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2 **ESTIMATION OF THE FLOODED AREA OVER THE PANTANAL, A**  
3 **SOUTH AMERICAN FLOODPLAIN, USING MODIS DATA**

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17  
18 **ABSTRACT**

19  
20 Tropical floodplains, such as Pantanal in Central South America, are important features for  
21 land-atmosphere interactions. Schemes to account for floodplains should therefore be  
22 included in Earth System Models, but this requires observations of flooded area for  
23 validation. Satellite data is a possible solution to estimate the flooded area but it is important  
24 to evaluate the different flood detection algorithms available in order to use the most efficient  
25 for the region. This work explores different methods to estimate the flooded area from the  
26 MODIS MOD09A1 satellite surface reflectance product using spectral indexes (mNDWI,  
27 NDMI, NDMI-NDVI) to detect the presence of water. We include the traditional threshold-  
28 based methods but also some unsupervised classification methods such as the k-means and  
29 the Principal Component Analysis applied on the water-related spectral indexes. The

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30 calibration and validation of these methods are based on the hydrological knowledge of the  
31 region, coming from land surface models, river discharge observation and from previous  
32 satellite estimations of the flooded area. The NDMI index seems too sensible to the  
33 vegetation which leads to error in the estimation of the flooded area. The other methods were  
34 spatially and temporally consistent with previous studies over the Pantanal.

35

36 **Key Words:** Floodplains, flood detection, remote sensing, Pantanal, MODIS.

37

**RESUMEN**

38

39

40 Las llanuras de inundaciones tropicales, como el Pantanal en Suramérica Central, son  
41 importantes para las interacciones suelo-atmósfera. Por lo tanto, los esquemas que  
42 representan las llanuras de inundación tienen que ser incluidos en los Modelos del Sistema  
43 Tierra, pero eso requiere observaciones del área inundada para validación. Los datos  
44 satelitales son una posible solución para estimar la superficie inundada, pero es importante  
45 evaluar los diferentes algoritmos disponibles para utilizar el más eficiente para cada región  
46 de interés. Este trabajo explora diferentes métodos para estimar la superficie inundada con el  
47 producto de reflectancia de la superficie MODIS con el uso de índices espectrales (mNDWI,  
48 NDMI, NDMI-NDVI) para detectar la presencia de agua sobre Pantanal. Incluimos los  
49 métodos más comunes basados en el uso de umbrales y también algunos métodos de  
50 supervisión no clasificada como los k-means y el Análisis de Componentes principales  
51 aplicados a los índices espectrales relacionados con la presencia de agua. La calibración y la  
52 validación de estos métodos está basado en los conocimientos hidrológicos de la región,  
53 proviniendo de modelos de superficie, observaciones de caudal y de estimaciones de la  
54 superficie inundada por satélite realizada en trabajos anteriores. El índice NDMI parece  
55 demasiado sensible a la vegetación lo que lleva a errores en la estimación de la superficie  
56 inundada. Los otros métodos son espacial y temporalmente consistente con estudios previos  
57 sobre el Pantanal.

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59 **Palabras clave:** Llanuras de inundaciones, Detección de inundaciones, Teledetección,  
60 Pantanal, MODIS.

61

### 62 1) INTRODUCTION

63 The floodplains are wetlands which are temporarily or permanently flooded and where there  
64 are strong interactions between the different terrestrial hydrological processes such as river  
65 discharge, the evapotranspiration from plants, the evaporation from open water surfaces and  
66 the vertical movement of water between the surface soil and the saturated zone. These large  
67 floodplains are places of rich biodiversity and provide important ecosystem services such as  
68 water purification, river stream regulation and carbon sequestration. The monitoring and  
69 improved comprehension of these regions are vital for their revalorization and conservation.  
70 Remote sensing products are powerful tools to monitor the spatiotemporal evolution of these  
71 extensive floodplains with a reasonable frequency. Satellite estimations of the flooded areas  
72 are also necessary to develop a correct representation of the hydrology of these regions in  
73 Land Surface Models and Earth System Models.

74

75 The periodic flooding of the floodplains related to the overflow of the river is fundamental  
76 for the local ecosystem as it is driving the lateral exchange of water and nutrients in the river  
77 floodplains system (cf. flood pulse concept, Junk et al., 1989). These exchanges are one of  
78 the reasons why the floodplains are very productive ecosystems and considered as  
79 biodiversity hotspots. However, large floodplains are also regions where the in-situ  
80 observations are not sufficient to reconstruct their full dynamics, as opposed to smaller and  
81 more homogeneous wetlands and to unvegetated regions which can be more easily monitored  
82 and where the estimation can be carried out more directly by spectral indices. Thus it is  
83 difficult to estimate the temporal variability and map the spatial variability of the floods over  
84 large floodplains.

85

86 Large tropical floodplains, such as the Pantanal in central South America, are regions of

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87 strong land-atmosphere interactions due to due to a high level of evaporation in relation with  
88 the presence of open-water surfaces and of transpiration in relation with the increased soil  
89 moisture (Schrapffer et al., 2020). This induces strong gradient of land-atmosphere fluxes  
90 and temperature between the floodplains and the neighbouring regions. This is why the  
91 floodplains processes tend to be ever more integrated in Land Surface Models (Schrapffer et  
92 al., 2020; Dadson et al., 2010; Getirana et al., 2021) because this improves the representation  
93 of the hydrological cycle and it will change the sensible and latent fluxes which may have an  
94 impact on atmospheric conditions and, thus on the regional precipitation (Taylor, 2010).  
95 These are important advances regarding the growing interest of coupled simulations to study  
96 the land-atmosphere interactions. In order to be able to calibrate and evaluate the floodplains  
97 scheme in Land Surface Models, the estimates of the temporal and the mapping of the spatial  
98 evolution of the flooded surfaces are crucial.

99

100 Remote sensing has proven to be a helpful tool to estimate large-scale land processes and  
101 may be helpful to estimate the flooded area over large tropical floodplains (Padovani, 2010;  
102 Ogilvie et al., 2015). There are two types of sensors which can be used to estimate the flooded  
103 areas: the Optical and Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) sensors. SAR data presents some  
104 advantages to detect the flooded area as it is not affected by clouds because it uses the  
105 microwave bands and because it can provide data during both day and night (Pereira et al.,  
106 2019). Despite this, SAR data may be affected by speckle noise (Inglada et al., 2016) and  
107 may be largely impacted by confounding effects associated with the surface conditions.  
108 Moreover, the processing of this type of data is more complex compared to optical data  
109 (Niedermeier et al., 2005). On the other hand, optical data are relatively easy to manipulate  
110 and allow to obtain both the flooded area and the presence of vegetation or other features in  
111 a relatively simple way. Therefore, in this work, we chose to employ optical data. There are  
112 two major difficulties to handle in this work: (1) the relatively large extension of the region  
113 and (2) the issue of the cloud cover over such a large region. The first point can be managed  
114 by using a satellite product with a lower resolution such as a MODIS product. For the second  
115 point, a post-processed product which uses a lower temporal resolution can be used. Some

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116 of these lower temporal resolution products are created by merging the different images  
117 available to produce images with the lowest cloudiness possible. There are two similar  
118 MODIS products which correspond to this type of post processing: MOD09A1 and  
119 MYD09A1.

120

121 Traditional methods used to estimate the extension of flooded surfaces rely on spectral  
122 indices and thresholds (Ogilvie et al., 2015). Some spectral indices may highlight the  
123 presence of water by higher values. However, some other land features may generate noise  
124 and make it difficult to directly detect the flooded area using a threshold. For example, the  
125 estimation of flooded area over regions containing lush vegetation may be confounded with  
126 the vegetation water content due to the large annual variability of water content related to the  
127 flood pulse.

128

129 This is why, although the presence of water may be overestimated by higher values in some  
130 spectral indices, some land features such as the vegetation might generate noise and make it  
131 difficult to directly detect the flooded area using a threshold. Thus more sophisticated  
132 methods may lead to an improvement of the estimate. The spectral indices considered in this  
133 study contain information about the water content and the status of the vegetation such as the  
134 modified Normalized Water Index (mNDWI), the Normalized Difference Moisture Index  
135 (NDMI) and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI).

136

137 This study aims to compare the use of different methods based on spectral indexes to estimate  
138 the flooded area and to overcome the difficulties of estimating the flooded surface over large  
139 and complex regions such as Pantanal. This is done by comparing different traditional  
140 approaches: (1) using the classical approach of applying a threshold over spectral indexes  
141 and (2) using unsupervised classification methods such as the k-means and the Principal  
142 Component Analysis (PCA). We aim at an optimized method that is both as robust and as  
143 simple as possible. The estimates obtained are then validated by a previous satellite estimate  
144 made by Padovani (2010) and by the river height at Ladário station.

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146 This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 contains the Methodology and Dataset used.  
147 Section 3 contains the results and the evaluation of the temporal and spatial estimation of the  
148 flooded area by the different methods considered. Section 4 contains the discussion and  
149 conclusion.

### 150 **2) METHODOLOGY AND DATASETS**

#### 151 **2.a) REGION OF INTEREST: THE PANTANAL**

152 The Pantanal, the world's largest floodplains, has an extension of 150.000 km<sup>2</sup> and is located  
153 in the tropical region of southwestern Brazil (see Figure 1). The flat lands of Pantanal range  
154 between 80 and 150 m.a.s.l. of altitude while the surrounding mountain ranges of the  
155 Cerrados from its north/northeast to its southeast ranges between 200 and 1.400 m.a.s.l.  
156 (Alho, 2005). It has a regular annual cycle of flooding driven by the precipitation over the  
157 Cerrados during the rainy season (December to February). Due to the flat slopes of the  
158 Pantanal, it takes between 3 and 5 months for the water flowing from the Cerrados to cross  
159 the Pantanal. This excess of water flowing into Pantanal through the river system and slowed  
160 down by the topography generates important floods. The climatological season of floods  
161 occurs between February and May (Penatti et al., 2015).

#### 162 **2.b) MODIS data: MOD09A1**

163 The Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) Terra MOD09A1 and  
164 MYD09A1 products have been chosen to perform this study for various reasons. First, they  
165 have a resolution of 500m which is higher than some other surface reflectance products such  
166 as Landsat (30 m resolution) but it is sufficient and more manageable as we are dealing with  
167 an extensive region. The MOD09A1 (MYD09A1) product is constructed from an 8-day  
168 composite period and gives an estimate of the surface spectral reflectance for the 7 first bands  
169 of Terra (Aqua) MODIS with corrected atmospheric effects (gases, aerosols, Rayleigh  
170 scattering). This correction consists in (1) an adjustment to include the effect of the solar

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171 zenith angle in order to obtain the top-of-atmosphere value and (2) the correction of the error  
172 related to the atmospheric scattering and absorption due to the presence of gases and aerosols  
173 in the atmosphere and to the spherical albedo (Vermote et al., 2006). The MODIS satellites  
174 provide data for each location each 1-2 days. This permits creating a composite image,  
175 selecting for each 8-days period the highest quality data for each pixel (lower view angle,  
176 absence of clouds, clouds shadow and aerosols) to obtain the MOD09A1 and MYD09A1  
177 products. Two tiles were considered to fully include the Pantanal: h12v10 and h12v11. Both  
178 products have been retrieved from the NASA Earth Data Search (<https://search.earth>  
179 [data.nasa.gov](https://search.earth)).

180

181 The flooding cycle of the Pantanal is annual, thus a temporal resolution from a couple of  
182 weeks to a month is acceptable. Thus, both products can be used for this purpose. Although  
183 this product intends to avoid clouds and other inconveniences, during the rainy season the  
184 images can still be affected by the presence of clouds due to an excessive cloud coverage  
185 during the rainy season. The presence of clouds has been assessed in two steps. Firstly, the  
186 Quality Bit Flags of the MODIS products over the Pantanal were used to obtain the mask of  
187 the Pantanal which is not cloudfree nor covered by clouds shadows. For values of cloud cover  
188 fraction over the Pantanal higher than 5%, the image was discarded. After that, all the images  
189 retained were checked visually to verify that they didn't contain coarse cloud features over  
190 the Pantanal that remained undetected by the Quality Bit Flags. Between 2002 and 2021,  
191 54% of the images available were considered cloudless over Pantanal in MOD09A1 and 35%  
192 for MYD09A1. The dates available without clouds for MOD09A1 and for MYD09A1 have  
193 been compared. It should be highlighted that the major differences between MOD09A1 and  
194 MYD09A1 are the availability of data as MOD09A1 was launched in 2000, two years before  
195 MYD09A1 (Savtchenko et al., 2004). During the period they have in common, MOD09A1  
196 has 140 cloudless dates which are considered as cloudy in MYD09A1 while MYD09A1 only  
197 has 7 cloudless images which are considered as cloudy in MOD09A1. These 7 images  
198 represent the dry season, a period of lower cloudiness and thus of major availability of images  
199 also in MOD09A1. For these reasons, only the product MOD09A1 has been retained

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200 although the use of both products MYD09A1 may be considered to complete the data in  
201 further studies. All the MOD09A1 cloudless images have been confirmed as such by the  
202 visual check, while MYD09A1 was not checked visually since this product was not used for  
203 this study.

204

205 The different methods of flood detection presented in this study have been calibrated over  
206 the 2002-2004 period. Figure 2 represents for each month the total number of MODIS  
207 MOD09A1 images available and the quantity of exploitable images, i.e. cloudless. As  
208 expected the number of cloudless images is strongly affected by the wet season (November  
209 to March).

### 210 **2.c) SPECTRAL INDEXES**

211 The Spectral Indexes have two main objectives: (1) to isolate some specific land features  
212 signals such as signals related to the vegetation (Xue and Su, 2017), the presence of water  
213 (Acharya et al., 2018) or the soil composition (van der Meer et al., 2012); while (2) they are  
214 insensitive to other perturbing signals (Verstraete and Pinty, 1996).

215

216 The spectral indices presented here are based on normalized differences between reflectance  
217 at different wavelengths. The NDVI emphasizes the presence of vegetation while the rest of  
218 the indices try to underline the presence of water bodies. All these indexes are resumed in  
219 Table I.

220

221 The main spectral indexes are constructed based on some basic processes: the vegetation  
222 strongly reflects the Near InfraRed (NIR) and the Green but has a very low reflectance in the  
223 Red wavelength. The ShortWave InfraRed (SWIR) is very sensitive to the water content and  
224 in particular to the vegetation water content.

225

226 These indexes are shown in Figure 3 over the Pantanal region for two different dates: one  
227 during the dry season (21st August 2002) and one during the wet season (15th April 2003).

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228 The NDMI gives a good indication over the flooded vegetation may be falsely detecting  
229 highly vegetated regions as flooded. To combine the information contained in NDMI with  
230 NDVI seems a possible solution to better distinguish between these two land covers (cf.  
231 NDMI-NDVI index in Figure 3.d and Figure 3.h).

232

### 233 **2.d) FLOODED AREA DETECTION**

234 Two methods are tested in this study: (1) a threshold-based method using the indices that  
235 seemed to better represent the presence of water (mNDWI; NDMI; NDMI-NDVI) and (2)  
236 using two different unsupervised classification methods using 3 indices (mNDWI, NDMI  
237 and NDVI).

238

239 The first method of unsupervised classification is the k-means (Lloyd, 1982) which is a  
240 clustering method to regroup the data into different categories. The number of categories or  
241 clusters is given by the parameter “k”. number of clusters. Each cluster is defined by its  
242 centroid and the membership of each data point to a certain cluster will be determined  
243 according to the nearest centroid. The algorithm tries to minimize the total distance between  
244 the centroids and the data. The election of the k-value depends on the problem that is being  
245 clusterized. Different values have been evaluated. For k-value under 6, the output was not  
246 stable while k-values higher than 6 added more complexity to the description of the data  
247 which wasn't necessary adding value to the discrimination between flooded and not flooded  
248 pixels. Thus, the k-value chosen for this study is 6.

249

250 The second unsupervised classification method uses the Principal Component Analysis (PCA  
251 – Jolliffe and Cadima, 2016) method which finds an orthogonal projection that best fits the  
252 data and allows to reduce the number of dimensions. As the data has 3 dimensions (due to  
253 the 3 indexes considered), the maximal number of dimensions that can be considered for the  
254 PCA is 3. The number of dimensions considered in this study is set at 2. The second

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255 dimension refers to the spatial structure of the flooded area. This is not the case for the first  
256 dimension of the PCA which seems to be representing other processes such as the vegetation.  
257 Higher values in the second dimension of the PCA corresponds with areas with higher values  
258 of mNDWI, NDMI and to the spatial structure of the floods (cf. Figure 1). The value of the  
259 pixels over this axis resumed the flood related information from the 3 indexes. Then, a  
260 threshold has to be established to classify each pixel into the flooded / not flooded categories.

261

### 262 **2.e) UNSUPERVISED CLASSIFICATION INPUT**

263 In order to have a single model that would take into account the variability of the vegetation  
264 along the year and that would underline the flood processes, the sample input data to generate  
265 the PCA and the k-means model have been randomly selected from two images. As the  
266 Pantanal has a very marked wet and dry season, one of these images corresponds to the dry  
267 season (from June to September) and the other one at the end of the wet season (From  
268 November to March) which also corresponds to the climatological season of floods. The  
269 images chosen correspond to the dates that were used to illustrate the spectral indexes in  
270 Figure 3: the 21st of August 2002 for the dry season and the 15th of April 2003 for the wet  
271 season. A total of 10000 pixels per image has been used.

272

273 The PCA and k-means processes are quite sensible to the input. In this case, the objective is  
274 to represent the variability of the flooded area. The data is mainly composed of not flooded  
275 pixels as demonstrated by the distribution in Figure 4 whose maximum is located in the low-  
276 NDMI / low-mNDWI region. For this reason, although the 10000 pixels per image were  
277 randomly selected, pixels with higher values of mNDWI have been favored. Another filter  
278 has been applied to avoid selecting the outlier which were mainly pixels with extremely low  
279 NDMI value (cf. Figure 4).

280

281 The k-means clustering with k=6 is shown in Figure 5. In the spatial location of the clusters

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282 in the (mNDWI, NDMI) space (Figure 5.c), the cluster number 0 to 3 have a low mNDWI  
 283 value, reasons why they are considered as not flooded and their NDMI index value is growing  
 284 from the cluster 0 to the cluster 3. Looking at the difference between the k-means  
 285 representation of the dry season image (Figure 5.b) and the wet season image (Figure 5.a)  
 286 maps, we can see that they may represent different conditions of vegetation and that low  
 287 vegetation regions in the dry season image become high vegetation region during the wet  
 288 season. Pixels in the clusters 4 and 5 have a higher mNDWI value and can be considered as  
 289 flooded. The pixels in cluster 5 include the pixels with maximal mNDWI values, thus we can  
 290 consider that cluster 5 represents the open water pixels and pixel 4 the flooded vegetation.

291

292 The second dimension of the PCA is shown in Figure 6. We can deduce that higher values  
 293 along this dimension represent the flooded pixels.

294

295 **2.f) VALIDATION DATA**

296 Ground-based observations of the flooded area over such a large area as the Pantanal are  
 297 scarce. The validation of a flood estimate method may rely on two aspects: (1) the knowledge  
 298 of the local hydrological network and the characteristics of the regions; (2) the comparison  
 299 with previous satellite estimates.

300

301 Hamilton et al. (1996) is a reference for the flooded area estimate over the region. It found a  
 302 relationship between the flooded area over the Pantanal estimated between 1979 and 1987  
 303 and the river gauge at the Ladário station obtained from the Brazilian National Water Agency  
 304 (Agência Nacional de Águas - ANA). The flooded area has been estimated using the  
 305 brightness temperature from a satellite passive microwave sensor. Hamilton et al. (2002)  
 306 further extended this relationship from 1900 to 2000 to obtain an estimation of the evolution  
 307 of the flooded area. Although these results are not available for the period of availability of  
 308 MODIS, they point out that the river gauge data from the Ladário station (see Figure 1) can

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309 be used to assess the flooded area as these data are strongly correlated.

310

311 We will also for comparison use the estimation of (Padovani, 2010) which has been validated  
312 in comparison with Hamilton et al. (2002). Padovani (2010) applied a Linear Model of  
313 Spectral Mixture (LMSM) to MODIS MOD13Q1 images to estimate the temporal and map  
314 the spatial evolution of the flooded area over the Pantanal. The MOD13Q1 product includes  
315 vegetation description (NDVI and EVI indexes) and the corresponding Red, Near Infrared,  
316 blue and Mid-Infrared bands from MODIS. A 16-days composite image is created by  
317 selecting the highest quality data for each pixel (lower view angle, absence of clouds) and by  
318 favoring higher values of NDVI/EVI indexes. Thus, although this product is also constructed  
319 from MODIS data, it differs from MOD09A1 because of its focus on vegetation processes  
320 and because of the lower temporal resolution (images each 16 days instead of 8). The method  
321 developed by Padovani (2010) uses a single image (May 25th 2007) to calibrate by finding  
322 a linear relationship between the reflection at different wavelengths available and the soil,  
323 vegetation and water cover. By applying this relationship to the other images, it allows  
324 estimating the fraction of soil, vegetation and water cover. The flooded area is then  
325 determined by applying a threshold on the water cover fraction.

326

327 Other types of datasets have been considered for the spatial validation of the methods  
328 presented in this study such as WaterMAP (Pekel et al., 2016) and GFPLAINS250m.  
329 WaterMAP is a global dataset available between 1984 and 2015 which contains the monthly  
330 estimate of the surface water location constructed from optical sensors (Landsat 5 TM;  
331 Landsat 7 ETM+ and Landsat 8 OLI), regional datasets and from inventories.  
332 GFPLAINS250m is a 250m resolution dataset drawing the delimitations of what can be  
333 considered as floodplains based on Digital Elevation Model datasets.

334

335 The different thresholds required were calibrated with the Padovani (2010) time series for  
336 the period 2002-2004. The respective threshold values for the different methods are resumed  
337 in Table II.

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338

339 The mean flood frequency from Padovani (2010) will also be used as a comparison.  
340 However, as it improves the readability of the map, the modification of the flood frequency  
341 map from Padovani (2010) presented in Fluet-Chouinard et al., (2015) can also be used to  
342 assess the spatial representation of the floodplains in the different methods used in this work.

### 343 **3) RESULTS**

344 The different satellite estimate methods that have been described in Section 2 and calibrated  
345 over the 2002-2004 period have been applied to MODIS MOD09A1 between 2002 and 2009.  
346 Their temporal evolution and spatial representation are assessed in comparison with  
347 Padovani (2010).

#### 348 **3.a) EVALUATION OF THE TEMPORAL EVOLUTION**

349 The temporal evolution of the flooded area estimated over the Pantanal by the threshold-  
350 based methods are presented in Figure 7 and Figure 8 shows the evaluation of the results for  
351 the unsupervised classification methods. The comparison of the different estimates with  
352 Padovani (2010) is summarized through some basic comparative statistical indexes in Table  
353 III (correlation, root mean square error - RMSE - and percentage bias – PBIAS).

354

355 Except the NDMI index, the different methods are coherent with the study of Padovani  
356 (2010). Among them, the PCA and NDMI-NDVI have higher values of flooded area while  
357 the mNDWI index and the k-means have lower values of the flooded area.

358

359 The NDMI-based estimation is less correlated than the other methods with Padovani but this  
360 correlation increases when integrating the information from the NDVI index (Figure 7.c).  
361 This difference may be related to the influence of the vegetation in the NDMI index.

362

363 The river stage at Ladário is delayed compared to both Padovani (2010) and the methods

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364 evaluated although the amplitude of the river gauge and the estimated flooded area are  
365 similar. Following the Hamilton et al. (1996) estimation of the flooded area, the river stage  
366 at Ladário should be strongly correlated. Further analysis should be performed to understand  
367 these differences.

### 368 **3.b) EVALUATION OF THE SPATIAL EVOLUTION**

369 Figure 9 shows the comparison of flood frequency between 2002 and 2009 in the different  
370 methods presented in this study in order to compare them with the flood frequency map from  
371 Padovani (2010), WaterMAP and the floodplains delimitations from GFPLAINS250m.

372

373 As seen in the first overview of the spectral indexes, the NDMI index is strongly influenced  
374 by the vegetation which creates a bias for the detection of flooded areas. For the other  
375 estimation methods, the results are more coherent with the flood frequency map from  
376 Padovani (2010) and WaterMAP although WaterMAP seems to consider only the most  
377 flooded area of the Pantanal. Except for the NDMI-based method, the large rivers such as the  
378 Main Paraguay River at the North and South of the Pantanal, the São Lourenço river at the  
379 northeast and the Taquari river at the East of the Pantanal are clearly visible in the different  
380 flood detection methods. All the results are also coherent with the GFPLAINS250m  
381 floodplains delimitation which is based on a DEM. The only exception is the central region  
382 of the Pantanal, the Taquari Megafan, which may be related to local changes in the orography  
383 (Assine, 2005).

### 384 **3.c) EXPLORATION OF A CASE STUDY**

385 The simple flood detection methods presented previously may have a large variety of  
386 applications. This subsection aims to illustrate their potential by using the mNDWI-based  
387 flood detection method and the NDVI index to explore the evolution of the extent of the  
388 floods along the years. The floods are evaluated during the month of march which is one of  
389 the most flooded months for the Pantanal. The images chosen have a cloud cover lower than

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390 2% following the quality flag of MODIS. Three dates have been selected to perform this  
 391 study: 21/03/2004 (t0), 22/03/2007(t1), 06/03/2021 (t2). t0 (respectively t1) corresponds to  
 392 the year of lower maximum (respectively higher maximum) flood extent over the 2002 and  
 393 2010 period. t2 has been chosen in order to compare the two previous dates to the actual  
 394 situation which corresponds to drier conditions and with the vegetation cover affected by  
 395 important wildfires during the 2020 dry season.

396

397 Figure 10 shows the NDVI index (Fig. 10.a) for t0 over the Pantanal as well as the difference  
 398 of NDVI between t1 and t0 (Fig. 10.c) and between t2 and t0 (Fig. 10.c). Figure 10.d-f shows  
 399 the flooded area estimated with the mNDWI based method for the three dates. Comparing  
 400 the flooded area in t0 and t1, the floods in t1 are much more extended but they show similar  
 401 patterns. The regions where the flood became more important in t1 are the northwest and  
 402 central Pantanal. Some flooded areas also appear in the South of the Pantanal. The vegetation  
 403 seems to be reduced over some of the flooded area which may be related to the floods  
 404 replacing the vegetation or at least reducing the NDVI. However, the NDVI increases around  
 405 the shape of the floodplains in t1 compared to t0. A larger extent of flooded area reduces  
 406 locally the NDVI while the NDVI increases at its border due to the higher water availability.

407

408 In t2, the floods are at their minimal extent and are principally around the Paraguay river and  
 409 over the Taquari Megafan in the central region of the Pantanal. The northwest region has  
 410 almost no floods in t2 but has increased NDVI compared to t0. This means that there is water  
 411 allowing for the development of the vegetation but there is not enough water so it can be  
 412 considered as flooded. The NDVI is lower in t2 compared to t0 over the regions with higher  
 413 values of NDVI in t0 which may be related to the wildfire. It should also be noted that there  
 414 is an increase of the NDVI values compared to t0 over the NorthEast of the Pantanal. This  
 415 region is not usually flooded so this may be more related to the impact of the local  
 416 precipitation on the vegetation during the wet season.

417 **4) DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

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418 The estimation of the flooded area over large floodplains is a difficult task. The satellite  
419 products may be precious tools. This paper explored different methods to estimate the  
420 flooded area using the surface reflection from optical remote sensing products. The water-  
421 related information is extracted by using different spectral indexes related to the presence of  
422 water content and vegetation. Then, different methods are developed using directly the  
423 spectral indexes to determine the presence of water: threshold-based methods and  
424 unsupervised classification to use the information from different spectral indexes at the same  
425 time. The different methods evaluated were coherent with the previous works although there  
426 is some delay between the temporal evolution of the estimated flood area and the river height  
427 at Ladário. The NDMI index has an issue to represent the flooded area as it is influenced by  
428 the vegetation during the wet period. However, considering the vegetation through the  
429 NDMI-NDVI index seems to improve the representation of the flooded area. The spatial map  
430 of the flooded area represents well the known hydrological features of the Pantanal. It should  
431 be noted that the threshold based methods have lower computational costs for similar results  
432 but the unsupervised classification methods can bring extra information.

433

434 The methods of flood detection presented in this study are simple methods which are based  
435 on spectral index and do not require important preprocessing. They may be divided into two  
436 categories: the threshold based methods on the one hand and the PCA based and k-means  
437 methods on the other hand. The threshold based methods consist in applying a threshold to  
438 the spectral indexes to detect the flooded area. This threshold can be determined in  
439 comparison with other data which gives an indication either on the flooded area or on the  
440 spatial extent of the floods. Different thresholds can be determined depending on the  
441 sensibility expected for its use. The PCA and k-means methods use unsupervised  
442 classification tools applied to a combination of the spectral indexes related to the presence of  
443 water. For the PCA method, the method consists in identifying the dimension related to the  
444 presence of water to calibrate and apply a threshold to this dimension. For the k-means, it  
445 consists in identifying the clusters which correspond to the flooded area.

446

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447 The advantage of all the above methods is that they can be easily applicable if the user has  
448 some observational data to establish a threshold. Then, it is possible to calculate other spectral  
449 indexes corresponding to other processes using the same optical satellite data to obtain a  
450 global panorama of the hydrological processes over a certain region quite easily with a  
451 reduced pre-processing. Nevertheless, these methods also present some disadvantages. The  
452 main disadvantage is related to the presence of cloud cover in optical satellite images which  
453 requires the filter of images containing clouds and, thus, may reduce the quantity of images  
454 available. Another disadvantage is the fact that the spectral indexes may be affected by other  
455 processes which impact the presence of water without being related to floods such as it may  
456 be the case with the presence of lush vegetation.

457

458 Different solutions can be considered in order to face the issues presented previously  
459 although this may involve more sophisticated methods. Concerning the cloud cover, the  
460 combination of optical and SAR satellite data have been proven to improve the flood  
461 detection being able to solve both cloud cover issue for the optical satellite and noise from  
462 the SAR data (Prigent et al., 2020; Niedermeier et al., 2005; Inglada et al., 2016). Concerning  
463 the interaction of other processes with the flood detection when using optical satellite data,  
464 there are other methods that can be considered. The simpler process consists of developing  
465 customized spectral indexes using a linear combination of the spectral bands in order to better  
466 differentiate the vegetation from the flooded water such as it is done in other application such  
467 as the Floating Algae Index (FAI) (Dogliotti et al., 2018) used to differentiate the presence  
468 of algae in the water. Another option is, instead of evaluating the presence of flood over each  
469 pixel individually, to consider the pixels by group of pixels such as it can be done with the  
470 Object Based Image Analysis (Blaschke et al., 2014). This may help to better determine if  
471 the pixels in an object are flooded by using (1) the distribution of the reflection of the pixels  
472 composing each group and (2) the shape of the object (Louzada et al., 2020). The flood  
473 detection can also be improved by using additional ancillary data about the local orography  
474 using Digital Elevation Models. Finally, some more advanced methods of machine learning  
475 classification can be used but they require more precise information on the pixels which are

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476 flooded in order to fit the model. Unfortunately, this type of information is not always  
477 available.

478

479 Finally, we would like to emphasize that the difficulty to detect the flooded vegetation also  
480 lies in the difficulty to define a limit to qualify whether a pixel is flooded or whether it is just  
481 a pixel representing a moist soil.

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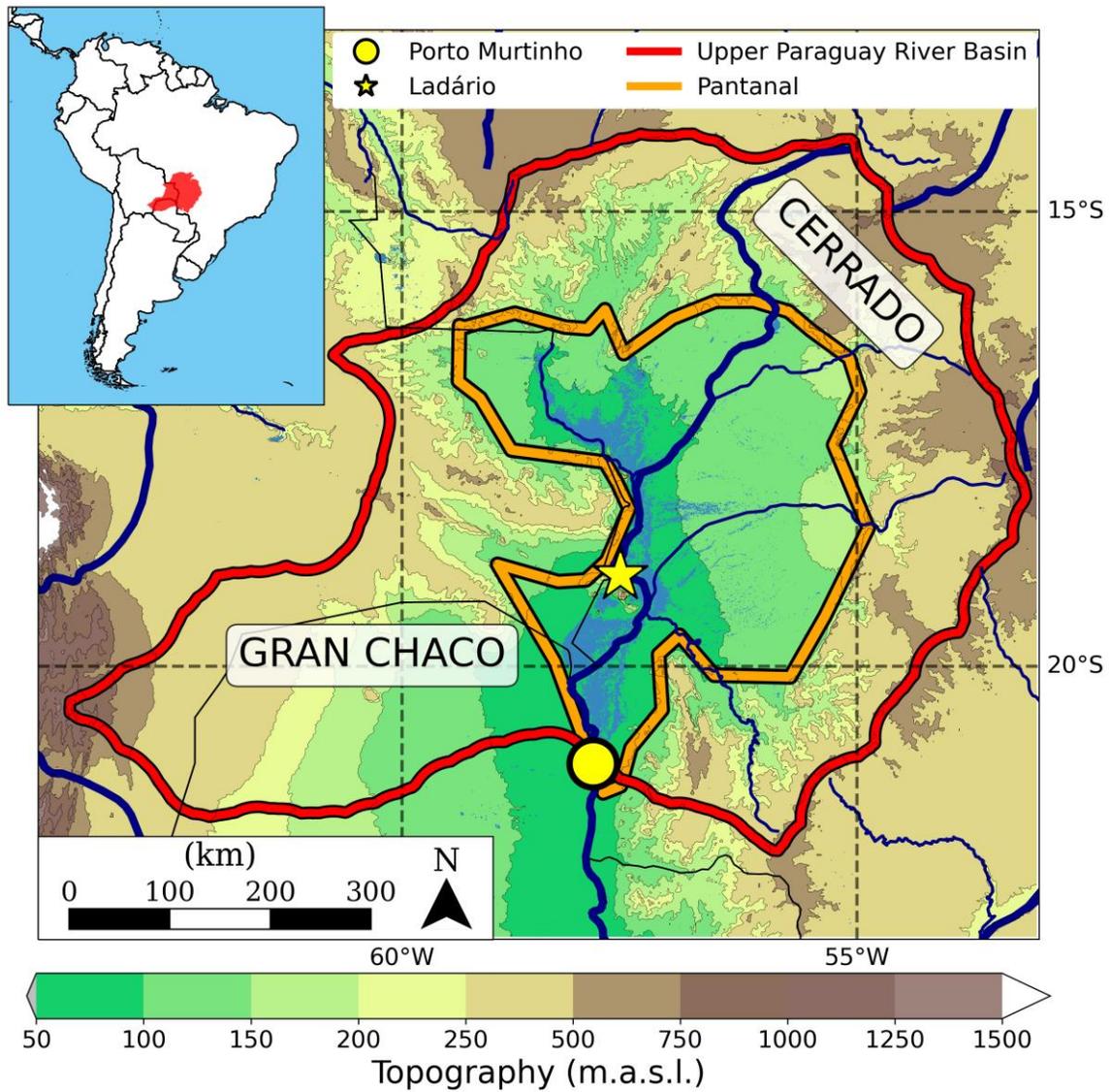
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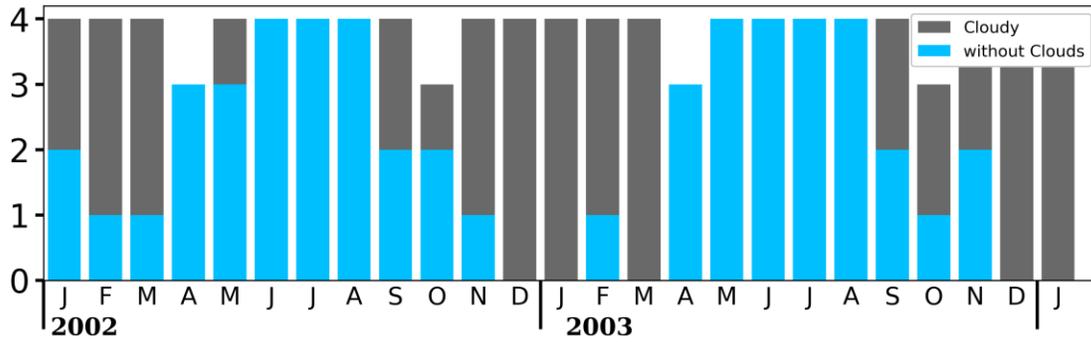
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637 Figure 1: Localization and description of the Pantanal wetlands inside the Upper Paraguay  
 638 River Basin. The blue layer corresponds to the flood extent from WaterMap (Pekel et al.  
 639 2016; Source: EC JRC/Google).

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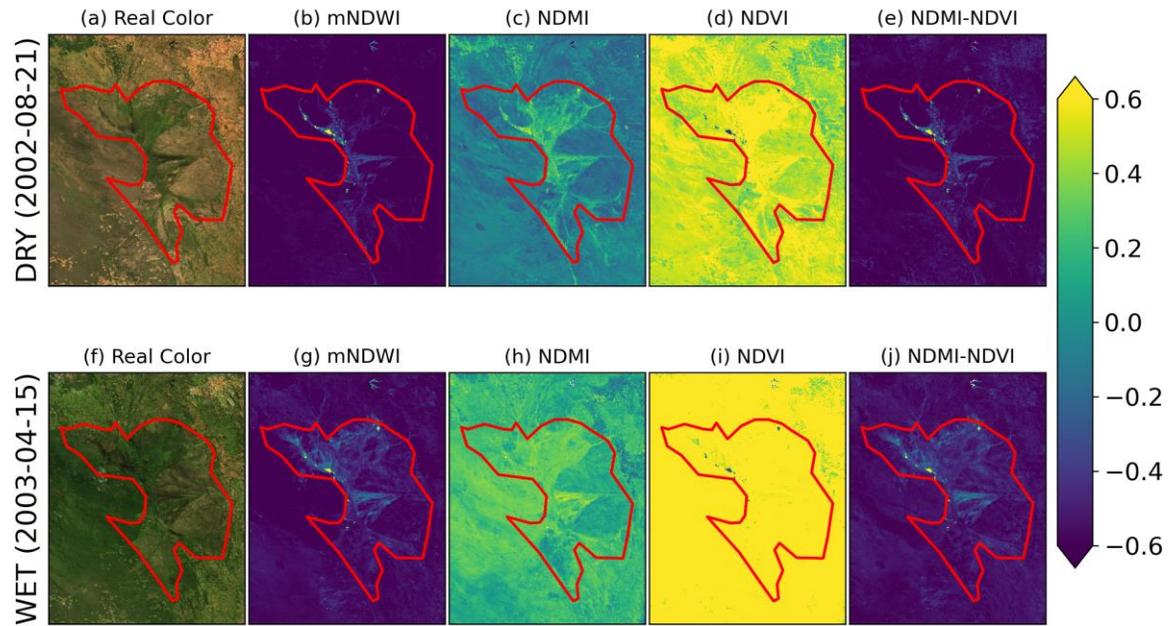


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643 Figure 2: Number of monthly available data for this MODIS product and number of dates  
 644 available without clouds between 2002 and 2004.

645

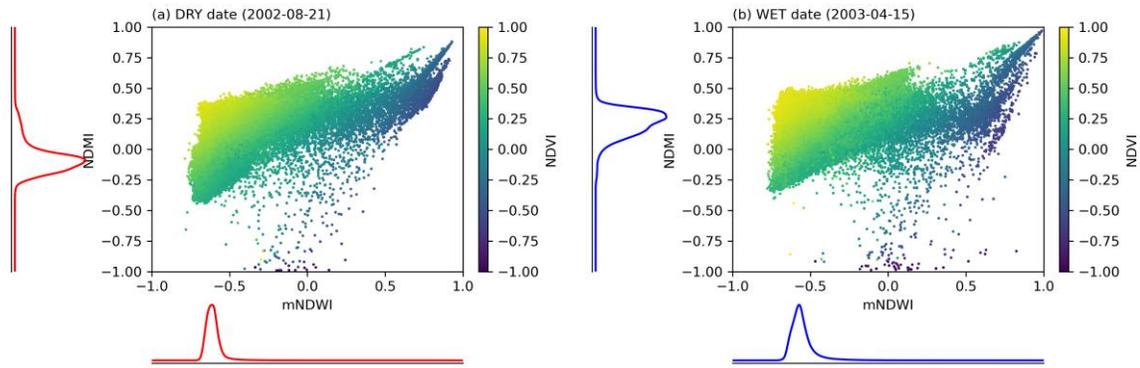


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647 Figure 3: Results of the spectral indexes for two different dates: one during the dry period

648 and one during the wet period.

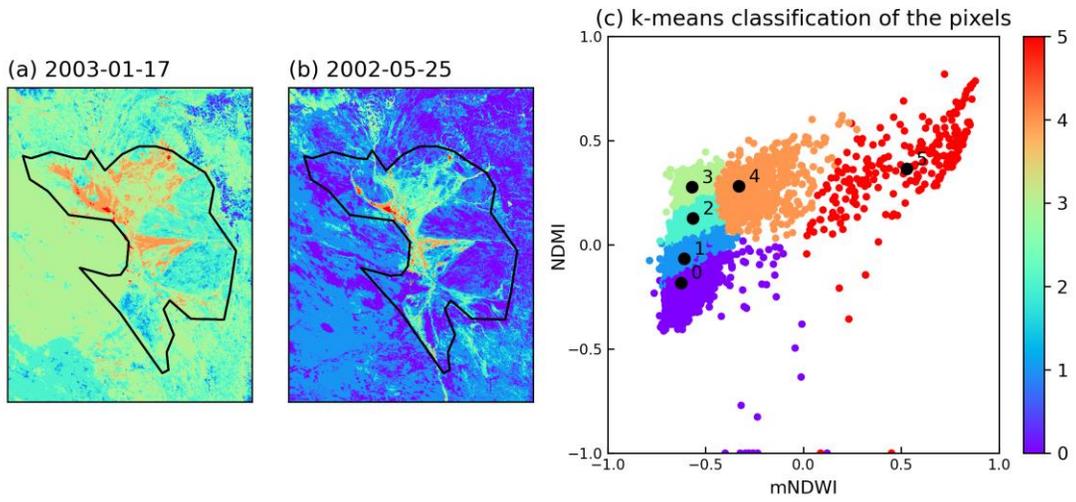
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651 Figure 4: Distribution of the mNDWI / NDMI / NDVI values of the pixels.

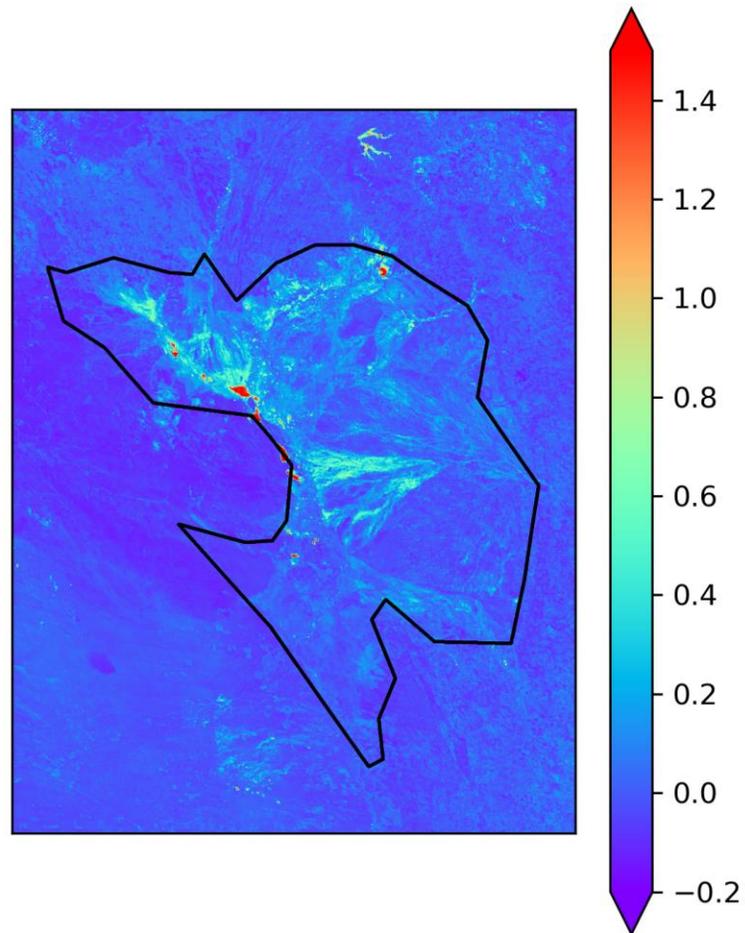
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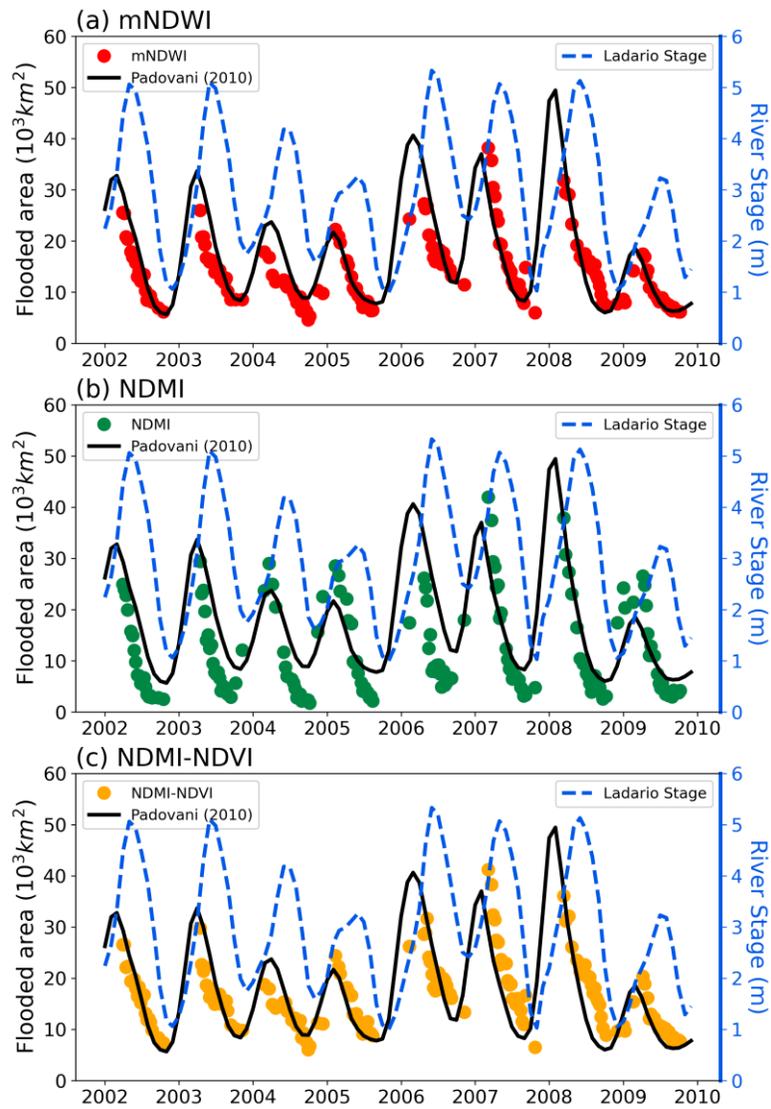
653 Figure 5: Illustration of k-means model output for  $k = 6$  for (a) the wet and (b) the dry  
654 reference images and (c) distribution of the cluster in the (mNDWI / NDMI space).

655



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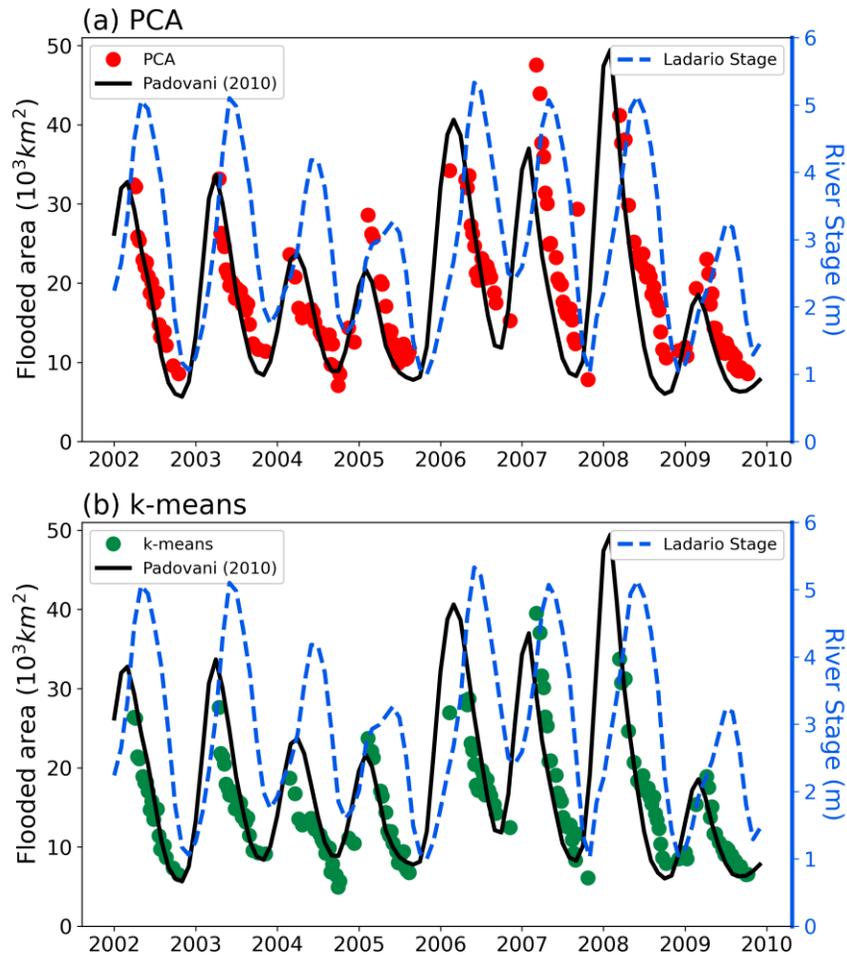
Figure 6: Values for the second dimension of the PCA for the wet reference image.



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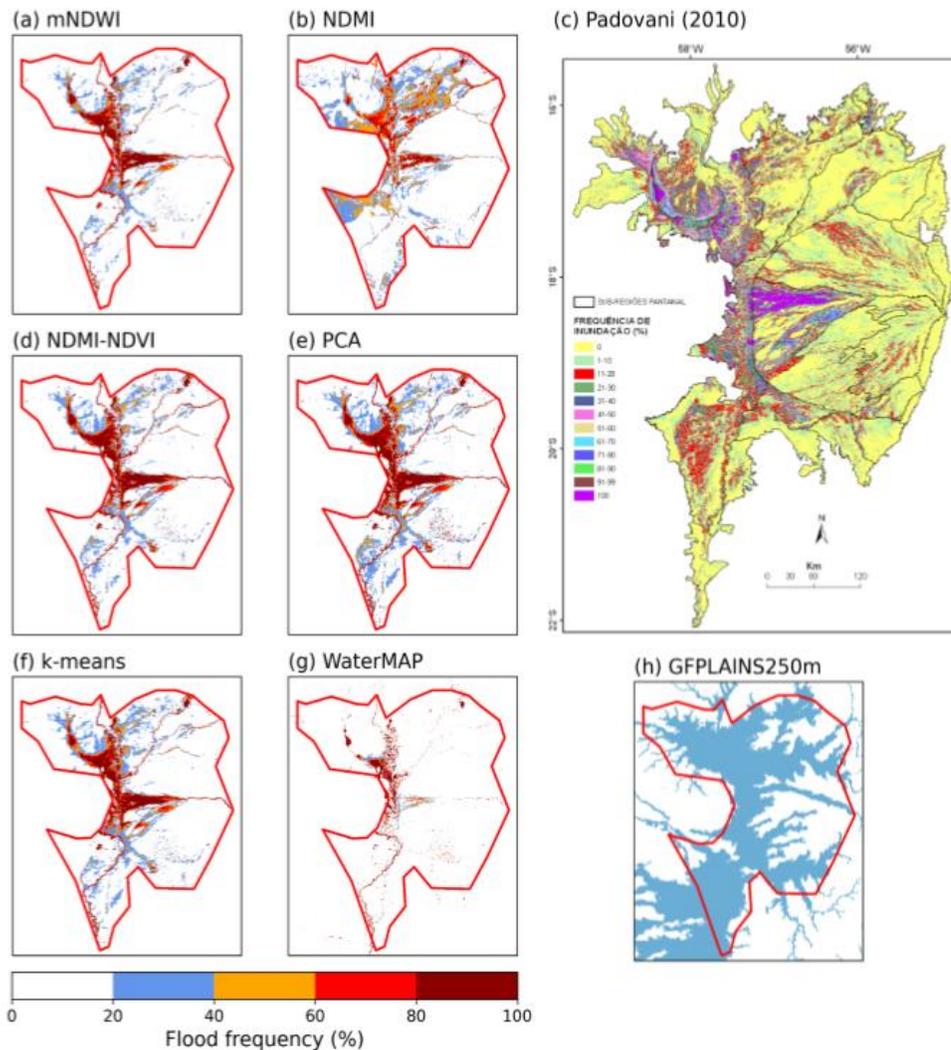
660 Figure 7: Time series of Padovani (2010), the river height at Ladário and of the results from  
 661 the threshold-based methods using (a) mNDWI, (b) NDMI and (c) NDMI-NDVI.

662



663

664 Figure 8: Time series of Padovani (2010), the river height at Ladário and of the results from  
 665 the threshold-based methods using (a) the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) method and  
 666 (b) the k-means algorithm with  $k = 6$ .



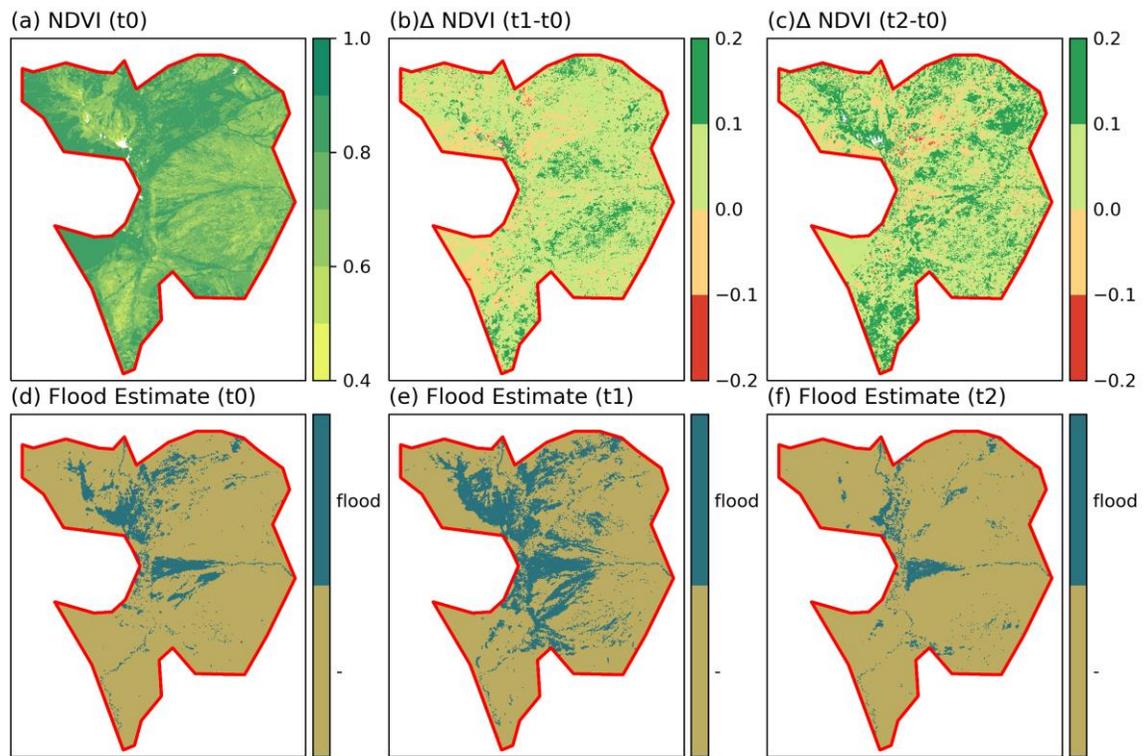
667

668

669 Figure 9: Flood frequency between 2002 and 2009 obtained from the different methods  
 670 presented: 3 threshold-based methods using the (a) mNDWI, (b) NDMI and (d) NDMI-  
 671 NDVI index and 2 unsupervised classification methods: (e) Principal Component Analysis  
 672 and (f) k-means. Occurrence of flood from (c) Padova (2010) and (g) WaterMAP (Pekel  
 673 et al. 2016; Source: EC JRC/Google) between 1984 and 2015 and floodplains delimitation  
 674 from GFPLAINS250m (Nardi et al., 2019).

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677

678 Figure 10: NDVI (a,b,c) and flood estimate (d,e,f) and for t0 (21/03/2004; a and d),

679 t1(22/03/2007; b and e) and t2 (06/03/2021; c and f).

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681

Spectral Indexes	References	Specificity
$mNDWI = \frac{-SWIR}{+SWIR}$	Xu (2006) Ogilvie et al. (2015)	Water detection
$NDMI = \frac{NIR-SWIR}{NIR+SWIR}$	Ogilvie et al. (2015)	Water detection
$NDVI = \frac{NIR-}{NIR+}$	Rouse et al. (1974)	Vegetation and water detection
NDMI-NDVI	Gond et al. (2004) Boschetti et al. (2014)	Rice flood mapping, water bodies and wetland

682

683 Table I: Spectral indexes considered in this study with some reference papers and the  
684 specificity of these indexes.

685

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<b>Method</b>	<b>Threshold</b>
Threshold-based mNDWI	-0,465
Threshold-based NDMI	0,32
Threshold-based NDMI-NDVI	-0,45
K-Means	Cluster 4 and 5
PCA	0,09

686

687 Table II: Methods and their corresponding threshold values.

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Method	PBIAS	RMSE	Correlation
mNDWI	-12,74	4.894	0,8
NDMI	-23,83	6.839	0,81
NDMI-NDVI	9,89	5.243	0,82
K-Means	11,46	5.119	0,77
PCA	-9,83	4.871	0,78

689

690 Table III: Resume of the statistics (Percentage bias - PBIAS, Root-Mean Square Error -  
691 RMSE, Correlation) comparing Padovani (2010) estimate with the different methods:  
692 threshold-based applied to mNDWI, NDMI and NDMI-NDVI, Principal Component  
693 Analysis (PCA) method and k-means with  $k = 6$ . The correlations are significant with a  
694 significance level of 99 %.

695