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Assessment of flood susceptibility areas using Optimized BP neural network models over the Tumen River Basin, China

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ABSTRACT

Floods caused by rainstorms occur almost every year in Tumen River Basin. The floods caused severe damage to local residents, property and the ecological environment. For reducing the damage of floods, it is necessary to produce the flood susceptibility map. For mapping the flood prone areas, four algorithms such as genetic algorithm (GA), particle swarm optimization (PSO), artificial fish swarm algorithm (AFSA) and artificial bee colony algorithm (ABC) were used to optimize back propagation (BP) neural network respectively. The accuracy of the model was evaluated by Receiver Operating characteristic (ROC), root mean square error (RMSE) and mean absolute error (MAE). A total number of 222 flooded and un-flooded locations were identified. 155 locations of which were randomly selected to training the model, and the remaining 67 locations were used to validate the model. A total of thirteen flood conditioning factors, including altitude, slope, aspect, curvature, Topographic Wetness Index (TWI), Stream Power Index (SPI), Sediment Transport Index (STI), distance to river, landuse, rainfall, lithology, runoff coefficient and soil type were used in the proposed models. The area under the curve (AUC) obtained from ROC indicated that AFSA-BP showed a high accuracy (99.91%), and ABC-BP had the lowest prediction accuracy (97.28%). According to the generated flood susceptibility map, about 13% of Tumen River Basin is under very high flood susceptibility. The distance to river, rainfall, altitude and land use have the greatest impact on flood susceptibility. The results showed that the BP model optimized by the four algorithms is an effective and reliable tool for mapping the flood susceptibility. The flood susceptibility map can be used in flood prevention strategies.

Keywords: Flood susceptibility; BP neural network; GIS; Natural hazards; Machine learning

1. Introduction

Flood hazards result from a combination of physical exposure and human vulnerability to flooding. Floods are the most common and widespread of all natural disasters. It accounts for 55% of the deaths and 31% of the economic losses caused by natural disasters (Hong et al., 2018a; Chen et al., 2019).

Continued precipitation and changes in land use caused by human activities such as urbanization, deforestation and loss of wetlands may increase the risk of flooding in areas vulnerable to climate change. In order to effectively manage and reduce flood risk, it is very important to identify flood prone areas (Tehrany et al., 2015a). Flood susceptibility mapping (FSM) is considered an important step in the prevention of damage caused by flooding (Kourgialas and Karatzas, 2011). Because flood susceptibility can mitigate human and socio-economic losses by identifying flood vulnerable sites and providing people with sufficient lead time to respond to floods (Zhao et al., 2018).

In the current literature, the following main types of flood susceptibility assessment can be found:

i) Hydrologic and hydraulic models. These models provide information about the flood inundation extent, the water depth and the velocity based on 1-D or 2-D models (Gharbi et al., 2016; Hong et al., 2018b) such as MIKE system hydrological european (MIKE SHE)、HEC-RAS (Alaghmand et al., 2012)、TOPMODEL (Vincendon B et al., 2010)、soil and water assessment tool (SWAT) (Toosi et al., 2019).

ii) Empirical, statistical and probabilistic methods. It is mainly divided into qualitative and quantitative

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45 methods. Analytic hierarchy process and fuzzy logic are the main qualitative techniques commonly used in flood
46 susceptibility assessment. Frequency ration (FR) (Tehrany et al., 2014a; Rahmati et al., 2016a, Arabameri et al.,
47 2019), weights-of evidence(WOE) (Rahmati et al., 2016a; Tehrany et al.,2014b; Hong et al., 2018a), Generalized
48 Linear Model (GLM) (Chapi et al., 2017),logistic regression (LR) (Nandi et al.,2016; Hong et al., 2018a; Bui et al.,
49 2019a) were widely applied as quantitative methods.

50 iii) Nonlinear machine learning algorithms. Artificial neural network (ANN) (Kia et al., 2012, Jahangir et al.,
51 2019), decision tree (DT) (Tehrany et al., 2019), support vector machine (SVM) (Tehrany et al., 2015b; Hong et al.,
52 2018a; Tehrany et al., 2019),naïve bayes (Liu et al., 2015), boosted regression trees(BRT)(Rahmati and
53 Pourghasemi, 2017),random forest(RF) (Chapi et al., 2017; Hong et al., 2018a; Bui et al., 2019a), k-nearest
54 neighbor (KNN) (Liu et al., 2016) and neural-fuzzy approaches (Bui et al., 2016).

55 iv) Hybrid and ensemble methods. Recently, some hybrid and integrated methods have been introduced in
56 flood assessment. These methods are based on models combining various base classifiers. Hybrid and ensemble
57 methods can improve predictive performance and deal with complex high-dimensional problems in a more robust
58 way(Bui et al., 2019b). Typical examples of hybrid methods are the use of adaptive network-based fuzzy inference
59 system (ANFIS) model and evolutionary and meta-heuristic optimization algorithms such as genetic algorithm (GA)
60 (Termeh et al., 2018; Hong et al., 2018a), Differential Evolution particle(DE)(Hong et al., 2018a),particle swarm
61 optimization (PSO) (Termeh et al., 2018), biogeographic based optimization (BBO)(Wang et al., 2019), imperialistic
62 competitive algorithm (ICA) (Wang et al., 2019), bat algorithm (BA) (Ahmadlou et al., 2018),Ant colony algorithm
63 (ACO) (Lai et al., 2016; Termeh et al., 2018) and firefly algorithm (FA) (Bui et al., 2018).

64 v) A method combining remote sensing and GIS with data-driven methods (Chen et al., 2017). Nowadays, due
65 to the progress of remote sensing, geographic information system (GIS), machine learning (ML) and statistical
66 model, it is very feasible to create more accurate flood susceptibility map. Models such as statistics, probability
67 and machine algorithms combined with remote sensing (RS) and GIS have been used regularly by many
68 researchers (Chapi et al., 2017; Zhao et al.,2018, Moghadam et al.,2018).

69 In addition to the selection of evaluation model, the selection of flood impact factors is also very important in
70 the flood susceptibility mapping. There are many conditioning factors commonly used in the literature. In order to
71 effectively improve the accuracy of susceptibility assessment, 13 factors that have a greater impact on flood were
72 selected through the investigation of the paper and the field situation, including altitude, slope, aspect, curvature,
73 TWI, SPI, STI, distance to river, landuse, rainfall, lithology, runoff coefficient and soil type. In this study, the flood
74 susceptibility mapping was carried out by combining hybrid machine algorithm, remote sensing and GIS. Four
75 algorithms such as GA, PSO, AFSA and ABC algorithm were used to optimize BP neural network respectively.

76

77 **2. Study area**

78

79 Tumen River Basin is located at the border of China, North Korea and Russia. It is bounded by Tumen River in
80 the south, facing North Korea across the river and bordering Russia in the East. The geographical coordinates are
81 $41^{\circ}59'N \sim 44^{\circ}30'N$, $127^{\circ}27'E \sim 131^{\circ}18'E$, as shown in Fig. 1. The terrain of tumen River Basin is generally higher in
82 the west and lower in the east. The central region is lower than the north and south. The total basin area is 33,168
83 km^2 . The total river drop is 1297m with an average gradient of 1.2‰. The annual average temperature in the
84 Tumen River Basin is between $2^{\circ}C$ and $6^{\circ}C$. The annual average rainfall is in the range of 551-700mm. It belongs to
85 the middle temperate humid monsoon climate with abundant and concentrated rain which is easy to produce
86 flood disasters. The highest annual rainfall is more than 600mm in the north of tumen River Basin. The rugged
87 topography, various geomorphology and the dense distribution of rivers lead to a high frequency of flood disasters
88 under heavy rainfall conditions.

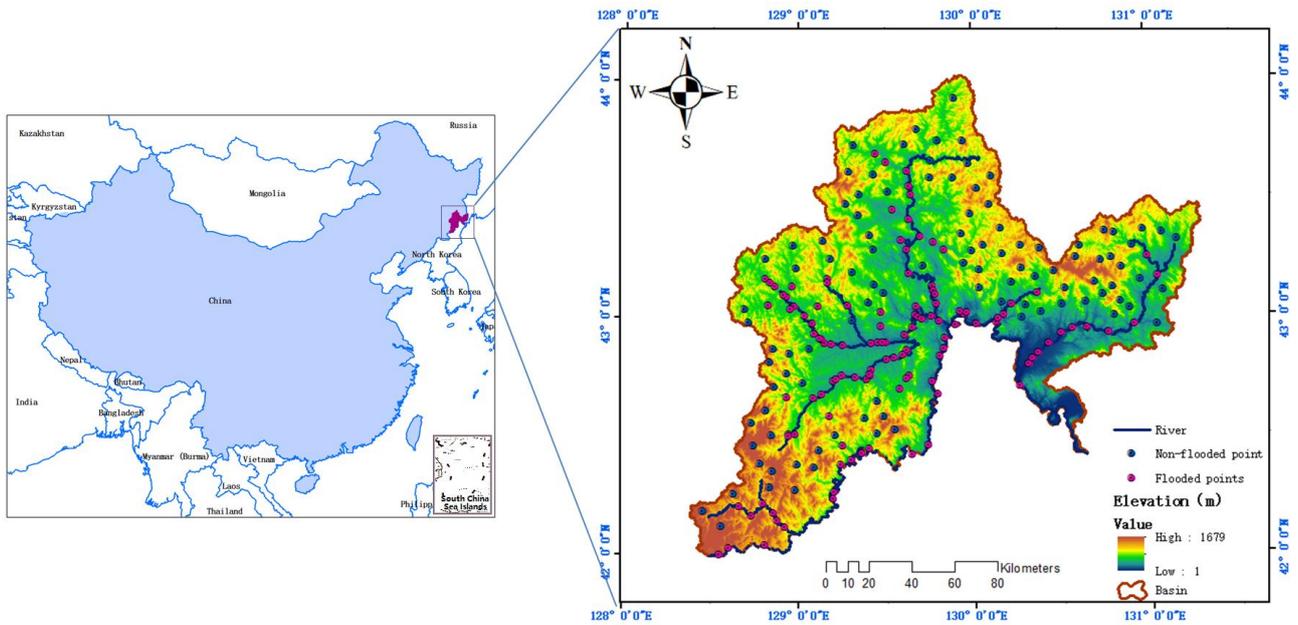


Fig.1. Location of the study area.

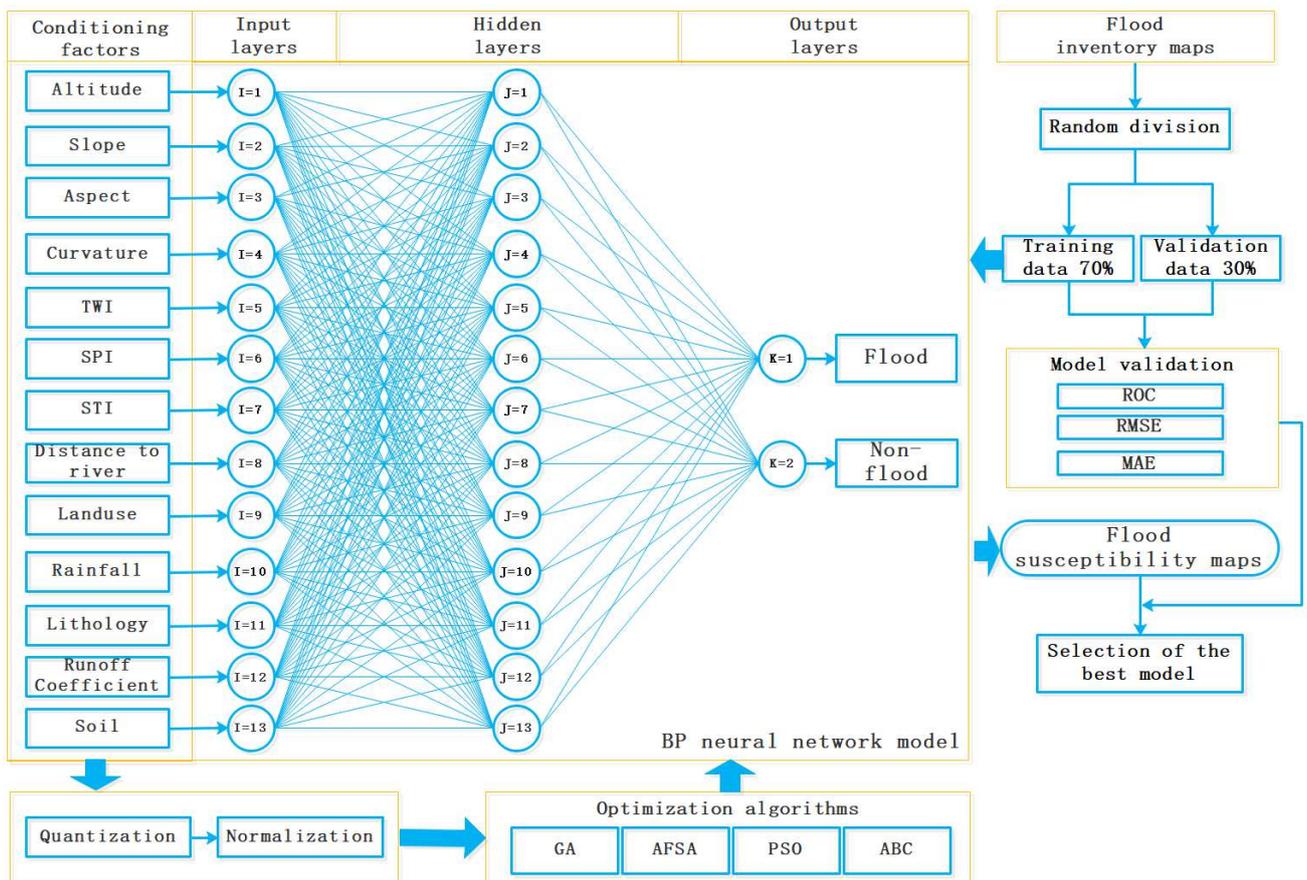


Fig.2. Methodological flow chart adopted in this study.

3. Materials and methodology

In this study, GA, PSO, ABC and AFSA were used to optimize BP neural network respectively for the flood susceptibility mapping in the study area. The main process consists of the following steps. i) The selection of impact factors; ii) Quantification and normalization; iii) the optimization of BP neural network by using training

100 data and four optimization methods; iv) The generation of flood susceptibility map; v) Analyze and verify the
101 susceptibility map generated by the model using the test data; vi) Finally analyze the most effective BP neural
102 network optimization method(Fig. 2).

103

104 *3.1 Flood inventory*

105

106 In order to effectively analyze the flood susceptibility of an area, it is necessary to analyze historical flood
107 events. The inventory Map includes historical flood location, date, type and scale, etc., which is an important data
108 for predicting flood occurrence and analyzing the relationship between conditioning factors. The flood inventory
109 map of tumen River Basin was drawn based on literature and field investigation. A total of 222 flood locations are
110 included, of which 119 points are flooded areas and 103 points are non-flooded areas. The data of the flood
111 inventory is divided into training and test data, accounting for 70% and 30% respectively(Hong et al., 2018b).

112

113 *3.2 Flood conditioning factors*

114

115 The flood susceptibility is closely related to disaster formative environment. Which flood conditioning factors
116 are used to analyze the formative environment is very important for the susceptibility mapping. According to the
117 references (Termeh et al., 2018; Hong et al., 2018b; Yariyan et al., 2020; Andaryani et al., 2021), data availability,
118 geographical characteristics and expert opinions, thirteen factors such as altitude, slope, aspect, curvature, TWI,
119 SPI, STI, distance to river, landuse, rainfall, lithology, runoff coefficient and soil type were selected as conditioning
120 factors(Fig.3).

121 Topography is closely related to flood disaster and is the main factor in the hydrological process of the basin.
122 The steep terrain enhances the rapid concentration of water flow(Destro et al., 2018). Aster data were used to
123 generate a digital elevation model (DEM) with a spatial resolution of 30m in the study area. Seven geomorphic
124 factors were obtained from DEM which were altitude, slope, aspect, curvature, TWI, SPI and STI.

125 At higher elevations, flooding is relatively infrequent. However, the lower plains are at greater risk of flooding
126 (Bui et al., 2019a). The altitude map generated using the DEM was divided into five categories: 0-275, 275-483,
127 483-688, 688-937 and >937m (Fig.3a).

128 Slope is an important factor in flood susceptibility mapping. Slope controls the rate of surface runoff and steep
129 slopes increase runoff(Andaryani et al., 2021). The slope map was divided into five categories: 0-5, 5-12, 12-20,
130 20-30 and >30° (Fig.3b).

131 The aspect is closely related to the convergence and direction of water flow (Andaryani et al., 2021). The
132 aspect map was generated by DEM and divided into nine categories: Flat, North, Northeast, East, Southeast, South,
133 Southwest, West and Northwest (Fig.3c).

134 Curvature reflects the shape of the surface which can be divided into concave, flat and convex types. It has a
135 significant impact on the ponding and infiltration of water in a given area(Cao et al., 2016). The curvature was
136 generated by DEM and divided into three categories: convex, flat and concave(Fig.3 d).

137 TWI is a geomorphic parameter used to quantify local topographic relief and quantitatively evaluate
138 runoff. TWI is the ratio of the area of a particular watershed to the slope. TWI reflects the spatial variation of
139 wetness in a watershed. It describes the impact of topography on soil water distribution in a certain
140 region(Rahmati et al., 2016b; Yariyan et al., 2020). TWI was divided into five categories: 0-4, 4-7, 7-10, 10-14
141 and >14 (Fig.3e).

142 SPI is an important hydrological factor. It can measure erosive power and the intensity of surface runoff. When
143 its value is high, it indicates the power of the flood (Chapi et al., 2017). On the contrary, it indicates potential
144 areas with flood storage within the basin (Termeh et al., 2018). SPI was divided into five categories: 0-50, 50-100,
145 100-150, 150-500 and >500 (Fig.3 f).

146 STI is a useful comprehensive topographic variable to characterize water and sediment transport in a particular

147 landscape. Areas with low STI value are mostly located in flat terrain and the risk of flood is relatively high(Hong
148 et al., 2018a). The frequency of floods also receives impact of sediment dynamic processes. STI was divided into
149 five categories: 0-5, 5-10, 10-30, 30-50 and >50 (Fig.3g).

150 TWI, SPI and STI are calculated by formula (1), (2) and (3) respectively:

$$151 \quad \text{TWI} = \ln(A_s/\tan\beta) \quad (1)$$

$$152 \quad \text{SPI} = A_s \tan\beta \quad (2)$$

$$153 \quad \text{STI} = (A_s/22.13)^{0.6}(\sin\beta/0.0896)^{1.3} \quad (3)$$

154 Where A_s is the specific catchment area (m^2m^{-1}), and β (radian) is the slope gradient (in degrees).

155 Distance to river is one of the important factors in flood susceptibility mapping. After rainfall, large amounts
156 of runoff quickly flow into rivers and cause flooding. The closer the exposure is to the river, the greater the risk of
157 flooding (Mahmoud and Gan, 2018). According to the river and disaster situation of Tumen River basin, buffer
158 zone was carried out for the main river. Distance to river categorized into five classes: (1) 0-400; (2) 400-800; (3)
159 800-1200; (4) 1200-1600; (5) > 1600m (Fig.3h).

160 Landuse map is essential to identify areas vulnerable to floods(Karlsson et al., 2017;Komolafe et al., 2018;
161 Peng et al., 2019). Different types of land use have different effects on the formation of surface runoff. In
162 particular, it is closely related to the velocity, interception and infiltration of runoff(Das and Gupta, 2021). Under
163 the same rainfall conditions, different land use types have different flood susceptibility. In this study, the land use
164 map categorized into seven classes: water body, residential area, grassland, wetland, farmland, forest land and
165 bare land(Fig.3i).

166 Rainfall is the main cause of flooding. Streams, ditches, rivers and other flood drainage pipes have limited
167 drainage capacity. When the rainfall is too heavy, the inflow of the drainage pipe exceeds the displacement,
168 resulting in flood disaster. The magnitude and intensity of rainfall determine the severity of flood disaster (Pham
169 et al., 2019; Chițu et al., 2020). The data of precipitation are selected from the national average precipitation data
170 provided by the Chinese Academy of Sciences. The natural breakpoint method was used to divide the layers of
171 precipitation into five levels: 525-557, 557-579, 579-599, 599-619 and 619-653mm(Fig.3j).

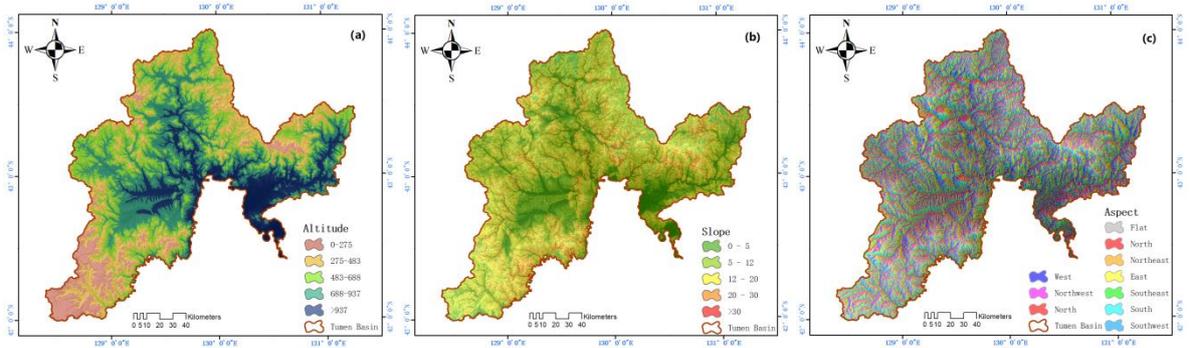
172 The impermeability of lithology is one of the internal factors that determine the occurrence of flood disaster.
173 Weak rocks are more susceptible to weathering and erosion and more permeable than hard rocks. The hard rock
174 with weak permeability is easy to form surface runoff which is conducive to the occurrence of floods (Santos and
175 Reis, 2018). According to the degree of weakness, lithology map was divided into six types: Metamorphic, Basalt,
176 Sedimentary, Andesite, Diorite and Granite (Fig.3k).

177 The Runoff coefficient is mainly affected by the topography, watershed, slope, vegetation and soil
178 characteristics of the catchment area. The larger the runoff coefficient is, the water is not easy to be absorbed by
179 soil and the surface runoff is easy to form(Toosi et al., 2019). The runoff coefficient was divided into five levels:
180 0-0.24, 0.24-0.37, 0.37-0.5, 0.5-0.56 and >0.56 (Fig.3l).

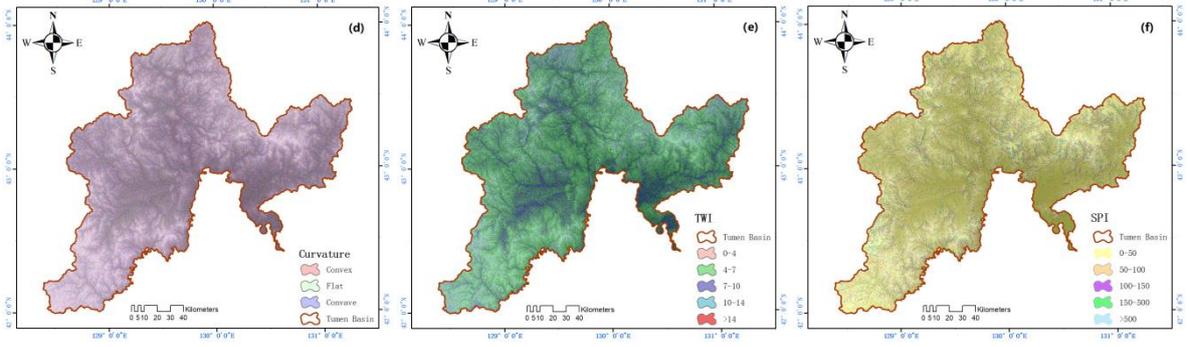
181 Different types of soil have different effects on flood disasters. If there is more clay and less sand in the soil,
182 the water permeability will be poor. This will easily produce surface runoff which will help the occurrence of flood
183 disasters(Towfiqul Islam et al., 2021). The soil was divided into five levels: GrayBrown, Aeolian, Dark-brown earths,
184 Albic, Meadow, Podzolic, Limestone, Litho, Bog, Paddy, Peat, Newly, deposited and Alluvial soil(Fig.3m).

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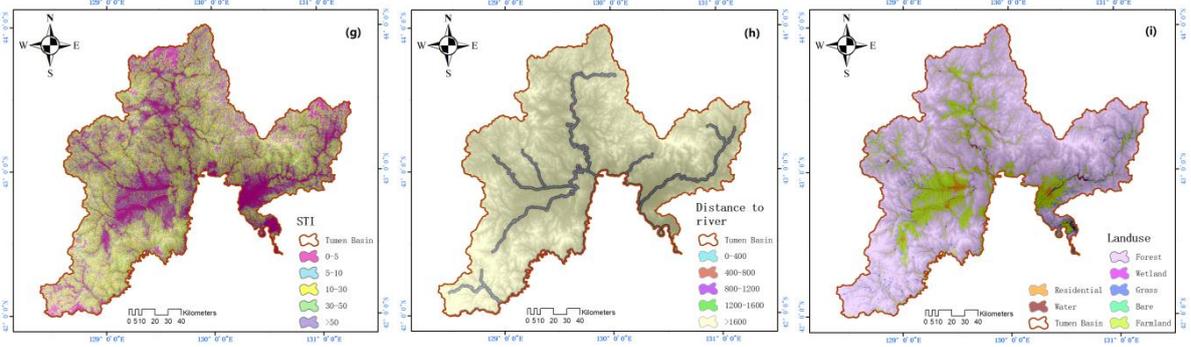
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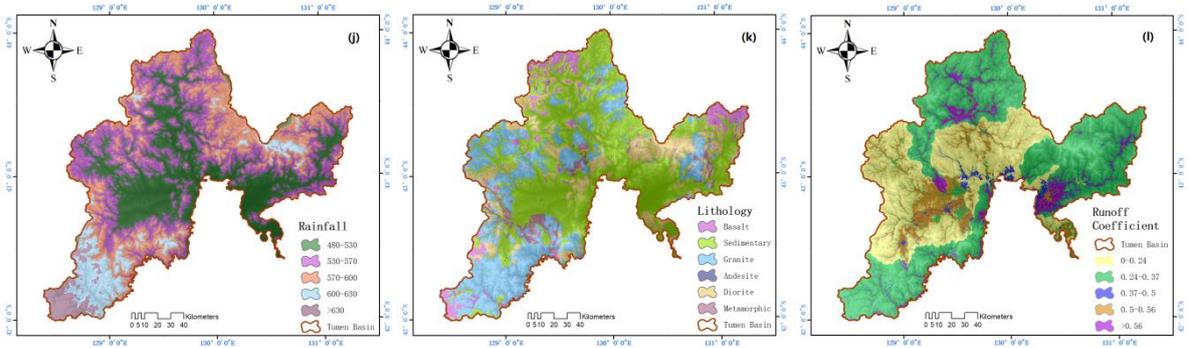
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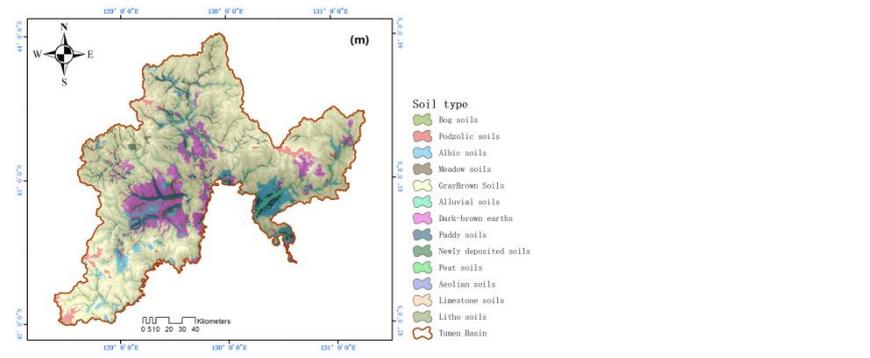


Fig.3. Flood conditioning factor (a)Altitude, (b)Slope, (c)Aspect, (d) Curvature, (e) TWI, (f) SPI, (g) STI, (h) Distance to river, (i) Landuse, (j) Rainfall, (k) Lithology, (l) Runoff Coefficient, (m) Soil type.

200 3.3 Methodology

201

202 3.3.1 BP neural network

203 BP neural network has strong non-linear data processing, fitting, learning and memory ability. It has strong
204 modeling ability for complex nonlinear systems which is widely used in artificial intelligence, disaster prediction
205 and many other fields. BP neural network is composed of input layer, hidden layer and output layer(Quan and Lee,
206 2012). The neurons between adjacent layers are connected, but the neurons between the same layer are not
207 connected. In this paper, 13 conditioning factors were taken as input variables. The number of hidden layers was
208 also set as 13. The number of nodes in the output layer is 2. In case of flood disaster, the output value is 1.
209 Otherwise, the output value is 0. The transfer function between neurons is sinusoidal S-type.

210 In the operation of BP neural network, the unreasonable setting of initial weight often results in large error. GA,
211 PSO, AFSA and ABC algorithms can find the optimal solution in the whole. So these algorithms are often used to
212 optimize several models that are easy to fall into the local extremum. Combining BP neural network with the
213 above algorithms is to learn from each other and make use of the advantages of their algorithms to mapping the
214 flood susceptibility of the basin. It provides an effective and feasible method for accurately predicting the flood
215 susceptibility.

216

217 3.3.2 Genetic algorithms (GA)

218 Genetic algorithm was first proposed by Professor J. Holland of Michigan University in 1975. It is an algorithm
219 to search for the global optimal solution by simulating the natural evolution process. The global optimal solution
220 was obtained by searching multiple individuals as possible solutions in the global range. In this paper, GA was used
221 to optimize the parameters of BP neural network. The global optimal solution was searched to generate the
222 optimal structure of BP neural network model. Genetic algorithm includes three basic operations: selection and
223 reproduction, crossover and mutation (Chen et al., 2017). Genetic algorithms have been widely used to solve
224 optimization problems and learning processes. Details on GA can be found in other related references (Termeh et
225 al., 2018; Hong et al., 2018b).

226

227 3.3.3 Particle swarm optimization (PSO)

228 Kennedy and Eberhart proposed the classical PSO algorithm in 1995 and Shi et al modified it into the current
229 standard PSO algorithm. Particle swarm optimization has fast convergence speed, strong robustness and local
230 search ability and is easy to implement (Termeh et al., 2018; Bui et al., 2019a). So in this paper, PSO is used to
231 improve the performance of BP neural network.

232 Firstly, the position and velocity of the initial particles constitute the initial population. The position and
233 velocity of the i th particle in the n -dimensional solution space can be expressed as $X_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{id})$ and $V_i =$
234 $(v_{i1}, v_{i2}, \dots, v_{id})$, respectively; Then, the optimal solution is found through successive iteration. In each iteration,
235 the particle updates its speed and position by tracking two extreme values. An extreme value is the optimal
236 solution of the particle itself so far. The individual extreme value can be expressed as $P_{bi} = (P_{bi1}, P_{bi2}, \dots, P_{bid})$.
237 Another extreme value is the optimal solution found so far in the neighborhood of the particle. The optimal
238 particle can be expressed as $N_{besti} = (N_{besti1}, N_{besti2}, \dots, N_{bestid})$; Finally, the particle updates its velocity and
239 position according to equations (4) and (5) :

$$240 \quad V_i = V_i + c_1 \text{rand}(0,1)(P_{besti} - X_i) + c_2 \text{rand}(0,1)(N_{besti} - X_i) \quad (4)$$

$$241 \quad X_i = X_i + V_i \quad (5)$$

242 Where, c_1 and c_2 are acceleration constants. Rand (0, 1) is a random number between 0 and 1.

243 The flight speed of particles in each dimension needs to meet the following requirements:

$$244 \quad V_i \leq V_{max} \quad (6)$$

245 Where: V_{max} is the maximum speed of particles flying in each dimension. The smaller the V_{max} , the stronger
246 the local search ability of particle algorithm.

247 3.3.4 Artificial bee colony (ABC)

248 In 2005, karaboga group proposed the artificial bee colony algorithm to solve the multivariable function
249 optimization problem. Artificial bee colony algorithm is an optimization method which imitates bee behavior and
250 is an application of swarm intelligence(Karaboga et al., 2007; Zhang and Liu, 2015). The process of artificial bee
251 colony algorithm is divided into four stages: initialization, recruitment, observation and detection.

252 Initialization: randomly generate SN food sources. The specific formula is shown in (7):

$$253 X_{i,j} = X_{\min,j} + \text{rand}(0,1)(X_{\max,j} - X_{\min,j}) \quad (7)$$

254 Where the individual $i \in \{1,2,\dots, SN\}$, dimension $j \in \{1,2,\dots, D\}$, $x_{\min,j}$ and $x_{\max,j}$ represent the upper and lower
255 bounds of each dimension randomly generated, $\text{Rand}(0,1)$ is a random number between 0 and 1.

256 In this stage, in addition to initialization of food sources, adaptation values are also calculated, as shown in
257 Formula (8) :

$$258 \text{fit}_i = \begin{cases} 1/(1 + f_i) & f_i \geq 0 \\ 1 + |f_i| & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

259 Where, fit_i represents the adaptive value of food source, and f_i is the objective function value.

260 Recruitment: each hire bee will fly to a food source, and then search around the food source through Equation
261 (9) to generate a new candidate solution:

$$262 V_{i,j} = X_{i,j} + \phi_{i,j}(X_{i,j} - X_{k,j}) \quad (9)$$

263 Where, X_i represents the selected food source to be modified, X_k represents the food source different from X_i , j
264 represents the randomly selected dimension, $\phi_{i,j}$ represents the random number generated from $[-1,1]$.

265 Greedy selection is made for newly generated candidate solutions V_i and X_i .

266 Observation: Observation bees obtained information about food sources by employing bees and calculated
267 the probability of food selection. The specific formula is shown in (10) :

$$268 p_i = \frac{\text{fit}_i}{\sum_{j=1}^{SN} \text{fit}_j} \quad (10)$$

269 Detection: Select the food source i that has not been updated for the longest time. If it has not been updated
270 more times than the preset fixed limit, the corresponding hire bees will transform into scout bees and randomly
271 generate a new food source to replace food source i by formula (7).

272

273 3.3.5 Artificial fish swarm algorithm (AFSA)

274 AFSA is an algorithm that simulates the behavior of real fish swarm such as foraging, clustering and tail chasing
275 and searches for the global optimal solution step by step from local to global(Luan et al., 2016). The main
276 calculation steps are as follows:

277 i) Initialize the parameters. Including the total number of artificial fish M , crowding factor σ , swimming step,
278 visual field range R_v , maximum foraging times N_{try} , and maximum iteration times N_{iter} .

279 ii) The initial population of M artificial fish was randomly generated. Calculate the initial state of all individuals
280 in the initial fish swarm, and assign the optimal value to the bulletin board.

281 iii) Each artificial fish performed foraging behavior, clustering behavior and tail-chasing behavior in turn. Then
282 update its status and compare it with the bulletin board. If it is better than the record on the bulletin board, the
283 optimal value on the bulletin board is updated.

284 Suppose that the current state of the artificial fish is X_i , and the artificial fish X_i randomly selects a state X_j in
285 the field of vision to calculate and compare the fitness values of the artificial fish. If Y_j is found to be better than Y_i
286 (Y_j and Y_i are the fitness values of X_j and X_i respectively), X_i moves one step towards X_j by formula (11).

$$287 X_j = X_i + \text{rand}(0,1) \times V_s \quad (11)$$

288 Otherwise, the artificial fish X_i continues to select the next X_{next} within its field of view by formula (12).

$$289 X_{\text{next}} = X_i + \text{rand}(0,1) \times S_t \times (X_j - X_i) / \|X_j - X_i\| \quad (12)$$

290 Assume that the current position of a virtual artificial fish is X , V_s is the field of vision of the artificial fish, and
 291 position X_v is the viewpoint position of the artificial fish X_i at a certain time as shown in Fig. 4. If the food
 292 concentration at this position is higher than the current position, the artificial fish moves forward one step and
 293 reaches X_{next} ; otherwise, the artificial fish X continues to seek other positions in the field of vision to judge
 294 whether the forward condition is met. After repeated attempts T_r times, if the forward condition is still not met,
 295 the artificial fish will randomly continue to move forward one step by formula (13).

$$X_{next} = X_i + \text{rand}(0,1) \times S_t \quad (13)$$

296
 297 iv) The number of iterations is added by one and compared with the maximum number of iterations N_{iter} . If
 298 the maximum number of iterations is not reached, step (iii) is returned; otherwise, the optimization process is
 299 ended and the results are output.

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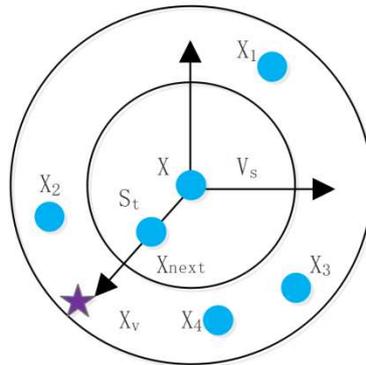


Fig. 4. Schematic diagram of visual field and moving step of artificial fish.

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4. Results and discussion

304

305

4.1 Selection of flood-conditioning factors

306

307 The possible multicollinearity among conditioning factors was assessed using VIF, Tolerances and IGR. If the
 308 value of VIF exceeds 10 or tolerance is less than 0.1, possible multicollinearity is considered (Khosravi et al.,
 309 2018). VIF and tolerance values of each factor were less than 10 and greater than 0.1, respectively (Table 1),
 310 indicating that there was no multicollinearity problem among the factors. IGR is used also to evaluate the
 311 importance of various factors in flood simulation (Table 1). The results show that the distance from the river (IGR =
 312 0.561) has the greatest impact on flood occurrence, followed by land use (IGR = 0.454), rainfall (IGR = 0.433),
 313 elevation (IGR = 0.419), curvature (IGR = 0.411), runoff coefficient (IGR = 0.374), soil type (IGR = 0.322), slope (IGR
 314 = 0.313), STI (IGR = 0.275), TWI(IGR = 0.231), SPI (IGR = 0.174), Lithology (IGR = 0.076), aspect (IGR = 0.048).

315

316

Table 1
 Multicollinearity analysis.

Index	VIF	Tolerance	IGR
Altitude	4.968	0.201	0.419
Slope	5.028	0.199	0.313
Aspect	1.038	0.963	0.048
Curvature	1.319	0.758	0.411
TWI	2.238	0.447	0.231
SPI	4.754	0.210	0.174
STI	8.629	0.116	0.275
Distance to river	1.848	0.541	0.561
Landuse	3.520	0.284	0.454

317

Rainfall	3.837	0.261	0.433
Lithology	1.079	0.927	0.076
Runoff coefficient	2.462	0.406	0.374
Soil type	1.667	0.600	0.322

318

319 The factors that have a great impact on flood susceptibility include altitude, distance to river, land use and
320 rainfall. Areas with low altitude, close to the river and small topographic relief have high risk and susceptibility of
321 flood disaster. The area with small rainfall, high altitude, large topographic relief and woodland are not conducive
322 to the occurrence of flood. Therefore, the susceptibility level in these areas is low and relatively safe.

323

324 4.2 Model validation and comparison

325

326 In this study, RMSE, MAE, Kappa, Precision and ROC curves were used to verify the accuracy and predictive
327 validity of the four models. The comparison results showed that AFSA-BP was the optimal model with the highest
328 kappa (96.9%), precision (98.51%), lowest RMSE (0.159) and MAE (0.103) in the validation stage (Table 2). The
329 second optimal model was PSO-BP with the value of kappa (96.9%), precision (98.51%), RMSE (0.228) and MAE
330 (0.161). Similarly, kappa and precision showed that the optimal models were AFSA-BP and PSO-BP in the training
331 stage. In the training and validation stage, the lowest Kappa index is 0.906. It indicated that the prediction
332 accuracy of the four optimization models was relatively high on the whole.

333

334

Table 2

335

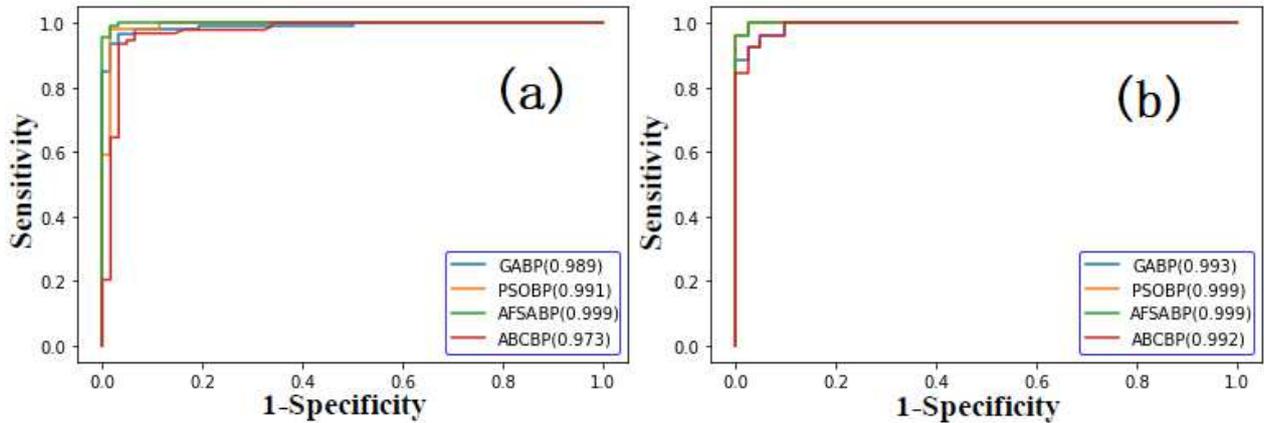
Comparison of model performances(using training and validation dataset).

Index	Training dataset				Validation dataset			
	GA-BP	PSO-BP	AFSA-BP	ABC-BP	GA-BP	PSO-BP	AFSA-BP	ABC-BP
TN	60	61	61	58	39	40	40	39
TP	90	91	92	90	25	26	26	25
FN	3	2	1	3	1	0	0	1
FP	2	1	1	4	2	1	1	2
Precision	96.77	98.06	98.71	95.48	95.52	98.51	98.51	95.52
Sensitivity	96.77	97.85	98.92	96.77	96.15	100.00	100.00	96.15
Specificity	96.77	98.39	98.39	93.55	95.12	97.56	97.56	95.12
AUROC	98.94	99.13	99.91	97.28	99.34	99.91	99.91	99.25
RMSE	0.200	0.172	0.181	0.192	0.203	0.228	0.159	0.216
MAE	0.137	0.110	0.125	0.082	0.142	0.161	0.103	0.104
Kappa	0.933	0.960	0.973	0.906	0.906	0.969	0.969	0.906

336

337 The ROC curve obtained from the training and validation data (Chen et al.,2019; Towfiqul Islam et al., 2021) is
338 shown in Fig.5. The detailed parameters of the ROC curve are shown in Table 2. The results show that the AUC of
339 AFSA-BP model is the highest with the value of 0.9991. The second was PSO-BP model with AUC value of 0.9913,
340 followed by GA-BP model with AUC value of 0.9894, and the lowest was ABC-BP model with AUC value of
341 0.9728. From the analysis results, the four models all showed reasonable ROC curves. Among them, AFSA-BP
342 model has the best performance in predicting flood susceptibility followed by PSO-BP, GA-BP and ABC-BP models.
343 The ROC diagram obtained from the validation data showed that the AUC values of AFSA-BP and PSO-BP models
344 were the highest with the value of 0.9991. GA-BP model followed with an AUC value of 0.9934 and ABC-BP model
345 had the lowest AUC value of 0.9925. The results showed that the AFSA-BP and PSO-BP models have the best

346 performance in predicting flood susceptibility followed by GA-BP and ABC-BP models. It is consistent with the
 347 results of Kappa and other evaluation indicators.
 348



349
 350 **Fig. 5.** ROC curves and AUC values of models. (a) Training dataset; (b) Validation dataset.
 351

352 4.3 Generation of flood susceptibility maps

353
 354 The four flood susceptibility maps generated by AFSA-BP, PSO-BP, GA-BP and ABC-BP models are shown in Fig.
 355 6. Natural breakpoint method was used to reclassify the susceptibility maps into five flood susceptibility levels
 356 (Chen et al., 2019; Das and Gupta, 2021): extremely low, low, medium, high and extremely high. The area
 357 percentages of each level in the four flood susceptibility maps are shown in Fig. 7. In AFSA-BP model, the area
 358 percentage of low category was the very largest (43.85%), followed by low category (38.64%), very high category
 359 (10.46%), moderate category (4%), and high category (3.06%). For the PSO-BP model, the area percentages of
 360 very low, low, moderate, high and very high grades were 46.55%, 34.21%, 9.27%, 3.02% and 6.95% respectively. In
 361 GA-BP model, the area percentages of very low, low, moderate, high and very high grades were 41.67%, 19.64%,
 362 16.57%, 6.13% and 15.99% respectively. In the ABC-BP model, the percentage of very low, low, moderate, high
 363 and very high grades were 49.42%, 28.08%, 3.71%, 2.98% and 15.81% respectively. Four flood susceptibility
 364 maps were compared using extremely high and high FR values. The results showed that FR value was the highest
 365 in PSO model (9.97), followed by AFSA model (8.16) and ABC model (6.39), and the lowest was GA model (5.92) as
 366 shown in Table 3.

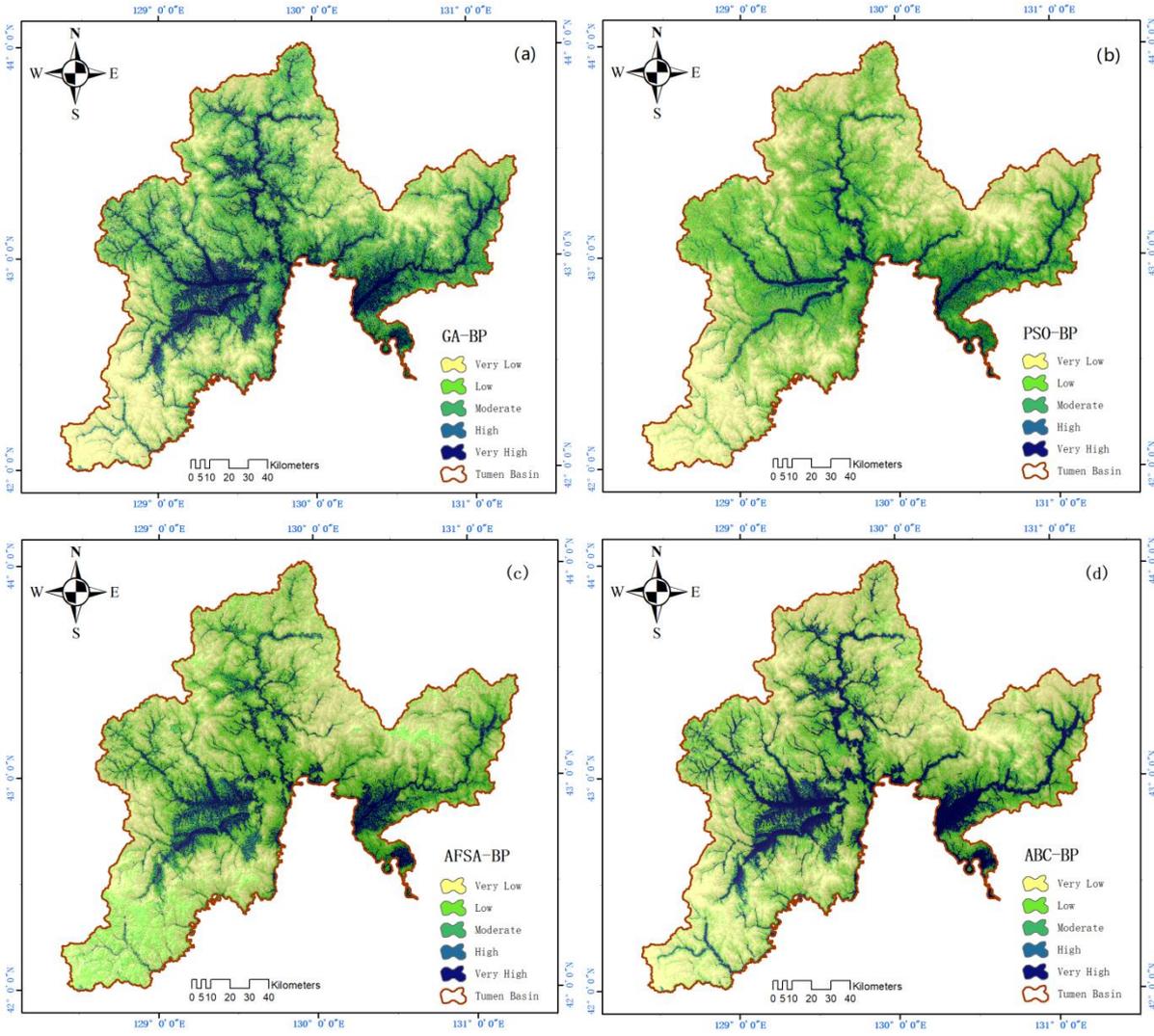
367 This result mainly depends on the advantages and disadvantages of each model. PSO algorithm has no
 368 crossover and mutation operation and relies on particle velocity to complete the search. In iterative evolution,
 369 only the optimal particles transmit information to other particles. PSO algorithm has the advantages of fast search
 370 speed, memorization, few parameters to be adjusted, simple structure and easy implementation.

371 AFSA does not require the objective function to have special analytical properties. It has the characteristics of
 372 parallel processing ability and good randomness. However, AFSA is not perfect and immature compared with GA,
 373 ANN and PSO. The study of AFSA is in the preliminary stage and many problems such as initial parameter
 374 selection and convergence rate need to be further solved.

375 As a promising bionic algorithm, ABC has strong global optimization ability and fast convergence speed. It has
 376 the advantages of few control parameters, strong robustness and easy implementation. However, it still has the
 377 disadvantage of poor local development ability. When approaching the global optimal solution, it is easy to fall
 378 into local optimal solution.

379 GA has the ability of fast random search. The search starts from the group and has the potential parallelism
 380 which can compare multiple individuals simultaneously. It is extensible and easy to combine with other
 381 algorithms. But the programming implementation of GA is complicated. The algorithm has certain dependence
 382 on the selection of initial population. The potential capability of parallel mechanism of algorithm has not been

383 fully utilized which is also a hot research direction of GA.



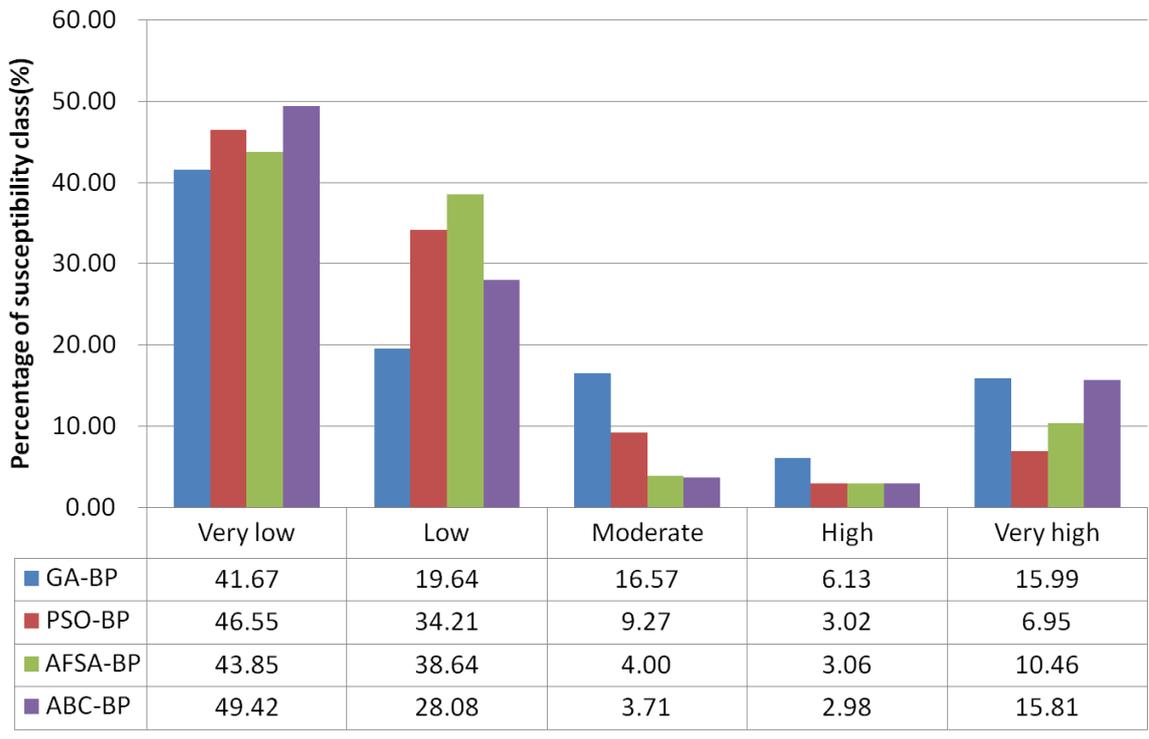
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Fig. 6. Flood susceptibility maps produced by a. GA-BP model; b. PSO-BP model; c. AFSA-BP model; d. ABC-BP model.



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Fig. 7. Percentages of different flood susceptibility classes.

Table 3

Areas of susceptibility classes along with FR and SCAI indicators in models.

Model	Class	No. of pixels in domain	Percentage of domain(%)	No. of floods	Percentage of floods(%)	FR	SCAI
GA-BP	Very low	10506723	41.67	10	8.40	0.20	4.96
	Low	4953006	19.64	4	3.36	0.17	5.84
	Moderate	4178220	16.57	10	8.40	0.51	1.97
	High	1545323	6.13	11	9.24	1.51	0.66
	Very high	4032640	15.99	84	70.59	4.41	0.23
PSO-BP	Very low	11738737	46.55	10	8.40	0.18	5.54
	Low	8626452	34.21	17	14.29	0.42	2.39
	Moderate	2336500	9.27	16	13.45	1.45	0.69
	High	760829	3.02	5	4.20	1.39	0.72
	Very high	1753394	6.95	71	59.66	8.58	0.12
AFSA-BP	Very low	11056086	43.85	5	4.20	0.10	10.44
	Low	9742313	38.64	27	22.69	0.59	1.70
	Moderate	1008607	4.00	12	10.08	2.52	0.40
	High	772196	3.06	11	9.24	3.02	0.33
	Very high	2636710	10.46	64	53.78	5.14	0.19
ABC-BP	Very low	12462728	49.42	3	2.52	0.05	19.60
	Low	7080353	28.08	6	5.04	0.18	5.57
	Moderate	934682	3.71	7	5.88	1.59	0.63
	High	752151	2.98	4	3.36	1.13	0.89
	Very high	3985998	15.81	99	83.19	5.26	0.19

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5. Conclusion

396 In this study, GA, PSO, AFSA and ABC algorithms were used to optimize the BP neural network model for the
397 mapping of flood susceptibility in Tumen River Basin. The model included thirteen conditioning factors of flood
398 susceptibility as well as 119 flooded and 103 non-flood data. The results showed that there was no
399 multicollinearity among the selected impact factors. IGR test showed that distance to river, land use, rainfall and
400 altitude were more sensitive to flood disaster. The accuracy of the model was evaluated by the following statistical
401 indicators: Precision, RMSE, MAE, AUC, and Kappa. The validation results show that all the models (GA, PSO, AFSA
402 and ABC) perform well, but the BP neural network model optimized by AFSA performs best. The flood
403 susceptibility map generated by AFSA-BP model shows that about 13% of the study areas have a high risk of flood
404 disaster and about 87% have a low risk. The flood susceptibility map generated in this study can identify
405 potential flood risk areas. It provides useful information for land use planning and flood risk management in
406 flood-affected areas.

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413

414 **References**

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552 Declaration of Interest Statement

553 We declare that we have no known competing financial interests or personal
554 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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