

# River network delineation from Sentinel-1 SAR data

Christopher B. Obida<sup>1</sup>, George A. Blackburn, James D. Whyatt and Kirk T. Semple

Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, United Kingdom LA1 4YQ

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18

---

\*Corresponding author.

E-mail address: [c.obida@lancaster.ac.uk](mailto:c.obida@lancaster.ac.uk) (C.B. Obida).

19 **Highlights**

- 20 • River network data are absent or out of date in most developing countries
- 21 • Sentinel-1 data used here to generate high resolution river map
- 22 • Sentinel-1 river product superior to alternative remotely-sensed sources
- 23 • Topologically structured geometric river network supports flow routing
- 24 • Technique can provide essential river network data for many countries

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42 **Abstract**

43 In many regions of the world, especially in developing countries, river network data are  
44 outdated or completely absent, yet such information is critical for supporting important  
45 functions such as flood mitigation efforts, land use and transportation planning, and the  
46 management of water resources. In this study a new method was developed for delineating  
47 river networks using Sentinel-1 imagery. Unsupervised classification was applied to multi-  
48 temporal Sentinel-1 data to discriminate water bodies from other land cover types then the  
49 outputs were combined to generate a single persistent water bodies product. A thinning  
50 algorithm was then used to delineate river centre lines which were converted into vector  
51 features and built into a topologically structured geometric network. The complex river system  
52 of the Niger Delta was used to compare the performance of the Sentinel-based method against  
53 alternative freely available waterbody products from USGS, ESA and OpenStreetMap and a  
54 river network derived from a SRTM DEM. From both raster-based and vector-based accuracy  
55 assessments it was found that the Sentinel-based river network products were superior to the  
56 comparator data sets by a substantial margin. The resulting geometric river network was used  
57 to perform flow routing analysis which is important for a variety of environmental management  
58 and planning applications. The approach developed in this study holds considerable potential  
59 for generating up to date, detailed river network data for the many countries globally where  
60 such data are deficient.

61 **Key words**

62 Sentinel-1, image processing, river delineation, large scale mapping, data comparison,  
63 geometric network

64

65

## 66 **1. Introduction**

67 Rivers are important resources that sustain a substantial proportion of the world's population,  
68 through the vital ecosystems services they provide (Zeng et al., 2015). Determining the spatial  
69 and temporal dynamics of surface waters remains challenging (Khandelwal et al., 2017).  
70 Globally, there has been increased need for monitoring natural water resources in response to  
71 changing climate and pollution from anthropogenic sources (Haddeland et al., 2014). Resource  
72 managers need efficient ways of monitoring water, determining flow regimes, extent and  
73 discharge. Modellers and scientist alike need hydrological information for forecasting extreme  
74 events such as floods, and accurate river network data to model the fate of pollutants in rivers  
75 globally (Garneau et al., 2017; Zeng et al., 2015). However, detailed maps of river networks  
76 do not exist for many developing countries and even where previous surveys have taken place  
77 they are often significantly out of date, especially for dynamic systems such as deltas.

78 Remote sensing offers a low-cost and efficient alternative to ground-based surveys for river  
79 network delineation, particularly in light of recent improvements in the temporal and spatial  
80 resolution of satellite data, e.g. using frequent acquisitions from MODIS (Khandelwal et al.,  
81 2017). Optical remote sensing has been widely used for river network delineation using a range  
82 of automatic and semi-automatic techniques (Isikdogan et al., 2017). For example, Landsat  
83 data was used to delineate complex braided network of the Brahmaputra river which flows  
84 through China, India and Bangladesh and a tidal river network in Berau Bay, New Guinea  
85 (Yang et al., 2014). The study revealed that spectral mixture within pixels resulting from the  
86 spatial resolution of the imagery resulted in commission and omission errors in river  
87 classification. Others have noted that this approach is not suitable for smaller rivers  
88 (Domeneghetti et al., 2014; Ogilvie et al., 2015). Allen and Pavelsky (2015) developed NAR-  
89 Width (North American River Width) which uses Landsat data in a software suite called  
90 RivWidth to delineate and estimate the width of rivers in North America. However, the model

91 is largely restricted to North America, due to the input data and some aspects of the algorithm  
92 that prevents its use in other global regions.

93 Water body extraction from optical imagery has also been achieved using other approaches.  
94 These include region growth and edge detection, and water indices such as the Normalised  
95 Difference Water Index (NDWI) (Isikdogan et al., 2017; Zeng et al., 2015), Modified  
96 Normalised Difference Water index (MNDWI) (Ogilvie et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2014),  
97 Automated Water Extraction Index (AWEI) (Feyisa et al., 2014), and Land Surface Water  
98 Index (LSWI) (Ogilvie et al., 2015). Isikdogan et al. (2017) introduced the RivaMap mapping  
99 engine which is based on Landsat data and was used to delineate rivers at a continental scale  
100 (North America). However, the output of RivaMap is an unstructured vector network, which  
101 can limit its applicability in studies of hydrological flows. Furthermore, all of the methods that  
102 are applied to optical data such as MODIS and Landsat, can be limited by cloud cover, which  
103 restricts useable repeat image acquisitions and limits the ability to detect the persistence or  
104 dynamics of surface water bodies.

105 Digital Elevation Models (DEMs) derived from different satellite missions have been widely  
106 used for hydraulic studies, hydrologic modelling and river network delineation (Gülgen, 2017;  
107 Kumar et al., 2017). Commonly used DEMs include the Shuttle Radar Topographic Mission  
108 (SRTM) 1 arc second, SRTM 3 arc second and Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and  
109 Reflection Radiometer (ASTER) 30m products (Vimal et al., 2012). Algorithms for river  
110 network delineation such as the hydrological tools in ArcGIS version 10, Arc Hydro (Kim et  
111 al., 2015), TauDEM (Castronova and Goodall, 2014), HydroSHEDS (Lehner et al., 2008) and  
112 GWD-LR (Yamazaki, 2014) all use DEMs as input data (Khan et al., 2014). This approach is  
113 popular because important hydrological parameters such as river length, area, slope, flow  
114 direction, accumulation, aspect and watershed area can be extracted from DEMs. However,  
115 because these methods use the direction of steepest descent for delineation, this can lead to over

116 estimation of river network elements in lowland and delta environments (Gülgen, 2017;  
117 Isikdogan et al., 2017; Vimal et al., 2012). Rahman, et al (2010) demonstrated in a study of the  
118 delta region of Bangladesh that errors were proportional to degree of flatness. In addition, some  
119 researchers have highlighted the inaccuracies of using DEMs for river delineation such as the  
120 inability of the algorithms to consider manmade features (Kumar et al., 2017). DEMs can also  
121 contain erroneous changes in elevation in some areas, referred to as sinks, which result in  
122 computational errors in flow direction and ambiguity in alignment of the delineated river  
123 network (Kumar et al., 2017).

124 Airborne Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) has been applied in stream network  
125 delineation (Maderal et al., 2016). LiDAR data provides height information that has been used  
126 to characterise catchments, generate flow direction and delineate rivers in wide range of  
127 landscapes (Li & Wong, 2010). Wavelet-based filtering techniques, curvature analysis, and  
128 geodesic operations have all been previously applied to LiDAR data for stream delineation  
129 (Cho et al., 2011; Lashermes et al., 2007; Passalacqua et al., 2012). However, airborne LiDAR  
130 data capture is expensive, spatially limited in application and requires significant time to  
131 process the large point cloud (Hamada et al., 2016). Hence, for the scale of whole fluvial  
132 systems, the costs associated with the use of LiDAR can be prohibitive, especially in  
133 developing countries.

134 Citizen science initiatives such as OpenStreetMap (OSM) also constitute a genuine source of  
135 digital geographic data (Haklay, 2010). Such web mapping systems offer a step change in the  
136 availability of important geographic data such as river networks. As a result, data is now  
137 accessible in a searchable and usable format, and the data quality can be as good as that of  
138 national mapping agencies (Haklay, 2010). However, the quality of data from such sources is  
139 contingent on the level of participation and the experience and knowledge of the contributors  
140 (Haklay, 2010), with lower levels of mapping activity in the Global South (Bittner, 2017;

141 Graham et al., 2015), particularly in rural areas, with little emphasis on natural features such  
142 as rivers.

143 Given the above limitations in existing techniques and products, new remote sensing methods  
144 are needed for repeatedly mapping river networks in a timely fashion, particularly in  
145 developing countries. Sentinel-1 SAR C data acquired by the European Space Agency (ESA)  
146 has the potential to overcome the identified limitations. The dual satellites (Sentinels 1A and  
147 B) launched in 2014 and 2016 offer global coverage (Haas and Ban, 2017; Miranda et al.,  
148 2016), with a combined temporal resolution of 5-6 days and spatial resolution of 20m by 5m  
149 and ground sampling distance of 10m (Ardhuin et al., 2017; Malenovský et al., 2012; Veloso  
150 et al., 2017). Utilizing these data can potentially enhance scientific studies requiring detailed  
151 river network delineation in complex environments.

152 Therefore, the aim of this study was to develop an effective method of delineating river  
153 networks using Sentinel-1 data. The objectives were to: (a) investigate the potential of utilizing  
154 a time series of Sentinel-1 images for accurate river network delineation; (b) compare Sentinel-  
155 1 outputs with existing river network data sets; (c) build a complete topologically structured  
156 geometric river network dataset; (d) demonstrate the potential of the network dataset by tracing  
157 the movement of pollution from a point source event through the fluvial system.

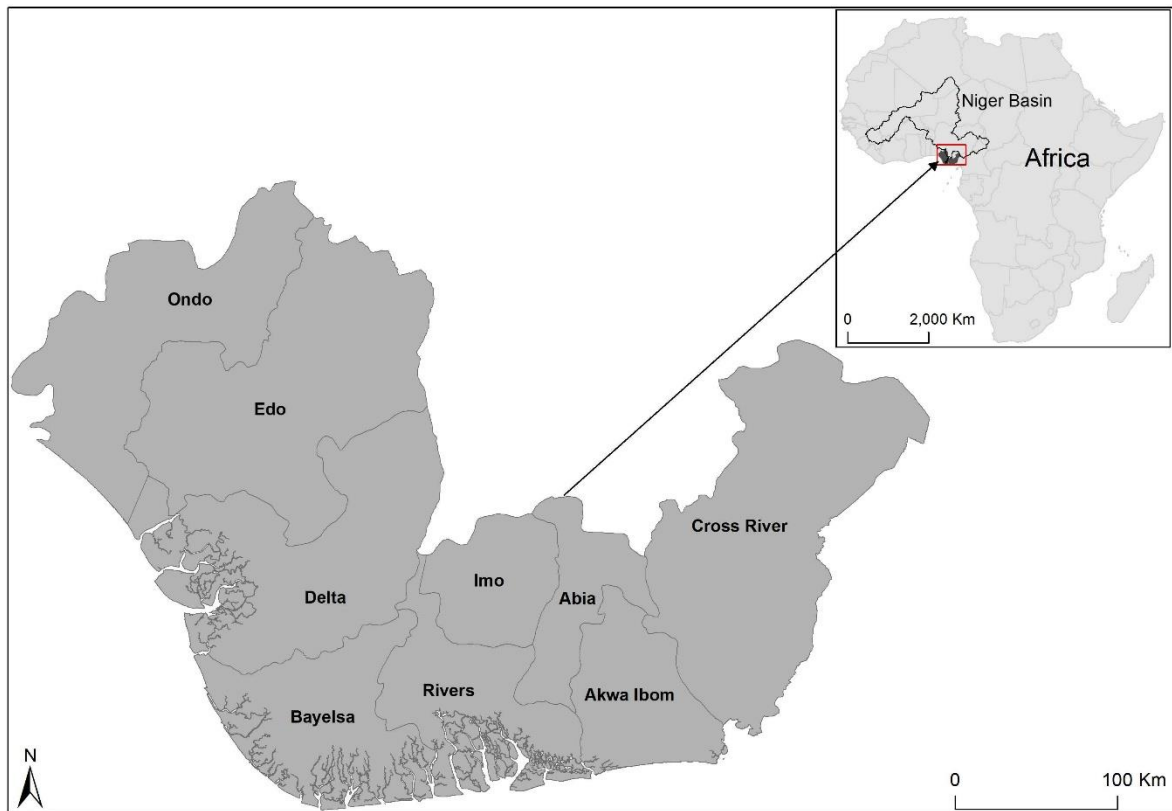
## 158 **2. Method**

### 159 **2.1. Study site**

160 The Niger Delta (Figure 1) is the largest river delta in Africa and the third largest in the world  
161 (Kadafa, 2012; UNEP, 2011). It occupies an estimated 70,000 km<sup>2</sup> in area and supports a  
162 population of 30 million people. Information on the river network in the region is therefore  
163 important because this can enable effective monitoring of changes in the distribution of this  
164 highly dynamic fluvial system, and the resultant impacts on resources and threats to the

165 population. Since most of the population depend on fishing and river water for domestic  
166 activities, detailed information on the river network is vital within the framework of  
167 management and monitoring of key resources. Likewise, flooding is a common occurrence in  
168 the Niger Delta which can have devastating effects on the population and infrastructure (Ekeu-  
169 Wei and Blackburn, 2018; NHSA, 2014). However, there is a paucity of digital spatial data for  
170 the Niger Delta, and there is no national spatial data infrastructure (Anifowose et al., 2012;  
171 Nwilo and Badejo, 2005). Accurate and up to date data on the river network are now needed to  
172 support the development of flood mitigation schemes and appropriate land use strategies.  
173 Furthermore, the Niger Delta is the region in which the majority of Nigeria's oil and gas  
174 extraction takes place (Anejionu et al., 2015). There is a long and well-documented history of  
175 oil pollution incidents in the region, with rivers among the worst affected environments,  
176 therefore, river network data are crucial in employing pollution mitigation measures (Obida et  
177 al, 2018). In particular, there is a pressing need for a detailed topologically-structured river  
178 network dataset for use in modelling the dispersion and fate of crude oil in the Niger Delta and  
179 its impact on the environment and human health.



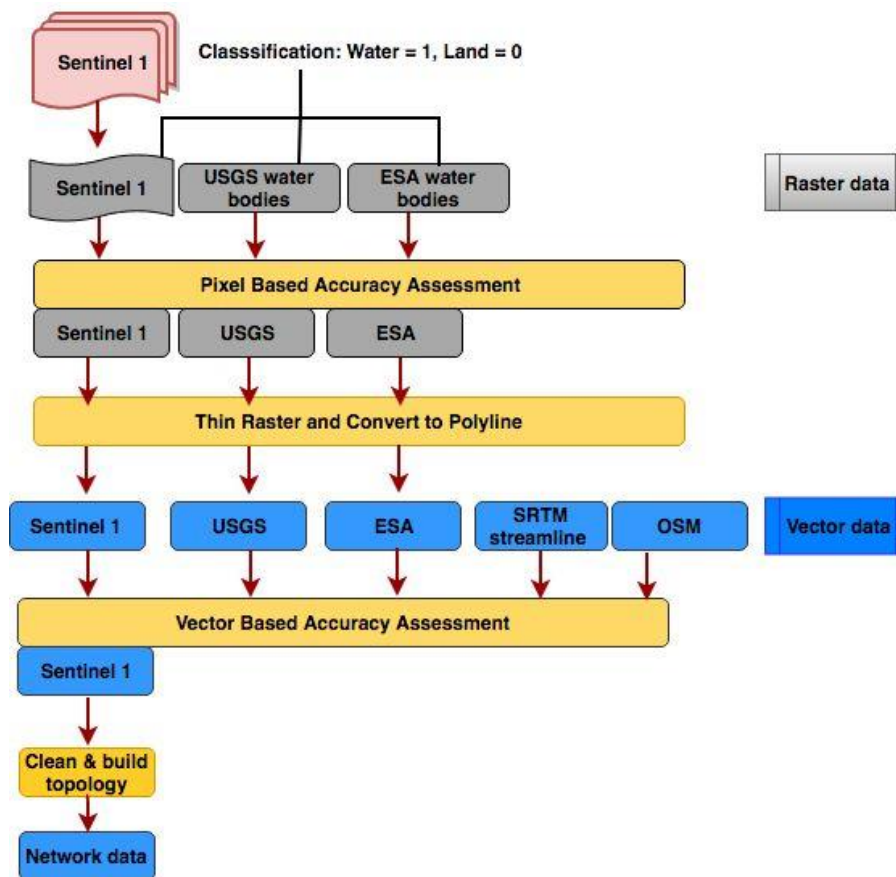


180

181 **Fig.1.** The study area, the Niger Delta. Inset map shows the location of the Niger Delta in  
 182 relation the drainage basin that supplies water and sediment to the delta.

183 **2.2 Methodological Framework**

184 In this study, multi-temporal Sentinel-1 SAR C were used for both raster-based and vector-  
 185 based river channel delineation. Raster channels were delineated using classification  
 186 techniques and thinning algorithms were applied to generate vector data. Both the raster and  
 187 vector river delineations from Sentinel-1 were compared to existing river data products by  
 188 performing accuracy assessments relative to reference river channel data. Network topology  
 189 and attribution were then added to the Sentinel-derived rivers to allow more complex network  
 190 analysis. The methodological framework is shown in Figure 2.



191

192 **Fig.2.** Methodological framework for accuracy assessment and river network extraction based  
 193 on the different data sources.

194 **2.3. Source Data**

195 **2.3.1 Sentinel-1 data**

196 The Sentinel-1 data were sourced free of charge from the ESA Copernicus Open Access Hub.  
 197 Here we used the Interferometric Wide swath mode data, the predefined mode for overland  
 198 applications. The Level-1 Ground Range Detected product type was used, which has been  
 199 detected, multi-looked and projected to ground range using an Earth ellipsoid model (Veloso  
 200 et al., 2017). We used the co-polarised VV data because noise restricts the use of VH data as  
 201 water has a lower radar-cross section in cross polarization than in co-polarized channels (HH  
 202 or VV) (Bolanos et al., 2016). Dual polarised HH+HV was not available for the study area.

203 The data have a spatial resolution of 5m by 20m with a ground sampling distance of 10m  
204 (Imperatore et al., 2017).

### 205 **2.3.2 Comparator data**

206 The Landsat global water bodies product was the result of a collaboration between the United  
207 States Geological Survey (USGS) and University of Maryland. This raster dataset represents  
208 persistent global surface water bodies over the 2000-2012 time period, and is the highest spatial  
209 resolution product available globally. ESA global water cover data derived from Envisat ASAR  
210 and MERIS data at 300m resolution over the period 2005-2010 were also used.  
211 OpenStreetMap (OSM) vector data were also used for comparative purposes. Finally, a river  
212 network that we derived from 1 arc second SRTM data (method described in 2.5.2 below) was  
213 also used. The SRTM data are available globally and were sourced from the USGS Earth  
214 Explorer platform.

## 215 **2.4 Raster-based analysis**

### 216 **2.4.1 Sentinel-1 data processing and analysis**

217 Image pre-processing routines were performed in the Sentinel Application Platform (SNAP).  
218 Geometric correction was carried out by the initial application of orbital files to correct orbit  
219 vectors (Zhang et al., 2016). Range-Doppler Terrain Correction was applied to each image for  
220 accurate geocoding, using the 3 arc second SRTM DEM, thus accounting for variations in local  
221 elevations (Velooso et al., 2017). Multi-temporal image co-registration was then carried out,  
222 since the study involved application of multi-temporal data, consisting of the 14 images  
223 available for the study site acquired between May 2015 and January 2017, using the first  
224 available image as the master (Sowter et al., 2016). Radiometric correction was applied to the  
225 images by calibrating the data to sigma nought, which is the backscatter coefficient (Misra and

226 Balaji, 2017). To reduce speckle in the SAR data, the refined Lee Sigma speckle filter was  
227 applied (Fu et al., 2017; Haas and Ban, 2017).

228 Unsupervised classification was used to distinguish between water and land in the multi-  
229 temporal Sentinel-1 data (Ogilvie et al., 2015) as this performed better than supervised  
230 classification and thresholding in this context. A K-means unsupervised classification approach  
231 was applied to the data in SNAP (Jain, 2010). Since water has a distinctive response in C-band  
232 SAR signals, water bodies were partitioned into an output class as a result of the K-means  
233 procedure.

234 Following classification, the outputs were combined into a single image in ArcMap 10.4 with  
235 pixel values ranging from 1-14 based on a count of the number of times each pixel was  
236 classified as water across the time series of images (Khandelwal et al., 2017). This was to  
237 differentiate between persistent and ephemeral water bodies, particularly due to high tides and  
238 floods (Rahman & Thakur, 2017). In the combined image, a value of 1 indicates a low  
239 probability of the pixel being a persistent water body, while pixels with a value of 14 indicates  
240 a high probability of the pixel being a persistent water body. Reference data on the locations  
241 of permanent river channels were collected by visual interpretation of ArcGIS World Imagery  
242 (Digital Globe GeoEye-1 images from 2013 – 2017 at 0.5m resolution). Using the reference  
243 data an optimum threshold was identified for the number of times each pixel was classified as  
244 water in order to delineate the river network most effectively. This was determined by  
245 incrementally increasing (from 1 to 14) the persistence value required for classifying a pixel as  
246 a permanent water body, and for each increment, the output water body map was tested for  
247 accuracy against the reference data set. This analysis showed that users' accuracy of the output  
248 water body map increased substantially as the required level of persistence increased, up to a  
249 value of 12 where it reached a plateau of 89%. Hence, all pixels with persistence values of 12  
250 and above were used to map permanent water bodies in the study area.

## 251 **2.4.2 Raster-based accuracy assessment**

252 High-resolution Google Imagery, acquired in 2018, was visually evaluated in order to generate  
253 reference data (Feyisa et al., 2014). A total of 700 reference points were captured through  
254 ‘heads up’ digitizing, 350 of which were located in rivers and 350 in other land cover types.  
255 The reference data were then compared to the raster-based river networks generated from the  
256 Sentinel-1, USGS and ESA data by computing error matrices. Subsequently, user’s,  
257 producer’s, overall accuracies and kappa coefficients were calculated (Felipe De Almeida  
258 Furtado et al., 2016; Feyisa et al., 2014).

## 259 **2.5 Vector-based analysis**

### 260 **2.5.1 River network extraction**

261 Here we firstly applied a raster-based centre line extraction method using the thin tool in the  
262 Spatial Analyst extension of ArcGIS 10.4 on the river raster generated from the Sentinel-1,  
263 USGS and ESA data sets. Secondly, we applied the raster to polyline tool in ArcGIS to convert  
264 the thinned centre pixels to a series of vector lines. The rationale of reducing variable river  
265 widths to centre pixels and subsequently to lines is to develop a network model where  
266 connectivity is the most important property.

### 267 **2.5.2 River extraction from the SRTM 1 arc second DEM**

268 Methods of extracting river channels from DEMs are well established and have been applied  
269 at a variety of scales (Khan et al., 2014; Kumar et al., 2017; Vimal et al., 2012). Here we used  
270 the hydrological toolset in ArcGIS 10.4 to extract the river network from the SRTM 1 arc  
271 second DEM.

272

273

### 274 **2.5.3 Vector-based accuracy assessment**

275 An independent river network dataset, covering a river length of 800km within the study site,  
276 was captured through ‘heads up’ digitizing of high resolution ArcGIS World Imagery. This  
277 generated a vector network of river centre lines for use as reference data. These reference data  
278 were then used to assess the accuracy of the vector networks derived from Sentinel-1 and the  
279 comparator data. Among the comparator data, the OSM and SRTM-derived network data  
280 contained river centre lines which could directly be compared to the reference data. In order to  
281 facilitate a vector-based accuracy assessment of the ESA and USGS data, these raster based  
282 river networks were thinned and converted to polylines.

283 The vector river networks derived from Sentinel-1 and comparator data were assessed for data  
284 completeness (length) and positional accuracy (overlap) against the manually digitised  
285 reference network (Li and Wong, 2010; Hamada et al., 2016). The percentage data  
286 completeness was calculated based on the stream orders in the network, from small 1<sup>st</sup> order  
287 streams to larger 3<sup>rd</sup> order streams. In terms of the positional accuracy, 3 different sample  
288 sections of the network were assessed by generating 10m, 20m and 30m buffers around the  
289 reference network. The percentage of data from the Sentinel-1 and comparator data networks  
290 that fell within each of the buffers was used to measure the spatial overlap with the reference  
291 data and thereby indicate positional accuracy (Goodchild & and Hunter, 1997).

### 292 **2.5.4 Building river network topology and attributes**

293 Most river networks derived from remote sensing are devoid of topological properties and  
294 connectivity rules such as edges and junctions, meaning that connectivity, flow direction, and  
295 flow rate cannot be derived. Building a geometric river network is important to enable its use  
296 in a range of applications, including hydrological modelling (Jiang, 2011). Based on the results  
297 of the vector-based accuracy assessment the Sentinel-1 river centre line product was selected

298 for building a geometric river network. Initially, the network was cleaned in ArcMap by closing  
299 gaps to ensure network connectivity. Gaps <20m were automatically closed by the software,  
300 with the few remaining larger gaps being closed manually to ensure complete connectivity.  
301 Consequently, the ArcGIS geometric network toolbox was used to build a topologically  
302 structured network. In a manually digitised network the flow direction is determined by the  
303 direction of digitization as recorded by the software. However, since our network was  
304 generated from image data there was no direction of digitization, hence, we used the ‘set flow  
305 direction’ tool in ArcGIS’s geometric network toolbox.

### 306 **2.5.5 Application of the river network for tracing the movement of a point source** 307 **pollution event**

308 To demonstrate the potential utility of the delineated river network and the attributed topology  
309 parameters such as network connectivity and flow direction, an example application was  
310 performed. This involves using the geometric network analysis tool to trace the potential  
311 pathway of oil released from a spill which enters the river network and moves downstream.  
312 We used the example of a known event which occurred on 20<sup>th</sup> April 2012, where 19,350 litres  
313 of crude oil were spilt from a sabotaged 24-inch pipeline in the Nembe LGA of Bayelsa state.  
314 The location of this event was recorded in a database maintained by the Nigerian National Oil  
315 Spill Detection and Response Agency (<https://oilspillmonitor.ng/>).

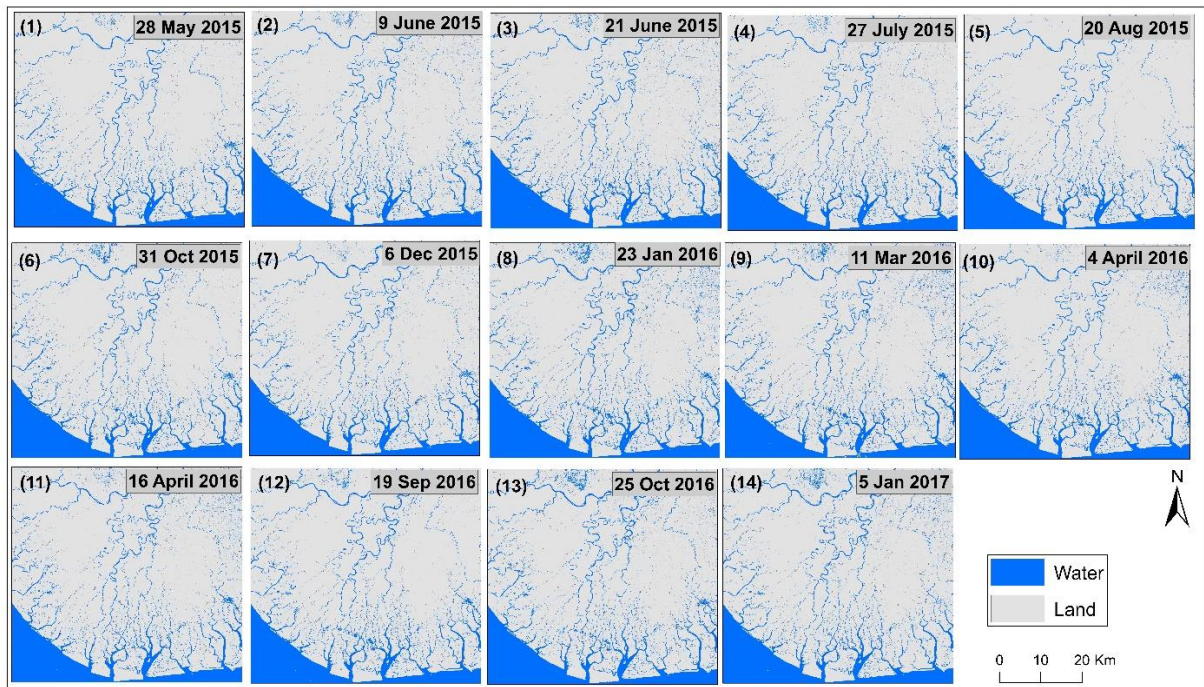
## 316 **3. Results**

### 317 **3.1 Raster-based Analysis**

#### 318 **3.1.1 Raster river network derived from Sentinel-1**

319 Figure 3 shows the binary land cover classifications of the 14 Sentinel-1 images covering the  
320 period May 2015 to January 2017. The images show a high degree of visual similarity, but  
321 there are differences, especially in the southern part of the study area, which are attributable to

322 the different prevailing hydrological conditions (e.g. river discharge or tidal state) at the time  
323 of image capture. The k-means unsupervised classification appears to effectively distinguish  
324 between water and other land cover types.

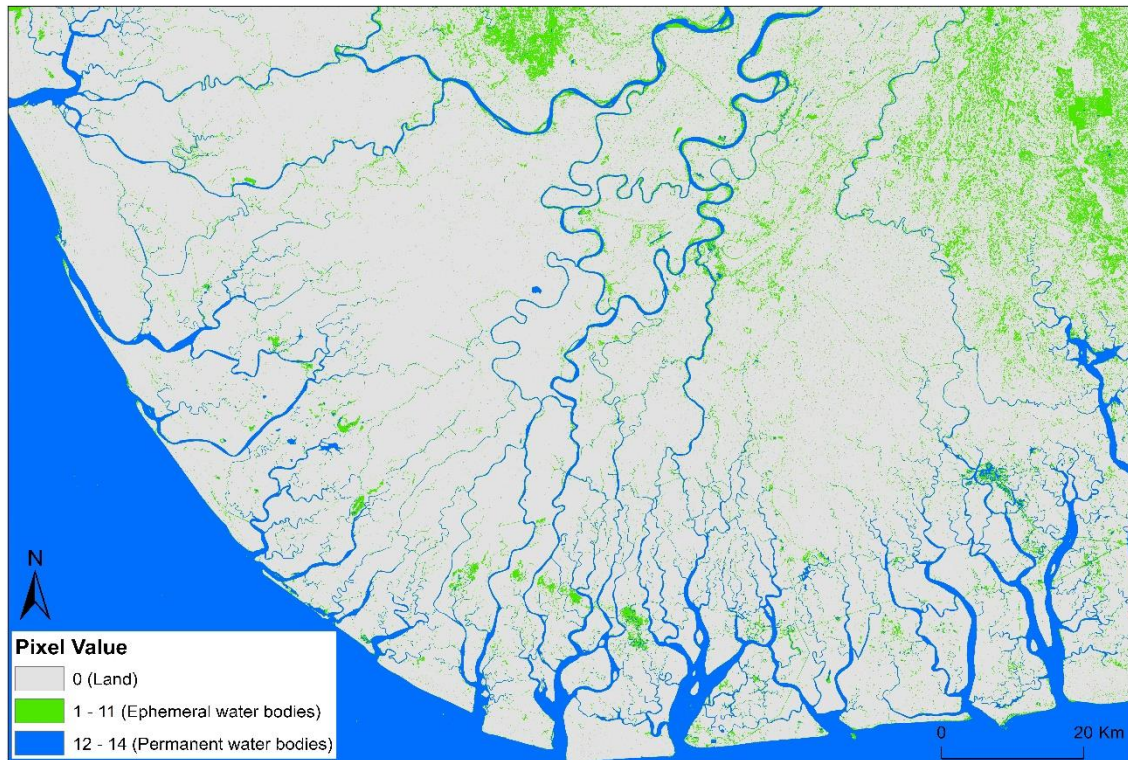


325

326 **Fig.3.** Binary land cover classifications of the Sentinel-1 image time series.

327 Figure 4 shows the outputs of the Sentinel-1 time series combined into a single image with  
328 each pixel placed into one of three categories based on a count of the number of times the pixel  
329 was classified as water (the persistence). Pixels with lower values (i.e. in the 1-11 category)  
330 represent ephemeral water bodies, whilst pixels with higher values (12-14 category) denote  
331 permanent river channels.





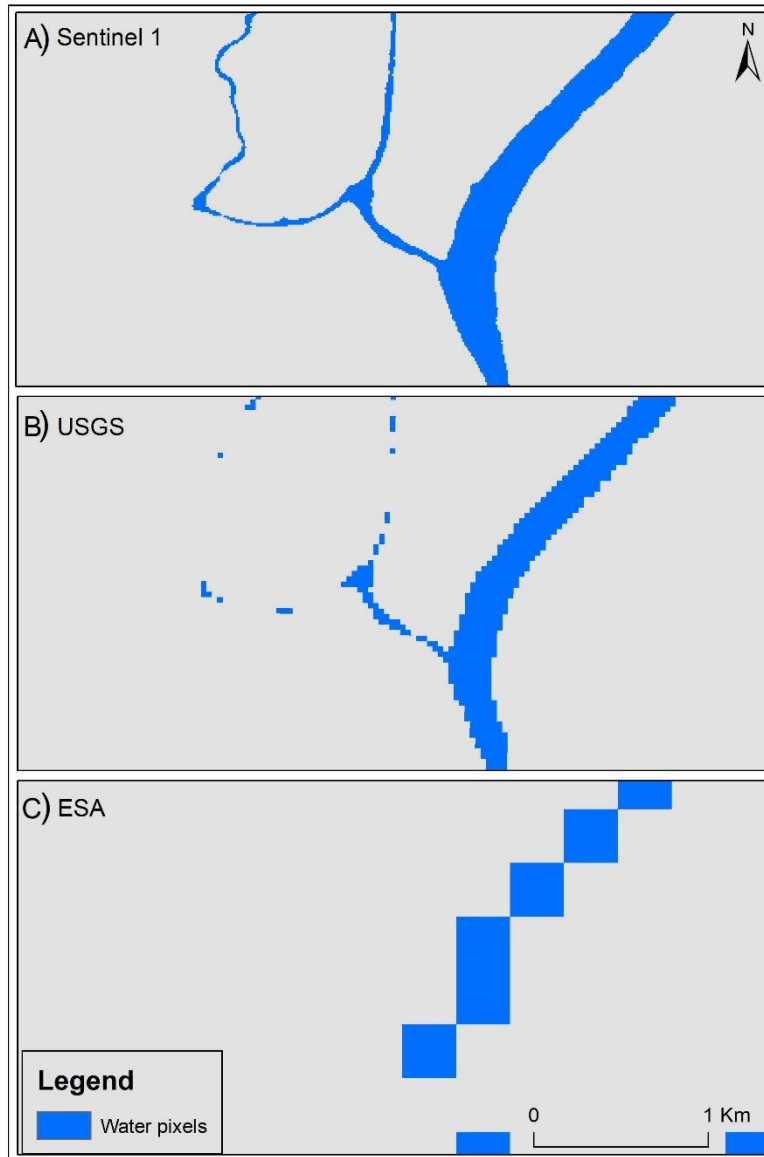
332

333 **Fig.4.** Combined product from the Sentinel-1 time series with each pixel placed into one of  
 334 three categories based on a count of the number of times the pixel was classified as water.

335 **3.1.2 Raster-based accuracy assessment**

336 Figure 5 shows a comparison of the ESA and USGS water body products with the Sentinel-  
 337 derived map for a small sample area. It shows the degree to which raster resolution can impact  
 338 upon river network delineation and potential to further determine the quality of extracted vector  
 339 data. Table 1 shows the results of the accuracy assessment of the raster-based river networks  
 340 derived from the Sentinel-1, USGS and ESA data sets. The overall accuracy of the river  
 341 network derived from Sentinel-1 was much higher than the USGS and ESA products. The  
 342 user's accuracy for water bodies was consistently higher than the producer's accuracy  
 343 which indicated low false positives, across all three data sources. In addition, both the USGS  
 344 and ESA data had much lower producer's accuracies than the Sentinel-1-derived data which

345 implies an under representation of water in the existing products. USGS and ESA data had low  
346 Kappa coefficients while that for the Sentinel-1-derived product was much higher and  
347 suggested that classification accuracy was better than random occurrence.



349 **Fig.5.** Comparison of extracted raster data sets from: A) Sentinel-1, and comparator data, B)  
350 USGS and C) ESA. Blue pixels indicate water.

351

352

353

354 **Table 1**

355 Image based classification accuracies for raster-based river networks derived from Sentinel-  
356 1, USGS and ESA data.

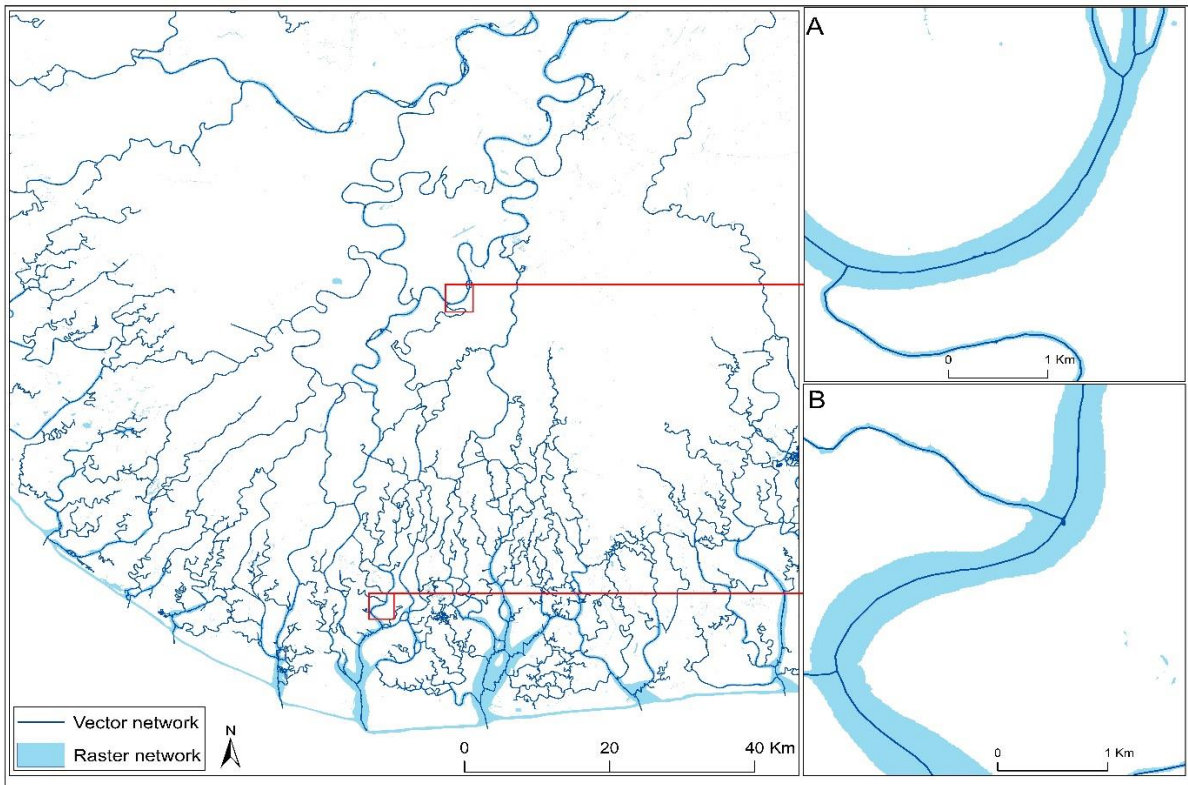
<b>Accuracy metric</b>	<b>Sentinel-1</b>	<b>USGS</b>	<b>ESA</b>
Overall accuracy (%)	76	69	60
Producer's accuracy (%)	61	38	21
User's accuracy (%)	89	100	78
Kappa coefficient	0.52	0.38	0.20

357

358 **3.2 Vector-based analysis**

359 **3.2.1 River network extraction from the Sentinel-derived river raster.**

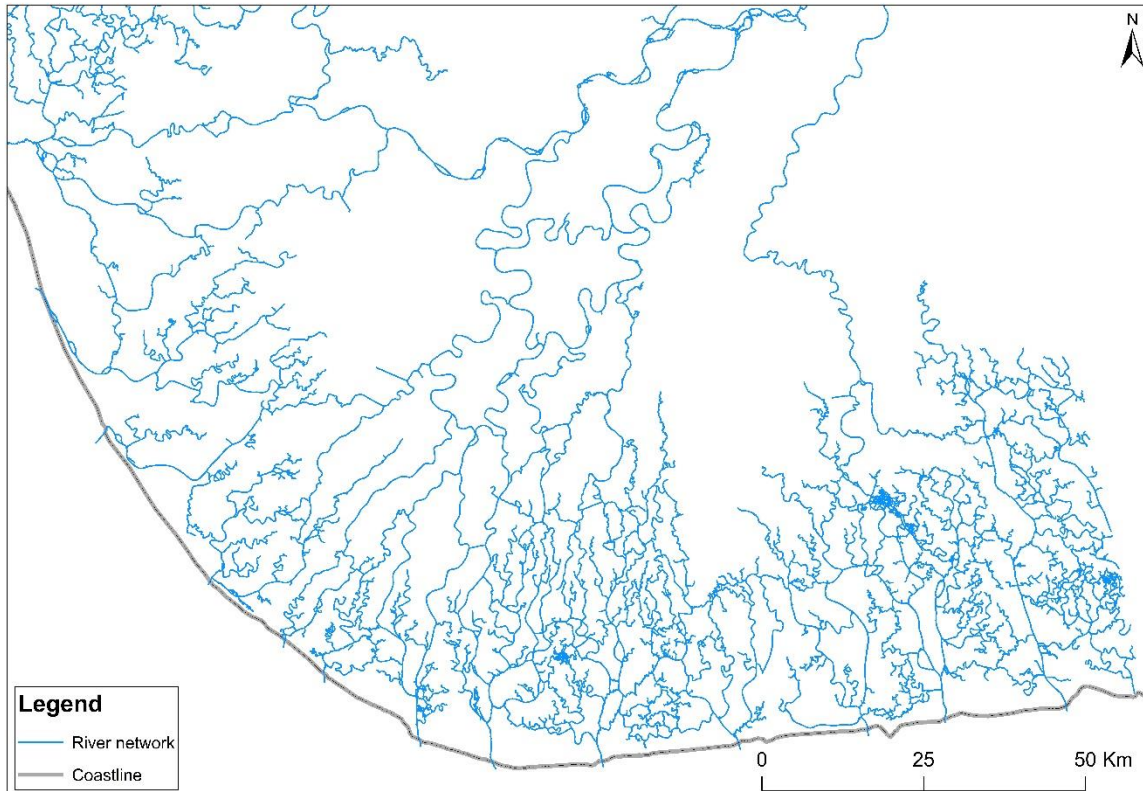
360 Figure 6 shows the effectiveness of the thinning algorithm used to generate the river centreline  
361 vector data from the raster map. It also shows how isolated water bodies that are separated from  
362 the river system are not included in the vector data as the thinning algorithm emphasises the  
363 production of a linear network. Figure 7 shows the extracted centre line representation of the  
364 river network for the entire Niger Delta derived from Sentinel-1 data. The figure reveals a  
365 classic deltaic drainage pattern with multiple outlets into the Atlantic Ocean. This pattern is  
366 unlike a typical dendritic hydrological catchment with all tributaries draining into one main  
367 channel, then into a larger body of water. Here we have a complex network of distributary  
368 channels typical of deltaic systems.



369

370 **Fig.6.** River centrelines overlaid on the raster river data produced from Sentinel-1 data. Inset  
 371 maps A and B highlight the detail of the raster thinning and river centreline extraction  
 372 processes.

373



374

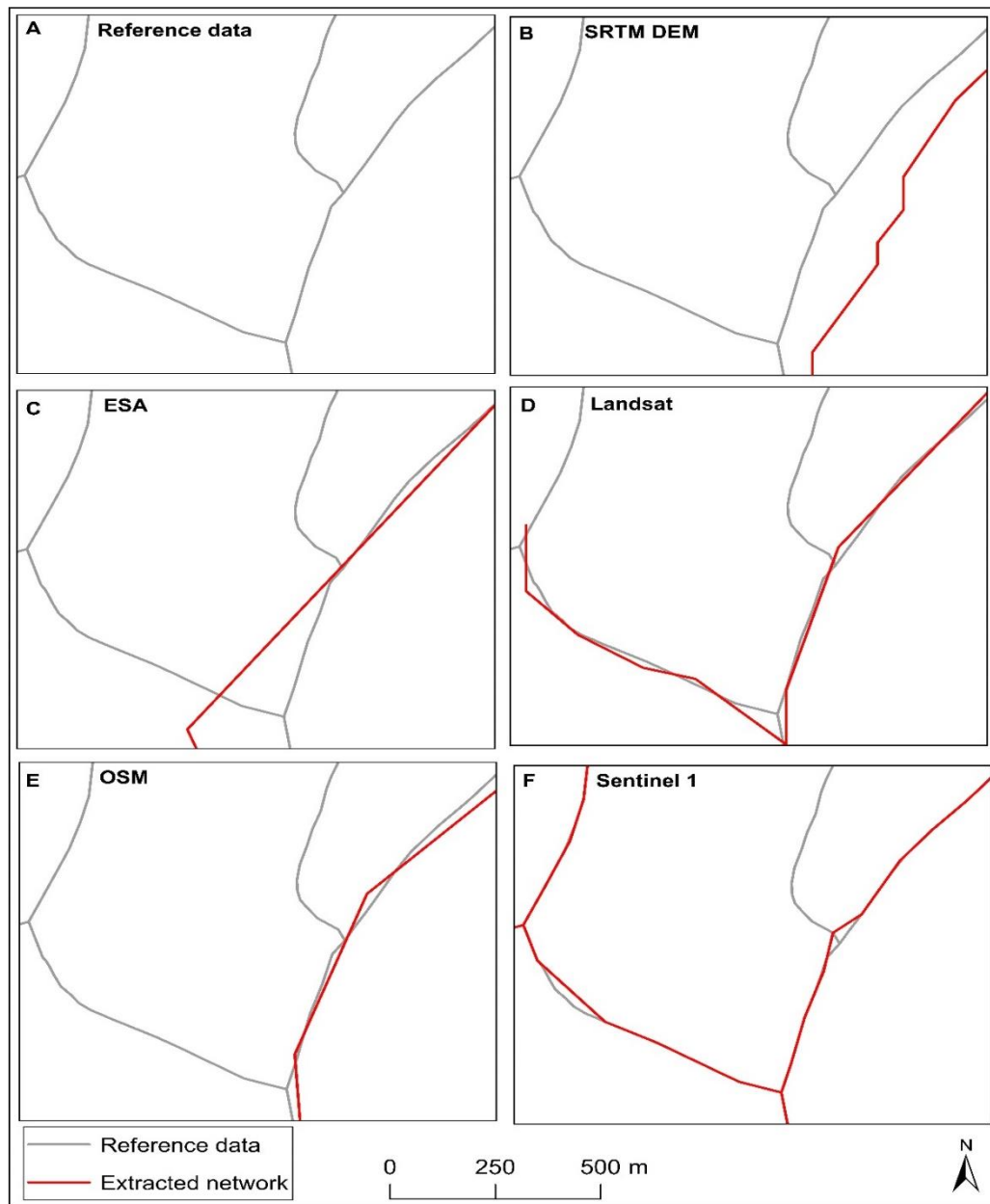
375 **Fig.7.** Extracted vector-based river centreline network for the entire delta.

376 **3.2.2 Vector-based accuracy assessment**

377 Figure 8 shows the extent to which the river centre line networks derived from Sentinel-1 and  
 378 the comparator data sets agree with the reference data. Figures 8B - D show that the networks  
 379 derived from the comparator data have significant limitations in terms of their completeness  
 380 and positional accuracy relative to the reference data. This confirms that the higher resolution  
 381 Sentinel-1 data produces a network that has the closest correspondence with the reference data.  
 382 This is quantified in Table 2 which shows the results of the vector-based accuracy assessment  
 383 and demonstrates the superiority of the Sentinel-derived network in terms of completeness.  
 384 Importantly, delineation of 1st order streams from Sentinel-1 is more than twice as effective as  
 385 the next-best performing USGS-derived river network. In terms of positional accuracy, Table  
 386 3 shows that in all three sections of the network analysed for accuracy, the Sentinel-derived



387 network outperforms all other data sources. It is likely that the superior results for completeness  
388 and positional accuracy generated by the Sentinel-derived network result from the higher  
389 spatial resolution of the original imagery relative to comparator data sets.



390

391 **Fig.8.** A sample of the river network used to show the reference network data, networks derived  
392 from the comparator data sets (SRTM DEM, ESA, USGS and OSM) and the network derived

393 from Sentinel-1 data. The grey lines shown in all plots are the reference river centrelines which  
394 were used for the accuracy assessment.

395 **Table 2.**

396 Results of the network completeness assessment, showing the percentage of the reference  
397 network captured by the networks derived from Sentinel-1 and comparator data, for different  
398 stream orders and overall.

399

<b>Data</b>	<b>3<sup>rd</sup> order</b>	<b>2<sup>nd</sup> order</b>	<b>1<sup>st</sup> order</b>	<b>Overall %</b>
Sentinel-1	95	76	45	70
USGS	83	46	20	47
ESA data	54	13	2	14
DEM	81	40	15	42
OSM	10	-	-	3

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411 **Table 3.**

412 Results of the positional accuracy assessment, showing the percentage of the networks  
413 derived from Sentinel-1 and comparator data laying within varied sizes of buffers from the  
414 reference network, for three sample sections of the network and on average.

Data	1 <sup>st</sup> Section			2 <sup>nd</sup> Section			3 <sup>rd</sup> Section			Average %		
	30m	20m	10m	30m	20m	10m	30m	20m	10m	30m	20m	10m
Sentinel-1	81	72	50	98	95	77	100	93	75	93	87	67
USGS	81	60	30	87	70	37	91	78	44	89	69	37
ESA data	14	11	5	17	13	8	26	17	9	19	14	7
OSM	60	47	32	49	35	20	27	17	9	45	33	20
DEM	4	3	1	8	5	6	13	10	7	16	6	5

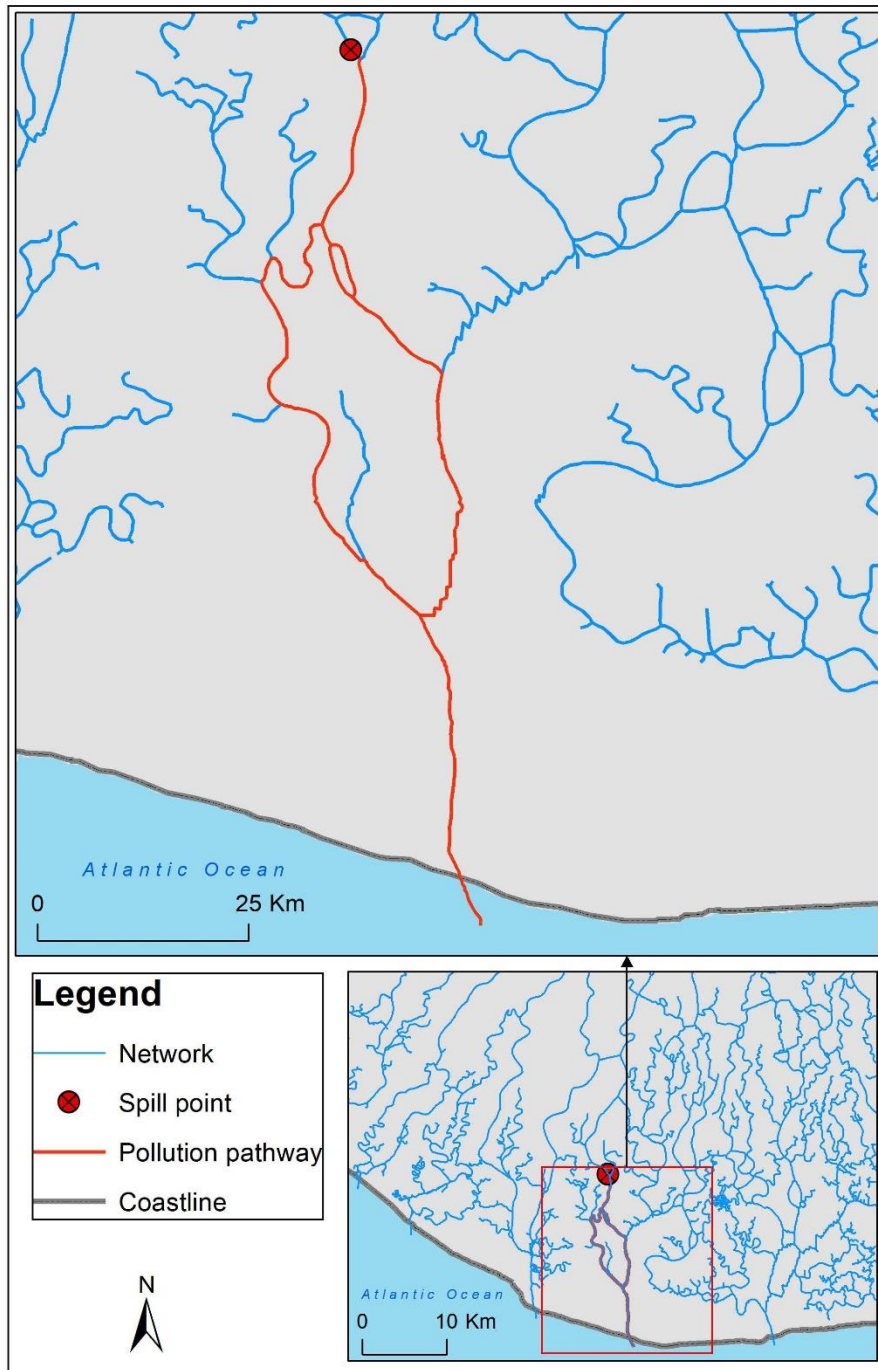
415

416 **3.2.3 Case study: application of the geometric river network product to oil pollution**  
417 **dispersal.**

418 Figure 9 shows an example application of the geometric river network in the Niger Delta. This  
419 network is topologically structured and comprises edges with attributes such as flow direction  
420 and junctions which define connectivity rules between edges. It shows the potential pathway  
421 of oil released into the river network from a known point source of crude oil pollution from a  
422 broken pipeline and routes pollutants will flow through to the ocean, contingent on network  
423 connectivity and flow direction. This example is intended to demonstrate the functionality of  
424 the network in permitting a flow routing analysis, rather than a depicting the actual spread of  
425 oil from this spill event. While the figure represents a potential route and maximum spread  
426 from the source to the ocean sink, the actual spread will depend on a number of factors such as  
427 river discharge and rates of oil emulsification and dispersion. Accounting for these additional  
428 factors requires a more sophisticated model, which is being developed in our ongoing work,



429 but the river network product developed here provides a spatial framework for defining the key  
430 flow pathways in rivers which enable the long distance dissemination of oil pollution in the  
431 Niger Delta.



432  
433 **Fig.9.** Tracing the potential pathway of oil released from a spill using the extracted river  
434 network based on connectivity and attributed flow direction.

## 435 **4. Discussion**

### 436 **4.1. Unsupervised classification of Sentinel-1 data for water body delineation**

437 As the results demonstrate, the application of unsupervised classification to Sentinel-1 data was  
438 effective for mapping water bodies in the study area. This accords with previous work which  
439 has found that the application of unsupervised classification to satellite data is an objective,  
440 fast and repeatable method of water body delineation (Ogilvie et al., 2015). Unsupervised  
441 classification, especially for distinct spectral classes such as water, has been reported to  
442 outperform supervised classification or simple thresholding approaches (Zeng et al., 2015).  
443 The shortcomings of supervised classification and thresholding in this instance are likely to be  
444 associated with the time costs and user subjectivity introduced in selecting training data or  
445 appropriate threshold values (Yang et al., 2014; Zeng et al., 2015). The implication is that  
446 unsupervised classification is more efficient and accurate.

447 The k-means unsupervised classification algorithm used in the present study further enhances  
448 the robustness of the procedures (Ogilvie et al., 2015; Capó et al, 2017). This is because the  
449 algorithm is effective for carrying out segmentation in solving clustering problems (Shah et al.,  
450 2011) and because class clustering is performed without prior knowledge of relationships  
451 (Tzortzis and Likas, 2014). This is emphasised by the generally high user's accuracy of the  
452 Sentinel-1 image classification as shown in Table 1. This suggests that, for anywhere classified  
453 as a water body using this algorithm, there is 89% confidence that it is water in the field,  
454 meaning that resource managers can be sure of the accuracy of the product (Kennedy et al.,  
455 2009).

456 The time series of Sentinel-1 images used in this study enabled the differentiation of permanent  
457 and transient water bodies, in a similar fashion to the use of a MODIS time series by Ogilvie  
458 et al. (2015). As shown in Figure 3, the Niger Delta contains a complex network of rivers,

459 creeks, lakes and ponds and flooded areas. Identifying what is permanent and ephemeral is  
460 therefore important, particularly for determining the hydrological dynamics of the area during  
461 extreme events. Analysis of persistence provides an effective means of mapping permanent  
462 water bodies (Figure 4). This type of output is especially important in applications that require  
463 only permanent channels, such as for navigation. These data also provide a more effective input  
464 for the process of extracting a vector-based representation of the river system, as a connected  
465 geometric network of permanent channels.

#### 466 **4.2. River network extraction, topology building and attribution**

467 Vectorization of the classified outputs ensures network data is available in vector formats to  
468 accommodate wide-ranging applications (Webster et al., 2016). Figure 7 shows the entire  
469 extent of the river network that has been delineated in this study. Automation of the river  
470 delineation process can ensure high levels of accuracy and consistency relative to traditional  
471 cartographic approaches (Maderal et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2014; Zeng et al., 2015) and the  
472 awareness that, in this study, the input data for the delineation was accurately classified, gives  
473 further confidence in the network data set. However, it is acknowledged that the river network  
474 produced in this study has some limitations. This is illustrated in Table 3, where although  
475 Sentinel-1 presents the best results for network delineation in comparison to existing freely  
476 available data sets, it cannot resolve all of the first order streams. This is because some of the  
477 individual creeks are less than 10m in width, and in some cases no more than 3m wide  
478 (Emmanuel and Onyema, 2007). Thus, the 10m spatial resolution of the Sentinel-1 data,  
479 combined with tree canopies wholly or partially covering narrow creeks, can limit the ability  
480 to delineate the finest features of the river system in the delta.

481 Although river delineation is an appropriate step, building a geometric network from the output  
482 enables more sophisticated forms of analysis. Most applications employing the use of

483 hydrological networks usually require topological information such as flow direction and  
484 connectivity rules (Sindhu et al., 2015). As shown in Figure 7, this study was able to produce  
485 a geometric river network for the entire study area. The example application demonstrated how  
486 the network could then be used for flow routing and assessment of the spread of oil pollution,  
487 which is important in the context of the Niger Delta. The river network data will enable future  
488 detailed source-pathway-receptor modelling to be carried out to determine the fate of oil spilt  
489 as a result of sabotage or operator error (Obida et al., 2018) and similar approaches would be  
490 more widely applicable for diverse forms of pollution in other countries. Moreover, many  
491 communities in the delta are not connected to the road network, with access only by boats using  
492 the river system. Hence, the river network data produced in this study holds considerable  
493 potential for assisting in planning more effective (river-based) transportation schemes to  
494 support the many isolated and vulnerable communities. There is a pressing need for such  
495 applications of river network data in many developing countries.

#### 496 **4.3. Mapping accuracy assessment and comparison framework**

497 Both raster and vector methods of accuracy assessment indicate that the Sentinel-derived  
498 products outperform comparator data sets (Tables 2,3,4). Although the Sentinel-based method  
499 delineated a substantial proportion of the network, smaller channels were less well  
500 discriminated. The systematic methods used in this study for assessing the accuracy of the  
501 extracted river centre line ensures consistency. The superior performance of the Sentinel-based  
502 method can likely be explained by the higher spatial resolution of the source imagery compared  
503 to the comparator data sets and the better discrimination of water bodies achieved by SAR  
504 sensing compared to optical sensing (Sabel et al., 2012).

505 Relatively little data on rivers has been contributed to OSM in the Niger Delta. Lack of OSM  
506 content in this region may be explained by the largely rural setting and lack of access to

507 computing hardware and the internet in this region, and a lack of awareness of open-source  
508 geospatial technologies like OSM. This accords with studies evaluating the quality of OSM  
509 data which revealed substantially greater amounts and detail of digitized data in urban areas  
510 compared to remote rural areas (Bittner, 2017; Graham et al., 2015; Neis et al., 2013). To  
511 overcome such limitations with user-generated data, the river network data extracted from  
512 Sentinel-1 could potentially be fed into OSM to provide better coverage for regions of the  
513 world that are less well mapped.

514 Overall the open access policy for Sentinel-1 data, together with the improved temporal and  
515 spatial resolution, constitutes a step change in data supply for resource managers, particularly  
516 in developing countries where access to high quality spatial data is limited. The geometric river  
517 network that has been generated from Sentinel-1 data in this study opens up opportunities for  
518 sophisticated forms of spatial analysis for regions where spatial data is deficient or absent.  
519 Therefore, the outputs from this research such as the raster and vector data sets can potentially  
520 be made publicly available on sites such as OSM and provided to the Nigeria Hydrological  
521 Services Agency, at their request.

## 522 **5. Conclusion**

523 In this study we demonstrated the capability of using Sentinel-1 data to map a complex river  
524 network. This network was assessed for data completeness (length) and positional accuracy  
525 (overlap) against a manually digitised reference network. The same accuracy assessment  
526 process was conducted for networks derived from the USGS and ESA global water body  
527 products, citizen science derived OSM data, and an SRTM DEM. This analysis showed that  
528 the network derived from Sentinel-1 is more complete and positionally accurate than those  
529 derived from comparator products. Moreover, the topologically-structured geometric river  
530 network contains critical information such as flow direction and connectivity rules which

531 permit a range of applications that rely on calculations of flow routes through the system. The  
532 open access policy for Sentinel-1 data combined with the straightforward and systematic  
533 analytical methods developed in this study open up the opportunity of supplying river network  
534 data to the many other regions of the world where such data are out of date, deficient or absent.  
535 Consequently, this approach has the potential to generate a step change in the capability of  
536 natural resource managers, hydrologist, researchers and government agencies to enhance their  
537 workflow and raise their effectiveness in planning and management.

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552 **References**

- 553 Ardhuin, F., Stopa, J., Chapron, B., Collard, F., Smith, M., Thomson, J., Doble, M.,  
554 Blomquist, B., Persson, O., Collins, C.O., Wadhams, P., 2017. Measuring ocean waves  
555 in sea ice using SAR imagery: A quasi-deterministic approach evaluated with Sentinel-1  
556 and in situ data. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 189, 211–222.  
557 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2016.11.024>
- 558 Bittner, C., 2017. Diversity in volunteered geographic information: comparing  
559 OpenStreetMap and Wikimapia in Jerusalem. *GeoJournal* 82, 887–906.  
560 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10708-016-9721-3>
- 561 Bolanos, S., Stiff, D., Brisco, B., Pietroniro, A., 2016. Operational surface water detection  
562 and monitoring using Radarsat 2. *Remote Sens.* 8. <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs8040285>
- 563 Capó, M., Pérez, A., Lozano, J.A., 2017. An efficient approximation to the K-means  
564 clustering for massive data. *Knowledge-Based Syst.* 117, 56–69.  
565 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2016.06.031>
- 566 Castronova, A.M., Goodall, J.L., 2014. A hierarchical network-based algorithm for multi-  
567 scale watershed delineation. *Comput. Geosci.* 72, 156–166.  
568 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2014.07.014>
- 569 Cho, H.-C., Slatton, K.C., Krekeler, C.R., Cheung, S., Clint Slatton, K., 2011. International  
570 Journal of Remote Sensing Morphology-based approaches for detecting stream channels  
571 from ALSM data Morphology-based approaches for detecting stream channels from  
572 ALSM data. *Int. J. Remote Sens.* 32, 9571–9597.  
573 <https://doi.org/10.1080/01431161.2011.566896>
- 574 Domeneghetti, A., Tarpanelli, A., Brocca, L., Barbetta, S., Moramarco, T., Castellarin, A.,

575 Brath, A., 2014. The use of remote sensing-derived water surface data for hydraulic  
576 model calibration. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 149, 130–141.  
577 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2014.04.007>

578 Ekeu-Wei, I.T. and Blackburn, G.A., 2018. Applications of Open-Access Remotely Sensed  
579 Data for Flood Modelling and Mapping in Developing Regions. *Hydrology*.  
580 <https://doi.org/10.3390/hydrology5030039>

581 Emmanuel, B.E., Onyema, I.C., 2007. The Plankton and Fishes of a Tropical Creek in South-  
582 Western Nigeria. *Turkish J. Fish. Aquat. Sci.* 113, 105–113.

583 Felipe De Almeida Furtado, L., Sanna, T., Silva, F., Márcia, E., De, L., Novo, M., 2016.  
584 Dual-season and full-polarimetric C band SAR assessment for vegetation mapping in the  
585 Amazon várzea wetlands. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 174, 212–222.  
586 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2015.12.013>

587 Feyisa, G.L., Meilby, H., Fensholt, R., Proud, S.R., 2014. Automated Water Extraction  
588 Index: A new technique for surface water mapping using Landsat imagery. *Remote*  
589 *Sens. Environ.* 140, 23–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2013.08.029>

590 Fu, B., Wang, Y., Campbell, A., Li, Y., Zhang, B., Yin, S., Xing, Z., Jin, X., 2017.  
591 Comparison of object-based and pixel-based Random Forest algorithm for wetland  
592 vegetation mapping using high spatial resolution GF-1 and SAR data. *Ecol. Indic.* 73,  
593 105–117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2016.09.029>

594 Garneau, C., Sauvage, S., Sánchez-Pérez, J.M., Lofts, S., Brito, D., Neves, R., Probst, A.,  
595 2017. Modelling trace metal transfer in large rivers under dynamic hydrology: A  
596 coupled hydrodynamic and chemical equilibrium model. *Environ. Model. Softw.* 89,  
597 77–96. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2016.11.018>



598 Goodchild &, M.F., Hunter, G.J., 1997. A simple positional accuracy measure for linear  
599 features. *Int. J. Geogr. Inf. Sci.* 11, 299–306. <https://doi.org/10.1080/136588197242419>

600 Goodchild, M., 2007. How good is Volunteered Geographical Information? A comparative  
601 study of OpenStreetMap and Ordnance Survey datasets.

602 Graham, M., De Sabbata, S., Zook, M.A., 2015. Towards a study of information geographies:  
603 (im)mutable augmentations and a mapping of the geographies of information. *Geo*  
604 *Geogr. Environ.* 2, 88–105. <https://doi.org/10.1002/geo2.8>

605 Gülgen, F., 2017. Geocarto International A stream ordering approach based on network  
606 analysis operations. *Geocarto Int.* 32, 322–333.  
607 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10106049.2016.1140821>

608 Haas, J., Ban, Y., 2017. Sentinel-1A SAR and sentinel-2A MSI data fusion for urban  
609 ecosystem service mapping. *Remote Sens. Appl. Soc. Environ.* 8, 41–53.  
610 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rsase.2017.07.006>

611 Haddeland, I., Heinke, J., Biemans, H., Eisner, S., Flörke, M., Hanasaki, N., Konzmann, M.,  
612 Ludwig, F., Masaki, Y., Schewe, J., Stacke, T., Tessler, Z.D., Wada, Y., Wisser, D.,  
613 2014. Global water resources affected by human interventions and climate change. *Proc.*  
614 *Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1222475110>

615 Haklay, M., 2010. How good is volunteered geographical information? A comparative study  
616 of OpenStreetMap and Ordnance Survey datasets. *Environ. Plan. B Plan. Des.*  
617 <https://doi.org/10.1068/b35097>

618 Hamada, Y., O'Connor, B.L., Orr, A.B., Wuthrich, K.K., 2016. Mapping ephemeral stream  
619 networks in desert environments using very-high-spatial-resolution multispectral remote  
620 sensing. *J. Arid Environ.* 130, 40–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2016.03.005>

621 Imperatore, P., Azar, R., Calo, F., Stroppiana, D., Brivio, P.A., Lanari, R., Pepe, A., 2017.  
622 Effect of the Vegetation Fire on Backscattering: An Investigation Based on Sentinel-1  
623 Observations. *IEEE J. Sel. Top. Appl. Earth Obs. Remote Sens.* 10, 4478–4492.  
624 <https://doi.org/10.1109/JSTARS.2017.2717039>

625 Isikdogan, F., Bovik, A., Passalacqua, P., 2017. RivaMap: An automated river analysis and  
626 mapping engine. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 202, 88–97.  
627 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2017.03.044>

628 Jain, A.K., 2010. Data clustering: 50 years beyond K-means. *Pattern Recognit. Lett.* 31, 651–  
629 666. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PATREC.2009.09.011>

630 Jiang, Y., 2011. GIS stream network analysis for Huaihe River Basin of China. *Procedia*  
631 *Environ. Sci.* 10, 1553–1558. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proenv.2011.09.247>

632 Kadafa, A.A., 2012. Oil Exploration and Spillage in the Niger Delta of Nigeria. *Civ. Environ.*  
633 *Res.* 2, 2222–2863.

634 Kennedy, R.E., Townsend, P.A., Gross, J.E., Cohen, W.B., Bolstad, P., Wang, Y.Q., Adams,  
635 P., 2009. Remote sensing change detection tools for natural resource managers:  
636 Understanding concepts and tradeoffs in the design of landscape monitoring projects.  
637 *Remote Sens. Environ.* 113, 1382–1396. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2008.07.018>

638 Khan, A., Richards, K.S., Parker, G.T., Mcrobie, A., Mukhopadhyay, B., 2014. How large is  
639 the Upper Indus Basin? The pitfalls of auto-delineation using DEMs. *J. Hydrol.*  
640 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2013.11.028>

641 Khandelwal, A., Karpatne, A., Marlier, M.E., Kim, J., Lettenmaier, D.P., Kumar, V., 2017.  
642 An approach for global monitoring of surface water extent variations in reservoirs using  
643 MODIS data. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 202, 113–128.

644 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2017.05.039>

645 Kim, D., Muste, M., Merwade, V., 2015. A GIS-based relational data model for multi-  
646 dimensional representation of river hydrodynamics and morphodynamics. *Environ.*  
647 *Model. Softw.* 65, 79–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2014.12.002>

648 Kumar, B., Patra, K.C., Lakshmi, V., 2017. Error in digital network and basin area  
649 delineation using d8 method: A case study in a sub-basin of the Ganga. *J. Geol. Soc.*  
650 *India* 89, 65–70. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12594-017-0559-1>

651 Lashermes, B., Foufoula-Georgiou, E., Dietrich, W.E., 2007. Channel network extraction  
652 from high resolution topography using wavelets. *Geophys. Res. Lett* 34, 23–27.  
653 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2007GL031140>

654 Li, J., Wong, D.W.S., 2010. Effects of DEM sources on hydrologic applications. *Comput.*  
655 *Environ. Urban Syst.* 34, 251–261.  
656 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compenvurbsys.2009.11.002>

657 Maderal, E.N., Valcarcel, N., Delgado, J., Sevilla, C., Ojeda, J.C., 2016. Automatic river  
658 network extraction from LiDAR data. *Int. Arch. Photogramm. Remote Sens. Spat. Inf.*  
659 *Sci. - ISPRS Arch.* 41, 365–372. [https://doi.org/10.5194/isprsarchives-XLI-B8-365-](https://doi.org/10.5194/isprsarchives-XLI-B8-365-2016)  
660 [2016](https://doi.org/10.5194/isprsarchives-XLI-B8-365-2016)

661 Malenovsky, Z., Rott, H., Cihlar, J., Schaepman, M.E., García-Santos, G., Fernandes, R.,  
662 2012. Sentinels for science: Potential of Sentinel-1, -2, and -3 missions for scientific  
663 observations of ocean, cryosphere, and land. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 120, 91–101.  
664 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2011.09.026>

665 Miranda, N., Meadows, P.J., Pilgrim, A., Piantanida, R., Recchia, A., Giudici, D., Small, D.,  
666 Schubert, A., 2016. Sentinel -1B Preliminary Results Obtained During the Orbit

667 Acquisition Phase [Work in Progress]. *Procedia Comput. Sci.* 100, 1313–1318.  
668 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2016.09.247>

669 Misra, A., Balaji, R., 2017. Simple Approaches to Oil Spill Detection Using Sentinel  
670 Application Platform (SNAP)-Ocean Application Tools and Texture Analysis: A  
671 Comparative Study. *J. Indian Soc. Remote Sens.* 1–11. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s12524-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12524-016-0658-2)  
672 [016-0658-2](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12524-016-0658-2)

673 Neis, P., Zielstra, D., Zipf, A., 2013. Comparison of Volunteered Geographic Information  
674 Data Contributions and Community Development for Selected World Regions. *Futur.*  
675 *Internet* 5, 282–300. <https://doi.org/10.3390/fi5020282>

676 NHSA, 2014. 2014 Flood outlook for Nigeria [WWW Document]. URL  
677 [https://docplayer.net/50853781-Nigeria-hydrological-services-agency-2014-flood-](https://docplayer.net/50853781-Nigeria-hydrological-services-agency-2014-flood-outlook-for-nigeria-foreword-honourable-minister-federal-ministry-of-water-resources.html)  
678 [outlook-for-nigeria-foreword-honourable-minister-federal-ministry-of-water-](https://docplayer.net/50853781-Nigeria-hydrological-services-agency-2014-flood-outlook-for-nigeria-foreword-honourable-minister-federal-ministry-of-water-resources.html)  
679 [resources.html](https://docplayer.net/50853781-Nigeria-hydrological-services-agency-2014-flood-outlook-for-nigeria-foreword-honourable-minister-federal-ministry-of-water-resources.html)

680 Obida, C.B., Alan Blackburn, G., Duncan Whyatt, J., Semple, K.T., 2018. Quantifying the  
681 exposure of humans and the environment to oil pollution in the Niger Delta using  
682 advanced geostatistical techniques. *Environ. Int.* 111, 32–42.  
683 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2017.11.009>

684 Ogilvie, A., Belaud, G., Delenne, C., Bailly, J.-S., Bader, J.-C., Oleksiak, A., Ferry, L.,  
685 Martin, D., 2015. Decadal monitoring of the Niger Inner Delta flood dynamics using  
686 MODIS optical data. *J. Hydrol.* 523, 368–383.  
687 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2015.01.036>

688 Passalacqua, P., Belmont, P., Foufoula-Georgiou, E., 2012. Automatic geomorphic feature  
689 extraction from lidar in flat and engineered landscapes. *Water Resour. Res.* 48, 3528.  
690 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2011WR010958>

691 Rahman, M.M., Arya, D.S., Goel, N.K., 2010. Limitation of 90 m SRTM DEM in drainage  
692 network delineation using D8 method—a case study in flat terrain of Bangladesh. *Appl*  
693 *Geomat* 2, 49–58. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12518-010-0020-2>

694 Rahman, M.R., Thakur, P.K., 2017. Detecting, mapping and analysing of flood water  
695 propagation using synthetic aperture radar (SAR) satellite data and GIS: A case study  
696 from the Kendrapara District of Orissa State of India. *Egypt. J. Remote Sens. Sp. Sci.*  
697 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejrs.2017.10.002>

698 Sabel, D., Bartalis, Z., Wagner, W., Doubkova, M., Klein, J.-P., 2012. Development of a  
699 Global Backscatter Model in support to the Sentinel-1 mission design. *Remote Sens.*  
700 *Environ.* 120, 102–112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2011.09.028>

701 Senay, G.B., Schauer, M., Friedrichs, M., Velpuri, N.M., Singh, R.K., 2017. Satellite-based  
702 water use dynamics using historical Landsat data (1984–2014) in the southwestern  
703 United States. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 202, 98–112.  
704 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2017.05.005>

705 Shah, V., Choudhary, A., Tewari, K., 2011. River extraction from satellite image. *Int. J.*  
706 *Comput. Sci. Issues* Volume 8, 386–391.

707 Sindhu, D., Sadashivappa, Ravikumar, A.S., Shivakumar, B.L., 2015. Quantitative Analysis  
708 of Catchment Using Remote Sensing and Geographic Information System. *Aquat.*  
709 *Procedia* 4, 1421–1428. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aqpro.2015.02.184>

710 Sowter, A., Bin Che Amat, M., Cigna, F., Marsh, S., Athab, A., Alshammari, L., 2016.  
711 Mexico City land subsidence in 2014–2015 with Sentinel-1 IW TOPS: Results using the  
712 Intermittent SBAS (ISBAS) technique. *Int. J. Appl. Earth Obs. Geoinf.* 52, 230–242.  
713 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2016.06.015>

714 Tzortzis, G., Likas, A., 2014. The MinMax k-Means clustering algorithm. *Pattern Recognit.*  
715 47, 2505–2516. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PATCOG.2014.01.015>

716 UNEP, 2011. *Environmental Assessment of Ogoniland*.

717 Veloso, A., Mermoz, S., Bouvet, A., Le Toan, T., Planells, M., Dejoux, J.-F., Ceschia, E.,  
718 2017. Understanding the temporal behavior of crops using Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2-like  
719 data for agricultural applications. *Remote Sens. Environ. J.*  
720 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2017.07.015>

721 Vimal, S., Kumar, D.N., Jaya, I., 2012. Extraction of Drainage Pattern from ASTER and  
722 SRTM Data for a River Basin using GIS Tools. *Int. Conf. Environ. Energy Biotechnol.*  
723 33, 120–124.

724 Webster, K., Arroyo-Mora, J.P., Coomes, O.T., Takasaki, Y., Abizaid, C., 2016. A cost path  
725 and network analysis methodology to calculate distances along a complex river network  
726 in the Peruvian Amazon. *Appl. Geogr.* 73, 13–25.  
727 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2016.05.008>

728 Yang, K., Li, M., Liu, Y., Cheng, L., Duan, Y., Zhou, M., 2014. River delineation from  
729 remotely sensed imagery using a multi-scale classification approach. *J. Sel. Top. Appl.*  
730 *earth Obs. Remote Sens.* 7, 4726–4737.

731 Zeng, C., Bird, S., Luce, J.J., Wang, J., 2015. A natural-rule-based-connection (NRBC)  
732 method for river network extraction from high-resolution imagery. *Remote Sens.* 7,  
733 14055–14078. <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs71014055>

734 Zhang, M., Li, Z., Tian, B., Zhou, J., Tang, P., 2016. The backscattering characteristics of  
735 wetland vegetation and water-level changes detection using multi-mode SAR: A case  
736 study. *Int. J. Appl. Earth Obs. Geoinf.* 45, 1–13.

- 737 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2015.10.001>
- 738 <https://scihub.copernicus.eu/dhus/>
- 739 <https://landcover.usgs.gov/glc/WaterDescriptionAndDownloads.php>
- 740 <https://www.esa-landcover-cci.org/?q=node/162>
- 741 <https://www.openstreetmap.org/export#map=10/4.7612/6.7387>
- 742 <https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>
- 743 <https://www.openstreetmap.org/#map=10/4.7612/6.7387>