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# **Application of machine learning models for flood risk assessment and producing map to identify flood prone areas: literature review**

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## **Abstract**

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Floods as the most destructive natural disaster are highly complex to model. The research on the advancement of flood risk assessment models contributed to risk reduction, policy suggestion, reduction of the property damage and minimization of the loss of human life. During the past two decades, machine learning methods contributed highly in the advancement of modeling systems, providing better performance and cost-effective solutions. Researchers through introducing novel ML methods and hybridizing of them aim at discovering more accurate and efficient models. The main contribution of this literature review is to demonstrate the state of ML models from two perspectives; 1-flood risk assessment, 2- producing flood reliable map to give insight into the most suitable models. In this literature is shown the important ML models that can have impressive effect on flood models are Super Vector Mane, Decision Tree, Logistic Regression and Random Forest respectively. Hybridization different kind of ML methods, data fusion that is a prevalent way to deal with imperfect raw data for capturing reliable, ensemble algorithm and model optimization are reported as the most effective strategies for the improvement of ML methods. Random Forest models do well with high dimensional data and their flexibility makes them suitable for solving more problems. ANN models are especially good at modeling multifarious nonlinear networks that are difficult to describe with functions directly.

**Keywords:** Flood Risk Assessment (FRA); hydrologic model; ensemble Machine Learning; Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs); Support Vector Machine (SVM); natural hazards & disasters; Decision Tree (DT); Artificial Intelligence (AI).

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#### **1. Introduction**

Floods are the most frequent type of natural disaster and occur when an overflow of water submerges land that is usually dry. Floods are often caused by heavy rainfall, rapid snowmelt or a storm surge from a tropical cyclone or tsunami in coastal areas. Floods can cause widespread devastation, resulting in loss of life and damages to personal property and critical public health infrastructure. Between1998-2020, floods affected more than 2 billion people worldwide. People who live in floodplains or non-resistant buildings, or lack warning systems and awareness of flooding hazard, are most vulnerable to floods. [1]. Also the global warming and climate changes determined a considerable increase in the frequency of floods and their related damages. Therefore, the high accuracy identification of flood susceptible areas plays a key role in flood warnings and risk reduction. Early notification of flood incident could benefit the authorities and public to devise both short and long terms preventive measures, to prepare evacuation and rescue mission, and to relieve the flood victims. Geographical locations of affected areas and respective severities, for instances, are among the key determinants in most flood administration. Thus far, an effective means of anticipating flood in advance remains lacking. Existing tools were typically based on manually input and prepared data. The processes were tedious and thus prohibitive for real-time and early forecasts. Furthermore, these tools did not fully exploit more comprehensive information available in current big data platforms. Mapping floodprone areas is a key activity in flood disaster management. Governments, therefore, are under pressure to develop reliable and accurate maps of flood risk areas and further plan for sustainable flood risk management focusing on prevention, protection, and preparedness [1]. Flood

prediction models are of significant importance for hazard assessment and extreme event management. Robust and accurate flood risk assessment contribute highly to water recourse management strategies, policy suggestions and analysis, and further evacuation modeling [2]. Thus, the importance of advanced systems for flood assessment, producing flood reliable map are strongly emphasized to alleviate damage. However, the prediction of flood lead time and occurrence location is fundamentally complex due to the dynamic nature of climate condition. Therefore, today's major flood prediction models are mainly data-specific and involve various simplified assumptions [3]. Thus, to mimic the complex mathematical expressions of physical processes and basin behavior, such models benefit from specific techniques e.g., event-driven, empirical black box, lumped and distributed, stochastic, deterministic, continuous, and hybrids [4]. Physically based models [5] were long used to predict hydrological events, such as storm [6, 7], rainfall/runoff [8, 9], shallow water condition [10], hydraulic models of flow [11, 12], and further global circulation phenomena [13], including the coupled effects of atmosphere, ocean, and floods [14]. Although physical models showed great capabilities for assessment a diverse range of flooding scenarios, they often require various types of hydrogeomorphological monitoring data sets, requiring intensive computation, which highly complex to model [15]. Furthermore, as stated in Reference [16], the development of physically based models often requires in-depth knowledge and expertise regarding hydrological parameters, reported to be highly challenging. Moreover, numerous studies suggest that there is a gap in assessment capability of physical models [14]. Nevertheless, major improvements in physically based models of flood were recently reported through the

hybridization of models [17], as well as advanced flow simulations [18, 19]. In addition to numerical and physical models, data-driven models also have a long tradition in flood modeling, which recently gained more popularity. Data-driven methods of prediction assimilate the measured climate indices and hydrometeorological parameters to provide better insight. For instance, statistical models of autoregressive moving average (ARMA) [20], multiple linear regression (MLR) [21], and autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) [22] are the most common flood frequency analysis (FFA) methods for modeling flood prediction. FFA was among the early statistical methods for predicting floods [23]. Regional flood frequency analyses (RFFA) [24], more advanced versions, were reported to be more efficient when compared to physical models considering computation cost and generalization. Assuming floods as stochastic processes, they can be predicted using certain probability distributions from historical streamflow data [25]. explained: Hydrological model is an essential tool to help build the linkage between weather information and river runoff. Previously, a wide range of hydrological models have been developed, and most of them describe the rainfall-runoff transformation processes based on physical theory. From the previous studies, it is found that flood's models normally computationally intensive and physically-based hydrological modeling has strict requirement on input data. This poses significant challenges for developing countries where relatively limited resources and data are available. The statistical and/or data-driven tools, which are computationally cheaper and efficient, have gained their popularity in the past decades in the fields of either producing flood reliable map, flood risk assessment

or hydrological modeling. The data-driven approaches, like Artificial Neural Network (ANN) and support vector machine (SVM) and decision tree (DT) are found to be effective in improving flood risk assessment especially producing flood reliable map. [26, 27, 28]. In hydrological modeling field, applications of ANN can be found in [29].

According to this document, the flood risk management should be based primarily on the detection of areas prone to flood occurrence. At the same time, the assessment of flood susceptibility is also the most important non-structural measure adopted to reduce the material damage and the loss of human lives generated by these natural hazards.

The use of the latest Geographic Information System technologies allows a fast evaluation of flood susceptibility for a given area. The accuracy of GIS processing is determined in a decisive way by the accuracy of input data, and also by GIS techniques combination with the machine learning and statistical algorithms. Recently, there has been an exponential increase in the number of papers regarding the identification and mapping of flood-prone areas by using the combination between GIS techniques and some models specific to bivariate statistics or machine learning. The Statistical Index, Weights of Evidence and Frequency Ratio are three of the most popular bivariate statistics models used to evaluate the flood susceptibility [30].

The main limitation of the bivariate statistical models is that they take into account only the spatial relationship between the flood locations and conditioning factors, while the relationship between the predictors themselves is not considered [30]. The most commonly used machine learning models for detecting the surfaces prone to flood phenomena are: support vector machine, decision trees

algorithms, artificial neural networks [30, 31]. and adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system. The main advantages of machine learning algorithms reside in their high automation degree, and also, in the easy identification of trends and patterns within a dataset. Also, the machine learning methods can run with multi-variety and with multi-dimensional data. Even if the machine learning algorithms are algorithms are considered advanced techniques, however, there are also some disadvantages that characterize these models. The large volume of data that should be used to train the models and the high errorsusceptibility are two of the drawbacks most discussed in the literature.

Taking all the above mentioned into account, it can be concluded that ML method as powerful method that can has impressive effect to advance flood risk assessment and producing flood reliable map. Hence, in this literature review try to present comprehensive overview in latest advancement of FRA by ML methods. The main structure of this survey are as follows:

## **2. Method and Outline**

This survey describes the state of the art of ML methods for flood risk assessment and producing map to identify flood prone areas where peer-reviewed articles in top-level subject fields are reviewed. Among the articles identified, through search queries using the search strategy, those including the performance evaluation and comparison of ML methods were given priority to be included in the review to identify the ML methods that perform better in particular applications. Furthermore, to choose an article, four types of quality measure for each article were considered, i.e., source normalized impact per paper (SNIP), CiteScore, SCImago journal rank (SJR), and h-index. The papers were reviewed in terms of type of data (conventional and less conventional data as flood resource variables), ML methods, type of ML methods (single and combined methods) and obtained results.

The applications in flood risk assessment can be classified according to type of data, conventional data such as flood inventory map, flood conditions factors (altitude, aspect, slope, curvature, stream power index, topographic wetness index, sediment transport index, topographic roughness index, distance from river, geology, soil, surface runoff, and land use/cover (LULC)), topographic data and rainfall data and less conventional data such as remote sensing data, survey from public, community mapping drainage data and data from social media. Among these key influencing flood resource variables, rainfall and the spatial examination of the hydrologic cycle had the most remarkable role in runoff and flood modeling [32]. The methodology of this literature review aims to include the most effective flood resource variables in the search queries. A combination of these flood resource variables and ML methods was used to implement the complete list of search queries. Note that the ML methods for flood risk assessment may vary significantly according to the application, dataset, and type of ML methods. For instance, ML methods used for flood risk assessment are significantly different from those used prediction. Figure 1 represents the organization of the search queries and further describes the survey search methodology. The search query included three main search terms. The flood resource variables were considered as term 1 of the search (<Flood resource variable1-n>), which included 25 keywords for search queries mentioned above. Term 2 of search (<ML method1-m>) included the ML algorithms. The collection of the references [15,22,24,33,34,35,36] provides a complete list of ML methods, from which the 25 most popular algorithms

in engineering applications were used as the keywords of this search. Term 3 included the four search terms most often used in describing flood risk assessment, i.e., "assessment", "management", "forecast", or "analysis". The total search resulted in 483 articles. Among them, 110 original research papers were refined through our quality measure included in the survey.

Section 3 presents the state of the art of ML in flood risk assessment. A technical description on theML method and a brief background in flood applications are provided. Section 4 Section 5 presents.

#### **3. State of the Art of ML Methods in Flood Risk Assessment**

For creating the ML assessment, the historical records of flood events, in addition to real-time cumulative data of a number of rain gauges or other sensing devices for various return periods, are often used. The sources of the dataset are traditionally rainfall, Flood inventory map, Topographic data, geological characteristics, soil characteristics, Hydrological data and water level, measured either by ground rain gauges, or relativelynewremote-sensingtechnologies such as satellites, multi sensor systems, and/orradars[37].

Nevertheless, remote sensing is an attractive tool for capturing higher-

 $T<sub>1</sub>$  $T<sub>2</sub>$  $T<sub>3</sub>$  $<$ V<sub>1</sub>> OR  $<$ V<sub>n</sub>>  $|ML_1|$ > OR  $|ML_n|$ >  $<$ C<sub>1</sub>> OR  $<$ C<sub>n</sub>> AND AND  $Q_{1-n}$ 

**Figure 1.** Flowchart of the search queries.

resolution data in real time. In addition, the high resolution of weather radar observations often provides a more reliable dataset compared to rain gauges [37]. Thus, building assessment model based on a radar rainfall dataset, community mapping drainage data social media-tweeter was reported to provide higher accuracy in general [38]. Whether using a radar-based dataset or ground gauges to create an assessment model, the historical dataset values is divided into individual sets to construct and evaluate the learning models. To do so, the individual sets of data undergo training, validation, verification, and testing. The principle behind the ML modeling workflow and the strategy for flood modeling are described in detail in the literature [39,40]. Figure [2](#page-5-0) represents the basic flow for building an ML model. The major ML algorithms applied to flood assessment include Decision Tree (DT) [41, 42, 28], support vector machines (SVM) [41, 43, 27], Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) [44, 45, 46], Random Forest (RF) [47, 48, 49], Logistic Regression (LR) [50, 51], Frequency Ratio (FR) [52,46] In the following subsections, a brief description and background of these fundamental ML algorithms are presented.



<span id="page-5-0"></span>**Figure 2.** Basic flow for building the machine learning (ML) model.

#### **4. Machine learning models**

The most five applicable machine learning algorithms to assess flood and produce map for identifying flood prone areas are as follows:

#### **4.1. Decision Tree (DT)**

The ML method of DT is one of the contributors in flood modeling with a wide application in flood simulation. DT is broadly used in classification and modeling. It has hierarchical structure that group the conditioning factors into the homogeneous classes with different susceptibility levels. There is no need for any strict assumptions about the distribution of data in order to perform DT. Furthermore, all the data formats can be used in its analysis such as scale, nominal and etc. DT is selected for comparison with ensemble method as it is one of the robust machine learning methods and its procedure is much easier to be understood compared to other methods like ANN. DT has tree structure which is constructed by a root node, a set of internal nodes, and a set of terminal nodes [50]. The conditioning factors that have significant

influence on flooding will be used in the processing, while the others will be rejected by the program. DT can be implemented using various ways such as chi squared automatic interaction detection (CHAID), Exhaustive CHAID, classification and regression trees, Quick, Unbiased, Efficient Statistic Tree and etc. DT uses a tree of decisions from branches to the target values of leaves. In classification trees (CT), the final variables in a DT contain a discrete set of values where leaves represent class labels and branches represent conjunctions of featureslabels. Whenthetarget variablein a DT has continuous values and an ensemble of trees is involved, it is called a regression tree (RT) [53]. Regression and classification trees share some similarities and differences. As DTs are classified as fast algorithms, they became very popular in ensemble forms to model and predict floods [26]. The classification and regression tree (CART) [54,55], which is a popular type of DT used in ML, was successfully applied to flood modeling; however, its applicability to flood prediction is yet to be fully investigated [56].

Random forest: A classification and regression technique based on assembling a large number of decision trees. Specifically, it is an ensemble of trees constructed from a training dataset and internally validated to obtain a dependent variable by given independent variables. Two powerful advantages of machine learning techniques are used in RF: bagging and random feature selection. For bagging, each tree is trained on a bootstrap sample of the training data, and predictions are made by a majority vote of trees. Further, the model randomly selects a subspace of feature predictions to split at each node when growing a tree [57]. It is known as popular DT method for flood modeling [47]. RF includes a number of tree predictors. Each individual tree creates a set of response predictor values

associated with a set of independent values. Furthermore, an ensemble of these trees selects the best choice of classes [58]. Reference [59] introduced RF as an effective alternative to SVM, which often delivers higher performance in flood prediction modeling. [60] compared the performances of ANN, SVM, and RF in general applications to floods, whereby RF delivered the best performance. Another major DT is the M5 decision-tree algorithm [61]. M5 constructs a DT by splitting the decision space and single attributes, thereby decreasing the variance of the final variable. Further DT algorithms popular in flood risk assessment include reducederror pruning trees (REPTs), Naïve Bayes trees (NBTs), chi-squared automatic interaction detectors (CHAIDs), logistic model trees (LMTs), alternating decision trees (ADTs), and exhaustive CHAIDs (E-CHAIDs). Random forest is a [supervised](https://builtin.com/data-science/supervised-learning-python)  [learning algorithm.](https://builtin.com/data-science/supervised-learning-python) The "forest" it builds, is an ensemble of decision trees, usually trained with the "bagging" method. The general idea of the bagging method is that a combination of learning models increases the overall result.

**Put simply:** random forest builds multiple decision trees and merges them together to get a more accurate and stable prediction. One big advantage of random forest is that it can be used for both classification and regression problems, which form the majority of current machine learning systems. Let's look at random forest in classification, since classification is sometimes considered the building block of machine learning. Random forest has nearly the same hyper parameters as a decision tree or a bagging classifier. Fortunately, there's no need to combine a decision tree with a bagging classifier because you can easily use the classifierclass of random forest. With random forest, you can also deal with regression tasks by using the algorithm's regression.

Random forest adds additional randomness to the model, while growing the trees. Instead of searching for the most important feature while splitting a node, it searches for the best feature among a random subset of features. This results in a wide diversity that generally results in a better model. Therefore, in random forest, only a random subset of the features is taken into consideration by the algorithm for splitting a node. You can even make trees more random by additionally using random thresholds for each feature rather than searching for the best possible thresholds (like a normal decision tree does).

Boosted regression tree is another popular DT method for flood modeling (belonging to the gradient boosting modeling family): A tree-based model that combines a large number of machine learning and regression tree models to learn and weigh them (by assigning individual weights to every sample point of the training dataset), in order to describe the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. It uses several techniques to improve the performance of a single model, e.g., by creating an ensemble of regression models [62].

## **4.2. Support vector machine (SVM)**

SVM is a binary classifier and machine learning algorithm which is a new supervised learning method and is based on the structural risk minimization principle [26]. Separating hyper-plane creation from training dataset is the basis of this method [26]. SVMs are popular because of good empirical performance (compared with other models, such as artificial neural networks), easy training process, and the avoidance of local minima, relatively suitable mathematics for multi-dimensional data, and a tradeoff between complexity and error. [63] proposed and classified the support vector

(SV) as a nonlinear search algorithm using statistical learning theory. Later, the SVM [64] was introduced as a class of SV, used to minimize over-fitting and reduce the expected error of learning machines. SVM is greatly popular in flood modeling; it is a supervised learning machine which works based on the statistical learning theory and the structural risk minimization rule. The training algorithm of SVM builds models that assign new non-probabilistic binary linear classifiers, which minimize the empirical classification error and maximize the geometric margin via inverse problem solving. SVM is used to predict a quantity forward in time based on training from past data. Over the past two decades, the SVM was also extended as a regression tool, known as support vector regression (SVR) [65].

SVMs are today know as robust and efficient ML algorithms for flood risk assessment and producing flood reliable map [27]. SVM and SVR emerged as alternative ML methods to ANNs, with high popularity among hydrologists for flood risk assessment. They use the statistical learning theory of structural risk minimization (SRM), which provides a unique architecture for delivering great generalization and superior efficiency. Most importantly, SVMs are both suitable for linear and nonlinear classification, and the efficient mapping of inputs into feature spaces [66]. Thus, they were applied in numerous flood assessment cases with promising results, excellent generalization ability, and better performance, compared to ANNs and MLRs, e.g., extreme rainfall [67], precipitation [68], rainfall–runoff [69], reservoir inflow [70], streamflow [71], flood quantiles [39], flood time series [72], and soil moisture [73]. Unlike ANNs, SVMs are more suitable for nonlinear regression problems, to identify

the global optimal solution in flood models<sup>[74]</sup>.

Although the high computation cost of using SVMs and their unrealistic outputs might be demanding, due to their heuristic and semi-black-box nature, the least-square support vector machine (LS-SVM) highly improved performance with acceptable computational efficiency [75]. The alternative approach of LS-SVM involves solving a set of linear tasks instead of complex quadratic problems [76]. Nevertheless, there are still a number of drawbacks that exist, especially in the application of flood risk assessment, producing reliable flood map and prediction of flood using LS-SVM [77].

**4.3 Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs)** ANNs are efficient mathematical modeling systems with efficient parallel processing, enabling them to mimic the biological neural network using interconnected neuron units. Among all ML methods, ANNs are the most popular learning algorithms, known to be versatile and efficient in modeling complex flood processes with a high fault tolerance and accurate approximation [78]. In comparison to traditional statistical models, the ANN approach was used for prediction with greater accuracy [79]. ANN algorithms are the most popular for modeling flood assessment since their first usage in the 1990s [80]. Instead of a catchment's physical characteristics, ANNs derive meaning from historical data. Thus, ANNs are considered as reliable datadriven tools for constructing black-box models of complex and nonlinear relationships of rainfall and flood [81], as well as river flow and discharge forecasting [82]. Furthermore, a number

of surveys (e.g., Reference [83]). Suggest ANN as one of the most suitable modeling techniques which provide an acceptable generalization ability and speed compared to most conventional models. References [84,85] provided reviews on ANN applications in flood. ANNs were already successfully used for numerous flood prediction applications, e.g., streamflow forecasting [86], river flow [87,88], rainfall–runoff [89], precipitation–runoff modeling [90], water quality [91], evaporation [92], river stage prediction [93], low-flow estimation [94], river flows [95], and river time series [86]. Despite the advantages of ANNs, there are a number drawbacks associated with using ANNs in flood modeling, e.g., network architecture, data handling, and physical interpretation of the modeled system. A major drawback when using ANNs is the relatively low accuracy, the urge to iterate parameter tuning, and the slow response to gradient-based learning processes [96]. Further drawbacks associated with ANNs include precipitation prediction [97,98] and peak-value prediction [99].

The feed-forward neural network (FFNN) [21] is a class of ANN, whereby the network's connections are not in cyclical form. FFNNs are the simplest type of ANN, whereby information moves in a forward direction from input nodes to the hidden layer and later to output nodes. On the other hand, a recurrent neural network (RNN) [100] is a class of ANN, whereby the network's connections form a time sequence for dynamic temporal behavior.

Furthermore, RNNs benefit from extra memory to analyze input sequences. In ANNs, backpropagation (BP) is a multilayered NN where weights are calculated using the propagation of the backward error gradient. In BP, there are more phases in the learning cycle, using a function for activation to send signals to the other nodes. Among various ANNs, the backpropagation ANN (BPNN) was identified as the most powerful prediction tool suitable for flood timeseries prediction [22]. Extreme learning machine (ELM) [101] is an easy-to-use formof FFNN, with a single hidden layer. Here, ELM was studied under the scope of ANN methods. ELM for flood prediction recently became of interest for hydrologists and was used to model short-term streamflow with promising results [102,103].

## **4.4. Logistic Regression (LR)**

LR is a multivariate statistical model for flood susceptibility mapping [104]. The benefit of this model is that data do not require to be normally distributed and the factors can either be categorical, continuous, or any combination of both [104]. In this model, flood susceptibility map developed from flood inundation area was considered as the dependent variable, where 1 is for flooding area and 0 is for non-flooding area. The mathematical expression of the LR model is given by: [30, 105]

$$
P = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} = \frac{1}{\left[1 + e\left\{-(b_0 + b_1x_1 + \dots + b_nx_n)\right\}\right]} \tag{1}
$$

where P is the probability of occurrence of flood or non-flood, z is the linear combination, n is the number of flood conditioning factors,  $x_i$   $(i = 1,..,n)$  is the flood conditioning factors, b0 is the intercept of the model,  $b_i$   $(i = 0, 1, \dots, n)$ is the regression coefficients for the

independent variables of the logistic regression model

#### **4.5. Frequency Rate (FR)**

FR model is based on the observed relationships between the distribution of the floods and flood conditioning factor [104]. The frequency ratio for the class of each conditioning factor was calculated by dividing the flood occurrence ratio by the area ratio. Each factor frequency ratio was calculated using Eq. (2) and flood susceptibility map was developed from Eq. (3) [104].

$$
FR = \frac{percentage \space of \space flood}{percentage \space of \space the \space class \space of \space each \space conditioning \space factor} \space (2)
$$

$$
FS = FR_1 + FR_2 + .... + FR_n \space (3)
$$

Where FR is the ranking of each conditioning factors, n is the number of total factors for flood susceptibility (FS). When assessing the probability of flooding during the particular time period and in a specific environment, it is essential to distinguish the conditioning factors and the situations that can cause flooding. In order to perform the flood susceptibility analysis, the FR method was applied using GIS techniques. FR is very robust method for the purpose of BSA, as it considers the impact of each conditioning factor on flooding and assigns the weights very precisely. FR method is based on the relationship between spreading of flooding and each conditioning factor, to exhibit the relationship between flood locations and the conditioning factors in the study area. If the value of FR be more than 1, it means the percentage of the flooding is greater than the area and shows greater correlation; however, values less than 1 represent a minor correlation.FR ratios for conditioning factors were calculated and the weights were normalized in the range 0–1. The normalization should be done because the ten conditioning factors vary in dimensions and are not appropriate for

direct input for the SVM model. For normalization process, a common method was used for this purpose.

For example, for 
$$
y_i
$$
 ( $i = 1, \ldots, n$ )

$$
Y_i = \frac{y_i - y_{min}}{y_{max} - y_{min}}\tag{4}
$$

Where,  $v_i$  means the normalized values of  $Y_i$ ,  $y_{min}$  and  $y_{max}$  represent the minimum and maximum value of  $Y_i$  respectively. In this manner, the nominal and interval class group data were converted to scale values ranging from 0 to 1. Therefore, these scale conditioning factors were normalized and classified based on the weights of FR and then feed into SVM model.

## **5. Classification of ML Methods and Applications**

The most popular ML modeling methods for flood risk assessment were identified in the previous section, including DT, SVM, ANNs, RF and LR. Figure1 presents the major ML methods used for flood risk assessment, and the number of corresponding articles in the literature over the last decade. This figure was designed to communicate to the readers which ML methods increased in popularity among hydrologists for flood modeling within the past decade.

Considering the ML methods for application to floods, it is apparent that DT, SVM, ANNs, RF and LR are the most popular. These ML methods can be categorized as single and hybrid methods. In addition to the fundamental hybrid ML methods, i.e., DT, SVM, ANNs, several different research strategies for obtaining better assessment evolved [46,47]. The strategies involved developing hybrid ML models using soft computing techniques, statistical methods, and physical models rather than individual ML approaches, whereby the extra components complement each other with respect to their drawbacks and shortcomings. The success of such hybrid approaches motivated the research community to

explore more advanced hybrid models. Figure 4 presents the progress of single and hybrid ML methods for flood risk assessment in the literature over the past

decade. The figure shows an apparent continuous increase and notable progress in using novel hybrid methods.



**Figure3:** The most popular model for FRA in the literature review from 2012-May 2020



**Figure 4:** The progress of single and combined ML methods for FRA in the literature review from 2012-May 2020

## **6. Type of Data:**

The data that is used for flood risk assessment just was conventional data but in recent decade simultaneous with promotion of technology and new device that can impressive effect to increase the accuracy of measurement for specific purpose the less conventional data such as participation of public to gather information ,community mapping drainage data, data from social media and data from satellite, radar or remote sensing especially in areas that suffer from data scarcity has had eye catching progress to assess flood or producing reliable flood map.

The data which is used in this literature review is divided three sections based on resource:

## **6.1. Conventional data**

The traditional data that is used to flood modeling such as flood inventory map, flood resource variable (altitude, slope, aspect, curvature, distance from river, topographic wetness index (TWI), drainage density, soil depth, soil hydrological groups (SHG), land use and lithology), Rain fall data, water level and so on. In below some of them are described.

## **6.1.1. Flood Inventory Map**

To evaluate flood risk in an area, analyzing records of past flood events is essential. Therefore, an inventory map is considered the most essential factor for predicting future disaster occurrence; such map can represent single or multiple events in a specific area. Thus, the first stage in flood susceptibility analysis is to acquire information about the floods that have occurred in the past. Since flood occurrences in the past and present are keys to future spatial prediction, a flood inventory map is a prerequisite for such a study. Accurate detection of the flood locations is so important for probabilistic

flood hazard analysis [1, 106]. The flood inventory map is a basic map for flood susceptibility assessment [30]. Accurate analysis of flood susceptibility requires a precise flood inventory map that shows the locations of flood occurrence. [52]

## **6.1.2. Flood resource variables**

The data available in the literature review is dependent on case study areas and usually the effective flood susceptibility parameters were identified: altitude, slope, aspect, curvature, distance from river, topographic wetness index (TWI), drainage density, soil depth, soil hydrological groups (SHG), land use, lithology and rainfall data. In next section, all probabilistic flood condition factors are explained briefly. [106]

**Altitude:** Altitude is one of the most important factors affecting flooding [30]. In general, there is an inverse relationship between flood and elevation; flood frequency increases with decreasing elevation, with the result that lower elevations are more susceptible to flooding.

**Slope:** Flooding is directly related to slope gradient and is an important physiographic characteristic [60]. Slope contributes directly to surface runoff velocity and vertical percolation and thus affects flood susceptibility.

**Aspect:** The slope aspect is defined as the direction of the maxi-mum slope of the terrain surface, which in most flood studies was considered an important flood susceptibility parameter.

**Curvature:** Curvature was determined to be another influential conditioning parameter and was extracted from the DEM map in ArcGIS. The curvature consists of three categories: concave, convex, and flat surface. It is a factor in run off flow and can be useful in detecting flood susceptibility.

**Distance from river:** River flows are the main pathways for flood discharge and areas near rivers are susceptible to flooding.

**Topographic wetness index (TWI):** This parameter was presented by and indicates the spatial variations of wetness in a watershed. In other words, this index exhibits the amount of water accumulation in any pixel size of the watershed area, which is calculated as:

$$
TWI - In\left(\frac{A_s}{\tan \beta}\right) \tag{5}
$$

Where  $A_s$  and  $\beta$  are the specific catchment area  $(m^2m^{-1})$  and the slope gradient (in degrees), respectively. TWI was calculated in the SAGA GIS environment. **Drainage density:** When rainfall occurs in a watershed, the drainage density has effects on peak flows. Regional floods are often related to peak discharge value and drainage area; therefore, this parameter has an important influence on flood susceptibility. Poor drainage systems often result in river overflow and continuous flooding in an area. The drainage density was derived from the line density tool using ArcGIS software.

**Soil type:** Soil depth, soil texture, and soil porosity are the main factors affecting surface runoff. They mainly affect runoff generation by changing the infiltration characteristics and water holding characteristics of the soil. Different soil types indicate different soil properties, so soil type was selected as a conditioning factor. [107].

**Soil depth:** Soil depth was considered as the depth of the soil layer from the ground surface to bedrock. In some areas with low soil depth and especially upstream, runoff generation is higher. [106]

**Soil hydrological groups:** (SHG). Soil hydrological groups indicate soil quality that is based on a minimum water infiltration rate. Soil hydrological groups are classified into four groups: A, B, C,and D. Soils in group A have the minimum runoff potential, while soils in group D have the maximum runoff potential.

Land use: Land use has a significant role in runoff speed, interception, infiltration, and evapo-transportation. The land use map is essential for the determination of areas susceptible to flooding.

**Lithology:** Lithology has a significant influence on hydrological processes in a watershed. Different lithology units have different susceptibilities to flooding.

**Rainfall data:** Rainfall was selected as an essential factor because floods are often triggered by high-intensity and short rainstorms [27].

#### **6.2. Less conventional data**

Many parts of the world are, however, still lacking basic geographical and hydrological data, given the traditionally high barriers to produce it. Furthermore, the urbanization is so rapid in many areas that it is non-beneficial to carry out expensive surveys that soon get outdated [6]. In the last decade, the development of Internet and smartphones have made public participation in monitoring, data collection, planning and decision making possible in a way that has never been accessible previously. Paul et al. [78] show how a polycentric approach is beneficial over a monocentric, both in pre-disaster, in-disaster and post-disaster management. They argue that a participatory approach to data collection can support multidirectional information provision and enhance hydrological risk reduction [1]. state that most of the data needed for flood risk management is found at the local scale, and that the lead time of top-down implemented environmental policies are usually too long to decrease the vulnerability of people living in flood prone areas. One way of involving citizen in data collection for building disaster resilience is the emerging field of community mapping. Data from satellite or remote sensing and data from social media- tweeter are the other type of less conventional data that will be described in the next section.

## **6.2.1. Volunteered Geographic Information**

Community mapping is the action of producing a map together with or by the residents of a certain location, often featuring local knowledge and resources [35]. It can be understood as a form of Volunteered Geographic Information (VGI), a term coined by Goodchild in 2007 [36]. Being the very first notion of this emerging field, it is worth quoting here; they [the mapping volunteers] are largely untrained and their actions are almost always voluntary, and the results may or may not be accurate. But collectively, they represent a dramatic innovation that will certainly have profound impacts on geographic information systems (GIS) and more generally on the discipline of geography and its relationship to the general public. I term this volunteered geographic information (VGI), a special case of the more general Web phenomenon of usergenerated content [99]. VGI, in turn, can be seen as crowdsourcing of geospatial information. Felstiner [91] defines crowdsourcing as "the act of taking a job traditionally performed by a designated agent (usually an employee) and outsourcing it to an undefined, generally large group of people in the form of an open call." Examples of crowdsourced data are Wikipedia, the free online encyclopedia, and Open StreetMap3 (OSM), an online world map which can be edited by anyone [2]. The field of VGI, as defined by Goodchild, has emerged as a consequence of Web 2.0, that is the development of the user-generated World Wide Web [68, 108]. Since the early 2000's, it is increasingly available for anyone with Internet access to create geographic information, which was

accommodated by several coincides around the new millennium. The Global Positioning System (GPS) was fully operational in 1995, implemented by the US Department of Defense, and the selective availability of the GPS signal was removed in the year 2000. This gave way to affordable GPS receivers, and home computers and user-generated websites were on the rise [6]. VGI has put mapping, a task that for centuries has been reserved to official agencies, in the hands of anyone that want to contribute to online maps [109]. This section will introduce different forms of VGI, namely geographical citizen science, crisis mapping and community mapping. Volunteered data can be diverse, complex, and overwhelming in volume, velocity, and in the variety of viewpoints they offer [29]. Negotiating these overwhelming streams is beyond the capacity of human analysts. Current research offers some novel capabilities to utilize these streams in new, groundbreaking ways, leveraging, fusing, and filtering this new generation of air-, space-, and ground-based sensorgenerated data. This research presents a novel approach to prioritizing the collection of remote sensing data from satellites, airplanes, and UAVs during hazard events by utilizing VGI as a filtering tool. In addition, it proposes the use of VGI for disaster assessment to fill in the gaps when remote-sensing data are lacking or incomplete. In order to use social media efficiently and effectively and VGI to 'cue' or augment satellite observations, it is necessary to filter the data for content and to geolocation them using a variety of text mining and network analysis algorithms. Filtering yields a rapid and direct identification of affected areas, which can aid authorities to prioritize site visits and response initiatives as well as to task additional data collection.

#### **6.2.2. Participation of public in data collection**

The participation of the general public in the research design, data collection and interpretation process together with scientists is often referred to as citizen science. While citizen science itself has existed since the start of scientific practice, developments in sensing technology, data processing and visualization, and communication of ideas and results, are creating a wide range of new opportunities for public participation in scientific research. In the literature reviews the state of citizen science in a hydrological context and explores the potential of citizen science to complement more traditional ways of scientific data collection and knowledge generation for hydrological sciences and water resources management. Although hydrological data collection often involves advanced technology, the advent of robust, cheap, and lowmaintenance sensing equipment provides unprecedented opportunities for data collection in a citizen science context. These data have a significant potential to create new hydrological knowledge, especially in relation to the characterization of process heterogeneity, remote regions, and human impacts on the water cycle. However, the nature and quality of data collected in citizen science experiments is potentially very different from those of traditional monitoring networks. This poses challenges in terms of their processing, interpretation, and use, especially with regard to assimilation of traditional knowledge, the quantification of uncertainties, and their role in decision support. It also requires care in designing citizen science projects such that the generated data complement optimally other available knowledge.

#### **6.2.3. Social media**

Novel information streams, such as social media-contributed videos, photographs, and text as well as other open sources, are redefining situation awareness during emergencies. When these contributed data contain spatial and temporal information, they can provide valuable Volunteered Geographical Information (VGI), harnessing the power of 'citizens as sensors' to provide a multitude of on-theground data, often in real time. There are several opportunities and challenges associated with the use of VGI. Examine the content and characteristics of VGI, the technical and social processes through which it is produced, appropriate methods for synthesizing and the use of these data in research, and emerging social and political concerns related to this new form of information. Although these volunteered data are often published without scientific intent, and usually carry little scientific merit, it is still possible to mine mission critical information. For example, during hurricane Katrina, geolocated pictures and videos searchable through Google provided early emergency responders with ground view information. These data have been used during major events, with the capture, in near-real-time, of the evolution and impact of major hazards. Specifically, VGI based on Twitter and other non-authoritative data have been shown to contain valuable data that can be used for improving flood estimation in near-real-time. Volunteered data can be employed to provide timely damage assessment, help in rescue and relief operations, as well as for the optimization of engineering reconnaissance While the quantity and real-time availability of VGI make it a valuable resource for disaster management applications, data volume, as well as its unstructured, heterogeneous nature, makes the effective use of VGI challenging.

Recently, in Europe and US the use of social science research approaches and methods has a significant contribution in flash flood risk reduction and warning. Engineers and physical scientist now recognized that their elucidations cannot be operated without engaging social science. The S-P-R-C model is favorable to understand the concept of hazard, vulnerability and risk. In assessing the risk, there must be hazard and vulnerability (source/initiator, pathway and receptors). The consequences depend on the exposure of the receptors to the hazard. Historical flash flood events are shown that deaths and property losses highly significant which are because of ineffective flash flood risk assessment approaches. There are four important steps in risk assessment; first step is based on characterization of area such as physical, social, geomorphological, hydrometeorological, land use land cover and analysis of historical events. Secondly, determining the intensity of a flash flood (the strength of the flash flood) and developing alternative scenarios in the basin. Thirdly, vulnerability assessment which is based on physical vulnerability (susceptibility and exposure) and socioeconomic vulnerability (qualitative and quantitative indicators). Fourth, risk assessment is the combination of hazard intensity level, scenario, and total physical and socioeconomic vulnerability. Flash flood risk assessment is critical to management and planning for the future changes in frequency and magnitude such events.

Twitter is one of the largest social networking sites, and it is widely used to share information through microblogging. These micro-blogs, or 'tweets', are limited to 140 characters, so abbreviations and colloquial phrasing are common, making the automation of filtering by content challenging. Twitter is very popular during emergencies and disasters, and it is being used by both official government agencies and the public to disseminate information. Central to the operation of Twitter is the use of hashtags, words or un spaced phrases prefixed with the sign #. They are identifiers unique to Twitter and are frequently used to search and filter information. The creation and use of a hashtag can be established by any user who wants to create a concept category to share specific information about a subject. For example, during the 2013 Boulder floods, the hashtag #boulder flood was used by users and agencies to share information about this particular event. Twitter data can be queried for specific hashtags or text present in the tweets, and for spatial and temporal constraints. There are several web-based tools and an API for the automatic querying, filtering, and displaying of tweets. For more literature review, tweets are harvested using the CarbonScanner application to identify 'hotspots' and task satellite data collection. CarbonScanner scans tweets, identifies relevant keywords and hashtags, and georectifies the data.

## **6.2.4. Remote Sensing**

Every year natural hazards are responsible for powerful and extensive damage to people, property, and the environment. Drastic population growth, especially along coastal areas or in developing countries, has increased the risk posed by natural hazards to large, vulnerable populations at unprecedented levels. Furthermore, unusually strong and frequent weather events are occurring worldwide, causing floods, landslides, and droughts affecting thousands of people. A single catastrophic event can claim thousands of lives, cause billions of dollars of damage, trigger a global economic depression, destroy natural landmarks, render a large territory uninhabitable, and destabilize the military and political balance in a region. Furthermore, the increasing urbanization of human society,

including the emergence of megacities, has led to highly interdependent and vulnerable social infrastructure that may lack the resilience of a more agrarian, traditional society. In urban areas, it is crucial to develop new ways of assessing damage in real-time to aid in mitigating the risks posed by hazards. Annually, the identification, assessment, and repair of damage caused by hazards requires thousands of work hours and billions of dollars.

Remote sensing data are of paramount importance during disasters and have become the de-facto standard for providing high resolution imagery for damage assessment and the coordination of disaster relief operations. First responders rely heavily on remotely sensed imagery for coordination of relief and response efforts as well as the prioritizing of resource allocation. Determining the location and severity of damage to transportation infrastructure is particularly critical for establishing evacuation and supply routes as well as repair and maintenance agendas. Following the Colorado floods of September 2013 over 1000 bridges required inspection and approximately 200 miles of highway and 50 bridges were destroyed.1 A variety of assessment techniques were utilized following Hurricane Katrina in 2005 to evaluate transportation infrastructure including visual, non-destructive, and remote sensing. However, the assessment of transportation infrastructure over such a large area could have been accelerated through the use of high resolution imagery and geospatial analysis. Despite the wide availability of large remote sensing datasets from numerous sensors, specific data might not be collected in the time and space most urgently required. Geotemporal gaps result due to satellite revisit time limitations, atmospheric opacity, or

other obstructions. However, aerial platforms, especially Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs), can be quickly deployed to collect data about specific regions and be used to complement satellite imagery. UAVs are capable of providing high resolution, near real-time imagery often with less expense than manned aerial- or space-borne platforms. Their quick response times, high maneuverability and resolution make them important tools for disaster assessment. Contributed data that contain spatial and temporal information can provide valuable Volunteered Geographic Information (VGI), harnessing the power of 'citizens as sensors' to provide a multitude of on-theground data, often in real time. Although these volunteered data are often published without scientific intent, and usually carry little scientific merit, it is still possible to mine mission critical information. For example, during hurricane Katrina, geolocated pictures and videos searchable through Google provided early emergency response with ground-view information. These data have been used during major events, with the capture, in near real-time, of the evolution and impact of major hazards.Volunteered data can be employed to provide timely damage assessment, help in rescue and relief operations, as well as the optimization of engineering reconnaissance. While the quantity and real-time availability of VGI make it a valuable resource for disaster management applications, data volume, as well as its unstructured, heterogeneous nature, make the effective use of VGI challenging. Volunteered data can be diverse, complex, and overwhelming in volume, velocity, and in the variety of viewpoints they offer. Negotiating these overwhelming streams is beyond the capacity of human analysts. Current researchs offers some novel capabilities to utilize these streams in new, groundbreaking ways, leveraging, fusing and filtering this new generation of air-, space and ground-based sensor-generated data**.**

Flash floods frequently occur in small catchments or in a small dry land, such areas often poorly gauged or ungauged. Hence, quality of remote sensed data is critical to flash flood forecasting. The main causes are thunderstorms, monsoon trough, rapid melting of snow and glacier lake outburst flooding. Increasing population growth and climate change impacts will be increased risk of more frequent and severe flash floods in the future. Therefore, flash flood hazard vulnerability and risk analysis need special attention in order to reduce severe losses.

## **6.3. Data fusion (Combination of conventional and less conventional data)**

White [14] defined data fusion in the book "Data Fusion Lexicon" as "a process dealing with the association, correlation, and combination of data and information from single and multiple sources to achieve refined position and identity estimates, and complete and timely assessments of situations and threats, and their significance. The process is characterized by continuous refinements of its estimates and assessments, and the evaluation of the need for additional sources, or modification of the process itself, to achieve improved results.". [1] thought that "information fusion is the study of efficient methods for automatically or semi-automatically transforming information from different sources and different points in time into a representation that provides effective support for human or automated decision making." Data fusion for flood risk assessment is combining conventional and less conventional in order to increase the accuracy for flood risk assessment and producing flood reliable map. In this section the introduction of conventional data and less conventional data are explained, also The figure 5 that is presented in this section can show the type of data that is used in recent decade and how it can be effective on accuracy of flood risk assessment and producing flood reliable map.

## **7. The potential of most popular ML Method for flood risk assessment and producing flood reliable map**

This section can introduce perfectly some of research that lead to significant results in flood modeling. Limited research papers are done this field. In below some tables are shown that describe the art of most popular ML methods to

improve flood risk modeling and producing reliable flood map in recent decade.



**Figure 5.** Comparison of progress of using conventional-less conventional data and fusion data in recent decade

<b>1.</b> The potential of DT algorithm for FRA/FRM and producing map to identify flood prone area.
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## 2.The potential of SVM algorithm for FRA/FRM and producing map to identify flood prone area.





## 3. The potential of ANNs algorithm for FRA/FRM and producing map to identify flood prone area.







## 4. The potential of LR algorithm for FRA/FRM and producing map to identify flood prone area.

#### 5. The potential of RF algorithm for FRA/FRM and producing map to identify flood prone area.





# 6. The potential of FR algorithm for FRA/FRM and producing map to identify flood prone area.









8. The number of research papers in last decades that used single ML method, combined conventional and less conventional data for FRA



9. The number of research papers in last decades that used hybrid ML methods and conventional data for FRA







10. The number of research papers in last decades that used hybrid ML methods, combined conventional and less conventional data for FRA

<b>Modeling Technique</b>	<b>Reference</b>	<b>Flood Resource Variables</b>	Case study
<b>Hybridization of:</b>	Masoud Bakhtyari Kia,	1-Flood inventory map,	River Johor
1-The artificial neural network	2012	2-7 flood conditions factor:	Basin, Malaysia
(ANN) model		2.1-Topographic data	
2-MATLAB software		2.2-Rainfall data	
		2.3-Remote Sensing data	
		2-4 Survey from public	
<b>Hybridization of:</b>	Masahiko Haraguchi,	1--Rainfall data:	Metro Manila
1-Visualization,	2019	1-1- Rain gauge data	
2-Decision Tree(DT)		1.2-Remote sending data	
3-Logistic Regression(LR)			
Hybridization of ML & DST:	Farzaneh Sajedi	1--Flood inventory map,	Gorganroud
1-Boosted generalized linear	Hosseini, 2020	2-13 flood conditions factor:	River, Iran
model (GLMBoost) 2-Random		2.1-Topographic data	
Forest (RF),		2.2-geological characteristics	
3-Bayesian generalized linear		2.3-soil characteristics	
model (BayesGLM))		2.4-Rainfall data	
		2.5-Satillite data	
<b>Ensemble</b> ML approach:	Hamid Darabi, 2020	1.8 flood conditions factor:	Amol, Iran
algorithms:		1.1-Topographic data	
1- Boosted Regression Tree		1.2-geological characteristics	
$(BRT)$ ,		1.3-soil characteristics	
<b>Multivariate</b> $2 -$ <b>Adaptive</b>		1.4-Rainfall data	
<b>Regression Spline (MARS),</b>		1.5-Public Survey	
3- Generalized Linear Model			
(GLM).			
4-Generalized Additive Model			
(GAM)			







12. The number of research papers in last decades that used single ML method and less conventional data to produce reliable flood map



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3- Unsupervised method with				
data optical only (an				
unsupervised clustering				
algorithm),				
4- A predictive model (digital				
elevation model (DEM))				
1-Feed-Forward <b>Neural</b>	A. Nallapareddy, 2020	Image data from satellite	Uttar	Pradesh.
Network,			India	
2-Cascade-forward back-				
propagation neural network				

13. The number of research papers in last decades that used single ML method, conventional and less conventional data to produce reliable flood map



### **8. Validation Methods**

Validation methods such as Area Under the ROC Curve (AUC) and various statistical measures were used to validate and compare the models in this study. ROC curve is a popular measure to evaluate the accuracy of the model and can be used to determine the accuracy of natural hazard susceptibility mapping [37, 38, 40, 110, 111, 112]. Two values are used to build the ROC curve: sensitivity and 100‐ specificity [113, 114, 96, 79, 80, 81]. Performance of the models is analyzed quantitatively using the area under the curve (AUC) [82-90],[93,94]. An AUC value of 1 indicates the best classification, while 0.5 corresponds to non‐accurate models [93,94]. AUC values are calculated according to the equation:

$$
AUC = \sum TP + \sum \frac{TN}{p} + N \tag{6}
$$

Where TP and TN are considered the rate of pixels classified correctly as flood and non‐flood, P and N are the total number of flash floods and non‐flash floods, respectively. Various statistical measures such as accuracy (ACC), sensitivity (SST),

specificity (SPF), root mean squared errors (RMSE), kappa (K) positive predictive value (PPV), and negative predictive value (NPV) were also selected to validate flood flash modelling [94]. PPV and NPV are the values of pixel probabilities classified correctly as "flood" occurrence and "non‐ flood" occurrence [95]. The proportion of flash flood pixels is represented by SST value and proportion of non‐flash flood pixels is represented by SPF. K is used to analyze the accuracy of modelling [88]. K value varies between ‐1 and 1. Values of K close to 1 represent better reliability [7]. ACC is the ratio of the rate number of correct predictions and the total number of predictions [98]. RMSE represents the difference between data observations and data estimates [116-123]. Equations for the different measures are given below:

$$
SST = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}
$$
(7)  
\n
$$
SPF = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}
$$
(8)  
\n
$$
PPV = \frac{TP}{FP + TP}
$$
(9)  
\n
$$
NPV = \frac{TN}{FN + TN}
$$
(10)  
\n
$$
K = \frac{P_p - P_{exp}}{1 - P_{exp}}
$$
(11)





**Figure 6.** The validation and the result of training and testing different kind of Ml methods in recent decades (Single and combined ML method to produce reliable flood maps)



**Figure 7.** The validation and the result of training and testing different kind of Ml methods in recent decades (Single and combined ML methods for flood risk assessment)

Where FP and FN are the rate of pixels classified incorrectly as the flood and non‐ flood.  $P_p$  is the rate of pixels classified correctly for flood or non‐flood. Expected agreements is defined by  $P_{\text{exn}}$ .  $X_{predicted}$ ,  $X_{actual}$  are the predicted and real values in the training samples or the testing samples of the models, and n is the total number of samples in the training samples or testing samples. [27].

In figure 6 and 7 the performance of different kinds of ML methods are shown in recent decades.

## **9. Open issues and future research directions**

Based on the detailed survey reported in previous sections, we further indicate a number of open issues and suggest some future research directions.

First, the machine learning methods used for data fusion are simplex. As we discussed in previous sections, most of machine learning models mentioned for data fusion are based on SVM, clustering and neural networks, which are classical methods and simple neural networks. SVM and clustering methods often aim at classifying with high accuracy. NN is suitable for describing uncertain complex systems. Nevertheless, the power of machine learning methods should be far more than this. Taking one example, deep learning is considered as a significant research field in artificial intelligence in next 10 years. Deep learning describes the techniques that simulate complex neural systems of humans. Compared with simple neural networks, more hidden layers inserted into the network would give the system better accuracy and learning quality. The lack of deep learning methods for data fusion motivate us to explore new thoughts.

Second, researchers pay little attention to fusion efficiency of Ml method for FRA and producing reliable flood map. Refer to

section 7, past work focuses more on fusion quality than fusion efficiency. Some works even did not discuss or evaluate this important property at all. The most obvious disadvantage of machine learning methods is its computational complexity and huge consumption of computing and system resources. Machine learning often needs large sets of data for training, which also brings difficulty into actual applications. Since there will be a good deal for specific needs of miniature devices in the future, which are not affordable for complicated computation due to limited resources, the study for optimizing the efficiency of data fusion models becomes necessary.

Third, comprehensive concern of data fusion by Ml method which is aimed at FR and producing flood reliable map is missed. Based on Table 1, few literatures discussed Robustness and Extensibility. Some literatures did not testify if their models are stable in an unsteady environment with experimental results. These requirements should be fundamental for a fusion model. Some works consider little about the models' effectiveness in practical use. Taking Robustness as an example, data with serious imprecision, inconsistency and noises often occurred, a model that cannot handle this circumstance well will be practically limited. A similar argument is put on Extensibility. Simply improving data fusion accuracy and quality, but ignoring other properties will lead to an imperfect model, while a comprehensive model that satisfies all expected criteria should be urgently studied.

Finally, few existing literatures take account of data scares environment combined conventional data and less conventional data can be effective on accuracy? how will be the computational efficiency? Machine learning methods have a great need to deal with a large scale of data sets to ensure learning quality and fusion accuracy. However, using original data in machine learning could cause sensitive information leakage. This problem can be particularly acute in the Internet related applications such as intrusion detection, attack analysis, and location tracking. Private information about identities and positions of data providers could be disclosed if the proposed model cannot manage it well.

Another future research direction is the use of more complex and large-scale learning techniques into data fusion via ML methods. As talked above, we place expectations on deep learning, which combines supervised learning and unsupervised learning to construct learning hierarchy, namely the network. Especially in some scenarios that relate to a large amount of data, Deep learning can gain much more improved performance and prediction precision than past learning algorithms [37]. According to [4], there have been some efficient models appeared to deal with fusion problems with deep learning. In [125], a deep belief network based data fusion scheme was proposed for ball screw fault detection. Nevertheless, there might be some following challenges introduced at the same time. The effectiveness of deep learning can only be ensured with mass data and high resource consumption. How to ensure the applicability of deep learning based fusion models in small devices and how to make trade-off between fusion efficiency and quality are additional issues that should be solved. Except for the issues mentioned above, we are also looking forward to researches on deep composite intelligent applications.

Advances in hydrology, meteorology, engineering, using of GIS and remote sensing still not able to increase real time forecast. Researchers from developed countries have stressed to more focus to improve very short time an effective early warning system with collaboration of local communities for flood risk supervision. The other issue need to improve researches is, in meteorology, flash flood forecasting and lead time early warning still one of the

## **11. Conclusion:**

challenging task [124].

The current state of ML modeling for flood risk assessment is quite young and in the early stage of advancement. This literature review presents an overview of ML models used in FRA, and develops a classification scheme to analyze the existing literature. The survey represents the performance analysis and investigation of more than 1000 articles. Among them, we identified 110 original and influential articles where the performance and accuracy of at least two machine learning models were compared. To do so, the assessment models were classified into three categories according to type of ML methods, hybrid and single methods, and further divided into type of data (single data or fusion conventional and less conventional data). The state of the art of these classes was discussed and analyzed in detail, considering the performance comparison of the methods available in the literature. The performance of the methods was evaluated in terms of AUC and RMSE, in addition to the generalization ability, robustness, computation cost, and speed. Despite the promising results already reported in implementing the most popular machine learning methods, e.g. SVM, DTs, ANNs, LR and RF there was significant research and experimentation for further improvement and advancement. In this context, there were four major trends reported in the literature for improving the quality of FRA. The first was novel hybridization, either through the integration of two or more machine learning methods or the integration of a machine learning method(s) with more conventional means, and/or soft computing. The second was the use of data fusion techniques for the purpose of improving the quality of the dataset, which highly contributed in improving the accuracy of FRA. The third was the use of an ensemble of methods which dramatically increased the generalization ability of the models and decreased the uncertainty of FRA. The fourth was the use of add-on optimizer algorithms to improve the quality of machine learning algorithms, e.g., for better tuning the DT or SVM to reach optimal classification or architectures. It is expected that, through these four key technologies, FRA will witness significant improvements, also producing map for identification flood prone areas. Surely, the advancement of these novel ML methods depends highly on the proper usage of soft computing techniques in designing novel learning algorithms. This fact was discussed in the literature review, and the soft computing techniques were introduced as the main contributors in developing hybrid ML methods of the future. Here, it is also worth mentioning that the multidisciplinary nature of this work was the most challenging difficulty to overcome in this research. Having contributions from the coauthors of both realms of ML and hydrology was the key to success. Furthermore, the novel search methodology and the creative taxonomy and classification of the ML methods led to the original achievement of the research. For future work, conducting a survey on spatial FRA using machine learning models is highly encouraged. This important aspect of FRA was excluded from our paper due to the nature of modeling methodologies and the datasets used in assessment the location of floods. Nevertheless, the recent advancements in machine learning models for spatial flood analysis revolutionized this particular realm of flood forecasting, which requires separate investigation. Indeed, current

research provides a concise and comprehensive reference for researchers and practitioners in the field of FRA via ML methods. Nevertheless, the literature still lacks a thorough review of the recent advances of machine learning and data fusion technique for FRA/FRM. Therefore, it is beneficial to review and summarize the state of the art in order to gain a deep insight on how machine learning can benefit and optimize data fusion in order to flood risk assessment and producing flood reliable map.

#### **Appendix**

Logistic Model Tree (LMT) Evidential belief function (EBF) Deep Learning Neural Network (DLNN) Weakly labeled support vector machine (WELLSVM) Alternating decision tree (ADT) Random Forest (RF) Decision Tree (DT) Boosted Regression Trees (BRT) Validation Accuracy (VA) Regression and classification algorithms (RACA) Neural fuzzy inference system and metaheuristic optimization for flood susceptibility modeling, namely MONF LSSVM-FA) based on Least Squared Support Vector Machines (LSSVM) and Firefly algorithm (FA) integrating support vector machine (SVM) and frequency ratio (FR)=(ISVM-FR) Least squares support vector machine: LSSVM with Radial basis function (RBF) Kernel Boosted regression tree, multivariate adaptive regression spline, generalized linear model, and generalized additive model(BRT.MARS-GLM-GAM) Dempster–Shafer theory (DST) CD (Conventional Data) LCD (Less Conventional Data) Single(S) Combined(C) Flood Risk Assessment (FRA) Optical System Probatoire d'Observation de la Terre (SPOT) and SAR instrument aboard the European Remote Sensing (ERS-1) Fuzzy (F) Combined Machine Learning and Mathematical Modeling(C-ML-M) Combined machine learning, and multi-criteria decision analysis(C-ML&MCDA) Area under the receiver operating curve (AUROC) Regression Technique (RT) Conventional neural networks (CNN) Logistic Model Tree (LMT). Logistic Regression (LR), Bayesian Logistic Regression (BLR), Random Forest (RF) Decision Tree (DT) Evidential belief function (EBF) Boosted regression trees (BRT) Naive Bayes (NB) Ada Boost (AB) Multiple Linear Regression (MLR), Multiple Non-Linear Regression (MNLR), Auto Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA), Aartificial Neural Networks (ANNs)

Wavelet transforms (WA) Support Vector Machine (SVM) Digital Elevation Model (DEM) Frequency Ratio (FR) Least Squares Support Vector Machine: LSSVM Genetic Algorithm Rule-Set Production (GARP) Quick Unbiased Efficient Statistical Tree (QUEST) Fuzzy Analytical Network Process (FANP) Vise kriterijumska Optimizacijaik ompromisno Resenje (VIKOR), Simple Additive Weighting (SAW) Naïve Bayes Tree (NBT) Logistic Model Trees (LMT), Reduced Error Pruning Trees (REPT), Alternating Decision Trees (ADT) Weakly Labeled Support Vector Machine (WELLSVM) Alternating Decision Tree (ADT) Functional Tree (FT) Kernel Logistic Regression (KLR), Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP), Quadratic Discriminant Analysis (QDA) Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) Back Propagation neural network (BP) Information Diffusion Method (IDM)

#### **Nomenclatures**







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