

# 1 Exploring the potential relationship between the occurrence 2 of debris flow and landslide

3 Zhu Liang<sup>1</sup>, Changming Wang<sup>1</sup>, Donghe Ma<sup>2</sup> and Kaleem Ullah Jan Khan<sup>1</sup>

4 <sup>1</sup>College of Construction Engineering, Jilin University, 130000 Changchun, People's Republic of  
5 China;

6 <sup>2</sup>China Water Northeastern Investigation, Design and Research Co.Ltd.

7 E-mail:wangcm@jlu.edu.cn

8

9 **Abstract:** The present study is to explore the potential relationship between debris flow and  
10 landslide by establishing susceptibility zoning maps (SZM) separately with the use of random  
11 forest (RF). Longzi County, located in Southeastern Tibet, was selected as the study area. The  
12 work has been carried out with the following steps: (1) An inventory map consisting of 399  
13 landslides and 49 debris flows was determined; (2) Slope units and 11 conditioning factors were  
14 prepared for the susceptibility modelling of landslide while watershed units and 12 factors for  
15 debris flow; (3) SZM were constructed for landslide and debris flow, respectively, with the use of  
16 RF; (4) The performance of two models were evaluated by 5-fold cross-validation using receiver  
17 operating characteristic (ROC), area under the curve (AUC) and statistical measures; (5) The  
18 potential relationship between landslide and debris flow was explored by the superimposition of  
19 two zoning maps; (6) Gini index was applied to determined the major factors and analyze the  
20 difference between debris flow and landslide; (7) A combined susceptibility map with two  
21 considered hazardous phenomena was obtained. Two used models had demonstrated great

22 predictive capabilities, of which accuracy and AUC was 87.33% and 85.17%, 0.902 and 0.892,  
23 respectively. Comparing the overlap of different susceptibility classes for two obtained maps, it  
24 concluded that there is no straightforward relationship between the occurrence of debris flow and  
25 landslide. Although most landslides can be converted into debris flow, the area prone to debris  
26 flow did not promote the occurrence of landslide. A susceptibility zoning map composed of two or  
27 more hazardous phenomena is comprehensive and significant in this regard, which provides  
28 valuable reference for researches of disaster-chain and engineering applications.

29 **Key words:** Landslide; Debris flow; Susceptibility; Random forest; Potential relationship

30

## 31 1. Introduction

32 Soil slide and debris flow are two kinds of natural phenomenon mainly occurring in mountainous  
33 areas, which pose considerable threats to people, industries, and the environment directly or  
34 indirectly. Generally, damages can be decreased to a certain extent by predicting the likely  
35 location of future disasters (Pradhan, 2010). Thus, extensive research has been conducted for the  
36 prediction and susceptibility assessment of landslide and debris flow.

37 In geomorphology, a “landslide” is the movement of a mass of rock, debris or earth down a  
38 slope, under the influence of gravity (Cruden and Varnes, 1996). According to different variables,  
39 landslides can be divided into different types (Varnes, 1978). Debris flow is a specific type of  
40 landslide, which can be defined as (Hungr et al. 2013): “Very rapid to extremely rapid surging  
41 flow of saturated debris in a steep channel”. Most of debris flows are runoff generated (Imaizumi  
42 et al., 2006; Ma et al., 2018; Theule et al., 2020). Generally, landslide that occur on a steep slope

43 and become disaggregated as they tumble down can transform into debris flows if they contain  
44 sufficient water for saturation (Huang et al., 2020). Debris flow usually occurs on a channel bed  
45 for the entrainment into abundant runoff of debris supplied by deep or shallow slides of slopes  
46 incised by the channel (Hurlimann et al., 2014; Imaizumi et al.2019; Zhou et al., 2019; Simoni et  
47 al., 2020). Therefore, landslides may provide sufficient material source for debris flow and most  
48 of the landslides are accompanied by debris flow (Iverson et al., 1997; Lan et al., 2004). The  
49 conditioning factors and mapping units involved in the susceptibility assessment for different  
50 kinds of landslides are not identical. In the past, some scholars made separate evaluations between  
51 landslide and debris flow (Park et al., 2011; Haydar et al., 2016). Some scholars have explored the  
52 mobilization of debris flow from landslide and the material source of the debris flow is not  
53 necessary coming from landslides (Chiang et al., 2012; Gomes et al., 2013). Besides, the  
54 formation and manifestations of landslides and debris flow are different (Varnes, 1978). In other  
55 words, there is no determined connection between debris flow and landslide. However, seldom  
56 researches have explored the potential relationship between debris flow and landslide through the  
57 separated susceptibility maps (Alessandro et al., 2015).

58 The methods used for the susceptibility assessment can be broadly classified as qualitative or  
59 quantitative (Aleotti et al., 1999). About the quantitative methods there are those physically-based  
60 (Carrara et al., 2008), those heuristic (Blais et al., 2016) and those statistically-based (Reichenbach  
61 et al., 2018). Recently new machine learning models have been used for susceptibility analysis:  
62 neural networks (Park et al.,2013), support vector machines (Colkesen et al.,2016) and random  
63 forest (RF) (Zhu et al., 2020a).

64 The present study is to explore the potential relationship between the occurrence of debris

65 flow and landslide by establishing susceptibility zoning maps separately with the use of RF. The  
66 Longzi County in Southeastern Tibet is exposed to landslide and debris flow and chosen as the  
67 study area.

## 68 **2. Materials**

### 69 **2.1 Study area**

70 The study area located in Longzi Township, Longzi County, Southeastern Tibet is bounded by  
71 longitudes of 92°15'E and 92°45'E, latitudes of 28°10'N and 28°30'N (Fig.1). It covers a surface of  
72 about 535 km<sup>2</sup> with a population of more than 6000. It belongs to a semi-arid temperate monsoon  
73 climate with the annual rainfall of 279 mm, mainly concentrated in May to September. The  
74 seismic intensity within the area has a degree of VIII on the modified Mercalli index.

75 The study area is distributed in the zone of stratigraphic division of the Northern Himalayan  
76 block. The strata is mainly composed of Mesozoic Cretaceous, Jurassic, Triassic, and Cenozoic  
77 units. Three types of lithology were mainly observed during our field investigation: Siltstone from  
78 the Laka Formation (K<sub>1</sub>l); Conglomerates from the Weimei Formation (J<sub>3</sub>w) and Quaternary slope  
79 wash (Q<sub>4</sub><sup>el+dl</sup>) from the Cenozoic strata.

80 Main disasters in the study area consist of rain-fed high frequency debris flows and landslides,  
81 which destroyed and flooded roads, bridges, farmlands, villages, etc., causing great economic  
82 losses.

### 83 **2.2 Landslide and debris flow inventory**

84 The statistically-based susceptibility models are based on an important assumption: future

85 landslides have more chances to occur again under the conditions which led to the landslides past  
86 and present (Varnes, 1984). Therefore, a complete inventory map is the key for modeling. In this  
87 study, data comes from historical records (1970~2010), field surveys from 2000~2003 (**Fig.2 and**  
88 **Fig.3**) and interpretation of Google Earth images carried out in Google Earth pro 7.1 (**Fig.4**).  
89 Finally, a total of 399 landslides and 49 debris flow locations with positive label were recorded  
90 and mapped as a point (**Fig.1**) and the same number of non-landslide points with negative were  
91 selected randomly from the landslide-free area.

## 92 **2.3 Mapping units**

93 The selection of the mapping unit is an important pre-requisite for modelling (Guzzetti, 2006a).  
94 The mapping units commonly used are grid cells (Reichenbach et al., 2018). Despite its popularity  
95 and operational advantages, grid-cells have clear drawbacks (Guzzetti et al., 1999). There is no  
96 physical relationship between a grid-cell or a group of grid-cells and slope, while slope units can  
97 make up for this deficiency (Reichenbach et al., 2018). A slope unit may correspond to an  
98 individual slope, an ensemble of adjacent slopes or a small catchment. The geometry of the debris  
99 flow is tortuous and complex, which is not suitable to represent it with a regular grid unit. In the  
100 present study, adjacent slope units were applied to the modeling. **First-order sub-catchments,**  
101 **which are also called watershed unit, were applied to the susceptibility of debris flow (Bregoli et**  
102 **al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2020b). Accordingly, the study area was divided into 1003 slope units for the**  
103 **modeling of landslide or 174 watershed units for debris flow.**

## 104 **2.4 Controlling factors and mapping**

105 The selection of evaluation parameters is another key prerequisite to ensure that the model is

106 accurate. Different researches emphasized different controlling factors but availability, reliability,  
107 and practicality of the data were first considered (van Westen et al., 2008; Ahmed et al., 2016;  
108 Braun et al., 2018). In this paper, 11 controlling factors are selected for landslide susceptibility  
109 assessment and 12 for debris flow. A brief description of each controlling factor is given below.  
110 Detailed information is shown in Fig.5a~5m.

### 111 **2.4.1 Factors used in landslide susceptibility assessment**

112 Aspect reflects sunshine duration and rainfall, which is frequently used as landslide  
113 controlling factor (Dai and Lee, 2002) and was reclassified into 8 classes (Fig. 5g). Plan curvature  
114 and profile curvature which reflect the relief of the terrain were both considered and reclassified  
115 into six classes (Fig. 5b and 5e). Generally, faults, rivers and roads play a key role in the  
116 occurrence of landslides as landslides are more likely disturbed around faults, rivers and roads  
117 (Taskin et al., 2015) which were reclassified into seven classes using an interval of 1500m (Fig.  
118 5i~k). Topographic wetness index (TWI) belong to a hydrological variable that reflects both slope  
119 and soil moisture content (Wilson and Gallant 2000) and was reclassified into five classes (Fig.  
120 5h).

### 121 **2.4.2 Factors used in debris flow susceptibility assessment**

122 Pre-even normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) reflects the vegetation conditions  
123 in the area and was reclassified into 5 classes (Fig. 6b). Drainage density is the ratio of the total  
124 drainage length to the watershed area and was reclassified into six classes (Fig.6 g). Roundness  
125 refers to the ratio of the area of a basin to the area of a circle with the same circumference and was  
126 reclassified into six classes (Fig.6 d). Melton ratio refers to the ratio of the degree of undulation in

127 the watershed to the square root of the arithmetic area of the watershed (Melton, 1965), which is  
128 reclassified into seven classes (**Fig. 6a**). Basin area and main channel length are represented by the  
129 same graph and was reclassified into four classes (**Fig.6h**). Average gradient of main channel,  
130 which is the ratio of the maximum elevation difference of main channel to its linear length, was  
131 reclassified into six classes (**Fig. 6j**).

### 132 **2.4.3 Factors used in both landslide and debris flow**

133 Rainfall is the only triggering factor to be considered for both landslide and debris flow in this  
134 paper, which was reclassified into six classes (**Fig. 5a and Fig. 6c**). Slope angle which reflects  
135 kinetic energy conditions is frequently employed in both landslide and debris flow susceptibility  
136 mapping and was reclassified into six classes (**Fig. 5f and Fig. 6i**). Maximum elevation difference  
137 also reflects the kinetic energy condition and is reclassified into 6 classes using an interval of 200m  
138 (**Fig. 5c and Fig. 6e**). Elevation affects the rainfall and vegetation (**Fig. 5d and Fig. 6f**) and was  
139 reclassified into five classes in the study (Pourghasemi et al. 2013a, b).

140 The values of controlling factors were classified by processing the raw data in the ArcGIS  
141 10.2 platform. Morphological and topographic related factors were derived from the DEM with a  
142 resolution of  $30 \times 30$  m (<http://www.gscloud.cn>). Geological related factors were extracted from  
143 1:50000 geological maps (<http://www.ngac.org.cn/>). Rainfall is one of the most important external  
144 factors inducing landslides and debris flow, which was determined by ordinary kriging  
145 interpolation in ArcGIS based on 11 precipitation stations data near the study area collected from  
146 the China Meteorological Administration. Roads networks are provided by Landsat 8 LOI images  
147 (2018.8.12).

## 148 **3. Methods**

### 149 **3.1 Sampling strategy and performance assessment**

150 Statistical models for landslide susceptibility zoning reconstruct the relationships between  
151 dependent and independent variables using training data set, and verify these relationships using  
152 validation sets (Guzzetti et al., 2006b), which usually implies the partitioning of the inventory in  
153 subsets. The sampling strategy affects the results of the susceptibility map (Yilmaz, 2010). The  
154 partition of landslide inventory is approached based on temporal, spatial or random criteria,  
155 (Chung and Fabbri, 2003) and among them that of one time random selection is the most used.  
156 However, there is a need for a more reliable estimation of the model performance. The ability of  
157 the models to classify independent test data was elaborated using a 5-fold cross validation  
158 procedure (James et al., 2013).

159 The value of AUC is the most popular metrics to estimate the quality of model, which has  
160 been applied for ROC curves (Green and Swets, 1966). Three extra statistical metrics as accuracy,  
161 sensitivity, and specificity are combined to assess the performance of models (Tien Bui et al.  
162 2016).

$$163 \quad Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

$$164 \quad Sensitivity = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$$Specificity = \frac{TN}{FP + TN}$$

165 (1)

166 where True Positives ( $TP$ ), i.e., cells predicted unstable and observed unstable, True Negatives  
167 ( $TN$ ), i.e., cells predicted stable and observed stable, False Positives ( $FP$ ), i.e., cells predicted



168 unstable but observed stable and False Negatives (*FN*), i.e., cells predicted stable but observed  
169 unstable.

## 170 **3.2 Random Forests**

171 RF is a powerful ensemble-learning method and was first introduced by Breiman (2001). Bagging  
172 technique is applied to select random samples of variables and observations as the training data set  
173 at each node of the tree for the modeling of RF. Unselected cases (out of bag) are used to calculate  
174 the error of the model (OOB Error). The increase in OOB error is proportional to the importance  
175 of the predictive variable (Breiman and Cutler 2004). There are no restrictions on the types of  
176 variables, either numerical or categorical. RF has the ability to reduce errors caused by unbalanced  
177 data, which is suitable for susceptibility assessment.

178 The number of trees and the number of predictive variables used to split the nodes are two  
179 user-defined parameters (Ahmed et al.,2016). Cross-Validation were applied to optimized the  
180 hyper-parameters before application (Schratz et al., 2019). Scikit-learn package (Pedregosa et al.,  
181 2011) in the programming software python version 3.7 was used for the modeling. Gini index (the  
182 larger the value of the obtained result, the greater the contribution to the occurrence of landslide)  
183 (Breiman, 2001) was applied to analyze the relative importance of conditioning factors.

## 184 **4. Results and verification**

### 185 **4.1 Landslide susceptibility mapping results**

186 The predictive accuracy, ROC curves and AUC values of the RF models using training data set  
187 were showed in **Table 1** and **Fig. 7**. The RF model ensured a satisfactory performance for

188 classifying landslides with a sensitivity value of 91.62%. In terms of the classification of  
189 non-landslides zones, specificity value also reached 89.06%. An AUC value ranges from 0.5 to 1  
190 and equals to 1 indicates perfect prediction accuracy (Vorpahl et al., 2012). The RF model had  
191 great performance in terms of AUC, with a value of 0.976. Standard error (St.), confidence  
192 interval (CI) at 95% and significance (Sig.) were applied as three evaluation statistics. All these  
193 results indicated that the models achieved a reasonable goodness-of-fit, for which the values were  
194 reasonably small.

195 Verifying the generalization ability of the model is a key step in prediction models as shown  
196 in **Table 2** and **Fig. 7**. Accordingly, the values of sensitivity and specificity were 88.69% and  
197 86.05%, respectively. The model also achieved a great performance in terms of AUC with a value  
198 of 0.902. In comparison with the training dataset, the accuracy and AUC values have slightly  
199 decreased, but still perform well.

200 The landslide susceptibility map was reclassified into five classes: very low (0~0.2), low  
201 (0.2~0.4), moderate (0.4~0.6), high (0.6~0.8), very high (0.8~1) by using the equal spacing  
202 method (**Fig.8**). The map should satisfy two spatial effective rules: (1) The existing disaster points  
203 should belong to the high-susceptibility class and (2) The high-susceptibility class should cover  
204 only small areas (Bui et al. 2012). The number of units belonging to very high class accounted for  
205 17% of the total number of units (**Fig.9**). Disaster points were mostly in the dark (red or orange)  
206 areas. The units belonging to moderate class accounted for the smallest proportion, at 13% of the  
207 total number of units (**Fig.9**).

208 The controlling factors with significant effects were selected and normalized as shown in  
209 **Table 3**. The weight values of slope angle, distance to fault, plan curvature and topographic wetness

210 index were 0.21, 0.19, 0.17, 0.13 respectively, which was closely related to the occurrence of  
211 landslide. The weight values of distance to road, maximum elevation difference, profile curvature  
212 and elevation are less than 0.1 as 0.08, 0.08, 0.06, and 0.05, respectively (**Fig.10**).

## 213 **4.2 Debris flow susceptibility mapping result**

214 The debris flow susceptibility model perform well with a very high sensitivity and specificity  
215 values as 87.80% and 88.89%, respectively. In terms of accuracy and AUC, the model had also a  
216 great prediction performance with the value of 88.57% and 0.967 (**Fig.7**). Three evaluation  
217 statistics also indicate a reasonable goodness-of-fit for the model.

218 **Table 2** shows that the values of sensitivity and specificity were 85.71% and 84.62%, which  
219 were slightly decreased compared to the training model. However, the model had achieved a great  
220 performance in terms of AUC, with value of 0.892.

221 The number of units belonging to very high-class accounted for 15% of the total number of  
222 units while the units belonging to high-class accounted for the smallest proportion at 13%. More  
223 than half of the units (58%) belong to on a low or very low-class (**Fig.9**). Disaster points were  
224 mostly in the dark (Bright or deep red) areas (**Fig.8**).

225 The weight values of main channel length, roundness and slope angle were 0.25, 0.16, 0.14  
226 respectively and these factors have significant influence on the occurrence of debris flow (**Table**  
227 **4**). The weight values of elevation, maximum elevation difference, **melton ratio** and basin area are  
228 close to 0.1, which are 0.13, 0.12, 0.1, and 0.1 respectively (**Fig.10**).

### 229 **4.3 Analysis and comparison of landslide and debris flow** 230 **susceptibility**

231 It is worth comparing the two susceptibility zoning maps. In terms of prediction accuracy, the  
232 values of sensitivity, specificity and AUC of landslide model were slightly higher than that of  
233 debris flow. However, both models achieved high predictive performance. Therefore, the landslide  
234 and debris flow susceptibility assessment models based on RF are reliable. The purpose of the  
235 present study is to explore the potential relationship between landslides and debris flows by  
236 establishing the respective susceptibility zoning maps. Figure 11 shows the overlapping areas  
237 between debris flow and landslide in high or very high-class of susceptibility zoning map. It can  
238 be seen that most of the areas with high or very high-class in the map of debris flow are covered  
239 with landslides. However, there are also non-overlapping areas between the two zoning maps.  
240 There are 23 watershed units belonging to high-class in the debris flow susceptibility zoning map  
241 (**Fig.8**), of which 17 units correspond to high or very high-class slope units in the landslide zoning  
242 map (**Table 5**). In addition, there are 4 watershed units covered with low or very low class slope  
243 units. In the same way, 19 watershed units belonging to very high-class are covered with high or  
244 very high-class slope units and 4 watershed units with low or very low-class slope units. In other  
245 words, more than 70% of the high or very high-class watershed units are covered with high or  
246 very high-class slope units. However, there are still 30% of watershed units with high or very  
247 high-class without the distribution of slope units in corresponding grades. It validated the previous  
248 view that most of landslides can be transformed into debris flows.

249 Factor analysis which is a tool for dimensionality reduction and exploring the major factors  
250 was applied to further analyze the reasons for the difference (Zhu et al., 2020a). 36 watershed

251 units with distribution of high or very high-grade slope units were taken as model 1 and the left 8  
252 watershed units as model 2 . The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) and Sig. testing are two statistical  
253 parameters which ensured the feasibility before application, which are provided by SPSS  
254 (**Statistical Product and Service Solutions**). The closer the KMO statistic is to 1, the stronger the  
255 correlation between variables and the better the effect of factor analysis. The KMO values were  
256 0.766 and 0.643 respectively, which indicated that the correlation between variables was obvious  
257 and suitable for factor analysis (**Table 6**). In model 1, the cumulative contribution rate of the first  
258 three factors (C1, C2 ,C3 ) reached to 83.6%, while the cumulative contribution rate of the first  
259 four factors (F1, F2 ,F3 and F4 ) reached to 80.5% for model 2 (**Table 7**). According to the  
260 correlation coefficient of each common factor, the first common factor mainly highlighted the  
261 information of basin area, main channel length and maximum elevation difference. Similarly, the  
262 second and the third common factor highlighted the information of slope angle and elevation and  
263 roundness, respectively. The difference between the two models (model 1 and model 2) is that the  
264 second model has the fourth common factor (**Table 8**), which emphasized the effects of rainfall  
265 and distance to the fault. The transformation from a landslide to a debris flow often occurs during  
266 heavy rainfall (Takahashi, 1978), and the landslides are the source area. But landslides are not the  
267 only source of debris flows. The loose material distributed in the basin is not necessarily caused  
268 by landslide.

269 In turn, we analyze the distribution of high or very high-class slope units in watershed units.  
270 The landslide zoning map was put at the bottom floor and the debris flow zoning map on the top  
271 floor (**Fig. 11**). There are 167 slope units belonging to high-class, of which 68 units (accounting  
272 for about 40%) are distributed in the area of high or very high-class watershed units in the debris

273 flow zoning map (**Table 9**). Besides, 69 slope units (accounting for about 41%) are distributed in  
274 the area of low or very low-class watershed units. Similarly, 53 slope units (accounting for about  
275 30%) belonging to very high-class are distributed in the area of high or very high-class watershed  
276 units and 88 slope units (accounting for about 50%) in low or very low-class slope units (**Table 9**).  
277 Comparing with the extent of the landslide affecting the debris flow, the impact of the debris flow  
278 on the landslide is not obvious. It indicated that the area prone to debris flow does not promote the  
279 occurrence of landslides.

280 Finally, we took the center of gravity of 1,003 slope units as the potential hazard points and  
281 spread them over 174 watershed units. Thus, a combining susceptibility zonation map for  
282 landslide and debris flow was obtained (**Fig.11**). The darker the color, the higher the class of  
283 susceptibility will be. It can be seen that the susceptibility in the south is generally higher than that  
284 in the north, and the area in the southwest is disaster-prone. The northeast and central locations in  
285 the area are less likely to be affected by landslides and belong to low-susceptibility areas. Green or  
286 yellow dots, which refer to slope units with very low or low- class in the landslide zoning map,  
287 mainly distributed in light-colored areas but there are also quite a few green or yellow dots  
288 distributed in dark areas, which means that the occurrence of debris flow not necessarily depend  
289 on landslides. Blue or black spots are mainly distributed in dark areas but there are also quite a  
290 few blue or black spots distributed in dark light areas, which means that landslide is not the only  
291 condition for debris flow to occur. Most of the watershed units are distributed with two or more  
292 colored dots, which means that there would be multiple slope units with different susceptibility  
293 class in the same watershed. According to the combining susceptibility zoning map of landslide  
294 and debris flow, the study area can be divided into 4 categories: **(1)** Low or very low-class

295 watershed units coupled with low or very low-class slope units; **(2)** Low or very low-class  
296 watershed units coupled with high or very high-class slope units; **(3)** High or very high-class  
297 watershed units coupled with low or very low-class slope units; **(4)** High or very high-class  
298 watershed units coupled with high or very high-class slope units. We assume that the occurrence  
299 of landslides can bring rich sources of debris flow, thereby promoting or aggravating the outbreak  
300 of debris flow, that is, forming a landslide-debris flow disaster chain. Therefore, the susceptibility  
301 assessment of the landslide-debris flow chain in the study area can be roughly divided into three  
302 classes, which are low, moderate and high (**Table 10**).

## 303 **5.Discussion**

### 304 **5.1 Method used for modeling**

305 Many researchers have used different statistically-based methods to evaluate the susceptibility of  
306 landslides or debris flows. Logistic regression and discriminant analysis are the most popular  
307 methods to use in traditional multivariate statistical analysis (Teigila, 2015; Abdelaziz et al., 2020).  
308 The performance of new learning machines, such as support vector machines and neural networks,  
309 has also been verified. RF has been little used until now for susceptibility analysis of landslide and  
310 debris flows (Chen et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017). Actually, RF have powerful data processing  
311 capabilities and can simultaneously solve problems such as high-dimensional, unbalanced and  
312 data loss, which are common in geological disaster assessment. Most importantly, RF can compare  
313 the important differences between features and have ability to reduce errors caused by unbalanced  
314 data and, which achieved strong generalization properties (Zhu et al., 2020a, c).

### 315 **5.2 Potential relationship between landslide and debris flow**

316 There is a certain similarity in the evaluation of the susceptibility of landslide and debris flow as  
317 the selection of controlling factors and the application of modeling strategies. Therefore, some  
318 researchers have neglected the difference between landslide and debris flow i.e to express two  
319 different disasters with the same susceptibility zoning map (Mariantonietta et al., 2017; Persichillo  
320 et al., 2017). However, similarity does not always mean consistency. Many researchers have  
321 previously conducted studies into the debris flow mobilization from shallow landslide using a  
322 coupled methodology (Wang et al., 2013; Fan et al., 2017). However, not every landslide evolves  
323 into a debris flow, which means that the analysis process is highly selective or uncertain. In the



324 same way, the source of the debris flow is not limited to landslide. There, the potential relationship  
325 between landslide and debris flow needs to be discussed more reasonably and effectively. In this  
326 study, the corresponding influencing factors and mapping units are selected to establish landslide  
327 and debris flow susceptibility zoning maps, respectively. The potential relationship between  
328 landslide and debris flow is explored in two ways: **1)** Superimposing the high or very high-class  
329 susceptibility areas in the two maps; **2)** Transforming the slope units into points and distributed  
330 them on the watershed units. The relationship between landslide and debris flow is illustrated by  
331 the distribution of slope units of different grades on the watershed units with different prone  
332 grades. Different kinds of landslides should be evaluated respectively conditioning that  
333 conditioning factors and scale varies.

### 334 **5.3 Necessity and feasibility of combining multiple natural** 335 **disaster susceptibility zoning maps**

336 Previous studies on susceptibility zoning mapping of disaster have agreed that one disaster  
337 corresponds to one map. However, it will cause some confusion in practical. For example,  
338 multiple disasters may be bred simultaneously in a watershed unit. For another case, the  
339 probability of one kind of disaster like debris flow in a watershed is negligible, while another  
340 disaster like rockfall occurs frequently. Therefore, we need to combine multiple zoning maps at  
341 the same time to give a comprehensive evaluation, which is arduous to achieve. On the one hand,  
342 the prediction accuracy and error of different zoning maps should be similar or even consistent.  
343 On the other hand, the dimensions of the mapping unit should be consistent or complementary.  
344 The fact that the appropriate prediction method (like RF applied in this study) and mapping units

345 applied to the two disasters makes it possible to merge the two zoning maps. Disaster risk is  
346 higher in landslide-debris flow chain, causing significant loss of life and property. Therefore, two  
347 natural disasters with potential relationship are simultaneously reflected in the same susceptibility  
348 zoning map, which can better guide the implementation of engineering, such as landslide-debris  
349 flow disaster chain.

## 350 **5. Conclusion**

351 In this study, susceptibility assessment models for landslide and debris flow are established  
352 through RF, respectively and the performance of the models are excellent in terms of accuracy and  
353 goodness of fit. The potential relationship between landslide and debris flow is discussed by the  
354 superimposition of two zoning maps and the following conclusions can be drawn:

355 (1) The landslide and debris flow susceptibility mapping based on RF models have great  
356 performance of accuracy and goodness-of-fit and have the ability to analyze the relative  
357 importance of different impact factors, which is suitable for the evaluation of natural disasters;

358 (2) There is no straightforward relationship between the occurrence of the two considered  
359 phenomena. Although most landslides will be converted into debris flow, the landslides are not  
360 necessarily the source of debris flow, and the loose sources carried by the debris flow are not  
361 necessarily brought by the landslides. On the other hand, the impact of the debris flow on the  
362 landslide is also not obvious.

363 (3) A susceptibility zoning map composed of two or more natural disasters is more comprehensive  
364 and significant, which provides valuable reference for researchers and engineering applications.

365 **Data availability.** The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the

366 article.

367 **Author contributions.** ZL was responsible for the writing and graphic production of the paper.

368 CMW was responsible for the revision of the paper. DHM was responsible for calculation. KUJK

369 was responsible for the translation.

370 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

371 **Special issue statement.** This article is part of the special issue“Resilience to risks in built

372 environments”. It is not associated with a conference.

## 373 **Acknowledgements**

374 **This work was supported by Graduate Innovation Fund of Jilin University and the National**

375 **Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 41972267, 41977221, and 41572257) .**

## 376 **References:**

377 Alessandro Trigila, Carla Iadanza, Carlo Esposito, et al. Comparison of Logistic Regression and

378 Random Forests techniques for shallow landslide susceptibility assessment in Giampileri

379 (NE Sicily, Italy). 2015, 249:119-136.

380 Ahmed Mohamed Youssef, Hamid Reza Pourghasemi, Zohre Sadat Pourtaghi, et al. Erratum to:

381 Landslide susceptibility mapping using random forest, boosted regression tree, classification

382 and regression tree, and general linear models and comparison of their performance at Wadi

383 Tayyah Basin, Asir Region, Saudi Arabia. 2016, 13(5):1315-1318.

384 Anika Braun, Elias Leonardo Garcia Urquia, Rigoberto Moncada Lopez, et al. Landslide

385 Susceptibility Mapping in Tegucigalpa, Honduras, Using Data Mining Methods. 2018.

386 Abdelaziz Merghadi, Ali P. Yunus, Jie Dou, Jim Whiteley, Binh ThaiPham, Dieu Tien Bui, Ram

387 Avtar and Boumezbeur Abderrahmane. Machine learning methods for landslide susceptibility  
388 studies: A comparative overview of algorithm performance. 2020, 207

389 Breiman, L.,2001. Random Forests. Machine learning, 45(1): 5-32. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1023/A:](https://doi.org/10.1023/A:101093340)  
390 10 1093340

391 Breiman L, Cutler A (2004) [http://www.stat.berkeley.edu/users/Breiman/RandomForests/ccpapers.](http://www.stat.berkeley.edu/users/Breiman/RandomForests/ccpapers.H-Tml)  
392 H-Tml

393 Bui DT, Pradhan B, Lofman O, Revhaug I, Dick OB (2012) Landslide susceptibility assessment in  
394 the Hoa Binh Province of Vietnam: a comparison of the Levenberg-Marquardt and Bayesian  
395 regularized neural networks. Geomorphology. doi:10.1016/j.geomorph.2012.04.023

396 Bregoli F, Medina V, Chevalier G, Hürlimann M, Bateman A. Debris-flow susceptibility  
397 assessment at regional scale: Validation on an alpine environment. Landslides.  
398 2015;12(3):437-454. doi:10.1007/s10346-014-0493-x

399 Blais-Stevens A, Behnia P (2016) Debris flow susceptibility mapping using a qualitative heuristic  
400 method and flow-R along the Yukon Alaska Highway Corridor, Canada. Nat Hazard Earth  
401 Syst Sci 16(2):449–462.

402 Chung, C.F., Fabbri, A.G., 2003. Validation of spatial prediction models for landslide hazard  
403 mapping. Nat. Hazards 30,451–472.

404 Carrara A, Crosta G, Frattini P (2008) Comparing models of debris-flow susceptibility in the  
405 alpine environment. Geomorphology 94:353-378

406 Chunxiang Wang, Hideaki Marui, Gen Furuya, et al. Two Integrated Models Simulating Dynamic  
407 Process of Landslide Using GIS. 2013.

408 Chung, C.F., Fabbri, A.G., 2003. Validation of spatial prediction models for landslide hazard

409 mapping. *Nat. Hazards* 30, 451–472.

410 Colkesen, I., Sahin, E.K., Kavzoglu, T., 2016. Susceptibility mapping of shallow landslides using  
411 kernel-based Gaussian process, support vector machines and logistic regression. *African  
412 Earth Sciences*]→*J. Afr. Earth Sci.* 118, 53–64.

413 Chen, W., Xie, X., Wang, J., Pradhan, B., Hong, H., Bui, D.T., Duan, Z. and Ma, J., 2017. A  
414 comparative study of logistic model tree, random forest, and classification and regression tree  
415 models for spatial prediction of landslide susceptibility. *Catena*, 151, pp.147-160.

416 Cruden, D.M., Varnes, D.J., 1996. Landslide types and processes. In: Turner, A.K., Schuster, R.L.  
417 (Eds.), *Landslides, Investigation and Mitigation*, Special Report 247. Transportation Research  
418 Board, Washington D.C., pp. 36–75 ISSN: 0360-859X, ISBN: 030906208X.

419 Dai, F.C., Lee, C.F., 2002. Landslide characteristics and slope instability modelling using GIS,  
420 Lantau Island, Hong Kong. *Geomorphology* 42, 213–228.

421 D. W. Park, N. V. Nikhil, S. R. Lee. Landslide and debris flow susceptibility zonation using  
422 TRIGRS for the 2011 Seoul landslide event. 2013, 13(11):2833-2849.

423 Green, D.M., Swets, J.M., 1966. *Signal Detection Theory and Psychophysics*. John Wiley and  
424 Sons, New York ISBN: 0-471-32420-5.

425 Guzzetti, F., Carrara, A., Cardinali, M., Reichenbach, P., 1999. Landslide hazard evaluation: a  
426 review of current techniques and their application in a multi-scale study, Central Italy.  
427 *Geomorphology* 31, 181–216.

428 Guzzetti, F., Galli, M., Reichenbach, P., Ardizzone, F., Cardinali, M., 2006a. Landslide hazard  
429 assessment in the Collazzone area, Umbria, central Italy. *Nat. Hazard. Earth Syst. Sci.* 6,  
430 115–131.

431 Guzzetti, F., Reichenbach, P., Ardizzone, F., Cardinali, M., Galli, M., 2006b. Estimating the  
432 quality of landslide susceptibility models. *Geomorphology* 81, 166–184.

433 Gomes, R. A. T., Guimaraes, R. F., Carvalho Júnior, O. A., Fernandes, N. F., and Amaral Jr., E. V.:  
434 Combining spatial models for shallow landslides and debris flows prediction, *Remote Sens.*,  
435 5,2219–2237, 2013

436 Hungr, O., Leroueil, S., Picarelli, L., 2013. The Varnes classification of landslide types, an update.  
437 *Landslides* 11 (2), 167–194.

438 Hurlimann M., Abanco C., Moya, J., Vilajosana I. 2013. Results and experiences gathered at the  
439 Rebaixader debris-flow monitoring site, Central Pyrenees, Spain. *Landslides*.  
440 doi:10.1007/s10346-013-0452-y 161-175

441 Huang Xiaohu, Guo Fei, Deng miaolin, Yi Wu, Huang Haifeng. 2019. Understanding the  
442 deformation mechanism and threshold reservoir level of the floating weight-reducing  
443 landslide in the Three Gorges Reservoir Area, China. *Landslides DOI*  
444 10.1007/s10346-020-01435-1.

445 Haydar Y. Hussin, Veronica Zumpano, Paola Reichenbach, et al. Different landslide sampling  
446 strategies in a grid-based bi-variate statistical susceptibility model. 2016, 253:508-523.

447 Iverson, R.M., Reid, M.E., LaHusen, R.G., 1997. Debris-flow mobilization from landslides. *Annual*  
448 *Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences* 25, 85–138.

449 Imaizumi F, Sidle RC, Tsuchiya S, Ohsaka O. 2006. Hydrogeomorphic processes in a steep debris  
450 flow initiation zone. *Geophysical Research Letters* 33: L10404.

451 James, G., Witten, D., Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., 2013. *An Introduction to Statistical Learning*.  
452 Springer, New York, p. 441.

453 Lee, S., Dan, N.T., 2005. Probabilistic landslide susceptibility mapping on the Lai Chau province  
454 of Vietnam: focus on the relationship between tectonic fractures and landslides.  
455 Environmental Geology 48, 778–787.

456 Lan HX, Zhou CH, Wang LJ, Zhang HY, Li RH (2004) Landslide hazard spatial analysis and  
457 prediction using GIS in the Xiao jiang watershed, Yunnan, China. Eng Geo 176:109–128

458 Linfeng Fan, Peter Lehmann, Brian McArdell, et al. Linking rainfall-induced landslides with  
459 debris flows runout patterns towards catchment scale hazard assessment. 2017, 280:1-15.

460 Liqiang Tong, Wensheng Qi, Guoying An, Chunling Liu. Remote sensing survey of major  
461 geological disasters in the Himalayas[J]. Journal of engineering geology, 2019, 27(03):496.

462 Melton M A. The Geomorphic and Paleoclimatic Significance of Alluvial Deposits in Southern  
463 Arizona: A Reply [J]. The Journal of Geology, 1965, 73(1): 102 – 106.

464 Mariantonietta Ciurleo, Leonardo Cascini, Michele Calvello. A comparison of statistical and  
465 deterministic methods for shallow landslide susceptibility zoning in clayey soils. 2017,  
466 223:71-81.

467 Maria Giuseppina Persichillo, Massimiliano Bordoni, Claudia Meisina, et al. Shallow landslides  
468 susceptibility assessment in different environments. 2017, 8(2):748-771.

469 Ma C., Deng J., Wang R. Analysis of the triggering conditions and erosion of a run off triggered  
470 debris flow in Mi yun County, Beijing, China. Landslide, 2018, DOI  
471 10.1007/s10346-018-1080-3

472 P. Aleotti, R. Chowdhury. Landslide hazard assessment: summary review and new perspectives.  
473 1999, 58(1):21-44.

474 Pradhan, B., 2010. Landslide susceptibility mapping of a catchment area using frequency ratio,

475 fuzzy logic and multivariate logistic regression approaches. *J. Indian Soc. Remote Sens.* 38  
476 (2), 301–320.

477 Pedregosa, F., Varoquaux, G., Gramfort, A., et al., 2011. *Scikit-Learn: Machine Learning in Python.*  
478 *Journal of machine learning research*, 12(10): 2825-2830.

479 P. Vorpahl, H. Elsenbeer, M. Märker, and B. Schröder, “How can statistical models help to  
480 determine driving factors of landslides?” *Ecol. Model.*, vol. 239, pp. 27–39, 2012

481 Pourghasemi HR, Moradi HR, Fatemi Aghda SM (2013a) Landslide susceptibility mapping by  
482 binary logistic regression, analytical hierarchy process, and statistical index models and  
483 assessment of their performances. *Nat Hazards* 69:749–779. doi:10.1007/s11069-013-0728-5

484 Pourghasemi HR, Pradhan B, Gokceoglu C, Mohammadi M, Moradi HR (2013b) Application of  
485 weights-of-evidence and certainty factor models and their comparison in landslide  
486 susceptibility mapping at Haraz watershed, Iran. *Arab J Geosci* 6(7):2351–2365.  
487 doi:10.1007/s12517-012-0532-7

488 Reichenbach, P., Rossi, M., Malamud, B.D., et al., 2018. A Review of Statistically-Based Landslide  
489 Susceptibility Models. *Earth-Science Reviews*, 180(5): 60-91.  
490 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2018.03.001>

491 Simoni A., Bernard, M., Berti M., Boreggio M., Lanzoni S., Stancanelli L., Gregoretti C (2020)  
492 Runoff-generated debris flows: observation of initiation conditions and erosion-deposition  
493 dynamics along the channel at Cancia (eastern Italian Alps). *Earth Surface Processes and  
494 Landforms* -doi:10.1002/esp.4981

495 Shou-Hao Chiang, Kang-Tsung Chang, Alessandro C. Mondini, et al. Simulation of event-based  
496 landslides and debris flows at watershed level. 2011, 138(1):306-318.



497 Takahashi, T., 1978. Mechanical characteristics of debris flow. *Journal of the Hydraulics Division*  
498 104, 1153–1169.

499 Theule, J.I., Liebault, F., Loye, A., Laigle, D., and Jaboyedoff, M., 2012. Sediment budget  
500 monitoring of debris flow and bedload transport in the Manival Torrent, SE France.

501 Teigila A, et al. Comparison of Logistic Regression and Random Forests techniques for shallow  
502 landslide susceptibility assessment in Giampileri (NE Sicily, Italy)[J]. *Geomorphology*  
503 *Science Letter*, 2015

504 Taskin Kavzoglu, Emrehan Kutlug Sahin, Ismail Colkesen, Selecting optimal conditioning factors  
505 in shallow translational landslide susceptibility mapping using genetic algorithm, *Engineering*  
506 *Geology*, Volume 192, 2015, Pages 101-112.

507 Varnes DJ (1978) Slope movement types and processes, in Schuster, R.L., and Krizek, R.J., eds.,  
508 *Landslides: Analysis and control*, National Research Council, Washington, D.C.,  
509 Transportation Research Board, National Academy Press, Special Report 176, p. 11–33

510 Varnes, D.J., IAEG Commission on Landslides and other Mass-Movements, 1984. *Landslide*  
511 *Hazard Zonation: A Review of Principles and Practice*. The UNESCO Press, Paris (63 pp).

512 van Westen CJ, Castellanos E, Kuriakose SL (2008) Spatial data for landslide susceptibility,  
513 hazard, and vulnerability assessment: an overview. *Eng Geol* 102(3–4):112–131

514 Wilson JP, Gallant JC (2000) Digital terrain analysis. In: Wilson JP, Gallant JC (eds) *Terrain*  
515 *analysis*. John Wiley & Sons, New York, pp 1–27

516 Yilmaz, I., 2010. The effect of the sampling strategies on the landslide susceptibility mapping by  
517 conditional probability and artificial neural networks. *Environ. Earth Sci.* 60,505–519.

518 Zhang, K., Wu, X., Niu, R., Yang, K. and Zhao, L., 2017. The assessment of landslide

519 susceptibility mapping using random forest and decision tree methods in the Three Gorges  
520 Reservoir area, China. *Environmental Earth Sciences*, 76(11), pp.1-20.

521 Zhou, W., Fan.J., Tang, C., Yang, G. (2019)Empirical relationships for the estimation of debris  
522 flow runout distances on depositional fans in the Wenchuan earthquake zone. *Journal of*  
523 *Hydrology*, 577, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2019.123932>

524 Zhu Liang, Changming Wang, , Zhi-Min Zhang and Kaleem-Ullah-Jan Khan. A comparison of  
525 statistical and machine learning methods for debris flow susceptibility mapping. *Stoch*  
526 *Environ Res Risk Assess* (2020a) <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00477-020-01851-8>

527 Zhu Liang, Changming Wang, Songling Han, Kaleem Ullah Jan Khan, and Yiao Liu.  
528 Classification and susceptibility assessment of debris flow based on a semi-quantitative  
529 method combination of the fuzzy C-means algorithm, factor analysis and efficacy  
530 coefficient.*Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*, 20, 1287–1304, 2020b  
531 <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-20-1287-2020>

532 Zhu Liang, Wang Changming and Kaleem-Ullah-Jan Khan. Application and comparison of  
533 different ensemble learning machines combining with a novel sampling strategy for shallow  
534 landslide susceptibility mapping. *Stoch Environ Res Risk Assess* (2020c).  
535 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00477-020-01893-y>

536 **Table 1** Models’ performance using training dataset

Metrics	Landslide	Debris flow
TP (%)	88.71	87.80
TN (%)	91.89	88.89
FP (%)	11.29	12.20

FN (%)	8.11	11.11
Sensitivity (%)	91.62	88.77
Specificity (%)	89.06	87.93
Accuracy (%)	90.65	88.57
AUC	0.976	0.967

537 **Table 2** Models' performance using verification dataset

Metrics	Landslide	Debris flow
TP (%)	85.56	85.71
TN (%)	89.09	84.62
FP (%)	14.44	14.29
FN (%)	10.91	15.38
Sensitivity (%)	88.69	84.79
Specificity (%)	86.05	85.55
Accuracy (%)	87.33	85.17
AUC	0.902	0.892

538 **Table 3** Variables importance assigned for landslide

Test group	Slope angle	Distance to fault	Plan curvature	Topographic wetness index	Distance to road	Maximum elevation difference	Profile Elevation curvature	
Landslide	0.21	0.19	0.17	0.13	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.05

539 **Table 4** Variables importance assigned for debris flow

Test group	Main channel length	Roundness	Slope angle	Elevation	Maximum elevation difference	Melton	Basin area
Debris flow	0.25	0.16	0.14	0.13	0.12	0.1	0.1

540 **Table 5** The overlap number of debris flow and landslide height and very high-class mapping units

Debris flow	Landslide			
	Very low	Low	High	Very high
High	3/23	1/23	5/23	12/23
Very high	2/26	2/26	8/26	11/26

541 **Table 6** Statistical parameters of the two models

Statistical parameters	Model	
	Model 1	Mode 2
KMO	0.766	0.643
Sig.	0.001	0.003

542 **Table 7** The correlation coefficients between common factors and primitive variables

Factor	F1	F2	F3
NDVI	0.386	-0.336	-0.621
Basin area	0.897	-0.007	0.041
Main channel length	0.984	0.046	-0.023
Slop angle	-0.223	0.829	0.455
Maximum elevation difference	0.744	0.66	0.011
Rainfall	-0.768	0.33	0.201
Average gradient of main channel	-0.753	0.544	0.106

Drainage density	-0.844	0.06	0.015
Roundness	0.331	0.14	0.818
Elevation	0.133	0.846	0.382
Distance to fault	-0.16	0.211	0.421
Melton	-0.625	0.737	0.149
Contribution rate (%)	41.2	24.7	16.7
Accumulative contribution (%)	41.2	65.9	83.6

543 **Table 8** The correlation coefficients between common factors and primitive variables

Factor	C1	C2	C3	C4
NDVI	0.042	-0.079	-0.279	-0.813
Basin area	0.802	-0.344	0.057	0.009
Main channel length	0.885	0.126	-0.196	0.227
Slop angle	0.009	0.748	0.58	-0.057
Maximum elevation difference	0.801	0.434	-0.128	0.144
Rainfall	0.197	-0.076	-0.487	0.637
Average gradient of main channel	-0.744	0.205	0.15	-0.23
Drainage density	-0.776	-0.176	-0.267	0.117
Roundness	-0.014	0.022	0.896	-0.002
Elevation	0.34	0.746	0.25	0.326
Distance to fault	0.31	0.289	-0.344	0.757
Melton	-0.182	0.932	-0.192	0.061

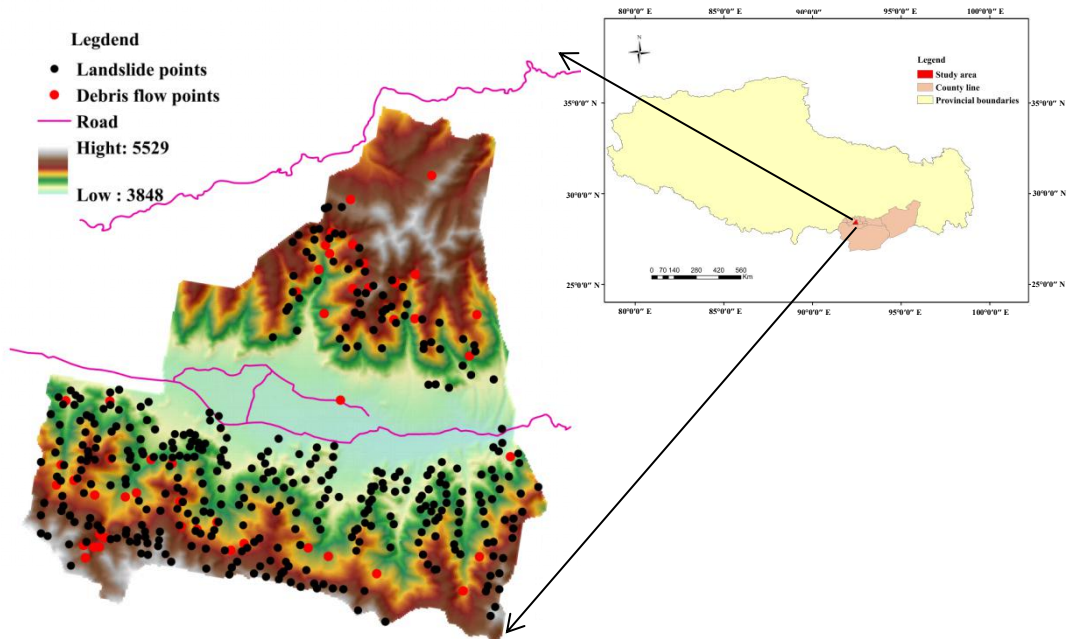
Contribution rate (%)	29.2	20.3	15.2	15.8
Accumulative contribution (%)	29.2	49.5	64.7	80.5

544 **Table 9** The overlap number of landslide and debris flow height and very-high class mapping units

Landslide	Debris flow	Very low	Low	High	Very high
	High	36/167	33/167	25/167	43/167
	Very high	48/179	40/179	25/179	28/179

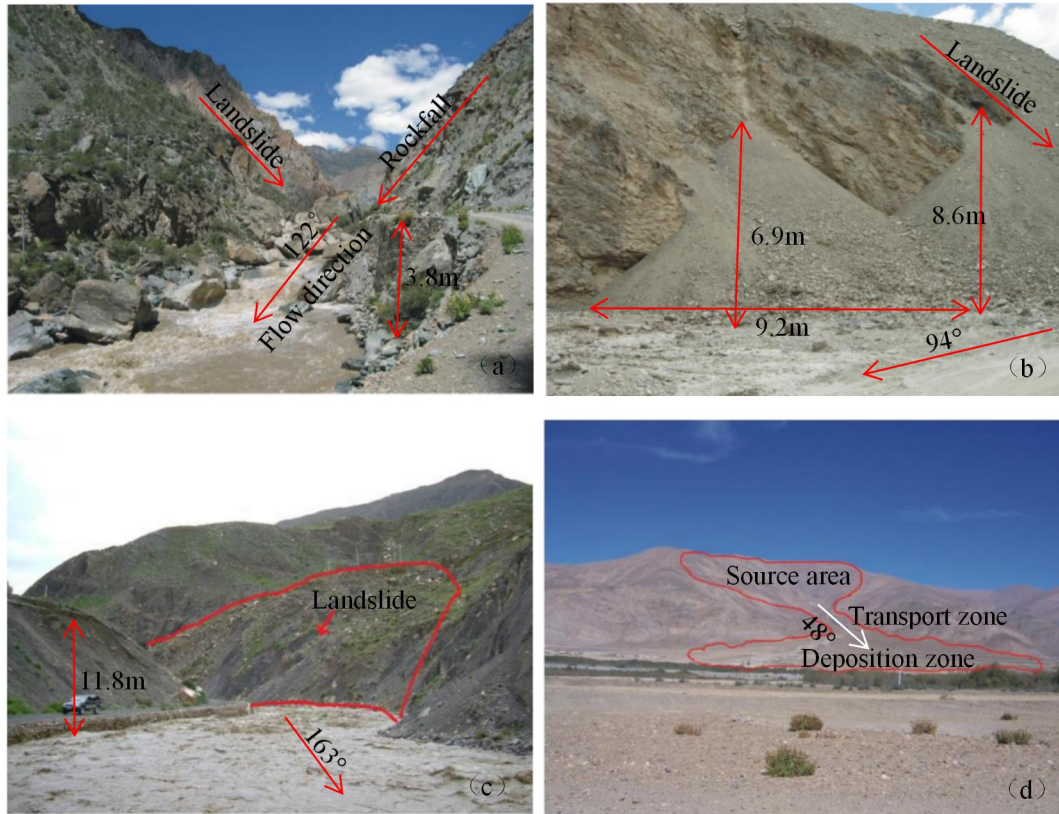
545 **Table 10** Comprehensive evaluation of landslide-debris flow susceptibility

Landslide	Debris flow	Low or Very low	High or Very high
	Low or Very low	Low	Moderate
	High or Very high	Moderate	High



546

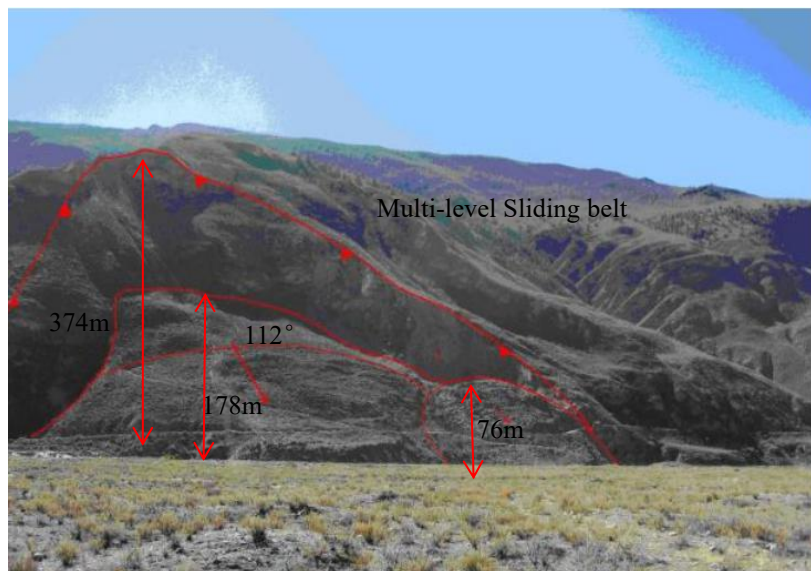
547 **Fig.1.** Location map of the study area showing landslide and debris flow inventory.



548

549

550 **Fig.2.** Photos of landslide or debris flow: **(a)** Lunba landslide in a tributary; **(b)** Zhenqiong landslide in  
 551 Jiayu village; **(c)** Debris flow in Misha Township; **(d)** Debris flow in Lelong Village.



552

553 **Fig.3.** Multistage landslide in Xiongqu village

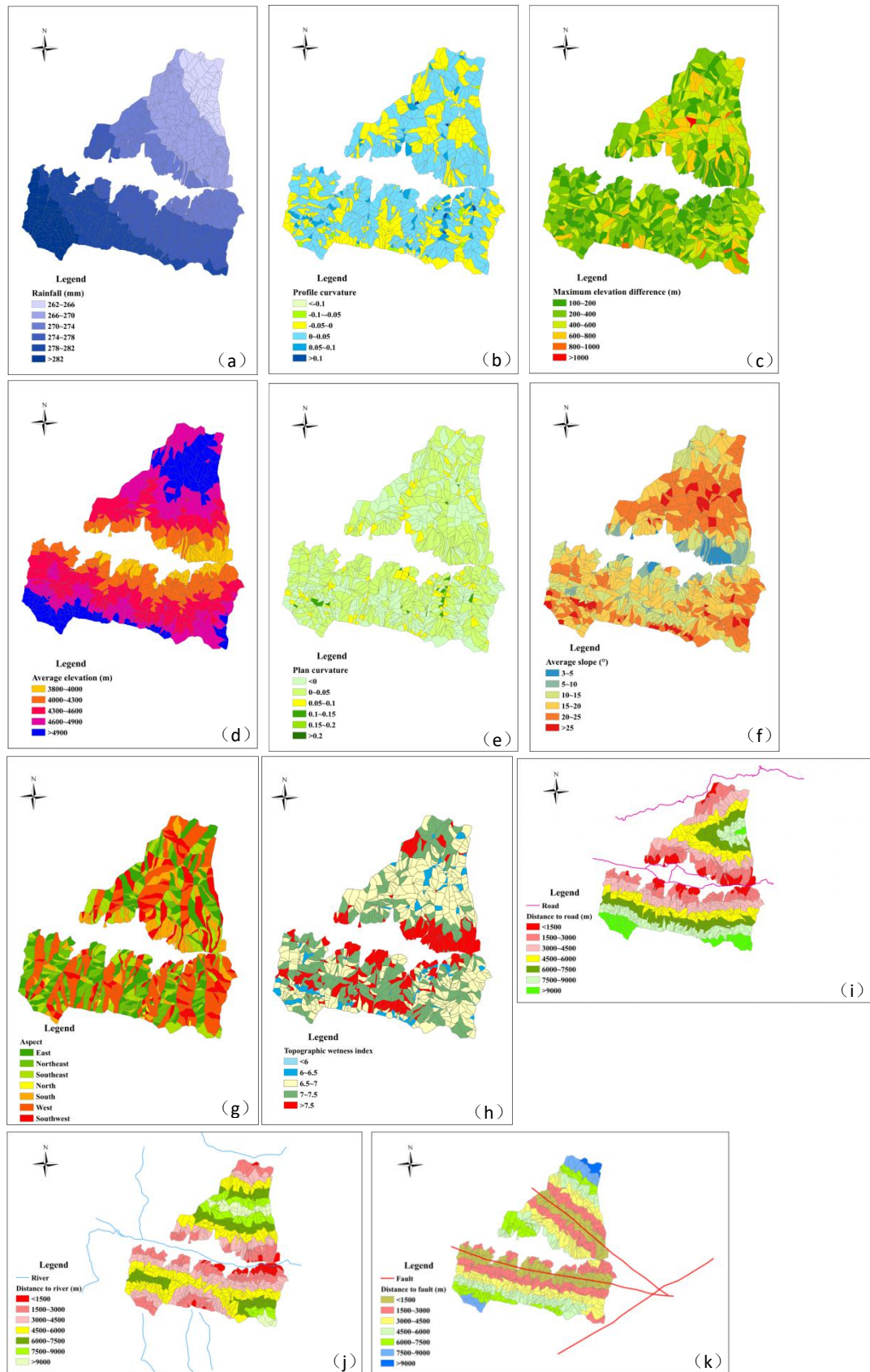


554

555 **Fig.4.** Stereo remote sensing map of landslides in Longzi Township (Tong et al., 2019): (a) Landslides

556 in Longzi town; (b) Landslides in Malu town.



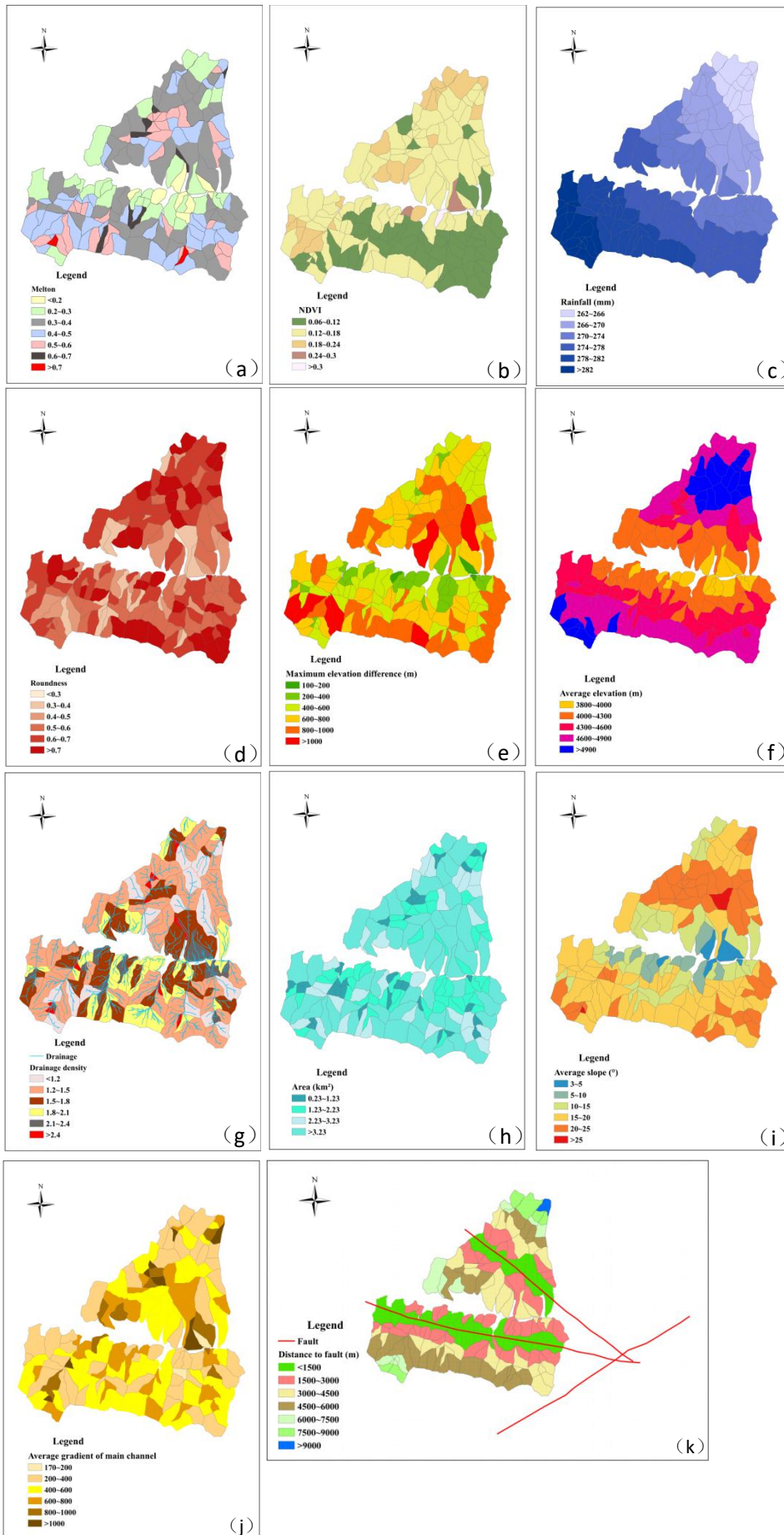


557

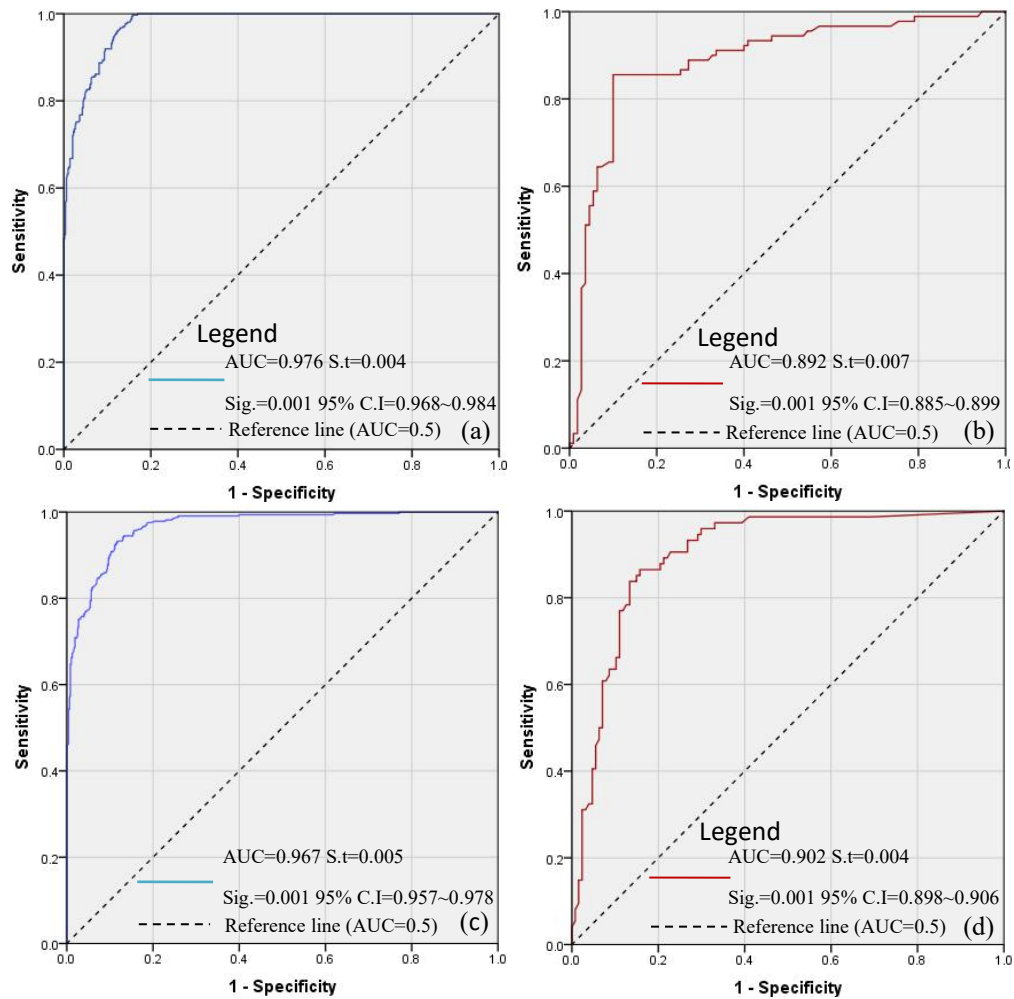
558 **Fig.5.** Study area thematic maps for landslide: (a) Rainfall; (b) Profile curvature; (c) Maximum

559 elevation difference; (d) Average elevation; (e) Plan curvature; (f) Average slope; (g) Aspect;

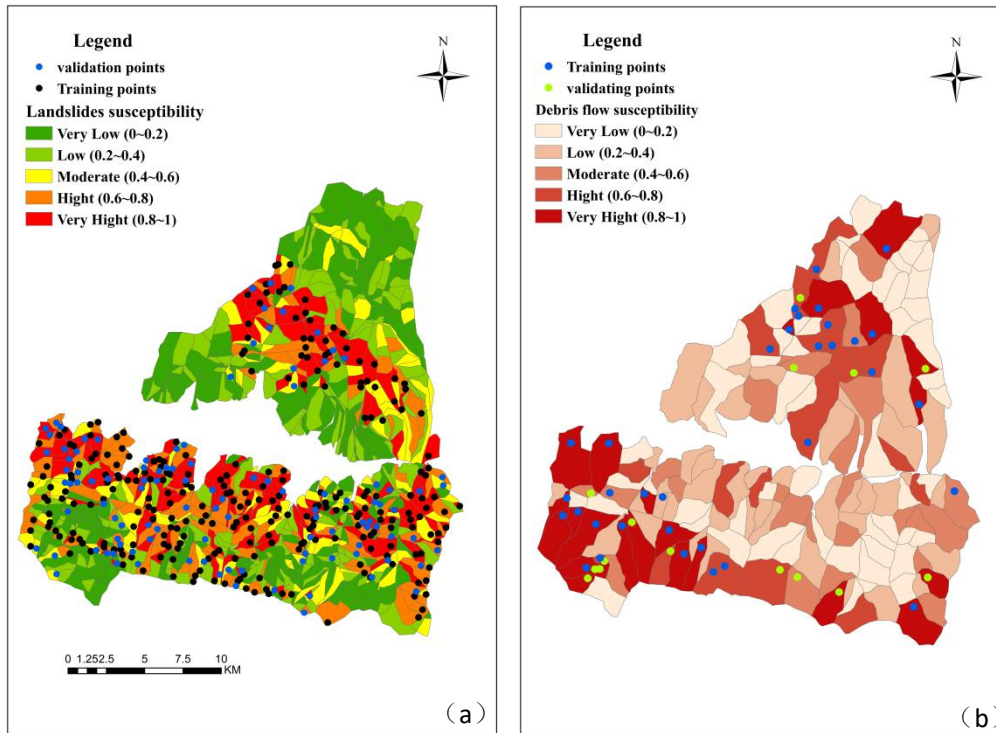
560 (h) Wetness; (i) Distance to road; (j) Distance to river; (k) Distance to fault.



562 **Fig.6.** Study area thematic maps for debris flow: **(a)** Melton; **(b)** NDVI; **(c)** Rainfall; **(d)** Roundness;  
 563 **(e)** Maximum elevation difference; **(f)** Average elevation; **(g)** Drainage density; **(h)** Area; **(i)**  
 564 **(j)** Average slope; **(k)** Average gradient of main channel; **(l)** Distance to fault.



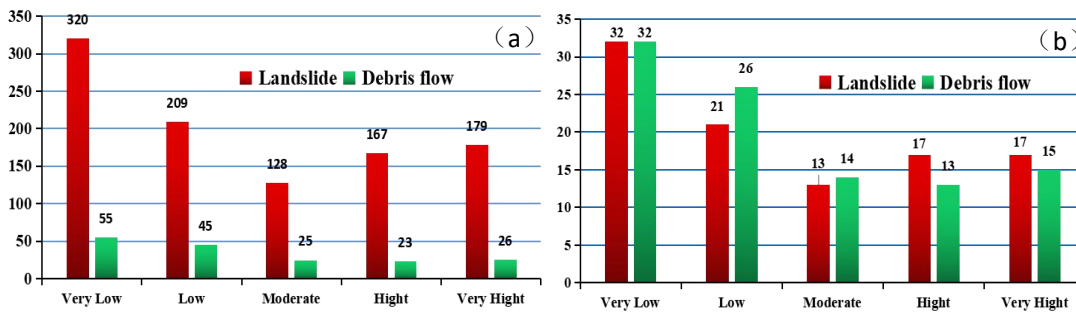
565  
 566 **Fig. 7.** Analysis of ROC curve for the two susceptibility maps: **(a)** Success rate curve of landslide using  
 567 the training dataset; **(b)** Prediction rate curve of landslide using the validation dataset; **(c)** Success rate  
 568 curve of debris flow using the training dataset; **(d)** Prediction rate curve of debris flow using the  
 569 validation dataset.



570

571 **Fig.8.** Susceptibility maps: (a) Landslide susceptibility zoning map; (b) Debris flow susceptibility

572 zoning map.

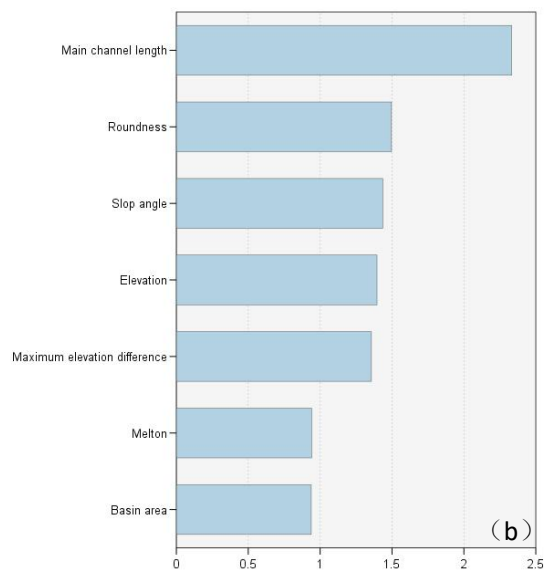
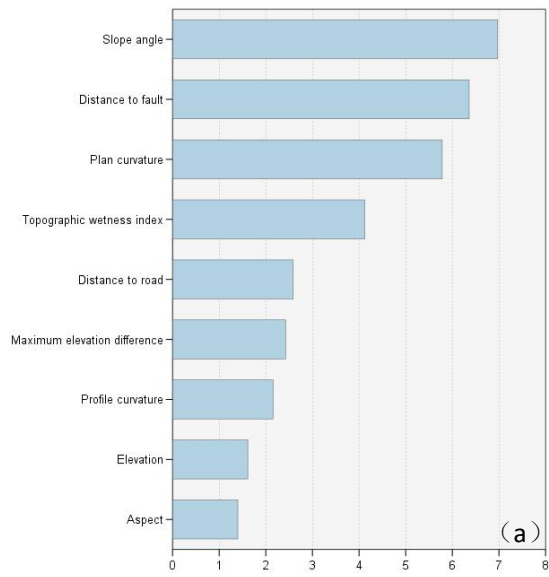


573

574 **Fig. 9.** Numbers and percentage of units in different susceptibility classes for landslide and debris flow:

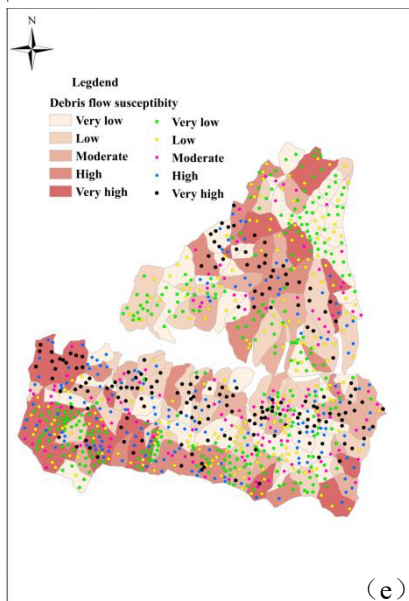
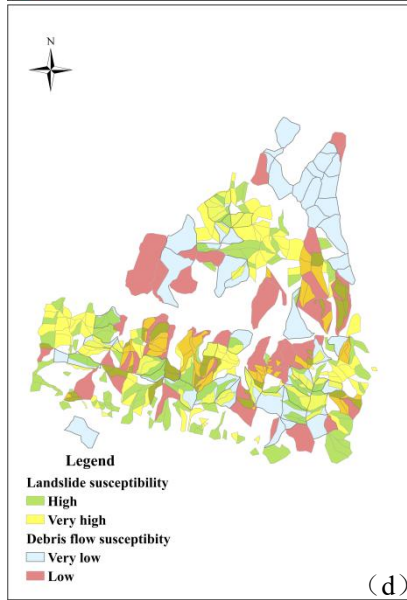
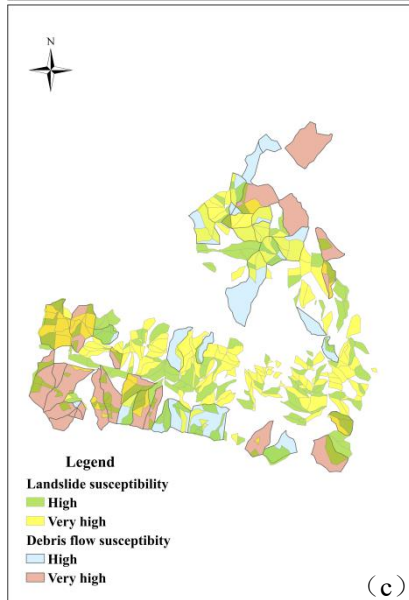
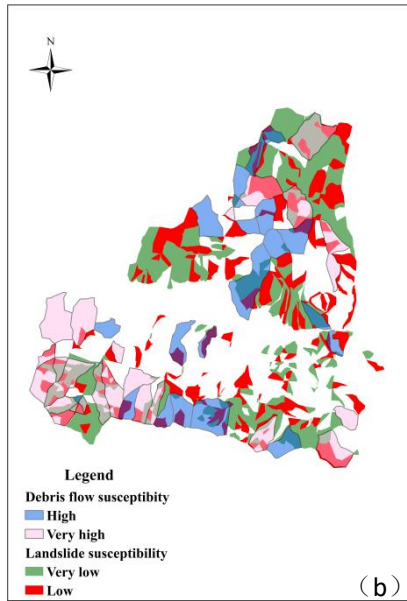
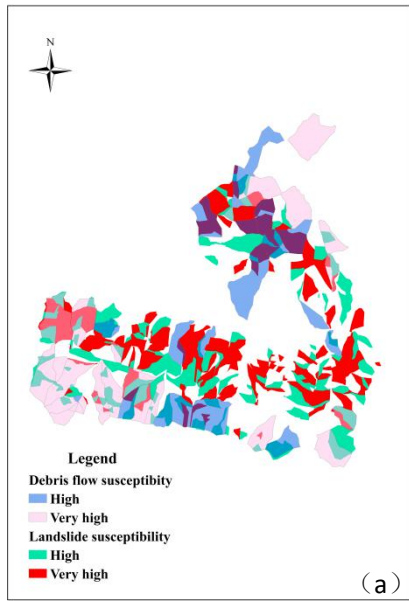
575 (a) Numbers of units in different susceptibility classes for landslide and debris flow; (b) Percentages of

576 different susceptibility classes for landslide and debris flow.



577

578 **Fig.10.** Parametric importance graphics obtained from RF model: **(a)** Parametric importance graphics  
 579 of landslide; **(b)** Parametric importance graphics of debris flow.



581 **Fig.11.** Landslide-debris flow susceptibility maps: **(a)** Height and very high-class watershed units with  
582 high or very high slope units; **(b)** High or very high-class watershed units with low or very low slope  
583 units; **(c)** High or very high-class slope units with high or very high-class watershed units; **(d)** Mapping  
584 units.

585

586

587

588