

Spatial Modeling of Relationship Between Soil Erosion Factors and Land-use Changes at Sub-Watershed Scale for the Talar Watershed, Iran

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1 **Spatial Modeling of Relationship between Soil Erosion Factors and Land-Use Changes**
2 **at Sub-Watershed Scale for the Talar Watershed, Iran**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 Soil erosion is one of the most common types of land degradation. To provide useful information for proper
18 management, quantitative soil erosion evaluation and identification of effective factors are needed. However,
19 rare studies have been reported on spatial modeling of soil erosion in connection with affective factors to
20 prioritize the locality and the type of erosion control measures Hence, the aim of this study was to (1) assess
21 erosion-prone areas in the Talar Watershed, Iran, using the Revised Universal Soil Loss Equation (RUSLE)
22 model, and (2) investigate the relationship between soil erosion variability and land-use changes. Toward that,
23 the ordinary least squares (OLS), geographically weighted regression (GWR) models, and Principal Component
24 Analysis (PCA) were used to analyze spatial relationships between soil erosion, and land-use, and the RUSLE
25 factors. The results of the OLS and GWR models indicated these relationships are spatially non-stationary and
26 GWR models had a good predictive performance rather than OLS with lower Akaike's Information Criterion
27 (from 254.31 to 276.81 in OLS, and from 247.87 to 269.42 in GWR) and higher adjusted R² values (from 0.12

28 to 0.54 in OLS, and from 0.36 to 0.66 in GWR). Among the aforementioned variables, LS factor, P factor,
29 forest, and irrigated land were the most effective variables in GWR models. The results of PCA showed PC1
30 and PC2 explained 66.2 % of the variation in soil erosion concerning land-use and the RUSLE factors. These
31 results provided appropriate references for managers and experts in the proper planning of the study watershed.

32

33 **Keywords:** Albourzian Watershed; Soil Degradation; Regression Analysis; Remote Sensing; Spatial Non-
34 stationarity

35

36 1. Introduction

37 Soil erosion is one of the most serious environmental issues that is linked to land degradation. As a result, soil
38 erosion is the primary cause (> 85%) of land loss (Tang et al., 2015). It causes some direct on-site and off-site
39 problems such as soil nutrient loss, reduced agricultural productivity, land abandonment (Nunes et al., 2011;
40 Ochoa et al., 2016; De Long et al., 2019), and some secondary environmental problems viz. flooding, river
41 siltation, and water pollution (Chakraborty et al. 2020). Furthermore, Soil erosion is an environmental threat to
42 sustainable development. Water erosion affects some 1100 Mha of land worldwide which is almost twice what
43 occurred by wind erosion (Ganasri and Ramesh 2016). As a result, for effective soil and water conservation and
44 adaptation of certain management strategies, monitoring, and estimation of water erosion, as well as
45 identification of critical areas for the implementation of managerial practice and technical measures, are needed.
46 Remote sensing (RS) technology together with the Geographical Information Systems (GIS) provides some
47 valuable information to help policymakers make sound planning decisions about implementing erosion control
48 strategies, while it remains the most effective and time-consuming method. Many models, such as the Soil and
49 Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) (Halecki et al., 2018), the Water Erosion Prediction Project (WEPP) (Anache
50 et al., 2018), the Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE) (Gia et al., 2018), the Revised Universal Soil Loss
51 Equation (RUSLE) (Chicas et al., 2016), and Erosion Productivity Impact Calculator (EPIC) (Gao et al., 2017)
52 have been developed in this way for risk evaluation or predictive assessment of water erosion. Each model has
53 its own set of features and implementation possibilities. The RUSLE and its previous version (USLE) are
54 accepted universally, because of reasonable costs, applicability, and reliability of results which has been
55 corroborated as one of the best and most widely used models for estimating soil erosion (Prasannakumar et al.,
56 2011; Fayas et al., 2019; Efthimiou et al., 2020).

57 RUSLE predicts soil loss using rainfall erosivity, topography, soil erodibility, and vegetation cover and practice
58 management, which will be effective for better understanding the erosion process. Many researchers have
59 shown that soil erosion is influenced by some other factors such as characteristics of soil particle size
60 distribution (Wang et al., 2008), different crop types (Ruysschaert et al., 2007), and land-use (De Long et al.,
61 2019; Vanacker et al., 2019). Changes in the land-use distribution pattern, known as landscape and land-use
62 morphology, can also affect soil erosion. Soil erosion is influenced by both land-use types and landscape
63 morphology.

64 Some researchers have applied traditional statistical analysis and ordinary least squares (OLS) model to explore
65 relationships among dependent and independent factors, as a result, the relationships are spatially consistent
66 across the entire study area. In the other words, these traditional statistical methods provide average and global
67 relationships, which may neglect some significant spatial characteristics and may hide local variations.
68 Generating a global relationship shows the average conditions while local variations of parameters are ignored.
69 In this light, advanced approaches can be used to address current limitations and assess spatial heterogeneity in
70 relationships. In this vein, a local statistical model called geographically weighted regression (GWR) was
71 proposed by Brunson et al. (1996) to determine the spatial non-stationary relationships. This technique
72 provides spatially weighting information, which enables the regression models to be various locally.

73 In the past, GWR and OLS have been used in a variety of fields including the ecology and even human
74 geography (Tu 2011), NDVI-rainfall relationship (Georganos et al., 2017), land use, and land cover
75 (Dadashpoor et al., 2019), soil organic carbon (Mirchooli et al., 2020a), land surface temperature (Li et al.,
76 2020; Zhao et al., 2018a; Mirchooli et al., 2020b). Many studies investigated the relationships among soil
77 erosion, and the RUSLE factors and land-uses using commonly global statistical models (Mehri et al., 2018;
78 Setyawan et al., 2019; Nyesheja et al., 2019). A review of the current literature reveals that the majority of
79 studies used a single model to apply soil erosion and other driving forces variables to all data, which was
80 uniformly distributed throughout the entire study area. To achieve an acceptable result, research on the spatial
81 non-stationary relationship among soil erosion, and different variables is necessary for better understanding
82 these relationships. Therefore, the main goals of the current research are to 1) assess the spatial distribution of
83 soil erosion for the Talar Watershed, Iran using the RUSLE model, 2) assess local spatial distributions of soil
84 erosion using cluster analysis and classify similar sub-watersheds, and 3) identify spatial variations of soil
85 erosion in response to the land-use area and the RUSLE factors using PCA, OLS, and GWR models.

86

87 2. Materials and Methods

88 2.1. Study area

89 The Talar Watershed in eastern Mazandaran Province, north of Iran, was used as a case study for this study. It is
90 located at 36 36 to 36 46 N and 55 23 to 54 31 E with an area of ca. 211000 ha. Talar is one of the most
91 significant rivers draining into the Caspian Sea. The Talar watershed has been subjected to a variety of human
92 interventions, including fuel, timber smuggling, livestock grazing, road construction, mine exploitation, and
93 factory development (Kavian et al., 2018) leading to serious threats to the water quality and soil condition in the
94 watershed. The Talar River with 100 km length intersects the Kassilian River with a length of 50 km (Talar).
95 With mean annual precipitation of 552.7 mm, the climate in this watershed is semi-humid and cold. The annual
96 mean minimum and maximum temperatures are 7.7 and 21.1 °C, respectively. This watershed is characterized
97 by gentle steep hill slopes (< 12 %) which lie between the southeast highland plains and land at the vicinity of
98 the watershed outlet. Highlands and sloping areas (> 60%) comprise 14.2 % of the total area, while inclinations
99 of more than 30 % constitute 38 %. (Mohammadi et al., 2019). Fig. 1 presents the general geographical view of
100 the location and other important information of the Talar Watershed in the north of Iran and Mazandaran
101 Province. In this watershed, the lands were natural forest, but the land-use change occurred by the local people
102 and industries as well. In this watershed, the natural forest was converted to agricultural and pasture lands made
103 the watershed more vulnerable to soil erosion. The main land-uses are Forest, rangeland, dry farming, irrigated
104 agriculture, residential area (Mohamadi et al., 2016).

105 To achieve the goals of the study, remote sensing data and input data of the RUSLE model were processed to
106 obtain a land-use map and soil erosion. Three models of PCA, OLS, and GWR were used to investigate the
107 relationships among soil erosion, and the RUSLE factors, and land-uses. The flowchart presented in Fig. 2
108 shows the proposed method in this study.

109

110 **Fig. 1**

111 **Fig. 2**

112

113 2.2. Data pre-processing

114 Land-use distribution map of Talar watershed was obtained using Landsat 8/Operational Land Imager (OLI)
115 image (02.07.2014) and supervised classification algorithm in the ENVI 5.3 software environment (Torabi
116 Haghghi et al., 2018). Five land-use classes were identified including forest, rangeland, irrigated agriculture,
117 rainfed agriculture, and residential area. To meet the requirement for the RUSLE model, the monthly

118 precipitation data were obtained from the Ministry of Energy (<http://www.moe.gov.ir/>), and a digital elevation
 119 model was downloaded from www.earthexplorer.usgs.gov to compute the LS factor. In addition, to prepare K
 120 factor inputs, 140 points of soil samples were collected based on homogeneous land units resulting from
 121 overlying soil types, land-use/cover, and slope layers.

122 After that, the necessary geo-referenced, radiometric, and FLAASH atmospheric corrections were made. In
 123 addition, the Talar Watershed's land-use map was generated using supervised classification and maximum
 124 likelihood algorithm. Some point samples of 1250 were collected during the field survey and divided into two
 125 sets of validation and training with respective values of 30 and 70 %. The error matrix, as well as the accuracy
 126 of the producer and the accuracy of the user, were used to determine the overall accuracy of land-use.

127

128 2.3. Soil erosion estimation

129 The RUSLE model is used as the simplest model to estimate soil erosion in this analysis. Eq. (1) was used to
 130 measure the mean annual soil loss (A) (Renard et al., 1991):

$$A = R \times K \times LS \times C \times P \quad (1)$$

131 where R is rainfall erosivity factor [$\text{MJ mm} \cdot (\text{ha}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1} \text{year}^{-1})$]; K is the soil erodibility factor [$\text{ton ha}^{-1} \text{h MJ}^{-1} \text{ha}^{-1}$
 132 mm^{-1}]; LS is the slope length and steepness factor (dimensionless); C is the cover management factor
 133 (dimensionless), and P is the conservation support or erosion control practices factor (dimensionless).

134 **Rainfall erosivity (R):** R factor reflected the soil erosion potential caused by rainfall was calculated using the
 135 Renard and Freimund (1994) method according to Eqs. (2) to (4):

$$R = 0.7397F^{1.847}, F < 55 \text{ mm} \quad (2)$$

$$R = 95.77 - 6.081F + 0.477F^2, F > 55 \text{ mm} \quad (3)$$

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^{12} P_i^2 / \bar{P} \quad (4)$$

136 In which F is the modified index value, P_i is average monthly precipitation (mm), \bar{P} is average annual
 137 precipitation (mm).

138 **Soil erodibility (K):** The Wischmeier and Smith equation was used to determine the soil erodibility factor in
 139 this analysis (Eq. 5) (Wischmeier 1976).

$$100K = 2.1M^{1.14} \times 10^{-4} \times (12 - \%OM) + 3.25(S - 2) + 2.5(P - 3) \quad (5)$$

140 where K is the Soil erodibility factor, M is the particle size parameter (% silt + %very fine sand) * (100 - %
 141 clay), OM is the organic matter content (%), S and P are the classes for soil structure and permeability,
 142 respectively.

143 **Topographic factor (LS):** LS factor reflects the combined impact of slope length (L) and steepness (S) on soil
 144 erosion. In this study, a program is written in Arc Macro Language (ALM) (Hickey 2000) updated in 2004 with
 145 the C++ programming language (<http://www.iamg.org>), was applied to calculate the LS factor.

146 **Land cover management (C):** The protective impact of ground covers against erosive rainfall i.e., C factor was
 147 calculated using Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) according to Eq. (6)(Nearing et al., 1989) :

$$C \text{ Factor} = 0.407 - 0.5953 \times NDVI \quad (6)$$

148 **Conservation practices factor (P):** The relevant P factor value was calculated in this study using a method
 149 proposed by Troeh et al. (1980), which was partly based on land-use data.

150

151 2.4. Spatial modeling

152 2.4.1. OLS and GWR models

153 To understand the importance of the RUSLE factors and land-uses in the estimated soil erosion, and the spatial
 154 relationships among them, the OLS and GWR models were applied in the present study.

155 OLS is the primary statistical and global model and examines the average condition over the space as shown in
 156 Eq. (7).

$$y = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j x_j + \varepsilon \quad (7)$$

157 where x_i is the independent variables (i.e., RUSLE factors and land-use areas) and y is the dependent variable
 158 (i.e., soil erosion); n is the number of independent variables; β_0 is intercept and β_i and ε represent respectively
 159 coefficient and error.

160 Whilst, the GWR model is a local form of linear regression that overcomes the limitation of the OLS model.

161 This model improves the results of OLS by recognizing the spatial variation in the relationship among the
 162 variables. GWR improve the OLS model by considering the local parameters estimate for each observation i as

163 expressed in Eq. (8):

$$y_i = \beta_0(u_i, v_i) + \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j(u_i, v_i) x_{ij} + \varepsilon_i \quad (8)$$

164 where y_i is the value of the soil erosion at location i , (u_i, v_i) is the spatial location of i^{th} data, $\beta_0(u_i, v_i)$ acts as
165 intercept, and $\beta_j(u_i, v_i)$ is the value of the j^{th} parameter at the location of i , ε_i is the random error for location i
166 (Georganos et al., 2017).

167 The location distance i is used to measuring the weight of data which varies with i . The parameters in a matrix
168 form at location i are estimated with the help of Eq. (9):

$$\hat{\beta}(u_i, v_i) = [X^T W(u_i, v_i) X]^{-1} X^T W(u_i, v_i) Y \quad (9)$$

169 where $W(u_i, v_i)$ is a spatial weighting matrix, X is an independent data (i.e., RUSLE factors, and land-use areas)
170 matrix and Y is a soil erosion data vector (Fotheringham et al., 2002; Gao and Li, 2011).

171 Although several functions have the potential to be used for determining the weighting matrix, the common
172 method of Gaussian function was applied to calculate the weight of each point using Eq. (10):

$$w_{ij} = e^{-0.5(d_{ij}/h)^2} \quad (10)$$

173 where W_{ij} is the weight of observation at location j for estimating the dependent variable at location i , and h is a
174 bandwidth.

175 Wang et al. (2005 and 2006) regressed this equation as a distance decay function, which means that the higher
176 the weight of position j , the closer it is to location i . In the GWR model, the maximum distance from location i
177 as bandwidth controlled the size of the neighborhood was considered. The fixed kernel appropriate for little data
178 with evenly distributed in space (Georganos et al., 2017; Taghipour Javi et al., 2014) was used for developing
179 the GWR model in the current research.

180 In the present study, OLS and GWR were conducted in ArcGIS 10.3. Finally, adjusted R^2 and Akaike's
181 Information Criterion (AIC) were used to measure and compare the accuracy and performance of these models,
182 in which the higher adjusted R^2 and lower AIC means, the better performance of the model.

183

184 2.4.2. Principal component analysis

185 Principal Component Analysis (PCA), a multivariate statistical technique, was used to provide information
186 about the most important factors and to describe the variance of the data (Pejman et al. 2015). In the present
187 study, the PCA approach was used to analyze the relationship between soil erosion, land-use, and the RUSLE
188 factors, and verify the key potential factor of soil erosion in the studied region, using R software, FactoMineR,
189 and factoextra packages.

190

191 3. Results and Discussion

192 **3.1. Estimation of soil erosion**

193 The value of the R factor was ranged from 209.65 to 503.24 (MJ mm ha⁻¹ h⁻¹ y⁻¹) across the study watershed that
194 the highest and lowest values were distributed in the northern and western parts of the watershed, respectively.
195 The mean value of this factor was 308.25 MJ mm ha⁻¹ h⁻¹ y⁻¹ which along with the results of Sadeghi and
196 Tavangar (2015). In the case of the K factor, values were distributed between 0.02 and 0.09 with the highest
197 values in central areas. The values of the LS factor varied from some 0.00 to 140.82 following flow
198 accumulation and slope steepness. The values of the C factor were found to be between 0.24 and 0.46.
199 Ultimately, the P factor ranged from 0.10 to 0.70. The spatial distribution of soil loss based on RUSLE is
200 illustrated in Fig. 4.

201 Soil erosion potential was then divided into three categories of low, moderate, and strong. Low soil erosion is
202 observed in most areas of the watershed, especially in the east and southeast. Soil erosion is most prevalent in
203 the central parts of the watershed, where almost all affective factors are high except R.

204 **Fig. 3**

205

206 To assess soil erosion for the Talar Watershed, enhanced hierarchical Cluster analysis based on Euclidean
207 distance was adapted to cluster data of soil erosion in the sub-watersheds.

208 Cluster analysis generated a dendrogram, grouping all 34 sub-watersheds into two major clusters of sub-
209 watersheds. In one group, all sub-watersheds with a low level of soil erosion are clustered together. The other
210 group includes sub-watersheds with a high level of soil erosion which can be further subdivided into three
211 additional clusters. The results of cluster analysis are shown in Fig. 4.

212 Group 1 consisted of sub-watersheds 5, 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 10, 11; group 2 included sub-watersheds 27, 30, 34, 32, 33;
213 and group 3 comprised sub-watersheds 14, 15, 17, 18, 4, 6, 9, 12, 13, and group 4 included remained sub-
214 watersheds of the Talar Watershed. The sub-watersheds in the same group have similar characteristics in terms
215 of soil erosion. In the case of group 1, these sub-watersheds were located near the outlet of the watershed were
216 mainly influenced by dense forest cover (i.e., lower C factor) and the least human interferences and good land-use
217 (i.e., lower P factor).

218

219 **Fig. 4**

220

221 **3.2. Development of OLS and GWR models**

222 In this research, different variables including areas of some land-use types viz. rainfed agriculture, forest,
223 irrigated agriculture, rangeland, urban, R factor, K factor, LS factor, C factor, and P factor were used to predict
224 soil erosion using OLS and GWR for the Talar Watershed.

225 The OLS models were conducted before the GWR models. The analysis of OLS statistics namely Jarque-Bera
226 Statistic showed that it was not significant (p values=0.26-0.87) for all variables which meant the residuals were
227 not normally distributed. The normal distribution of residual indicated that the model was biased and missed
228 some key effective variables. Moreover, For the studied variables, the joint F-statistics were significant (p-value
229 <0.05), meaning that the relationship between the dependent and independent variables was non-stationary and
230 that the GWR model might boost it. The variables of urban and rainfed agriculture areas with Jarque-Bera
231 Statistic and Joint F-statistics of respective p-values of <0.05 and >0.05, were removed from further analyses.

232 The adjusted R-squared (R^2) and AICs were used to compare the model performances. So that, the models with
233 higher adjusted R^2 and lower AICs were considered as better performed models. In the OLS model, among the
234 areas of land-uses variables, area of forest and irrigated farming were the most effective variables with adjusted
235 R^2 and AICs values of 0.29, 269.20, and 0.14 and 275.99, respectively. The detailed results are shown in Table
236 1. Furthermore, model (10) of the P factor following by model (8) of the C factor were the most important
237 factors among other models of the RUSLE factors in the OLS models.

238 GWR statistics are shown in Table 1 also explained that the higher variance and lower AIC values rather than
239 OLS models in all studied models which confirmed the results of other researchers in other fields (Zhao et al.,
240 2018b; Dadashpoor et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). The variable of the irrigated land farming area had the greatest
241 effect with the least AIC and maximum adjusted R^2 .

242

243 **Table 1**

244

245 The outputs of the GWR model offered a spatial illustration of the independent variables in describing soil
246 erosion in the Talar Watershed. The spatial pattern of local adjusted R^2 for independent variables is shown in
247 Fig. 5. It indicated that local R^2 was not homogeneously distributed for the Talar Watershed. Most local adjusted
248 R^2 values for the K factor were less than 0.50, suggesting that the K factor was linked to soil erosion in the
249 southern regions of the study watershed. The K factor had positive regression coefficients, which indicated that
250 an increase in K factor could result in a soil erosion increase, and the influence was higher in the northern and
251 central sub-watersheds.

252 In almost all sub-watersheds, the LS factor can explain more than 26% of the spatial variation in soil erosion.
253 Some researchers have also reported similar findings of the important impact of topography on soil erosion
254 (Nazari and Mohammady, 2017; Chalise et al., 2018). The increase in LS factor affected the soil erosion more
255 strongly in the northern and central sub-watersheds with a local regression coefficient of 4.59–5.29, which
256 meant the change of LS factor could increase the soil erosion up to a maximum level of 459 %–529 % in local
257 areas.

258 From the north to the south of the watershed, the local adjusted R^2 for the C factor was found to be decreasing.
259 As a result, the C factor had a greater effect on soil erosion in the upper parts of the watershed than it did in the
260 lower parts. Similarly, the highest local adjusted R^2 of the P factor was obtained for sub-watersheds located at
261 the northern part of the watershed. Generally, it can be explained that among the RUSLE factors, LS and P
262 factors had a large impact on soil erosion due to topographic characteristics of the Talar Watershed, and suitable
263 protective measurement in most parts of the watershed.

264 These local variations in local adjusted R^2 for the P factor showed that the spatial trends of the P factor were
265 better associated with soil erosion in some northern parts of the watershed, while correlations in the southern
266 parts were weaker. In the sub-watersheds 32 and 34, the P factor was negatively associated with soil erosion,
267 and the largest value of the local coefficient was found in the north of the Talar watershed.

268 **Fig. 5**

269
270 The local coefficient and local adjusted R^2 distributions of the land-use for soil erosion in the GWR models are
271 shown in Fig. 6. As indicated, the northern and central parts of the watershed with the most area of irrigated land
272 had higher values of local adjusted R^2 . The global coefficient for irrigated land, on the other hand, was -0.04,
273 suggesting a negative relationship between soil erosion and irrigated land areas. The local map of irrigated land
274 coefficients, however, showed a range of -0.059 to 0.154, indicating the spatial heterogeneity of the model. The
275 relationships between soil erosion and areas of irrigated land had complex local characteristics. The sign of the
276 local coefficients for this variable switched from positive in the southeastern sub-watersheds to negative in the
277 other sub-watersheds. Cropping systems, mainly wheat cultivated on sloping lands with intrinsic high soil
278 erodibility, represented the prone areas of the watershed to soil loss among different irrigated lands and caused a
279 positive relationship with soil erosion.

280 For forest land-use, an obvious spatial correlation between forest area and soil erosion had been determined by
281 local adjusted R^2 values. The local adjusted R^2 in the northern sub-watershed was greater than those of southern

282 parts of the watershed due to the greater presence of forestlands in this part of the watershed. Forestland had
283 negative regression coefficients that indicated that a decrease in the area of the forest could increase soil erosion.
284 This close relationship between forestland and soil erosion had also been verified by other research (Koirala et
285 al., 2019; Belayneh et al., 2019; Jazouli et al., 2019).

286 In the term of local adjusted R^2 and coefficient of rangeland areas, southern parts of the watershed showed a
287 weaker correlation with soil erosion rather than northern parts. However, the rangeland mostly covers the
288 southern sub-watersheds. This could be attributed to rangeland conditions, which are more degraded in the
289 northern sub-watersheds than southern parts.

290 The result of the GWR model showed a meaningful relationship between soil erosion and land-uses for the Talar
291 Watershed, particularly for forestland. In this way, studies reported that land-use is an important factor that
292 exacerbates the roles of rainfall and slope steepness on soil erosion processes (Thornes et al., 1990; Thornes and
293 Wainwright, 2004). In the last two decades, a large area of the Talar watershed turned to agriculture through
294 deforestation and land conversion (Kavian et al., 2018) leading to dramatic soil erosion as confirmed by other
295 researchers (e.g., Chaplot et al., 2005).

296

297

Fig. 6

298 **3.3. Principle component analysis (PCA)**

299 The scree plot obtained from PCA analysis revealed ten principal components (PCs) in soil erosion prediction as
300 shown in Fig. 7. In total, PC1 and PC2 explained 66.2 % of soil erosion resulted from the RUSLE model
301 concerning land-use and the RUSLE factors, which gave a good idea of data structure. PC1 and PC2 represented
302 40.7 % and 25.5 % of the total variance for soil erosion about explanatory variables, respectively. The
303 contribution of different explanatory variables in PC1 and PC2 of soil erosion is indicated in Fig. 8.

304

305

306

Fig. 7

307

Fig. 8

308

309 Based on Fig, 8, as the arrows change from bright blue and shorter ones to a darker blue and longer ones, it is
310 inferred that the contribution of variables in studied PCs increased. Some variables viz. forest, irrigated
311 agriculture, and urban had obvious correlations and higher contributions with dimension 1 (p-values<0.01).

312 Previous researches (Sharma et al., 2011; Park 2012; Zare et al., 2017) confirmed the important role of
313 forestland on soil erosion, and the impact of traditional farming systems in irrigated land of the Talar Watershed.
314 As shown in Table 2, among different land-uses, forest and irrigated agriculture had a significant positive
315 relationship with soil erosion, which is due to the presence of dense vegetation cover and its protective role.
316 Furthermore, it is found the strong negative contribution and correlation for P factor (-0.82) and C factor (-0.78)
317 in dimension 1 (Dim1), which meant proper land cover management and conservation practices could reduce
318 soil erosion significantly as documented by Tang et al. (2015) and Thomas et al. (2018).
319 In the case of dimension 2 (Dim2), it was characterized by a positive higher correlation between rainfed
320 agriculture and the K factor in the RUSLE model. Adversely, the R factor was negatively associated with Dim2
321 (p-values<0.01).

322

323 **Table 2**

324

325 **4. Conclusion**

326 The spatial relationships between soil erosion, land use, and the RUSLE factors were investigated using OLS
327 and GWR. The results of these models were compared, and it was found that all GWR models outperformed
328 their OLS counterparts in terms of modified R^2 and AIC values, as well as providing more details through the
329 use of a local coefficient. In the other words, GWR was more effective and powerful for interpreting the
330 relationship between soil erosion and explanatory variables. The relationships provided by the GWR
331 models revealed significant spatial non-stationarity. The association between soil erosion was stronger with LS
332 factor, P factor, and forestland. The LS factor had positive relationships with soil erosion. The results of PCA
333 also showed PC1 and PC2 could explain some 66.2 % of the variance, and forest and irrigated lands had an
334 obvious correlation and higher contribution with variables associate with dimension1. Forest had negative
335 relationships with soil erosion, so it was related to the obstacle role of vegetation cover against erosion. The
336 current study indicated how to use GWR to integrate effective factors in soil erosion and improve our
337 understanding of their spatial distribution at the regional scale. The findings of the current research provided
338 valuable information for assessing and managing soil erosion, as well as identifying areas in the studied
339 watershed that need immediate conservation measures.

340

341 **Declarations**

342 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could
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344

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348

349 **Conflict of interest**

350 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

351

352 **Availability of data and materials**

353 The datasets used and analyzed during the present study are available from the corresponding author on
354 reasonable request.

355

356 **Code availability**

357 R software was used for this study.

358 **Author Contributions**

359 All authors contributed to the study's conception and design. Material preparation, data collection, and analysis
360 were performed by Fahimeh Mirchooli and Maziar Mohammadi Khanghah. The first draft of the manuscript
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362 commented on original versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript. Seyed
363 Hamidreza Sadeghi reviewed and edited the final manuscript.

364

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512

Table Captions:

Table 1. Results of applying Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) for spatial modeling of soil erosion (n=34) for the Talar Watershed, Iran

Table 2. The correlation of variables for the RUSLE Max and Min (P value<0.01)

Figures Captions:

Fig. 1 General location of the Talar Watershed in Iran and Mazandaran Province (left) and some important information of the study area (right)

Fig. 2 Flowchart of the methodology adopted for spatial modeling of the relationship between soil erosion factors and land use changes for the Talar Watershed, Iran

Fig. 3 Spatial distribution of the soil erosion factors (top) and the RUSLE estimates (bottom) for the Talar Watershed, Iran

Fig. 4 Dendrogram showing clustering of soil erosion in the sub-watersheds of the Talar Watershed, Iran

Fig. 5 Spatial patterns of local adjusted R^2 and coefficient for the RUSLE factors obtained from GWR for the Talar Watershed, Iran

Fig. 6 Spatial patterns of local R^2 between soil erosion and different land uses obtained from GWR for the Talar Watershed, Iran

Fig 7. Scree plot of the soil erosion resulted from RUSLE with land use and R, K, LS, C, and P factors for the Talar Watershed, Iran

Fig 8. PCA of RUSLE with land use and R, K, LS, C, and P factors for the Talar Watershed, Iran

Figures

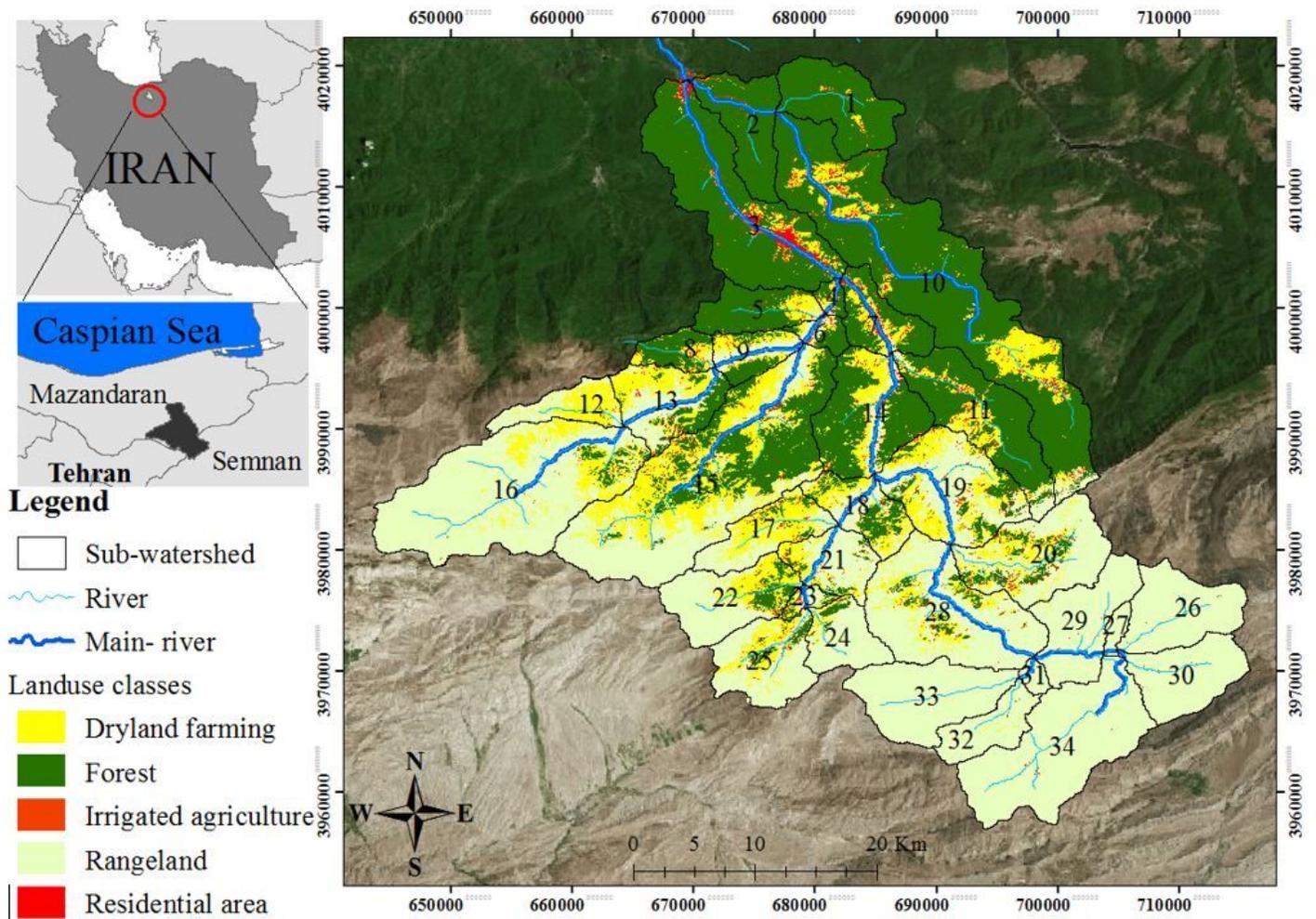


Figure 1

General location of the Talar Watershed in Iran and Mazandaran Province (left) and some important information of the study area (right) Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

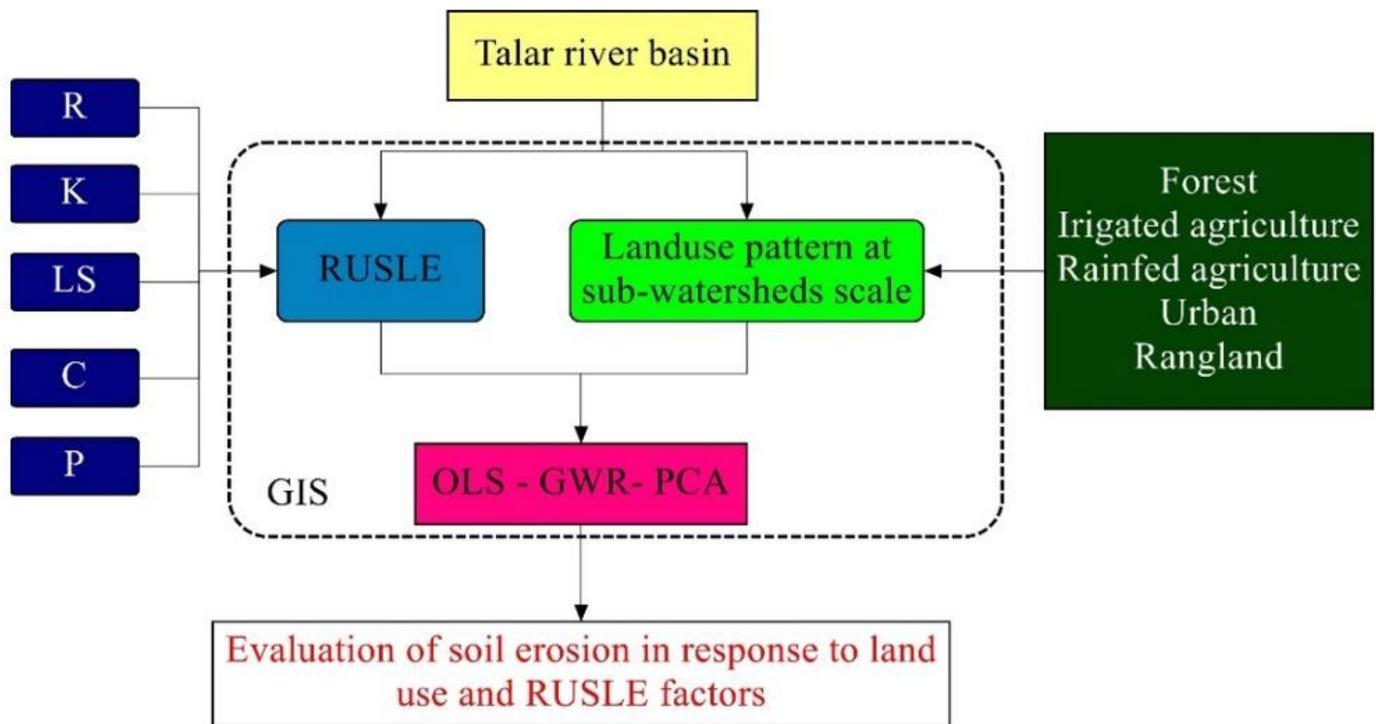


Figure 2

Flowchart of the methodology adopted for spatial modeling of the relationship between soil erosion factors and land use changes for the Talar Watershed, Iran

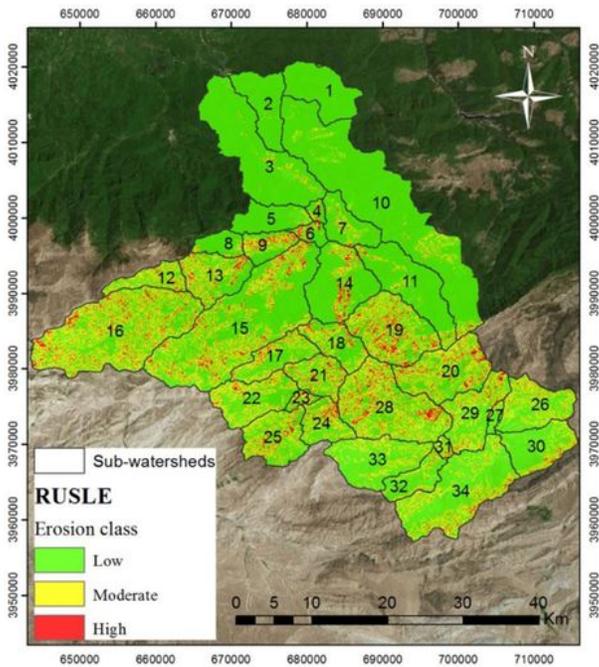
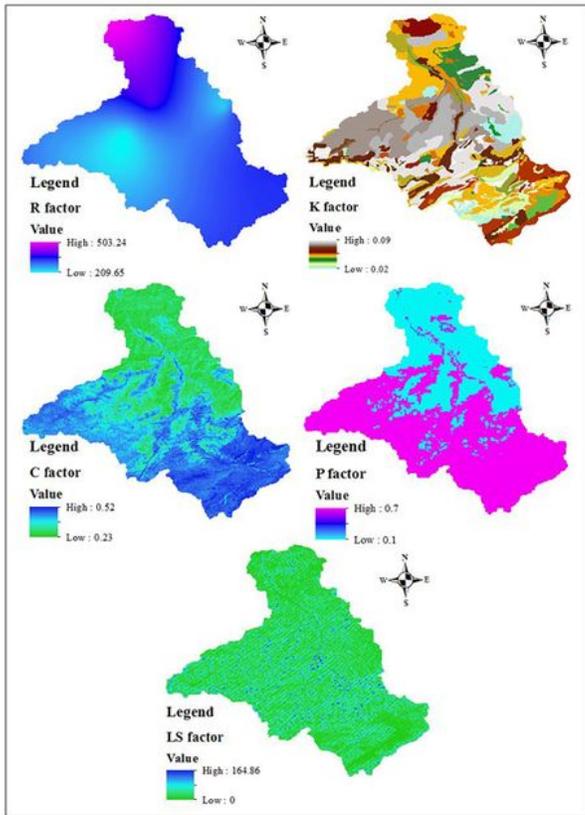


Figure 3

Spatial distribution of the soil erosion factors (top) and the RUSLE estimates (bottom) for the Talar Watershed, Iran Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

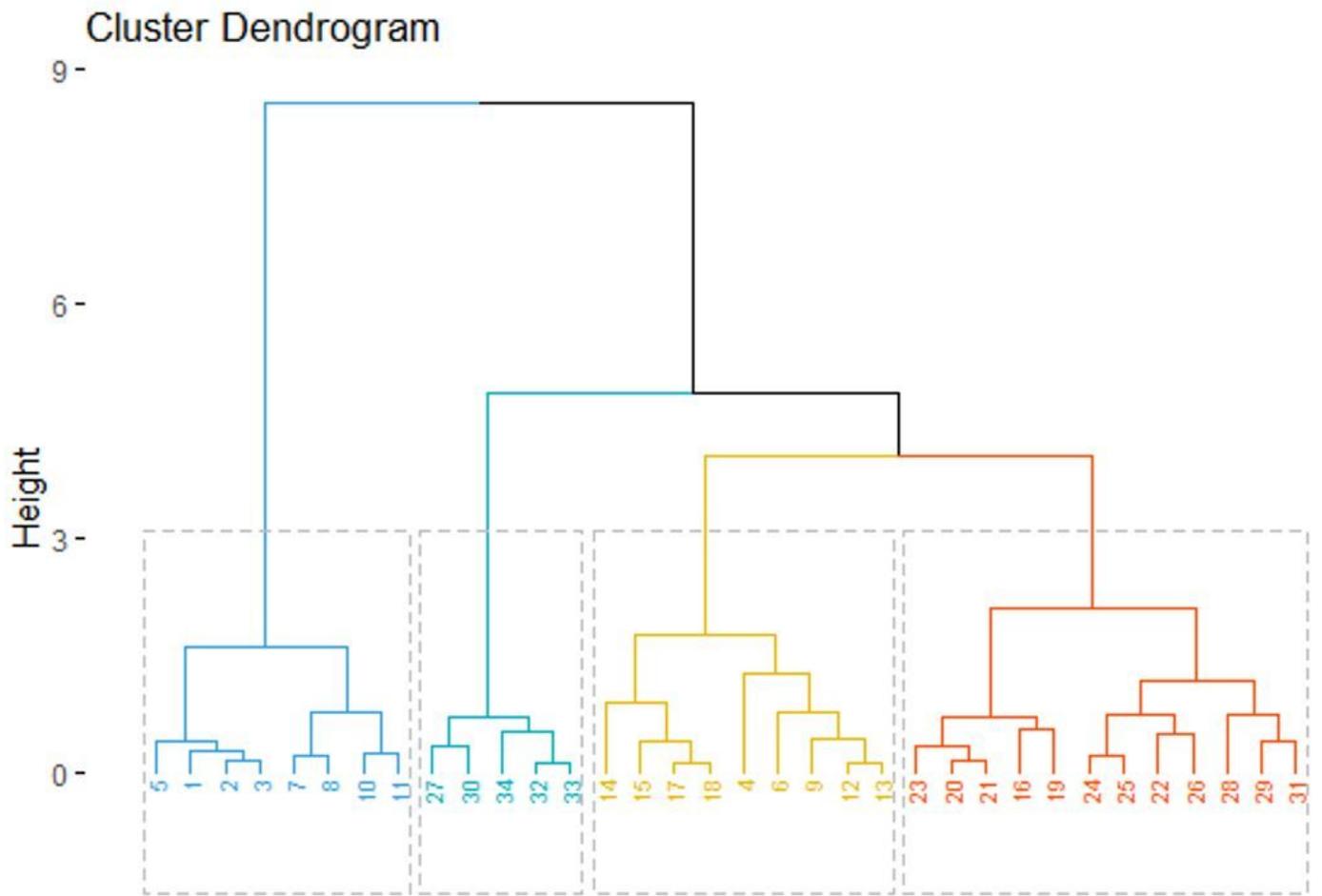


Figure 4

Dendrogram showing clustering of soil erosion in the sub-watersheds of the Talar Watershed, Iran

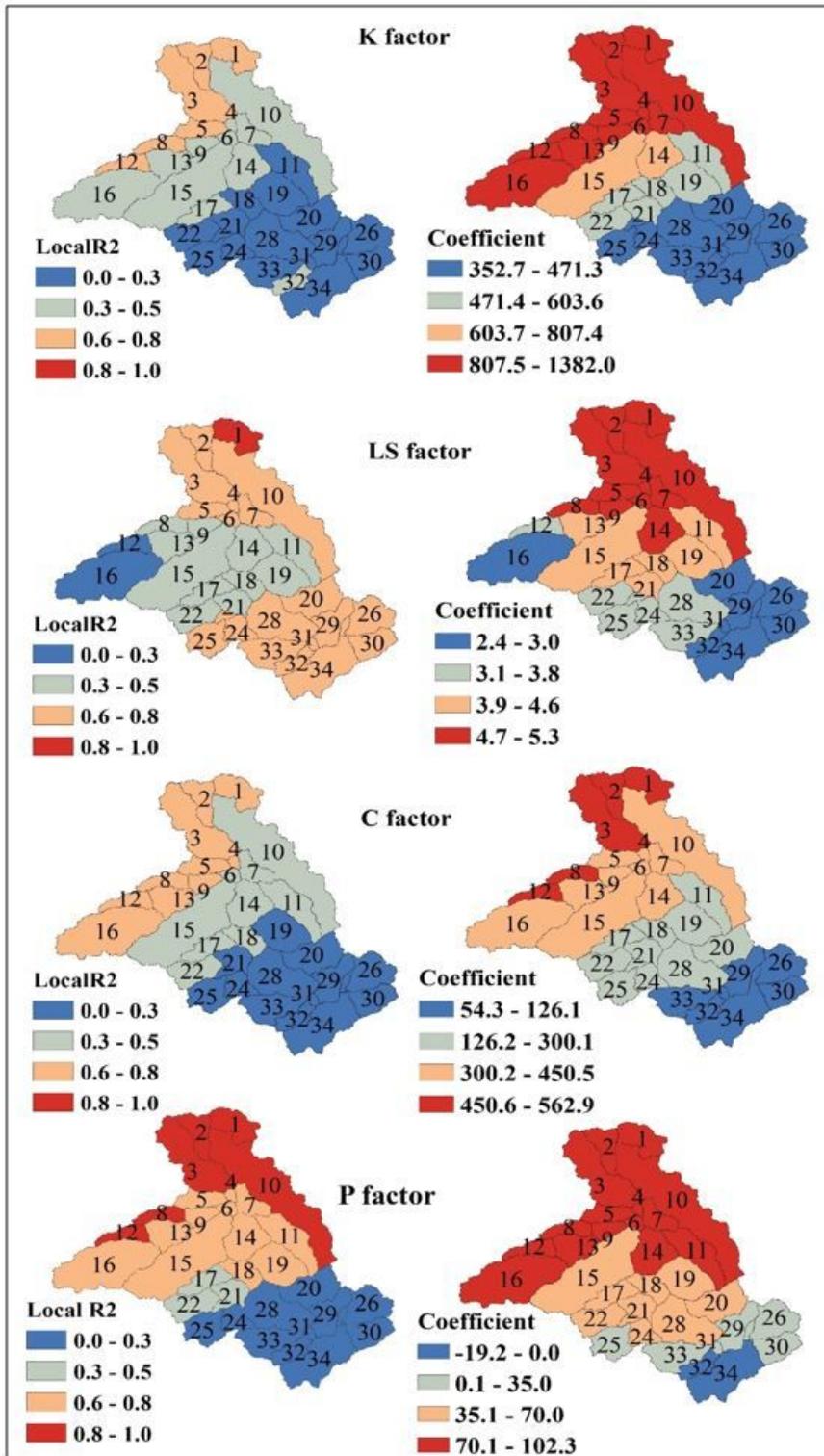


Figure 5

Spatial patterns of local adjusted R2 and coefficient for the RUSLE factors obtained from GWR for the Talar Watershed, Iran. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

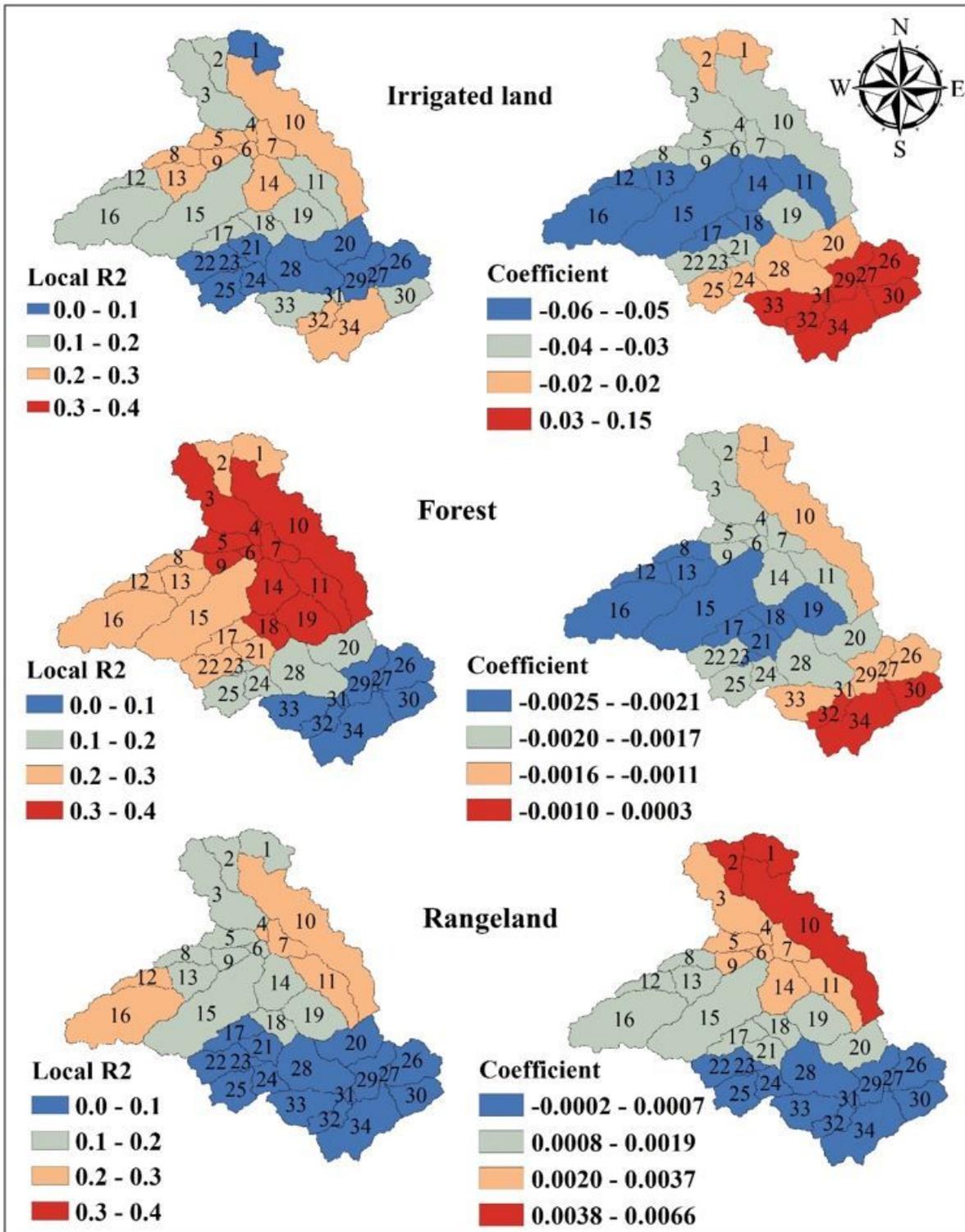


Figure 6

Spatial patterns of local R2 between soil erosion and different land uses obtained from GWR for the Talar Watershed, Iran. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

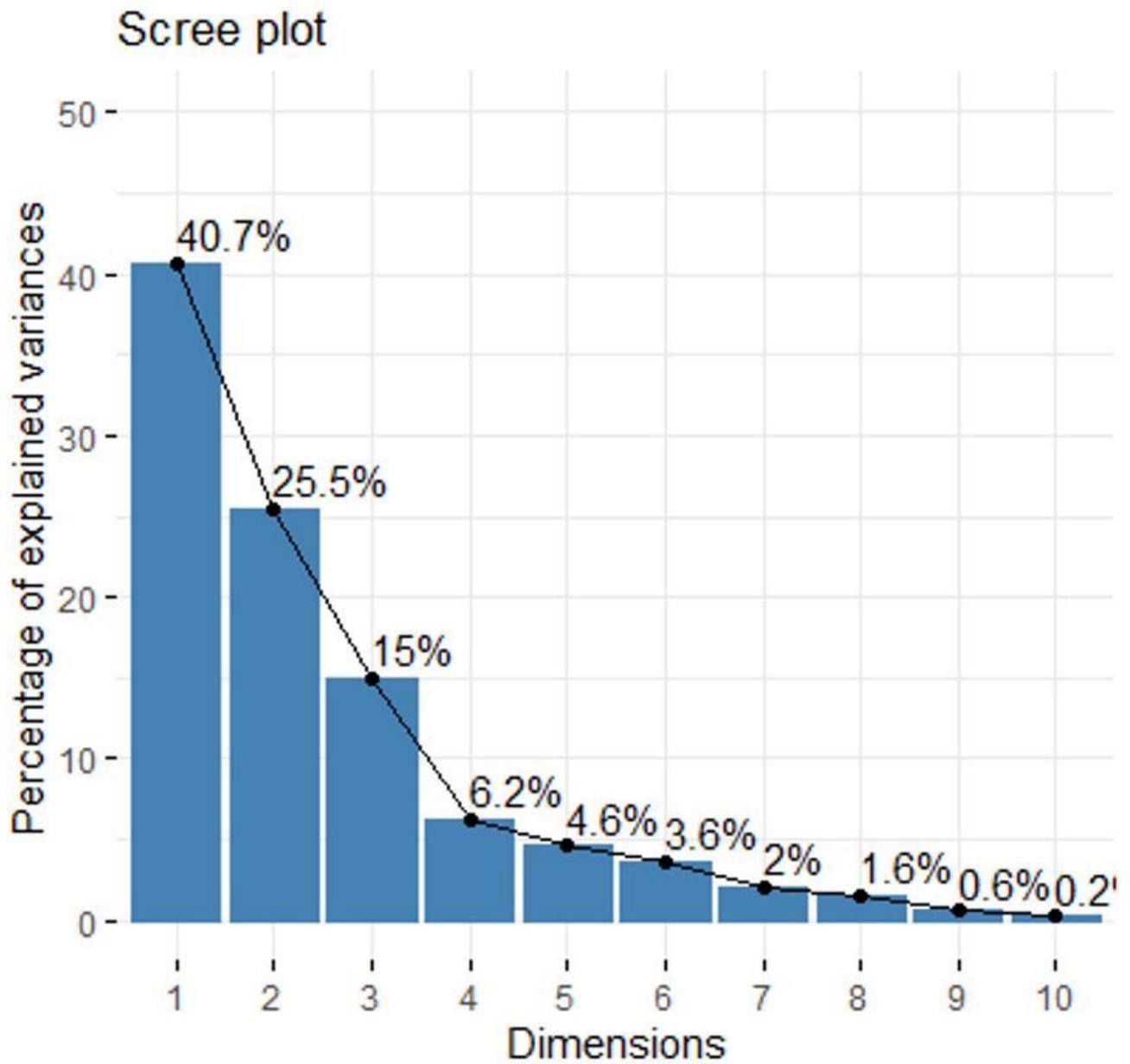


Figure 7

Scree plot of the soil erosion resulted from RUSLE with land use and R, K, LS, C, and P factors for the Talar Watershed, Iran

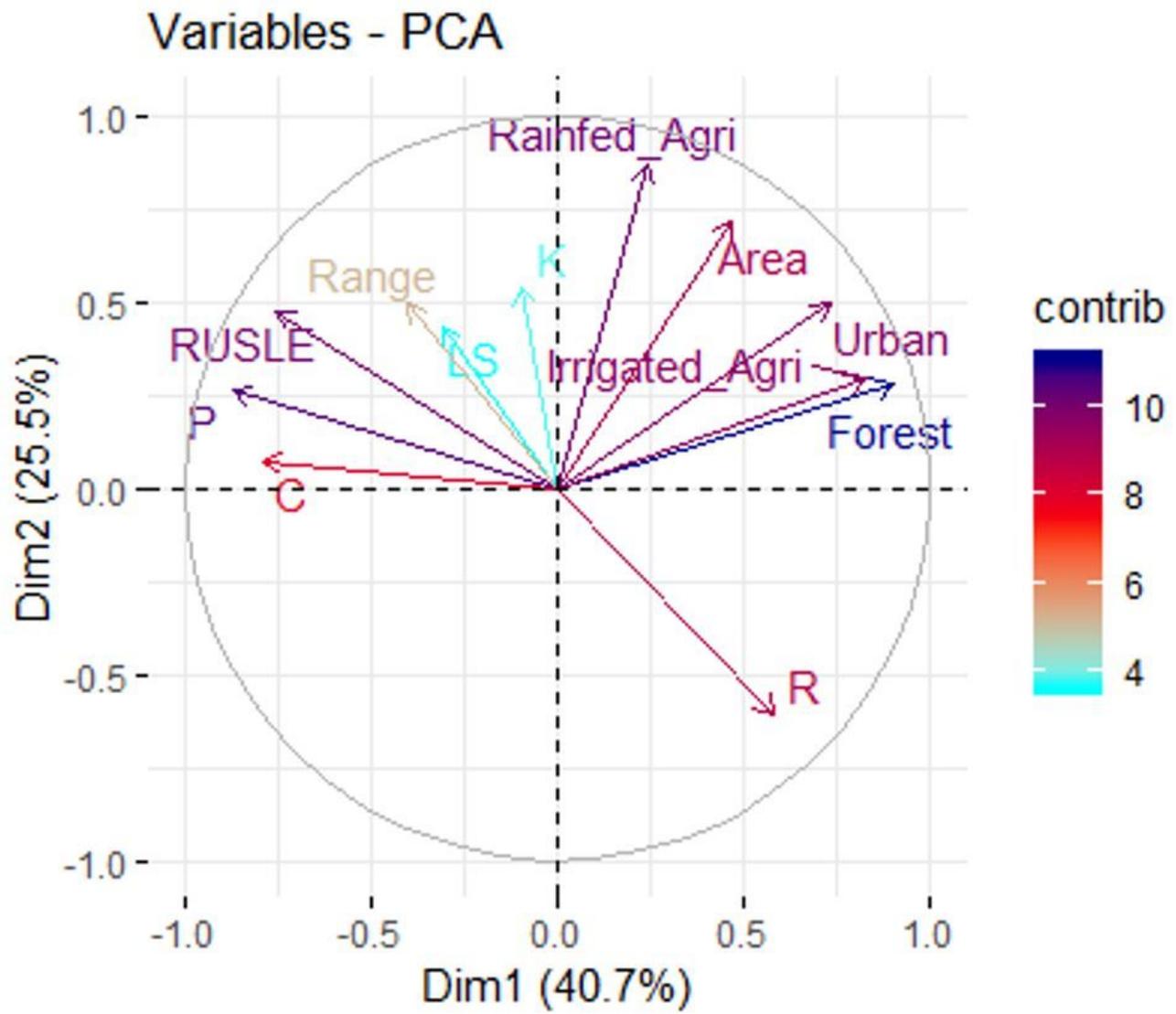


Figure 8

PCA of RUSLE with land use and R, K, LS, C, and P factors for the Talar Watershed, Iran