

High-resolution baseline digital mapping of soil fertility in the Euphrates basin, western Iraq

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Abstract

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Digital Soil Mapping is a vital tool used to produce outputs for Digital Soil Assessment, facilitating analyses and recommendations for various environmental practices. Despite its significance, DSM has not been widely applied to soil fertility assessment due to the challenges associated with integrating multiple soil properties into a single map. Therefore, this study aimed to develop a new digital soil fertility map using higher-resolution data. The research was conducted in the Al-Anbar district, located in the Euphrates basin in western Iraq. Spectral indices and signature data from Sentinel-2 were utilized for soil sampling, supplemented by local ground measurements. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was then employed to identify the most relevant soil fertility indicators. Subsequently, a digital soil map was generated using a Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) model. The results indicated that soil fertility was significantly represented by soil total nitrogen and phosphorus content. Moreover, the MLR model for soil fertility included soil moisture (SM), brightness index (BI), colour index (VI), green chlorophyll index (CIgreen), and B8A. Our approach demonstrated the potential of remote sensing and multiple linear modelling for soil fertility mapping, with an RMSE, R^2 , and MAE of 1.11, 0.98, and 0.68, respectively. These findings suggest that integrating remote sensing with multiple linear regression modelling provides an effective method for accurately estimating soil properties over large areas, offering considerable benefits in terms of cost, efficiency, coverage, and the ability to monitor changes over time.

1. Introduction

Soil is a dynamic and integral ecosystem component, supporting various ecological processes and functions required to sustain life on Earth. Protecting and conserving soil quality is critical for maintaining ecosystem resilience and biodiversity, as well as ensuring food security and environmental sustainability (Zhou et al., 2020; Poppiel et al., 2021). The potential soil fertility assessment is the key element in monitoring, improving, and conserving land productivity (Song et al., 2020). Hence, macro-nutrient availability, soil organic matter, salinity pH and texture are important attributes of soil quality and fertility, and they are closely related to crop growth (Ozayzici et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2018). Therefore, rapid and precise estimation techniques, as well as a thorough understanding of the spatial variability of these indicators, are imperative to maintain food security (Xue et al., 2023). However, conventional soil analysis and mapping method-

ologies, which rely on ground-based surveys, are labor-intensive and time-consuming (Srisomkiew et al., 2022). Thus, achieving precise estimations of soil properties through resilient and economical approaches becomes imperative (Yuzugullu et al., 2024).

In this realm, remote sensing emerges as a promising and cost-effective approach for rapidly acquiring relevant data regarding soil properties, which permits useful insights for policy development (Kasampalis et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2024). One notable application of this approach in the agro-industrial system is the deployment of precise digital soil mapping (DSM) through spectral remote sensing technology (Bao et al., 2024). This advanced approach enables the acquisition of highly accurate estimates of soil properties. Consequently, it provides evidence-based insights critical for developing effective soil management strategies (Arrouays et al., 2020). For instance, Hounkpatin et al. (2018) used Digital Soil Mapping (DSM) to assess soil organic carbon stocks across different land use ecosystems and soil groups in Burkina Faso's

savannah zone. Dasgupt et al. (2023) developed a regional soil micronutrient management strategy that used DSM to improve agronomic biofertilization practices, proving the potential efficacy of the methodology. Zhang et al. (2024) applied DSM projections to investigate soil carbon dynamics at both spatial and temporal scales. Nonetheless, certain challenges exist in accurately assessing carbon dynamics using this methodology, owing to differences in the scales of influential variables over time. Their findings deem for vigilant adoption of DSM projections. Moreover, DSM has been used in further studies focusing on various aspects of soil quality and health, such as soil pH and carbonates (Lu et al., 2023), soil erodibility (Sun et al., 2024), and various soil biological properties including urease, acid phosphatase, alkaline phosphatase enzymes, metabolic quotient, and soil microbial biomass (Esmailizad et al., 2024). However, DSM based on remote sensing spectral indices relies heavily on statistical models combined with machine learning techniques. (Chlingaryan et al., 2018; Liakos et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019; Du et al., 2020). Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) is widely used among these techniques due to its easily understood computational process and clear outcomes. Several studies have highlighted the potential of MLR, emphasizing its comprehensible methodology (Guo et al., 2015; Mondejar and Tongco, 2021; Srisomkiew et al., 2021; Dvornikov et al., 2022).

As seen from the literature review, previous studies have demonstrated the efficacy of DSM methodologies that use high-resolution satellite imagery combined with Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) techniques for delineating soil physical and chemical properties, achieving satisfactory results. However, the application of this approach to assess soil fertility has been rarely reported. In previous research in the El Euphrates basin (El Hammdane et al., 2024), we mostly concentrated on soil fertility assessment using conventional soil analysis methods. Despite these efforts, there is an intriguing imperative to advance towards a digital soil mapping framework, given the pressing demand for comprehensive soil property information to address agricultural productivity challenges and ensure food security. Consequently, our research aims to develop a DSM of soil

fertility using remote sensing datasets. Therefore, the objectives of this study are: (1) to compute several spectral indices based on Sentinel-2 bands, (2) to use principal component analysis to identify an appropriate soil fertility indicator, and (3) to create a digital soil fertility map using an MLR model.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area

Al-Anbar region, located in the Euphrates basin in the western Iraq was selected as the study area for this study. The geographical range spans from 43°10'0" to 43°34'0"E and from 33°28'0" to 33°28'30"N (Fig. 1), covering an area of approximately 18.16 ha. The study area has a predominately arid climate, with hot summers and mild winters. The annual total rainfall is 110 mm. The temperature ranged from 13.9 and 30.1°C. The dominant soil type in this area ranges from moderately coarse, typically including sandy loam, to moderately fine, such as silty clay loam and clay loam soils. The predominant vegetation comprises corn (*Zea mays*), alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) and clover (*Trifolium spp*).

2.2. Dataset

2.2.1. Soil data

In April 2022, 50 soil samples were systematically collected from the chosen study area. Each sample was carefully extracted from a depth of 0 to 30 cm. The collected samples were then thoroughly air-dried and sieved before the analysis. The analytical protocol included a thorough analysis of physical and chemical parameters such as soil texture, soil organic matter (SOM) content, calcium carbonate concentration (CaCO₃), total nitrogen (N_T), available phosphorus (P) content, exchangeable potassium (K) levels, pH, and electrical conductivity (EC). Furthermore, the Soil Fertility Index (SFI) was calculated using Equation 1, following the steps within the methodology explained by Abed

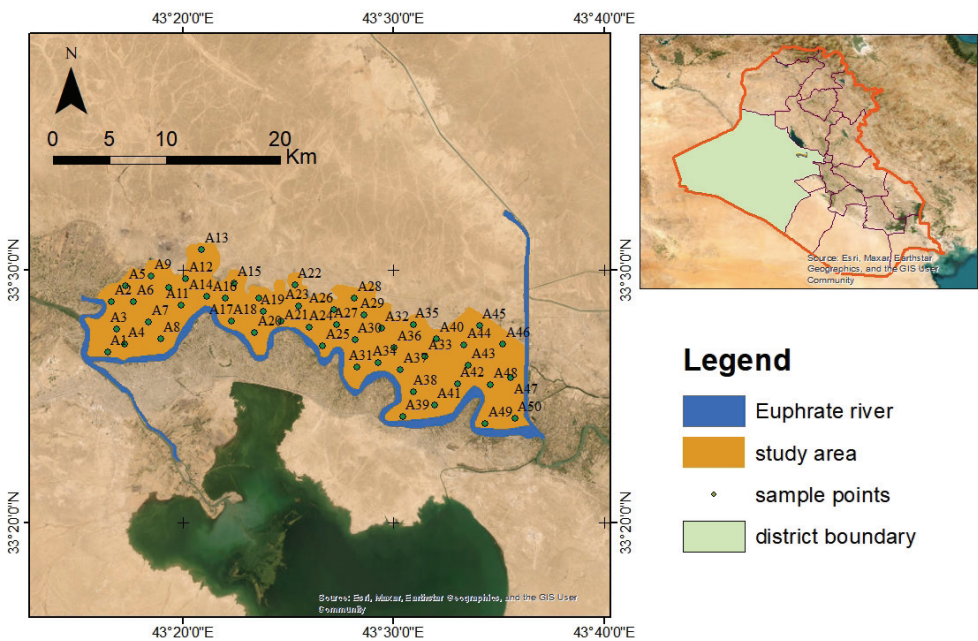


Fig. 1. Location of the study area

Hammad et al. (2024). A summary of the physicochemical analyses carried out following internationally recognized soil analysis methodologies is shown in Table 1.

$$SFI = [R_{max} \times \sqrt{\frac{A}{100} \times \frac{B}{100} \times \frac{C}{100} \dots \dots \dots}] \times 100 \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

R_{max} is the maximum ratio of $(A+B+C+\dots+N)/8$, and A, B, C.....N are the rating values for each diagnostic parameter (N_{tot} , P_{ava} , K_{ava} , pH, $CaCO_3$, EC, SOM and texture).

2.2.2. Remote sensing data

A cloud-free Sentinel-2 image, processed at Level-1C, was obtained from the USGS Earth Explorer website and selected to closely match the date of field sampling. Level-1C processing includes geometric and radiometric corrections. Following that, atmospheric correction was carried out using the Semi-Automatic Classification tool plugin (Congedo, 2016) in a geographic information system software QGIS version 3.16 (QGIS Development Team, 2020). To compensate for the limited spatial coverage and cloud cross-contamination inherent in individual images,

a mosaicking procedure was used to combine two Sentinel-2 images. The cloud cover across all satellite images used in this study was consistently less than 10%. Furthermore, our analysis included 10 Sentinel-2 bands (Gholizadeh et al., 2018; Grinand et al., 2017), as well as 18 spectral indices commonly employed in previous research for exploring soil properties (Wei et al., 2024; Geng et al., 2024; Diaz-Gonzalez et al., 2022; Khanal et al., 2018).

The spectral indices utilized in this study encompass a comprehensive suite of metrics including the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI), Transformed Vegetation Index (TVI), Soil Adjusted Total Vegetation Index (SATVI), Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index (SAVI), Moisture Stress Index (MSI), Green Normalized Difference Index (GNDI), Brightness Index (BI), Color Index (CI), Green Chlorophyll Index (Cgreen), Atmospherically Resistance Vegetation Index (ARVI), Saturated Index (S), Soil Organic Carbon Index (SOCi), Canopy Response Salinity Index (CRSI), Salinity Index (S1), Salinity Index (S2), Clay Index (CI), and Carbonate Index (CarI). Comprehensive details regarding the spectral band coverage and corresponding spatial resolutions of the Sentinel-2 sensor employed in this study are provided in Table 2, while the formulas used to derive the spectral indices are highlighted in Table 3.

Table 1

Analytical methods used for the analysis of soil physical and chemical parameter

Physical and chemical parameters	Analytical method	Reference
Texture	International Pipette	(Wang et al., 2019)
SOM	Walkley-Black	(Nelson et al., 1999)
$CaCO_3$	Titration	(Soil Survey Staff, 1992)
N_T	Kjeldahl	(Tunçay et al., 2023)
P	Colorimetric method	(Soil Survey Staff, 1999)
K	Spectrophotometer flame	(Zhang et al., 2016)
pH	Potentiometric	(Huang et al., 2010)
EC	Potentiometric	(Huang et al., 2010)

Table 2

Details of Sentinel-2 spectral bands

Spectral band number	Spectral band description	Spectral range (nm)	Spectral position (nm)	Bandwidth (nm)	Spectral resolution (m)
B2	B	458–523	490	65	10
B3	G	543–578	560	35	10
B4	R	650–680	665	30	10
B5	RE1	698–713	705	15	20
B6	RE2	733–748	740	15	20
B7	RE3	773–793	783	20	20
B8	NIR	785–900	842	115	10
B8A	RE4	855–875	865	20	20
B11	SWIR1	1565–1655	1610	90	20
B12	SWIR2	2100–2280	2190	180	20

(ESA, 2010)

Explanations: B: blue; G: green; R: red; RE: red-edge; NIR: near infrared; SWIR: shortwave infrared.

Table 3
Details of derived indices

Index	Formulation	Reference
NDVI	$\frac{B8 - B4}{B8 + B4}$	Rouse et al., 1973
EVI	$G \times \frac{B8 - B4}{B8 + C1 \times B4 - C2 \times B2 + L}$	Buete et al., 2002
TVI	$(\frac{B8 - B4}{B8 + B4} + 0.5)^{0.5}$	Nellis and Briggs 1992
SATVI	$\frac{B8 - B4}{B8 + B4 + L \times B2}$	Marsett et al., 2006
SAVI	$\frac{(B8 - B4) \times (1 + L1)}{B8 - B4 + L1}$	Huete et al., 1988
SMI	$\frac{B11}{B8}$	Rock et al., 1985
GNDI	$\frac{B8 - B3}{B8 + B3}$	Gitelson et al., 1996
BI	$\frac{\sqrt{(B4 \times B4) + (B3 \times B3)} + B4}{2}$	Escadafal, 1989
CI	$\frac{B4 - B3}{B4 + B3}$	Ray et al., 2004
GI _{green}	$(\frac{B8}{B3}) - 1$	Nguy-Robertson et al., 2014
ARVI	$\frac{B8 - 2 \times B4 + B2}{B8 + 2 \times B4 - B2}$	Kaufman and Tanre, 1992
S	$\frac{B8}{B4}$	Ray et al., 2004
SOCI	$\frac{B2}{B4 \times B3}$	Thaler et al., 2019
CRSI	$[\frac{(B8 \times B4) - (B3 \times B2)}{(B8 \times B4) + (B3 \times B2)}]^{0.5}$	Scudiero et al., 2014
S1	$(B3 + B2)^{0.5}$	Douaoui et al., 2006
S2	$\frac{B4}{B8 \times 100}$	Tripathi et al., 1997
CLI	$\frac{B11}{B12}$	Taghizadeh-Mehrjardi et al., 2014)
CarI	$\frac{B3}{B2}$	Taghizadeh-Mehrjardi et al., 2014)

Explanations: G= 2.5; C1=6; C2=7.5; L=1; L1=0.5.

2.2.3. Multivariate analysis

To establish relationships between spectral bands, indices, and indicators of soil properties, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used in order to identify representative indicators for Digital Soil Mapping (DSM) through model equations. In this study, ten soil physico-chemical properties, such as silt, clay, sand, SOM, CaCO₃, N_p, P, K, pH, EC and SFI (Table 4), and twenty seven variables, including spectral bands and indices derived from remotely sensed satellite data were applied to the PCA using IBM Statistical

Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 2020). Extracted PCA was evaluated by factor loadings and eigenvalues. In fact, the total numbers of factors generated from the factor analysis that have an eigenvalue greater than 1 (M'nassri et al., 2019). After that, a Pearson matrix correlation was used to measure the linear relationship between soil indicators and environmental variables. Based on the obtained results, variables with significant correlations were chosen as critical predictors for developing a predictive model of soil properties using MLR approach.

Table 4

Summary statistics of soil physico-chemical properties (n=50)

Indicators	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Clay (%)	15.51	43.32	30.32	9.86
Silt (%)	41.62	74.40	54.32	8.81
Sand (%)	9.00	41.50	15.70	9.71
pH [-]	7.3	8.00	7.68	0.19
EC (dS/m)	4.20	52.30	16.01	12.31
CaCO ₃ (%)	1.71	2.25	1.95	1.25
SOM (%)	0.60	1.40	0.91	0.22
N _{tot} (%)	0.01	0.43	0.09	0.07
P _{av} (mg/kg)	2.50	15.60	6.12	4.18
K _{av} (mg/kg)	188.00	372.00	248.68	53.70
SFI	0.55	12.07	3.62	1.68

2.2.4. Modelling approach

The MLR algorithm is a statistical tool used to investigate the relationship between two or more independent variables and an outcome (Srisomkiew et al., 2021). Our goal in the current study is to develop optimal linear models for generating digital maps elucidating soil physicochemical properties and fertility using spectral bands and indices (Liu et al., 2022; Geng et al., 2024). Therefore, spectral bands and indices were chosen as explanatory variables, while physicochemical soil properties were identified as dependent variables. The MLR algorithm assumes a linear relationship between dependent and independent variables, with residuals having a normal distribution. Additionally, multicollinearity among predictor variables was assessed using the variance inflation factor (VIF) and Principal Component Analysis (PCA). VIF was calculated for each predictor, and variables with VIF values exceeding 10 were considered highly collinear and subject to removal. Then, PCA was applied to transform correlated variables into independent components, reducing redundancy in the dataset. The first few principal components explaining the majority of variance were retained for further analysis, ensuring a stable MLR model. After verifying multicollinearity, the obtained PC values were split into two groups: a training dataset (35 samples; 70%) and a testing dataset (15 samples; 30%). A 10-fold cross-validation was performed on the training dataset to assess the MLR model, as this method is commonly used for evaluating predictive models. Finally, the testing dataset was used to assess the performance of the predictive MLR model. MLR equations were developed using the SPSS software, allowing it easier to predict spatial distribution patterns of soil properties. The linear regression model can be represented as follows:

$$\gamma = a + x_1\beta_1 + x_2\beta_2 + \dots + x_n\beta_n \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

Where γ represents the dependent variables, x_1, x_2, x_n are the coefficients representing the relationship between each dependent and independent variables, a is the intercept, and $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_n$ are the independent variables.

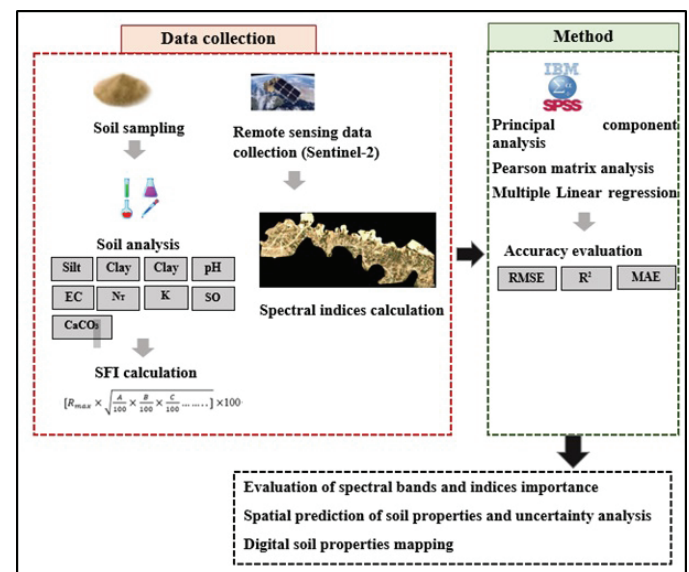
In the final stage, the models' performance and accuracy were evaluated using a variety of statistical criteria, including root mean square error (RMSE), coefficient of determination (R^2), and mean absolute error (MAE), as shown in equations 3, 4, and 5. The detailed workflow is illustrated in Fig. 2

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum (X_0 - X_t)^2} \quad (3)$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum (X_0 - X_t)^2}{\sum (X_t)^2} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{MAE} = \frac{\sum |X_0 - X_t|}{n} \quad (5)$$

Where X_0 and X_t denote the predicted and observed values, respectively, and n denotes the total number of observed data.

**Fig. 2.** Flow chart of this study

2.2.5. Digital mapping of soil fertility
The predicted values from the MLR model were used to create a digital soil fertility map for the study area. These values were calculated for each grid cell of the satellite image across the region. The map was then generated using QGIS software (3.16). To classify soil fertility, we applied the Soil Survey Staff (1999) classification system, which categorizes soil into five classes: very low, low, moderate, high, and very high.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Soil fertility attributes

The principal component analysis identified four distinct factors in the soil quality dataset, each with an eigenvalue greater than one, accounting for 75.95% of the variance (Table 5). The variance distribution across the four principal components is as follows: 31.45% for PC1, 21.99% for PC2, 11.92% for PC3, and 10.59% for PC4. The varimax rotation for the PCA, as shown in Table 6, reveals the contribution of each parameter to the respective principal component. According to loading component theory, a factor loading greater than 0.5 indicates a relatively strong correlation between the variables and the

underlying factor, making it significant for component explanation (Liu et al., 2023).
The results from PC1 exhibited high positive factor loadings for Kav (0.87), CaCO3 (0.95), EC (0.79), and pH (0.92), with component scores equal to or exceeding 0.5. In contrast, PC2 revealed high positive factor loadings for soil Ntot (0.65), Pav (0.86), and SFI (0.81). Meanwhile, PC3 showed high positive factor loadings for sand (0.95) and negative factor loadings for silt (−0.74), whereas PC4 exhibited high positive factor loadings for clay (0.97) and negative factor loadings for silt (−0.63). Consequently, PC1 indicates common behaviors related to soil salinity and alkalinity, while PC2 serves as a soil fertility indicator. Thus, the parameters associated with PC2 are identified as the most suitable indicators for soil fertility.

3.2. Determination of potential variables

Figure 3 depicts the Pearson correlation analysis of the spectral variables (indices and bands) with PC2. The results showed that the soil indicator from PC1 correlated significantly with the spectral indices of SM (R=0.589), BI (R=0.674), CI (R=0.542), CI green (R=0.500), and B8A (R=0.501). Other indices and bands, including NDVI, EVI, TVI, SATVI, GNDI, SOCI, Clay I, CARL, CRSI, S, ARVI, S1, S2, B2, B3, B4, B8, B5, B6, B8A, B11, and B12, had less

Table 5
Percentage of variance of selected factors using the principal component analysis extraction method

Component	Eigenvalue	% of total variance	% of cumulative variance
PC1	3.46	31.45	31.45
PC2	2.41	21.99	53.44
PC3	1.31	11.92	65.37
PC4	1.16	10.59	75.45

Table 6
Principal component analysis of soil properties

	Component			
	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
N _{tot}	0.067	0.651	−0.089	0.092
P _{av}	−0.241	0.861	−0.037	0.031
Kav	0.871	0.121	0.183	−0.111
CaCO3	0.953	0.111	−0.062	0.087
EC	0.791	−0.130	0.155	0.183
pH	0.929	0.077	−0.142	0.094
SOM	0.290	0.421	−0.234	−0.009
Clay	0.126	0.024	0.018	0.973
Silt	−0.121	0.114	−0.745	−0.634
Sand	0.043	−0.171	0.958	−0.055
SFI	0.135	0.812	0.016	−0.379

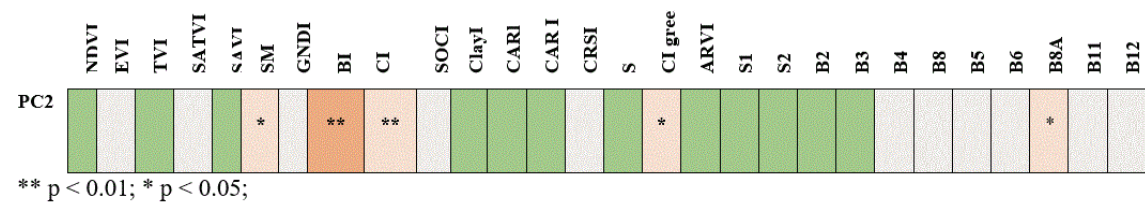


Fig. 3. Pearson correlation matrix between spectral variables and PC2

significant correlations with soil fertility. The MRL model equation was developed using spectral predictors with significant correlations to PC2 ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$). Thus, four variables such as SM, BI, CI, CI green, and B8A were identified as key predictors of soil fertility in this study.

According to Soares et al. (2023) and Srismokiew et al. (2022), the Brightness Index (BI) is a quantitative measure of soil color that is frequently used to assess soil properties and conditions, particularly organic matter and soil moisture levels. Zhang et al. (2023) also identified the Color Index (CI) as a significant predictor of soil organic carbon. Li et al. (2024) and Zhang et al. (2024) discovered that soil moisture (SM) has a significant correlation with soil quality indicators, particularly soil organic carbon (SOC). They discovered that improved SM accelerates vegetation growth and nutrient uptake, increasing crop yield. According to Wolanin et al. (2019) and Dong et al. (2020), the Green Chlorophyll Index (CI green) is related to crop biomass and yield, which are important factors in determining soil fertility. Furthermore, Andreatta et al. (2022) and Xu et al. (2023) explained that the red-edge spectral region provides precise information for identifying vegetation indices and mapping crop types on a cultivated land parcel scale. As a result, these indices are important variables that effectively express soil fertility in both this study area and other agricultural fields.

Table 7
Summary of the developed multiple linear regression model parameters

MLR	RMSE	R ²	MAE
$SF = 1.31 + 1.92SM - 4.97BI + 16.04CI - 1.48CI_{green} + 1.36B8A$	1.11	0.98	0.68

3.3. Multiple linear regression model

Table 7 presents the estimated soil fertility based on key variables, including SM, BI, CI, CI green, and B8A. The developed multiple linear regression (MLR) model is mathematically described by Equation 6. This model demonstrates strong predictive performance, with statistical metrics showing a low RMSE (1.11), a low MAE (0.68), and a very high R_c (0.98). The accuracy of the quantitative mapping was assessed by calculating the R_c value from a linear regression analysis between the test data and predicted values. The results revealed a statistically significant relationship, with an R_c of 0.79, indicating the model's capability to predict soil fertility effectively.

3.4. Digital soil fertility map

The MLR model's predicted values were used to generate a digital soil fertility map with 20 and 10 meter resolutions (Fig.4a). As shown in Fig. 4a, the predicted values varied from 0.29 to 11. As a result, four soil fertility classes (Fig. 4b) were identified: extremely low, low, medium, and very high. The SFI threshold values and classes used in this study were defined based on Soil Survey Staff (1999) and Tunçay et al. (2021). Figure 5 shows the distribution of predicted classes, including

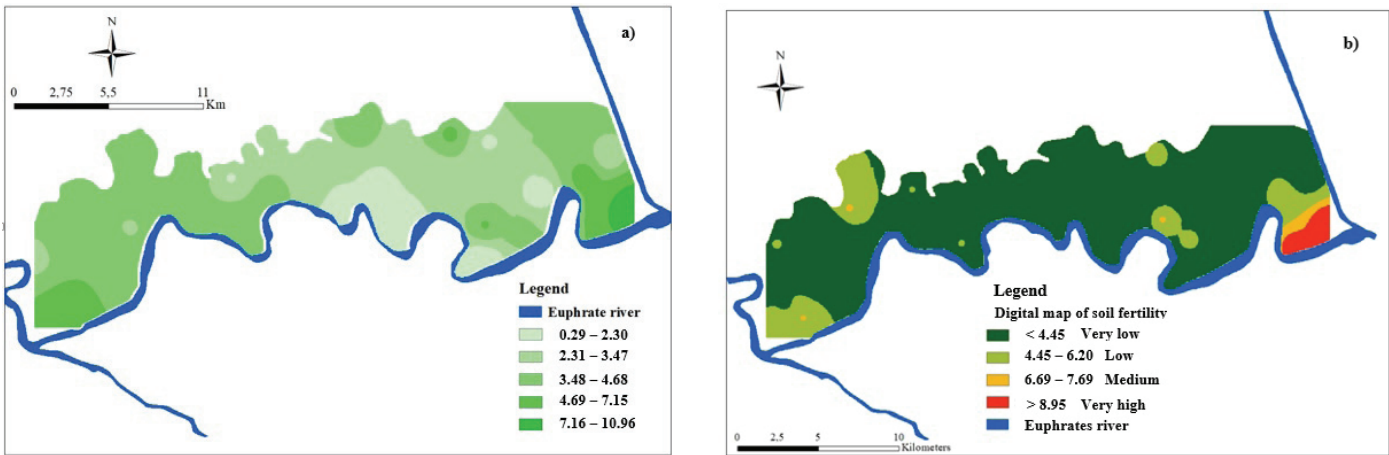


Fig. 4. Digital map of soil fertility in the Euphrates basin: a) map of predicted fertility values; b) map of fertility classes

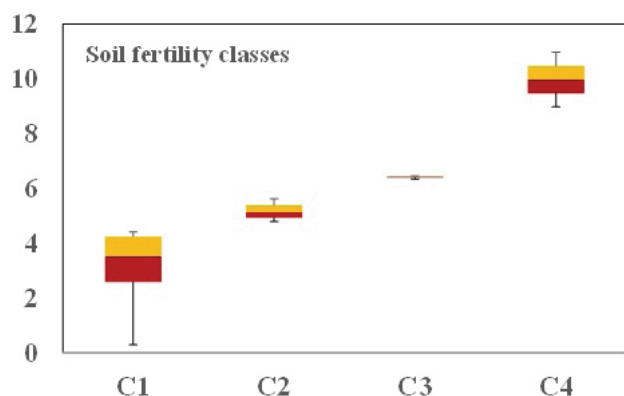


Fig. 5. Distribution of predicted soil fertility classes at Euphrates basin

minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation values: very low (0.29–4.45, 3.53 ± 1.18), low (4.45–6.20, 5.14 ± 0.36), medium (6.20–7.69, 6.43 ± 0.05) and very high (8.95–10.79, 9.97 ± 1.40).

Overall, the majority of the study area's soil was rated as very low fertility. The spatial distribution of soil fertility revealed that the eastern parts of the study area were moderate to very fertile, with moderate values also found in the western parts. However, the central region of the survey area had relatively low soil fertility. This indicates that a large portion of the agricultural soil in the study area is deficient in fertility, highlighting severe production constraints.

The creation of a soil fertility map is a useful and effective method for determining land suitability for agriculture. Previous research has identified important predictors of soil properties for this purpose. Several global digital soil property maps have been successfully developed at fine resolutions for various applications, including hydrological modeling (Lopez-Ballester et al., 2023), guiding future field soil sample collections (Blackford et al., 2022), and providing national-scale site-specific development recommendations (Gagkas et al., 2021).

Remote sensing data has been successfully used in digital soil mapping studies on a regional and global scale (Zhang et al., 2024; Tiangi et al., 2024; Nasser et al., 2024; Justin Fagnombo et al., 2022). The majority of these studies have focused on cultivated land to assess soil fertility, emphasizing the value of remote sensing in predicting soil properties. Our findings show that surfaces without vegetation cover have an advantage in terms of facilitating the collection of spectral reflectance for soil property evaluation.

4. Conclusions

This study focuses on digitally assessing soil fertility using a digital soil map in the Al-Anbar district of the Euphrates basin. The map was created with high-resolution remote sensing data and multiple linear regression models. Total soil nitrogen and available phosphorus content were found to be significant indicators of soil fertility. Our quantitative analysis using RMSE, MAE, and R_c metrics showed that digital soil fertility maps were more accurate than measured data maps. This demonstrates the potential advantages of using remote sensing data with resolu-

tions of 20 and 10 meters in conjunction with multiple linear regression models. Future research should look into the relationship between remote sensing data and soil fertility across a variety of crops, as well as environmental covariates like precipitation.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest. The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper. This research did not involve human or animal subjects.

Author Contributions

Jamal Abed Hammad: Conceptualization, Data curation, Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Soumaia M'nassri:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Data curation. **Balkis Chaabane:** Data curation, Visualization. **Ali Hussein Ibraheem Al-Bayati:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision. **Rajouene Majdoub:** Supervision, Validation, Writing – review & editing. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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