



Integration of TOPSIS and Geostatistical Technique for Soil Quality Assessment under Different Land Uses: A Case Study

Abdel-Rahman Abdel-Wahed Mustafa ^{a++*}

^a Soil and Water Department, Faculty of Agriculture, Sohag University, Sohag, Egypt.

Author's contribution

The sole author designed, analyzed, interpreted and prepared the manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/AJSSPN/2023/v9i3183

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: <https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/101783>

Original Research Article

Received: 15/04/2023

Accepted: 19/06/2023

Published: 30/06/2023

ABSTRACT

This study aims to assess the soil quality under different land uses by utilizing technique for order preference by similarity to the ideal solution method (TOPSIS) and geostatistical Technique in the Northern part of Sohag Governorate, Egypt. Various soil parameters such as sand, silt, clay content, CEC, ESP OC, E_{Ce}, pH, and CaCO₃ were determined. Afterward, the geostatistics approach using ordinary kriging interpolation and semivariogram was applied to produce a spatialized and detailed map for each soil parameter. Spherical, Exponential, Gaussian, and J-Bessel geostatistical models were used to define the spatial variability of soil properties based on RMS, MSE, and RMSSE. Based on the TOPSIS method, the soil quality index (SQI) and its ranking under land use types in the study area were calculated. The results of SQI ranged from 38.75% to 55.82% and 27.53% to 52.72%, and 5.75% to 26.73% for old cultivated, new cultivated, and desert soil, respectively. The SQI was classified into three regions. The first has a fair quality index and covers 56.48% (403.91 km²) of the total geographical area (TGA). The soils of this region

⁺⁺ Associate Professor;

^{*}Corresponding author: Email: a_mustafa32@agr.sohag.edu.eg, a_mustafa32@yahoo.com;

are located mainly in old cultivated soils and some new ones. The second region was observed in some newly reclaimed soils and desert soils and extended over an area of about 27.75% (198.45 km²). These soils have low values of favorable studied indicators, leading to negative effects on the SQI that are defined as poor. The third region is very poor quality, covers about 15.77% (112.78 km²) of TGA, and is located mainly in desert soils with low beneficial and high non-beneficial studied indicators. Finally, the results indicate that the integration of TOPSIS and geostatistical technique allow for an accurate and practical assessment of the SQI.

Keywords: Soil quality index; ordinary kriging; semivariogram; TOPSIS.

1. INTRODUCTION

As a natural and one of the basic factors for the survival of nonrenewable resources, the soil has attracted worldwide attention with the increased populations and has become the most fragile ecosystem due to long-term human cultivation. Land use by humans is a vital and direct activity that affects soil quality. Soil quality may be defined as the ability of soil to play a role in natural or managed ecosystems to maintain the productivity of animals and plants while ensuring the healthy life of human beings [1,2]. It reflects the level of soil management, and it is of great significance to the restoration and mitigation of degraded land, regional land resource management, and sustainable land use, which has become an area of increasing concern [3-5]. Recently, there have been various approaches for assessing soil quality [6-10]. There is no standardised approach for assessing soil quality because of the diversity of evaluation objectives and the complexity of the process [11]. The technique for order preference by similarity to ideal solution (TOPSIS) model can deal with both qualitative and quantitative data during assessment processes and is widely used in many fields, such as water quality assessment, but less used in soil quality assessment [12,13]. Spatial variability characterization of different soil properties is important in macro and micro scales [14].

Furthermore, obtaining continuous and accurate spatial data saves cost, time, and effort for the cultivation development process, gives better soil management, and improves land-use sustainability [15]. Therefore, geostatistical analyses with the help of GIS tools effectively demonstrate soil data spatially and distribute their variations in a specific area. Geostatistical tools are used in estimating and mapping soil properties by using different semi-variogram models. There are various methods of spatial variability distribution of soil data, such as Kriging, co-Kriging, inverse distance weighting (IDW), and linear regression model (LR) [16].

Kriging is the most commonly used technique for geostatistical analysis of soil parameters. Ordinary Kriging as a statistical technique was used frequently to predict soil properties [17]. Lopez-Granados et al. [18] mapped different soil properties using geostatistics and Kriging tools in southern Spain. Behera and Shukla [19] generated various maps for soil pH, E_{Ce}, SOC, and exchangeable bases in acidic Indian soils. Also, Patil et al. [20] used geostatistics and the spline method of interpolation and mapping soil organic carbon, available nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium in Karnataka. Spatial variability maps were also generated for the soil's physical properties in Assam, India [21]. Behera et al. [22] assessed the spatial distribution of total and extractable Zinc in India. Vasu et al. [23] used the Kriging method in West Bengal, India, for characterization and mapping the soil fertility factors. Gülser et al. [24] used block Kriging to generate the physical properties map of some Turkish soils. Kriging and co-Kriging interpolation methods were used to generate surface maps of spatial variability of soil Physico-chemical properties in Babylon, Iraq [25]. Shukla et al. [26] analyzed the spatial variability of soil micronutrients in India's intensively cultivated Trans-Gangetic Plains.

Therefore in the current study, the soil quality under different land uses was assessed utilizing TOPSIS and Geostatistical Technique in the Northern part of Sohag Governorate, Egypt. This study aimed to (1) evaluate the soil quality under different land uses by applying the TOPSIS model, (2) characterize the spatial variability of soil some soil properties by fitting the best semi-variogram model and (3) prepare the spatial variability maps of soil properties and Soil quality index (SQI) using ordinary Kriging technique.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Overview of the Study Area

Northern Sohag (26.51 to 26.9 N, 31.24 to 31.57 E) is a part of Sohag Governorate, Egypt. This

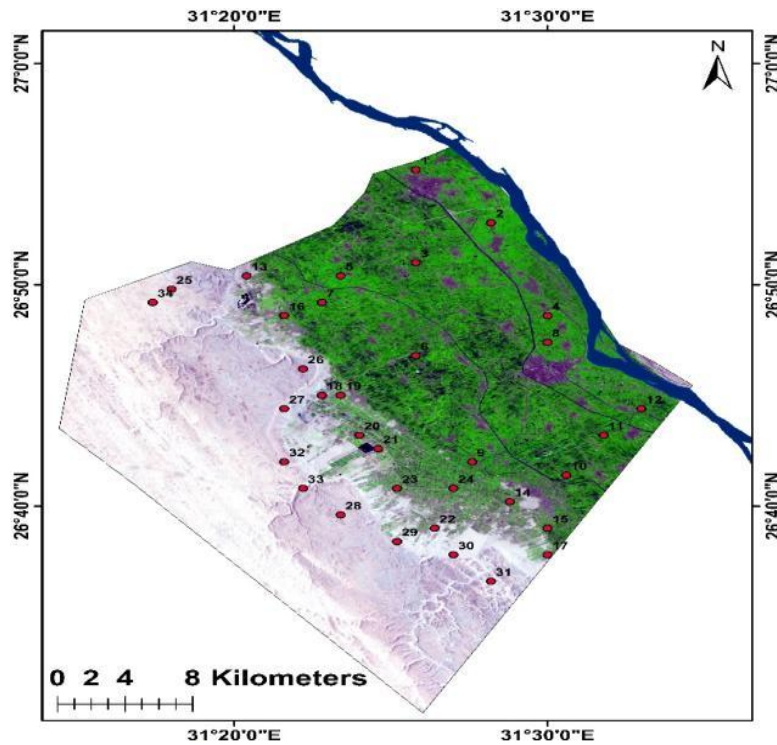


Fig. 2. Location of the soil samples

$$w_j = \frac{d_j}{\sum_{i=1}^m d_j}$$

Where e_j is the information entropy of the soil parameter i among the m soil parameters; $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$

d_j is the degree of diversity possessed by each criterion

w_j is the weight objective for each criterion

Step 3: Calculation of the weighted normalized decision matrix

$$N_{ij} = w_j \times n_{ij}$$

Step 4: Determination of Positive and Negative Ideal Solutions

TOPSIS is one of the multi-criteria decision analysis methods [33]. It ranks objectives based on the distance between the positive and negative ideal solution that should be calculated. In detail, the weighted solutions. Firstly, the standardized matrix must be formulated [34] then the positive and negative ideal solution can be calculated as follows:

$$v_k^+ = (\max v_{lk} | k \in k^+ | \min v_{lk} | k \in k^-)$$

$$v_k^- = (\min v_{lk} | k \in k^+ | \max v_{lk} | k \in k^-)$$

Where v_k^+ is the positive ideal solution, and v_k^- is the negative ideal solution. The distance from the

positive/negative ideal solution can be calculated to determine the relative proximity of soil conservation benefit to the ideal solution as the following step.

Step 5: Calculate the Distance between the positive and negative ideal solutions:

$$S_i^+ = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (N_{ij} - v_k^+)^2}$$

$$S_i^- = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (N_{ij} - v_k^-)^2}$$

Step 6: Calculation of Soil Quality Index (SQI)

$$SQI = \frac{S_i^-}{S_i^+ + S_i^-} \times 100$$

Where SQIj is the soil quality index of soil sample j , the range of SQIj is [0,100], and a larger SQI value indicates better soil quality.

2.4 Statistical and Geostatistical Analyses

Classical statistical analysis was implemented using STATISTICA version 7 software [35] to investigate the distribution of each soil parameter. This analysis is a prerequisite step

before geostatistical analyses. A geostatistical approach was utilized to examine the variability of the soil parameters. The geostatistics approach comprises the calculation of the experimental semivariogram and the prediction at un-sampled locations. Measuring the spatial correlation using a semivariogram is the most advantage of geostatistics [36]. The semivariogram of each soil parameter was generated using the average squared differences among all pairs of values according to this equation [36].

$$\gamma(h) = \frac{1}{2N(h)} \sum_{(i=1)}^{N(h)} [Z(x_i) - Z(x_i + h)]^2$$

Where:

$\gamma(h)$ is the semivariance of the distance interval h ,
 $N(h)$ is the number of pairs of the lag interval,
 $Z(x_i)$ is the measured sample value at point i , and
 $Z(x_i + h)$ is the measured sample value at position $(i + h)$.

The best semivariogram models were selected based on strong spatial dependence (SDC), root mean square error (RMS), mean standardized error (MSE), and root mean square standardized error (RMSSE) [36] moderate, and weak spatial dependence, respectively. A spatial distribution map of the soil quality index was generated using ordinary kriging interpolation in ArcGIS 10.4, applied the kriging method using the equation given by Cafarelli et al. [37]:

$$Z^*(X_0) = \sum_{(i=1)}^N \lambda_i Z(x_i)$$

Where,

$Z^*(x_0)$ is an estimated variable at location x_0 ,
 $Z^*(x_i)$ is the value of an inspected variable at location x_i ,
 λ_i is the statistical weight attributed to $Z^*(x_i)$ for a sample located near x_0 , and N is the number of observations in the neighborhood of the inspected point.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Soil Properties under Different Land Uses

The summary of descriptive statistical analysis of the investigated soil parameters is presented in

Table 1. These results could be discussed under subtitles as follows:

3.1.1 Old cultivated soils

The sand fraction ranged from 26.21% to 75.00%. In contrast, silt and clay fractions varied from 10.60% to 38.73% and 11.51% to 45.93%, respectively. The soils were slight to moderately alkaline, whereas the pH values of these soils varied from 7.44 to 8.21. These soils are non-saline soils, as all values are below 4 dS/m. These soils' cation exchange capacity is low, ranging from 4.03 cmol+/kg to 17.43 cmol+/kg. These soils' low ESP values range from 1.13% to 14.73%. The soil organic carbon ranged between 0.29% to 1.46%, which indicated low to very high organic carbon content. Calcium carbonate content is low, which ranges from 0.53% to 4.96%.

3.1.2 New cultivated soils

These soils have a slightly higher coarse fraction and a lesser finer fraction than the previous soils. The average sand, silt, and clay values were 67.92% , 12.55% and 19.56%, respectively.

Some of these soils received different amounts of alluvium to enhance their properties. These soils are non-to slightly saline and range from slightly to moderately alkaline. The cation exchange capacity of these soils is low. The ESP values varied from low to high, ranging from 3.39% to 17.13%. The organic carbon content of these soils ranges between very low to moderately high in some soils that received different amounts of alluvium soils. These soils are calcic, and calcium carbonate content ranges from low to extremely high, which ranges from 2.21% to 31.35%.

3.1.3 Desert soils

These soils are uncultivated yet but maybe a prospective area for agricultural activities. These soils have the coarsest fractions (sandy texture class is dominant) compared to the previously discussed. These soils are very high saline and range from 7.65 to 24.15 dS/m. In addition, the organic carbon content is very low. These soils are calcic, which calcium carbonate content ranging from 17.67% to 38.12%. Cation exchange capacity and exchangeable sodium percentage are low.

Table 1. Descriptive statistical analysis of some soil characteristics

Land use	property	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Old cultivated lands	sand	54.30	26.21	75.00	16.05	4.63
	Silt	20.25	10.60	38.73	9.24	2.67
	Clay	25.45	11.51	45.93	12.03	3.47
	CEC (Cmol+ kg ⁻¹)	8.19	4.03	17.43	3.40	0.98
	ESP	6.70	1.13	14.73	4.64	1.34
	OC (%)	0.54	0.29	1.46	0.31	0.09
	ECe (dSm ⁻¹)	0.68	0.26	1.98	0.48	0.14
	pHe	7.82	7.44	8.21	0.23	0.07
	CaCO ₃ (%)	2.49	0.53	4.96	1.70	0.49
Newly reclaimed soils	sand	67.92	29.46	93.45	20.61	5.95
	Silt	12.55	4.61	29.33	7.88	2.27
	Clay	19.56	2.00	48.95	14.60	4.21
	CEC (Cmol+ kg ⁻¹)	6.44	1.73	18.05	4.92	1.42
	ESP	9.04	3.39	17.13	3.91	1.13
	OC (%)	0.31	0.03	0.79	0.26	0.07
	ECe (dSm ⁻¹)	0.96	0.31	3.65	0.94	0.27
	pHe	7.98	7.66	8.72	0.33	0.10
	CaCO ₃ (%)	14.28	2.21	31.35	10.74	3.10
Desert soils	sand	85.48	74.73	92.00	6.37	2.01
	Silt	5.50	2.00	13.00	3.17	1.00
	Clay	9.02	3.80	15.08	3.92	1.24
	CEC (Cmol+ kg ⁻¹)	3.35	2.25	3.92	0.55	0.17
	ESP	8.77	5.36	15.33	2.66	0.84
	OC (%)	0.11	0.01	0.45	0.17	0.05
	ECe (dSm ⁻¹)	13.19	7.65	24.15	6.47	2.04
	pHe	7.99	7.65	8.32	0.25	0.08
	CaCO ₃ (%)	27.94	17.67	38.12	8.32	2.63

3.2 Soil Properties Maps

The tabulated results (Table 2) indicated that the spherical model is suitable for predicting the unknown values of sand, CEC, and ESP. At the same time, the exponential model was suitable for silt and CaCO₃ content, and the Gaussian model was suitable for Clay and Organic carbon content and ECe—finally, the J-Bessel model for pH.

Geostatistical range values of soil characteristics varied widely from 5718.99 m to 42956.02 m. Emadi et al. (2010) stated that the values affected by some other values over greater distances have a wide range compared to variables having smaller ranges. However, the least value for the range parameter was recorded for ESP and the highest for CaCO₃. The nugget effect is related to spatial variability between

measurements. Meanwhile, the large nugget effect means that additional sampling of these properties at smaller distances and in larger numbers might be needed to detect spatial dependence, and a greater sampling density will result in a more accurate map [38].

The spatial dependence (SD) results are moderate for sand, clay, CEC, and CaCO₃. In contrast, the SD is weak for ESP, OC, and pH. Finally, it is strong for silt and ECe, meaning that the later factors are inherited. In comparison, a weak spatial dependence SD is due to the orthic factors. Finally, a moderate spatial dependence is controlled by both inherited and orthic factors [38], (Kiliç et al. 2004; Yasrebi et al. 2009 and Kavianpoor et al. 2012). The spatial distribution maps of soil properties affecting SQI in the study area are shown in Figs. 3 -11.

Table 2. Geostatistical analyses and Semivariograms parameters of soil properties

Soil property	model	RMS	MSE	RMSSE	Range	Nugget	Partial Sill	sill	Nugget /Sill ratios	Spatial dependence
Sand	Spherical	20.520	-0.042	1.005	8688.54	261.39	159.73	421.12	62.07	Moderate
Silt	Exponential	9.111	0.027	1.038	10208.45	18.94	77.61	96.55	19.62	Strong
Clay	Gaussian	13.924	-0.013	0.997	5998.12	121.12	71.16	192.28	62.99	Moderate
CEC	Spherical	4.986	-0.009	1.053	5817.99	7.97	11.43	19.40	41.08	Moderate
ESP	Spherical	4.543	0.032	1.033	5718.99	11.68	3.57	15.25	76.59	Weak
OC	Gaussian	0.344	-0.007	1.006	5998.12	0.07	0.02	0.09	77.78	Weak
ECe	Gaussian	4.819	-0.061	0.920	6200.21	8.14	35.25	43.39	18.76	Strong
pH	J-Bessel	0.277	0.017	1.017	16303.29	0.06	0.01	0.07	85.71	Weak
CaCO ₃	Exponential	10.882	0.001	0.954	42956.02	85.11	138.83	223.94	38.01	Moderate
SQI	Exponential	10.189	0.039	0.986	15487.61	44.73	101.21	145.94	30.65	Moderate

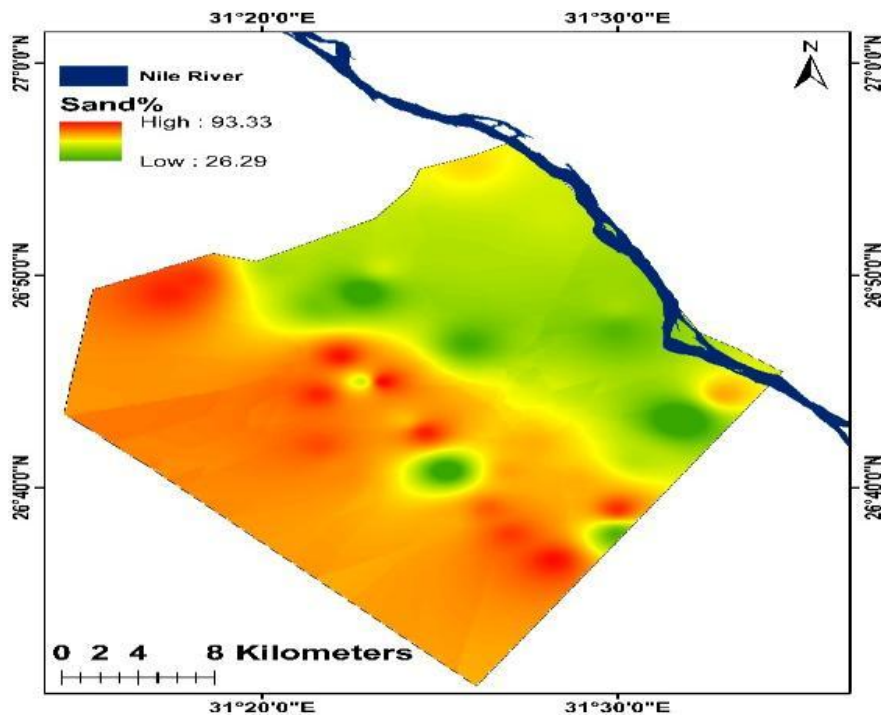


Fig. 3. The spatial distribution maps of sand

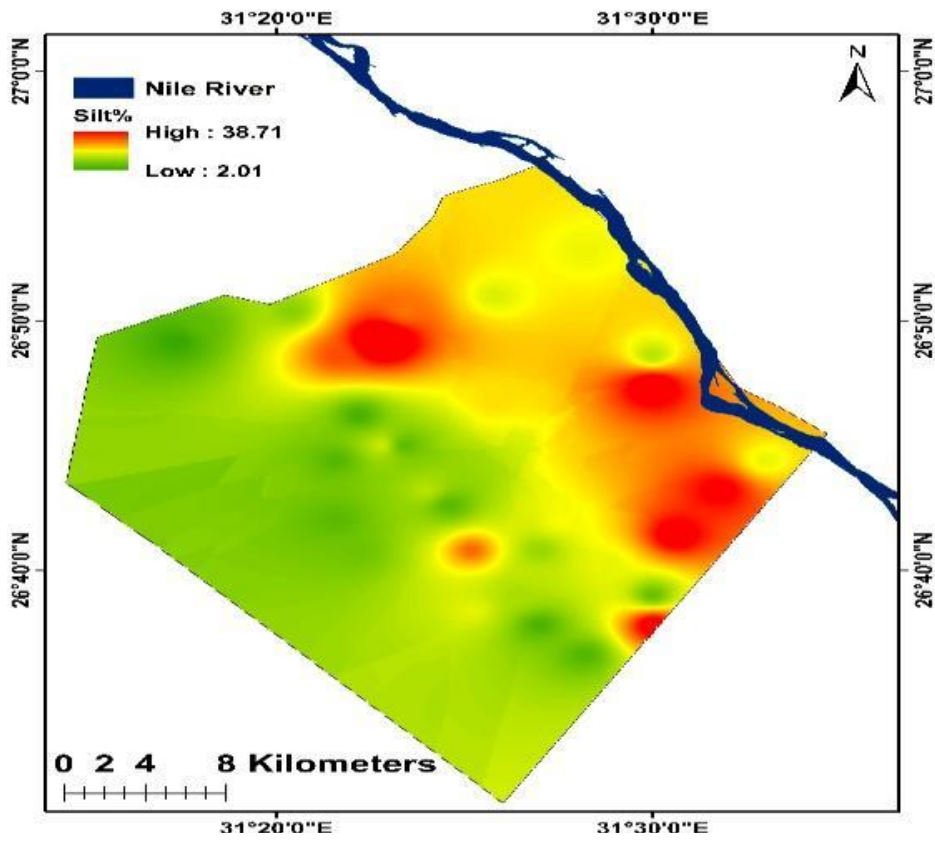


Fig. 4. The spatial distribution maps of silt

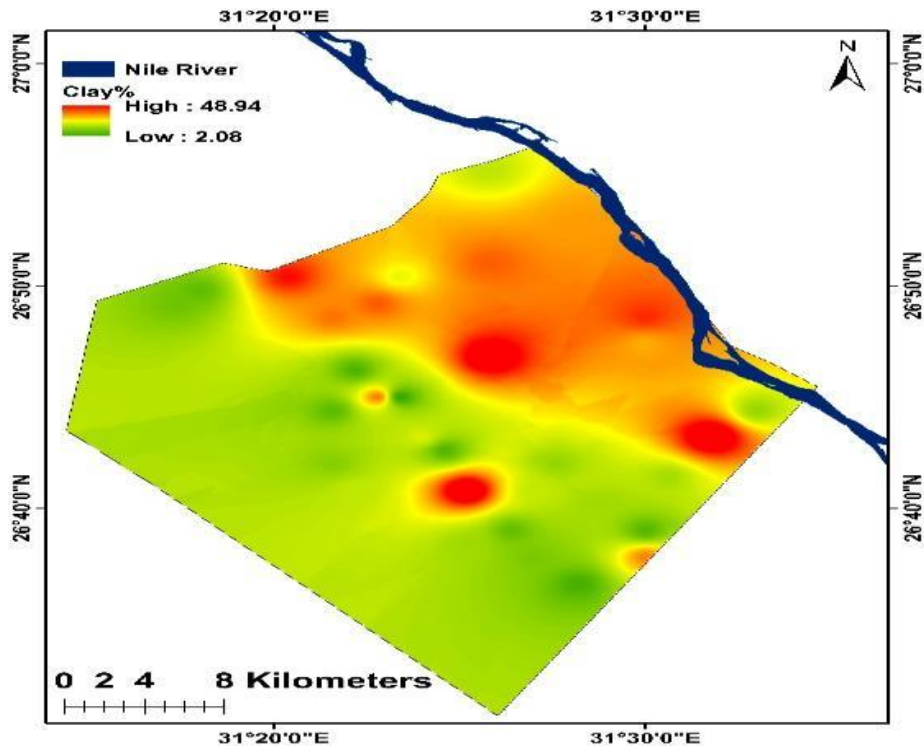


Fig. 5. The spatial distribution maps of clay

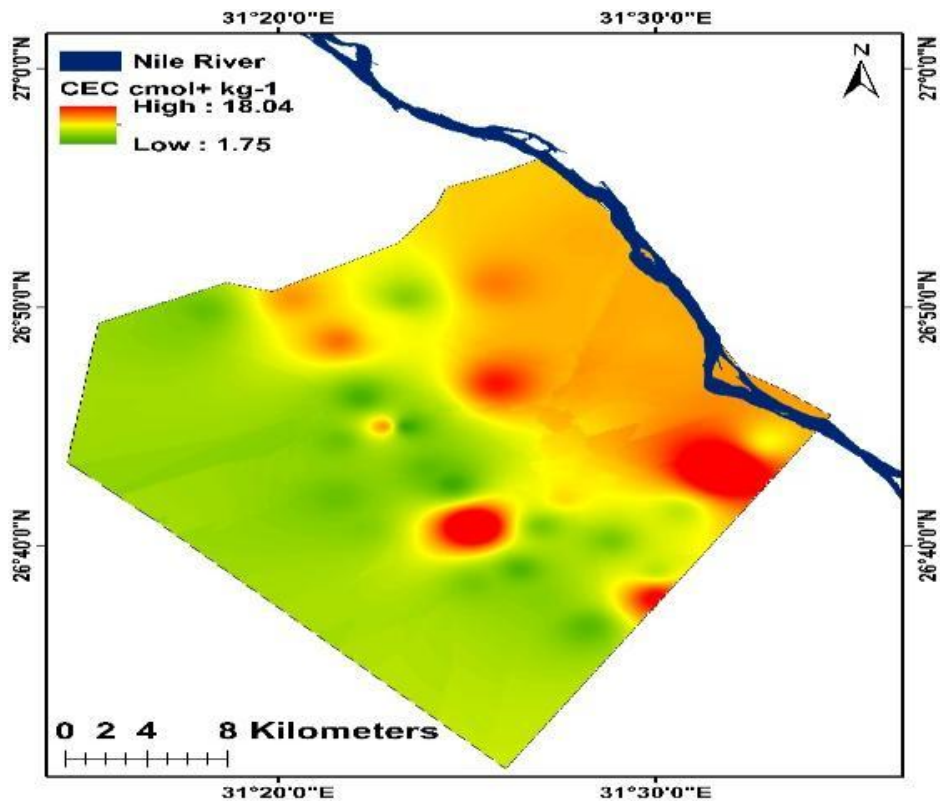


Fig. 6. The spatial distribution maps of CEC

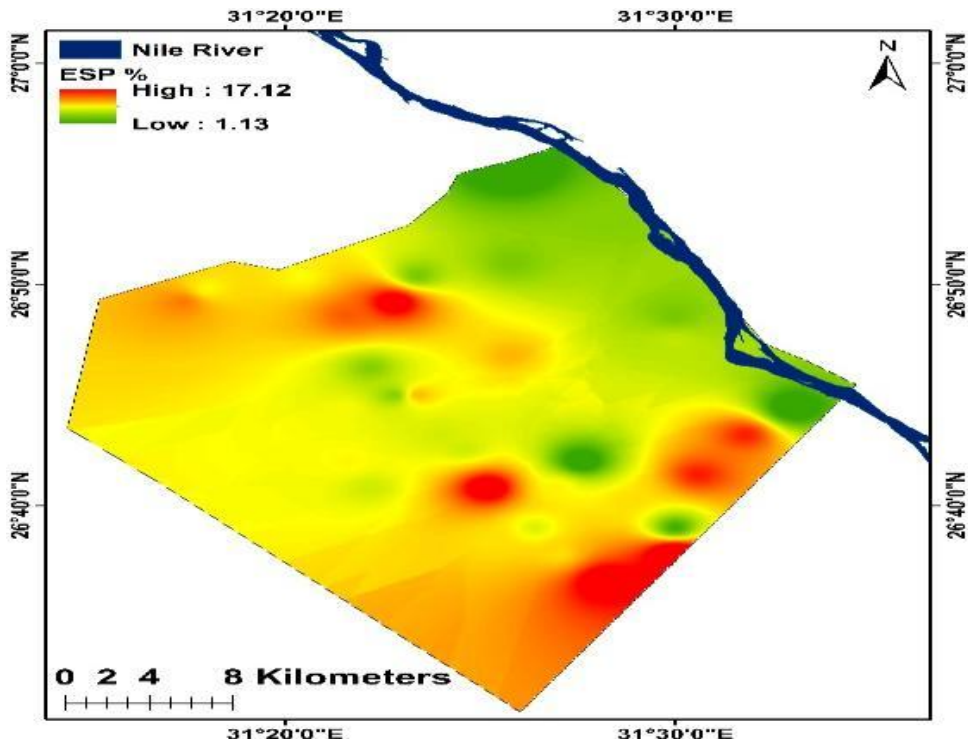


Fig. 7. The spatial distribution maps of ESP

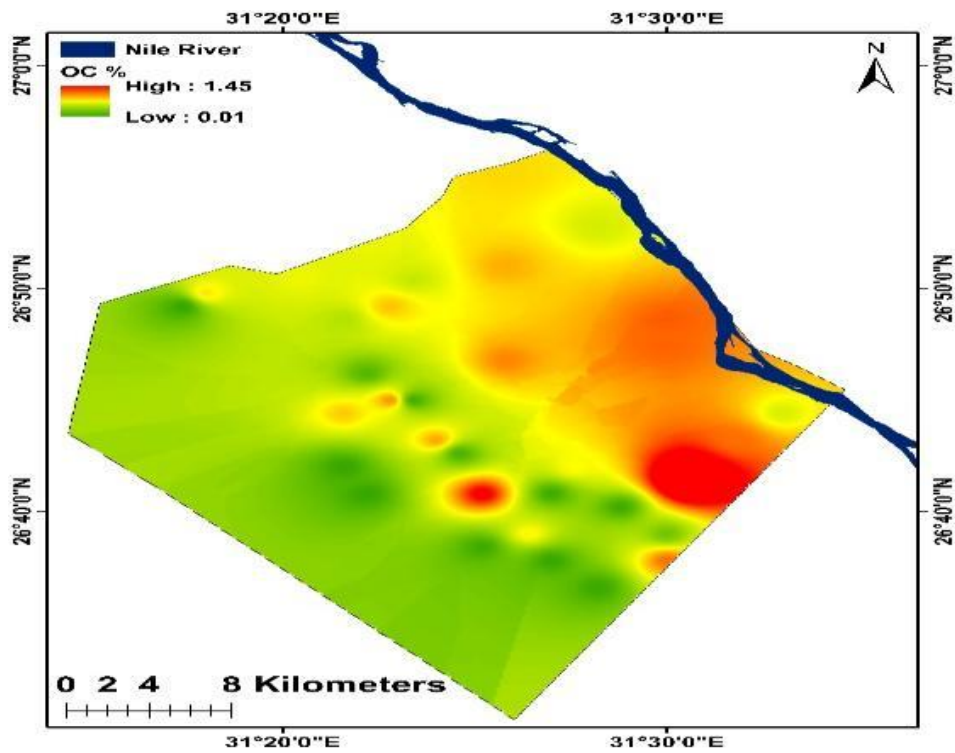


Fig. 8. The spatial distribution maps of OC

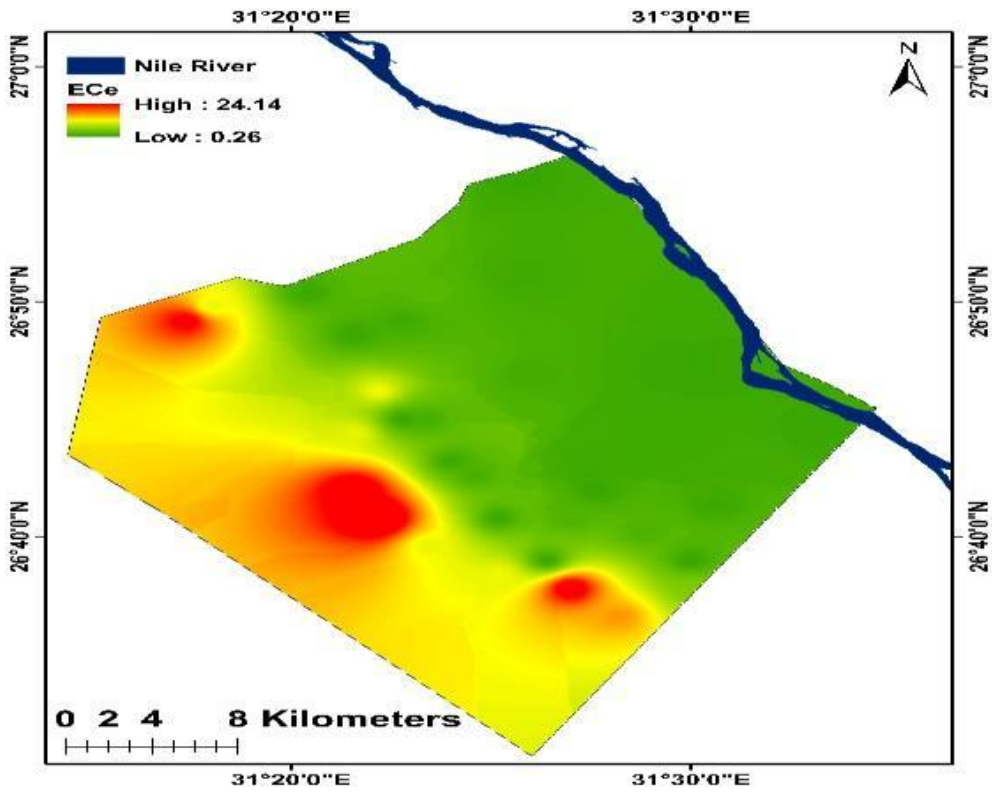


Fig. 9. The spatial distribution maps of ECe

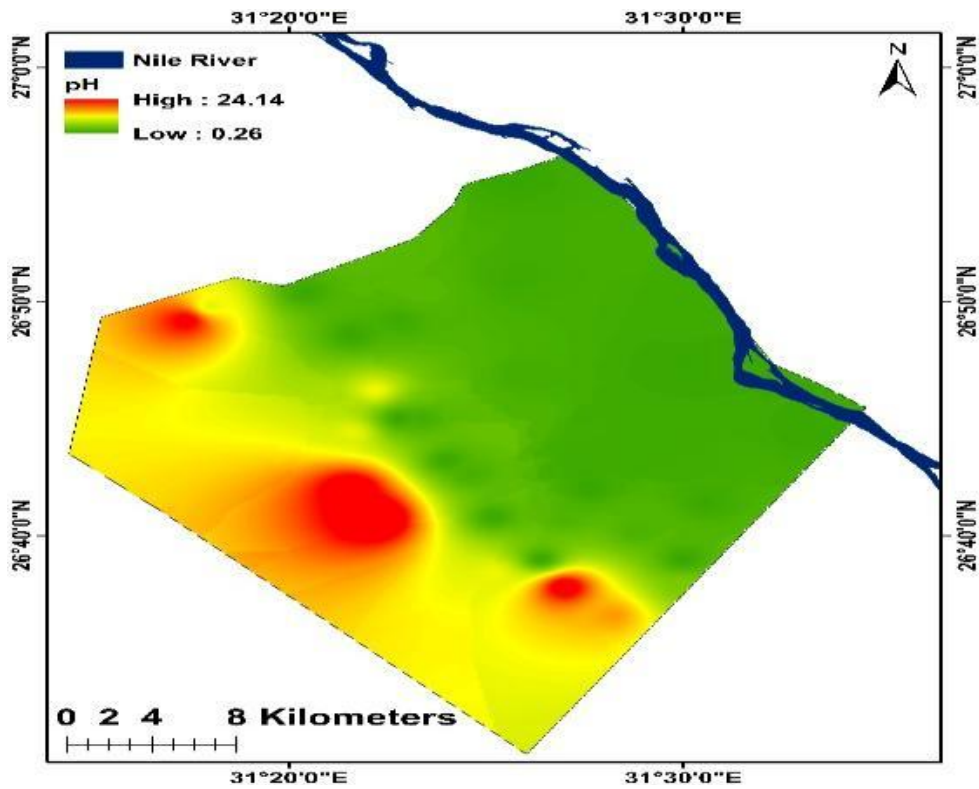


Fig. 10. The spatial distribution maps of pH

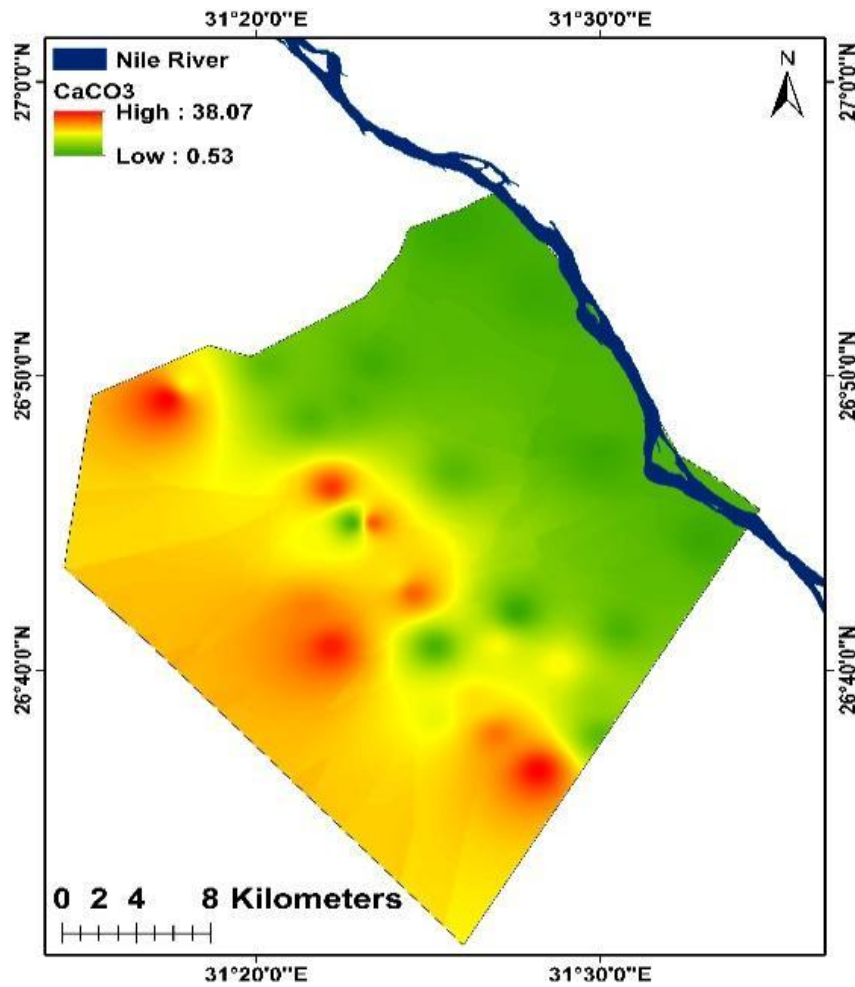


Fig. 11. The spatial distribution maps CaCO_3

3.3 Pearson Correlation Matrix

The correlations between soil indicators are listed in Table 3. The sand fraction has a statistically significant negative relationship ($p < 0.05$) with all other soil indicators except for ECe, pH, and CaCO_3 content which exhibits a significant positive relationship. Contrary to that, the case is in finer fractions (silt and clay). CEC is significantly positively correlated ($p < 0.05$) with silt and clay and significantly negatively correlated with CaCO_3 . In contrast, it has a non-significant positive correlation with ESP and OC contents. Soil ESP has non-significant positive correlations ($p < 0.05$) with all indicators except for sand, which was a negative correlation. The results show that ECe has a significant positive relationship with CaCO_3 and sand content ($p < 0.05$). At the same time, the correlations between ECe and silt, clay,

CEC, and OC were positive. The soil organic carbon has a significant positive correlation ($p < 0.05$) with Silt, clay, and CEC, while it has a significant negative correlation with sand, ECe, pH, and CaCO_3 . The calcium carbonates have a significant negative correlation ($p < 0.05$) with silt, clay, CEC, and OC. In comparison, it has a significant positive correlation with sand and ECe ESP and a non-significant negative correlation with ESP. Correlation coefficients matrix between each soil parameter.

3.4 Evaluation of SQI under Different Land Use

Based on the TOPSIS method, the soil quality index (SQI) and its ranking under land use types in the study area were calculated (Tables 4, 5, and 6).

Table 3. Correlation coefficients among soil properties

	Sand	Silt	Clay	CEC	ESP	OC	ECe	pH	CaCO ₃
Sand	1.00								
Silt	-0.85	1.00							
Clay	-0.92	0.58	1.00						
CEC	-0.85	0.59	0.89	1.00					
ESP	-0.37	0.39	0.29	0.29	1.00				
OC	-0.62	0.64	0.49	0.53	0.19	1.00			
ECe	0.47	-0.47	-0.38	-0.37	0.14	-0.50	1.00		
pH	0.34	-0.35	-0.27	-0.24	0.06	-0.39	0.34	1.00	
CaCO ₃	0.75	-0.69	-0.65	-0.66	0.16	-0.66	0.71	0.48	1.00

Table 4. SQI results based on TOPSIS (Old cultivated soil)

Sample No.	Si+	Si-	SQI	Class	Soil quality
1	0.178	0.125	41.37	3	fair
2	0.167	0.123	42.39	3	fair
3	0.162	0.123	43.25	3	fair
4	0.160	0.124	43.61	3	fair
5	0.173	0.121	41.21	3	fair
6	0.138	0.127	47.88	3	fair
7	0.130	0.128	49.48	3	fair
8	0.144	0.128	47.08	3	fair

Table 5. SQI results based on TOPSIS (New reclaimed soil)

Sample No.	Si+	Si-	SQI	Class	Soil quality
13	0.163	0.120	42.43	3	fair
14	0.196	0.105	34.82	4	poor
15	0.212	0.108	33.70	4	poor
16	0.156	0.121	43.58	3	fair
17	0.149	0.123	45.26	3	fair
18	0.170	0.120	41.43	3	fair
19	0.229	0.087	27.53	4	poor
20	0.199	0.102	33.78	4	poor
21	0.229	0.090	28.13	4	poor
22	0.220	0.093	29.62	4	poor
23	0.130	0.145	52.72	3	fair
24	0.213	0.093	30.40	4	poor

Table 6. SQI results based on TOPSIS (Desert soil)

Sample No.	Si+	Si-	SQI	Class	Soil quality
25	0.233	0.085	26.73	4	poor
26	0.245	0.080	24.69	4	poor
27	0.245	0.080	24.60	4	poor
28	0.233	0.082	26.12	4	poor
29	0.235	0.080	25.40	4	poor
30	0.262	0.062	19.13	5	Very poor
31	0.286	0.042	12.68	5	Very poor
32	0.283	0.047	14.32	5	Very poor
33	0.287	0.049	14.51	5	Very poor
34	0.330	0.020	5.75	5	Very poor

The SQI ranged from 38.75 to 55.82 %, 27.53 to 52.72 %, and 5.75 to 26.73 % for old cultivated, new cultivated, and desert soil, respectively. According to Aprisal et al. [39], the SQI is classified into three quality regions. The first has a fair quality index and covers 56.48% (403.91 km²) of the total geographical area (TGA). The soils of this region are located mainly in old cultivated soils and some newly cultivated soils. This may be due to adding alluvium soils at different amounts on the surface of newly reclaimed soils. The second region was observed in some newly reclaimed soils and desert soils and extended over an area of about

27.75% (198.45 km²). These soils have low values of favorable studied indicators, leading to negative effects on the SQI that are defined as poor [40,41]. The third region is very poor quality, covers about 15.77% (112.78 km²) of TGA, and is located mainly in desert soils with low beneficial and high non-beneficial studied indicators. A box-whisker graph shows the minimum, maximum, median, lower quartile (25%), and upper quartile (75%) of SQI in the studied soils (Fig. 12). In addition, the correlation coefficients between the different soil indicators and SQI is depicted in Fig. 13. The spatial variability of SQI is shown in Fig. 14.

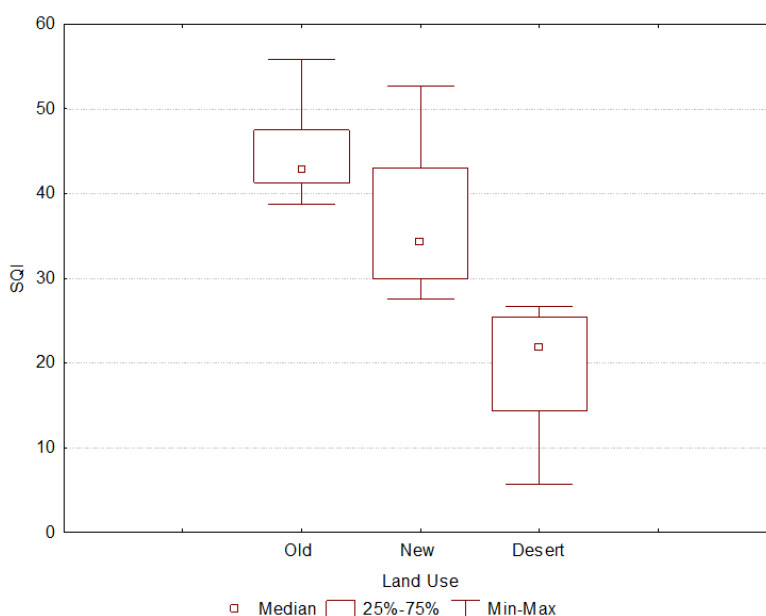


Fig. 12. A box-whisker graph showing the minimum, maximum, median, lower quartile (25%), and upper quartile (75%) of SQI

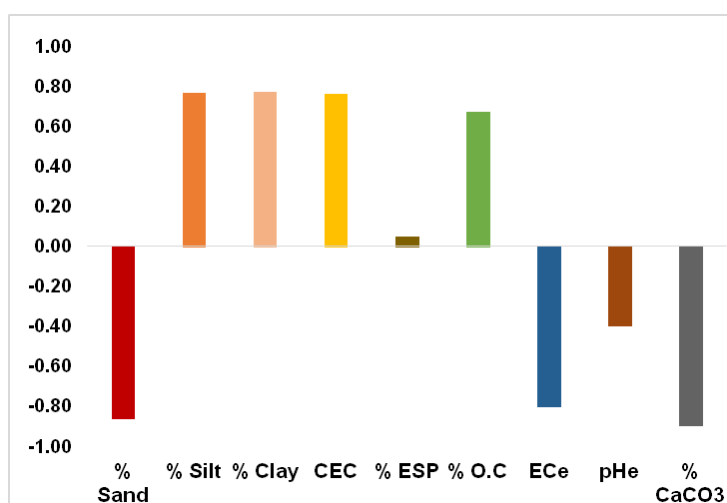


Fig. 13. Correlation coefficients between the different soil indicators and SQI

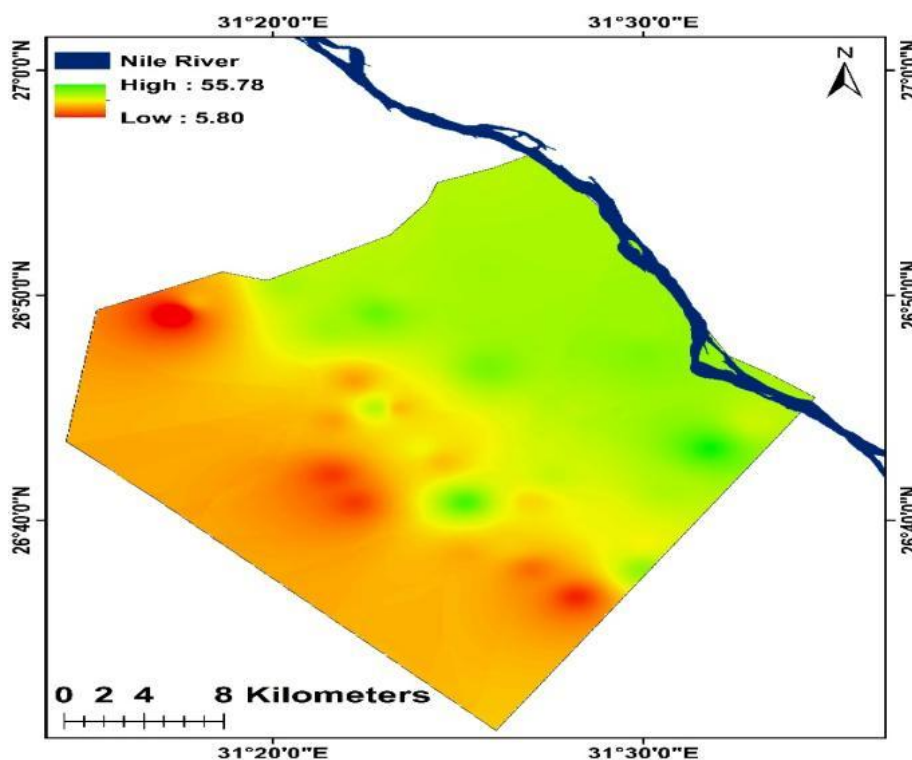


Fig. 14. The pattern of the spatial distribution of the SQI

4. CONCLUSION

This study has developed integrated TOPSIS and Geostatistical Techniques in the Northern part of Sohag Governorate, Egypt, for soil quality assessment under different land uses. The area under study had three land uses: old cultivated, newly reclaimed, and desert soils. Soil quality is affected by agricultural practices and climatic conditions, which, in turn, affect the soil's physical, chemical, and fertility properties. This study used the soil's physical and chemical properties to assess the SQI in the study area. The ordinary kriging interpolation method was used for estimating and mapping the unknown values of soil properties. The model's accuracy was confirmed for each soil property based on RMS, MSE, and RMSSE. The results show that the spherical model is suitable for predicting the unknown values of Sand, CEC, and ESP.

In contrast, the exponential model was suitable for silt and CaCO₃ content, and the Gaussian model was suitable for Clay and Organic carbon content and E_{Ce}—finally, the J-Bessel model for pH. Based on the TOPSIS method, the soil quality index (SQI) and its ranking under land use types in the study area were calculated. The results of SQI ranged from 38.75% to 55.82% and from, 27.53% to 52.72%, and from 5.75% to

26.73% for old cultivated, new cultivated, and desert soil, respectively. The SQI is classified into three quality zones. The first is characterized by a fair quality index representing about 56.48% (403.91 km²) of the total area. The soils of this zone are located mainly in old cultivated soils and some newly cultivated soils. The second zone is characterized by poor soil quality and covers about 27.75% of the area (198.45 km²). This class is observed in some newly reclaimed soils and desert soils. These soils have low values of favorable studied indicators, negatively affecting the SQI. The third zone is very poor quality and covers about 15.77% (112.78 km²) and is located mainly in desert soils with a low content of beneficial and high content of non-beneficial studied indicators. Finally, the present work confirmed that the geostatistical technique and TOPSIS are accurate and effective assessments of the SQI.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Smith JL, Halvorson JJ, Papendick RI. Using multiple-variable parameters Kriging

- for evaluating soil quality. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 1993;57:743–749.
2. Lu XN, Meng CF, Ma WZ, Chen XJ. Soil quality and its development. Acta Agric. Zhejiangensis. 2004;16:105–109.
 3. Guo LL, Sun ZG, Ouyang Z, Han DR, Li FD. A comparison of soil quality evaluation methods for Fluvisol along the lower Yellow River. *Catena*. 2017;152:135–143.
 4. Li YY, Dong SK, Wen L, Wang XX, Wu Y. Assessing the soil quality of alpine grasslands in the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau using a modified soil quality index. *Environ. Monit. Assess.* 2013;185:8011–8022.
 5. Gozukara G, Acar M, Ozlu E, Dengiz O, Hartemink AE, Zhang YK. A soil quality index using Vis-NIR and pXRF spectra of a soil profile. *Catena*. 2022;211:105954.
 6. Ditzler CA, Tugel AJ. Soil quality field tools: Experiences of USDA-NRCS soil quality institute. *Agron. J.* 2002;94:33–38.
 7. Xue YJ, Liu SJ, Hu YM, Yang JF. Soil quality assessment using weighted fuzzy association rules. *Pedosphere*. 2010;20: 334–341.
 8. Karlen DL, Tomer MD, Neppel J, Cambardella CA. A preliminary watershed scale soil quality assessment in north central Iowa, USA. *Soil Tillage Res.* 2008;99:291–299.
 9. Yang N, Zou DS, Yang MY, Fu MY, Lin ZG. Soil Quality Evaluation During Vegetation Recovery at Hill Slopes WITII Purple Sole in Hengyang, China. *Bangladesh J. Bot.* 2017;46, 147–153.
 10. Kim SW, Jeong SW, An YJ. Application of a soil quality assessment system using ecotoxicological indicators to evaluate contaminated and remediated soils. *Environ. Geochem. Health.* 2020;42: 1681–1690.
 11. Huang Y, Yang ZF. Recent research progress of overseas soil quality evaluation. *Geol. Bull. China.* 2009;28: 130–136.
 12. Sun BT, Gao C, Zhang Y. Soil quality evaluation in typical coastal reclamation zones based on weighted Topsis method. *Chin. J. Eco-Agric. (In Chinese).* 2018; 26:284–293.
 13. Gou LF, Wang YT, Jin WB. Empirical study about the carrying capacity evaluation of marine re-sources and environment based on the entropy-weight TOPSIS model. *Mar. Environ. Sci.* 2018;37:586–594.
 14. Aboelsoud HM, Abdelrahman MAE. Rapid Field Technique for Soil Salinity Appraisal in North Nile Delta Using EM₃₈ through Some Empirical Relations. *Int. J. Plant Soil Sci.* 2017;14:1–9.
 15. AbdelRahman MA, Zakarya YM, Metwaly MM, Koubouris G. Deciphering Soil Spatial Variability through Geostatistics and Interpolation Techniques. *Sustainability.* 2021;13(1):194.
 16. Lark RM. Towards soil geostatistics. *Spat. Stat.* 2012;1:92–99.
 17. Tabari H, Sabziparvar AA, Ahmadi M. Comparison of artificial neural network and multivariate linear regression methods for estimation of daily soil temperature in an arid region. *Meteorol. Atmos. Phys.* 2011;110:135–142.
 18. Lopez-Granados F, Jurado-Exposito M, Pena- Barragan JM, Garcia-Torres L. Using geostatistical and remote sensing approaches for mapping soil properties. *Eur. J. Agron.* 2005;23:279–289.
 19. Behera SK, Shukla AK. Spatial distribution of surface soil acidity electrical conductivity, soil organic carbon content and exchangeable potassium, calcium and magnesium in some cropped acid soils of India. *Land Degrad. Dev.* 2015;26:71– 79.
 20. Patil SS, Patil VC, Al-Gaadi KA. Spatial variability in fertility status of soil surface soils. *World Appl. Sci. J.* 2011;14 (7):1020–1024.
 21. Reza SK, Nayak DC, Chattopadhyay T, Mukhopadhyay S, Singh SK, Srinivasan R. Spatial distribution of soil physical properties of alluvial soils: a geostatistical approach. *Arch Agron Soil Sci*; 2015. DOI:10.1080/03650340.2015.1107678
 22. Behera SK, Singh MV, Singh KN, Sandeep T. Distribution variability of total and extractable zinc in cultivated acid soils of India and their relationship with some selected soil properties. *Geoderma.* 2011;162:242–250.
 23. Vasu D, Singh SK, Sahu N, Tiwary P, Chandran P, Duraisami VP, Ramamurthy V, Lalitha M, Kalaiselvi B. Assessment of spatial variability of soil properties using geospatial techniques for farm-level nutrient management. *Soil and Tillage Research.* 2017;169:25-34.
 24. Gülser C, Ekberli I, Candemir F. Spatial variability of soil physical properties in a cultivated field. *Eurasian J. of Soil Sci.* 2016;5(3):192-200.
 25. Saleh AM. Spatial variability mapping of some soil properties in Jadwal Al_Amir Project/Babylon/Iraq. *J. of the Indian Soc.*

- of Remote Sensing. 2018;46(9): 1481-1495.
26. Shukla AK, Behera SK, Lenka NK, Tiwari PK, Prakash C, Malik RS, Sinha NK, Singh VK, Patra AK, Chaudhary SK. Spatial variability of soil micronutrients in the intensively cultivated Trans-Gangetic Plains of India. *Soil and Tillage Research*. 2016;163:282-289.
 27. Middleton N, Thomas D, UNEP. *World atlas of desertification*. London. 1997;182. ISBN / ISSN: 0340691662.
 28. USDA. *Soil Survey Laboratory Manual. Soil Survey Investigation Report No. 42, Version 4*. USDA. NRCS, Nebraska, USDA; 2004.
 29. Chen SM, Cheng SH, Lan TC. Multicriteria decision-making based on the TOPSIS method and similarity measures between intuitionistic fuzzy values. *Inf. Sci*. 2016;367–368,279–295.
 30. Opricovic S, Tzeng GH. Compromise solution by MCDM methods: A comparative analysis of VIKOR and TOPSIS. *Eur. J. Oper. Res*. 2004;156(2): 445-455.
 31. Gumus AT. Evaluation of hazardous waste transportation firms by using a two step fuzzy-AHP and TOPSIS methodology. *Expert Syst. Appl*. 2009;36(2):4067-4074.
 32. Lei X, Robin Q, Liu Y. Evaluation of regional land use performance based on entropy TOPSIS model and diagnosis of its obstacle factors. *Transactions of the Chinese Soc. of Agri. Eng*. 2016; 32(13):243-253.
 33. Hsu PF, Hsu MG. Optimizing the Information Outsourcing Practices of Primary Care Medical Organizations Using Entropy and TOPSIS. *Quality & Quantity*. 2008;42(2):181-201.
 34. Liang X, Liu C, Li Z. Measurement of Scenic Spots Sustainable Capacity Based on PCA-Entropy TOPSIS: A Case Study from 30 Provinces, China. *Inte. J. of Envir. Research & Public Health*. 2018;15(1): 10-29.
 35. StatSoft Inc. "Statistica," Data Analysis Software System, Version. 2004;7.
 36. Webster R, Oliver MA. *Geostatistics For Environmental Scientists*, Second edition. John Wiley & Sons. West Sussex, England; 2007.
 37. Cafarelli B, Castrignanò A, De Benedetto D, Palumbo AD, Buttafuoco G. A linear mixed effect (LME) model for soil water content estimation based on geophysical sensing: A comparison of an LME model and kriging with external drift. *Environ. Earth Sci*. 2015;73:1951–1960.
 38. Cambardella CA, Moorman TB, Novak JM, Parkin TB, Karlen DL, Turco RF, Konopka AE. Field-scale variability of soil properties in central Iowa soils. *Soil Sci. Soc. Amer. J*. 1994;58(5):1501–1511.
 39. Aprisal I, Bambang J, Harianti M. Soil quality index analysis under horticultural farming in Sumani upper watershed. *Int. J. Geomate*. 2019;16:191–196.
 40. Martinez-Salgado M, Gutiérrez-Romero V, Janssens M, Ortega-Blu R. Biological soil quality indicators: A review. *Curr. Res. Technol. Educ. Top. Appl. Microbiol. Microb. Biotechnol*. 2010;1:319–328.
 41. Gundogdu KS, Guney I. Spatial analyses of groundwater levels using universal kriging. *J. Earth Syst. Sci*. 2007;116: 49–55.

© 2023 Mustafa; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/101783>