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PRECIPITATION AND LAND SURFACE TEMPERTAURE OF OKTIBBEHA COUNTY  
OF MISSISSIPPI, USA

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Vegetation,and Land cover analysis in response to precipitation and land surface tempertaure of  
Oktibbeha County of Mississippi, USA

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### Author note

This is solely made for My Graduate ‘Spring2022,WFA 8993 Special Topic: R for Managing Wildlife and Fisheries Data’ class for developing Reproducible Research Article using R markdown package.

The authors made the following contributions. Hafez Ahmad: Conceptualization, Writing - Original Draft Preparation, Writing - Review & Editing.

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## Abstract

The Landsat satellite imageries have been analyzed for the vegetation monitoring and estimation of land use from 2018 to 2022 along with land surface temperature and precipitation in Oktibebe county, Mississippi. Then Additional Vegetation data and land surface temperature data from Global MODIS/Terra was retrieved via Google Earth Engine. Throughout the year, the average land surface temperature (LST) ranges from  $9^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $28^{\circ}\text{C}$ . January has the coldest LST at  $9.16^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and July has the hottest LST at  $28.55^{\circ}\text{C}$ . According to data recorded between 2010 and 2022, January and December experienced the lowest LST, ranging from  $-0.5$  to  $-0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$ , whereas August and June experienced higher LST, ranging from  $35.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $33.77^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Based on a five-year analysis of land cover/land use, the dominant area in Oktibebe county is vegetated or forested. Most of the built-up area is in Starkville City. Between 2018 and 2020, the built-up area is gradually expanding. Due to the lower resolution or sampling error, water bodies are difficult to detect. Other classes of barren land have remained constant over the years—the change.

*Keywords:* Rmarkdown, R, Remote sensing, NDVI, Land use and LST

*Word count:* 2634

## Vegetation, and Land cover analysis in response to precipitation and land surface temperature of Okibbeha County of Mississippi, USA

### **1 Introduction**

Monitoring vegetation over time is an essential component of geographical resource management applications. On-site monitoring is frequently carried out by taking detailed measurements, such as canopy level measurements. In situ measurements are time-consuming, labor-intensive, and difficult to carry out over large geographic areas. Remote sensing, on the other hand, is a very viable option for monitoring numerous vegetation characteristics using various vegetation indices such as Normalized Difference Vegetation Index, Near-Infrared / Red Ratio, Soil and atmospherically resistant vegetation index (Im & Jensen, 2008). The natural and anthropogenic features found on the Earth's surface are referred to as land cover. Examples include deciduous forests, wetlands, developed/built up areas, grasslands, and water. Land use, on the other hand, describes the activities that take place on the land and indicates the current use of the land. Examples include residential homes, shopping centers, tree nurseries, state parks, and reservoirs. Land cover and land use are frequently studied together in remote sensing studies because satellite imagery and aerial photography can identify land cover, but inferring land use often requires more knowledge of the study region, so a compromise is sometimes made between identifying the variable of interest and inferring land use (Fonji & Taff, 2014).

Local and place-specific global climate change (LULCC) is a type of global climate change, and these changes add up to global climate change. These changes, in turn, have an impact on other components of our earth-atmosphere system, frequently leading to negative outcomes such as biodiversity loss, desertification, and climate change. Several methods exist for

tracking or detecting changes in land cover over time. Previously, researchers mapped LULCC over smaller areas using field data and aerial photographs. Because satellite images can cover large geographic areas and have a long temporal coverage, remote sensing is an excellent tool for studying LULCC (Jensen, 1986 ; Berlanga-Robles & Ruiz-Luna, 2002).

Land cover changes can occur as a result of both human and climate drivers. For example, the demand for new settlements often results in the permanent loss of natural land, resulting in changes in the weather patterns, temperature, and precipitation (Hale, Gallo, Owen, & Loveland, 2006; Pielke Sr et al., 2007). Disturbance events such as wildfire and timber harvest are important factors influencing land cover. From 1985 to 2010, forest disturbances affected an average of approximately 11200 square miles per year in the contiguous United States, according to the North American forest dynamic dataset. The rate of forest disturbance decreased by about one-third between 2006 and 2010(Reidmiller et al., 2019).

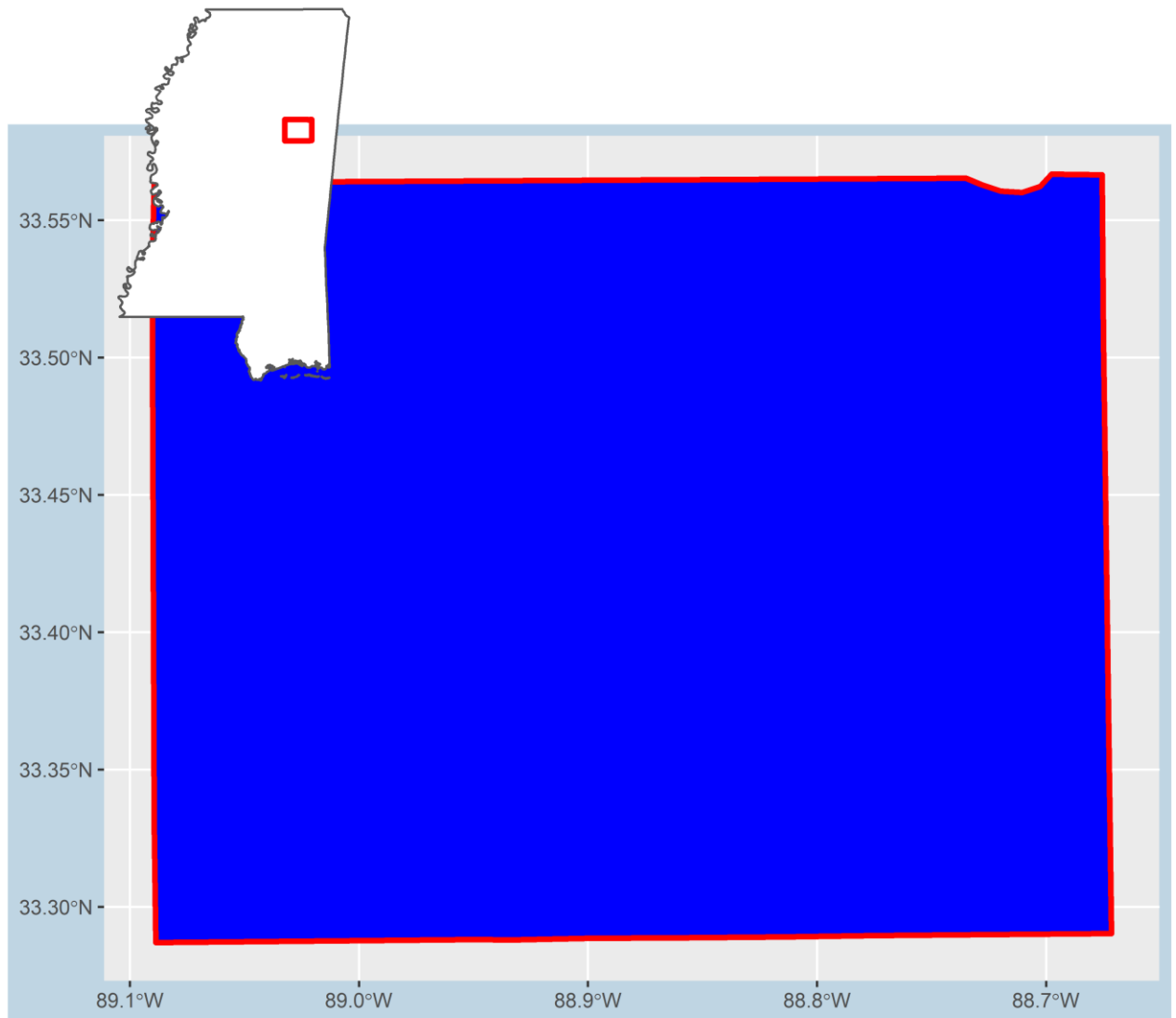
The relationship between LST and NDVI is fascinating because it draws remote sensing scientists worldwide. The nature and strength of this relationship are strongly influenced by space and time. NDVI, on the other hand, is heavily influenced by seasonal variations in land cover. Seasonal changes also influence LST(Guha & Govil, 2020).

In this mini paper, the **objectives** are (a) to present results of an analysis of the Historical land surface temperature and precipitation data, (b) to quantify normalized vegetation index and Land surface temperature for five years and estimate the land use /land cover, (c) to determine the relationship between vegetation and land use.

## **2 Methods and Materials**

### **2.1 Study area**

Oktibbeha County is a micropolitan county in east-central Mississippi that is home to Starkville city and Mississippi State University. The county is located within Mississippi's golden triangle region. The name of the county is derived from a Native American term that means "bloody water" or "icy creek" (Gannett, 1902). Its area is approximately 118 square kilometers, and it borders six other counties: Lowndes, Winstons, Noxubee, Webster, Choctaw, and Clay. According to the 2020 United States Census, the county had 51,788 people, 17,798 households, and 9,263 families.



Oktibbeha County and the city of Starkville are thriving communities that have grown dramatically in the last fifty years. The central east/west corridor connecting Mississippi and Alabama is US Highway 82. It cuts through the northern half of Oktibbeha County and serves as the primary regional transportation network. The county has a diverse landscape and terrain, including small lakes, creeks, swamps, forests, etc. One-third of the country is flatwood, which is well suited to growing pine timber. The remainder of the county on the western side is very productive of pine timber and produces row crops well, especially if fertilized (Fox Jr, 1905).

When creating a land-use map, residential areas to industrial areas are considered built up, lakes, rivers, canals, and wetland areas are considered water, and more miniature forests to densely forested areas, including parks, are considered vegetation. It is located within three physiographic regions. The eastern portion extends into the black or northeastern Prairie regions, while the Pontotoc ridge bounds the western portion. Interior Flatwoods encompass the western portion of the county. Predominantly pine-covered regions in the southeastern United States are also found. The county's elevation ranges from 50m in the Tibble Creek floodplain in the northeastern corner to 180m in the southwestern corner (Brent, 1973; Leidolf, McDaniel, & Nuttle, 2002).

## **2.2 Data collection**

Landsat8 imageries (land 8-9 OLI /tirs c2 11: Landsat 8 Operational Land Imager/Thermal Infrared Sensors) from 2018 to 2022 for February/March and June with less than 10% cloud were downloaded from USGS earth explorer [<https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>]. Moreover, eight-day composite of Precipitation data from 2000 to 2022 was part of “GPM: Monthly Global Precipitation Measurement (GPM).” Furthermore, Land Surface Temperature was part of “MOD11A2.006 Terra Land Surface Temperature and Emissivity 8-Day Global 1km”. Historical NDVI data was also downloaded from MODIS/Terra Vegetation database ‘MOD13A1.006 Terra Vegetation Indices 16-Day Global 500m’ via Google earth engine. Then Precipitation and land surface temperature data were clipped with the study area. Then they are converted comma separated format for further analysis. Apart from these, Temporal Land Surface Temperature and NDVI were extracted from 30 meter Landsat 8 imageries.

Table Landsat 8 data description



Row/Path: 22/ 37

Bands	Wave length (micrometer)	Resolution (meter)
Band 1-Coastal aerosol	0.43-0.45	30
Band 2-Blue	0.45-0.51	30
Band 3- Green	0.53-0.59	30
Band 4-Red	0.64-0.67	30
Band 5-Near Infrared	0.85-0.88	30
Band 6- SWIR 1	1.57-1.65	30
Band 7- SWIR 2	2.11-2.29	30
Band 8-Panchromatic	0.50-0.68	15
Band 9-Cirrus	1.36-1.38	30
Band 10-Thermal infrared 1	10.60-11.19	100
Band 11-Thermal infrared 2	11.50-12.51	100

### 2.3 NDVI calculation

For the vegetation analysis, we used Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI). NDVI is a dimensionless index that depicts the difference between the reflectance of vegetation in the visible and near-infrared spectrum. It can be used to assess changes in plant health and vegetation density (Tucker et al., 2001). An NDVI is calculated as a ratio of the red (R) value and the near-infrared (NIR) value. It ranges from -1.0 to 1.0, mainly representing greens, where negative values are mainly made up of clouds, snow, and water, and values close to zero are primarily made up of rocks and bare soil. A very low NDVI value (0.1 or less)

corresponds to empty areas of rocks, sand, or snow. Moderate values (between 0.2 and 0.3) represent shrubs and meadows, while large values (between 0.6 and 0.8) indicate temperate and tropical forests.

for the Landsat 8, the formula is given  $NDVI = \frac{BAND5 - Band4}{Band5 + Band4}$

## 2.4 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis is a statistical method used to examine the relationship between two or more variables. The correlation coefficients range between -1 and 1. 0 indicates no relationship between variables, -1 indicates negative, and +1 indicates positive correlation. The equation of Correlation Coefficient is given below.

$$r_{X,Y} = \frac{\text{cov}(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}} \text{ where X and Y are variables.}$$

##and use/land cover classification In order to classify land use/land cover from Landsat images from 2018 to 2022, a support vector machine algorithm was used.

Classes	Description
Vegetation	Forest, mixed forest lands, palms, grasses, conifer, and scrub.
Built up	Residential areas, industrial, transportation, roads, mixed urban, and other urban.
Baresoil	Land with exposed soil and soil without grasses.
Water bodies	River, channel, creeks, lakes, wetland, streams and land with water.

Support vector machines are not parametric classifiers. It was proposed by the (Vapnik & Chervonenkis, 2015) and later explained by (Vapnik, 1999). SMV can be easily trained by

separable classes. If the training data with k number of samples, then it is represented as  $X_i y_i, i = 1, \dots, k$  where  $X \in R^N$  is an N dimensional space and  $Y \in -1, +1$  is classes label ,then these classes are linearly separable if there a vector W which perpendicular to the linear hyperplane and a scaler b indicating the offset of the separating hyperplane from the origin\$.

These can be expressed as  $WX_i + b \geq +1$  for all  $y = +1$ , i.e a member of class 1  $WX_i + b \leq -1$  for all  $y = -1$ , i.e a member of class 2

## 2.5 Land surface temperature and precipitation data analysis

## 2.6 Landsat satellite imageries preprocessing

Landsat sensors capture reflected energy and store data as 8-bit digital numbers (DNs). USGS data includes metadata. The first step is to convert DN to radiance and then radiance to top of reflectance by using provided metadata. The conversion of DNs to Top of Atmospheric reflectance was done via following equations.

$$L_\lambda = M_L Q_{cal} + A_L$$

where  $L_\lambda$  = TOA spectral radiance ( $Watts/(m^2 * sr * \mu m)$ )  $M_L$  =Band-specific multiplicative rescaling factor from the metadata (RADIANCE\_MULT\_BAND\_x, where x is the band number)  $A_L$ =Band-specific additive rescaling factor from the metadata (RADIANCE\_ADD\_BAND\_x, where x is the band number)  $Q_{cal}$  = Quantized and calibrated standard product pixel values (DN)

For the purpose for calculating Land surface temperature . The Conversion Top of Atmospheric reflectance to At satellite brightness temperature was done via the following equation.

$$T = \frac{K_2}{\ln\left(\frac{K_1}{L_\lambda} + 1\right)}$$

where

T = Top of atmosphere brightness temperature (Kelvin)  $L_\lambda$  = TOA spectral radiance ( $Watts/(m^2 * sr * \mu m)$ )  $K_1$  = Band-specific thermal conversion constant from the metadata (K1\_CONSTANT\_BAND\_x, where x is the thermal band number)  $K_2$  = Band-specific thermal conversion constant from the metadata (K2\_CONSTANT\_BAND\_x, where x is the thermal band number)

All associate values were taken from meta data of each scene.

### 3 Results and discussions

#### 3.1 Historical Land surface temperature and precipitation

Throughout the year, the average land surface temperature (LST) ranges from 9 °C to 28 °C. Monthly average temperature is 23.25 °C and standard deviation is 2.75. January has the coldest LST at 9.16 °C, and July has the hottest LST at 28.55 °C. According to data recorded between 2010 and 2022, January and December experienced the lowest LST, ranging from -0.5 to -0.3 °C, whereas August and June experienced higher LST, ranging from 35.5 °C to 33.77 °C (see table 1).

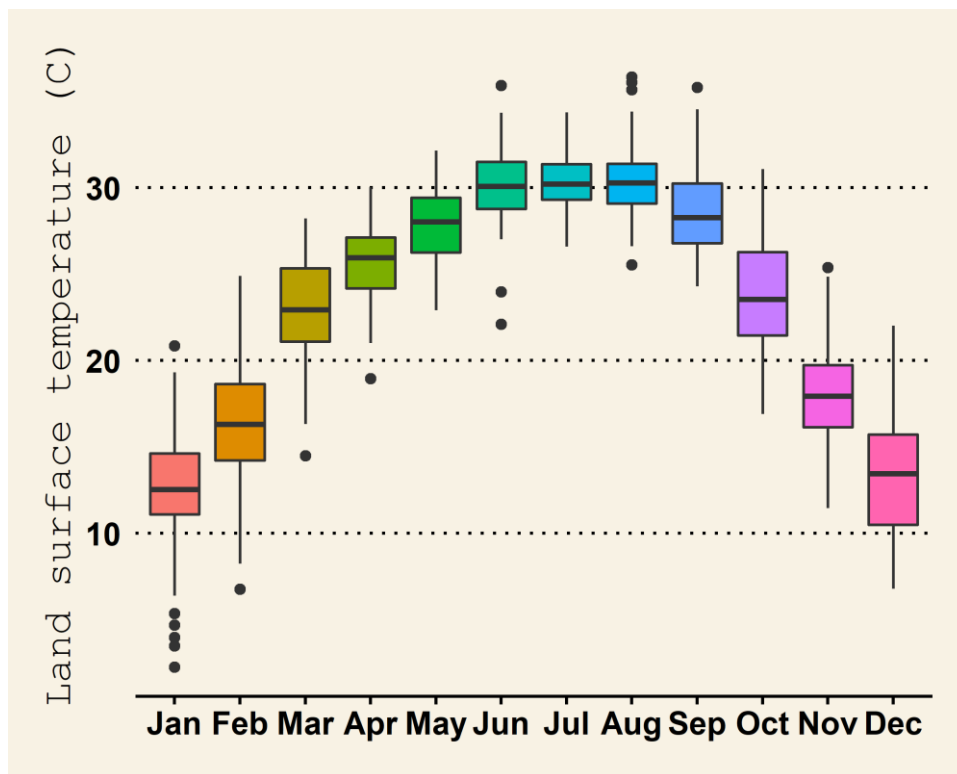


Figure 2. Boxplot of Land surface temperature

Monthly precipitation data covered a period of over 20 years. During this period, the average precipitation rate ranged from 0.12 to 0.22 *mm/hr*. These rates remained relatively constant throughout the month. December to April had a higher precipitation rate of around 0.40 *mm/hr*, while August to November had a lower rate ranging from 0.05 to 0 *mm/hr*.

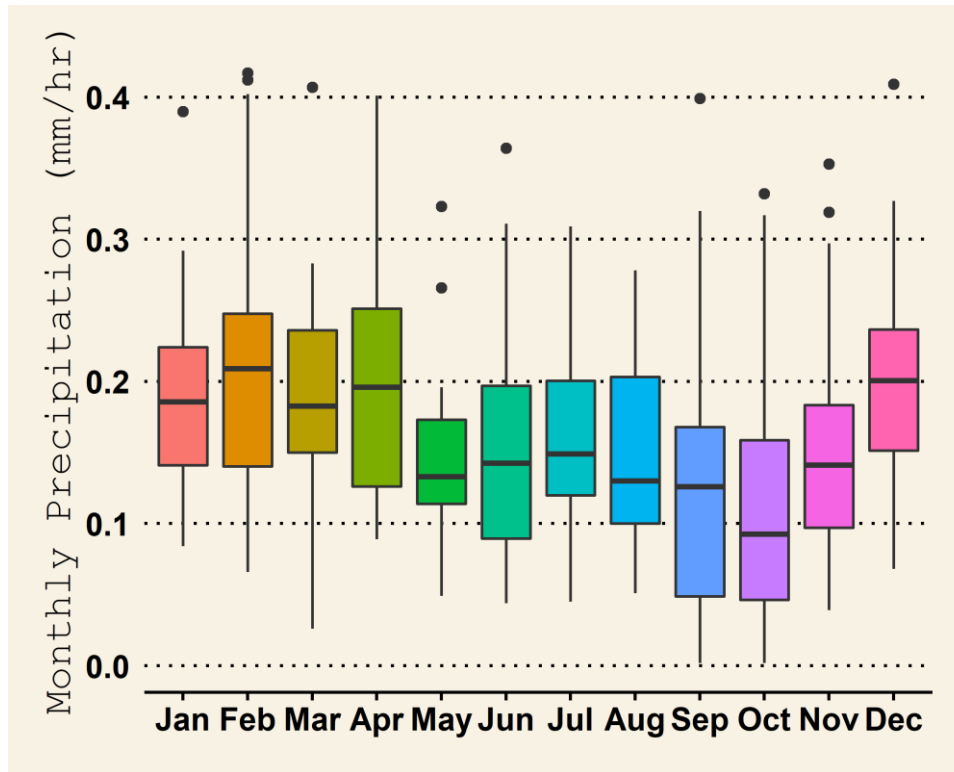


Figure 3. Boxplot of Monthly Precipitation (mm/hr)

Table 1:

*Descriptive statistics of Land surface temperature*

Month	Mean	Median	Max	Min	SD
Jan	12.40	12.52	20.84	2.26	3.92
Feb	16.19	16.30	24.90	6.76	3.81
Mar	22.99	22.92	28.23	14.48	3.04
Apr	25.62	25.94	30.03	18.96	2.20
May	27.87	28.02	32.15	22.90	2.25
Jun	30.22	30.08	35.92	22.10	2.24

Month	Mean	Median	Max	Min	SD
Jul	30.40	30.20	34.36	26.58	1.57
Aug	30.36	30.27	36.41	25.55	2.13
Sep	28.69	28.26	35.80	24.30	2.48
Oct	23.89	23.53	31.08	16.91	3.25
Nov	18.03	17.94	25.38	11.44	3.00
Dec	13.42	13.44	22.02	6.79	3.60

*Note.* MOD11A2.006 Terra Land Surface Temperature and Emissivity 8-Day Global 1km

Monthly land surface temperature.

Table 2:

*Descriptive statistics of Precipitation (mm/hr)*

Month	Mean	Median	Max	Min	SD
Jan	0.19	0.19	0.39	0.08	0.07
Feb	0.22	0.21	0.42	0.07	0.11
Mar	0.19	0.18	0.41	0.03	0.07
Apr	0.21	0.20	0.40	0.09	0.09
May	0.15	0.13	0.32	0.05	0.07
Jun	0.16	0.14	0.36	0.04	0.09

Month	Mean	Median	Max	Min	SD
Jul	0.17	0.15	0.31	0.04	0.07
Aug	0.15	0.13	0.28	0.05	0.07
Sep	0.13	0.13	0.40	0.00	0.10
Oct	0.12	0.09	0.33	0.00	0.10
Nov	0.16	0.14	0.35	0.04	0.08
Dec	0.20	0.20	0.41	0.07	0.08

*Note.* GPM: Monthly Global Precipitation Measurement (GPM) v6

Looking at the image, it is understood that every year due to the development of the city, the vegetation is changing in one place or another. The change between red and green is clearly seen in the image.

Table 3:

*Descriptive statistics of NDVI*

Month	Mean	Median	Max	Min	SD
Jan	0.54	0.54	0.61	0.47	0.03
Feb	0.52	0.52	0.59	0.38	0.03
Mar	0.57	0.55	0.74	0.48	0.05
Apr	0.73	0.74	0.80	0.62	0.05
May	0.78	0.78	0.81	0.69	0.02

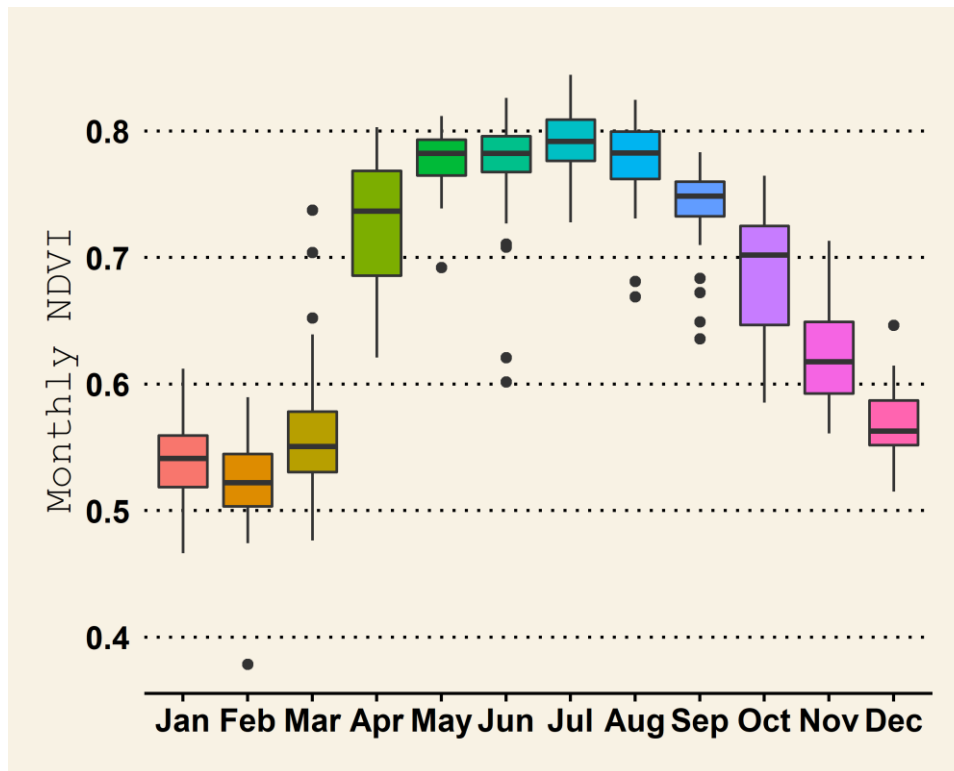


Month	Mean	Median	Max	Min	SD
Jun	0.77	0.78	0.83	0.60	0.04
Jul	0.79	0.79	0.84	0.73	0.02
Aug	0.78	0.78	0.82	0.67	0.03
Sep	0.74	0.75	0.78	0.64	0.03
Oct	0.69	0.70	0.76	0.59	0.05
Nov	0.62	0.62	0.71	0.56	0.04
Dec	0.57	0.56	0.65	0.51	0.03

*Note.* MOD11A2.006 Terra Land Surface Temperature and Emissivity 8-Day Global 1km

December to March has the lowest NDVI which means County doesn't contain less vegetation during these months while May to October shows a higher NDVI which means County has healthier vegetation. The most variable months are April and October according to

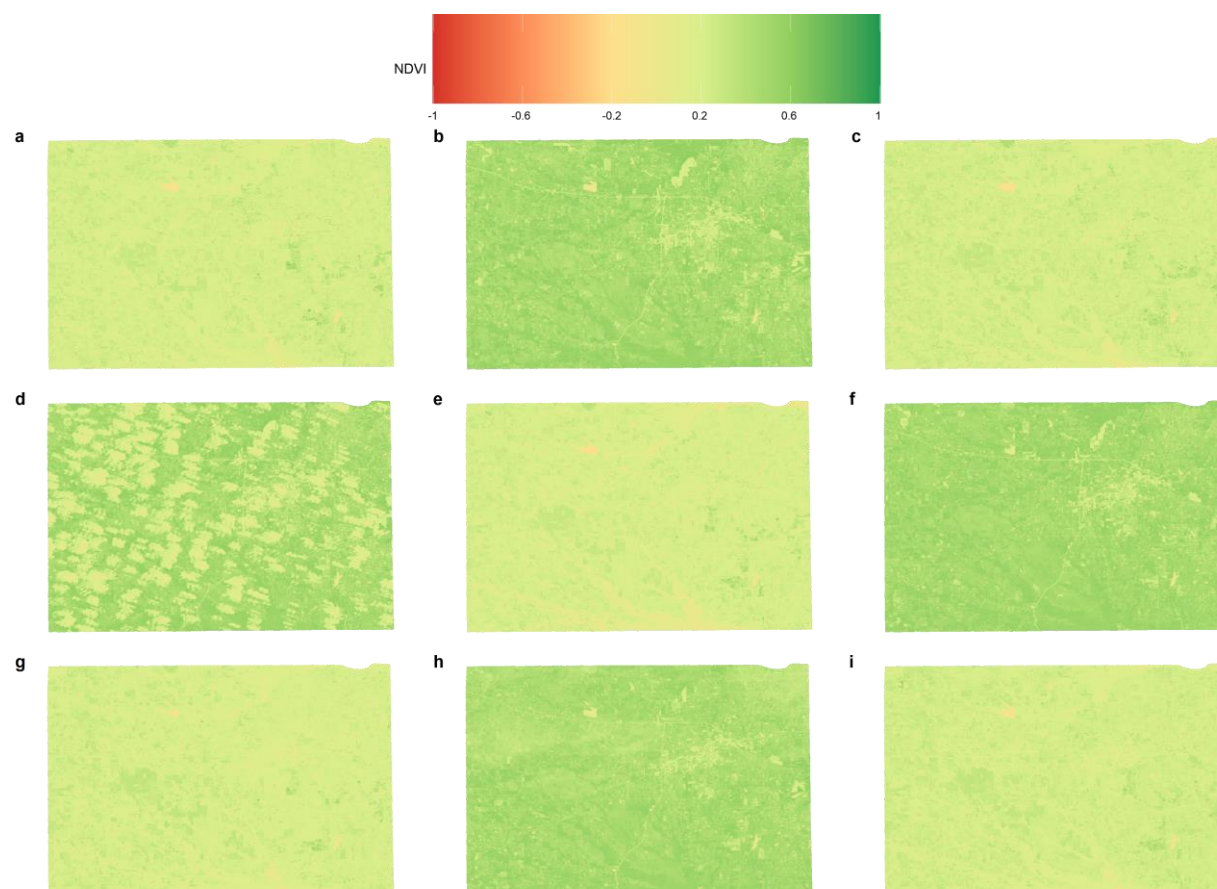
Global MODIS/Terra data.



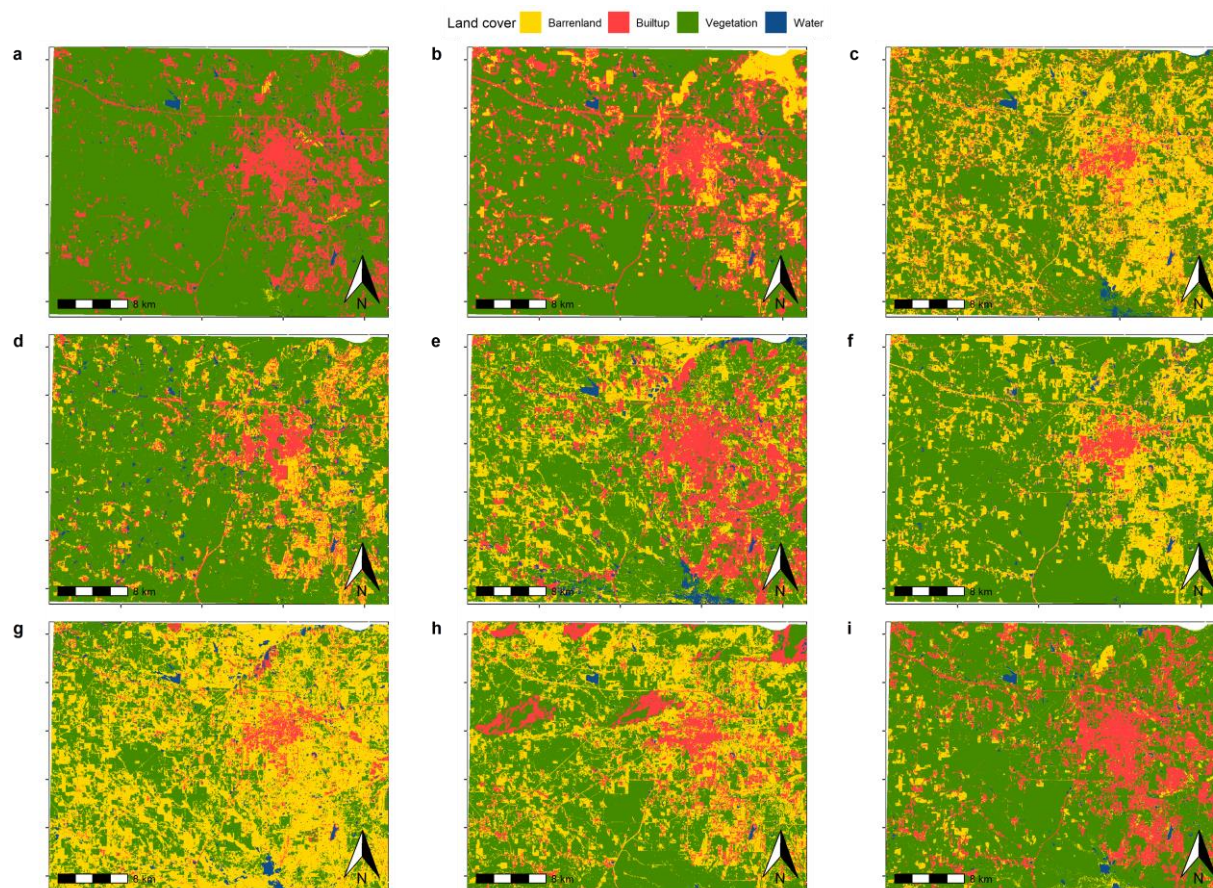
It is clear that there is a correlation between vegetation and land surface temperature. In Oktibbeha county, for instance, the temperatures and NDVI are lower from November to March, while they are higher from April to October.

### 3.2 Spatio- Temporal distriution of Vegetation analysis

It is quite intriguing that Global Modis/Terra NDVI don't have any negative values. The reason for this may be the lower resolution or long-term daily average to the monthly average. The 30-meter Landsat 8 maps, on the other hand, showed negative NDVI values, which typically correspond to pixels associated with water or flooded marshes. For an ideal NDVI value of 1, a canopy that is fully alive has an NDVI of zero.



*Figure 5.* Normalized Difference Vegetation Index Map of Oktibbeha County



*Figure 6.* Land cover /Land use map of the Oktibbeha county

#### 4 relationship between NDVI vs LST

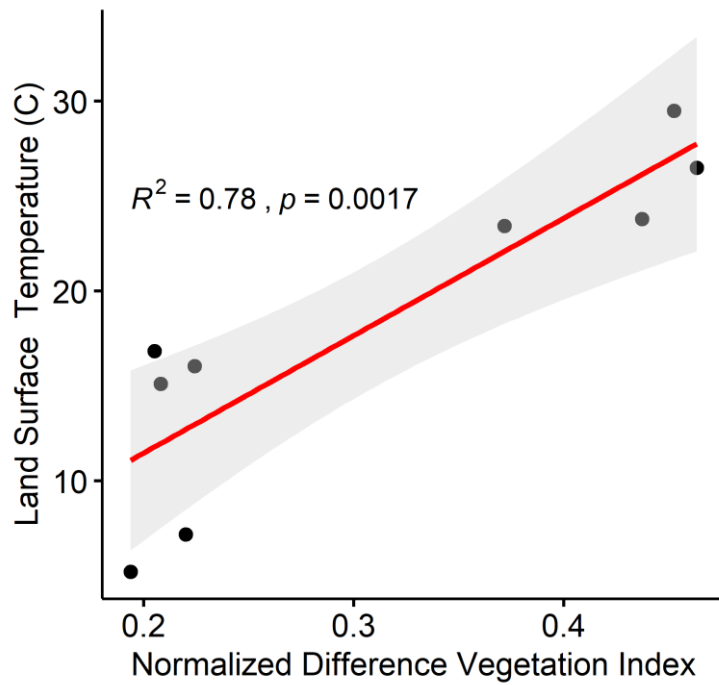
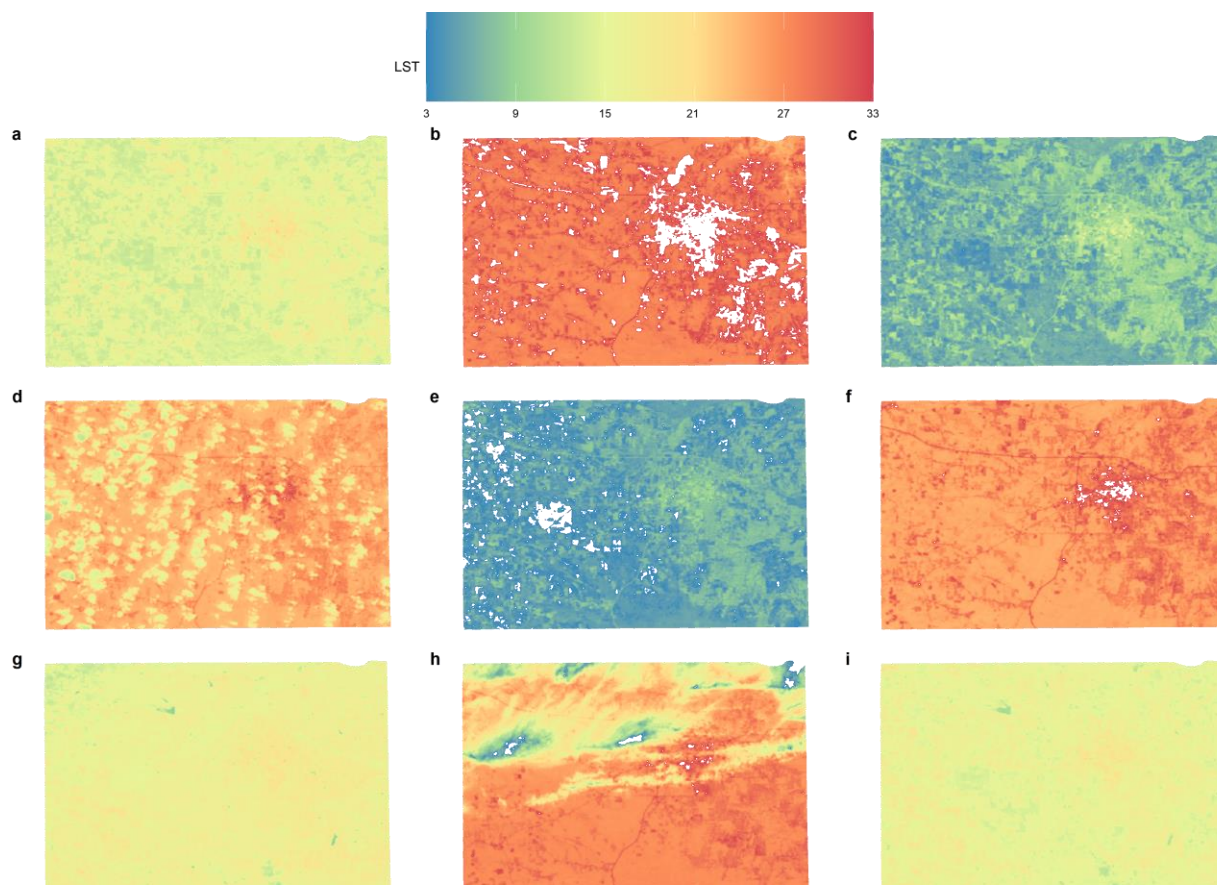


Figure 7. Land Surface Temperature and NDVI relationship

R squared value of 0.88 indicates that there is a good relationship between remotely observed NDVI and Land Surface temperature (see the Figure 6).



#### 4.1 Spatio- Temporal distriution of Land surface temperature analysis



Land surface map (see figure 7)

Table 4:

*Result of Land cover/Land use classification*

class	km2018	km2019	km2020	km2021	Km2022_3
Barrenland	64.95	546.34	447.70	867.26	101.98
Builtup	343.67	199.33	277.24	148.86	242.90
Vegetation	1,346.86	991.06	995.62	718.53	820.78
Water	19.65	38.41	54.58	40.49	17.77



According to the figure 8, the most variable land cover classes are bare soil, roads/highways, and vegetation. As a five-year analysis of land cover/land use, there is one thing clear vegetated or forested areas are the dominant area in the Oktibbeha county. The Oktibbeha Starkville city has the most built-up area colored in red. The built-up areas are slowly increasing from 2018 to 2020. However, water bodies are not significantly detected due to lower resolution or sampling error. Other classes lie barren land is constant across the years—the change and result of classified areas in the squared kilometers.

As a result of the subtropical latitude of Oktibbeha county and the extensive lands to the north, the county's climate is warm and humid. It is also influenced by warm temperatures from the Gulf of Mexico (Brent, 1973). The average annual precipitation is 141.86 cm, with monthly precipitation ranging from 8.23 cm in October to 15.24 cm in March. The wettest seasons are

winter and spring, with fall being the driest. Snow is uncommon and only lasts for a short time on the ground. The average temperature in this county ranges from 5.2 degrees Celsius in January to a high of 27 degrees Celsius in July. The average number of frost-free days (above 0 degrees C) in a year is 226(Leidolf et al., 2002).

## **5 Conclusion**

The Landsat satellite imageries have been analyzed for the vegetation monitoring and estimation of land use from 2020 to 2022 along with land surface temperature and precipitation in Oktibebe county, Mississippi. Image classification is so accurate because training samples were very small. The other potential reason is that Feb, March, and June were collected for 30-meter resolution. So satellite images had lower resolution and large cloud coverage. Clouds can be removed further advanced analysis but this study has designated for only Spring 2022. The purpose of this study was to explore the use of R markdown for analyzing geospatial data and reproducing publishable scientific manuscripts. It has been shown that the R markdown package can be used for data preprocessing, analysis, visualization, and creation of maps, tables, and articles.



## 6 used R libraries

We used R [Version 4.1.2; R Core Team (2021)] and the R-packages *dplyr* [Version 1.0.7; Wickham, François, Henry, and Müller (2021)], *forcats* [Version 0.5.1; Wickham (2021a)], *ggplot2* [Version 3.3.5; Wickham (2016)], *ggpubr* [Version 0.4.0; Kassambara (2020)], *ggspatial* [Version 1.1.5; Dunnington (2021)], *ggstatsplot* [Version 0.9.0; Patil (2021)], *gridExtra* [Version 2.3; Auguie (2017)], *lattice* [Version 0.20.45; Sarkar (2008)], *lubridate* [Version 1.8.0; Grolemund and Wickham (2011)], *papaja* [Version 0.1.0.9997; Aust and Barth (2020)], *purrr* [Version 0.3.4; Henry and Wickham (2020)], *raster* [Version 3.5.2; Hijmans (2021); Perpiñán and Hijmans (2021)], *rasterVis* [Version 0.51.0; Perpiñán and Hijmans (2021)], *readr* [Version 2.0.2; Wickham and Hester (2021)], *reshape2* [Version 1.4.4; Wickham (2007)], *rgdal* [Version 1.5.27; Bivand, Keitt, and Rowlingson (2021)], *RStoolbox* [Version 0.3.0; Leutner, Horning, and Schwalb-Willmann (2019)], *shiny* [Version 1.7.1; Chang et al. (2021)], *sp* [Version 1.4.5; Dunnington (2021); Patil (2021); Pebesma and Bivand (2005)], *stringr* [Version 1.4.0; Wickham (2019)], *tibble* [Version 3.1.5; Müller and Wickham (2021)], *tidyr* [Version 1.1.4; Wickham (2021b)], and *tidyverse* [Version 1.3.1; Wickham et al. (2019)] for all our analyses.

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