1	Mapping land degradation risk due to land susceptibility to dust emission and
2	water erosion
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15 Abstract

14

16 Land degradation is a cause of many social, economic, and environmental problems. 17 Therefore identification and monitoring of high-risk areas for land degradation are 18 necessary. 'Despite the importance of land degradation due to wind and water erosion 19 in some areas of the world, the combined study of both ways of erosion on the same 20 area receives relatively little attention. The present study aims to create a land 21 degradation map in terms of soil erosion caused by wind and water erosion of semi-dry 22 land. We focus on the Lut watershed in Iran encompassing the Lut Desert that is 23 influenced by both monsoon rainfalls and dust storms. Dust sources are identified using 24 MODIS satellite images with the help of four different indices to quantify uncertainty. 25 The dust source maps are assessed with three machine learning algorithms 26 encompassing artificial neural network (ANN), random forest (RF), and flexible 27 discriminant analysis (FDA) to map dust sources paired with soil erosion susceptibility 28 due to water. We assess the accuracy of the maps from the machine learning results 29 with the metric Area Under the Curve (AUC) of the Receiver Operating Characteristic 30 (ROC). The water and aeolian soil erosion maps are used to identify different classes 31 of land degradation risks. The results show that 43% of the watershed is prone to land 32 degradation in terms of both aeolian and water erosion. Most regions (45%) have a risk 33 of water erosion and some regions (7%) a risk of aeolian erosion. Only a small fraction 34 (4%) of the total area of the region had a low to very low susceptibility for land 35 degradation. The results of this study underline the risk of land degradation for in an inhabited 36 region in Iran. Future work should focus on land degradation associated with soil erosion 37 from water and storms in larger regions to evaluate the risks also elsewhere.

39 Key words: Desertification, Desert-dust sources, Risk susceptibility, Water-induced

- 40 soil erosion,
- 41

42 Introduction

43 Land degradation is one of the most pressing environmental issues around the globe. 44 Several aspects of this issue have been recognized by the United Nations Convention 45 (Gholami et al. 2019a). Land degradation can be driven by both water and wind, of 46 which the former can have a stronger impact on soil erosion in a short time (Gia et al. 47 2018). A total of 30% of global land area and three billion people are affected by land 48 degradation (Wieland et al., 2019). In Iran, it is estimated that land and water 49 degradation cost about US \$12.8 billion per year which is four percent of the total Gross 50 Domestic Product (GDP) (Emadodin et al. 2012). Therefore, spatial mapping of risks 51 of land degradation is necessary which can provide a basis to support managers and 52 policymakers in risk mitigation and adaptation to aeolian and water erosion.

53 Land degradation driven by aeolian erosion is a known problem (Shi et al. 2004). Dust 54 storms, which are a natural hazard, are associated with soil erosion. This phenomenon 55 has detrimental impacts on the Earth system, e.g., for food security (Boroughani et al. 56 2022), water supply (Duniway et al., 2019), human health (Moridnejad et al., 2015), 57 geochemical conditions (Gholami et al., 2020b), and the Earth's carbon cycle 58 (Gherboudj et al., 2017). Identifying dust sources as potential areas of dust emission is 59 therefore necessary for developing a better understanding of land degradation. Spatial 60 mapping of dust source susceptibility areas (DSSAs) is a crucial step for erosion 61 mitigation and watershed management.

In addition to soil erosion by wind, water-driven soil erosion is a known mechanism for
soil degradation. This kind of soil erosion is a known environmental threat and can
influence both terrestrial and aquatic systems (Halecki et al. 2018, Sun et al. 2014).
Therefore, knowing the spatial distribution of water-induced soil erosion susceptibility
areas (SESA) is also necessary.

Different approaches for identifying DSSAs exist, e.g., using meteorological data
(Yang et al. 2019), numerical modeling (Péré et al. 2018), and remote sensing (Jafari et
al. 2021). Remote sensing can provide worldwide information on aerosol properties
(Park et al. 2014). The present study uses Moderate Resolution Imaging
Spectroradiometer MODIS satellite images in combination with machine learning to

72 detect dust aerosols and map its susceptibility over the Lut Desert. Moreover, several 73 numerical models exist for predictions and risk evaluations of water-induced soil 74 erosion (Chicas et al., 2016, Gao et al., 2017, Anache et al., 2018, Gia et al., 2018, 75 Halecki et al., 2018), but none used machine learning to combine different 76 observational data sets for assessing soil erosion. Machine learning has emerged as a 77 subfield of data science and helps to better understand environmental problems 78 (Gholami et al. 2019b). It can integrate data from different sources to create forecasts 79 and discover patterns (Gholami et al. 2020a). In environmental sciences, algorithms 80 such as support vector machine, random forest (RF), artificial neural networks (ANN), 81 and multivariate adaptive regression spline have been applied, e.g., for groundwater 82 (Lee et al. 2017), gully erosion (Zabihi et al. 2018), sediment contamination (Mirchooli 83 et al. 2019), dust sources (Boroughani et al. 2020), landslides (Youssef and 84 Pourghasemi 2021), floods (Tehrany et al. 2014), and trace elements (Derakhshan-85 Babaei et al. 2022).

However land susceptibility to soil erosion and dust emsission has been assessed in different and separate studies, it has attracted less attention to investigate both of them in the same study. So, the novelty of this study lies in constructing an integrated framework based on field survey, different environmental factors, and machine learning algorithms to assess both of water erosion and dust emission.

91 This research is conducted to test some hypotheses including (1) the central and western 92 parts of the watershed are the highest susceptible areas to water erosion and aerosol 93 emission, respectively (2) NADI and land use are the most important factors for water 94 erosion and aolian emission and (3) Central areas are the most prone parts of the 95 watershed to these phenomena. Correspondigly, the aims of the current study are (1) to 96 assess the spatially resolved contribution of soil erosion by water and wind using three 97 machine learning algorithms, (2) determine the most important factor influencing water 98 and dust emission susceptibility and (3) to combine the findings into spatially resolved 99 information on risks for land degradation and recognize the hotspot area in terms of 100 water erosion and dust emission.

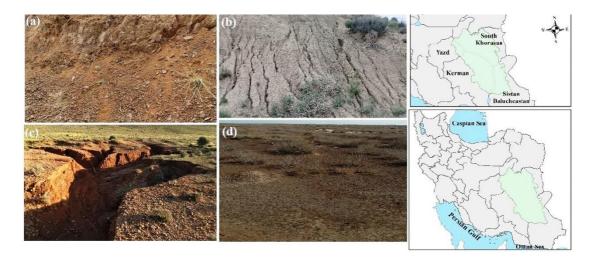
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102 **2. Data and methods**

103 The focus of this study is on the Lut watershed situated in the east and southeast of Iran 104 covering an area of 206242 km² (28° 10' to 32° 30' N latitude and 55° 45' to 61° 15' E 105 longitude) and is marked in Fig. 1. This watershed include a great diversity of

106 topographic charactristics, with an elevation ranging from 124 to 4269m, and slope 107 ranging from 0 to 28.04 degree. In this region, southwest and northeast aspects have 108 the most frequencies (34% of the area). This watershed covers some parts of the South 109 Khorasan, Yazd, Kerman, and Sistan-Baluchestan Provinces of Iran. In addition, 110 several important cities and towns such as Birjand, Tabas, Bam located in the watershed. Aridisols is the dominant soil order of the watershed in which it constitutes 111 112 40.1% of this region. The studywatershed includes the largest desert of the country, 113 the Lut Desert. The region contributes to the increasing dust concentration in southwest 114 Asia (Ebrahimi-khusfi et al. 2021). This area is chosen to develop and test the methods 115 based on regional data on erosion observations with examples shown in Fig. 1a-d. It 116 underlines the impacts of land degradation that goes well beyond impacts on the natural 117 environment.

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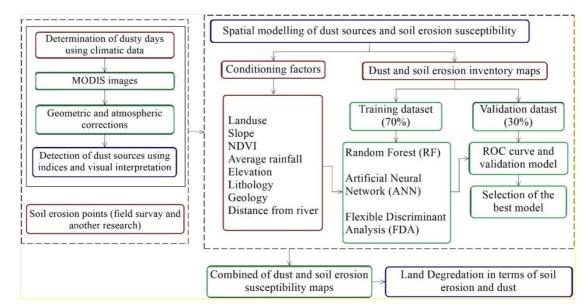
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Fig.1 Geographical location of the study watershed. Green shading marks the Lut watershed. The Lut
Desert is located in the centre of the watershed. Settlements are primarily situated in the northern and
south-western parts. Example of soil erosion in the watershed are sheet erosion (a), rill erosion (b),
gully erosion (c), and wind erosion (d).

124

125 **2.1. Land degradation mapping**

Our land degradation zonation consists of three main processing steps, graphically depicted in Fig. 2. At first, spatial mapping of water erosion is conducted (section 2.1.1). In the second step, spatial mapping of dust source susceptibility is carried out with machine learning methods (section 2.1.2). In the last step, the patterns of water erosion and dust source susceptibility are combined to identify risk areas of land degradation (section 2.2.3).



132

134 Fig.2 Flowchart of inputs (red boxes), data processing (green boxes), and outputs

(blue boxes) in the present study

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138 **2.1.1 water erosion map**

Quantifying the erosion susceptibility of an area requires to determine a spatial 139 140 distribution of observed water-induced soil erosion that can have different 141 characteristics, e.g., gully erosion, rill erosion, and surface erosion. That information is 142 extracted from data collected during an own field survey paired with previous research 143 (Shit et al. 2020). In the previous research, a combination of consulting with provincial 144 experts, satellite images, recent aerial photos, and field survey were applied to identify 145 soil erosion. The aim of the field survey for the present study was to identify regions 146 where sheet, rill, and gully erosion took place. This field survey was carried out in 147 accessible parts of the watershed in April 2020. These accessible parts are mostly 148 distributed around the cities (such as Bam, Ravar, Shahdad, Baravar, Birjand, Tabas, 149 etc) with proper road access located in the watershed. The data set contains the type of water-induced soil erosion along with the geographical location using a Global 150 151 Positioning System (GPS). A selection of the identified water soil erosions in the study 152 region is shown in Fig. 1.

We translated the observations of the field survey into maps of non-degraded and degraded areas. These areas were plotted in an inventory map and prepared for further analysis, although not all desert areas are fully covered by the survey.

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157 **2.1.2 Dust aerosol map**

158 The large desert area to be covered is a motivation for the use of satellite data for 159 estimating dust sources. We used MODIS images from the Terra (morning) and Aqua 160 (afternoon) satellites (Vickery and Eckardt, 2013) to identify dust aerosols. We define 161 dusty days, when the horizontal visibility is less than 2000 m for at least one hour during 162 the day based on available weather stations in Iran (Vickery and Eckardt, 2013; 163 Boroughani et al., 2021). According to the mentioned condition, more than 500 dusty 164 days were identified during 2010-2021 distributed over the stations in Birjand, 165 Zahedan, Kerman, Bam, Doostabad, Bisheh, Rafsanjan and Mighan. We pair the station observations with satellite data to estimate the spatial extent of the dust aerosol plumes. 166 Due to the overpass of the Terra and Aqua satellites once per day, we acquired 28 167 satellite images from the MODIS sensor that during times when the weather stations 168 169 had documented dusty conditions in the ten-year period. For identifying pixels with 170 dust aerosols in these images, we calculate four different dust indices (BTD2931, 171 BTD3132, NDDI and D) for dust aerosol identification (Boroughani et al., 2020, 2021 172 Hahnenberger and Nicoll, 2014).

173
$$B(T,\lambda) = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5 \frac{hc}{(e\lambda kt-1)}}$$
(1)

174 where B(T, λ) represents the Planck equation at λ (μ m), T is the BT (K), h is the 175 Planck's constant (6.626×10⁻³⁴ m2kgs⁻¹), k is the Boltzmann's constant (1.38×10⁻²³)⁵, c 176 is the speed of light (2.99×10⁸ ms⁻¹), and T is the temperature (Hao et al., 2007) 177

178
$$T = \frac{hc}{\lambda k ln(1 + \frac{2hc^2}{L\lambda^5})}$$
(2)

179 Using Planck's equation, the value of the temperature can be derived, where L is the 180 amount of radiance in the images (in $Wm^{-2}sr^{-1}\mu m^{-1}$). 181

182
$$NDDI = (p_{2.13} - p_{0.469})/(p_{2.13} + p_{0.469})$$

183

(3)

184

where *p*2.13 and *p*0.469 depict the reflectance value at the top-of-atmosphere at 2.13
and 0.469 μm, respectively (Qu et al., 2006)

187

188
$$D = exp\{-[rr \times a + (BTD - b)]\}$$
 (4)

where rr shows the reflectance proportion among wavelengths of 0.54 μ m and 0.86 μ m and BTD is the difference among the bands 11 and 12 μ m; a and b are constants taken during the initial calibration (Eq. 1). (Qu et al., 2006; Miller, 2003; Hao et al., 2007;
Boroughani et al., 2020, 2021).

193 We compute false color maps using four combinations of channels (1: NDDI, B4, B3; 194 2: D, BTD2931, NDDI; 3: D, BTD3132, NDDI; and 4: BTD2931, B4, B3) in ENVI 195 software. We choose these four different indices for cross-validating the presence of 196 dust aerosols. With each of these methods we see dust aerosol in different color and 197 qualities in the MODIS images over 28 days. After combining the four methods in the 198 software ENVI, we choose the method that shows the dust plume in the MODIS image 199 more clearly as the best method (Boroughani et al., 2020, 2022). This method is based 200 on a cone of dust diffusion seen in the processed MODIS images, where the apex 201 denotes the dust's source (Lee et al., 2009; Walker et al., 2009). Ultimately, the 202 inventory map of the dust aerosols in the Lut watershed was created.

203

204 **2.2. Identification of key factors controlling for aeolian and water erosion**

205 To develop DSSA and SESA, the identification and selection of appropriate dust 206 sources and soil erosion effective factors are necessary. The main factors affecting 207 DSSA and SESA were selected and constructed based on literature, available data and 208 geographical maps (Torabi et al., 2021; Zabihi et al., 2018; Boroughani et al., 2020; 209 Gholami et al., 2020a). The considered factors in this study included: elevation, land 210 use, slope of terrain, lithology, annual rainfall, distance from rivers, and distance from 211 roads, the Topographic Wetness Index (TWI), and Normalized Difference Vegetation 212 Index (NDVI). Various sources were used to gather data for these factors, introduced 213 in the following in more detail. All collected data were mapped to a horizontal grid of 214 1km resolution.

215 The shuttle radar topography mission (SRTM) images were used to create the digital 216 elevation model (DEM, Fig 3c) (Ghorbanzadeh et al., 2018). The lowest and highest 217 elevation of the study area is 124 m in the centre of the desert and 3966 m at the western 218 and eastern margins of the study watershed, respectively (Fig. 3c). Vegetation cover 219 considerably supports soil conservation. Areas with low vegetation cover would be 220 more sensitive to both erosion by water and wind (Arabameri et al., 2019a; Gholami et 221 al. 2019b). Therefore, we use the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) to 222 assess the vegetation cover in the study area from MODIS images following 223 (Arabameri et al., 2019a; Boroughani et al., 2020):

7

224 NDVI= $\frac{NIR+R}{NIR-R}$

Where R is the red (0.620-0.670 μ m) and NIR is near-infrared bands (0.841-0.876 μ m) (Fig. 3d).

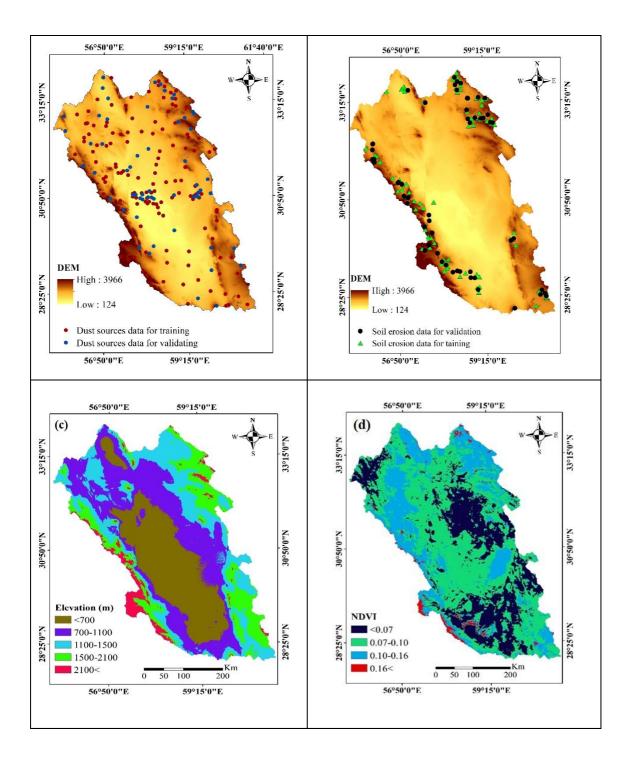
227 Annual rainfall (Fig. 3e) was obtained from Iran Meteorological Organization for the 228 period of 2000-2021. Mean annual rainfall was calculated using 40 different 229 meteorological stations located within or close to the watershed (Fig.3e). The inverse 230 distance weighting (IDW) interpolation method was applied to integrate rainfall over 231 the study area in the ArcGIS environment (Gholami et al., 2020a). Topographic 232 Wetness Index (TWI), which indicates the spatial distribution of areas of potential soil 233 saturation, is an effective factor to indicate water erosion including landslides and also 234 flooding (Arabameri et al., 2019b). TWI which determines the dry and wet zones 235 calculated as (Beven and Kirkby 1979):

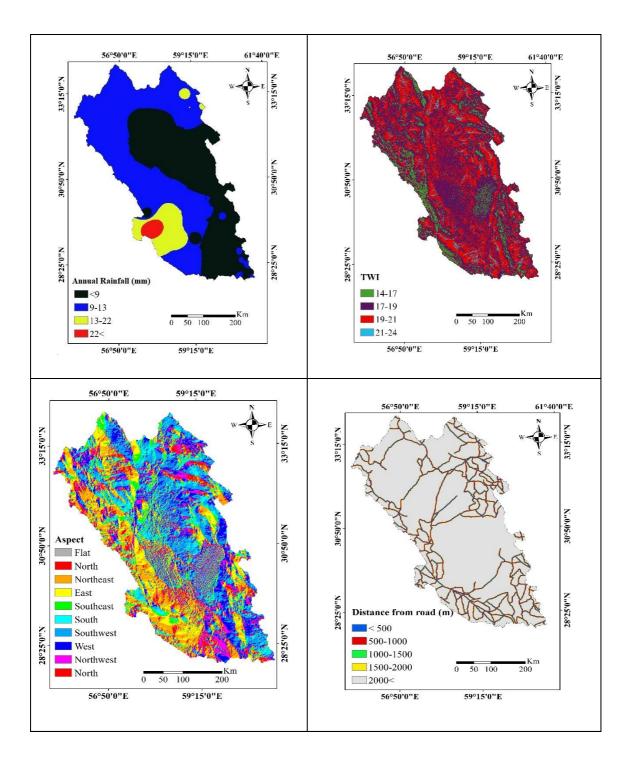
236
$$TWI = ln\left(\frac{\alpha}{tan\beta}\right)$$

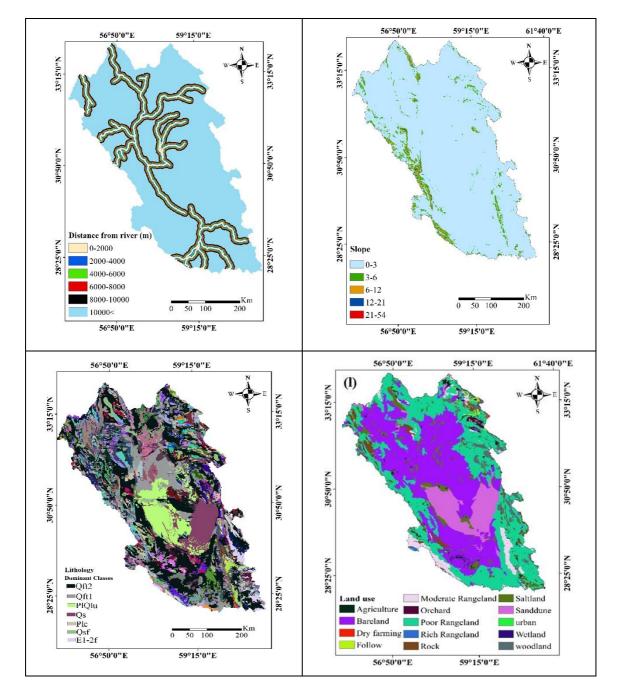
237 where α is the cumulative up-slope area from a point (per unit contour length) and β is 238 the slope angle at that point. This index was calculated in the SAGA-GIS environment 239 and classified into four groups viz. 14-17, 17-19, 17-21, 21-24 (Fig. 3f). The aspect 240 map was also generated using DEM and grouped into ten classes (Fig. 3 g). Distance 241 from road is an indicator of infrastructure development which influences soil erosion 242 and land degradation (Torabi et al., 2021). This factor is shown in five classes in Fig. 3 243 h. Distance from river is one of the most effective factors on water-caused erosion 244 (Amiri et al., 2019) which is classified into six groups (Fig. 3i).

The slope map (%) was created using a Digital Elevation Map (DEM, Fig. j) and classified into five groups including 0-3%, 3-6%, 6-12%, 12-21%, and 21-54%. The lithology map indicates eleven different soil classes in the study area (Fig. 3k).

248 Land use and soil maps were obtained from base maps developed by the Iranian Forest, 249 Rangeland, and Watershed Management Organization (https://frw.ir/). In the study 250 region, there are fourteen land-use classes including wetlands, rangelands of three states 251 (poor, medium, and rich), dry farming, agricultural lands, urban area, fallow land, rock-252 covered land, wetland, saltland, woodland, bare surfaces, and sand dunes (Fig. 3m). A 253 large percentage (83%) of the watershed area is covered by bare land, poor rangeland, 254 and sand dunes. All three land use classes are prone to wind erosion due to sparse or no 255 vegetation.









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Fig.3 Location of dust observation points for training and validation (a), water-induced soil erosion points for training and validation (b), and the conditional factors (Elevation (c), NDVI (d), Rainfall (e), TWI (f), Aspect (g), Distance from road (h), Distance from river (i), Slope (j), Lithology (k), Land use (l)) in the watershed.

261

262 **2.4.** Spatial mapping of DSSA and SESA using machine learning algorithms

We combine the two susceptibility maps for DSSA and SESA to create the land degradation hazard map with regards to water- and wind-induced soil erosion. For both types of soil erosion, three machine learning models were constructed and applied. The land degradation susceptibility map was then created by synthesizing the results for both soil erosion types in an ArcGIS 10.5 environment, and the land degradationsusceptibility was ultimately evaluated with four classes.

269 A wide range of machine learning algorithms has been applied for spatial mapping of 270 environmental phenomena in the past. The effective factors described in Section 2.2 271 and the inventory maps of water and wind erosion were used as the input of the machine 272 learning algorithms. In the present study, the algorithms of random forest (RF), artificial 273 neural network (ANN), and flexible discriminate analyses (FDA) were used to produce 274 DSSA and SESA maps. We choose three different algorithms to test the dependency of 275 the results on the method as a measure of uncertainty. The three algorithms are 276 described in more detail in the following.

277

278 **2.4.1 Random forest (RF)**

279 Random forest developed by Breiman (2001) is a machine learning algorithm for non-280 parametric multivariate classification. RF builds multiple trees using a random 281 selection of the training dataset. The data not included are called out-of- bag (OOB) 282 determines the model accuracy using generalization error estimation (Breiman 2001). 283 Diversity among the classification trees increases using resampling the data with 284 replacement and also randomly change of predictors set during tree induction processes 285 (Youssef et al., 2016). Information from numerous decision trees has been combined in 286 the RF algorithm.

Generally, it is essential to define two parameters to run the RF model including the number of trees (ntree) and the number of factors prepared from the data shown in Fig. 3 (mtry). The former is built while the RF model is running, while the latter is used in the tree-building process. Both the number of trees and factors need to be optimized to minimize the generalization error (Rahmati et al. 2016). The optimisation was done through sensitivity tests.

293

294 **2.4.2** Artificial neural network (ANN)

The artificial neural network (ANN) is a machine learning tool developed by imitating human brain performances and making connections between inputs and outputs (Sakizadeh et al. 2017). The human brain is mimicked in two ways: Firstly, obtaining information and knowledge using a learning process, and secondly, storing knowledge using synaptic weights. Therefore, ANN has been identified as the model that finds the optimal solution for non-linear problems, such as dust source and soil erosion 301 susceptibility, by identifying patterns with conditioning factors (Ghorbanzadeh et al. 302 2019). In an ANN, a neuron is the smallest data processing unit which could make many 303 neural network structures and be used in research for different purposes. The standard 304 structure of ANN consists of three layers, namely, the input layer, the hidden layers, 305 and the output layer. The input layer consists of training data and conditioning factors 306 of dust source, the neurons in the hidden layer analyze the complex information 307 contained in the data, and the output layer is the maps of dust source susceptibility. In 308 this structure, the neurons across the same layer are not connected, but they are linked 309 with neurons in the previous and subsequent layers. In ANN, the algorithm determines 310 a weight for each input factor and a transfer function to build results (Kalantar et al. 311 2017).

312

313 **2.4.3 Flexible discriminate analyses (FDA)**

314 The modification of the linear regression model for the application to non-linear 315 problems is the purpose of FDA (Avand et al. 2021). Nonparametric regression models, 316 nonlinear discriminant analysis, and classification methods are combined into one 317 framework. This algorithm is flexible for non-linear classifications because non-linear 318 transformation is used and clusters are soft (Kalantar et al. 2020), here clusters for the relationship between soil erosion and the predictor factors from Fig. 3. In this way, 319 320 variables in FDA are firstly aligned with the multivariate adaptive regression splines 321 (MARS) and then dimension reduction is performed (Kim and Kim 2021). FDA can 322 overcome the problem of linear discriminant analysis (LDA) and it is minimizing the 323 square average of the residuals (Mosavi et al. 2020), while linear regression is replaced 324 by nonparametric regression in FDA. Therefore, FDA has the potential to apply for 325 non-linear natural problems such as soil erosion, dust, flood, and landslide.

326

327 **2.5. Evaluation of machine learning algorithms**

In our DSSA and SESA assessment, 70% of point data are randomly selected for the training dataset and 30% for model validation. The prediction accuracy of the machine learning algorithms is assessed by comparing the DSSA map with the validation dataset of dust sources. These data were extracted from MODIS images and some indicators which were explained in section 2.1.2. The Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve and the Area Under the Curve (AUC) are applied following past studies that used these to test the prediction skill of a model for the occurrence or non-occurrence of the

- studied phenomena (Naghibi et al. 2017). The AUC ranges from 0 to 1 in which themodels that better perform represent the AUC close to one.
- 337
- 338 **3. Results and Discussion**
- 339 **3.1. Spatial distribution of DSSA**
- 340 **3.1.1. Dust aerosol detection**

An illustration of a dust storm seen in MODIS FCC satellite imagery over the Lut watershed on August 7, 2019, is shown in Fig. 4. Following a visual analysis of the images, we determined that the false colour combination (R: BTD2931, G: Band 4, B: Band 3) is the best and applied it to 26 MODIS images of dusty days. As a result, the Lut watershed's dust source locations were identified (Fig. 4).

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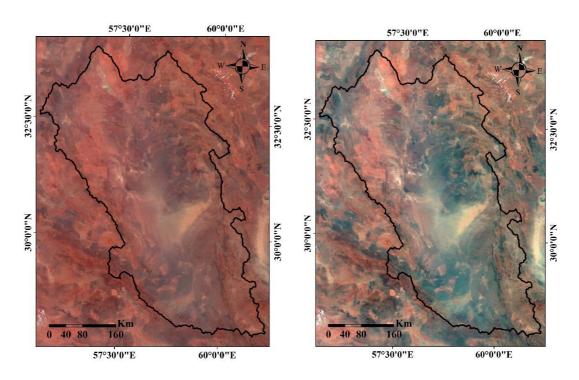


Fig.4 The dust storm on 07 August 2019, as seen above is an example of the visual
inspection of a dust storm (a) MODIS true colour (Red: Band 5, Green: Band 4, Blue:
Band 3), and (b) enhanced MODIS satellite photos, (Red: BTD2931, Green: Band 4,
Blue: Band 3).

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352 **3.1.2** The importance of conditioning factors for DSSA

Since multicollinearity among factors has been identified as an obstacle to explaining the results (Roy and Saha 2019), the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was calculated to assess the relationships among conditioning factors. This was conducted because multicollinearity among factors will decline the accuracy of the models (Arabameri et al. 2019b). In the present study, VIF values for DSSA mapping range from 1.05 to 1.57 which illustrated no collinearity among the eight factors. Therefore, no exclusion was applied and all factors were considered in successor calculations and modeling.

360 The importance and impact of each factor depend on the machine learning algorithms. 361 The result of DSSA mapping using RF showed that NDVI, elevation, land use, and lithology had the greatest degree of effect among conditioning factors. Land use and 362 363 NDVI as an index of vegetation cover proved to have a controlling impact on wind 364 erosion and dust emission (Gholami et al., 2020). Elevation is an effective factor for 365 DSSA in which lowlands have higher impacts than highlands. This was confirmed by other studies such as Darvand et al., 2021. Lithology is another important factor in this 366 367 watershed since dust emission is mostly occur in the sensitive lithology rather than 368 resistant ones (Sissakian et al., 2013). Overall, the impacts of these factors on DSSA 369 have been proved by previous investigations (Gholami et al. 2020a, 2020b). Other 370 factors such as the distance from rivers, rainfall, and slope were identified as rather 371 weak predictors, respectively. These findings agree with other research (Boroughani 372 and Pourhashemi 2020, Darvand et al. 2021).

The FDA approach showed that however elevation, NDVI, and land use had the highest effects on dust sources susceptibility, other factors had no impact on DSSA. Similarly, with ANN, elevation, NDVI, and land use were identified as the three most effective factors, and other factors were weaker predictors rather than formers. However these two models of FDA and ANN provide similar results in term of the importance of conditioning factors, FDA could be used rather than ANN because of its higher accuracy which is shown in the next section.

380

381 3.1.3 Spatial distribution of dust source susceptibility

The dust source susceptibility (DSS) maps created by RF, FDA, and ANN are classified into five risk classes (very high, high, moderate, low, and very low) shown in Fig. 5. These classes are set as in earlier studies (Mosavi et al., 2020; Boroughani, Mohammadi, Mirchooli, & Fiedler, 2022). The results of the model evaluation using ROC indicates that the RF model with an accuracy of 75.0% provides the most accurate 387 outputs. FDA and ANN had similar performances with the accuracy of 71.7% and 70.7%. In terms of True Skill Statistic (TSS), similar results have been obtained in 388 389 which RF with an accuracy of 45.8% had again the best performance in comparison to 390 FDA (32.4%) and ANN (35.8%). In this way, RF introduces different priorities for the 391 effective factors in comparison with FDA and ANN. RF proposes NDVI, elevation, 392 land use, and lithology as the most important factors, while FDA and ANN suggest 393 elevation, NDVI, and land use as the most influencing factors. The dominance of 394 NDVI, elevation and land use as the most effective factors for DSS is consistent with 395 the understanding of dust source locations that are typically found in topographic 396 depressions with sparse or no vegetation. The DSSA map from RF was selected for 397 further analysis due to the highest accuracy, although the differences between FDA and 398 ANN are in the statistical sense relatively small. According to the DSSA maps, 29% 399 and 17% of the watershed were classified as areas of high and very high DSSA, i.e., 400 almost half of the study area. Only 4% and 16% of the watershed have a very low and 401 low susceptibility to soil erosion through winds, respectively. The spatial extent of high 402 and very high risk areas from RF is smaller than the ones obtained by ANN and FDA. 403 In all three maps, it can be seen that the biggest potential for dust emission is located in 404 the central parts (Lut Desert) of the watershed. These results are consistent with other 405 research, indicating that RF allows more detailed spatial mapping of dust source 406 susceptibility compared to other machine learning algorithms (Rahmati et al. 2020, 407 Gholami et al. 2019b, Darvand et al. 2021).

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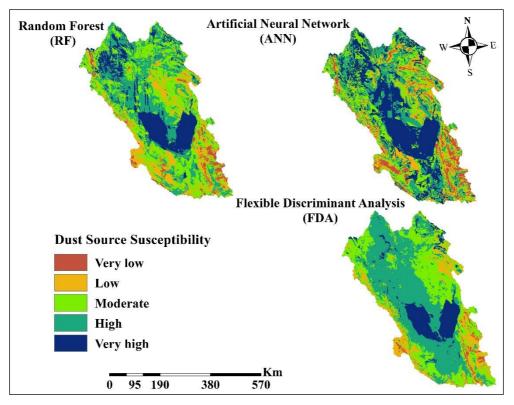




Fig. 5 Dust sources susceptibility area (DSSA) based on random forest (RF), artificial neural network
 (ANN), and flexible discriminate analyses (FDA)

413 As mentioned before, the watershed is one of the key regions with dust concentration 414 in southwest Asia. Spatial distribution of dust sources in this region is a key roadmap 415 for preventive and adaptive measurement. This would reduce dust emission across the 416 watershed, region, and even other near countries.

417

418 **3.2. Soil erosion susceptibility map**

419 **3.2.1 Relative influential conditioning factors for SESA**

420 There are some differences in the contributions of influential factors among models. So 421 that, RF indicates that rainfall, TWI, slope, elevation, land use, and geology are the 422 most important conditioning factors. Considering this watershed located in arid region 423 of Iran, rainfall and TWI play decisive and crucial role in soil erosion among them. 424 TWI which indicate soil moisture and water-saturated area (Silva et al., 2023) has been 425 also identified an effective factor for different kinds of soil erosion such as rill-interrill, 426 gully, and piping erosions (Sholagberu et al., 2017; Hosseinalizadeh et al., 2019). Slope 427 influences also soil erosion rate through effecting on runoff velocity, vegetation cover, 428 and soil type (Avand et al., 2022). This conditioning factor has been also reported as

429 one of the most influential factor in most studies (Sholagberu et al., 2017; Pournader et 430 al., 2018; Lei et al., 2020). Moreover, distance from roads and rivers were recognized 431 as the least important factors. These findings of the impact of conditioning factors for 432 SESA are similar in other regions (Arabameri et al. 2019a, Hosseinalizadeh et al. 2019). 433 For ANN, TWI, slope, and land use were the most effective factors for prediction which 434 is followed by NDVI, land use, and distance from the river. The results from FDA 435 indicated that the most important conditioning factors are TWI, slope, and elevation, 436 geology, and NDVI. TWI has an important impact on SESA in all three models. This 437 is because the study watershed predominates with low slopes and elevations. The 438 opposite result of this finding was obtained by Silva et al., 2023.

A large area of the watershed is land with typically little rain and vegetation cover such that bare soil is the main physical attribute in the watershed. This kind of surface is known to be prone to water-induced soil erosion, when rain events occur. The erosion can be particularly pronounced over slopes. This understanding is consistent with all algorithms pointing to a major role of TWI and slope for SESA.

Some environmental factors (rainfall, TWI, slope, elevation, and geology) influence
SESA more than DSSA. Land use as a human-induced conditioning factor, however,
affects both SESA and DSSA, which underlines the importance of land-use planning
and management.

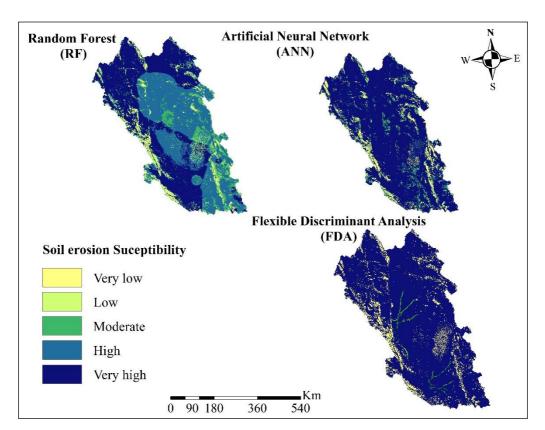
448

449 **3.2.2. Spatial modeling of SESA**

450 Fig. 6 shows the SESA predictions from the three machine learning algorithms, 451 classified by the soil erosion risk in the ArcGIS environment. Validation of the three 452 machine learning algorithms highlights that RF was again the most reliable algorithm 453 amongst the three, indicated by the best prediction rate. Based on ROC, RF yields a 454 94% accuracy for SESA (Fig. 6c). The ROC coefficient of ANN and FDA were slightly 455 lower, but still high with an accuracy of 91% and 89%, respectively. In the case of the 456 TSS index, better performance was obtained again for RF (89%) rather than ANN 457 (78%) and FDA (78%). High performance of RF model in classification issues is related 458 to its potential to handle bigh datasets and apply large number of conditioning factors 459 (Naghibi et al., 2018). In addition, Rahmati et al., 2020 states that high accuracy of RF 460 is the results of several advantage of this model such as iterative nature and preventing 461 problems by overfitting (Rahmati et al., 2020).

462 The majority of the land in the watershed (81%) has a high and very high risk for water-463 induced soil erosion by RF. This is slightly lower than for ANN and FDA which 464 classified 85% and 89% of the watershed as high and very high susceptible areas. The 465 high and very high susceptible areas for water-driven soil erosion are mostly located in 466 the north and south-west parts of the watershed. The high and very high susceptible 467 areas have socio-economic implications, particularly because most settlements and 468 cities of the watershed are located in the same regions. This can mean that human 469 activity is a contributing factor to the water-induced soil erosion. Mutually, intensified 470 soil erosion might lead to migration of resident people to other places and even other 471 countries.







474 Fig. 6 soil erosion susceptibility areas map (GESM) using random forest (RF), artificial neural network
475 (ANN), and flexible discriminate analyses (FDA)

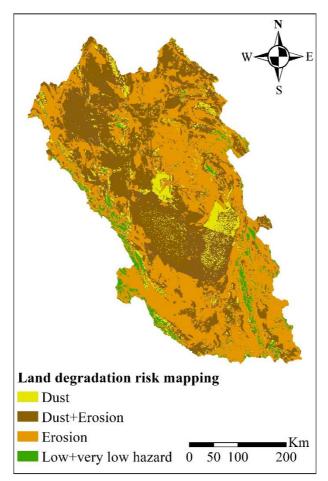
476

477 **3.3. Land degradation susceptibility**

The majority of the study watershed is susceptible to a substantial risk for land
degradation. The spatial distribution of land degradation susceptibility, shown in Fig.
7, indicates that only 4% of the land area has low to very low risks of land degradation.
Areas susceptible to both soil erosion by water and winds together constitute 43% of

482 the total area. Approximately 45% and 8% of the study area are at risk of soil erosion 483 by water and wind, respectively. Taken together, it means that the majority of the Lut 484 watershed falls under the category of land degradation risks. The watershed accounts 485 for 12.5% of the total land of Iran. The findings of the present study are therefore 486 consistent with a report that indicated water erosion as an environmental hazard in Iran 487 (Bui et al. 2019). The results of the study will be helpful and applicable for identifying 488 water-induced and dust sources hotspots across the watershed and prioritizing 489 appropriate conservation measurements and rehabilitative policies.

The areas that fall under the category of both kind of land degradation might be most vulnerable concerning local self-sufficiency for food security and sustainability of human activities. For instance, dust storms drive water loss through failure of agricultural crops in Iran (Boroughani et al. 2022). Moreover, the adverse impacts of water-induced soil erosion are known from numerous other regions (Lal and Moldenhauer 2008, Gao et al. 2015, Standardi et al. 2018; Roy et al., 2022).



496 497

Fig. 7 Land degradation susceptibility map in terms of soil erosion and dust sources areas

498

499 Conclusion

500 Investigation of soil erosion through water along with wind-driven soil erosion from 501 dust sources have received little attention in past studies, despite their importance for 502 land degradation with associated social, economic, and environmental impacts. The 503 present study used several different data sets, conducted a field survey and paired the 504 data with three different machine learning algorithms to construct spatial maps for areas 505 of risk for land degradation for the Lut watershed in Iran. Three machine learning 506 algorithms were successfully applied to create land susceptibility maps describing dust 507 aerosol occurrence considering methodological uncertainty. In addition, these models 508 were used to identify the areas prone to soil erosion by surface water runoff. These 509 obtained maps were synthesized to generate a single map for risks of land degradation. 510 The results of the present study show that the random forest algorithm outperformed 511 the other two machine learning approaches for both dust sources and soil erosion 512 susceptibility mapping with an accuracy of 75% and 94%, respectively.

513 As expected, the vegetation cover, elevation, land use, and geology were important 514 prerequisites for dust-emission occurrence in the watershed, while rainfall, 515 Topographical Wetness Index (TWI), terrain slope, terrain elevation, land use, and 516 geology were identified as the most influential factors for water-induced soil erosion.

Based on the land degradation map, almost the entire study region is at risk. A large 517 518 fraction of 43% of the area is prone to both high wind-driven plus water-driven soil 519 erosion. In addition to these areas, another 45% and 8% of the area have a risk for water-520 driven and wind-driven soil erosion, respectively. The methods tested in this study 521 could be later transferred to similar assessments in other regions around the world. 522 Choosing this region in Iran is further motivated by the impact of land degradation on 523 the country's economy. The current study has some limitation including the small 524 sample size and non-uniform distribution of water-induced soil erosion points because 525 of lack of accessibility to a road network in some parts of the watershed. Despite these 526 limitations, these results can potentially be useful for managers and policy makers to 527 identify local hotspots for land degradation to implement mitigation and adaptation 528 measures in this watershed. Future studies could work on improving the spatial 529 resolution and coverage of the risk assessment for providing more information on risks 530 for land degradation. In addition, it is suggested that future research should estimate the 531 role of other climatic factors such as humidity, and air temperature on soil erosion and 532 dust source susceptibility. Prediction of NDVI and rainfall as the most effective factors

533 on soil erosion and dust sources and estimated of their impacts on future water induced-

soil erosion and dust sources susceptibility is also suggested for the other studies. It

- 535 requires more measurements for soil erosion by water and winds to train the machine
- 536 learning models.
- 537

538 Acknowledgement

- 539 SF acknowledges funding from the German Research Foundation (DFG) for SFB
 540 1502/1–2022 (Project: 450058266).
- 541

542 **Conflict of Interest**

- 543 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of544 this article.
- 545

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