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Monitoring of crop water consumption changing based on remotely sensed data and techniques in North Sinai, Egypt

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to approximate and verify crop water use based on satellite results. Land Surface Temperature (*LST*) and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (*NDVI*) were used as the critical parameters derived from NOAA/AVHRR and landsat8 satellite data. Reference evapotranspiration (*ET₀*) was determined using FAO-Penman-Monteith (*FPM*) agrometeorological data as a standard process. Based on data from remote sensing, the *ET₀* was calculated based on the Hargreaves (*Har*) process. *ET₀-FPM* has been used to calibrate *ET₀-Har* under the same conditions for five years (2002-2006). Landsat8 data was obtained on 25 June 2013 and 28 June 2014 and used to estimate the crop coefficient (*K_c*) based on satellite data (*K_c-Sat*). The *LST* was used to predict the maximum, minimum, and mean *T_{air}* (°C) levels in June 2013 and 2014. *ET₀* was calculated using the expected maximum, minimum, and mean *T_{air}* according to the *Har* method and was used with *K_c-Sat* to estimate *ET_c-Har*. *ET₀-FPM* is used to measure *ET_c-FPM* with *K_c-Sat*. *LST* and *NDVI* have been used to measure the Water Deficiency Index (*WDI*). *WDI* incorporated *ET_c* to measure the actual evapotranspiration of the crop (*ET_a*). *ET_a-FPM* was used for the evaluation of *ET_a-Har*. The relationship between *ET_a-FPM* and *ET_a-Har* was high, where R^2 was 0.99 in 2013 and 2014. *ET_a* determined by Hargreaves based on remotely sensed data was overestimated at about 0.8 (mm/day) compared to the *FPM* process.

KEY WORDS: Hargreaves (*Har*), FAO-penman-monteith (*FPM*), Water deficit index (*WDI*), Actual evapotranspiration (*ET_a*), NOAA/AVHRR, and landsat8.

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INTRODUCTION

North Sinai is a highly desirable area for agricultural production since most crops are grown with decent soil and a proper environment. In the study region, water shortage is a significant issue, and farmers depend on rainfall and minimal groundwater water.

To enhance irrigation water conservation, multiple models were used and built to measure *ET₀* (El-Shirbeny *et al.*, 2011, Ablewi *et al.*, 2015; Zhao *et al.*, 2015; El-Shirbeny *et al.*, 2019). In both tropical and arid weather environments, the *FPM* model is the most precise approach (Yin *et al.*, 2008; El-Shirbeny & Abdellatif, 2017; El-Shirbeny *et al.*, 2021a; Gamal *et al.*, 2022; Afify *et al.*, 2023).

ET_c is evaluated based on a so-called two-step method. *ET₀* is first calculated, and all other crops and environmental factors are then taken into consideration using the semi-empirical

coefficient (*k_c*) (Allen *et al.*, 1998; Magliulo *et al.*, 2003; Silva *et al.*, 2012; Kamble *et al.*, 2013; El-Shirbeny *et al.*, 2015, 2021b, 2022; Gamal *et al.*, 2022). Potential modeling of *K_c* as a feature of the vegetation index was suggested by comparisons between the *K_c* curve and the satellite-derived vegetation index (Kamble *et al.*, 2013). The possibility of measuring *K_c* directly from satellite data was then examined (Magliulo *et al.*, 2003; El-Shirbeny *et al.*, 2014b, 2014c; El-Shirbeny & Saleh, 2021).

Remotely sensed data and strategies for irrigation water management have been studied and used effectively in recent years to estimate *ET_a* and *ET_c* (Rwasoka *et al.*, 2011; Merlin *et al.*, 2014; El-Shirbeny *et al.*, 2014a, 2014b, 2014d, 2015; Hu *et al.*, 2015; Tadesse *et al.*, 2015). Satellite data is used to track the tension of crop water for the specific management of agriculture and monitor crop behaviours (Ghulam *et al.*, 2008; Aboelghar *et al.*, 2010, 2011; Tolba, *et al.*, 2020; Ali *et al.*, 2021; Mohamed *et al.*, 2021).

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The water deficit index (WDI) is a function of the ratio of ET_a to ET_c (Hiler & Clark, 1971). Various satellite data, such as Landsat, NOAA/AVHRR, and MODIS, were used to measure WDI. To approximate WDI at two sites with different climatic influences on ET_a in Andalusia-Spain, a MODIS index dependent on the spatial relationship between LST and NDVI was evaluated by (Garcia *et al.*, 2014). The primary purpose of this paper is to use data and techniques that are remotely sensed to approximate the actual evapotranspiration in North Sinai.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area

The study area is located in the northeast of Egypt (Rafah to El-Arish), and the total area is 116747 Ha (1167.47Km²), as shown in Figure 1.

During the winter, irrigation in North Sinai relies on precipitation, but during the summer, it relies on underground water or water collected during the rainy season. A typical irrigation system in the study region is drip irrigation.

Low rainfall, high temperatures, mild wind, and high relative humidity define the dominant macro-climate parameters. The data were obtained from the meteorological station in El-Arish. At latitude 31.27 N, longitude 33.75 E, and elevation 15 m (a.s.l.), it was installed at 2 m above ground level. From 1985 to date, the values of T_{air}, relative humidity, wind speed, and rainfall were reported.

Satellite data

Satellite data from the NASA database can be viewed on the internet. The NASA database was used to cover the study area; NOAA/AVHRR (advanced very high resolution radiometric) was used for the measurement of K_c and E_To from 1 June to 30 June

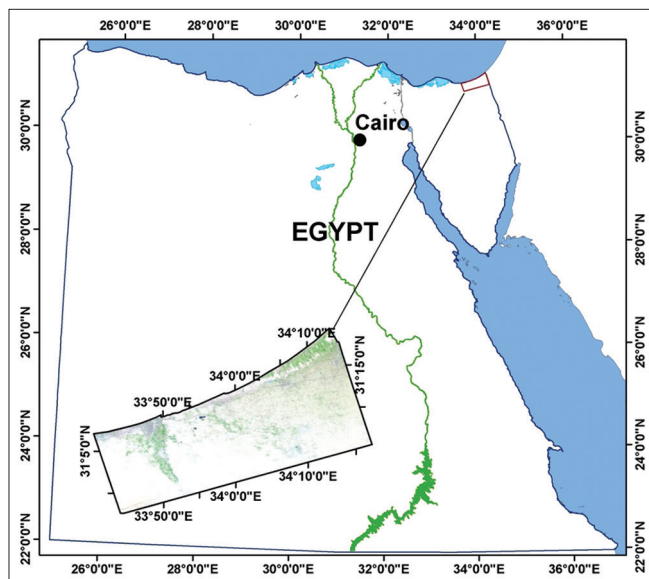


Figure 1: Shows the study area location

2006 and 2007 with 1100 m ground resolution and Landsat-8 data acquired on 25 June 2013 and 28 June 2014.

Extracting of LST and NDVI

NOAA data was analyzed by pursuing this procedure:- a) collection of clear-sky satellite overpasses; b) georeferencing data; c) 10-day average generation of NDVI data; d) 9-pixel computation implies LST over ground-based station location. The retrieved emissivity determined by Valor and Caselles (1996) (eq. 2, 3, and 4) algorithm is used by Sobrino *et al.* (1993) (equation 1), using the NDVI as a representative of the emissive characteristics. The emissivity vector was obtained as follows:-

$$LST = T_4 + [0.53 + 0.62(T_4 - T_5)] (T_4 - T_5) + 64(1 - \epsilon) \tag{1}$$

Where: T₄ and T₅ are brightness temperatures for channels 4 and 5 of AVHRR, and ε is mean emissivity for channels 4 and 5, (ε₄ + ε₅)/2.

$$\epsilon = 0.985P_v + 0.96(1 - P_v) + 0.06P_v(1 - P_v) \tag{2}$$

Thus:

$$P_v = \frac{(1 - \frac{i}{ig})}{(1 - \frac{i}{ig}) - k(1 - \frac{i}{iv})} \tag{3}$$

and k is:

$$k = \frac{\rho_2 v - \rho_1 v}{\rho_2 g - \rho_1 g} \tag{4}$$

Where: *i*, *ig*, and *iv* are NDVI, NDVI bare soil, NDVI vegetated surface, ρ₁ and ρ₂ are channels 1 and 2 reflectance's of AVHRR, and *v* and *g* are indexes for vegetation and bare soil. The monthly mean NDVI values for bare soil and vegetated areas are presented in Table 1.

The collected digital numbers (DN) for landsat8 data have been translated to radiance units (Rad) using calibration coefficients unique to each section.

Band 10 is used to extract LST as follows:-

$$\text{Radiance} = 0.0003342 * DN + 0.10000 \tag{5}$$

Surface emissivity (E_o) was estimated from the NDVI using the empirical equation developed from raw data on NDVI and thermal emissivity (Valor & Caselles, 1996).

Table 1: Illustrates NDVI values for bare soil and vegetated area from NOAA/AVHRR

Month	NDVI	
	Bare soil	Vegetation
June 2006	0.03	0.12
June 2007	0.04	0.12

$$E_o = 0.9932 + 0.0194 \ln NDVI \quad (6)$$

The radiant temperature (T_o) can be calculated from band 10 radiance ($Rad10$) using calibration constants $K_1=774.89$ and $K_2=1321.08$.

$$T_o = K_2/\ln((K_1/Rad10) + 1) \quad (7)$$

The radiant satellite temperature of the viewed Earth-atmosphere system is the corresponding temperature (Kelvin), which is correlated with, but not the same as, the surface (kinetic) temperature. To achieve a precise estimation of surface temperature from satellite thermal records, the atmospheric effects and surface thermal emissivity have to be considered (Norman *et al.*, 1995). From the top of the ambient radiant temperature (T_o) and measured surface emissivity (E_o), the LST is determined as:

$$LST = T_o/E_o \quad (8)$$

Reference evapotranspiration (ET_o) estimation

Using the FPM method equation (9) prepared by Allen *et al.* (1998), ET_o was computed from meteorological evidence.

$$ET_o = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T + 273} u_2 (e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + 0.34u_2)} \quad (9)$$

Where; ET_o , reference evapotranspiration [mm day⁻¹], R_n , net radiation at the crop surface [MJ m⁻² day⁻¹], G , soil heat flux density [MJ m⁻² day⁻¹], T , mean daily air temperature at 2 m height [°C], u_2 , wind speed at 2 m height [m s⁻¹], e_s , saturation vapor pressure [kPa], e_a , actual vapor pressure [kPa], $e_s - e_a$, saturation vapor pressure deficit [kPa], Δ , slope vapor pressure curve [kPa °C⁻¹], γ , psychrometric constant [kPa °C⁻¹].

The Hargreaves method was used to approximate ET_o from the expected T_{air} hourly equation (10) under the same conditions after calibration with FPM (El-Shirbeny *et al.*, 2016). In the case of low data availability, such as in northern Sinai, the FAO organization suggested this process. Minimum details, maximum, minimum, average air temperature, number of days, and latitude of the research region are used in this process. From estimations based on Landsat8 satellite results, the meteorological parameters used in this equation were obtained.

$$ET_o = 0.0023(T_{mean} + 17.8)(T_{max} - T_{min})^{0.5} * R_a \quad (10)$$

Where; T_{mean} is the average daily temperature (°C), T_{max} is the maximum temperature (°C), T_{min} is the minimum temperature (°C), and R_a is the extraterrestrial radiation. For each day of the year and different latitudes, it could be estimated from the solar constant.

R_a is the extra-terrestrial light, from the solar constant, the solar declination, and the period of the year with each day of the year and various latitudes may be calculated by:—

$$R_a = \frac{24(60)}{\pi} G_{so} d_r [\omega_s \sin(\phi) \sin(\sigma) + \cos(\phi) \cos(\sigma) \sin(\omega_s)] \quad (11)$$

Where; R_a is extraterrestrial radiation [MJ m⁻² day⁻¹], G_{so} is solar constant (0.0820 MJ m⁻² min⁻¹), d_r is inverse relative distance Earth-Sun, ω_s is sunset hour angle [rad], ϕ is latitude [rad], d is solar declination [rad]. The corresponding equivalent evaporation in (mm day⁻¹) is obtained by multiplying R_a by 0.408. The latitude (ϕ) expressed in radians is positive for the northern hemisphere and negative for the southern hemisphere.

The inverse relative distance Earth-Sun (d_r) and the solar declination (δ) are given by:

$$d_r = 1 + 0.033 * \cos(2 * J^*/365) \quad (12)$$

$$\delta = 0.409 * \sin((2 * J^*/365) - 139) \quad (13)$$

Where: J is the number of the day in the year between 1 (1 January) and 365 or 366 (31 December), and the sunset hour angle (ω_s) is given by:

$$\omega_s = \arccos[-\tan(\phi) \tan(\delta)] \quad (14)$$

As the arccos function is not available in all computer languages, the sunset hour angle can also be computed using the arctan function:

$$\omega_s = (J/2) - \arctan[-\tan(\phi) * \tan(\delta)/X0.5] \quad (15)$$

Where:-

$$X = 1 - [\tan(\phi)]^2 [\tan(\delta)]^2 \text{ and } X = 0.00001 \text{ if } X \leq 0 \quad (16)$$

Crop coefficient (K_c) estimation

K_c is a dimensionless number (usually between 0.1 and 1.2) used to calculate (ET_c). The relation between K_c and $NDVI$ is represented by equation (17), used by El-Shirbeny *et al.* (2014b) and calibrated for wheat by El-Shirbeny *et al.* (2014c).

$$K_c = \frac{1.2}{NDVI_{dv}} (NDVI - NDVI_{mv}) \quad (17)$$

Where; 1.2 is the maximum K_c under Egyptian conditions, $NDVI_{dv}$ is the difference between the minimum and maximum $NDVI$ value for vegetation, and $NDVI_{mv}$ is the minimum $NDVI$ value for vegetation.

Water deficit Index (WDI) and ET_a estimation

Moran *et al.* (1994) developed the WDI method to measure the amount of ET_a occurring to the ET_c (equation 18).

$$WDI = 1 - \frac{ET_a}{ET_c} \quad (18)$$

WDI uses both LST subtracting T_{air} and a vegetation index to estimate the relative water status of a field (equation 19).

$$WDI = \frac{\Delta T - \Delta T_m}{\Delta T_x - \Delta T_m} \tag{19}$$

Where: ΔT is the difference between measured surface and air temperature, ΔT_m is the difference between minimum surface and air temperature, and ΔT_x is the difference between maximum surface and air temperature.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Minimum, Maximum, and Mean T_{air} Prediction

Particularly with the surface water status, the roughness duration, and the wind speed, the difference between T_{air} and LST differs. The relation between T_{air} and LST in the thermodynamics of the biosphere is always quite elusive due to certain physical conditions. To forecast T_{air} from LST , this relationship was used. At night, LST was lower than T_{air} , but it was the reverse on the day, owing to the higher surface energy released and wind speed and air humidity influencing T_{air} . Due to clouds, the amount of data during the night was smaller than during the day. Figure 2a indicates the relationship in the El-Arish area between T_{air} (°C) and LST (°C) derived from NOAA/AVHRR 17 and 18. Mean hourly T_{air} (Figure 2b) was used to predict min, max, and mean T_{air} .

Hargreaves method compared with FPM

ET_o was estimated under the same conditions for five years (2002-2006) using agro-meteorological data according to

Hargreaves and FPM methods. The majority of ET_o values measured using Hargreaves were relatively high; 15 mm/day was achieved. Because the Mediterranean Sea’s closest research location and several variables such as wind speed and relative humidity will influence it, and the Hargreaves approach relies on a few parameters, it must be adjusted with a standard method such as FPM or Lysimeter.

Allen *et al.* (1989) analyzed common Penman equation forms and general ET_o estimation relationships. They made a correlation between the penman equation corrected for FAO-24 and Lysimeter. They also formed a partnership between Kimberly-Penman and Penman-Monteith v. Lysimeter in 1982.

Besides the Penman-Monteith, all methods used in the regular study were modified using the 1.15 multiplier for the Lysimeter vegetation sort. Compatibility with paper guidelines (Allen *et al.*, 1989) and FAO56; Evapotranspiration measured under the same conditions and period using the Hargreaves system was adjusted using the FPM process. Figure 3a shows the relationship between the ET_o determined by the Hargreaves method and the meteorological data-based FPM process, and Figure 3b displays the ET_o -Har compared with FPM after calibration. A strong connexion was given where $R^2 = 0.78$. On the other hand, the relationship between ET_a determined by Hargreaves and FPM based on remotely sensed data, as seen in Figure 4, and R^2 was strong at 0.99 on 25 June 2013 and 28 June 2014, respectively.

ET_c estimation

For real-time irrigation calculation, exact regular ET_o monitoring is required. Luo *et al.* (2014) suggested a system

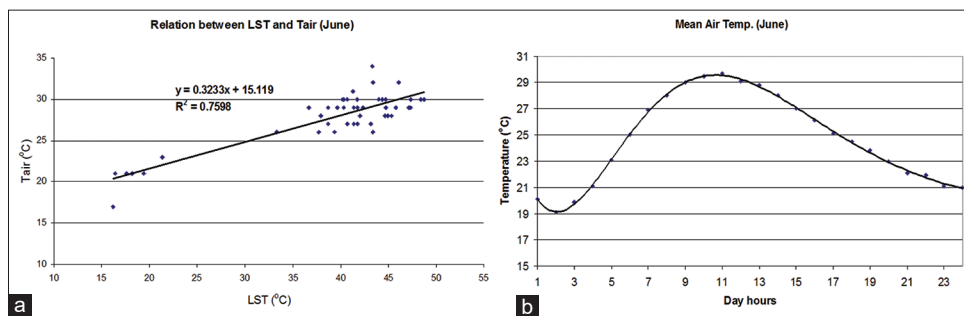


Figure 2: (a) Shows the relation between T_{air} (oC) and LST (oC) In the El-Arish region, and (b) Shows the average hourly T_{air} for June month

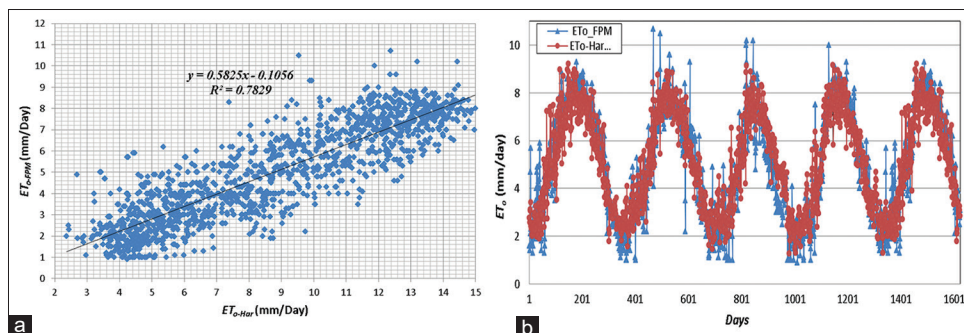


Figure 3: (a) shows the relation between ET_o by Hargreaves and FPM and (b) shows the validation of ET_{o-Har} compared with FPM

to uses the locally tuned Hargreaves-Samani model and temperature predictions to predict ET_o in the short term. Bois *et al.* (2008) focused on satellite data and ground stations, using FPM, Hargreaves, and Radiation methods to measure reference evapotranspiration. After calibration with FPM, ET_o was extracted from Landsat8 data as per Hargreaves. Figure 5 displays the Hargreaves-estimated ET_o after calibration. It ranged from 5 to 10.5 (mm/day) on 25 June 2013 and from 7 to 10.5 (mm/day) on 28 June 2014.

K_c depends on the height of the canopy, crop growth, design, and cover stage (Allen *et al.*, 1998). There is an excellent link between the interaction between K_c and NDVI. NDVI was determined from the Red and NIR bands of Landsat8 data acquired on 25 June 2013 and 28 June 2014, respectively. Values in the range of -1.0 to 1.0 are created by the NDVI equation, where vegetated areas usually have values greater than 0.2, and lower values represent non-vegetated surface characteristics,

such as water, ice, snow, or clouds. Depending on crop age, planting density, and chlorophyll operation, NDVI varies. It looks like the K_c curve from planting to senescence, which reflects the life cycle. Figure 6 shows the variance of K_c values according to Landsat8 data in the study region. K_c ranged from 0 to 1.2 in the sample region.

ET_o and K_c were used to estimate ET_c . ET_{c-FPM} values varied from 0 to 6 and 7.5 (mm/day) on the 25th of June 2013 and 28th of June 2014, respectively. ET_{c-Har} values varied from 0 to 7 and 8.5 (mm/day) on the 25th of June 2013 and 28th of June 2014, respectively. Figure 7 shows ET_c distribution in the study area.

WDI and ET_a estimation

Stomata are closed while plants are under water tension, which causes transpiration to stop, increasing leaf temperature (Jackson *et al.*, 1981). The response of crop yield to water

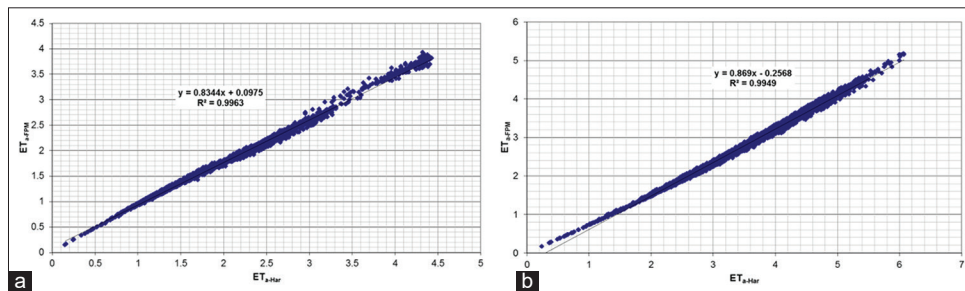


Figure 4: (a) shows the relation between ET_a estimated by Hargreaves and FPM on the 25th of June 2013 and (b) shows the relation between ET_a estimated by Hargreaves and FPM on 28th of June 2014

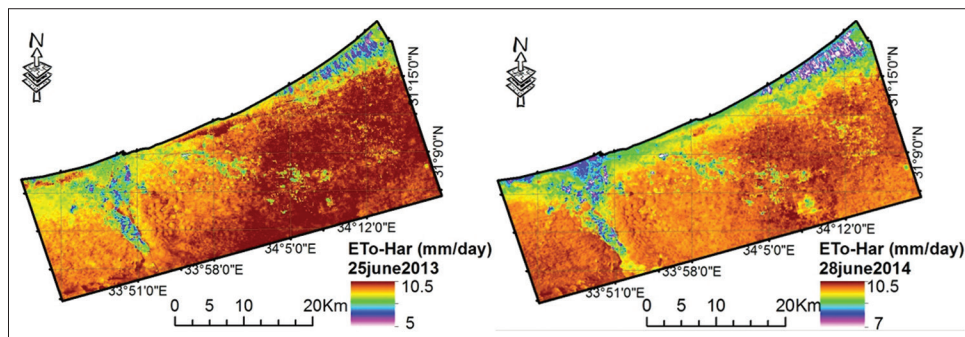


Figure 5: ET_o estimated by Hargreaves after calibration with FPM

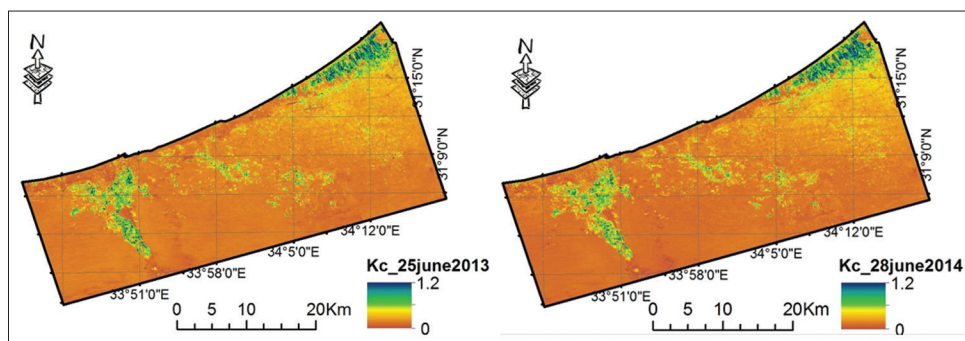


Figure 6: K_c extracted from Landsat8 according to equation no. (18)

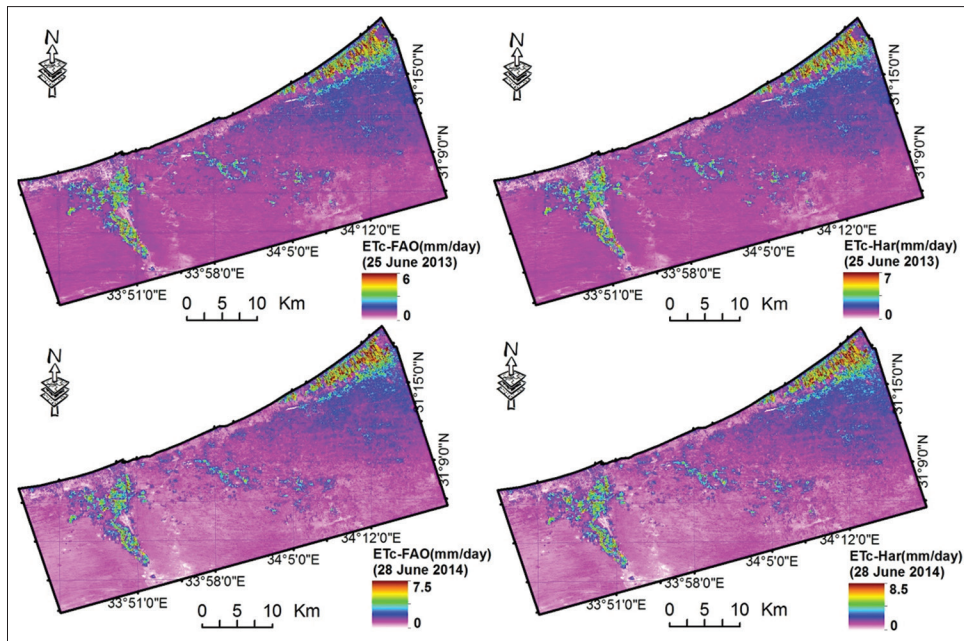


Figure 7: ET_c distribution in the study area

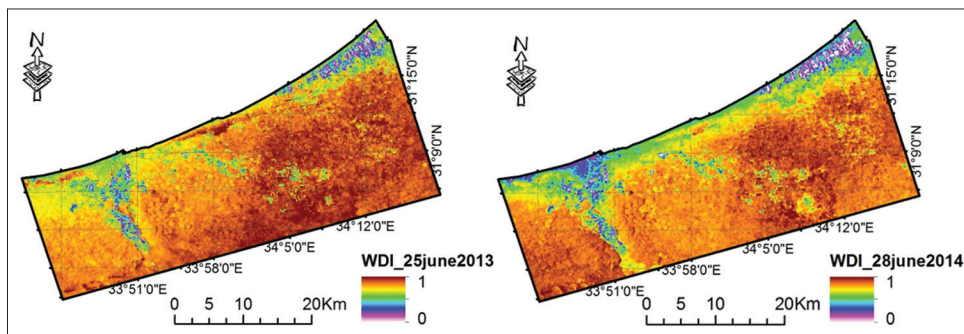


Figure 8: WDI distribution in the study area

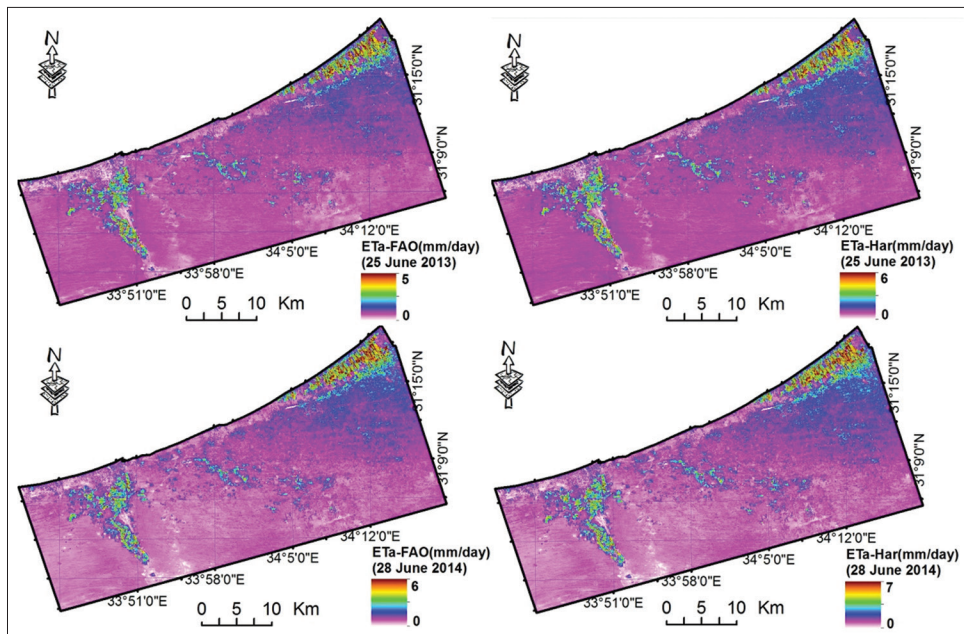


Figure 9: ET_a distribution in the study area

stress differs with the form of the crop and differs with the atmosphere. For a single crop in various climates and soils to be used in yield estimation and irrigation scheduling, the values of WDI can be calculated (Erdem *et al.*, 2006). The canopy would not fully cover the surface of the soil during the early season of annual crops and specific cultivation systems, and the dry soil is also much colder than Tair. Moran *et al.* (1994) created the WDI to solve this issue since the context of the canopy used in LST will contribute to false indications of water tension. WDI influenced changes in LST and Tair. A WDI value of 0 reveals no water stress, and a value of 1 suggests maximum water stress (Figure 8).

In arid and semi-arid ecosystems, based on water regimes, ET varies across a broad spectrum. Moreover, all the other mutually related factors are automatically influenced by the variation of one temperature parameter. This reality makes it hard to determine the ETa properly (Rana & Katerji, 2000). Er-Raki *et al.* (2007) evaluated the efficacy of three approaches focused on the FAO-56 Kc methodology to predict ETa for winter wheat in Morocco's semi-arid conditions under various irrigation treatments. ETa has been calculated in line with Equation (18). It was influenced by the WDI and ETc shifts. The ETa-FPM values on 25 June 2013 and 28 June 2014 ranged from 0 to 5 and 6 (mm/day), respectively, while the ETa-Har values on 25 June 2013 and 28 June 2014 ranged from 0 to 6 and 7 (mm/day), respectively. An increase in ETa according to land cover type, crop level, weather conditions, and water stress conditions was observed, as shown in Figure 9.

CONCLUSION

In arid and semi-arid areas, ETa is the most essential desired parameter for assessing crop water consumption. ETa can be measured across various models that differ in complexity, but the precision of the ETa assessment is proportional to the degree of validation and calibration. Restricting ground data is a real issue in Egypt and developing countries. Alternatively, satellite data are used after validation or calibration, especially in the agricultural field. Hargreaves after calibration with FPM is an appropriate method for calculating ETa in low-accessible data countries. ETa determined by Hargreaves based on remotely sensed data was overestimated by approximately 0.8 (mm/day) associated with the FPM process. Scheduling irrigation policies with remotely sensed methods would be more straightforward. It could be a valuable and low-cost tool for evaluating the supply of crop water and enhancing water management by regulating water use and increasing agricultural sustainability.

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