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MACHINE LEARNING ALGORITHM IN THE PREDICTION OF GEOMORPHIC INDICES FOR APPRAISAL THE INFLUENCE OF LANDSCAPE STRUCTURE ON FLUVIAL SYSTEMS, SOUTHEASTERN - BRAZIL

ALGORITMO DE APRENDIZADO DE MÁQUINA NA PREDIÇÃO DE ÍNDICES GEOMÓRFICOS PARA AVALIAÇÃO DA INFLUÊNCIA DA ESTRUTURA DA PAISAGEM EM SISTEMAS FLUVIAIS, SUDESTE – BRASIL

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Abstract:

The Abaeté hydrographic basin was influenced by sediments (Proterozoic and Cretaceous) and by volcanism (Upper Cretaceous). The objective was to identify whether the drainage configuration is due to structural factors or by neotectonics. We use geomorphic indices (Basin Asymmetry Factor, Stream Length-gradient Index - SL, and Channel Steepness Index - k_{sn}). We elaborate longitudinal profiles in the rivers of sub-basins. We apply the Random Forest (RF) Machine Learning algorithm in the prediction of the SL and k_{sn} indices, with the selection of relevant covariates. The RF was efficient in predicting, with better performance in the k_{sn} (R² 0.38), and indicating the areas of influence of the indices. The highest values of the indices are in zones of lithological contact with different resistances, favoring a sharp change in channel slope (knickpoints). In these zones, there is also a predominance of sub-basins tilted, and the longitudinal profiles of the rivers show uplift or subsidence. Therefore, structural factors conditioned the drainage of the basin.

A bacia hidrográfica de Abaeté foi influenciada por sedimentação (Proterozóico e Cretáceo) e processo vulcânicos (cretáceo superior). O objetivo foi identificar se há um controle estrutural dos sistemas fluviais relacionado ao vulcanismo ou por neotectônica. Utilizamos os índices geomórficos (Fator de Assimetria de Bacia, Stream Lengthgradient Index – SL, e Channel Steepness Index - k_{sn}); elaboramos perfis longitudinais nos rios de sub-bacias. Aplicamos o algoritmo de Aprendizado de Máquina Random Forest (RF) na predição dos índices SL e k_{sn} , com seleção de covariáveis importantes. O RF foi eficiente na predição, com melhor performance em k_{sn} (R² 0,38), e indicando as áreas de influência dos índices. Os valores mais altos dos índices estão em zonas de contato litológico com diferentes resistências, favorecendo mudanças acentuadas de declividade no canal (knickpoints). Nessas zonas, também há predominância de sub-bacias basculhadas, e os perfis longitudinal dos rios mostram elevação ou subsidência. Portanto, fatores estruturais condicionam os sistemas fluviais da bacia.

1. Introduction

The river systems are sensitive to the evolution of the relief, generating changes in the morphology of the rivers (FONT *et al.*, 2010), abrupt changes in slope in the longitudinal profile of the river (AMBILI & NARAYANA, 2014), and asymmetric basins (EL HAMDOUNI *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, studies use analysis of the drainage network to identify structural control (KALE *et al.*, 2014), and also deformations by neotectonics (GARROTE *et al.*, 2008; MONTEIRO *et al.*, 2010; ALVES *et al.*, 2019).

Visual assessment of drainage characteristics is essential, but quantitative methods are complementary and make the analysis more objective, and geomorphic indices perform this function. Among these indices, the Stream Length-gradient Index method (SL), identifies abrupt changes in slope along the profile (knickpoints) (HACK, 1973). Based on the SL indices, the Normalized channel steepness index (k_{sn}) (WOBUS *et al.*, 2006), has the advantage of inserting variables according to the drainage characteristics (CASTILLO *et al.*, 2014). There is also the Basin Asymmetry Factor index, capable of identifying tilted hydrographic basin (HARE & GARDNER, 1985). Studies demonstrate the efficiency of these methods in different geological contexts (GARROTE *et al.*, 2008; FONT *et al.*, 2010; MONTEIRO *et al.*, 2010; CYR *et al.*, 2014; SOUZA & PEREZ FILHO, 2017), providing a quick assessment for large areas, and with quantitative data.

The geographic information system (GIS) combined with topographic data from digital elevation models (DEM), represent an advance in the extraction of geomorphic indices (TROIANI *et al.*, 2014; ALVES *et al.*, 2019). However, some data may have limitations in cartographic representation, for example, the SL and k_{sn} indices are represented by points (MONTEIRO *et al.*, 2010) or by drainage network (EL HAMDOUNI *et al.*, 2008; CASTILLO *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, to advance the cartographic representation, studies use kriging methods, creating homogeneous zones of influence of the indices (knickzones) (PÉREZ-PEÑA *et al.*, 2009; FONT *et al.*, 2010). However, kriging efficiency depends on point density, spatial dependence and anisotropy (OLIVER & WEBSTER, 1990); therefore, these characteristics that can be limiting, justify testing new methods of prediction.

Recently, Machine Learning algorithms (ML) has gained prominence in spatial prediction studies. In general, ML has the advantage of performing spatialization from point values (variable), based on a database in raster format (predictive covariates), and using some statistical algorithm (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013). Studies show the efficiency of ML in the area of geology (CRACKNELL *et al.*, 2014), geomorphology (MOHAMMADY *et al.*, 2019) and pedology (SOUZA *et al.*, 2018; GOMES *et al.*, 2019). Besides, ML can perform better than the kriging method (CLODOAL-VES, 2019), especially when the variables do not have spatial dependence; however, there are no studies on the prediction of geomorphic indices with ML.

Most studies with geomorphic indices are on tectonically active margins, focusing on neotectonics (SEEBER & GORNITZ, 1983; TROIANI *et al.*, 2014). However, in Brazil, passive margin, some studies attest to the occurrence of neotectonic processes, by abrupt changes in river direction, knickpoints, and straight rivers (ETCHEBEHERE *et al.*, 2004; SOUZA *et al.*, 2011; DORANTI-TIRITAN *et al.*, 2014), with some characteristics quantified by geomorphic indices.

In Brazil, major tectonic events occurred mainly in the separation of the South American continent with Africa, with successive continental lava spills, becoming the largest in the world, since the late Jurassic (FODOR & HANAN, 2000). However, post-rift-phase, the South American plate passed over a thermal anomaly (Trindade hotspot), promoting intense magmatism (alkaline and basaltic) (FRAGOSO *et al.*, 2011). The phenomenon formed kamafugite volcanic and subvolcanic rocks, recognized, in addition to Brazil, in two locations in the world, in Africa (Uganda and Zaire) and Europe (northeast of Italy) (SGARBI, 2000).

In addition to the deposition of volcanic materials (Cretaceous), such events also generated a set of geological faults (SGARBI, 2000), with the possibility of reactivation in the Quaternary, being able to change the morphology of the current drainage. Some studies demonstrate reactivation processes in the interior of Brazil, for example, in the region of Poços de Caldas-Minas Gerais, by reactivation of the Triassic shear zones (GROHMANN *et al.*, 2007; DORANTI-TIRITAN *et al.*, 2014).

This study aims to identify evidence of structural and/or neotectonic control using geomorphic indices and prediction methods of indices by the Machine Learning. The study area is the Abaeté hydrographic basin, located in the central portion of the state of Minas Gerais, where there was an intense process of sedimentary deposition during the Proterozoic and volcanism in the Cretaceous.

1.1 Physiography and geological framework

The study area is the Abaeté hydrographic basin, located in southeastern Brazil (Minas Gerais state), between the coordinates $-17 \circ 85$ 'to $-19 \circ 36$ ' latitude S $-45 \circ 21$ 'to $-46 \circ 31$ ' longitude W, with an area of 5,824 km² (Figure 1). The climatic domain is Cwa (Köppen classification), with an average annual precipitation of 1,700 mm.

The basin has Proterozoic and Cretaceous sedimentary rocks and the influence of magmatic activity during the Cretaceous (Figure 1). In general, in Proterozoic lithologies, occur depressions and dissected areas. On the other hand, the Cretaceous rocks form plateaus, forming two morpho sculptural compartments, one preserved surface (Mata da Corda Group), the other dissected (Areado Group) (OLIVEIRA & RODRIGUES, 2007).

The first sedimentation occurred Proterozoic forming the Bambuí Group rocks, predominantly siliciclastic mixed with carbonate (UHLEIN *et al.*, 2019). The Lagoa Formosa Formation corresponds to older deposits, occurring upstream of the basin. The Formation is composed predominantly of Siltite, with small intercalations of Clay Siltite, Argilite, and in lesser quantity Sandstone. In general, the outcrops are intensely fractured and very weathered (FRAGOSO *et al.*, 2011).

The Serra de Santa Helena Formation occurs as a small strip downstream of the basin, limited by two faults SW-SE direction. They are predominantly pelitic sediments, with Slates, Siltstones, Shales and fine Quartzites, Limestones, dark Metapelites and Marble. The Serra da Saudade Formation (Neoproterozoic) has a larger area, with shales, green Argilites and Siltstones ("Verdete") (LIMA *et al.*, 2007). In this region, the drainage has high sinuosity indicating structural control, and there are some fault systems (SW-SE). The Três Marias Formation occurs in the downstream, with the presence of Arcosean Sandstones, Sandstones and Siltstones. The rocks are fractured, and the main river flows over a geological fault (FRAGOSO *et al.*, 2011).

The second sedimentation process occurred in the Cretaceous and is related to crustal stretching generated during the opening of the South Atlantic. This extensional phase produced a basin with a Graben/Horst system (FRAGOSO *et al.*, 2011). The region was filled with predominantly continental sediments (Grupo Areado), forming pinkish to reddish and yellow sandstones, with the presence of fractures. The rocks form mainly the basal part of the basin plateaus, where the drainage has sections with subsidence.

In Upper Cretaceous, volcanic processes occurred in the region, forming the Mata da Corda Group, and are currently at the top of the plateaus. These are alkaline rocks of effusive, pyroclastic, plutonic, and epiclastic origin, due to spills and even of explosive origin (Kamafugites) (FODOR & HANAN, 2000; BAGGIO *et al.*, 2015).



Figure 1 - (A) location of the study area; and (B) Geological map of the Abaeté basin.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Longitudinal profile and geomorphic indices

We used Digital Elevation Model (DEM) 1 arcsecond Shuttle Radar Topographic Mission (SRTM) (JARVIS *et al.*, 2008) to extract the drainage network and delimit sub-basins based on the drainage order \geq 4 (STRAHLER, 1957).

We elaborate longitudinal profiles for each subbasin associating the DEM and the main river. The profiles allow identifying anomalous sections of the drainage in relation the best fit line with a coefficient R^2 > 0.80. We consider anomalous stretches (subsidence/ uplift) the distances greater than 10 m, referring to the best fit line (SANTOS *et al.*, 2011).

We applied three geomorphic indices, Basin Asymmetry Factor (AF), Stream Length-gradient Index (SL), and Normalized Channel Steepness Index (k_{sn}). The AF indices allow the identification of tilted subbasins (EL HAMDOUNI *et al.*, 2008). AF values close to or equal to 50 indicate that the basin is symmetrical. Values > 50 indicate tilting of the right bank of the river (facing downstream), and values < 50 indicate tilting of the left margin of the basin (Equation 1)

$$AF = (Ar/At).100$$
 Equation 1

where AF: basin asymmetry factor; Ar: right basin area (i.e., facing downstream); and At: total area of the drainage basin.

The Stream Length-gradient Index (SL) allow assessing drainage anomalies (HACK, 1973). In general, the longitudinal profile of the river tends to exhibit concave curvature, while abrupt changes in slope are considered anomalous conditions and appear as steps along the river (knickpoints). The knickpoints may be related to differential erosion of rocks, lower flow tributary junction, and upstream erosion due to lower base level; once discarding these possibilities, neotectonics appears as an explanation (KELLER & PINTER, 1996). To calculate the SL index, we use the Knickpoint Finder software (QUEIROZ et al., 2015). The software calculates the index for the total drainage extent (SLt), for segments (SLs), and determines classes of anomalies based on the SLs/SLt ratio (SEEBER & GORNITZ, 1983). (SLs/SLt > 10 1st order anomalies, between 2 and 10, 2nd order anomalies, and < 2 without anomalies). Equations 2, 3 and 4, respectively.

$$SLt = \frac{\Delta H}{\ln(L)}$$
 Equation 2

$$SLs = (\frac{\Delta h}{\Delta l}) L$$
 Equation 3

$$SLs/SLt = \frac{SLs}{SLt}$$
 Equation 4

where: L: total length of the channel; Δ H: elevation difference between the extremes of a given stream reach; Δ h = elevation difference in the segment; Δ l = length of the segment.

We used the Normalized Channel Steepness Index (k_{sn}) (WOBUS *et al.*, 2006), which is derived from the slope–area regression, and generates a normalization of the variables by the channel concavity indices (Equation 5).

$$S = K_s \times A^{-\theta}$$
 Equation 5

where S: channel slope; K_s : channel–steepness index; A: drainage area (surrogate of stream discharge); θ : concavity index (slope–area regression).

The k_{sn} index allows correlating rates of uplift and denudation of a hydrographic basin concerning the evolution of longitudinal profiles. Regarding the concavity index (θ ref), the value of 0.45 is generally used, which is a reference for bedrock rivers (CASTILLO *et al.*, 2014). However, the applicability of θ ref in mixed alluvial-bedrock channel can lead to misinterpretations. Therefore, we chose to calculate a specific value of θ for each sub-basin (SOUZA & PEREZ FILHO, 2017), where θ is obtained from the linear regression values of the correlation between the slope and the accumulated area in log-log. The variables to obtain the k_{sn} index were inserted in Topotoolbox 2.0 in programming language Matlab[®], it is a set of scripts to extract k_{sn} values from a DEM automatically (SCHWANGHART & SCHERLER, 2014).

2.2 Spatial prediction SL and k_{sn} indices

We applied a methodological framework in R software (RCORE TEAM, 2016) to predict the SL and k_{sn} indices (Figure 2). The script is with the Random Forest algorithm, which performs classification and regression analysis and allows data to be predicted for non-sampled areas (BREIMAN, 2001). The RF uses a group of covariates and provides statistics on the precision and uncertainty of the prediction process.

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Figure 2 - Flowchart of the methodological sequence to obtain the geomorphic indices (AF, SL e ksn), the predictive covariates, and the prediction process with Random Forest algorithm with selection of important covariates, and 50 times training and validation process.

The RF uses point data (variable), but the k_{sn} is represented by a drainage network. To associate this information, we convert the results from k_{sn} to raster and extract the value at each point in SL. Another step, consisted in the elaboration of the covariate database (raster format). SRTM geomorphometric covariates (36), listed in Gomes *et al.* (2019); Sena *et al.* (2020); geology and geotectonic map (2) (PINTO *et al.*, 2003); geomorphology map (1); and asymmetry factor (1).

In general, spatial prediction studies using ML, indicate that the excess of covariates does not guarantee better results, and also increases the computational processing time (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013; SOUZA *et al.*, 2018; GOMES *et al.*, 2019). To reverse this problem, we applied two steps: (i) we discard covariates with high correlation concerning the database (Pearson > 95%) by findcorrelation (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013); (ii) we selected a group of covariates by RFE (Random Forest-Recursive Feature Elimination) (GRANITTO *et al.*, 2006; KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013), and the ideal subset criterion was an R² with a 3% decrease concerning the subset with the highest R².

The prediction uses the subset of covariates selected by RF-RFE. However, to avoid a biased prediction process, we generate the prediction 50 times. During each step, the RF algorithm randomly selects 75% of the samples for training and validates with 25%. This process is essential because it indicates the variability of the prediction since different clusters of data generate different results (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013). The result is 50 maps for each geomorphic index, and the average of the maps is the final result.

The model also provides statistical data that shows accuracy (coefficient of determination R²) and error (root mean squared error RMSE, and mean absolute error MAE), usual procedures in ML (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013; CHAGAS *et al.*, 2018; SOUZA *et al.*, 2018; GOMES *et al.*, 2019). The values of R² RMSE and MAE are obtained with equations 6, 7 and 8, respectively.

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{n} (X_{obs,i} - X_{mod,i})^{2}}{\sum_{n} (X_{obs,i} - \overline{X})^{2}} \qquad \text{Equation 6}$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{obs,i} - X_{mod,i})^{2}}{n}}$$
Equation 7

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |X_{obs,i} - X_{mod,i}|}{n}$$
 Equation 8

where x_{obs} is the observed value; x_{mod} is the predicted value by the use of the Machine Learning algorithm; *n* is the number of observations.

The analysis of the geomorphic indices was supported by the comparative analysis with other information (geology, geomorphology, drainage configuration, longitudinal profile, geomorphometric data, and basin asymmetry).

3. Results

The sub-basins tend to be symmetrical in the areas of lower elevation with smoothed reliefs, and the subbasins tilted are located to the south, in escarpment areas of the highlands, showing similar tilting direction (Figure 3). The region has geological faults, predominantly perpendicular to the rivers, except in the downstream area, where there is a fault in the main river bed.

The longitudinal profiles showed that in the zones of lithological contacts, there is an uplift or subsidence of the profile concerning the best fit line (Figure 4). For example, the uplift of the profile occurs in rocks of the Três Marias Formation (sub-basins 1 and 2), whereas, in the contact areas of the Mata da Corda/Areado Groups, there is a predominance of subsidence (sub-basins 4 e 5).

The SL indices identified 912 points (knickpoints), with maximum values of 50 SLt, 783 SLs, and 26 SLs/

SLt. The k_{sn} indices classified 1,715 km of drainage, with a maximum value of 293 and an average of 42.

The prediction of indices by ML used covariates to assist in the prediction (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013; SOUZA *et al.*, 2018). From the findcorrelation and RF-RFE function, a maximum of 11 covariates was selected in the prediction in the SLt, and a minimum of 7 in the SLs/SLt, ranked by level of importance (Table 1). Among the covariates, three predominated in the selection of the RFE, (Ls Factor, Standardized Height, Morphometric Protection index), and the geology covariate was significant in the second k_{sn} prediction level.

The prediction process was efficient; the values of R² in training and validation were similar, showing low overfitting (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013). The highest R² was in k_{sn} (R² 0.38) and lower in SLs/SLt (0.25). The RMSE and MAE evaluate the error in the prediction process, and the values are expressed in units of the analyzed variable (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013). Therefore, in our results, the RMSE and MAE were below the average in each index, and there was low variation (CV% variation coefficient) in the 50-runs predictions. CV% was higher than 10% only in the SLs and k_{sn} indexes, while the majority was <5 (Tables 1 and 2).



Figure 3 - (A) Asymmetry factor of sub-basins (AF) and tipping direction; (B) Digital elevation model, indicating sinuous relief fronts associated with geological faults (B1), and rectilinear relief fronts (B2).

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Figure 4 - Longitudinal profiles of rivers in the sub-basins and identification of lithological changes (vertical lines). A.G: Areado Group; M.C.G: Mata da Corda Group; L.F.F: Lagoa Formasa Formation; T.M.F: Três Marias Formation; S.S.F: Serra da Saudade Formation; S.S.H.F: Serra de Santa Helena Formation.

| Table 1: Performance of the Random Forest algorithm and selection of covariates using RF-RFE in the predi- | ction of |
|--|----------|
| geomorphic indices. | |

| Variable | R ² | RMSE | X1 | X2 | X3 | X4 | X5 | X6 | X7 | X8 | X9 | X10 | X11 |
|-----------------|----------------|--------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-----|
| SLt | 0.25 | 9.22 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 7 | 11 | 12 | 9 | 14 | 3 | 16 | 15 |
| SLs | 0.27 | 104.52 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 8 | 10 | 13 | 15 | 15 | ns | ns | ns |
| SLs/SLt | 0.13 | 4.55 | 1 | 3 | 6 | 8 | 7 | 2 | 15 | ns | ns | ns | ns |
| K _{sn} | 0.38 | 25.90 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 9 | 7 | 14 | 3 | 12 | 16 | ns | ns |

X1, X2... X11: Importance levels; 1: LS factor; 2: Standardized Height; 3: Morphometric protection index; 4: Geologia; 5: Normalized height; 6: Curvature profile; 7: Cross Sectional Curvature; 8: Curvature longitudinal; 9: Channel base level; 10: Slope; 11: Mid slope positon; 12: DEM; 13: Real surface area; 14: Terrain surface texture; 15: Curvatute minimal; 16: Slope height; ns: Not selected:

| Variable | R ² | CV (%) R ² | RMSE | CV (%) RMSE | MAE | CV % MAE | | | | | |
|-----------------|----------------|--------------------------|------------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| | Training | | | | | | | | | | |
| SLt | 0.14 (± 0.02) | 15.57 | 9.21 (± 0.23) | 2.46 | 6.64 (± 0.15) | 2.28 | | | | | |
| SLs | 0.23 (± 0.02) | 10.59 | 104.84 (± 5.26) | 5.02 | 68.10 (± 2.16) | 3.18 | | | | | |
| SLs/SLt | 0.15 (± 0.02) | 13.92 | 4.53 (± 0.14) | 3.11 | $3.24 (\pm 0.08)$ | 2.54 | | | | | |
| K _{sn} | 0.39 (± 0.02) | 5.74 | 25.39 (± 1.27) | 5.01 | 17.42 (± 0.56) | 3.22 | | | | | |
| | Validation | | | | | | | | | | |
| SLt | 0.14 (± 0.03) | 24.79 | 9.30 (± 0.51) | 5.53 | $6.61(\pm 0.51)$ | 4.19 | | | | | |
| SLs | 0.22 (± 0.04) | 18.10 | 104.11 (± 12.45) | 11.95 | 67.60 (± 12.45) | 4.97 | | | | | |
| SLs/SLt | 0.13 (± 0.04) | 28.11 | 4.51 (± 0.32) | 7.10 | 3.20 (± 0.32) | 4.62 | | | | | |
| K _{sn} | 0.37 (± 0.05) | 13.82 | 26.15 (± 2.95) | 11.26 | 17.61 (± 2.95) | 5.72 | | | | | |

 Table 2: Statistical performance of the Random Forest algorithm in the spatial prediction of geomorphic indices (50 predictions).

In the spatial distribution of the indices (Figure 5), the highest SLt, SLs, SLs/SLt, and k_{sn} values are mainly on plateaus and steep zones of the basin, where lithologies of the Areado and Mata da Corda Group oc-

cur. The indices tend to rise in the areas of geological faults, for example, in downstream of the basin, a fact more evident in the SLt and k_{sn} indices.



Figure 5 - verage maps of geomorphic indices (SLt, SLs, SLs/SLt, and ksn) from the Random Forest algorithm.

The distribution of indices (SLt, SLs, SLs/SLt, k_{sn}) by geological units (Figure 6), showed the highest averages in rocks of the Três Marias Formation in the downstream portion. In the sequence, the rocks of the Serra de Santa Helena Formation showed high averages, and this lithology occupies a small territorial

extension and has only 18 points (knickpoints). In the Mata da Corda Group with 41 knickpoints, the average of the SLt was similar concerning other geological units. Moreover, in all indices there was a low variation trend, concentrating the values from the first to the third quartile and close to the average.



Figure 6 - Mean, median, standard deviation, 1st and 3rd Quartile, near and far outliers and interquartile range of geomorphic indices (Stream Length – gradient index by total drainage extension (SLt), by segments (SLs), ratio (SLs / SLt); and Normalized Channel Steepness index (Ksn)). They are separated by geological domains: A.G: Areado Group; M.C.G: Mata da Corda Group; L.F.F: Lagoa Formosa Formation; T.M.F: Três Marias Formation; S.S F: Serra da Saudade Formation; S.S.H.F: Serra de Santa Helena Formation.

4. Discussion

4.1 Prediction of geomorphic indices (SL e k_{sn})

In spatial prediction, ML efficiency depends on three steps: (i) the R² values of the training and validation process cannot differ significantly; (ii) the contribution of predictive covariates to explain the spatial distribution of variables; and (iii) of the statistical levels of error of the prediction (YESILNACAR & TOPAL, 2005; KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013; SOUZA *et al.*, 2018; GOMES *et al.*, 2019). The prediction of the indices indicated the best performance in k_{sn} (R² 0.38) and the lowest in SLt (R² 0.25) (Table 1). Although there are no studies on the prediction of geomorphic indices by ML, there are studies in other areas that classify R² < 0.50 as good. for example, Gomes *et al.* (2019) studying carbon in the soil, identified R² from 0.28 to 0.32; and Yesilnacar & Topal (2005) in mapping landslides, obtained R² between 0.36 to 0.49. In general, the better performance of R² is highly dependent on the nature of a data set, as well as covariates that assist in the prediction.

A better indicator of ML performance is when the R^2 values of training and validation do not differ significantly (low overfitting) (KUHN & JOHNSON, 2013). Therefore, R^2 high in training and low in the validation process, indicates that the model is good at predicting with a portion of samples, but fails to predict in unsampled areas when subjected to validation, this being the main function of the model (MEYER *et al.*, 2018). Thus, in our results there was no overfitting and the model trains and validates appropriately (Table 2), and the architecture of the RF model contributes to low overfitting (BREIMAN, 2001). Furthermore, during the 50 predictions the values of R^2 varied little (CV%).

Regarding the selection of predictive covariates, three covariates were predominant (Table 1). The Lsfactor, as it measures the length and gradient of the slope; Standardized Height, indicates the vertical distance between the base and standardized slope index; e Morphometric Protection Index, a measure of the openness/ protection calculated by analyzing the degree to which the surrounding relief protects the given cell. In all cases, the predominance of these covariates is consistent, since the indices (SL and k_{sn}) are related to changes in slope, being a predominant aspect in the covariates.

Concerning the uncertainty of prediction (Table 2), three characteristics of the error indicate good performance: (i) RMSE levels were below the average of the values of the indices (ii) RMSE e MAE during the 50 predictions varied little (CV%); and (iii) error levels were similar in training and validation. Therefore, statically the performance of RF in the prediction of geomorphic indices was satisfactory, and our results confirm that RF is a robust prediction algorithm, corroborating with other studies (NAWAR & MOUAZEN, 2017; GOMES *et al.*, 2019).

4.2 Spatial variability of geomorphic indices and longitudinal profile

The region of steep terrain in the south of the basin, where there are rocks from the Mata da Corda and Areado Groups, predominates sub-basins tilted to the right (AF = 61 to 73) (Figure 3 and Figure 1). The concentration and predominance of the same tilting direction are indicative of a common structural control among the sub-basins. In general, we observed that there are geological faults that tend to be perpendicular to the main river of the sub-basins. However, when tipping is by neotectonics, the geological faults are located close to the central axis of the basin (SALAMUNI *et al.*, 2008), and only in sub-

basins 1 and 4 did it show this characteristic.

The lithology can promote a structural control generating asymmetric basin (EL HAMDOUNI *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, some characteristics of the Mata da Corda Group can control the landforms, forming plateaus (OLIVEIRA & RODRIGUES, 2007). The presence of ferruginous laterites and compact lithologies (Figure 7A and Figure 7B) inhibits vertical and lateral water flow (BAGGIO *et al.*, 2015). However, the underlying rocks (Areado Group) do not have the same lithological resistance, and this favors the formation of cliffs on the plateaus and altitude gradient influences the configuration of the sub-basins.

The reactivation of geological faults is not the main factor for tilting sub-basins in the region. For example, in sub-basin 4 (AF = 73), there is a geological fault parallel to the main river, coinciding with an escarpment, which even controls drainage, as the main river presents an inflection for SE (~90°) (Figure 3). However, the origin of the fault is related to the Graben/Horst system, originated during the South Atlantic rift phase (FRAGOSO *et al.*, 2011). In this sector, due to the distinct lithological resistance in the contact of the Mata Corda/Areado Groups, it favors the asymmetry of the basin.

The Mata da Corda Group protects the top of the relief, forming a residual plateau with escarpments with high sinuosity (OLIVEIRA & RODRIGUES, 2007) (Figure $3B_1$). The sinuosity is indicative of the non-reactivation of geological faults in the Quaternary, since in mountain fronts bounded by active faults tend to have a linear geometry (KELLER & PINTER, 1996; MODENESI-GAUTTIERI *et al.*, 2002). However, the geological fault favors the erosive processes, contributing to the formation of steep slopes, and this influences the asymmetric basins.

Although our analyzes do not indicate reactivation of geological faults, this does not extinguish the occurrence of neotectonic processes. In some sectors, there are rectilinear relief forms associated with geological faults (Figure $3B_2$); therefore, we just indicate that this is not a significant factor in generating asymmetric sub-basins.

In the plateaus and escarpments, the indices values are higher (SL, SLs, SLs/SLt and k_{sn}); we attribute this result to the elevation gradient in zones of lithological contact. This fact is evident when we observe the longitudinal profile of the rivers (Figure 4). In general, in the areas of contact between Cretaceous and Proterozoic, the profile assumes a steep slope (Cretaceous), and a smoother profile (Proterozoic). This behavior is because the sediments of the Areado Group have less resistance than the Proterozoic rocks (Figure 7C). In general, steep river channels due to resistant rocks, has low incision rates of the channel, while channels steep due to rapid rock uplift rates, then both channel incision and hillslope erosion should be high (CYR *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, this last characteristic does not occur, a fact evident in sub-basins 5, 6, 7, and 8 (Figure 4).

The old landforms (Graben/Horst system) (FRA-GOSO et al., 2011), also influence the drainage and configuration of sub-basins. Over time, the ablation of part of the sediments that filled the Graben (FRAGOSO et al., 2011; BAGGIO et al., 2015) forming escarpments at the edges of the plateaus (OLIVEIRA & RODRIGUES, 2007), exposing rocks with different lithological resistances, favoring the formation of knickpoints. Therefore, these changes are reflected in the longitudinal profile. According to Larue (2008), the knickzones of lithological origin maintain strong vertical stability during all the river incision stages, and this characteristic occurs in sub--basins 4, 5 and 6 (Figure 4), however, in areas with less lithological variation along the river, the profile assumes a more stable configuration concerning the best fit line, for example, sub-basins 7 and 8 (Figure 4).

Another fact that influences drainage is the shear

zones. The origin of the magmatism of the Mata da Corda Group is also related to shearing (CAMPOS & DAR-DENNE, 1997; FRAGOSO *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, in shear zones are areas of weakness and forms a sharp change in slope, as in the sub-basin 4 geological fault (Figure 3). Furthermore, the magmatism process also influenced the Bambuí Group because magmatism generated folding slopes and uplift of sedimentary strata (CAMPOS & DARDENNE, 1997). This factor can also confer higher resistance to rocks and forming knickpoints, including in the contact zones (Cretaceous/Proterozoic), the SL and k_{sn} indexes remain high (Figure 1).

The SL and k_{sn} indexes are also high downstream from the basin, presumably related to sets of geological faults (NW - SE), in the rocks of the Serra de Santa Helena Formation. Besides, the Bambuí Group rocks have distinct diagenetic stages (CAMPOS *et al.*, 2015)2015, influencing the incision capacity of the drainage. This characteristic is evident in some sections of the longitudinal profile of sub-basins 1, 2 and 3 (Figure 4), since in the Três Marias Formation, the longitudinal profile becomes convex or rectilinear; even the Metarenite and Siltstone typical of the unit are very silicified (Figure 7D) (CHAVES *et al.*, 2013).



Figure 7 - (A e B) Rocks of the Mata da Corda Group, with emphasis on resistant/compact lithology (A) and ferruginous concretion band (B); (C) Erosive discordance between Proterozoic sediments (Lagoa Formosa Formation) and Cretaceous sediments (Areado Group); (D) Metapelitic rocks of the Bambuí Group of the Três Marias Formation emphasizing the strata.

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In the Bambuí Group, studies indicate that there is a generalized fracturing that controls the current drainage morphology (IGLESIAS & UHLEIN, 2009), and this aspect reinforces that the lithological resistance influences higher values of the geomorphic indices. Therefore, in the basin, the high geomorphic indices, tilted basins and anomalies in the longitudinal profile, are more related to structural control by lithological resistance and reactivation of Proterozoic geological faults during the Cretaceous and derived implications. Our results do not exclude the possibility of neotectonics, including studies showing this effect in the Bambuí Group (CAMPOS & DARDENNE, 1997; CAMPOS et al., 2016). However, neotectonic is not an essential drainage control factor in the study area.

Conclusions

In the basin, structural factors influence drainage strongly, and these factors are interconnected. There is a differential erosion due to zones of lithological contact, geological faults of the Proterozoic, and ancient configuration of the relief (Graben/Horst). These factors favored the formation of topographic unevenness, influencing the tilting of sub-basins.

The zones of lithological contact (Mata da Corda/ Areado Groups and Proterozoic/Cretaceous rocks) contribute to the formation of knickpoints, with high values of geomorphic indices (SL and k_{sn}). The analysis of the longitudinal profile of the drainage confirms this information since areas of uplift or subsidence of the profile coincide with zones of lithological changes.

The Random Forest Algorithm (RF) can be used to predict geomorphic indices (SL and ksn). The similarity of R^2 values in the training and validation process demonstrates that the RF can predict in unsampled areas, creating maps with zones of influence (knickzones). Furthermore, the prediction error was low (RMSE e MAE).

The RF performed the prediction selecting between 7 and 11 covariates and ranking by importance levels. The geomorphometric covariates predominated. However, in predicting of better performance ($k_{sn} R^2$ 0.38), there was the selection of the geology covariate, this indicates that when inserting covariables with a better relationship with the geomorphic indices, it should positively affect.

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