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1 A Hybrid Machine-Learning Model to Map Glacier-Related Debris Flow  
2 Susceptibility along Gyirong Zangbo Watershed Under the Changing Climate

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7 **Abstract:** Gyirong serves as an important channel to China-Nepal Economic Corridor, which is  
8 also the only land route for China-Nepal trade since the 2015 earthquake. However, the Gyirong  
9 corridor suffers from glacier-related debris flow from every April to September because of the  
10 complex topographic features and the changing climate. Therefore, a susceptibility map in  
11 response to precipitation and temperature change is timely, not only to ensure the safe operation  
12 of this corridor, but also to provide decision-makers a guidance for hazard mitigation and  
13 environmental remediation. Conventional method is difficult to consider and link the  
14 meteorological factors (e.g. temperature and precipitation), topographies, ecological, geological  
15 conditions all together to produce the susceptibility map, as such, machine learning is utilised to  
16 conduct the analysis. Logistic Regression (LR) and Support Vector Machine (SVM) were firstly  
17 applied to evaluate their efficiency and effectiveness of the performance of producing the  
18 susceptibility map. In order to improve the fitting and prediction accuracy (ACC), genetic algorithm  
19 - support vector machine (GA-SVM) and certainty factor - genetic algorithm - support vector  
20 machine (CF-GA-SVM) were conducted based on the initial analysis results of receiver operating  
21 characteristics curve (ROC) and ACC. Through the analysis, it can be seen that over 61% of the

22 study areas have a high susceptibility to debris flow, requiring an intensive attention from the local  
23 government. To further optimise the computational time, when dealing with small amounts of  
24 sample data, SVM is more efficient than LR, but CF-GA-SVM can achieve the highest AUC (Area  
25 Under Curve) and ACC values, 0.945 and 0.800, respectively. Overall, CF-GA-SVM model  
26 presents a relatively high robustness according to sensitivity analysis.

27 **Keywords:** Susceptibility maps, glacier-related debris flow, optimised SVM, China-Nepal  
28 Economic Corridor, environmental change

## 29 **1. Introduction**

30 The China-Nepal Economic Corridor is one of the important components of 'One Belt, One  
31 Road'. However, the unique geological conditions have caused high-frequency and large-scale  
32 glacier-related debris flows and landslides along the corridor, which induced river blockages (Zou  
33 et al., 2020), slope erosions (Gayen et al., 2019), destruction of aquatic biodiversity (Zabihi et al.,  
34 2018), damage to agricultural land and forest (Jakob et al., 2005), and even losses of human life.

35 Debris flow can be divided into various types according to different triggering factors,  
36 including rainfall (Paudel et al., 2020), glacier and snow melting and outburst of ice lakes (Chen  
37 et al., 2011; Ding et al., 2020), in which the glacier-related debris flow causes the most severe  
38 damage to the natural environment. This is because the volume of glacier-related debris flow  
39 could reach hundreds of thousands of cubic meters (Breien et al., 2008). There have been a lot  
40 of research in the past decades to investigate the trigger mechanism of glacier-related debris flow  
41 (Perutz, 1953; Jackson et al., 1989; Wikerson et al., 2003). However, due to the complex  
42 controlling factors relating to geological structures, topographical and ecological conditions, it is  
43 still a challenge task to predict when the glacier-related debris flow is going to occur (Takahashi,

44 2007; Erokhin et al., 2018). Furthermore, an increase in the frequency of extreme weather and  
45 climate events also increased the occurrences of the glacier-related debris flow (Turkington et al.,  
46 2016; Muñoz et al., 2016). Therefore, more attentions need to be paid to the susceptibility analysis  
47 of glacier-related debris flow in order to provide early warnings and mitigate disasters caused by  
48 the glacier-related debris flow.

49 In recent years, with the aids from the data science, empirical methods (Meng et al., 2016;  
50 Kang et al., 2018) and machine learning methods (Kadavi et al., 2018) are emerged to generate  
51 the susceptibility map, conduct risk evaluation and estimate vulnerability for debris flow. A single  
52 empirical method can reflect the hazard susceptibility to some extent, such as, analytic hierarchy  
53 process (Chen et al., 2015; Xue et al., 2019), information acquisition analysis and certainty factor  
54 (Shortliffe, 1975; Heckerman, 1986). However, it is difficult to generate a high accurate hazard  
55 susceptibility map on a regional scale (Yilmaz, 2010) because the single empirical method is still  
56 highly depending on experts' experiences. Machine learning methods, such as logistic regression  
57 (Wright, 1995) and support vector machine (Pisner et al., 2020), can significantly reduce the  
58 computational time when generating the susceptibility maps (Rahmati et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2017;  
59 Zhang et al., 2019). In general, Logistic Regression (LR) and Support Vector Machine (SVM)  
60 algorithms are the two widely recognised algorithms (Kalantar et al., 2018) with different  
61 susceptibility accuracies. SVM method usually is more suitable in dealing with problems with high  
62 dimensions, nonlinearly separable data and a small amount of data (Mojaddadi et al., 2017;  
63 Huang et al., 2018). The reason is that SVM only focuses on selected support vectors when  
64 producing the model (Tong et al., 2001; Suthaharan et al., 2016), and the kernel functions, such  
65 as linear, polynomial, radial basis function (rbf) and sigmoid function, can convert samples into a

66 higher-dimensional feature space to achieve linearly separable. Whereas, LR considers global  
67 variables (Wright, 1995) especially when it needs to deal with a large amount of data. When there  
68 are not enough data, LR may be able to produce a good fitting curve but will be unable to meet  
69 the prediction requirement because of the involved noise data.

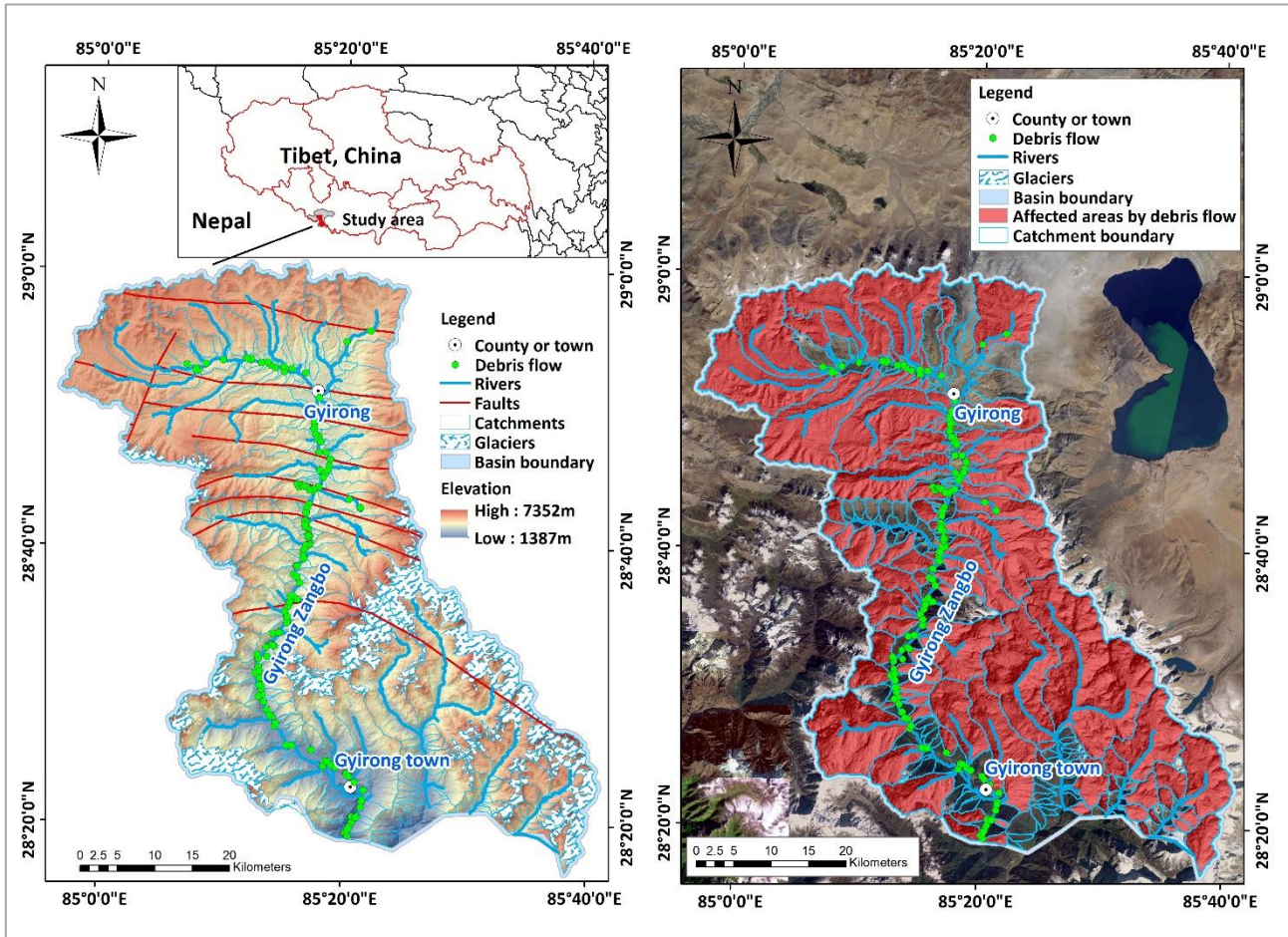
70 Overall, the rbf kernel has a better nonlinear mapping capacity and shows a higher predictive  
71 accuracy (Tehrany et al., 2015; Feizizadeh et al., 2017). While the previous studies mostly only  
72 concentrated on the final result of SVM instead of focusing on the optimisation of hyper  
73 parameters  $C$  and  $\gamma$ , which control the development of fitting model of the predictive  
74 accuracy. The genetic algorithm (GA) is suitable for extracting optimal  $C$  and  $\gamma$  from a wide  
75 range,  $2^{-8}$  to  $2^8$  at a higher rate and avoid possible local optimisation of particle swarm optimisation  
76 (PSO). Moreover, in order to guarantee the stability of the fitting model, certainty factor (CF)  
77 (Devkota et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2019; Arabameri et al., 2019) is introduced to improve the  
78 stability of the input data to benefit the model fitting.

79 Although a lot of studies have been conducted to map susceptibility of debris flows caused  
80 by intense rainfall in different regions (Xu et al., 2013; Cao et al., 2020), very few studies  
81 considered the susceptibility analysis of glacier-related debris flow under changing weather  
82 conditions. Therefore, to map susceptibility of glacier-related debris flow along Gyirong Zangbo  
83 watershed and reflect the impacts of glacier-related debris flow in the natural environment, LR  
84 and SVM were applied in this paper to generate susceptibility maps on a regional scale by  
85 considering topographic, ecological, geological and meteorological factors. The genetic algorithm  
86 (GA) was also utilised to extract two optimal parameters  $C$  and  $\gamma$ , which influences the  
87 output of fitting model and prediction accuracy. The certainty factors (CF) were integrated with

88 GA-SVM to further improve the performance of GA-SVM. Model assessments, including  
89 prediction accuracy, sensitivity analysis and weights of factors, were also conducted for model  
90 validation and examine the model's robustness. The results from this research can provide  
91 effective support and guidance for the mitigation of glacier-related debris flow.

## 92 **2. Study area**

93 The study area is along the Gyirong Zangbo river from the headwater to Gyirong town (Fig.  
94 1a), located in the Southwestern part of Tibet with a total area of 2,788.145 km<sup>2</sup>, most of which  
95 belong to the landform of alpine valleys, with an average altitude of 3650 m above the sea level.  
96 This river basin extends from 28°15'24" N to 29°0'14" N latitude and 84°56'46" E to 85°40'56" E  
97 longitude. Three main rivers originate from this area, including Donglin Zangbo, Gyirong Zangbo  
98 and Buri Gandaki River. The complex geological and geomorphological conditions in Gyirong  
99 form the second highest mountain ('Shishapangma', with an altitude of 8012m), several glacial  
100 lakes and primitive forest. The study area belongs to subtropical monsoon climate zone with an  
101 average annual temperature ranging from 10 to 18°C. The average precipitation is approximately  
102 1000 mm per year with over 50.5% of rainfall happens between June and October. Although the  
103 Himalaya Mountain stops the warm air from Indian Ocean and benefit the natural environment in  
104 south part of Gyirong, it also provides the initiation conditions for glacier-related debris flow along  
105 Gyirong Zangbo watershed. Fig. 1b presented the affected areas by glacier-related debris flow  
106 along Gyirong Zangbo watershed.



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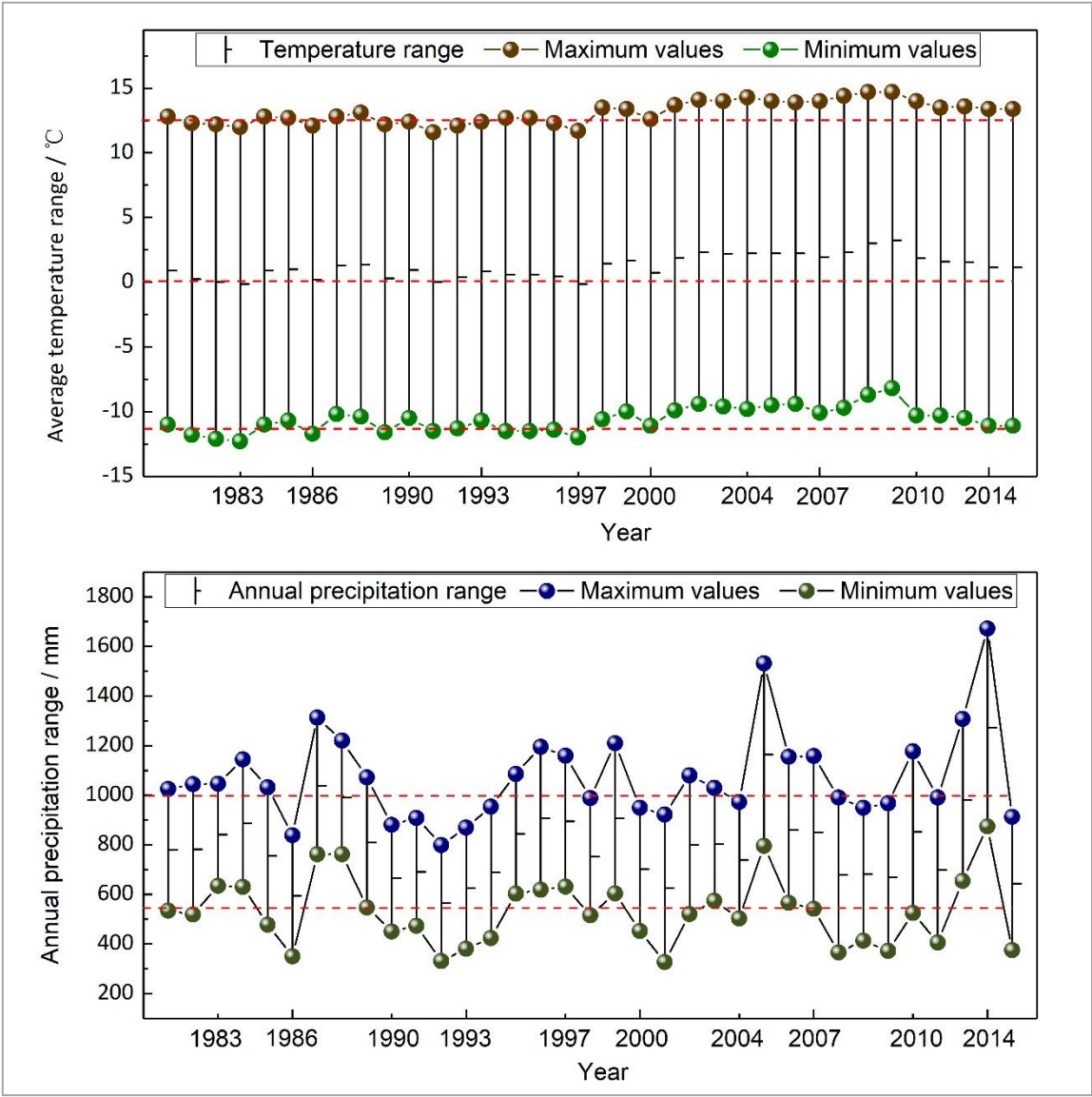
108 Figure 1. (a) Study area. (b) Affected areas by glacier-related debris flow. (The Digital Elevation Model (DEM)  
 109 data was provided by the Geospatial Data Cloud, <http://www.gscloud.cn> )

110 **3. Climate change in this area**

111 Climate change has induced increased natural geohazards, such as debris flow, landslide,  
 112 rock fall and flooding (Stoffel et al., 2014). From 1980 to 2015, there was an average annual  
 113 temperature rising of 1.47°C in the study area (Fig. 2), which was much higher than the global  
 114 recorded temperature rising between 0.4°C to 0.6°C (Zou et al., 2020). The raised temperature  
 115 triggered glacier melting, which formed streamflow with an average increase of 65 mm per 0.5 °C  
 116 (Zhang et al., 2011). To make things even worse, a large volume of sediments on the slopes  
 117 provides material source for the most common natural disaster, glacier-related debris flow with



118 the contribution of the rainfall.



119  
120 Figure. 2 Change of average annual temperature and annual precipitation in this area from 1980 to 2015

121 Table 1. Mean annual precipitation in five years internals

Time range	1980 -1984	1985 -1989	1990 -1994	1995 -1999	2000 -2004	2005 -2009	2010 -2015
Mean annual rainfall (mm)	822.13	837.14	646.91	860.88	733.09	846.55	852.58

122 In addition to the temperature rising in the past decades, annual precipitation also presented  
123 a noticeable change based on the curves in Fig.2. The raised temperature facilitated the  
124 evaporation of shallow soils and thus induced surface drying. However, the evaporated water will



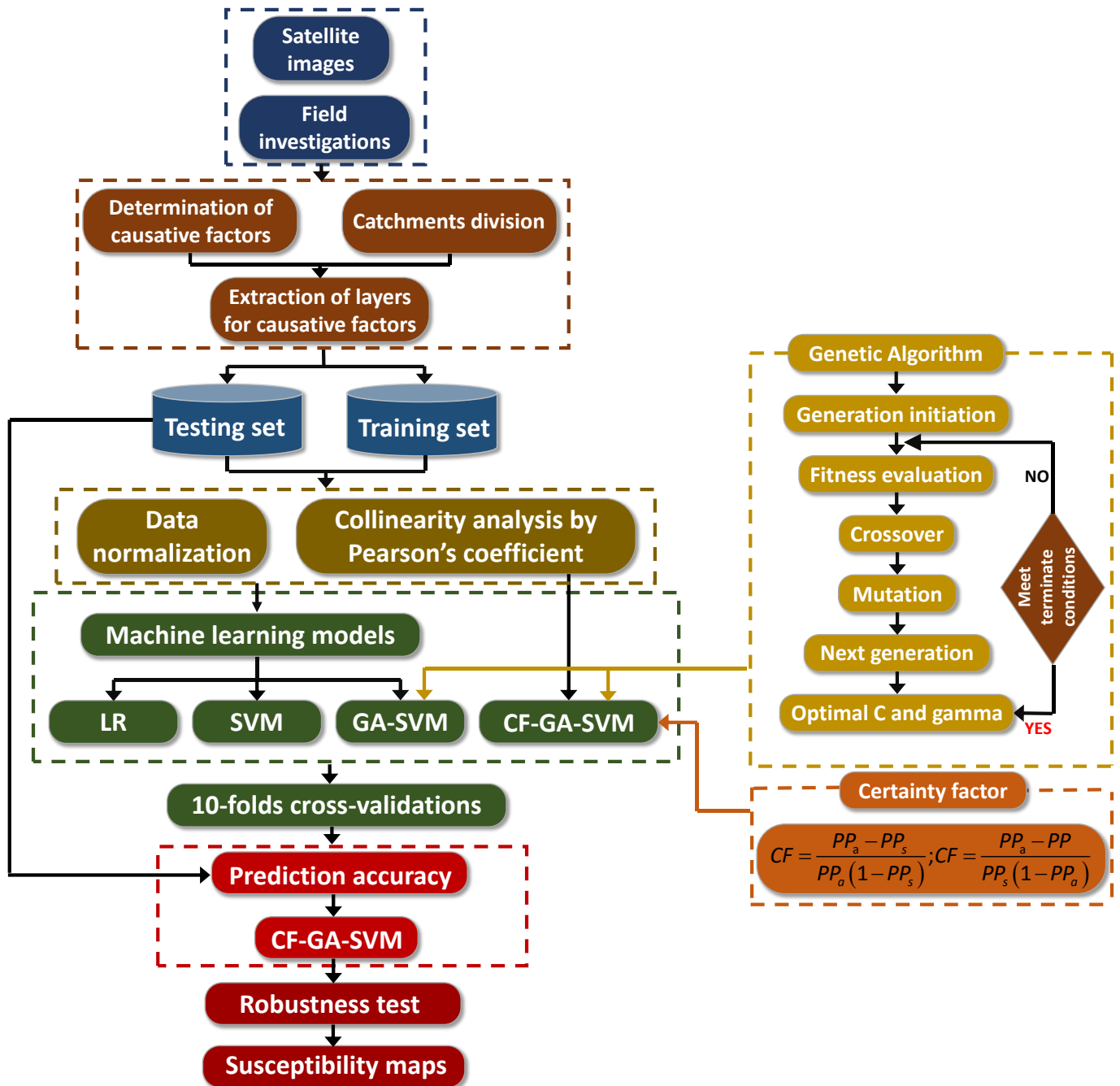
125 not return to the land immediately in the format of rainfall as the water holding capacity of air will  
126 be strengthened by the increased temperature with approximately 7% per 1 °C warming (Trenberth,  
127 2011). Instead, the increased water holding capacity of air leads to more frequent extreme  
128 weather events, such as storms, tropical cyclones (O’Gorman, 2015). These observed high  
129 intense rainfall events were consistent with the precipitation change from 2000 to 2015 in Table 1. For  
130 example, the maximum precipitation occurred in 2014 with a total amount of 1671.5 mm, followed  
131 by 1531.5 mm in 2005. It is inevitable that climate change is leading to increased extreme  
132 weather conditions and associated natural geohazards. Therefore, in the past decades, not only  
133 the infrastructures in the regional residential areas were under high risks from these natural  
134 disasters induced by the rapid changes of the climates, but the well-developed vegetations were  
135 badly damaged. Moreover, the stable geological structures had also been disturbed which  
136 induced secondary geohazards with even more damages to the regional area. Through machine  
137 learning methods by taking meteorological factors into consideration, a newly developed  
138 susceptibility map can provide a much better timely warning to the local residences to save lives  
139 and properties.

#### 140 **4. Data preparation**

##### 141 **4.1 Modeling flow chart**

142 The main steps in this study for the whole process in producing the susceptibility maps were  
143 shown in Fig.3. The debris flow inventory was determined through satellite images combined with  
144 field investigations. Satellite images provided the historical records of debris flow to identify the  
145 regions that suffered from debris flow in order for the field investigations to be carried out for a  
146 more detailed local investigation. The collected data were separated into a training set and a

147 testing set to produce four fitting models. In the end, susceptibility maps were produced based on  
 148 the constructed model. The results got from predictive accuracy (ACC) and receiver operating  
 149 characteristic curve (ROC) were also evaluated and compared.



150

151

Figure 3. Modeling flow chart of this study

152 **4.2 Determination of causative factors**

153 There are many factors affecting the occurrence of glacier-related debris flow. Thus, the  
154 selection of causative factors is critical since it will directly influence the generated susceptibility  
155 map and also impact the computational time. Factors related to topographic, ecological,  
156 geological and meteorological conditions were selected based on the field investigations and past  
157 studies in Tibet (Chen et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2020). Slope, aspect, height difference, distance  
158 to stream and gully gradient were extracted from DEM with GIS. While NDVI, annual precipitation,  
159 average annual temperature, seismic intensity were based on the remote sensing data obtained  
160 from Resource and Environment Science and Data Center, Chinese Academy Sciences  
161 (<http://www.resdc.cn>). Similarly, lithology in geological group was acquired from the same  
162 database and field investigations.

163 Based on the determination of causative factors, susceptibility studies were required to be  
164 conducted through further classification for each factor. However, not all the factors can be  
165 classified quantitatively since both discrete data and continuous data were involved. The  
166 discrete data can be determined through field investigations and existing classification principles.  
167 However, the continuous data are difficult to decide since meteorological and geological  
168 conditions are varied in different regions in China. In order to decide the classifications of  
169 continuous data, the distribution of confirmed debris flow and relevant area ratio to total area were  
170 introduced to determine the classification principle for the continuous data. In addition, the  
171 classification of the slopes in this area was decided based on the study of Cui et al., (2014) and  
172 the reclassifications of gully gradient and seismic intensity were based on field investigations. The  
173 final classification principle (see Table 2) was decided based on the curves and past studies  
174 (Devkota et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2015).

Table 2. Causative factors for analysis of debris flow

No.	Causative factors	Reclassification groups	CF values	Groups
1	Slope	<6°	-0.758	Topographic Factors
		6-10°, ≥60°	-0.151	
		15-25°, 40-60°	0.712	
		25-40°	-0.133	
2	Aspect	<137.5	0.585	
		137.5-182.5	-0.382	
		182.5-227.5	-0.534	
		>227.5	0.670	
3	Height difference	<265	0.589	
		265-415m	-0.159	
		415-515m	-0.117	
		>515m	0.750	
4	Gully Gradient	<0.052	-0.702	
		0.052-0.105	-0.613	
		0.105-0.213	0.238	
		>0.213	0.697	
5	NDVI	<0.009	-0.377	Ecological Factor
		0.009-0.080	0.161	
		0.080-0.197	0.295	
		>0.197	-0.094	
6	Lithology	Solid rock	0.868	
		Soft rock	-0.168	
		Weak rock	-0.085	
		Soil and sand	/	
7	Fault distance (km)	<2.5	0.651	Geological Factors
		2.5-5.5	-0.214	
		5.5-9.5	-0.475	
		>9.5	-0.775	
8	Stream distance (km)	<2.25	0.848	
		2.25-4.25	0.573	
		4.25-5.75	-0.416	
		>5.75	-0.670	
9	Seismic intensity	<VII	-0.012	
		VII-IX	-0.258	
		>IX	/	
10	Annual precipitation (mm)	<662.5	0.732	Meteorological Factors
		662.5-712.5	0.398	
		712.5-787.5	-0.190	
		>787.5	-0.406	

		<2.5	0.822
11	Average annual temperature (°C)	2.5-6.5	-0.106
		6.5-9.5	-0.409
		≥9.5	-0.700

176 **4.3 Collinearity analysis**

177 Multicollinearity demonstrates the linear correlation between variables, which is, a certain  
178 independent variable can be indicated by other independent variables. Collinearity is a  
179 widespread phenomenon in the classification analysis and could cause unstable of the fitting  
180 model. Therefore, collinearity analysis is essential for causative factors to identify the degree of  
181 collinearity between factors. In this study, Person’s Correlation Coefficient was applied to reflect  
182 the collinear relations among these factors through Python under the editing environment of  
183 Pycharm, in which ‘math’ package was utilised for the calculation. Slightly and moderate  
184 collinearity will not affect the fitting accuracy of model, but severe collinearity needs to be avoided.  
185 A correlation matrix was produced in this study (see Table 3). There was no correlation coefficient  
186 with the absolute value larger than 0.7 (Dormann et al., 2013) in Table 3, which meant all the  
187 variables can meet the demand of collinearity test.

188 Table 3. Parameter correlation matrix

Factors	SI	HD	J	As	NDVI	Li	F	St	Ear	Pre	Temp
SI	1	0.26	0.2	0.083	0.075	-0.07	0.37	0.67	-0.4	0.65	0.65
HD	0.26	1	0.057	-0.19	-0.27	0.073	-0.12	0.12	0.05	0.11	0.19
J	0.2	0.057	1	-0.19	-0.022	-0.14	0.24	0.22	-0.11	0.21	0.32
As	0.083	-0.19	-0.19	1	0.094	0.092	0.37	0.33	0.38	0.21	0.063
NDVI	0.075	-0.27	-0.022	0.094	1	0.092	0.15	0.053	-0.015	-0.095	0.14
Li	-0.07	0.073	-0.14	0.092	0.092	1	0.095	-0.003	0.11	-0.057	0.14
F	0.37	-0.12	0.24	0.37	0.15	0.095	1	0.6	-0.13	0.31	0.48
St	0.67	0.12	0.22	0.33	0.053	-0.003	0.6	1	-0.13	0.59	0.7
Ear	-0.4	0.05	-0.11	0.38	-0.015	0.11	-0.13	-0.13	1	-0.28	-0.24
Pre	0.65	0.11	0.21	0.21	-0.095	-0.057	0.31	0.59	-0.28	1	0.45
Temp	0.65	0.19	0.32	0.063	0.14	0.14	0.48	0.7	-0.24	0.45	1

189 ('Sl' represents 'Slope', 'HD' is 'Height Difference', 'J' represents 'Gully Gradient', 'As' is 'Aspect', 'NDVI' is 'Normalised  
190 Difference Vegetation Index', 'Li' represents 'Lithology', 'F' is 'Fault Distance', 'St' is 'Stream Distance', 'Ear' represents 'Seismic  
191 Intensity', 'Pre' is 'Annual precipitation', 'Temp' is 'Average annual temperature')

#### 192 **4.4 Spatial distribution of causal factors**

193 This study area was firstly divided into 164 catchments by using Digital Elevation Model (DEM)  
194 with a resolution of 30m, ranging from 0.1315 km<sup>2</sup> to 233.9289 km<sup>2</sup>. The reason to use catchment  
195 analysis instead of grids is that debris flow usually includes accumulation area, flowing area and  
196 source zone and catchment analysis is much more reasonable and operational than grids to take  
197 topographic and geological conditions into consideration. Based on the satellite images and field  
198 investigations, a total number of 100 debris flow catchments were identified. The spatial  
199 distribution of causative factors was presented in Fig. 4.

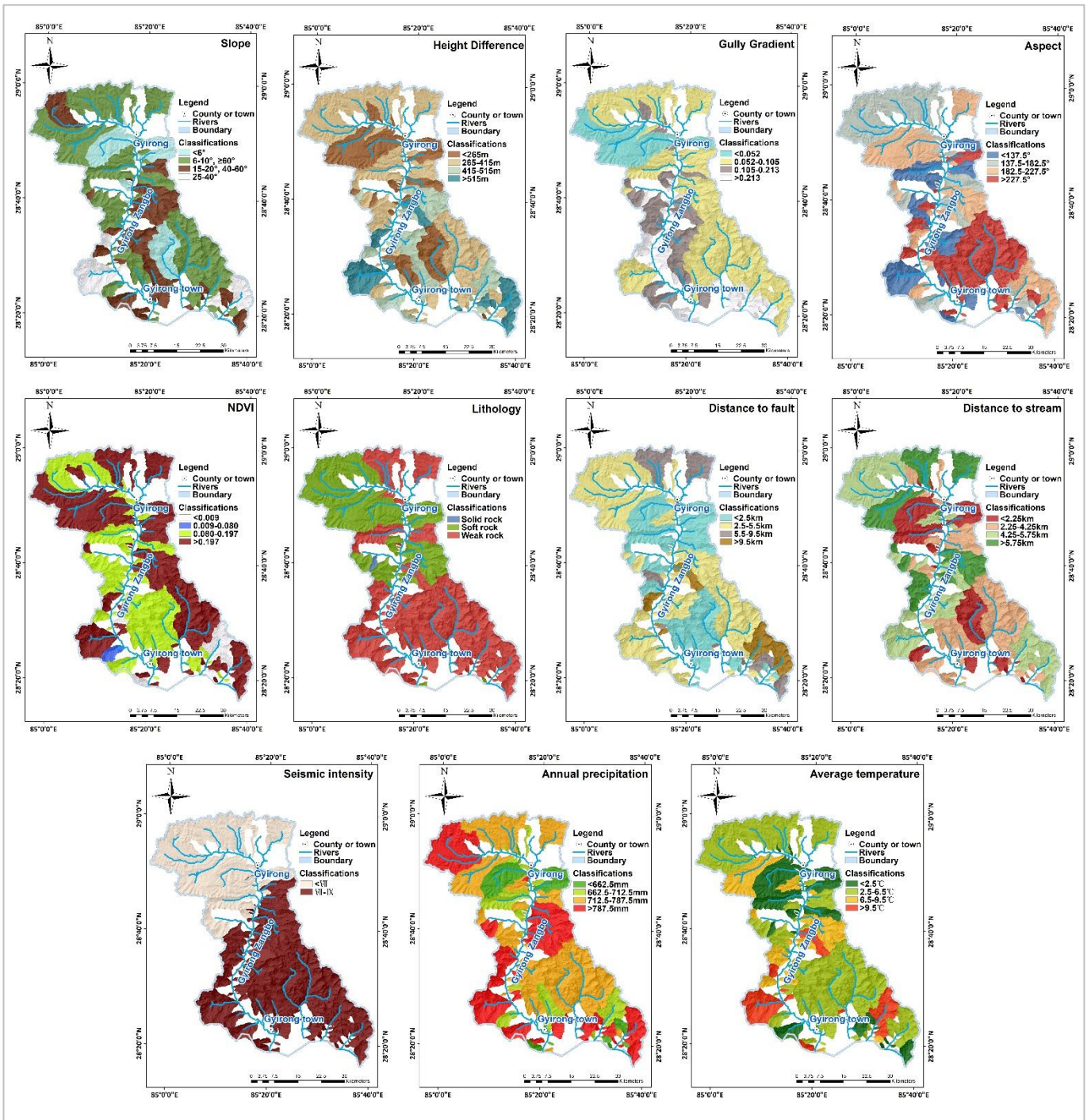


Figure 4. Maps showing causative factors in this study area with GIS

Slope gradient impact where the loose materials are going to settle and accumulate. A gully with steep slope could cause serious gravity erosion and increase soil erosion intensity due to the high flow kinetic energy. Height difference determines the potential energy of debris flow with the coupled effect of gully gradient. The south part of this area showed higher HD values than the



206 north part based on Fig. 4, in which the catchment with highest HD was located in the  
207 southwestern part of this area, reaching 850m, followed by 659m and 650m in the southeastern  
208 part. The fourth highest HD value was 616m, which was close to the catchment with highest value.  
209 In consistent with the distribution of height difference, the catchment in south part presented  
210 steeper channels which provide higher potential energy for debris flow and also contributed to the  
211 increasing of magnitude of debris flow (Huang et al., 2020).

212 Aspect can affect the plant development because of the distributions of sunlight on slopes. A  
213 high vegetation coverage can benefit slope stability and decrease susceptibility of debris flow.  
214 The mechanical and hydrological effects provided by the vegetation roots, not only act as anchors  
215 to enhance the shear strength of soil, but also can decrease rainfall infiltration, moisture content  
216 of soil. NDVI is thus normally used as an index to describe the vegetation density based on remote  
217 sensing images:

$$218 \quad NDVI = \frac{NIR - Red}{NIR + Red} \quad (1)$$

219 where NIR refers to the near-infrared band (0.85-0.88 $\mu$ m), and Red represents red-band (0.64-  
220 0.67 $\mu$ m). NDVI ranges from -1 to 1, in which negative value indicates the high reflective rate to  
221 visible light and positive value means the high vegetation coverage because of the high reflective  
222 to near-infrared. 0 value represents rocks or bare land.

223 Geological factors, such as lithology and distance to faults, reflect the development of  
224 geological structures, which further determines the magnitude of possible debris flow. The study  
225 area is mainly covered with weak and soft rocks, especially on the south part, which can benefit the  
226 generation of loose materials under the effects of faults movement. Based on the spatial  
227 distribution of distance to fault in Fig. 4, over 50% of catchments were distributed within a buffer

228 of 5km with respect to seismic faults, most of which were distributed in the north part. Widespread  
229 compressed and deformed rocks were observed in north part of this area because of the fault  
230 movement during the field investigations. Another geological factor, seismic intensity, is a primary  
231 hazard which can directly trigger debris flow. This study area is all under the serve impacts of  
232 earthquake, such as the Gyirong earthquake ( $M_s = 5$ ) in 2014 and Nepal earthquake ( $M_s = 8.1$ )  
233 in 2015. Distance to stream mainly focuses on the erosion of toe and riverbed since long-term  
234 fluvial erosion can cause slope instability, leading to landslide and triggering debris flow. There is  
235 no obvious spatial distribution pattern in this area when considering the factor, distance to stream.  
236 Apart from the geological factors which control the material supply of debris flow, meteorological  
237 factor, such as the annual precipitation, is the hydrodynamic condition for the formation of debris  
238 flow and also the most important triggering factor. According to the analysis result, the annual  
239 precipitation of 36% of this area was higher than 787.5mm, which was mainly distributed in the  
240 south part. The annual precipitation in 91% of area was higher than 600mm, which was the China  
241 annual precipitation value. Whilst another meteorological factor, average temperature, rises from  
242 north to south in this area with a decreasing of altitude. The lowest and the highest annual average  
243 temperatures were 0.13 °C in the north part and 12.91°C in the south part, respectively. Most  
244 importantly, the average temperature can reflect the changes of glaciers since temperature rising  
245 can promote glacier melting and therefore lead to the increasing of water flow.

#### 246 **4.5 Methodology**

247 In this paper, a hybrid machine learning model, CF-GA-SVM, was used to generate  
248 susceptibility maps to achieve timely and accurate warning of happening of glacier-related debris  
249 flow. After that, three models, LR, SVM and GA-SVM, were introduced to evaluate the

250 performance of CF-GA-SVM model based on AUC and ACC values. The basic steps for  
251 generation of susceptibility maps by using CF-GA-SVM were presented as follows:

252 (1) Data preparation

253 Firstly, eleven causative factors were decided based on satellite images and field  
254 investigations, in which topographical, ecological and geological factors were used to  
255 demonstrate the potential materials supplied by landslide within catchments and meteorological  
256 factors was considered to reflect the triggering effect of waterflow caused by rainfall and glacier  
257 melting. Then, ArcGIS was used to analyse the spatial distribution of causal factors based on  
258 DEM (resolution of 30m).

259 (2) Calculation of *CF* values

260 *CF* values can be expected to improve the uncertainty and heterogeneity of input data  
261 (Pourghasemi et al., 2012a) in step (1) in this paper because the initiation of settled and  
262 accumulated materials by waterflow and mix to form debris flow is difficult to be clearly clarified.  
263 *CF* values were introduced to simplify the theses processes and initially present sensitivity of  
264 factors on happening of debris flow. It can be used to conduct sensibility calculations of the  
265 causative factors based on the equations as follows:

$$266 \quad CF = \begin{cases} \frac{PP_a - PP_s}{PP_a(1 - PP_s)} & PP_a \geq PP_s \\ \frac{PP_a - PP_s}{PP_s(1 - PP_a)} & PP_a < PP_s \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

267 where  $PP_a$  represents the conditional probability of reclassification group  $a$  (Table 1) within a  
268 certain causative factor.  $PP_a$  can be obtained according to the ratio of number of hazards in group  
269  $a$  to total area of group  $a$  (for debris flow,  $PP_a$  represents the ratio of debris flow area in group  $a$

270 to total area of group  $a$ ).  $PP_s$  is the prior probability of the whole research region, which can be  
271 calculated based on the ratio of debris flow area to total area. The  $CF$  value varies from -1 to 1,  
272 in which  $CF > 0$  indicates the high occurring probability of debris flow, and  $CF < 0$  suggests the low  
273 occurring probability of debris flow. While the occurring probability cannot be identified if  $CF$  value  
274 is close to 0. The calculated  $CF$  values were presented in Table 1.

### 275 (3) Generation of optimal $C$ and $g$

276 The calculated  $CF$  values in step (2) was substituted into genetic algorithm (GA) to generate  
277 optimal  $C$  and  $g$ . The main steps of GA were presented as:

278 a) Generation initialization: Decide the population quantity, the number of iterations, length  
279 of chromosome, and encode the parameters of SVM.

280 b) Fitness evaluation: Define a fitness function in order to evaluate the fitness of each  
281 individual.

282 c) Selection: The best individual with highly fitness will be chosen randomly by using roulette  
283 wheel mechanism.

284 d) Crossover: This step controls the production of new generations based on a certain  
285 crossover probability.

286 e) Mutation: This process changes the genes randomly according to mutation threshold value  
287 so that the diversity of individuals could be maintained, leading to better generations.

288 f) Output: Produce new generations and calculate the optimal  $C$  and  $g$ .

### 289 (4) Model training and validation:

290 The optimal  $C$  and  $g$  in step (3) were used to generate radial basis function and then develop  
291 improved SVM model, named GA-SVM. After that, the input data ( $CF$  values in step (2)) was

292 randomly separated into training set and testing set by ratio of 7:3. The CF-GA-SVM model was  
293 further developed based on the training set, and then testing set was applied to test the prediction  
294 accuracy of this LR model. It should be noted that this is a widely used approach to evaluate the  
295 performance of model by resampling the original data when lacking independent testing dataset.  
296 Three strategies are usually and effectively used for model selection, accuracy assessment and  
297 hyperparameters tuning, including K-fold cross-validation, Monte-Carlo K-fold cross-validation  
298 and bootstrap resampling (Molinaro et al., 2005). In this paper, the training dataset was internally  
299 resampled using 10-folds cross-validations. Indeed, three purposes of 10-folds cross-validations  
300 in our studies were expected to achieve:

- 301 a) Collet effective information from the training dataset as much as possible.
- 302 b) Aoid local optimisation and overfitting.
- 303 c) Model validation, assessment and comparison.

304 Based on the purposes of this method, the basic process of K-fold cross-validation can be  
305 described as: the initial sample was firstly assigned to  $K$  partitions with equal size, in which one  
306 of the partitions was labeled as testing set and the other  $K-1$  partitions were used for model  
307 training. Each of the partitions was labeled as testing set once and the average results was  
308 exported as the final output after  $K$  times cross-validation.

#### 309 (5) Generation of susceptibility maps

310 The optimised SVM model (CF-GA-SVM) was finally used to map susceptibility along  
311 Gyirong Zangbo and divided this area into four different susceptibility levels, including very low,  
312 low, high and very high.

#### 313 (6) Model assessment

314 Three models, LR, SVM and GA-SVM, were introduced to evaluate the performance of CF-GA-  
315 SVM model in mapping susceptibility of glacier-related debris flow based on receiver operating  
316 characteristics curve (ROC) and prediction accuracy (ACC). Finally, sensitivity was conducted to  
317 decide the robustness of this model, and the weight of causative factors was also calculated to  
318 evaluate the contribution rate of each factor. Additionally, the mathematical details of SVM and  
319 LR were presented in appendix A.

## 320 **5 Result analysis**

### 321 **5.1 Glacier-related debris flow susceptibility maps**

322 The DEM with a resolution of 30m in Gyirong was adopted to produce susceptibility maps of  
323 glacier-related debris flow. The target area was divided into 164 catchments with the area ranging  
324 from 0.13 km<sup>2</sup> to 233.93 km<sup>2</sup> containing 11 causative factors. The susceptibility levels for debris  
325 flow were classified into four categories (very low, low, high and very high) in this study by using  
326 LR, GA-SVM and CF-GA-SVM machine learning models based on remote sensing and field  
327 investigation data. Table 4 presented the percentage of susceptibility levels by four models, in  
328 which the regression model of LR was showed in equation (3) and (4).

$$329 \quad P = \frac{e^z}{1+e^z} \quad (3)$$

$$330 \quad Z = 0.155 - 2.230I_{SI} + 2.244I_{HD} - 3.222I_J - 2.682I_{As} + 1.777I_{NDVI} + 9.942I_{Li} - 0.731I_F - 2.612I_{St} +$$
$$331 \quad 7.239I_{Ear} - 1.539I_{Pre} + 2.163I_{Temp}$$

332 (4)

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334

335

Table 4. Percentage of susceptibility levels by four models

Models	LR	SVM	GA-SVM	CF-GA-SVM
Very low	30.5%	31.7%	33.5%	36.0%
Low	15.9%	14.0%	10.4%	3.1%
High	23.8%	12.8%	38.4%	19.5%
Very high	29.9%	41.5%	17.7%	41.5%

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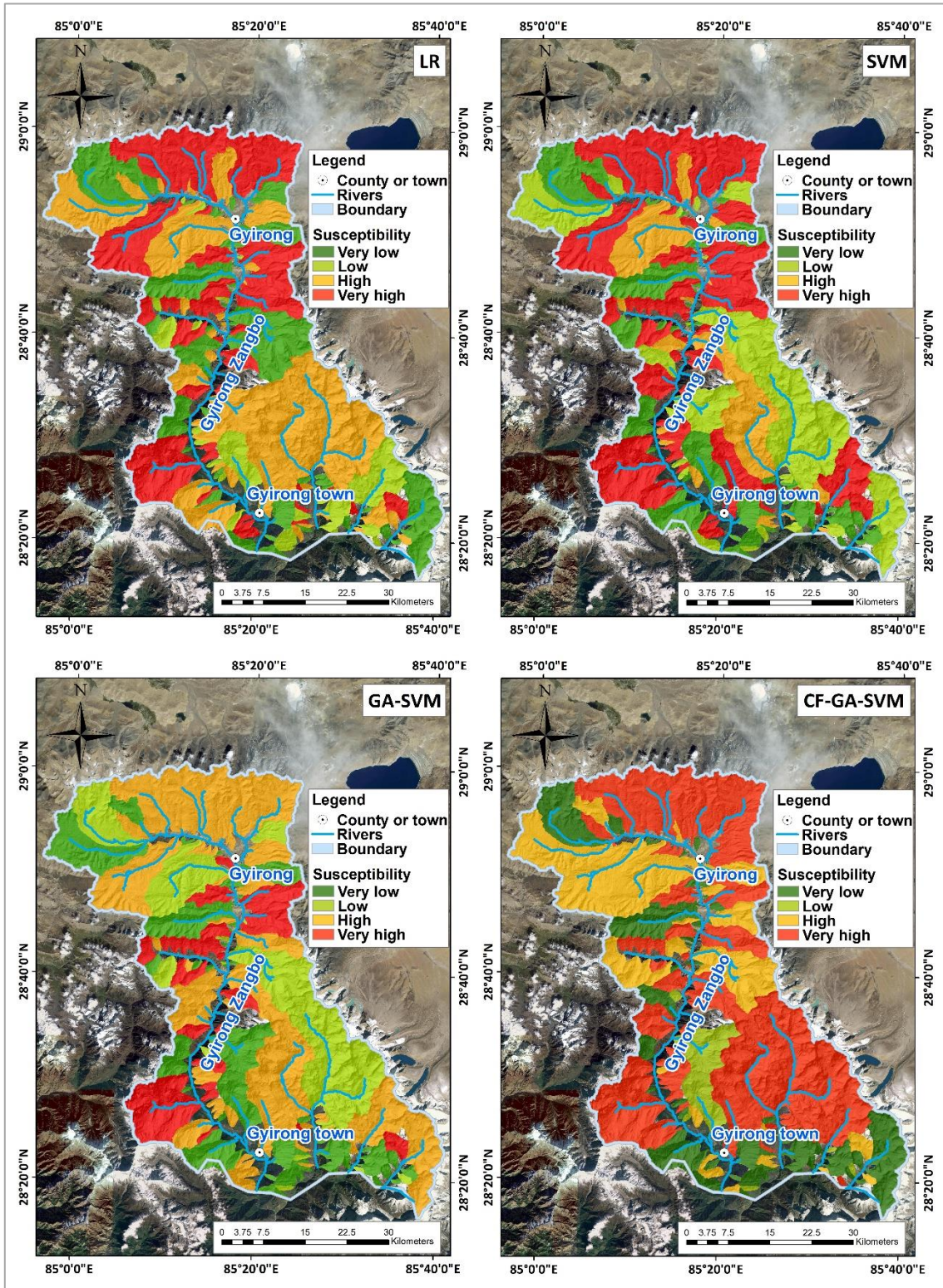
The predicted probability of LR in Table 4 ranged from 0.03481 to 0.99989, in which 0.0348 indicated the very low probability and 0.9998 meant the very high probability. Susceptibility levels were reclassified into four categories based on natural break point method which is based on clustering analysis. The results in Table 4 indicated that more than half of the study areas were on high susceptibility level, in which the extreme high level regions were mostly distributed in north part with a relatively gentle topographic fluctuation and small annual precipitation (Fig. 4). While the impacts of glaciers on happening of debris flow were not reflected by LR-generated susceptibility map. The susceptibility of SVM ranged from 0.08332 to 0.96, in which 0.08332 - 0.29426 belonged to very low level. The high susceptibility, ranging from 0.81332 to 0.96, showed same ratio with that of CF-GA-SVM, in which the ratio of very high susceptibility increased in the south part when compared with the LR-generated map due to the well-developed glaciers and sharp topographic fluctuation. Furthermore, the ratio of high and very high levels in the susceptibility map generated by GA-SVM increased when compared with LR and SVM. This was mostly due to the optimal  $C$  and  $g$  which improved the training model. The evolutive hyper parameters of GA-SVM and CF-GA-SVM were presented in Table 5..

Table 5. Parameters for SVM models

Models	Penalty factor ( $C$ )	Gamma ( $G$ )	Kernel function	Decision-function
SVM	Default	Default	rbf	ovr
GA-SVM	46.0423	2.3838	rbf	ovr
CF-GA-SVM	2.3667	4.0839	rbf	ovr



352 At last, the susceptibility of CF-GA-SVM ranged from 0.15603 to 0.87755, in which values  
353 between 0.4623 to 0.75274 belonged to high susceptibility and values between 0.74274 to  
354 0.87755 were decided at a very high level. The results showed that the susceptibility level in large  
355 catchments (>100km<sup>2</sup>) were generally high and very high, especially the large catchments in the  
356 south part, which might be due to the existence of glaciers and abundant rainfall (Fig.4). Therefore,  
357 the glacier-related debris flow in this area is the main type which caused severe damage to  
358 infrastructures and casualties. To make things even worse that the rising temperature will further  
359 stimulate glacier degradation and generate much more loose materials for potential glacier-  
360 related debris flow. To be more specific, the endlessly glacier melting flow as well as rainfall would  
361 constantly cause lateral erosion of gully, leading to slope instability and deposit settlement in the  
362 gully. The catchments in the north part that are highly prone to debris flow are mostly due to the  
363 crushed rocks (See Fig.1), snow melting (High altitude, see Fig.1) and rainfall (See Fig.4). faults  
364 movement (one main fault and eight secondary faults were identified in this area) caused  
365 compressional deformation of rocks, which destroyed the stability of the rock structure and thus  
366 generated large amounts of loose materials from both sides of gully (Tiranti et al., 2016). The  
367 developed gully under the effect of water erosion can contain much more materials and lay hidden  
368 risk for large-scale glacier-related debris flow. As a result, glacier-related debris flow will occur  
369 when the settled rocks and materials are initiated under the effect of water flow, sweeping the  
370 plants away and destroying farmland. Therefore, the glacier-related debris flow can not only cause  
371 losses of properties and human lives, but also destroy the original ecological environment.



372

373

Figure 5. Glacier-related debris flow susceptibility maps produced by four models

374

## 5.2 Model assessment

375 (1) Prediction accuracy

376 The accuracy of the classification of the classifiers and the prediction accuracy were  
377 presented in Table 6. The CF-GA-SVM model showed the highest AUC value, reaching to 0.945.  
378 And the AUC of GA-SVM was lower than CF-GA-SVM, which was 0.888. SVM represented the  
379 third highest AUC value, 0.856, which was higher than that of LR method, 0.776. In addition, the  
380 CF-GA-SVM method showed the highest prediction accuracy, which was mainly due to the  
381 application of CF values and therefore avoid noise data. The integration of certainty factors with  
382 GA-SVM not only can enhance sensibility of causative factors, but also benefit the analysis of  
383 susceptibility but with a longer duration. SVM performed better than LR since SVM was more  
384 suitable for analysis of small set of samples (Huang et al., 2018), but LR method could not provide  
385 a comprehensive interpretation for environmental factors, especially for the important area with  
386 limited catchments division. GA-SVM with optimal parameters *C* and gamma showed higher  
387 precision than SVM. This was because appropriate penalty factor *C* and gamma could optimise  
388 fitting model to avoid over-fitting so that the generalization ability of model can be further  
389 strengthened.

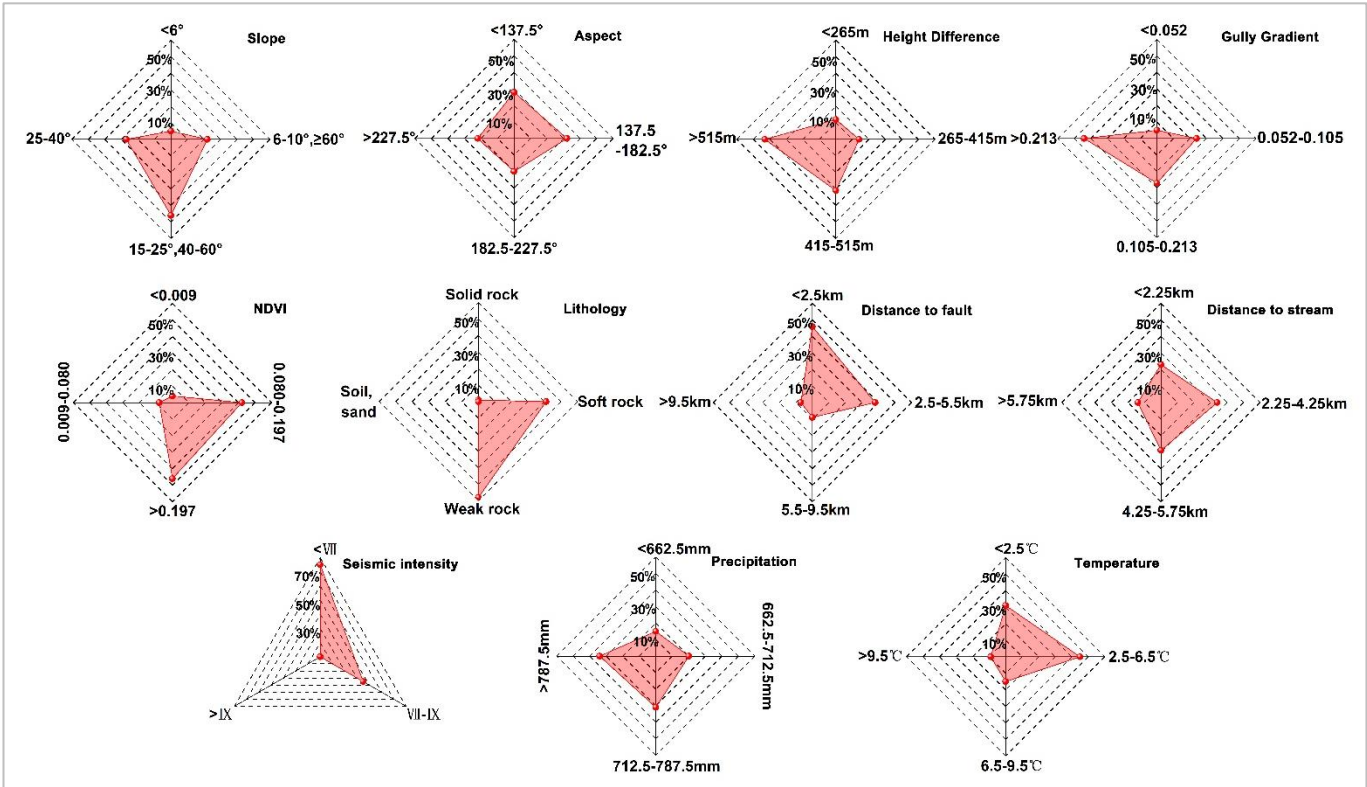
390 Table 6. Obtained AUC and ACC values for four models

Models	AUC	ACC	Time duration / s
LR	0.776	0.733	3.68
SVM	0.856	0.750	2.78
GA-SVM	0.888	0.766	8.12
CF-GA-SVM	0.945	0.800	8.25

391 As indicated in Table 6 that CF-GA-SVM model performed best in model fitting and  
392 susceptibility prediction. More than half of the areas in this region were under high risk to glacier-  
393 related debris flow, reaching to 61%. Therefore, further distribution analysis of predicted debris



394 flow by using CF-GA-SVM was conducted to depict the various state that causative factors might  
 395 be in through the presentation of radar maps in Fig. 6.



396

397

Figure 6. Distribution of debris flow in different classes of factors

398 From the maps in Fig. 6, we can observe the distribution characteristics of glacier-related  
 399 debris flow in this area. Firstly, the catchments prone to glacier-related debris flow were mainly  
 400 distributed in the areas with slopes ranging from 6 to 10° and 15 to 25°, which indicated that gentle  
 401 slopes can contribute to the settlement and accumulation of loose materials as material source  
 402 for glacier-related debris flow. These materials will be initiated under the stimulation of high-  
 403 intense short-term rainfalls or long-term moderate rainfalls. Aspect indicated that approximately  
 404 32% of high risk areas were distributed at the aspect of South and Southwest, which was,  
 405  $137.5^\circ < As < 182.5^\circ$ . The other two topographic factors, *HD* and *J*, served as the indicators to  
 406 reflect the potential power of debris flow through estimation of glacier-related debris flow volume

407 and peak discharge. 43% of catchments that were distributed in areas with  $HD > 515\text{m}$  and  
408  $J > 0.213$  were at a high risk to glacier-related debris flow. In addition to the topographic factors,  
409 the only ecological factor,  $NDVI$ , showed that glacier-related debris flow was mostly distributed in  
410 areas with better vegetation coverages. This is due to the special geographic condition in  
411 Himalaya mountains mentioned in the introduction section. For the geological factors, the high  
412 susceptibility areas to glacier-related debris flow were mainly distributed in the weak rock areas,  
413 which might be caused by the impacts from the faults and earthquakes. The exposed rocks during  
414 our investigations were observed to present severe deformation in this area due to the fault  
415 movements and seismic shaking in the past and therefore caused a large quantity of broken rocks  
416 on both sides of the roads along Gyirong Zangbo. The last geological factor,  $St$ , illustrated that  
417 the mean distance to Gyirong Zangbo for 57% of high risk areas was involved in the buffer zone  
418 with a radius of 4.25km. Finally, the two meteorological factors,  $Pre$  and  $Temp$ , serving as the  
419 excitation conditions, showed that 34% of high risk areas were identified with  $Pre > 787.5\text{mm}$ ,  
420 and 45% of debris flow-prone areas with a temperature ranging from 2.5-6.5°C.

## 421 (2) Sensitivity

422 Based on the results in Table 5, the CF-GA-SVM model performed better than the other three  
423 models in model fitting and prediction accuracy. Therefore, further investigations were conducted  
424 here to investigate the robustness of the optimised SVM model. One factor was excluded from  
425 model development at a time. AUC and ACC (Table 7) were then calculated to conduct sensitivity  
426 analysis. The analysis results showed that all of the selected factors posed positive impacts in  
427 model fitting since there was no AUC value larger than 0.945 in Table 7. Whilst the factor,  
428 Precipitation, representing the lowest AUC value can indicate its importance in generating

429 appropriate CF-GA-SVM model. In accordance with the ACC value that precipitation also  
 430 presented a low value. The northward warm air from Indian Ocean reaches Gyirong area but is  
 431 blocked by Himalaya mountains with the mountain peaks almost into the cloud. As a result, a lot  
 432 of rainfalls pour in this area, although benefited the plant growth, triggered frequent debris flow,  
 433 especially in the north part of this study area. In conclusion, the produced CF-GA-SVM model can  
 434 adapt to a wide range of selected factors with a strong robustness performance.

435 Table 7. AUC and ACC values of model without excluded factors

Excluded factors	AUC	ACC
Annual precipitation	0.871	0.750
Aspect	0.908	0.733
Distance to Stream	0.910	0.766
NDVI	0.917	0.750
Slope	0.917	0.766
Height Difference	0.927	0.783
Gully Gradient	0.932	0.733
Distance to Fault	0.934	0.733
Seismic Intensity	0.940	0.775
Lithology	0.940	0.717
Average annual temperature	0.941	0.766
Pre + Temperature	0.917	0.700
No factor excluded	0.945	0.800

### 436 5.3 Weight of factors

437 Sensitivity analysis can reflect the robustness of the model and describe the importance of  
 438 selected factors that influence the model fitting and the prediction accuracies on different levels.  
 439 However, detailed weight of each factor in this model should be further investigated through  
 440 factors analysis for further model optimisation. Table 8 presented the weight of all the factors. It  
 441 can be seen that gully gradient ranked the first place with biggest weight value, followed by  
 442 distance to stream. The values of these two factors were all larger than 0.1, which indicated the

443 importance of gully gradient and distance to stream in the generation of susceptibility maps. Next  
 444 to the gully gradient and distance to stream, the other four factors, geology-related factor, distance  
 445 to fault, edaphic-related factors, aspect and *NDVI*, weather-related factor, average annual  
 446 temperature, also presented high weight values, ranging from 0.0917079 to 0.0983527. This was  
 447 consistent with the weight ranking of factors in (Zhang et al., 2019) in which aspect, *NDVI*  
 448 occupied high importance places among the 15 causative factors. Finally, the rest factors,  
 449 precipitation, slope, seismic intensity, lithology and height difference showed relatively low weight  
 450 values, in which the calculated weight of precipitation did not achieve the expected rank. This  
 451 might be due to the coupled effect of the glacier melting and rainfall in this area that triggered  
 452 debris flow, underplaying the weight of precipitation. Therefore, studies of debris flow in this area  
 453 should be further divided into rainfall-triggered and glacier-related debris flow in future studies to  
 454 better reflect the triggering conditions.

455 Table 8. Weight of the causative factors

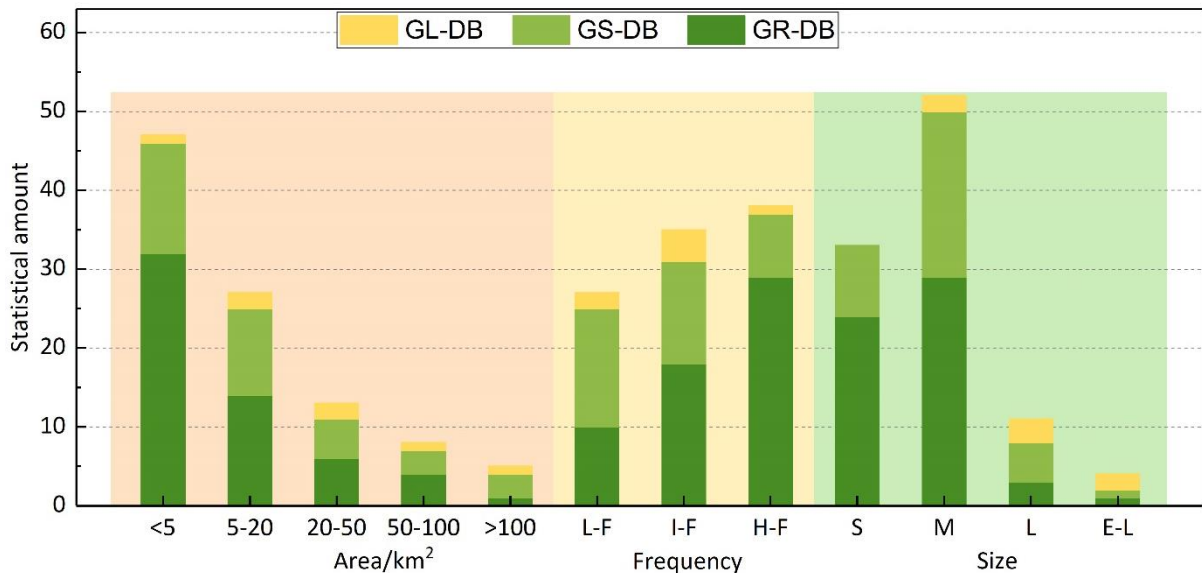
Factors	Weight	Ranking
Distance to Stream	0.1001002	2
Slope	0.0882511	8
Temperature	0.0917079	6
Distance to Fault	0.0983527	3
Precipitation	0.0877273	7
Seismic Intensity	0.0854788	9
Aspect	0.0967044	4
Groove Gradient	0.1005165	1
Lithology	0.0821672	10
<i>NDVI</i>	0.0930783	5
Height Difference	0.0759155	11

## 456 6 Discussion

457 The studies in this paper mapped the susceptibility of glacier-related debris flow along



458 Gyirong Zangbo river and also provided detailed analysis of the warning precision, factor  
 459 sensitivity and weight of factors to further optimised the model. The triggering conditions of  
 460 glacier-related debris flow in this study area were far more complicated than other regions (Tang  
 461 et al., 2009; Nikolopoulos et al., 2014; Marra et al., 2014; Nikolopoulos et al., 2015; Bel et la.,  
 462 2017). In order to further investigate the impacts from the complex triggering environment for  
 463 subsequent studies of risk assessment (Lugon et al., 2010), the distribution characteristics of a  
 464 total of 100 debris flow with the consideration of catchment areas, happening frequency and size  
 465 were presented in Fig. 7.



466  
 467 Figure 7. Relationships between four types of debris flow and different classifications of catchment area,  
 468 debris flow frequency and debris flow volume

469 ('GL-DB', 'GS-DB', 'GR-DB' represents 'Debris Flow induced by break of Glacial Lake', 'Glacier and Snow melting Debris Flow',  
 470 'Glacier Rainfall Debris Flow' respectively. 'L-F', 'I-F', 'H-F' represents 'Low-Frequency', 'Intermediate-Frequency' and 'High-  
 471 Frequency' respectively. 'S', 'M', 'L', 'E-L' represents 'Small', 'Medium', 'Large' and 'Extremely Large' respectively)

472 The areas of debris flow catchments were classified into five levels, <5km<sup>2</sup>, 5-20km<sup>2</sup>, 20-

473 50km<sup>2</sup>, 50-100km<sup>2</sup> and >100km<sup>2</sup>. As indicated in Fig.7, the number of GR-DB was 57, in which  
474 there were 32 of debris flows with areas smaller than 5km<sup>2</sup> and 14 of debris flows with areas  
475 ranging from 5 to 20km<sup>2</sup>. While there was only one identified debris flow with area larger than  
476 100km<sup>2</sup>. Additionally, a total of 36 debris flows were found to be triggered by the coupled effects  
477 of glacier and snow melting, in which the number of areas smaller than 5km<sup>2</sup> is 14. Whilst there  
478 were 11 of debris flow with areas ranging from 5 to 20km<sup>2</sup> and 5 of debris flow with areas ranging  
479 from 20 to 50km<sup>2</sup>. Moreover, the same number of debris flows, 3, is found in both areas larger  
480 than 100km<sup>2</sup> and areas ranging from 50 to 100km<sup>2</sup>. Finally, GL-DB presented a nearly even  
481 distribution with 1, 2, 2, 1, 1, debris flow observed in <5km<sup>2</sup>, 5-20km<sup>2</sup>, 20-50km<sup>2</sup>, 50-100km<sup>2</sup>  
482 and >100km<sup>2</sup>, respectively. Overall, 47% of debris flows were found within an area smaller than  
483 5km<sup>2</sup>, followed by areas ranging from 5 to 20 km<sup>2</sup> and 20 to 50km<sup>2</sup>, 27% and 13%, respectively.  
484 The smallest proportion belonged to areas larger than 100km<sup>2</sup>, 5%.

485 The happening frequency of debris flow in Tibet was affected by climate change, seismic  
486 activity and accumulation period of loose materials (Beniston et al., 2004; Fuhrer et al., 2006;  
487 Zhao et al., 2020). Therefore, the studies of frequency for glacier-related debris flows are essential  
488 for effective mitigation and prevention measures. Based on the investigation results relating to  
489 accumulation situations in channels and alluvial fan, three frequency levels were decided  
490 qualitatively to classify the total of 100 debris flow into L-F, I-F and H-F. As indicated in Fig. 8, L-  
491 F indicated that no obvious new material was found in the catchment mouth and the accumulation  
492 fan was covered by bryophyte. I-F indicated that there were no new debris flow materials  
493 observed in the accumulation fan and a few bryophytes can be seen in partial regions of alluvial  
494 fan. H-F indicated that obviously new materials can be found in accumulation fan.



Figure 8. Classification of frequency for happening of debris flow. (a) L-F. (b) I-F. (c) H-F.

As illustrated in Fig.7, 36% of debris flows were occurred frequently followed by I-F and L-F with 35, 27 percentage, respectively. This meant that most parts of this area were under high risk to debris flow which was also consistent with the susceptibility analysis in § 5.1. Additionally, GR-DB with H-F presented the highest ratio, 29%, followed by GR-DB with I-F, GS-DB with L-F and GS-DB with I-F, 18%, 15%, 13%, respectively. GL-DB with H-F presented the lowest one, only 1%.

Susceptibility analysis can provide warning for local resident about the potential risks for properties and their lives, and volume calculation can further benefit the decision-makers in measurements setting (Rickenmann, 1999). The volume  $Q_c$  of the identified 100 debris flow can be estimated by using following equations (5), (6), (7) (Cui et al., 2013) based on the length, width and depth of accumulation fan:

$$Q_t = 152.97Q_c^{1.266} \quad (5)$$

$$Q_c = (1 + \phi)Q_B D_U \quad (6)$$

$$\phi = (\gamma_c - \gamma_w) / (\gamma_s - \gamma_c) \quad (7)$$

where  $Q_t$  ( $m^3$ ) represents the volume of a debris flow,  $Q_c$  ( $m^3/s$ ) is the peak discharge of a debris

512 flow (Fei and Shu, 2004),  $Q_B$  represents the peak discharge of flood ( $m^3/s$ ),  $D_U$  is the blockage  
 513 coefficient,  $\gamma_c$  ( $kg/m^3$ ),  $\gamma_w$  ( $kg/m^3$ ),  $\gamma_s$  ( $kg/m^3$ ) represent the density of debris flow, water density  
 514 and solid materials density, respectively.

515 The classification principle in Table 9 for debris flow size is based on (Jakob, 2005). According  
 516 to investigation results, 4 levels were further recategorised:

517 Table 9. Size classification for debris flow

Size class	S	M	L	E-L
$Q_c$ ( $m^3$ )	$<10^4$	$10^4-10^5$	$10^5-10^6$	$>10^6$

518 The categorisation of the 100 debris flow was presented in the right part of Fig.7. 33% of  
 519 debris flow (100 in total) were S size, in which 73% was GR-DB and 27% was GS-DB. Then M  
 520 size presented the highest ratio, reaching to 52 percent. The GR-DB in this class occupied 56%,  
 521 followed by GS-DB, 40% and GL-DB, 4%. Moreover, a total of 11 and 4 were observed in the L  
 522 and E-L class, respectively. The GS-DB in the L class presented the highest one, 5 debris flows  
 523 were found. Both GR-DB and GL-DB in L class were 3.

524 Overall, the classification of glacier-related debris flow types aimed at the improvement of  
 525 recognition of debris flow in this area. The catchments with large areas which were larger than  
 526  $20km^2$  can contain larger amounts of materials (Zhang, 2016) and therefore will lead to large-  
 527 scale debris flows (Xu, 1988) in a high probability. They were mostly triggered by glacier melting  
 528 and rainfall or outburst of ice lake. The hybrid model is well applicable for GR-DB since  
 529 temperature and precipitation factors can reflect the triggering conditions and provide accurate  
 530 susceptibility evaluation.

531 However, the limitations appeared in happening warning of GL-DB because the triggering  
 532 condition of GL-DB depended on the capacity of ice lake and the shear strength of terminal

533 moraine (Allen et al., 2016). Debris flow would occur when the flow accumulation exceeds the  
534 capacity of glacial lake, or the water seepage causes failure of terminal moraine. In order to  
535 achieve an accurate susceptibility warning, the geometric dimension of glacial lake needs to be  
536 considered as a causative factor. The calculations of water flow generated by glacier melting and  
537 rainfall should be conducted to estimate the possible date of peak capacity of the glacial lake  
538 based on the environmental changes. Moreover, the physical and mechanical properties of  
539 moraine around the glacial lake should be obtained to estimate the shear strength of terminal  
540 moraine. Overall, an accurate warning of debris flow caused by the outburst of glacial lake is more  
541 difficult to achieve than the rainfall-triggered debris flow and other types of glacier-related debris  
542 flow. The difficulties came from the complexity in the determinations of the controlling factors and  
543 the uncertainties in predicting the outburst of glacial lake. Temperature and precipitation are not  
544 direct controlling factors which is the limitation in the current hybrid model to conduct an accurate  
545 susceptibility analysis for catchments under the risk of outburst of glacial lake. Therefore,  
546 catchment with a glacial lake inside required additional attentions. Overall, the proposed model  
547 can achieve susceptibility warning with relatively high accuracy for debris flows triggered by  
548 glacier and snow melting and rainfall. In general, the classifications of areas, frequency and runout  
549 volume can benefit the development of prevention measurements and help to further identify the  
550 possible limitations of proposed model.

## 551 **7 Conclusion**

552 LR and SVM algorithms are widely used machine learning methods for binary classification  
553 when producing debris flow susceptibility maps. The results in this study showed that four models  
554 performed well in predicting the happening of glacier-related debris flow in Gyirong (along the

555 China-Nepal Economical Corridor) where debris flow frequently occurred. In specifically, SVM  
556 algorithm not only showed superiority in solving small samples when compared with LR method,  
557 but also provided a higher accurate prediction accuracy. In order to optimise SVM to a achieve  
558 higher prediction accuracy ( $ACC = 0.766$  for GA-SVM,  $ACC = 0.75$  for single SVM), GA-SVM  
559 model was developed with the integration of optimal parameters  $C$  and  $\gamma$  by using genetic  
560 algorithm which can benefit the model fitting ( $AUC=0.888$  for GA-SVM model,  $AUC=0.856$  for  
561 single SVM) to avoid overfitting and help to produce appropriate model with higher generalization  
562 ability. Based on the optimised GA-SVM model, further improvement was considered to integrate  
563 CF values to optimise the analysis to better reflect the susceptible of causative factors to the  
564 occurrence of glacier-related debris flow. As a result, CF-GA-SVM model showed the highest  
565 prediction accuracy ( $ACC = 0.8$ ) and best fitting curves ( $AUC = 0.945$ ) among the four models.  
566 Finally, sensitivity analysis was conducted to investigate the robustness of the CF-GA-SVM model.  
567 The results showed that the CF-GA-SVM model can achieve compatibility of various factors  
568 combination, the increasing of causal factors could improve the model fitting and prediction  
569 accuracy. Therefore, CF-GA-SVM model is suitable for generation of susceptibility maps in a  
570 areas with small samples. However, further investigations need to be conducted to test if this  
571 model is applicative in a large area.

572 Appropriate susceptibility map with high accuracy is important for debris flow mitigation. The  
573 produced susceptibility map for glacier-related debris flow in this study with the consideration of  
574 environmental changes can be an effective supplement of disaster warning for residents and also  
575 guidance for ecological remediation. Debris flow can pose direct impacts on environmental  
576 damage, disruption of water supply systems and devaluation of fisheries (Jakob et al., 2005).

577 Therefore, susceptibility warning with high accuracy is indispensable for areas where debris flow  
578 takes place frequently. The proposed machine learning model can adapt to the real-time changes  
579 of meteorologic factors and achieve accurate disaster warning. Nevertheless, attentions still need  
580 to be paid when applying this model for mapping susceptibility because performance may vary in  
581 different study regions. Overall, the study area in this paper is a significant component of China-  
582 Panel Economical Corridor, which plays an important role in connecting trade between China and  
583 Nepal, and even to other South Asian Countries. The presented results can provide scientific  
584 support to the local government to reduce losses of human lives and properties.

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# Appendix A

## 1. Mathematical details of SVM

Support Vector Machine is a supervised and popular classification algorithm in recent years when mapping hazard susceptibility. The main purpose of SVM is to find hyperplane of linearly distributed vectors and separate them into two sets with a maximum gap. For nonlinear distributed vectors, kernel functions will be used to convert them into higher feature space to achieve linearly separability (Melgani et al., 2004; Xu et al., 2012). Therefore, SVM was applied to generate susceptibility map without optimisation of hyper parameters,  $C$  and  $\gamma$ . The vectors that are closest to the hyperplane are called support vectors. The optimal hyperplane can be decided based on the following convex quadratic equations for linearly separable vectors (Zhou, 2016):

$$\begin{cases} \min_{\omega, b} \frac{1}{2} \|\omega\|^2 \\ \text{s.t. } y_i (\omega^T x_i + b) \geq 1, i = 1, 2, \dots, m \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

where  $\omega$  represents the normal vector of hyperplane;  $b$  presents the distance between hyperplane and origin. In order to obtain the optimal solution of Eq. (4), dual problem is introduced by using Lagrangian Multiplier method:

$$\begin{cases} \max_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_i^T x_j \\ \text{s.t. } \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y_i = 0, \alpha_i \geq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

where  $\alpha_i$  is Lagrangian multiplier. If the vectors are nonlinear distributed, kernel functions should be introduced to simplify the calculation of dual problem in order to avoid complex calculations in high feature space:

849

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \max \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \kappa(x_i, x_j) \\ \text{s.t.} \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y_i = 0, \alpha_i \geq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m \end{array} \right. \quad (10)$$

850

The calculated results in original feature space can be expressed as:

851

$$f(x) = \omega^T \phi(x) + b = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y_i \kappa(x, x_i) + b$$

852

$$(11)$$

853

where  $\kappa(x, x_i)$  is the kernel function,  $m$  is the number of causative factors.

854

## 2. Introduction of LR

855

Logistic regression is a multivariate analysis model (Lee et al., 2006) which predicts the

856

absence or presence for an event through the input of a series of variables. Therefore, it has been

857

extensively used for debris flow susceptibility assessment (Elkadiri et al., 2014; Heckmann et al.,

858

2014; Lombardo et al., 2015; Cama et al., 2017). LR is expressed as a linear equation:

859

$$\log(y) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_i x_i \quad (12)$$

860

where  $y$  is the dependent variable, and  $y = \frac{p}{1-p}$  Occurrence probability occurrence  $P$  can be

861

estimated as follows:

862

$$P = \frac{\exp(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_i x_i)}{1 + \exp(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_i x_i)} \quad (13)$$

863

where  $\alpha_0$  is a constant,  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3 \dots \alpha_i$  is the  $i$ th regression coefficient,  $x_i$  is the  $i$ th explanatory variable,

864

which represents causative factors. Therefore, the occurrence probability of debris flow can be

865

estimated based on this formula.