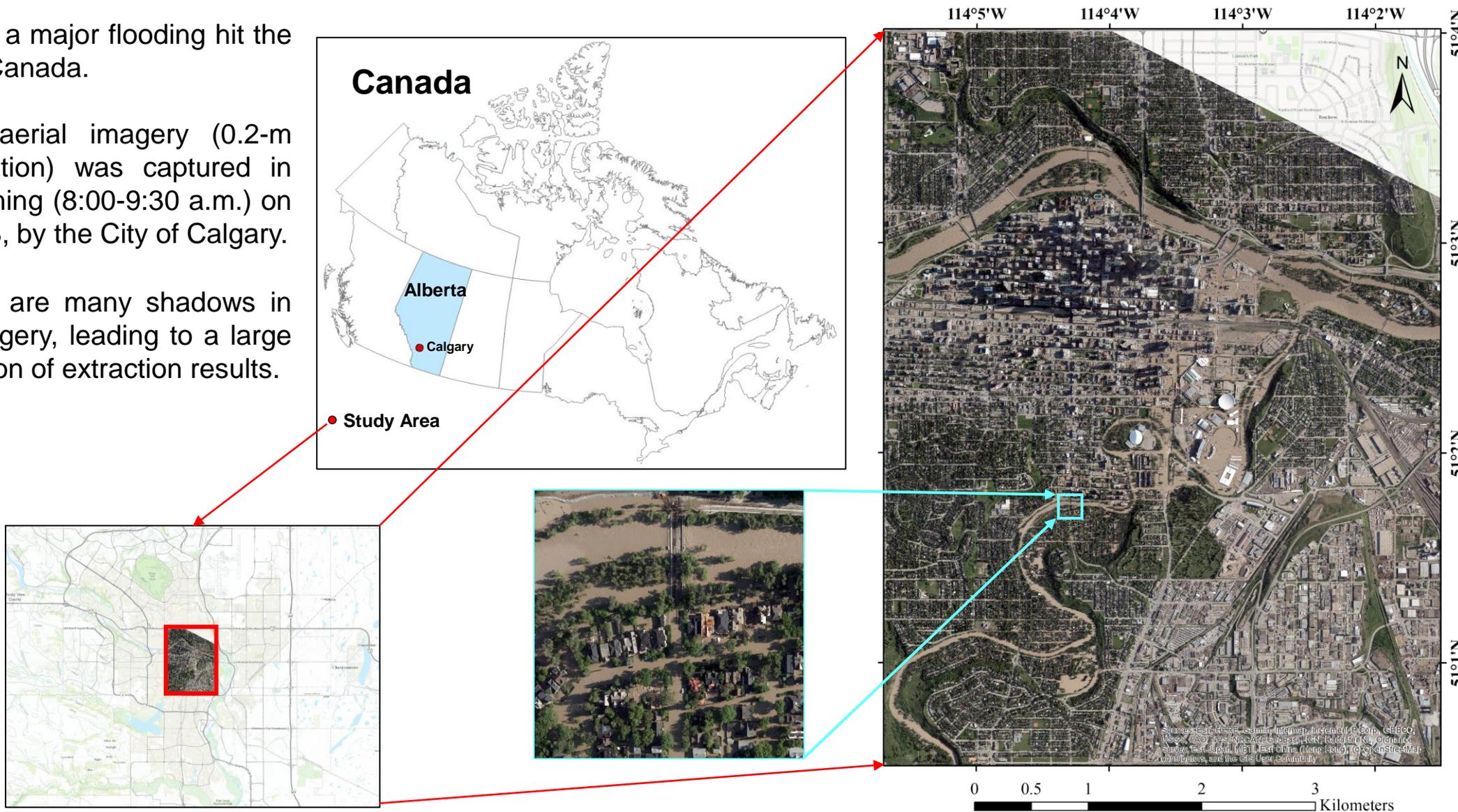
- $x^L, x^U$  denote the labeled and unlabeled image, respectively, while  $Y^*$  denotes the ground truth label;
- $f_{\theta_1}$  and  $f_{\theta_2}$  are two identical sub-models with different initialization parameters  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$ ;
- $f_{\theta_1}(x^L)$  means the probability map of inputting image  $x^L$  to the model  $f_{\theta_1}$ ;
- $Y_1(x_1^U)$  means the binarization map of inputting image  $x_1^U$  to the model  $f_{\theta_1}$ , with a threshold of 0.5 (if probability  $\geq 0.5$ , value = 1  $\rightarrow$  floodwater; otherwise, value = 0  $\rightarrow$  non-floodwater);
- $\tilde{x}$  is the mixed image based on the mask  $M$  generated based on CutMix or ClassMix strategy, while  $\tilde{Y}_1, \tilde{Y}_2$  denote the mixed binarization maps using two unlabeled images and the same mask  $M$ ;
- “//” signifies the stop-gradient.

Y. He, J. Wang, Y. Zhang, and C. Liao, “Enhancement of Urban Floodwater Mapping From Aerial Imagery With Dense Shadows via Semisupervised Learning,” *IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth Observations and Remote Sensing*, pp. 9086-9101, 2022, doi: 10.1109/JSTARS.2022.3215730.

# 4. Experiments and results

- **Study area**

- In June 2013, a major flooding hit the Calgary city, Canada.
- The optical aerial imagery (0.2-m spatial resolution) was captured in the early morning (8:00-9:30 a.m.) on June 22, 2013, by the City of Calgary.
- **Issue:** There are many shadows in the aerial imagery, leading to a large underestimation of extraction results.



# 4. Experiments and results

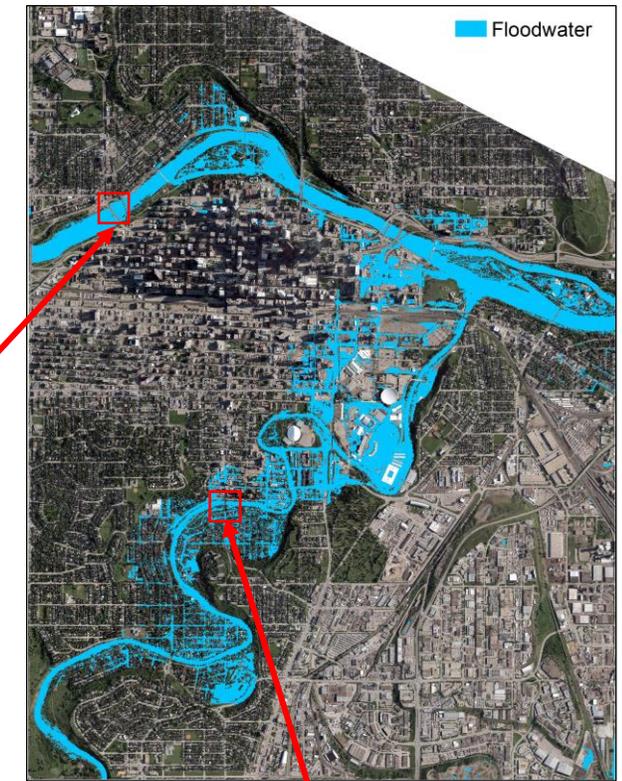
- **Data labeling**

- The top left figure is the split grids. The whole area was split into  $2048 \times 2048$ -pixel small patches for collaborative labeling.
- The top right figure is the final labeling results used as the ground truth data in the study.
- Removing some invalid patches, we finally obtained 182 labeled patches without overlap.

Split grids for labeling

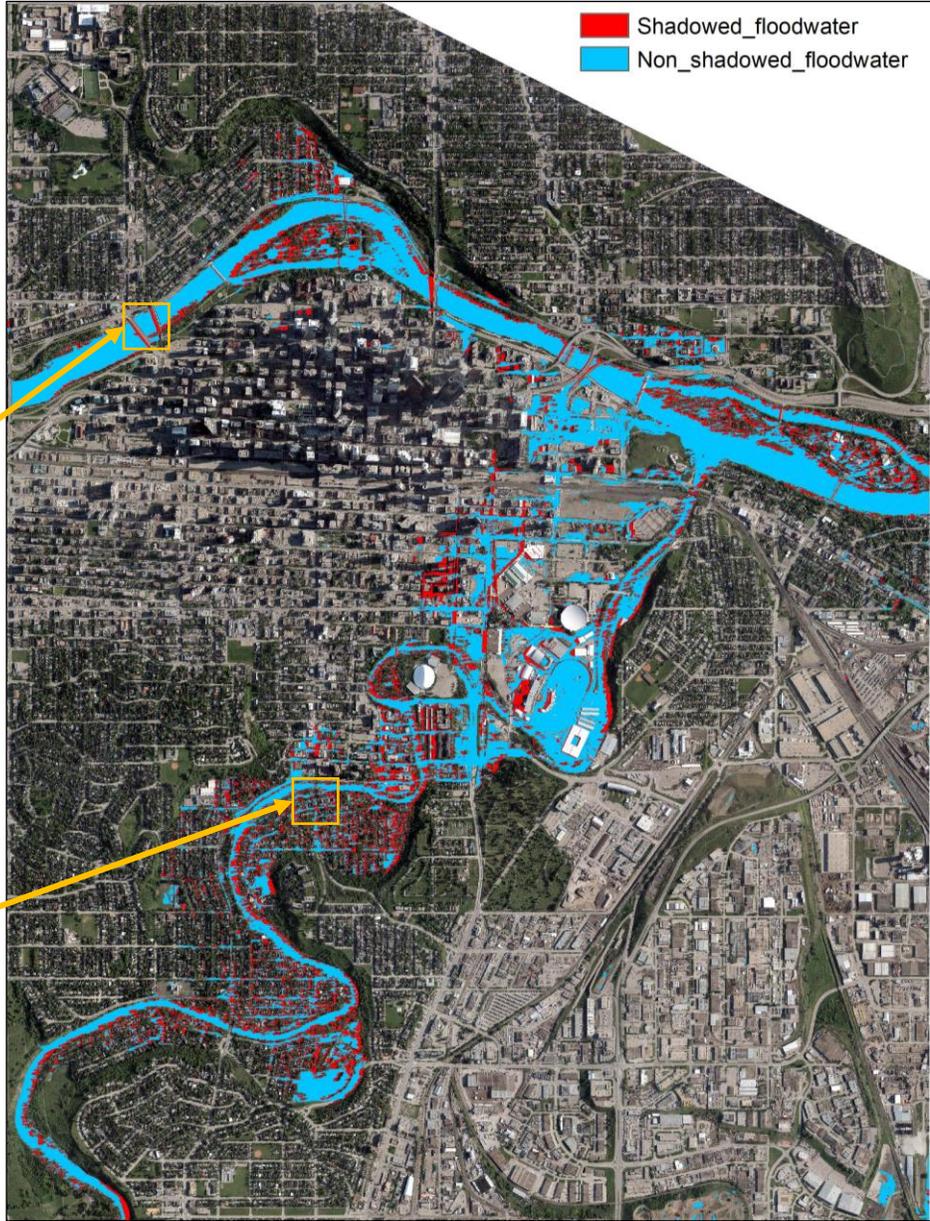
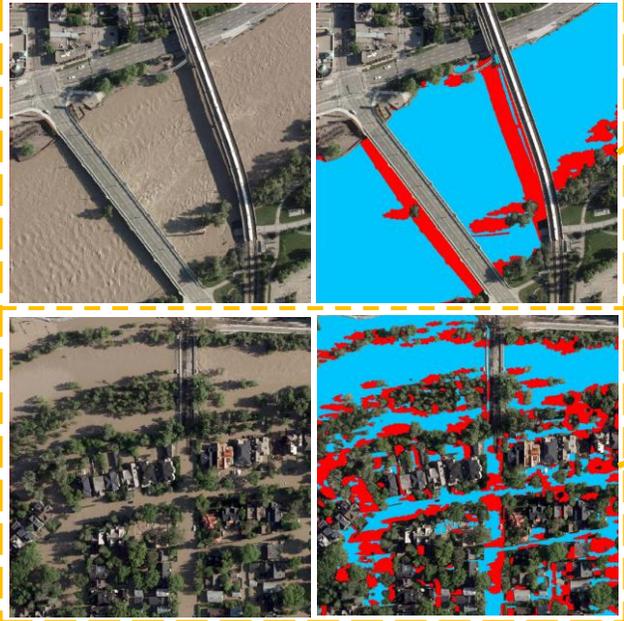
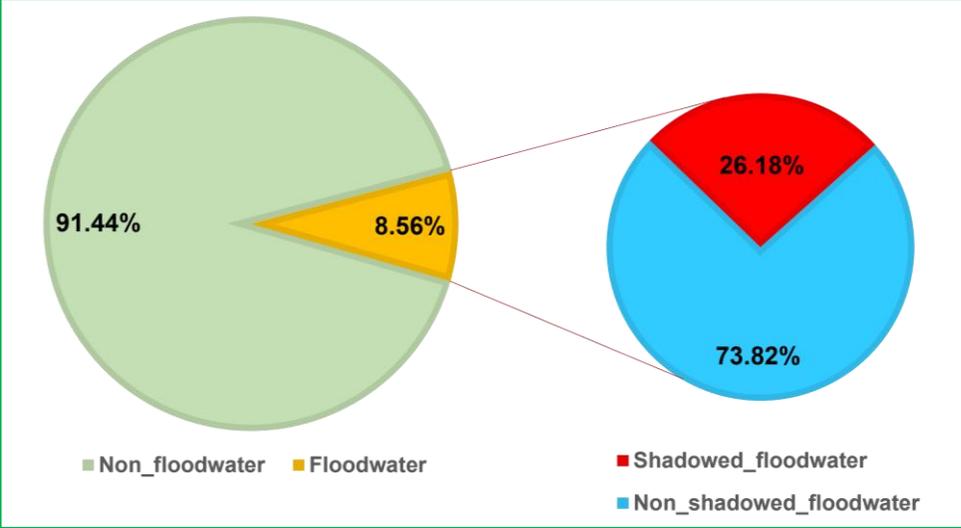


Ground truth



# 4. Experiments and results

- Influence of shadows



# 4. Experiments and results

- **Training sample selection**

- **Two representative sites**

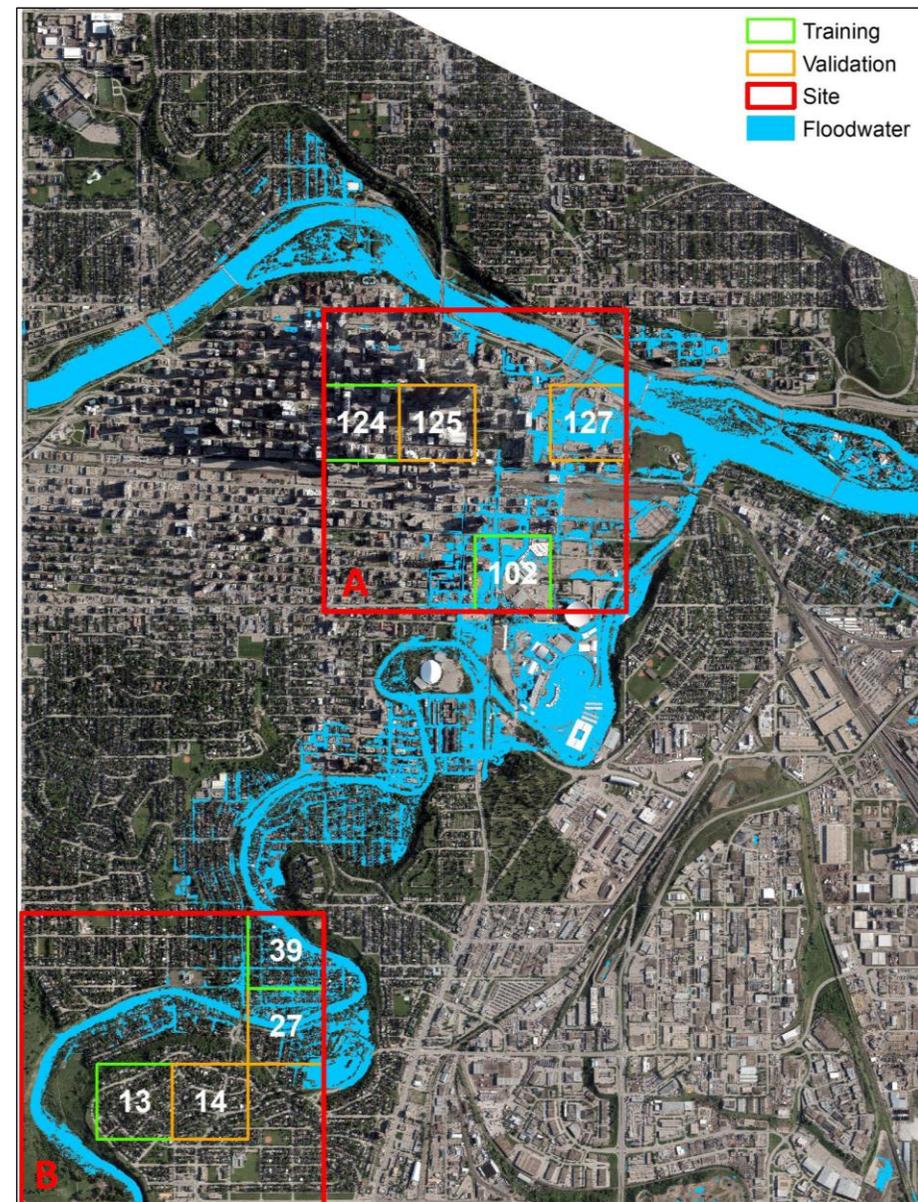
Site	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Land Use	Main Landscape
A	2.711	Central commercial area	Downtown center with high-rise buildings
B	2.681	Matured residential land	Matured residential area with single houses and trees

- **Training data split**

	Training Stage		Evaluation Stage
	Training	Validation	Testing
Number of image patches	4	4	174
Patch size	2048×2048	2048×2048	2048×2048

As shown in the right image:

- The training samples are chosen from two representative sites A, and B.
- In training stage, total **eight** 2048×2048-pixel patches are used for training (patch id: **13, 39, 102, 124**) and validation (patch id: **14, 27, 125, 127**).
- In evaluation stage, the remaining **174 patches** are used to evaluate the model performance.
- The training samples used in training stage only account for **4.47%** of the total data, the corresponding floodwater pixels account for **8.85%** of the total floodwater.



# 4. Experiments and results

- Qualitative comparison



Image



Floodwater index (FWI)  
(Zhang & Crawford, 2020)



Supervised learning (SL)



Semi-supervised learning (SSL)

FP is the incorrectly classified floodwater pixels

TP is the correctly classified floodwater pixels

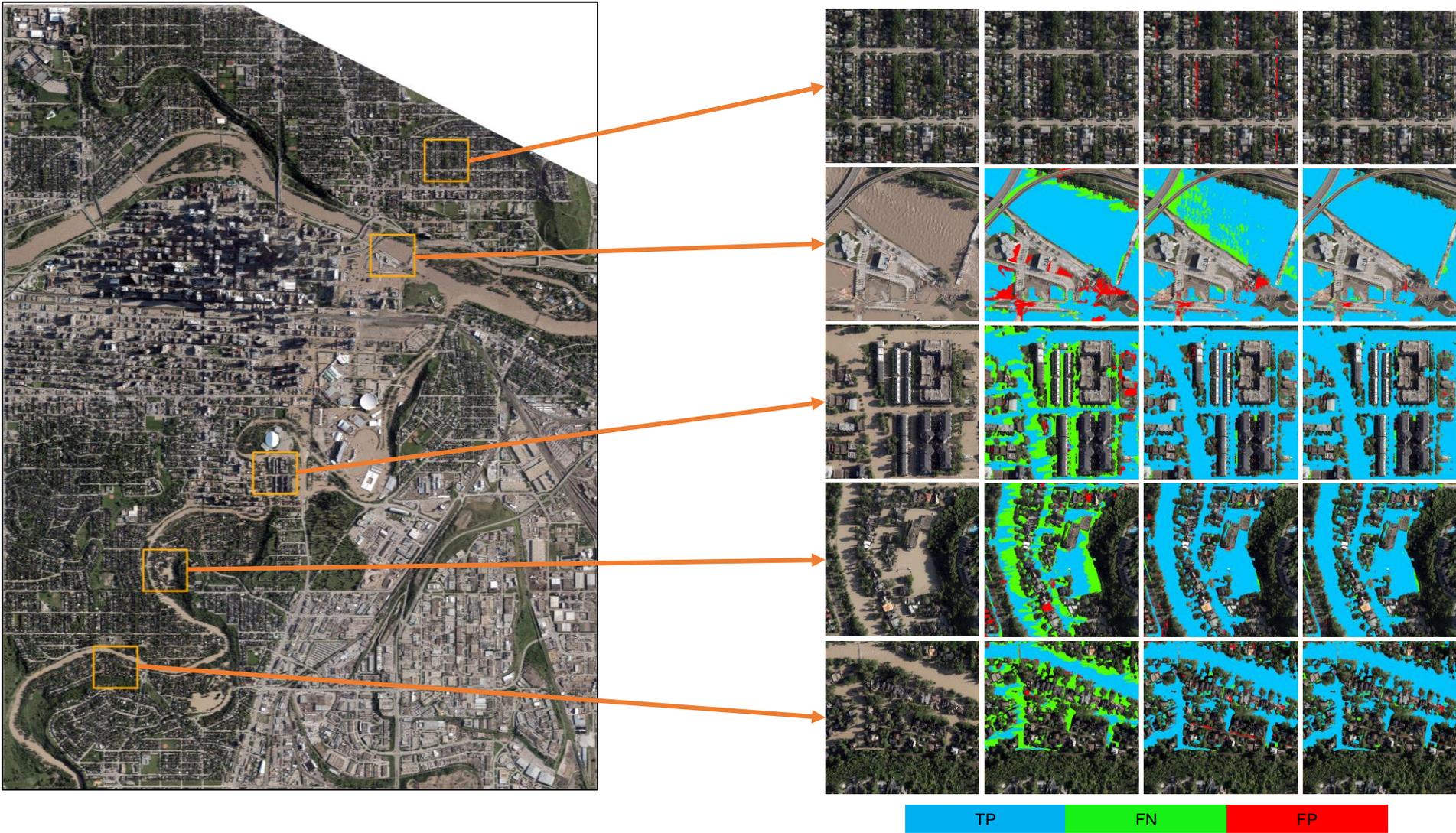
FN is the missing floodwater pixels

- Quantitative comparison

Method		Precision	Recall	F1	IoU
FWI		90.63%	68.37%	77.94%	63.86%
Deep learning	SL	94.47%	92.99%	93.72%	88.19%
	SSL	<b>97.38%</b>	<b>95.31%</b>	<b>96.34%</b>	<b>92.93%</b>

# 4. Experiments and results

- Enlarged examples



## 5. Conclusions

In this study:

- Shadow's influence cannot be ignored in floodwater detection from dense urban areas.
- Deep learning methods can achieve much better results than traditional spectral index method due to considering the floodwater in shadows, despite much more training samples are required.
- Semi-supervised learning method can yield a remarkable performance (over 96% F1-score) only using a limited number of labeled samples (4.47% of the total data).

Future work:

- Investigating the performance of proposed method on multi-source and multi-modal remote sensing data.
- Exploring how to reduce the training cost facing a large amount of unlabeled data.

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- [2] Q. Feng, J. Liu, and J. Gong, “Urban Flood Mapping Based on Unmanned Aerial Vehicle Remote Sensing and Random Forest Classifier—A Case of Yuyao, China,” *Water*, vol. 7, no. 4, Art. no. 4, Apr. 2015, doi: 10.3390/w7041437.
- [3] S. Ghaffarian, N. Kerle, and T. Filatova, “Remote Sensing-Based Proxies for Urban Disaster Risk Management and Resilience: A Review,” *Remote Sensing*, vol. 10, no. 11, p. 1760, Nov. 2018, doi: 10.3390/rs10111760.
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- [5] Y. Zhang and P. Crawford, “Automated Extraction of Visible Floodwater in Dense Urban Areas from RGB Aerial Photos,” *Remote Sensing*, vol. 12, no. 14, Art. no. 14, Jan. 2020, doi: 10.3390/rs12142198.
- [6] Y. He, J. Wang, Y. Zhang, and C. Liao, “Enhancement of Urban Floodwater Mapping From Aerial Imagery With Dense Shadows via Semisupervised Learning,” *IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth Observations and Remote Sensing*, vol. 15, pp. 9086–9101, 2022, doi: 10.1109/JSTARS.2022.3215730.

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