ISSS602 – Data Analytics Lab Group Project

Impact of Imbalanced Data on Landslide Susceptibility Prediction

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ABSTRACT

One common encounter in landslide susceptibility prediction is the lack of landslide samples to train the models. The main objective of this study is to investigate the impact of imbalanced data on landslide susceptibility prediction and compare the performance of models using imbalanced (original) and balanced data. Terrain information were obtained from samples of land with landslides and without landslides. Using exploratory data analysis, the characteristics of the variables in landslide and non-landslide cells in relation to their surrounding cells were identified and new independent variables were created to augment the existing dataset. Statistical learning method like logistic regression and recursive partitioning approaches including Decision Tree, Bootstrap Forest and Boosted Tree were used for landslide classification. Then, synthetic minority oversampling technique (SMOTE) was applied to expand the quantity of landslide samples and the same models were ran again. Results indicated that across all models, the usage of balanced data and increase in minority samples have led to improved outcomes, with true positive rates increasing from around 50% or less, to over 80% in all models. Recursive partitioning approaches like Bootstrap Forest and Boosted Tree generally performed better compared to logistic regression, giving higher true positive rates and a balance of performance among other evaluation metrics.

INTRODUCTION

According to the World Health Organisation (2018), landslides occur more frequently than any other geological event, and can happen anywhere in the world. Between 1998 and 2017, landslides caused 18,000 fatalities, and affected an estimated 4.8 million people worldwide. In Italy, Austria, Switzerland and France, the mean annual costs of landslides were estimated between USA 1 to 5 billion for each country (Strumpf & Kerle, 2011). With growing occurrences, landslide identification plays a significant role in landslide risk assessment and management (Wang et al., 2019).

The use of statistically based models and machine learning techniques to understand landslide susceptibility is not an uncommon practice. A meta-analysis conducted by Korup and Stolle (2014) across 674 scientific papers published, found that most machine learning techniques achieved overall success rates of 75 to 95 percent and added that logistic regression was the most commonly adopted approach (33 percent). This was followed by Artificial Neural Networks (31 percent) and Frequency Ration Models (18 percent).

Despite preference and high utility for certain approaches, there is no agreed upon best method for empirical susceptibility modelling (Goetz et al., 2015). A point of interest that came up in recent literature, however, was the issue of class imbalance in landslide susceptibility data. Studies have shown that a balanced dataset improves overall classification performance compared to an imbalanced dataset in several classifier algorithms. While this does not imply classifiers cannot learn from imbalanced data, the application of sampling methods does indeed aid in improved classifier accuracy for most imbalanced datasets (Haibo & Garcia, 2009). Specific to landslide susceptibility, in a study conducted by Stumpf and Kerle (2011), test runs using Random Forests with naturally imbalanced training sets resulted in serious underestimation of the landslide class. Such biases were undesirable as an over or underestimation of affected areas would lead to over or underestimation of the associated risks. However, treating imbalanced samples is not commonly practiced in the field.

In our study, we will be applying synthetic minority oversampling technique (SMOTE) to expand the quantity of landslide samples and doing comparisons of the results pre- and post-SMOTE. Proposed by Chawla in 2022, SMOTE is an oversampling technique that performs k nearest neighbours on the minority class and interpolates between them to generate new data observations. This method has its advantages over random undersampling, which may throw out potentially useful data; and random oversampling, which may be susceptible to overfitting since it simply replicates existing examples in the minority class (Singh & Sharma, 2019). SMOTE is also generalised to handle datasets with both continuous and nominal features, which will be appropriate for the features available in our study. Several other landslide susceptibility studies (Wang et al., 2018 and Gao et al., 2020) have also used SMOTE method to augment the minority class samples and reported favourable prediction results.

DATA

This project will utilise the dataset obtained from the Landslide Prevention and Innovation Challenge on Zindi Africa Platform that is provided by the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (2022). The dataset contains information on terrain information taken from plots of land samples. Each sample is composed of data from 25 cells, covering an area of 625 m². Each cell represents an area of 5 x 5 m². For cases with a landslide, the middle cell, cell 13, is the location of the landslide. Cell orientation and independent variables available in the dataset are presented in the figure and table below.

Figure 1. Dataset Cell ID allocation

Table 1. Independent variables for landslide identification

DATA PREPARATION

Heatmaps of Predictors

Prior to data preparation, heatmaps of the continuous predictions for the landslide and non-landslide cases were developed to better visualize and understand the average values of the factors across the 25 cells.

Comparing Figures 2 and 3, the heatmaps for selected factors differed for landslide vis-à-vis non-landslide cases. In landslide cases for the elevation factor, the top two rows had higher values of up to 246m compared to the bottom two rows, whereas for the non-landslide cases, the bottom two rows of cells had higher elevation of up to 218m. This pattern was repeated for planform and profile curvature – the landslide cases showed a distinct pattern where the first two rows of cells had the highest values vs the bottom two rows which had the lowest values. Contrarily, the non-landslide cases had the highest values to the left of the plot of land, and the lowest values to the right. The range of values for these three factors were also wider for landslide cases compared to non-landslide cases.

For TWI, the lowest value of 4 was at cell 13 for landslide cases, while the lowest TWI values for non-landslide cases were more dispersed and higher in magnitude, at 50.10, and was located at cell 5. Comparing both figures for the slope factor, cells 8, 9, 13, and 14 had the highest values of up to 36 for landslide cases, while it was cells 17 and 18 for the non-landslide cases, with the highest values of only up to 26.9. Similarly for the length slope factor, the same cells had the highest values for the landslide cases of up to 10, while the non-landslide cases had the highest value in cell 23, and only up to 7.4.

For slope and length slope factor, the landslides cases displayed a pattern where higher values were concentrated in the middle cell and its immediate neighbours, whereas the dispersion of values in non-landslide cases were more

random.

Data Preparation

As cell 13 is the location of the landslide, data for cell 13 was retained for all factors. In line with the interpretation of the heat maps, new features were also created to capture the differences and patterns between cell 13 and its neighbours. The data preparation process is summarized in Figure 4 below.

ANALYTICAL APPROACH

There is no consensus on an optimal machine learning (ML) algorithm as the performance and predictive ability of ML models rely on many factors such as the fundamental quality of the algorithms and the quality of the landslide inventory. As such, literature suggests choosing the best-performing ML model after building several (Liu et al., 2021, Merghadi et al., 2020). Since landslide prediction is a classification problem with the binary outcome of presence/absence of a landslide, and training data has been provided, we will build 4 models using supervised ML classification algorithms. The 4 methods are summarised in the table below (Merghadi et al., 2020, Wang et al., 2020, Hurley, 2012).

ANALYSIS PROCESS AND RESULTS

Sampling for data validation – Original and SMOTE dataset

After preparation of the predictors, the sample was split into 3 sub-groups for training (40%), validation (30%) and testing (30%). To address the main objective of the study, a separate sample was also prepared using SMOTE techniques to address the issues of class imbalance, using the same split in proportion. Consequently, 5432 additional rows of observations with *label* of value 1, i.e., landslide observations were generated. The figures below show the parameters used for the sampling for both Original and SMOTE dataset.

Figure 5. Sampling parameters for Original Sample (left) and SMOTE Sample (right)

Logistic Regression Approach

While logistic regression is not limited by several key assumptions of linear regression and general linear models that are based on ordinary least squares algorithms – linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, and measurement level, it still shares some assumptions with linear regression. One main assumptions of logistic regression is for there to be little or no multicollinearity among the independent variables (Schreiber-Gregory & Bader, 2018). Hence, before performing logistic regression, we first checked for multicollinearity among the continuous independent variables.

Multivariate Analysis of variables

Among the 19 independent variables, two pairs were strongly correlated with correlation values above 0.8. Hence, we remove one variable from each pair, specifically *middle_second_layer_diff_slope* and *middle_second_layer_diff_ls and* retained 17 variables for logistic regression.

Figure 6. Pairwise Correlations sorted in descending order of Correlation (Top 5)

Logistic Regression – Original sample

For logistic regression using the original data, the Whole Model Test shows p-value < 0.0001, lower than significance level of 0.05. Hence, we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the logistic model is useful to explain the *label* (landslide or no landslide).

Figure 7. Whole Model Test for Logistic Regression – Original Sample

For the Lack of Fit (Goodness of Fit) test, Prob>Chisq is 1 and we do not reject the null hypothesis at significance level of 0.05. This supports the conclusion that the model is adequate and there is little to be gained by introducing additional variables.

Figure 8. Lack of Fit Test for Logistic Regression – Original Sample

Both the Effect Likelihood Ratio Tests and Parameter Estimates show the same 12 independent variables as significant given that Prob>ChiSq of these 12 variables are less than significance level of 0.05. Five variables, including the middle cell for length-slope factor and the newly-created variables for planform curvature and profile curvature were found to be not significant.

Among the significant variables, the middle cell (i.e., cell 13) for step duration orographic intensification factor (sdoif), planform curvature (placurv) and profile curvature (procurv) were the strongest indicators. Specifically, if a specific plot of land cell had higher values of sdoif or procurv; or lower value of placurv, it had a higher landslide susceptibility.

Figure 9. Parameter Estimates (left) and Effect Likelihood Ratio Tests (right) for Logistic Regression – Original Sample

Effect Likelihood Ratio Tests					Parameter Estimates						
			$L-R$		Term				Estimate Std Error ChiSquare Prob>ChiSq		
Source	Nparm	DF		ChiSquare Prob>ChiSq	13 sdoif	10.4500744 1.3023543		64.38	$< .0001*$		
13_geology 2	2.		2 249,657016	$< 0.001*$	13 procurv	5.89583935 2.9456749		4.01	$0.0453*$		
13 elevation			106.344569	$< .0001*$	middle_bottom_diff_placurve	4.22162618	4.331776	0.95	0.3298		
13 sdoif			1 75.9969025	$< .0001*$	13_geology 2[2]	0.98177385	0.0688279	203,47	$< 0001*$		
13 twi			1 51.9702884	$< .0001*$	middle_first_layer_diff_ls	0.27385354 0.0462203		35.11	$< 0.001*$		
			1 43.5232645	$< 0.001*$	13 slope	0.10766614 0.0167489		41.32	$< 0.001*$		
middle_first_layer_diff_slope					13_aspect	0.00089602	0.0004385	4.18	$0.0410*$		
13_slope			37.4255029	$< .0001*$	13 elevation		-0.003142 0.0003175	97.90	$< 0.001*$		
middle_first_layer_diff_ls			36.5104448	$< .0001*$	13 Isfactor	-0.0615323	0.045236	1.85	0.1738		
middle_top_diff_elevation			1 35.1865417	$< 0.0001*$	middle_bottom_diff_elevation	-0.1197211	0.0328009	13.32	$0.0003*$		
13_placurv			33.6771537	$< .0001*$	middle_first_layer_diff_slope	-0.1276769	0.0196262	42.32	$< .0001*$		
middle bottom diff elevation			1 13.4173891	$0.0002*$	middle_top_diff_elevation	-0.2000799	0.0340643	34.50	$< .0001*$		
13_aspect			4.1973646	$0.0405*$	middle_bottom_diff_procurve	-0.4862333	4.5184466	0.01	0.9143		
13 procurv			4.05065535	$0.0442*$	13 twi	-0.4972746	0.083024	35.87	$< .0001*$		
13 Isfactor			1 1.78115175	0.1820	13 geology $2[1]$	-0.7672033	0.0892296	73.93	$< .0001*$		
middle_top_diff_procurve			1 1.03044383	0.3101	middle_top_diff_placurve	-3.4328945	4.3889165	0.61	0.4341		
			1 0.94938538	0.3299	middle top diff procurve	-4.5195066	4.4597589	1.03	0.3109		
middle_bottom_diff_placurve					Intercept	-15.402907	1.7673598	75.95	$< 0001*$		
middle_top_diff_placurve			1 0.61242623	0.4339	13 placurv	-16.633313 2.8967521		32.97	$< .0001*$		
middle bottom diff procurve			1 0.01158183	0.9143	For log odds of 1/0						

Looking at results on the test dataset, a low true positive rate of 44%, and a misclassification rate of approximately 20% was observed.

Figure 10. Summary results for Logistic Regression – Original Sample

Confusion Matrix

Logistic Regression – SMOTE sample

Performing logistic regression on the SMOTE-treated data, the Whole Model Test shows p-value < 0.0001. Hence, we can reject the null hypothesis at significance level of 0.05 and conclude that this logistic model is useful to explain the *label* (landslide or no landslide).

Lack of Fit test similarly shows Prob>Chisq less than significance level of 0.05. Hence, we can conclude that the model is adequate and there is little to be gained by introducing additional variables.

Figure 12. Lack of Fit Test for Logistic Regression – SMOTE Sample

Lack Of Fit										
Source	DF	-LogLikelihood ChiSquare								
Lack Of Fit	6489	3164.9199	6329.84							
Saturated	6507		0.0000 Prob>ChiSq							
Fitted	18	3164.9199	0.9197							

Compared with the original sample with 12 significant independent variables, logistic regression on the SMOTE sample has 13 significant independent variables as shown by the Parameter Estimates and Effect Likelihood Ration Tests. Four variables, including the middle cell for aspect and most of the newly-created variables for planform curvature and profile curvature were found to be not significant.

The strongest indicators for this model were similarly the middle cell for sdoif, placurv and procurv. Higher values of sdoif or procurv; or lower value of placurv, indicated a higher likelihood of the land cell having landslide.

True positive rate for the test dataset also improved significantly from 44% to 80%. The misclassification rate, however, increased slightly to 22%.

Figure 14. Summary results for Logistic Regression – SMOTE Sample

Recursive Partitioning Approaches

As prediction techniques under this approach are nonparametric, these methods do not rely on any assumption about the type of dependence of the dependent variable on the predictors (Landau & Barthel, 2010). Therefore, all 19 independent variables were included in the analysis for all six models. To ensure reproducibility of the data, a seed of '1234' was set for both the Bootstrap Forest and Boosted Tree analyses.

Decision Tree – Original sample

For Decision Tree using the original data, the resultant model with 14 splits yielded 15 terminal leaf nodes with a response count ranging from 10 to 274 for landslide observed rows and 25 to 1131 for non-landslide rows. Eight variables were identified to have contributed to the model, with the middle cells (i.e., cell 13) for slope, geology and elevation being identified as the top 3 indicators for landslide susceptibility. Looking at results on the test dataset, a low true positive rate of 36%, and a misclassification rate of approximately 20% was observed.

Figure 16. Summary results for Decision Tree – Original Sample

Fit Details											
Measure					Training Validation				Test Definition		
Entropy RSquare		0.2688		0.2535			0.2475 1-Loglike(model)/Loglike(0)				
Generalized RSquare			0.3863		0.3673			0.3599 (1-(L(0)/L(model))^(2/n))/(1-L(0)^(2/n))			
Mean-Log p				0.4111		0.4196			$0.4235 \sum -Log(\rho[j])/n$		
RASE				0.3634		0.3681			0.3709 J ∑(y[j]-p[j]) ² /n		
Mean Abs Dev					0.2643	0.2697			0.2663 ∑ y[j]-p[j]/n		
Misclassification Rate				0.1967					0.1976 0.1991 > (p[j]≠pMax)/n		
				4346	3259		3259 n				
Confusion Matrix											
	Training					Validation				Test	
	Predicted					Predicted				Predicted	
Actual	Count				Actual	Count			Actual	Count	
Label	$\mathbf{0}$	1			Label	\mathbf{o}	1		Label	$\mathbf{0}$	1
Ω	3113	147		Ω		2317	128		Ω	2319	124
	708	378				516	298			525	291
							Predicted				Predicted
	Predicted										
Actual		Rate			Actual		Rate		Actual		Rate
Label	$\mathbf{0}$		1		Label	\mathbf{o}	1		Label	$\bf{0}$	1
O	0.955	0.045		O		0.948	0.052		$\mathbf 0$	0.949	0.051

Decision Tree – SMOTE Sample

Using the SMOTE-treated data, the resultant decision tree model with 13 splits yielded 14 terminal leaf nodes with a response count ranging from 3 to 1444 for landslide observed rows and 45 to 878 for non-landslide rows. Six variables were identified to have contributed to the model, with the middle cells (i.e., cell 13) for slope, geology and sdoif being identified as the top 3 indicators for landslide susceptibility. Looking at results on the test dataset, the true positive rate noted significant improvement from 36% to close to 90%. The misclassification rate, however, remained stable at 22%.

Column Contributions								
Term	Number of Splits	G^2		Portion				
13_slope	3	1806.65772		0.6345				
13 geology 2	3	379.110951		0.1331				
13_sdoif	\mathfrak{p}	232.431151		0.0816				
13 elevation	3	231.457778		0.0813				
middle_second_layer_diff_ls		150.265143		0.0528				
middle_bottom_diff_elevation		47.5670765		0.0167				
13 Isfactor	Ω			0.0000				
middle_first_layer_diff_ls				0.0000				
13 procurv				0.0000				
middle_top_diff_procurve				0.0000				
middle_bottom_diff_procurve		0		0.0000				
13 placurv				0.0000				
middle top diff placurve		n		0.0000				
middle_bottom_diff_placurve	n			0.0000				
13 twi				0.0000				
13 aspect				0.0000				
middle first layer diff slope	O	n		0.0000				
middle_second_layer_diff_slope	n			0.0000				
middle_top_diff_elevation		n		0.0000				

Figure 17. Column Contributions for Decision Tree – SMOTE Sample

Figure 18. Summary results for Decision Tree – SMOTE Sample

Fit Details

Confusion Matrix

Bootstrap Forest – Original Sample

Bootstrap Forest approach was also conducted on the same 19 variables. Figure 19 shows the parameters used for the analysis.

Figure 19. Bootstrap Forest analysis parameters

The resultant model had 62 trees, 19 terms, and 14 terms sampled per split. The true positive rate of the bootstrap forest model test set was 51%, an improvement over 36%, which was the test accuracy of the decision tree model. The 3 most important predictors were the middle cell (i.e., cell 13) for slope, sdoif and elevation.

Figure 20. Summary results for Bootstrap Forest – Original Sample

	Overall Statistics													
Measure							Training Validation			Test Definition				
	Entropy RSquare		0.5819		0.3288		0.3431 1-Loglike(model)/Loglike(0)							
	Generalized RSquare		0.7113			0.4577			0.4743 (1-(L(0)/L(model)) $\sqrt{(2/n)}$ /(1-L(0) $\sqrt{(2/n)}$)					
	Mean-Log p		0.2350				0.3773 0.3697 $\sqrt{}$ -Log(p[i])/n							
	RASE Mean Abs Dev				0.2552 0.1851					0.3455 0.3451 J > (y[i]-p[i]) ² /n				
	Misclassification Rate				0.0716					0.2521 0.2493 ∑ y[j]-p[j]/n 0.1675 0.1752 [(p[j]≠pMax)/n				
N				4346			3259	3259 n						
	Confusion Matrix													
		Training				Validation				Test				
		Predicted			Predicted						Predicted			
	Actual	Count				Actual	Count			Actual	Count			
	Label	$\mathbf{0}$	1			Label	$\mathbf 0$	1		Label	$\mathbf{0}$	1		
	Ω	3215 266	45 820		Ω		2286 387	159 427		Ω 1	2269 397	174 419		
	Predicted								Predicted		Predicted			
	Actual	Rate			Actual		Rate		Actual	Rate				
	Label	0		1		Label	0		1	Label	0		$\mathbf{1}$	
	Ω	0.986 0.245	0.014 0.755		Ω 1		0.935 0.475	0.065 0.525		Ω	0.929 0.487	0.071 0.513		

Figure 21. Column Contributions for Bootstrap Forest – Original Sample

Bootstrap Forest – SMOTE Sample

Using the SMOTE treated data, Bootstrap Forest approach was also conducted on the same 19 variables using the same analysis parameters. The resultant model had 100 trees, 19 terms, and 14 terms sampled per split. The true positive rate of the bootstrap forest model was 86%, a significant improvement over 51%, which was the test accuracy of the same model using the original data sample. The 3 most important predictors were the middle cell (i.e., cell 13) for slope, elevation and sdoif.

Boosted Tree – Original Sample

Lastly, the same 19 variables were also used to implement a boosted tree analysis. Figure 24 shows the parameters used for the analysis.

Figure 24. Boosted tree analysis parameters

The resultant model had 44 layers and 16 splits per tree. The true positive rate of the boosted tree model was 45%, and a misclassification rate of 19%. All 19 variables contributed to the model, with the middle cell (i.e., cell 13) for geology, slope and elevation identified as the top 3 strongest indicators.

Figure 25. Summary results for Boosted Tree – Original Sample

Figure 26. Column Contributions for Boosted Tree – Original Sample

Boosted Tree – SMOTE Sample

The Boosted Tree approach was also implemented on the SMOTE treated data using the same variables and analysis parameters. The resultant model had 78 layers and 17 splits per tree. The true positive rate of the boosted tree model was 86%, and a misclassification rate of 18%. All 19 variables contributed to the model, however, only the top 2 contributed to more than 10% of the model. The middle cells (i.e., cell 13) for geology, slope and elevation were identified as the top 3 indicators.

MODEL COMPARISON & EVALUATION

FACTORS OF IMPORTANCE

Each model generated a unique set of variables and varies in contribution proportion to the model. It was observed that the trend for Logistic Regression was distinctive from the recursive partitioning models.

For Logistic Regression, the planform curvature, profile curvature and step duration orographic intensification factor were the variables with highest magnitude of estimates for log odds. These same variables however, featured much lower importance in the recursive partitioning models. Instead, across Decision Tree, Bootstrap Forest and Boosted Tree, slope, elevation and geology were noted as important variables. Notably, new variables that were created to calculate the differences in parameters between the landslide cell (i.e., cell 13) and its neighbouring cells did not perform as well as untreated variables in all models.

Table 3. Summary of variable importance on test datasets

Note: The heatmap is visualised per data column. Measure used for Logistic Regression are the Parameter Estimates for Log Odds of 1/0. Measure used for Decision Tree, Bootstrap Forest and Boosted Tree are the portion of column contributions.

OVERALL MODEL PERFORMANCE

Comparing the receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) of the models, the differences among the models were not visibly significant. All models were noted to have good predictive power, with the curve bowing above the diagonal. The areas under the curve, an indicator of how good the classifier performs, were also similar across the models. There were also no major fluctuations in the curve, indicating that the models are stable.

Figure 29. ROC Comparison for all models on Original Sample (top row) and SMOTE Sample (bottom row) (from left to right: Logistic Regression, Decision Tree, Bootstrap Forest, Boosted Tree)

For more detailed comparison among the models, we investigate further into the key performance indicators. The table below summarises the key indicators between the training and test datasets.

Table 4. Summary of Model Performance on Training Datasets

Table 5. Summary of Model Performance on Test Datasets

	Logistic Regression			Decision Tree		Bootstrap Forest	Boosted Tree		
	Original	SMOTE	Original	SMOTE	Original	SMOTE	Original	SMOTE	
ΤP	0.441	0.801	0.357	0.897	0.513	0.860	0.450	0.864	
ΤN	0.923	0.757	0.949	0.656	0.929	0.790	0.925	0.772	
Accuracy	80%	78%	80%	78%	82%	82%	81%	82%	
Misclassification	20%	22%	20%	22%	18%	18%	19%	18%	
Precision	66%	77%	70%	72%	71%	80%	67%	86%	
Sensitivity	44%	80%	36%	90%	51%	86%	45%	79%	
Specificity	92%	76%	95%	66%	93%	79%	92%	85%	

OVERFITTING ASSESSMENT

The misclassification rate between training and test datasets was used as an indicator to assess if there are signs of overfitting across the eight models. For both models implemented using logistic regression and decision tree, misclassification remained stable between the training and test datasets, while a bump in misclassification rate was observed for bootstrap forest and boosted tree. The increase for bootstrap forest was the largest, increasing by approximately 10%; suggesting that this model may be slightly overfitted.

OTHER ASSESSMENT METRICS

Models would be assessed on two levels, first models developed using the original dataset, and at the overall level across all eight models. Aside from comparing the true positive and misclassification proportions, the accuracy, precision, sensitivity and specificity of the test dataset of each model are tabulated in Table 5. Among the models implemented on the original dataset, the model using the Bootstrap Forest approach resulted in better outcomes, with the highest true positive rate of 51%. While sensitivity rate for this model was at a modest 51%, it was also highest compared to all other models. However, as mentioned in earlier paragraphs, a sizable increase in misclassification rate was observed for this model between the training and test dataset, a potential sign of overfitting. Therefore, depending on the purpose of the model, there may be value in considering the logistic regression or boosted tree method, with slightly poorer results, but lower likelihood of overfitting.

Across all 4 methods, the test dataset with the SMOTE treated sample recorded a significant increase in true positive cases detected, compared to when the methods were applied to the original test dataset. Notably, overall accuracy of the model did not improve despite higher true positive scores for models implemented on the SMOTE treated test samples. This lack of improvement may be due to the class imbalance, with the successful number of non-landslide cases predicted on the original dataset accounting for the high accuracy proportions.

Two important measurements for consideration are the Precision and Sensitivity levels of the models. Precision quantifies the number of positive landslide predictions that belong in the landslide class; a sharper tool compared to accuracy that is specific to the landslide class. Models implemented on the SMOTE treated sample performed better, when compared to the original sample, regardless of method. Between methods, Boosted Tree appeared to have recorded the highest improvement, increasing its precision rate by 19%. Sensitivity quantifies the proportion of observed landslide cases that were predicted as such. This is an important measure as a model with low sensitivity would mean that a sizable proportion of cases go undetected, and in the case of landslide detection, it may be disastrous. Like precision, models implemented on the SMOTE treated sample recorded higher sensitivity than those implemented on the original sample. Among the methods, Decision Tree recorded the sharpest improvement of 34%.

Lastly, specificity quantifies the proportion of observed non-landslide cases that were accurately predicted as such. It was interesting to note that across all models, specificity went down for models that were implemented on the SMOTE treated sample. As such, it is important to seek a balance between the measures when assessing model performance. For example, the decision tree model on the SMOTE sample noted the highest sensitivity, but lowest specificity.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

This study set out to understand the efficacy of different classifier methods on detecting landslide susceptibility and if addressing the issue of class imbalance using SMOTE would improve overall classification performance compared to an imbalanced dataset, and our findings showed recursive partitioning methods such as Bootstrap Forest and Boosted Tree tended to yield better outcomes, compared to logistic regression. These methods, however, were also more likely to show signs of overfitting and should be monitored closely if chosen for future studies. On addressing class imbalance, results improved across all 4 classifier methods, to varying extents. Decision Tree applied on the SMOTE sample led to a model with the highest sensitivity, however Boosted Tree on the SMOTE sample yielded the most balanced results across multiple measures. Therefore, there is value in exploring sampling techniques such as SMOTE when doing similar landslide susceptibility studies in the future. It would also be useful to test multiple classifier methods and evaluate them based on the decision threshold required on a case-by-case basis, in order to decide on the best approach.

With these results in mind, there may be value in expanding the study on three fronts. First, use classifier methods such as Artificial Neural Networks and Frequency Ration Models that were not explored in this study. Second, to experiment with other sampling methods such as SMOTE with Tomek to see if results would improve beyond just using SMOTE. And lastly, to replicate the study across other landslide sites, to understand if improvements to the model is uniform across all sites, or due to unique features observed in this specific Hong Kong case.

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