International Journal of Engineering & Extended Technologies Research (IJEETR)

|ISSN: 2322-0163| www.ijeetr.com | A Bimonthly, Peer Reviewed, Scholarly Indexed Journal |

| Volume 6, Issue 6, November - December 2024 |

DOI:10.15662/IJEETR.2024.0606019

AI-Enabled Big Data Models for Urban Flood Prediction and Management

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ABSTRACT: Urban flooding is a global disaster that claims thousands of lives every year, causing immense economic damage and distress. With digital transformation, large amounts of disparate data are generated and stored. However, the large volume and complexity of Big Data in urban hydrology have outpaced its utilization for practical applications. New AI-enabled big-data models allow data-rich and information-hungry problems to meet. A comprehensive, objective summary of such models and their use in urban flood prediction and management fills a gap in the literature. Evidence for the synthesis comes from recent theoretical and applied studies and covers new insights into urban flooding, the emerging Urban-Data Landscape, a generic methodological framework, and major developments at three levels: city-scale flood prediction, drainage-network optimization, and real-time flood detection and tracking.

Despite the pressing need for comprehensive Data Protection Frameworks that embrace equity, privacy, and security for IoT and Smart Cities, the focus in AI-assisted urban flood management has been exclusively on prediction and optimization – with little effort to define the necessary governance frameworks for operational deployment. The importance of a holistic and integrated approach that preserves the integrity of urban society is highlighted, attention is drawn to data gaps and quality-assurance challenges, and the transferability and scalability of AI-enabled Big-Data Models are examined – towards the development of Citybrain, mind and soul of the Smart City.

KEYWORDS: Urban Flooding, AI-Enabled Big Data Models, Urban Hydrology Analytics, Smart City Infrastructure, City-Scale Flood Prediction, Drainage Network Optimization, Real-Time Flood Detection and Tracking, Urban Data Landscape, IoT-Based Environmental Monitoring, Flood Risk Management Systems, Data Governance Frameworks, Privacy and Security in Smart Cities, Data Quality Assurance, Scalable AI Architectures, Digital Transformation in Urban Systems, Integrated Disaster Management Platforms, Predictive Hydrological Modeling, Transferable Urban Analytics Models, Citybrain Architecture, Resilient Urban Ecosystems.

I. INTRODUCTION

A recent study consolidates, reviews, and synthesizes the growing body of research employing AI-enabled big data models for urban flood prediction and management. Despite an apparent disconnect between data-driven models and flood-risk mitigation, a systematic analysis reveals promising developments in evidence-based urban flood prediction and management.

Urban floods remain one of the most significant global hazards, exacerbated by climate change and rapid urbanization. Although cities invest significantly to address flood risk, with mounting available data resources, models capable of capitalizing on the data landscape and effectively assisting decision-makers are still lacking. AI-enabled big data models can support various tasks spanning the urban flood-risk chain, including hazard prediction, exposure assessment, impact forecasting, mitigation, adaptation, and recovery. When leveraged appropriately, such models can contribute to sounder decision-making and ultimately reduce urban flood damage.

1.1. Overview of the Study

Urban flood risk is growing due to rapid urbanization, climate change, and ecological neglect, threatening lives and damaging infrastructure. Data availability is increasing and now includes high-resolution, real-time, and spatiotemporally enriched data on urban pluvial floods and other hazards, as well as big data on social behavior, economic development, and disease outbreaks. AI-enabled big data-driven models can harness these new data to provide cost-effective solutions for urban flood prediction and management. A methodological framework for urban flood management has been developed, along with several advanced practical applications. These include city-scale flood prediction, vulnerability analysis of urban stormwater drainage networks, and the design of an optimal flood monitoring network.

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Cities are vulnerable to surface pluvial flooding because of their high imperviousness, inadequate drainage systems, and the reduction or loss of natural drainage systems. Surface flooding can cause large-scale social and economic disruption and damage and affect public health and safety. Weather events that can increase the risk of surface flooding include heavy rainfall, extreme temperatures, snowmelt, and hurricanes. Accurate and timely prediction of surface pluvial flooding can help detect dangerous areas and minimize damage through timely flood preparation. AI-enabled big data models can play an important role in this domain. Integrating and processing large volumes of varied data can help shed new light on surface flooding. These data can be used not only to provide precise and timely predictions but also to establish effective flood control and monitoring management systems.

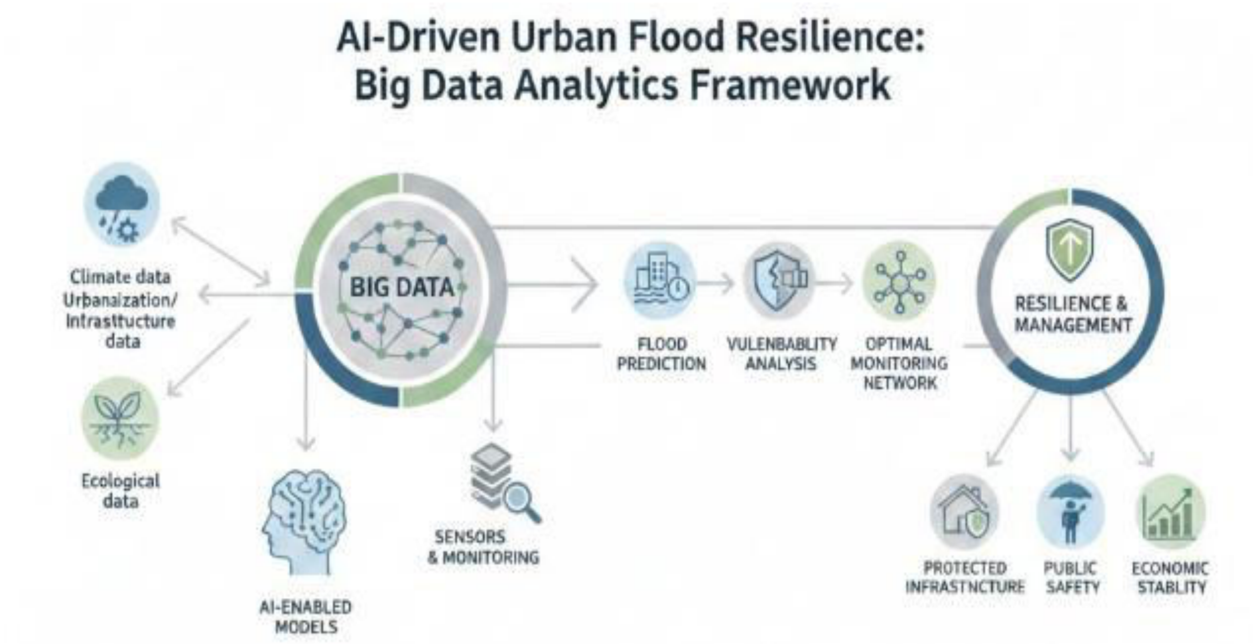

Fig 1: Synergizing AI-Enabled Big Data Analytics and Spatiotemporal Modeling for Enhanced Urban Pluvial Flood Resilience: A Multidimensional Management Framework

II. BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

Urban flooding has risen to alarming levels in some cities and regions, leading to repeated loss of life and property. Robust city-scale urban flood prediction and management systems that employ artificial intelligence and advanced modeling technology, along with big data and predictive analytics, are vital to reduce flood loss. The massive volume and diversity of urban flood-related data—whether from satellite, ground-based observations, or models—create new opportunities but also present new data integration and modeling challenges. Such challenges must be addressed to make effective use of the urban flood-related data landscape.

Various sources of urban flood data introduce new modeling paradigms—AI can facilitate and amplify innovation in flood data integration and modeling while also demanding careful consideration of data ownership, governance, equity, and ethical issues. A survey of the recent literature reveals a growing number of AI-enabled big data urban flood models, supported by city and country-wide flood real-time monitoring and prediction systems. The increasing interest in data-driven methods emphasizes the urgent need for a hydro informatics framework to assist in data gathering, preprocessing, and postprocessing. Data gaps, data quality assurance, model transferability for holistic flood prediction at the city scale, and the ethics of AI flood modeling remain important concerns. Future AI and big-data urban flood modeling efforts should address these issues to accelerate academic and societal innovation.

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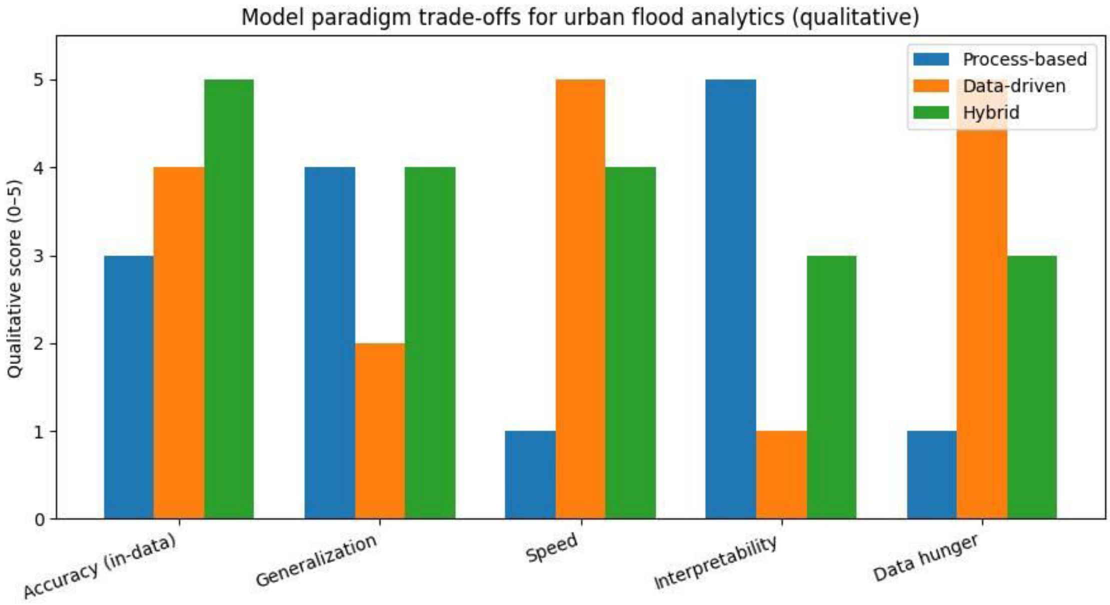

Equation 1) Core hydrology/hydraulics equations (process-based backbone)

1.1 Mass conservation (continuity) in 2D surface flow

Let:

- $h(x,y,t)$ = water depth
- $u(x,y,t), v(x,y,t)$ = depth-averaged velocities
- $q_x = hu,\ q_y = hv$ = unit discharges
- $r(x,y,t)$ = rainfall intensity (source)
- $i(x,y,t)$ = infiltration / losses (sink)

Start from conservation of mass over a small control area $\Delta x \Delta y$:

Step 1 (storage change):

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(h\,\Delta x \Delta y)$$

Step 2 (net flux out):

Flux in x direction across left/right faces:

$$(q_x|_{x+\Delta x} - q_x|_x)\,\Delta y$$

Flux in y direction across bottom/top faces:

$$\left(q_y|_{y+\Delta y} - q_y|_y\right)\,\Delta x$$

Step 3 (sources/sinks):

$$(r-i)\,\Delta x \Delta y$$

Step 4 (balance):

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(h\,\Delta x \Delta y) + (q_x|_{x+\Delta x} - q_x|_x)\Delta y + \left(q_y|_{y+\Delta y} - q_y|_y\right)\Delta x = (r-i)\Delta x \Delta y$$

Step 5 (divide by $\Delta x \Delta y$, take limit):

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial (hu)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (hv)}{\partial y} = r - i}$$

1.2 Momentum conservation (shallow water / Saint-Venant 2D)

The depth-averaged momentum equations (with bed slope + friction) are:

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial(hu)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(hu^2 + \frac{1}{2}gh^2\right) + \frac{\partial(huv)}{\partial y} = gh\left(S_{0x} - S_{fx}\right)} \quad \boxed{\frac{\partial(hv)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(huv)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(hv^2 + \frac{1}{2}gh^2\right) = gh\left(S_{0y} - S_{fy}\right)}$$

1. Assume hydrostatic pressure: $p(z) = \rho g(h - z)$.
2. Integrate pressure over depth to get a depth-averaged pressure force per width:

$$\int_0^h p\,(z)\,dz = \int_0^h \rho\,g(h - z)\,dz = \rho g\left[hz - \frac{z^2}{2}\right]_0^h = \rho g\frac{h^2}{2}$$

3. Divide by ρ (per unit mass) $\rightarrow \frac{1}{2}gh^2$.
4. Insert into flux form of momentum → the terms above.

1.3 Friction slope using Manning's equation

For open-channel / sheet flow, Manning relates velocity to hydraulic radius R and slope S_f:

$$V = \frac{1}{n}R^{2/3}S_f^{1/2}$$

Solve for S_f:

Step 1 (multiply by n):

$$nV = R^{2/3}S_f^{1/2}$$

Step 2 (divide by $R^{2/3}$):

$$\frac{nV}{R^{2/3}} = S_f^{1/2}$$

Step 3 (square both sides):

$$\boxed{S_f = \left(\frac{nV}{R^{2/3}}\right)^2}$$

In 2D, $V = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}$, and this friction feeds S_{fx}, S_{fy} directions.

2.1. Urban Flood Risk and Impacts

Urban flooding has become one of the most prominent climate-related challenges. Populated cities are frequently affected by springs, rain, storms, and natural disasters. Such calamities expose millions of people to flood risks and cause severe economic losses. Despite huge investments in flood protection systems in many regions of the world, flood protection has not been strengthened accordingly. The damage caused by floods has seriously threatened the quality of life of urban residents and is increasingly becoming a hot issue in urban management. Urban floods not only lead to significant property losses but also pose serious threats to human life. Large-scale economic losses and casualties caused by urban floods represent failures in urban flood control and forecasting systems.

For instance, urban floods in Canada normally reach their peaks during the spring months when drainage systems are often overwhelmed by the sudden increase in rain and sudden melts of snow and ice. These conditions result in multiple road closures, infrastructure damage, and property losses. In 2015, floods in Houston, Texas, caused by prolonged rainfall, resulted in 57 dead and 100 missing. Though the city has invested in upgrading its flood protection systems, urban floods are still frequent. Furthermore, urban use problems have further aggravated the flooding, showing that there is still much work to be done in flood control and forecasting. The number of studies in urban flood forecasting has increased significantly, although issues with the breadth and depth of the analysis remain.

2.2. Data Landscape in Urban Hydrology

Significant advances in remote sensing, smart sensors, social media, and the Internet of Things have transformed contemporary urban hydrological data landscapes. Remote-sensing observations provide rich information about rainfall and climate, while local authorities and commercial companies increasingly deploy smart sensors (e.g., water level and quality sensors) at urban scales. In parallel, social media (Twitter, Facebook, Flickr) can be leveraged to gather public perceptions of floods and to crowdsource damage and recovery information. Advances in AI and natural language processing enable the analysis of unstructured data with very low costs. Finally, urban drainage networks, including piped sewer systems, rainwater and sewage treatment plants, retention basins, and open channels, can be analyzed and represented digitally via hydraulic models.

These vast data sources and recent developments call for rethinking modeling for flood prediction, management, and risk-based decision-making in urban settings. The integration of different data sources may enhance the predictability of urban floods, facilitate optimization of drainage networks, and improve risk estimation. To explore these opportunities, a methodological framework uses AI-enabled big data models focused on the following aspects: (1) big data model for city-scale urban flood prediction aided by advanced hydrodynamic simulations and multiple data sources, (2) data-driven optimization of drainage networks under different flooding scenarios, and (3) risk-based modeling of urban floods using underutilized Twitter data and natural language processing.

Paradigm	Typical tools	Strengths	Limitations
Process-based (physics)	Shallow-water / hydrodynamic solvers	Interpretability; extrapolation	Computationally expensive; calibration needs
Data-driven (ML/DL)	CNN/LSTM/GBM, etc.	Fast inference; exploits diverse data	Needs labeled data; transferability/overfit risk
Hybrid (physics+ML)	Surrogate models, physics-informed ML	Speed + physical constraints	Design complexity; still needs quality data

III. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

A methodological framework enabling a holistic approach to urban flooding is described. Big datasets related to floods and flooding processes are identified, critical attributes are described, and a selection of modeling paradigms and algorithms are defined to address a variety of prediction, detection, and optimization tasks using these datasets. Focus lies on city-scale flood event prediction and on AI-assisted optimization of drainage networks, with case studies presented for selected world cities.

The sheer number of individuals living in urban areas and the resulting risk to their lives and properties from occasional flooding situations have been discussed comprehensively. Therefore, the volume of data with key links to flooding is significant. Traditional tools have been assessed to establish their strengths and weaknesses for flood risk forecasting. Within the Big Data context, the mapping of social media feeds (e.g., Twitter), detection of flood indicators (e.g., rainfall, water levels), and subsequent response phase analyses are increasingly common.

However, AI & Big Data technologies deployed both within academia and for urban flood risk management are still too limited in scope and depth. Recent research directions are complementary to previous flood prediction efforts and data sources. Empirical data coverage across cities can be improved further, and work remains in identifying the processing and analysis of other relevant datasets, such as urban drainage and sewer networks.

Equation 2) Rainfall–runoff transformation (used for fast city-scale prediction inputs)
2.1 SCS Curve Number (CN) excess rainfall
Let:

- P = event rainfall depth (mm)
- S = potential maximum retention after runoff begins (mm)
- I_a = initial abstraction (mm), often $I_a = 0.2S$
- Q = direct runoff depth (mm)

Given (standard SCS form):

$$Q = \frac{(P - I_a)^2}{P - I_a + S}, \quad P > I_a; \qquad Q = 0, \; P \le I_a$$

Also:

$$\boxed{S = \frac{25400}{CN} - 254}$$

Step-by-step (why Q has this structure):

3. Define "available rainfall after initial abstraction": $P' = P - I_a$.
4. Assume proportionality between runoff and retention:

$$\frac{Q}{P'} = \frac{F}{S}$$

where F is actual retention (infiltration + storage after runoff begins).
3) Water balance after runoff begins: $P' = Q + F \Rightarrow F = P' - Q$.
4) Substitute into proportionality:

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$$\frac{Q}{P'} = \frac{P' - Q}{S}$$

5. Solve:

$QS = P'(P' - Q) \Rightarrow QS = P'^2 - P'Q\ QS + P'Q = P'^2 \Rightarrow Q(S + P') = P'^2$ $\boxed{Q = \frac{P'^2}{S+P'} = \frac{(P-I_a)^2}{P-I_a+S}}$

2.2 Unit hydrograph convolution (turn excess rainfall into discharge)

Let:

- $e(t)$ = excess rainfall rate (mm/hr)
- $u(t)$ = unit hydrograph (m³/s per mm/hr)
- $q(t)$ = discharge hydrograph (m³/s)

Linear time-invariant assumption:

$$\boxed{q(t) = (e * u)(t) = \int_0^t e(\tau)\, u(t - \tau)\, d\tau}$$

Discrete steps with time step Δt:

$$\boxed{q_k = \sum_{j=0}^{k} e_j\, u_{k-j}\, \Delta t}$$

3.1. Data Acquisition and Integration

The data landscape evaluated comprises four different paradigms: officially recognized hydrological datasets; crowdsourced open data sources; open-source data from a private company; and non-hydrological datasets unexplored previously in hydrology. The C17 data lake comprises hydrological data that require monitoring and management by the C17 unit, associated with the Regional Urban Development and Infrastructure office of the Government of Telangana. These key urban infrastructure data are in and around the 14 major cities in the state of Telangana, India. The large volume of crucial non-hydrological datasets—river basin, digital elevation model, land cover, land use, soil type, and building and settlement maps of India—that are freely available and already pre-processed were exploited for the flow simulation; the C17-DIGIT team made extensive use of the pre-primed data. Crowdsourced open data contain drone-acquired images of Hyderabad city that allow 3D modelling and identification of drainage outlets, bridges, and embankments. The urban area of Hyderabad comprises extensive high-definition LiDAR (Light Detection and Ranging) point cloud data generated through drone technology, enabling precise identification of static features of a city, including buildings, breakwaters, culverts, ditches, embankments, bridges, and critical boundaries of the city. A localized high-resolution rain gauge dataset—the C17 data lake—incorporates Kamalapur's road barricade and diversion for effective city and flow management.

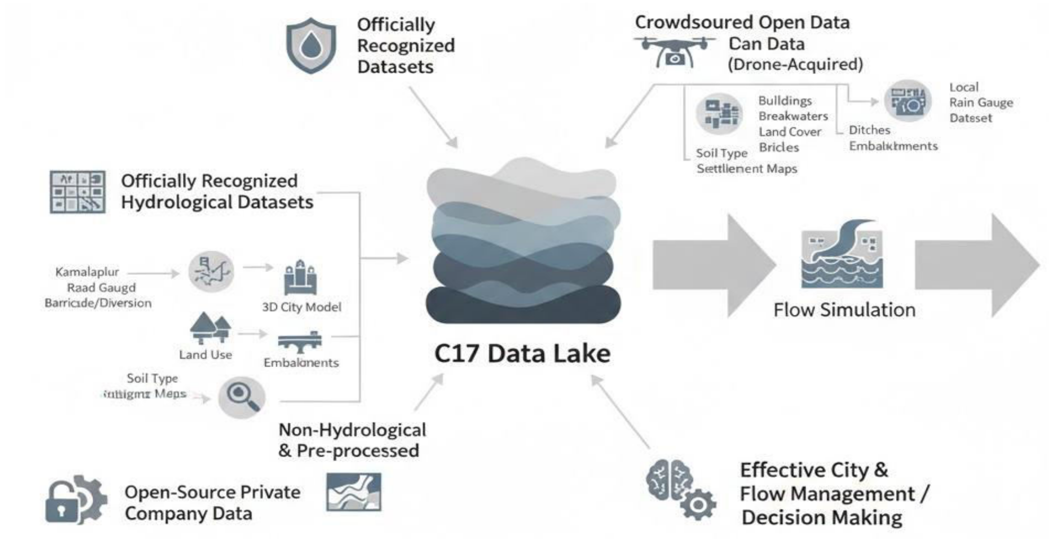

Fig 2: Multimodal Data Fusion for Urban Hydrology: The C17 Data Lake Framework for High-Resolution Flow Simulation and Infrastructure Management

3.2. Modeling Paradigms and Algorithms

Underpinning urban flood prediction and management are three modeling paradigms: data-driven, process-based, and hybrid models. Data-driven models correlate urban flood responses with major urban attributes and control factors through supervised machine learning, offering rapid predictions without detailed understanding of hydrologic processes. Process-based models describe flooding dynamics statefully based on physical principles, with joint use and calibration of sophisticated hydrodynamic solvers. Hybrid models combine aspects of both types, such as linking drainage network capacity with rainfall-induced flooding.

Hybrids employ combination algorithms relying on domain knowledge of problem constraints to tie together highly accurate but computationally expensive models with large-scale, fast but less realistic ones to achieve significant speed-up while losing little accuracy. Finally, along with the well-established AdaBoost additive learning algorithm and its multi-label extension, evolving models from bootstrapping neural networks, and two equation- and biologically-restored deep reinforcement learning algorithms have also been deployed to important knowledge-discovery tasks.

IV. CASE STUDIES AND APPLICATIONS

Case studies from New York City, Singapore, and Hong Kong illustrate how AI-enabled models—from city-wide big data analysis to drainage network optimization—advance scientific understanding, facilitate decision support, and improve flood resilience. A set of satellite image-based deep-learning models predict flooding in New York City due to storm surge, infrastructure failure, and pluvial inundation. Future return intervals of extreme rainfall event clusters are estimated via state-of-the-art probabilistic approaches using a 47-year historical event history integrated with projected climate-change rainfall patterns. Cutting-edge data-driven methods predict the flooding of road segments in Singapore using rainfall forecasts as input. AI-enabled machine-learning approaches optimize the drainage network in Hong Kong and are set to be adapted for high-automation, data-to-decision applications. A wider range of city-scale studies demonstrates predictive power and algorithmic versatility.

Case-specific advantages and disadvantages are delineated, strengthening city-scale insights. The outlined body of work forms part of a dedicated, ongoing research agenda to develop city-tailored AI-enabled big data models for urban flood prediction and management. Effective urban flood governance requires predictive models that fully exploit the voluminous, diverse, and high-velocity data now available or becoming available—indeed, Big Data analytics—coupled with sound theoretical bases and effective decision-support systems. The challenges of city-scale urban flood AI-enabled Big Data modeling are vast, but the rewards can be high, and a growing body of work provides reassurance that progress is possible, perhaps indeed feasible, now.

Equation 3) Data-driven city-scale flood prediction equations (CNN / spatiotemporal learning)

3.1 Input–output mapping

Let:

- X = stacked spatiotemporal predictors (rainfall grids, radar/NWP fields, terrain/land-use layers, etc.)
- Y = target (e.g., water level at m nodes, inundation depth grid, flooded road segments)

Model:

$$\boxed{\hat{Y} = f_\theta(X)}$$

3.2 2D convolution layer (step-by-step)

For an input feature map X and kernel K of size $(p \times q)$:

Step 1 (local weighted sum):

$$S(i,j) = \sum_{a=0}^{p-1} \sum_{b=0}^{q-1} K(a,b)\, X(i+a,\, j+b)$$

Step 2 (add bias):

$$Z(i,j) = S(i,j) + b$$

Step 3 (apply activation σ, e.g., ReLU):

$$\boxed{Y(i,j) = \sigma\big(Z(i,j)\big)}$$

If there are multiple channels, sum over channels c:

$$S(i,j) = \sum_c \sum_a \sum_b K_c(a,b) X_c(i+a, j+b)$$

3.3 Loss function for supervised flood prediction

Common regression loss (MSE):

$$\boxed{\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\left\|\hat{Y}^{(n)} - Y^{(n)}\right\|^2}$$

3.4 Gradient descent update (training step-by-step)

Step 1: compute gradient

$$g_t = \nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}(\theta_t)$$

Step 2: update parameters

$$\boxed{\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta g_t}$$

where η is learning rate.

4.1. City-scale Flood Prediction

Cities are exposed to an increasing flood risk due to climate change and expanding urbanization. Globally, urban drainage systems are frequently found insufficient and unable to cope with infrequent, heavy rainfall events. Current capacity assessments are largely based on deterministic hydraulic models, which are often too simplistic, too detailed, or time-consuming for city-scale applications. To address these shortcomings, a data-driven, AI-enabled modeling approach is proposed that combines big data with convolutional neural networks. Precipitation data from multiple sources (ground stations, weather radars, and numerical weather prediction models) offer improved spatial coverage and temporal resolution at little extra cost. Simultaneous prediction of flood levels over multiple storm events in several key drainage locations of a city is achieved using real-time rainfall prediction from a numerical weather prediction model and historic flood level data. Modelling comprises data preparation, model construction, training and evaluation.

The results of a use-case show that convolutional neural networks successfully learn the spatiotemporal flood dynamics of the city. AI-assisted city-scale urban flood prediction vastly improves the data coverage and modelling capacity. Exploiting AI in combination with large datasets holds strong potential for urban drainage and flood management, with similar approaches readily transferable to other cities.

Data source	Typical variables	Data structure	Why it matters
Numerical weather prediction (NWP)	Forecast rainfall fields	Gridded forecasts	Lead time for early warning
Urban drainage network GIS / hydraulic models	Pipes, manholes, storage, roughness	Graph + attributes	Critical for capacity & optimization
Crowdsourced imagery (drones, photos)	Inundation, assets, outlets	Images/point clouds	High-detail local geometry
Social media (e.g., Twitter)	Flood reports, impacts, recovery	Unstructured text + geo/time	Human-sensed impacts; bias risk

4.2. Drainage Network Optimization

Excess insubstantial rainfall is one of the most frequent natural disasters. Urban drainage systems often cannot handle sudden extreme rainfall due to the low rainfall retention capability of impervious surfaces and the limited drainage speed of urban drainage systems. Predictive models are usually not reliable for beyond-knowledge predictions, especially when there is little historical data on extreme weather events. It is necessary to optimize existing systems in a cost-efficient way to provide sufficient storage during such events. A semi-automated deep-learning model is proposed to suggest additional storage locations that will minimize flood water levels in the target area for a given rainfall event.

Cities should not totally depend on large and costly detention basins to minimize the flood risk. Instead, the strategy in urban flood risk management should be to combine conventional smart stormwater system design with smart use of in-stream water-bodies and parks for temporary flood resilient infrastructure. Recent widespread urbanization and climate change have exceeded the design capacity of traditional urban drainage systems. Traffic magnetic easily attracts flood risk. These developments are generally unpredictable as there are not enough rainfall events in historical records to build a robust prediction model for longevity large-scale neural nets.

Equation 4) Drainage network optimization equations (what "optimal storage locations" means mathematically)

4.1 Graph representation of drainage networks

Represent drainage as a graph $G = (V, E)$:

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- nodes V: manholes/junctions/outfalls
- edges E: pipes/channels
- attributes: diameter, slope, roughness, capacity, etc.

4.2 Generic optimization objective

Let decision vector s denote storage additions (locations + sizes), constrained by budget B. Let $h_i(t; s)$ be simulated/predicted water level at critical node i.

A standard minimax flood objective:

$$\boxed{\min_{s} \quad J(s) = \max_{i \in \mathcal{C}} \max_{t \in [0,T]} h_i(t; s)}$$

subject to:

$$\boxed{\mathrm{Cost}(s) \leq B, \quad s \geq 0}$$

Or total flood volume / exceedance penalty:

$$\boxed{\min_{s} \quad J(s) = \sum_{i,t} \left[h_i(t; s) - h_i^{\mathrm{safe}}\right]_+^2 + \lambda \, \mathrm{Cost}(s)}$$

where $[x]_+ = \max(0, x)$.

V. GOVERNANCE, ETHICS, AND PUBLIC ENGAGEMENT

Various challenges and limitations of using AI-enabled big data models for urban flood prediction and management have been discussed. Data privacy, equity considerations, ethics in AI development and deployment, stakeholder engagement, and governance frameworks are other less-discussed aspects crucial for using these emerging technologies in practice. Even though a large set of high-resolution public and non-public data is generated and made available for free use by today's megacity population, it raises concerns about the possible migration of digital services of users to non-public service providers for free. Since control over large volumes of private data is not manageable, the responsibility of ensuring privacy and non-discrimination lies inherently with the private firms providing services. However, even if published by private entities, the AI-enabled services and models should follow core principles of ethical AI use, and hence governance frameworks should be established for all emerging AI-based digital services.

The potential for a disproportionate interest in online services from particular groups of users in society is another concern of emerging AI-enabled services, especially for administrative functions frequently used by low- and middle-income groups. These administrative services are governed by private entities that often have no other business except advertising based on the data they acquire. By their nature, those services also do not target high-income groups who mostly require bespoke digital services. As a result, users of these public services are mostly the ones with low income and low digital literacy. A negative fallout of moving into the Internet without a proper constraint mechanism can bring regret in the longer term when the digital service providers exploit people. Therefore, oversight and guidance on these services offering functions by government institutions need active deliberation and engagement.

5.1. Data Privacy and Equity Considerations

The increasing volume of real-time data used in big data models for urban flood prediction raises concerns in terms of the impact of the data on people's daily lives, security, and privacy. On the one hand, digital traces collected primarily for other purposes (e.g., transportation or social network data) are repurposed for urban flood prediction. On the other hand, some real-time datasets, including rainfall data from ground-based sensors, are used for flood prediction, in which case users may be concerned about who owns the data, how it is used, and whether it's appropriate for others to use these datasets. For example, privacy issues related to GPS traces that reflect the route selection behavior of smartphone users have been raised, and an important issue for the sharing economy is whether the data generated during the use of shared or borrowing items belong to the renter or user.

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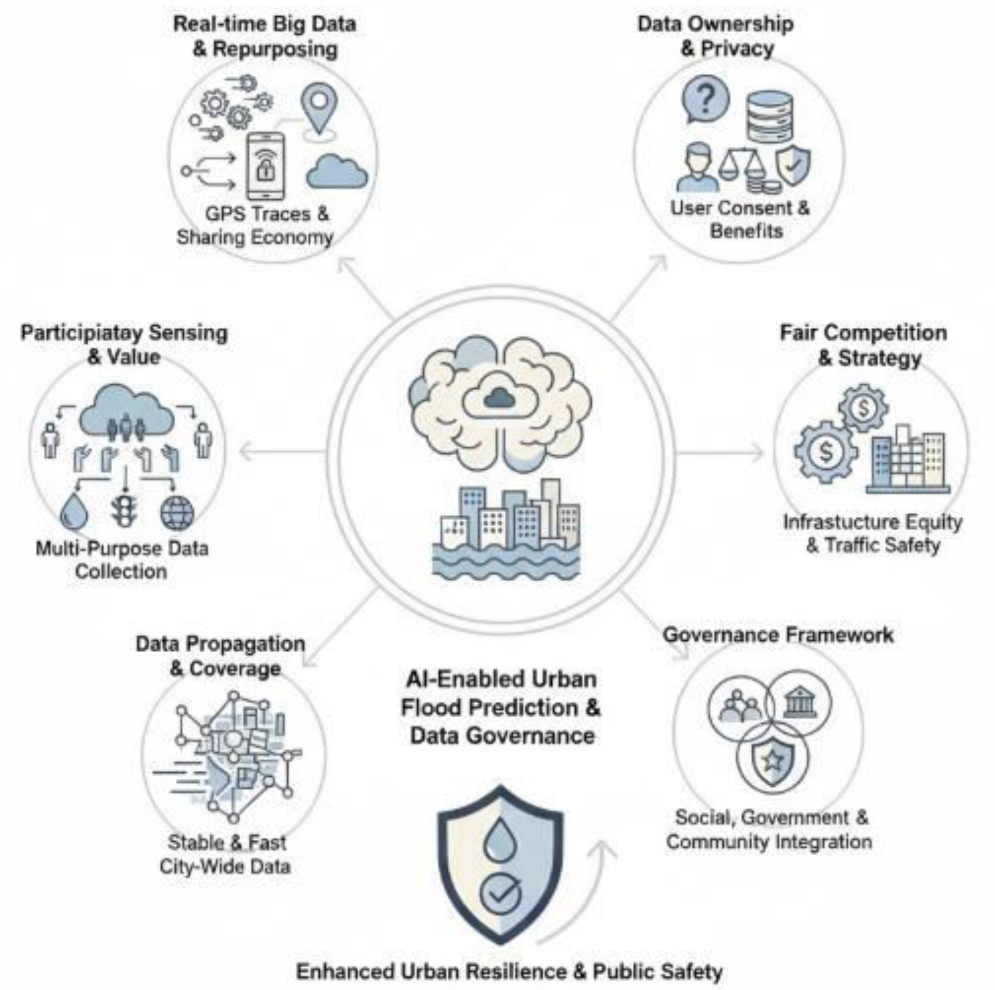

Fig 3: Participatory Governance and Data Ethics in Urban Resilience: Balancing Privacy, Ownership, and Multi-Purpose Sensing for AI-Enabled Flood Prediction

Therefore, it is crucial to enhance public awareness of data value. For example, the forms of participatory sensing can be expanded from data collection for a single purpose to multiple purposes. Users are usually willing to share the collected data for free or at a low cost if they are assured of privacy and can gain benefits through participating in public sensing. Furthermore, common efforts should be made to ensure a fair competition environment and to find the best ecological strategy for urban flood prediction. It is also important for local authorities to harness public initiatives in order to ensure transportation safety and avoid any unfair infrastructure advantage during a high-traffic period. Data propagation should be stable or fast and cover the city area. Finally, the establishment of a governance framework that integrates social networks, government administrations, and local communities is important for supporting public and participatory sensing in AI-enabled urban flood prediction and alleviating the negative effect of flood events.

5.2. Governance Frameworks for AI-assisted Flood Management

The deployment of AI-enabled big data models for urban flood prediction and management raises governance considerations. Flood management systems typically involve multiple stakeholders with varied capacities, power dynamics, incentives, and professional cultures. Their diverse motivations should be accounted for within the prediction and management framework. In addition, insufficient funding and resources can lead to dysfunctional interactions and inequitable risk exposure even among stakeholders engaged in flood risk reduction. The prediction and management frameworks aim at enhancing the collective action of all relevant stakeholders, with measures tailored to regional capacities.

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DOI:10.15662/IJEETR.2024.0606019

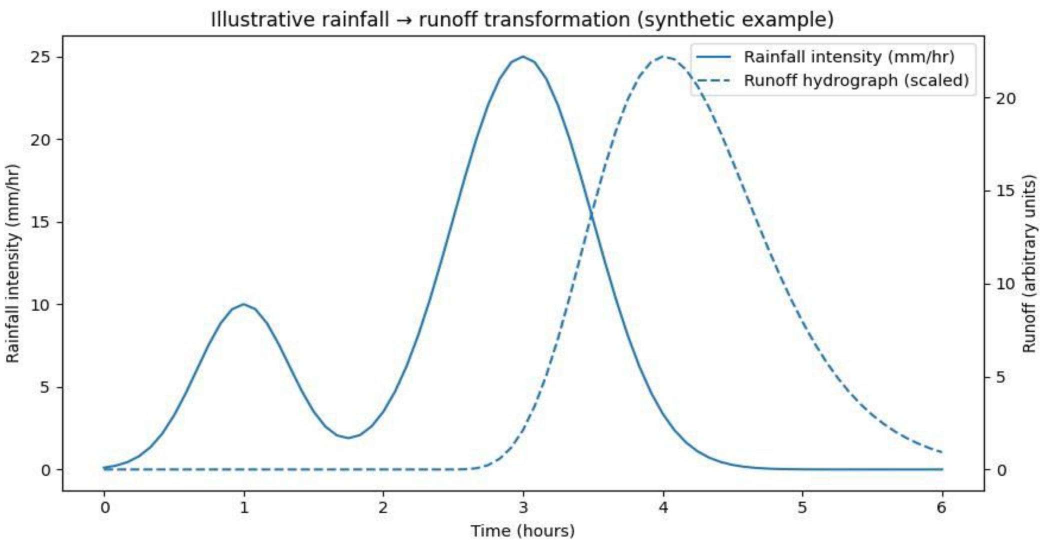
There is no one-size-fits-all approach; the interplay is inherently context dependent, and different cities exhibit considerable variation in institutional configurations, risk governance capacity, and vulnerability profiles. For instance, the strongest and most effective level of flood risk governance is at the local level, as it is closest to the ground level and is therefore the most aware of the actual requests and needs of the population. Addressing local problems within the actual neighborhood, with an accurate Home/Lives Risk Assessment, is the most efficacious; however, economic capacity and skill are often lacking at the local level and thus hinder correct functioning. Conversely, the National and/or Federal levels appear stronger in ensuring funding and adequate resources to cope with extremely risky events but are less effective in the regulation of smaller, recurrent, and untenable problems. Therefore, there must be a dynamic mutual support between the different levels of responsibility in order to fully solve all floods linked to these two dimensions.

Model	R2 (train-city)	R2 (new-city)	Runtime per event (hours)
Process-based	0.82	0.65	30.0
Data-driven (CNN)	0.9	0.55	0.2
Hybrid	0.92	0.72	1.0

VI. CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS

Recent developments indicate that AI-enabled big data approaches can significantly improve urban flood prediction and management. Cities are equipped with a large number of data sources, and using available data smartly and ingeniously can help researchers and practitioners improve the accuracy and effectiveness of urban flood predictions and initiatives. Over-reliance on AI for flooding prediction without SES considerations is dangerous; AI models are often used as black boxes and create a sense of false security. Recently, Chen et al. explored various AI-enabled prediction models to assess urban flood risks in Jiangketang Basin, Nanjing, China. A comprehensive review of different AI techniques for city-scale flood modelling illustrated the advantages and disadvantages of widely used AI techniques in city-scale flood prediction. The gap between data-driven predictions and water system changes due to urbanization has also been highlighted.

Nevertheless, challenges remain. Although cities are equipped with a vast amount of data, some important data for urban flood prediction are supplementary with limited spatial-temporal resolutions and not closely correlated with flood. Therefore, data_demand_analysis and complementarity should be conducted for different prediction models. The generalization ability of AI models is restricted; the models work well in the case territory where the models are trained but often perform poorly in city-scale regions where limited data are available for model training. Many commonly used AI models in flood scenarios are vulnerable to overfitting, model complexity, and under-construction discharges. Data_fixed_effect modelling methodology and digital twin may be alternative modelling ideas to break the dependency on historical flood data. Furthermore, empirical evidences have proven that currently available urban drainage facilities usually cannot guarantee that city-scale urban areas would be out of flooding hazard under rare events."



|ISSN: 2322-0163| www.ijeetr.com | A Bimonthly, Peer Reviewed, Scholarly Indexed Journal |

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DOI:10.15662/IJEETR.2024.0606019

Equation 5) Real-time flood detection using social/media signals (NLP classification basics)

5.1 Text-to-label classifier (binary: flood report vs not)

Let x be a text embedding vector for a post; logistic regression:

$$z = w^{\top}x + b, \qquad \hat{p} = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

Cross-entropy loss for label $y \in \{0,1\}$:

$$\boxed{\mathcal{L}(w,b) = -[y\log\hat{p} + (1-y)\log(1-\hat{p})]}$$

5.2 Thresholding to detect flood events

$$\boxed{\hat{y} = \mathbb{1}(\hat{p} \geq \tau)}$$

6.1. Data Gaps and Quality Assurance

A pressing challenge in utilizing AI-enabled big data frameworks to tackle urban flood risk is the lack of timely and adequate data for model development and evaluation. For instance, rainfall precipitation values for a city can be acquired from weather stations located at varying distances. Although these observations can produce values of high accuracy, their availability is often temporally limited. As an example, storm surge data for Sydney Harbour were only available for approximately 11 years (from 1936 to 1946) and were characterized by a recurring gap of at least 40 days.

Data quality remains an essential aspect when developing and utilizing modern machine-learning techniques, particularly in supervised tasks. Data-driven learning is a process that seeks to estimate an unknown relationship based on previously observed input-output pairs. As such, the dependence on limited observational data exacerbates the effects of noise due to the sampling process. Consequently, algorithms relying on large general-purpose datasets for task performance have attracted much attention as potential solutions for data-scarce problems.

6.2. Model Transferability and Scalability

Models of urban flood prediction and management developed for one specific city often struggle with transferability to other locations, even if those cities are similar in size and geography. The scarcity of city-scale flood datasets hampers the direct implementation of data-driven models in cities that already lack resources for operational flood-fighting. Similarly, large-scale issues involving bigger spatial scales, such as the impact of climate change on regional rainfall patterns, call for models able to simulate urban floods for many cities at the same time. To address this need, AI-based flood prediction models need to be trained and tested for a sufficiently large set of cities in order for machine learning methods able to find common structures between cities to be applicable, as proposed recently by applying cycle-consistent Generative Adversarial Networks in a city without an available flood dataset.

Whether such approaches can facilitate the training of city-specific models for locations lacking flood datasets or capable of addressing large-scale issues is not yet demonstrated. More generally, methodologies for scaling AI-enabled urban flood prediction and management to broader areas of application need further exploration, as noted both in the recent literature on urban flood prediction and management and on the modeling of urban systems using AI techniques.

VII. CONCLUSION

AI-enabled big data models for urban flood prediction and management represent an emerging class of urban hydrological Model. They leverage recent advances in big data, machine learning, and artificial intelligence to support the assessment of flood risk at different spatial and temporal scales. A methodological framework for developing these models is proposed. The framework is subsequently illustrated in two case studies. First, a city-scale model is developed to predict inundated areas and water depths during heavy rainfall events in Suzhou, China. Second, an AI-based approach is proposed to assist the spatial optimization of the drainage network in Changsha, China.

Both case studies demonstrate that AI-enabled big data models can serve as a valuable asset of Digital Twin City and facilitate AI-enabled urban flood management. Nevertheless, their successful application depends on three considerations. First, accessibility, transparency, and privacy concerns of data must be acknowledged and addressed. Second, robust and responsible governance frameworks for active public engagement are essential. Finally, the data-driven nature of AI-enabled big data models introduces unique challenges relating to data gaps, quality assurance, model transferability, and generalizability. Addressing these challenges will contribute to a safe, just, and resilient urban environment.

|ISSN: 2322-0163| www.ijeetr.com | A Bimonthly, Peer Reviewed, Scholarly Indexed Journal |

| Volume 6, Issue 6, November - December 2024 |

DOI:10.15662/IJEETR.2024.0606019

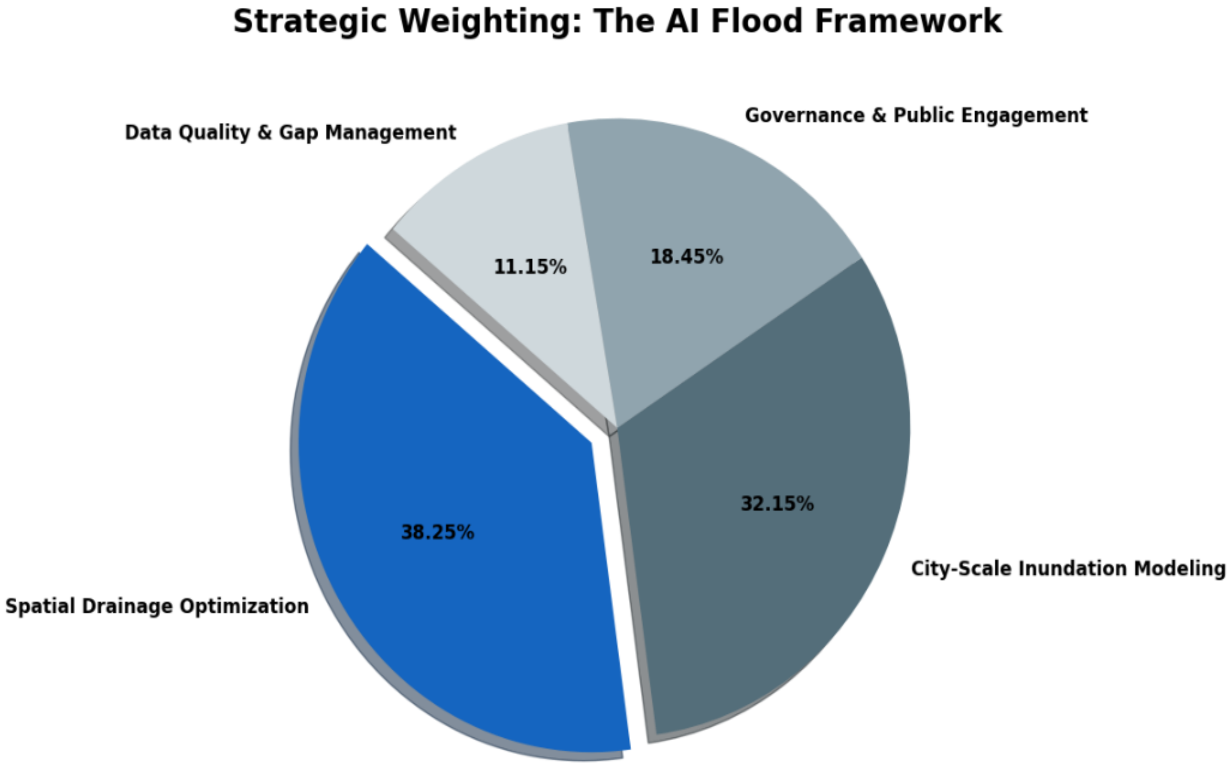

Fig 4: Strategic Weighting: The AI Flood Framework

7.1. Key Takeaways and Future Directions

In pursuit of an objective synthesis of AI-enabled big data models for urban flood prediction and management, the main findings can be summarized as follows. Modern urban flood risk remains high and is aggravated by climate change and urbanization, while legacy drainage networks are often performance-deficient, resulting in service failures that threaten public safety and urban resilience. Emerging big data are rapidly transforming the data landscape in urban hydrology, and artificial intelligence, machine learning and deep learning offer alternative modeling paradigms. Nevertheless, data privacy concerns, algorithmic bias, model interpretability and other governance aspects remain crucial during the design and deployment of predictive models.

Although systemic urban flooding in developing regions is largely associated with poor governance, policy neglect, operational dysfunction and expenditure shortfall, the growing availability of open high spatial and temporal resolution data offers opportunities for city-scale flood prediction, especially when formal data integration in data-poor areas is not yet possible. Furthermore, accurate predictions from AI-based models can inform drainage network optimization and rehabilitation, as illustrated for Amsterdam. Future research should therefore explore the potential of data-driven methods for improving big cities' flood resilience and contributing to urban drainage design and enhancement in lower-income countries, while addressing issues of ethics, fairness and model transferability.

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