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■ LaTex Word Count		maps through remote sensing data and GIS tech-niques. Twelve factors, including geology, elevation, slope, curvature, TRI, drainage density, TWI, distance to river, soil, lineament density, NDVI, and rainfall, were merged by a GIS-based knowledge-driven approach after giving a weight for each factor. Processing of
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Mapping Groundwater Prospective Zones using Remote Sensing and GIS Techniques wadi Fatimah, Western Saudi Arabia

Mohamed Abdekareem 1, Fathy Abdalla 2, Fahad Alshehri 3* and Chaitanya B. Pande 3,4*

- ¹ Geology Department, Faculty of Science, South Valley University, Qena, Egypt, mohamed.abdelkareem@sci.svu.edu.eg
- ² Deanship of Scientific Research, King Saud University, Riyadh 11451, Saudi Arabia, fabdalla@ksu.edu.sa
- ³ Abdullah Alrushaid Chair for Earth Science Remote Sensing Research, Geology and Geophysics,
- Department, College of Science, King Saud University, Riyadh 11451, Saudi Arabia; falshehria@ksu.edu.sa 4 New Era and Development in Civil Engineering Research Group, Scientific Research Center,
- Al-Ayen University, Thi-Qar, Nasiriyah, 64001, Iraq * Correspondence: chaitanay45@gmail.com (C.B.P.); falshehria@ksu.edu.sa (F.A.)

Abstract: It was integrating remote sensing and GIS techniques allowed for the identification of the 13 potential water resource zones. Here, climatic, hydrologic, ecological, and topographic data have 14 been integrated with microwave and multispectral data. Sentinel-2, SRTM, and TRMM data were 15 used to identify the climatic, hydrologic, and topographic features of Wadi Fatimah, a portion of 16 western Saudi Arabia that drains to the Red Sea. The Physical characteristics of Wadi Fatimah's 17 catchment area that are essential for mapping groundwater potential zones have been derived from 18 topographic data, rainfall zones, lineaments, and soil maps through remote sensing data and GIS 19 techniques. Twelve factors, including geology, elevation, slope, curvature, TRI, drainage density, 20 TWI, distance to river, soil, lineament density, NDVI, and rainfall, were merged by a GIS-based 21 knowledge-driven approach after giving a weight for each factor. Processing of recent Sentinel-2 22 data acquired on August 4, 2023, verified the existence of a zone of vegetation belonging to promis-23 ing areas of potential water zones. The output map is categorized into six zones: excellent (10.98 %), 24 very high (21.98 %), high (24.99 %), moderate (21.44 %), low (14.70 %), and very low (5.91 %). In SAR 25 CCD derived from Sentinel-1 from 2022 to 2023 showed that the areas of no coherence are in high-26 activity areas in agricultural and anthropogenic activities. The model predictions were validated 27 using receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves and field data, existing wells' locations, and the 28 water-bearing formations' thickness inferred from geophysical data. Their performance was ac-29 cepted (AUC: 0.73). 30

Keywords: Water; Remote Sensing; Wadi Fatimah; GIS; Saudi Arabia

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1. Introduction

Many regions in the Great Sahara and Arabian Peninsula are currently experiencing 34 water scarcity, largely driven by frequent droughts and expanding agriculture and set-35 tling. Such regions suffer from limited rainfall and surface freshwater, representing <1% 36 of the world's freshwater. In comparison, over 30% is preserved in underground aquifer 37 water (Chow et al., 1988), supplying ~ 80% of the world's rural population with a safe 38 water supply. One of the water supplies that can address the issue of water scarcity is 39 groundwater. In arid-semi-arid conditions, groundwater resources are significant natural 40 resources that contribute to potable, industry, and agriculture ~ 50%, 40%, and 20%, re-41 spectively (Molden, 2007). Thus, groundwater is vital compared to surface water (Jaafar-42 zadeh et al., 2021). Growing populations and a wide range of social, economic, environ-43 mental, and climatic factors are the primary causes of growing demands on freshwater 44 availability. Supplies for water are vital for the growth of urban, agricultural, and industrial activities (Hasanuzzaman et al., 2022). Population growth and food rules are the biggest challenges to reaching sustainable development goals (Connor, 2015). The availability of freshwater resources has become a critical issue due to the high demand for agricultural, domestic, and industrial uses (Hasanuzzaman et al., 2022; Chakraborty et al., 2021; Shit et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019; Alshehri et al., 2020). Therefore, > 2 billion people worldwide are suffering from freshwater scarcity, and it is expected that by 2050, over one-third of the worldwide population will suffer from water scarcity (WWDR, 2018). Climate change is one of the prominent challenges in the twenty-first century, contributing to drought and water insufficiency problems (WHO, 2015) and surface water supply systems.

The main origin of groundwater is precipitation that penetrates down soil pores into shallow aquifers. Rainwater may mainly act in infiltration and overflow, depending on the intensity of the storm, the type of vegetation present, the temperature, and many other factors, including geology, topography, climatic conditions, soil, land use, land cover, slopes, distances from rivers, and precipitation levels (Abd Manap et al., 2014; Salman et al., 2018; Abdelkareem et al., 2023). The use of remote sensing and GIS to map groundwater resources has grown in popularity (Jha et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2022). Implementing some of these techniques may be beneficial to reveal potential areas of water resources (Li et al., 2023; Abdekareem et al., 2023; Abdekareem & Abdalla, 2022). Several studies have demonstrated the usefulness of using RS and GIS to locate probable groundwater sources (Naghibi et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Jha et al., 2007; Abdelkareem et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2022; Abdelkareem & El-Baz, 2015). A GIS technique can handle big data spatial data for processing and combination to predict and allow for finding additional water resources (Yariyan et al., 2020). For mapping groundwater potentiality, methodologies based on data and knowledge were used (Machiwal et al., 2010). Multiple fields of knowledge, such as overlay analysis (Zhu & Abdelkareem, 2021), analytical hierarchy process (AHP) (Razandi et al., 2015; Senthilkumar et al., 2019), Boolean logic (Riad et al., 2011), index overlays, and fuzzy methods (Maity et al., 2022; Muthumaniraja et al., 2019).

The main objective of the present study is to model and delineate groundwater pro-74 spective zones GPZs in the Wadi Fatimah basin, western Saudi Arabia. This objective is achieved by preparing thematic maps for the most important contributing parameters that 76 indicate groundwater potential, including elevation, slope, curvature, TRI, drainage den-77 sity, TWI, distance to river, soil, lineament density, NDVI, and rainfall through the GIS 78 module. Field observations and geophysical investigations are applied to test the validity of the resulting GIS module. 80

2. Study area

Wadi Fatimah is located within the Makkah region (Fig. 1a); it covers a large area of 82 the south and east of Jeddah and extends from NE to SW with an area that exceeds 100 83 km2. It is located between longitudes 39° 15' and 40° 30' and latitudes 21° 16' and 22° 15' 84 N, as shown in Figure 1. Wadi Fatimah drainage basin, which drains toward the Red Sea, 85 gets its importance from its location in the central-western part of the Kingdom. It is the 86 closest drainage basin to the three major cities: Jeddah, Makkah, and Taif. The Hijaz Es-87 carpment altitude (high Sarawat Mountains) in the east is the primary factor controlling 88 the quantity and pattern of rainfall, where they act as an orographic cooling barrier and 89 hence its duration, intensity, distribution, and return periods are major influences 90 (Subyani & Alhamadi, 2011). The basin is considered significant, with a greater chance of 91 collecting more flood and rainwater than the smaller basins. Rainfall occurs during the 92 spring and summer, where the average annual precipitation varies from >500 mm in the 93 eastern parts near the Hijaz Escarpment to <100 mm in the western part near the Red Sea 94 coast, reflecting the effect of topography. The average evaporation rates exceed 2000 95

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mm/yr. The infiltration rate is low due to the Fatimah group's carbonate and quartz–feldspar epiclastic rocks (Moore & Al-Rehaili, 1989). The recharge areas for surficial groundwater aquifers in Wadi Fatimah lie near Taif province, estimated at 72mm/y (Alyamani & Hussein, 1995; Alshehri et al., 2023).

Geologically, Wadi Fatimah is located within the Makkah Quadrangle; it comprises 100 different rock units with ages ranging from the Precambrian basement complex to the 101 Tertiary sedimentary and lavas and the Quaternary alluvial deposits. These rock units are 102 affected by structural elements such as faulting and dykes in the area. The thickness of the 103 Quaternary fill deposits formed from mudstones, sandstones, and conglomerates in the 104 study area varies from 10 m near the upstream parts to 20 m or more in the downstream 105 parts (Al Sefry et al., 2003; Alshehri & Abdelrahman, 2023). Geomorphologically, Wadi 106 Fatimah and its surrounding shows three main geomorphic units. These units are the high 107 mountainous area (Proterozoic rocks), the hilly area (dissected and weathered rocks), and 108 the pediment plain (Qari, 2009). Wadi Fatimah comprises sub-catchments like Wadi Ash-109 shamiyah, Wadi Alyamaniyah, Wadi Bani Omair, and Wadi Howarah. 110



Figure 1. Location map of Wadi Fatimah.

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3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Data used and methods:

This study used remote sensing data and GIS techniques to reveal the prospective 115 areas of water resources. Integration of multi-criteria such elevation, slope, curvature, TRI, 116 drainage density, TWI, distance to river, soil, lineament density, NDVI, and rainfall to 117 reveal possible water resource areas using remote sensing data from radar and optical 118 sensors (Fig.2). These eleven thematic GIS maps were merged. Digital elevation models 119 (DEMs) generated from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission's SRTM (30 m cell size) 120 data. SRTM-30 m resolution NASADEM 1arc second WGS84 data from the SRTM were 121 utilized to characterize the topographical parameters (elevation, slope, curvature, TRI) 122 and hydrologic parameters (e.g., drainage density, TWI, distance to the river). The stream 123 networks were delineated using 8-D approach (O'Callaghan & Mark, 1984) that is very 124 important in generating stream-density maps, TWI, and distances to rivers (Abdelkareem 125 et al., 2023). 126





The Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) composites are generated by 129 computing multiple Advanced Very High-Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) daily read-130 ings to produce a nearly cloud-free image depicting the maximum greenness. The NDVI 131 ratio from bands one and two of the AVHRR composite is combined to form a derived 132 NDVI band composite, in addition to vegetation rainfall data. The data on average rainfall 133 was collected using TRMM satellite observations. Using the kriging interpolating applica-134 tion, the generated rainfall average statistics are spatially scattered and cover the period 135 from January 1, 1998, to November 30, 2015. The information was obtained from this web-136 site address: https://giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov/giovanni/. Two scenes of the Sentinel-2B sat-137 ellite were acquired on 04/08/2023 and 19/08/2019. The VIS/NIR bands have pixel sizes of 138 10 m for the blue B2 (490 nm), green B3 (560 nm), red B4 (665 nm), and infrared B8 (842 139 nm). The SWIR bands (B11: 1610 nm, B12: 2190 nm) have 20 m-wide pixels. These bands 140

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of the Sentinel-2 are rendered as zip-compressed files in Sentinel's exclusive SAFE format. 141 By stacking the jpg files for bands B2, B3, B4, and B8 with a spatial resolution of 10 m and 142 B11 and B12 with a resolution of 20 m, a single GeoTIFF file with a consistent pixel size of 143 10 m is produced. A subset of this data has been handled utilizing SNAP software during 144 preprocessing to decrease processing time and data. Each pixel in a theme layer corre-145 sponds to the same location in the used overlay analysis. In order to produce a ground-146 water prospective zones (GWPZs) map as the output, several components of the input's 147 eleven layers must be integrated. Every layer and subclass has a numerical rank, a crucial 148 point to remember. The user can mathematically combine the layers to give each pixel on 149 the final GWPZ map a new rank. The minimal input cell size (90 m) was integrated with 150 the research area's GWPZs map, which represents the weighted average of the combined 151 data-based maps (multi-criteria) in this model utilizing a weighted overlay technique 152 based on geographic information systems (GIS). For this purpose, the following equation-153 1 was used. 154

where *Li* is the normalized weight of an evidentiary layer of the I parameter and *Fi* denotes 155 the magnitude of the inter-map (sub-class) features. This makes it possible to combine the eleven theme maps on a pixel basis in accordance with the equation.

4. Results and Discussion:

4.1. Factors controlling groundwater occurrence and infiltration

 $GWPZ = \Sigma \times$

In the present research, we integrate different data sets and measures to obtain an in-160 depth comprehension of Wadi Fatima's optimum areas of groundwater. These factors 161 cover the geologic, climatic, hydrologic, and ecologic features. 162

4.2. Geology

The characteristics and geometric features of the lithologic units are significant in 164 controlling the occurrence, movement, and accumulation of groundwater. This is due to 165 pore spaces (Benjmel et al., 2020; Abdelkareem et al., 2023). For example, zones with well-166 sorted clastic deposits would hold water rather than massive bedrock. Based on the geo-167 logic map of Saudi Arabian Shieild (1963-1983), Wadi Fatimah is built up of gneiss (ortho-168 and para), volcaniclastics belonging to basaltic to andesitic rocks (Jiddah Group), 169 metasediments to metavolcanic including marbles (Fatima Group), gabbros, diorites and 170 various sorts of granites from tonalites to alkali granites either gray or pink colors. These 171 rocks are partially covered by flood basalts (Fig. 3a). Several wadis dissected these rocks 172 and filled them with Quaternary deposits, including aeolian sand. Based on the geological 173 map, the geologic map was simplified into four classes: alluvium, Jaddah-Fatima for-174 mation, flood basalt, and granites-gabbros that occupied 9.65, 25.68, 16.42, and 48.25% of 175 the entire area, respectively (Fig.3 b). 176

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Figure 3. (a) Geologic map of the studied Wadi Fatima; (b) simplified geologic map.

4.3. Elevation

Elevation affects the direction, surface runoff, and groundwater recharging (Abdalla et al., 2020; Abdelkareem et al., 2023; Yousefi et al., 2020). Groundwater potential is signif-181 icantly influenced by elevation (Naghibi et al., 2019; Abdelkareem et al., 2023), unlike how 182 it relates to the groundwater resource (Karimi-Rizvandi et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023). Because 183 of the low topography downstream, precipitation cannot concentrate in locations of high height (Abdelkareem & Abdalla, 2022). The elevation chart of the research area (Fig. 4a) is separated into five zones: 0-369, 369.1-756, 756.1-1096, 1097-1440, and 1441-2290m, which cover 30.45, 20.97, 23.01, 16.58, and 9% of the basin, respectively. The topography layer is 187 an important layer that governs the direction of water flow over the land; it also controls the occurrence of groundwater and recharge potential (Maity et al., 2022; Abdalla et al., 2020). 190

Table 1. Factors controlling groundwater occurrence and infiltration.

Geology	Rank	Normalized weight %	Area %
Alluvium	7	0.389	9.56
Flood basalt	5	0.278	16.42
Jaddah-Fatima Group	4	0.222	25.68
Granites-Gabbros	2	0.111	48.25
		Elevation	
1441-2290	2	0.067	9
1097-1440	4	0.133	16.58
756.1 - 1096	7	0.233	23.01
369.1 - 756	8	0.267	20.97
0-369	9	0.300	30.45
		Slope	
0 - 4.347	8	0.320	46.19
4.348-10.14	7	0.280	22.73
10.15-17.18	5	0.200	16.29
17.19-25.67	3	0.120	10.31
25.68-52.78	2	0.080	4.48

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	C	urvature	
-5 to -0.388	2	0.182	14.01
0	4	0.364	69.48
0.001 to 5.21	5	0.455	16.50
		TRI	
0.111-0.379	6	0.353	17.71
0.379-0.483	5	0.294	33.73
0.483-0.590	4	0.235	33.14
0.590-0.888	2	0.118	15.42
		Dd	
0.091 - 0.594	2	0.095	11.38
0.594 - 0.808	4	0.190	30.19
0.808-1.006	7	0.333	40
1.007-1.456	8	0.381	18.43
		TWI	
4.25-7.02	2	0.10	36.20
7.02-8.72	4	0.20	34.16
8.72 - 10.85	6	0.30	21.34
10.86-17.83	8	0.40	8.29
	Dista	nce to River	
0 – 281.6	8	0.50	47.14
281.7 - 609	6	0.38	34.80
609.1 - 1670	2	0.13	18.06
]	Rainfall	
0.192 – 0.2677	1	0.071	19.93
0.2678-0.3652	3	0.214	15.18
0.3653 - 0.4527	4	0.286	43.34
0.4528-0.6209	6	0.429	21.55
		NDVI	
400 - 820	2	0.111	23
821 - 1400	3	0.167	34.04
1400 - 1800	5	0.278	19.43
1800 - 9315	8	0.444	23.53
		Soil	
Loam3	2	0.133	81.26
Loam2	3	0.200	13.22
Loam1	4	0.267	3.16
Sandy loam	6	0.400	2.36
	Liı	neaments	
0 – 7.95	2	0.074	22.10
7.95–18.5	4	0.148	26.04
18.76-29.83	6	0.222	24.30
29.84-42.33	7	0.259	20.09
42 34 - 72 45	8	0 296	7 47

4.4. Slope

The occurrence and infiltration capacity of groundwater flow is directly influenced193by surface slope, one of the most crucial control parameters (Al Saud, 2018). It may be194used as a general factor in the direction of groundwater flow (Gupta & Srivastava, 2010).195

The slope is a crucial component of watershed governance and the possibility of ground-196 water zone mapping (Al Saud, 2018). The likelihood of finding groundwater varies greatly 197 depending on the terrain: extremely high, high, moderately high, low, and very low 198 (Elewa & Qaddah, 2012; Zhu & Abdelkareem, 2021). The infiltration is inversely related 199 to the slope (Adiat et al., 2012). When it rains, water runs off steep slopes quickly, not 200 having enough time to percolate beneath the surface and replenish the saturated zone. As 201 a result, locations with steeper slopes produce less recharge due to high surface runoff 202 velocity and vertical percolation (i.e.,), thus affecting water occurrences. The slope angle 203 controls recharge by influencing the amount of land surface infiltration, runoff, drainage, 204 and subsurface drainage (Naghibi et al., 2019). On an elevation map of the study area (Fig. 205 4b), five zones have been recognized: 0-4.34, 4.34-10.14, 10.15-17.18, 17.19-25.67, and 25.68-206 52.78, that covering 46.19, 22.73, 16.29, 10.37, and 4.48% of the basin, respectively (Fig. 2b). 207

4.5. Surface curvature

Water accumulation, the rate of infiltration, and overflow are all influenced by the 209 curvature of the land surface [Benjmel et al., 2020; Yariyan et al., 2020; Abdelkareem et al 210 2023). The DEM is used to initiate a land surface curvature map, which is classified into 211 three categories: concave, convex, and flat (Figure 4c) each class has a certain capability 212 for holding water and may cause runoff. For instance, flat and areas of curvature, which 213 also have a higher infiltration rate, are better at collecting water than convex surfaces. Flat 214 and concave land surfaces are where water tends to collect and penetrate; hence, places 215 with high levels of curvature (or vice versa) are given high weight values (Mukherjee, and 216 Singh 2020; Abdelkareem et al., 2023; Abd El-Hamid at el. 2023). The output curvature 217 map was divided into three categories: (- 5.60 to - 0.38), (0), and (0.0001 – 5.21); (Fig. 4c). 218

4.6. Terrain roughness index

The TRI is a geomorphic parameter that is used in revealing groundwater occur-220 rences. The presence of groundwater potentiality corresponds to the TRI values. It was established to assess the landscape's diversity and can be applied to investigating groundwater [Kalantar et al., 2019; Moghaddam et al., 2020; Abdelkareem et al., 2023; Li et al., 2023]. This factor can be determined through the formula -2 below: 224

Based on the accumulation and infiltration of groundwater, the TRI map results have 225 been classified into four zones: 0.11-0.37, 0.37-0.48, 0.48-0.59, and 0.59-0.88 that covering 226 17.71, 33.73, 33.14, and 15.42, respectively (Fig. 4d). 227

- 2)

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Figure.4 (a) elevation; (b) slope; (c) curvature; (d) TRI

4.7. Drainage density

The present and past climatic and hydrologic conditions, as well as the recharge ca-230 pacity of shallow alluvial aquifers, mainly depend upon the characteristics and geometry 231 of the stream (Fig. 5a). Drainage density is an important hydrologic factor in mapping 232 prospective areas of water infiltration and accumulation. Drainage density is calculated 233 by dividing the combined length of all the streams and rivers in a drainage basin by its 234 overall area Harini et al. (2018). An area's drainage system is impacted by the type of veg-235 etation, the type of soil, infiltration, slope gradient, and the composition and structure of 236 the bedrock (Abd Manap et al., 2014). An area with less drainage density results in greater 237 infiltration and less surface runoff. Accordingly, groundwater development is appropriate 238 in locations with low drainage density (Magesh et al., 2012). Furthermore, because drain-239 age density is a measurement of surface runoff, it infers groundwater recharge indirectly 240 (Jha et al., 2007). According to Cevik and Topal (2003), higher drainage densities result in 241

less infiltration and faster surface flow. According to Yeh et al. (2009) and Pinto et al.242(2015), high drainage density values suggest a low groundwater potential zone since they243are conducive to runoff. The drainage density of the studied basin (Fig. 5b) ranges from2440.091 to 1.456, which is classified into four classes: 0.091 – 0.594, 0.594 – 0.808, 0.0808 –2451.006, 1.007 – 1.456, that occupying an area of 11.38, 30.19, 40, and 18.43%, respectively.246

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4.8. Topographic wetness factor (TWI)

The TWI is a secondary topographic factor that is employed to reveal topographic 248 effects on the location and capacity of runoff and infiltration capability (Rahmati et al., 249 2018), and thus groundwater occurrences (Li et al., 2023; Abdelkareem et al., 2022, 2023). 250 Such a factor determines the relationship between the earth's surface wetness and slope 251 variation (Pourghasemi, 2014; Alshehri et al., 2023). Moreover, it defines how the water 252 accumulation in a place is influenced by topography. Thus, zones of high slope angle and 253 areas of high altitudes have more runoff, which minimizes their capability for holding 254 water resources. On the other hand, areas of low elevation tend topographical wetness or 255 water accumulation (Abdelkareem et al., 2023; Hasanuzzaman et al., 2022). The TWI map 256 is classified into three categories (Fig. 5c): 4.25 – 7.02, 7.02 – 8.72, 8.72 – 10.85, 10.86 – 17.83, 257 covering 36.20, 34.16, 21.34, 8.29, respectively. 258

4.9. Distance to River

Water flow in a basin can be aided by recharging the stream bed and the nearby areas 260 to stream flow (Abdelkareem et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2022; Li et al., 2023). In arid, high-261 elevation, and desert areas, the infiltration comes from drainage systems holding water 262 from precipitation. Such water seeped into groundwater aquifers (Cuthbert et al., 2016). 263 The distances between locations and rivers indicate that groundwater harvesting may be 264 possible (Golkarian et al., 2018). With increasing distance from rivers, recharge of ground-265 water frequently decreases. In order to lead to stream water loss, bedrock reservoirs in 266 valleys do so (Rahmati et al., 2018). In Arc GIS 10, the spatial analyst tools, we used the 267 Euclidean distance tool to extract the distance to river categories (Jaafarzadeh et al., 2021; 268 Abdelkareem et al., 2023). The resulting map (Fig. 3d) is classified 0 - 281.6, 281.7 - 609, 269 and 609.1 – 1670, occupying 47.14, 34.80, and 18.06, respectively. 270

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Figure 5. (a) streams; (b) Dd; (c) TWI; (d) Distance to River.

4.10. Vegetation

For groundwater potential zones, the NDVI is a commonly used parameter (Singh et274al. 2009, Senthil kumar et al. 2019). The density and coverage of the vegetation were displayed on a map using the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI). The NDVI275ranges from -1 to 1. The NDVI result map of the study area is classified into 4 categories277based on the natural break method; are 210–900, 900–1500, 1500-2500, and 2500-10000, respectively (Fig. 4a), covering areas of 23, 34.04, 19.43, and 23.53 % of the area, respectively279(Table 1).280

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Figure 6. (a) NDVI; (b) Rainfall; (c) Soil; (d) Lineament density.

4.11. Rainfall

Precipitation is one of the essential hydrologic components that has been recognized as a significant source of aquifer recharge and a primary source of groundwater availability, especially in arid areas (Guru et al., 2017; Avand et al., 2020; Magesh et al., 2012; Shekhar & Pandey, 2015). Rainfall percolation within the soil promotes the shallow aquifers to be recharged, and the precipitation significantly affects percolation (Adiat et al., 2012). The upstream of the Wadi Fatimah basin receives an annual rainfall of 300 to 360 mm (Al Sefry et al., 2003). Rainfall patterns and intensity control the water availability in any basin. In order to identify groundwater potential zones and to recharge aquifers hydrologically, rainfall is one of the most important components (Abdelkareem et al., 2012 and 2022).

The eastern part (high elevation) receives approximately greater precipitation yearly 293 than the western (low height). The possibility of groundwater in a given geographical area 294 increases due to precipitation (Hong & Abdelkareem, 2022; Jaafarzadeh et al., 2021). Using 295 rainfall data from the TRMM satellite, investigators may monitor, document, and measure 296 the precipitation patterns for the watershed under consideration. The mean annual rain-297 fall over the study area was interpolated depending on the Kriging method. Five catego-298 ries for the rainfall intensity map (Fig. 6b) are 0.192 - 0.267, 0.267 - 0.365, 0.365 -0.452, and 299 0.452 - 0.620, covering 19.93, 15.18, 43.34, and 21.55, respectively. 300

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Due to its geographical characteristics, located in western Saudi Arabia, Wadi Fati-301 mah is frequently subjected to flash flood storms due to excessive, highly intense rainfall. 302 During flood periods, the portion of infiltrating water that reaches the water table is con-303 sidered the most important source of the local alluvial aquifers recharge in arid and semi-304 arid regions (Morin et al., 2009; Dahan et al., 2007). Figure 5 shows the areas recently sub-305 jected to rainfall storms in Wadi Fatimah. Alshehri and Abdelrahman (2023) calculated a 306 coarse drainage texture of 0.059 within the Wadi Fatimah basin, promoting additional 307 groundwater recharge from precipitation during flood periods and the rainy season. The 308 recharge of the local alluvial aquifer in the area was confirmed by the rise in water levels 309 along the wadi after the rainfall period (Al Sefry et al., 2003). In addition, the amount of 310 infiltrating water into the aquifer was calculated to occur at a rate of roughly 72 mm/y 311 (Alyamani & Hussein, 1995) and 85 mm/y (Memon & Kazi, 1984). 312



Figure 7. Rainfall accumulation during the rainstorm.

4.12. Soil

The soil texture is another effective element for determining places appropriate for 316 recharging processes. Regarding groundwater recharge and agricultural production, soil 317 type is a crucial factor. Thus, knowledge of soil texture is crucial for understanding inva-318 sion rats (Jaafarzadeh et al., 2021). The sort of soil has a major impact on the flow volume 319 and infiltration (Bera et al., 2020). Sand is an example of fine-grained, well-sorted soil 320 whose infiltration rate is lower than coarse-grained soil (Senanayake et al., 2016; Abdel-321 kareem et al., 2012). Rocks' porosity, permeability, and geometrical characteristics are thus 322 significant in determining a region's GPZs. The dimensions, shape, and arrangement of 323 soil grains and the pore structures connected to them can have a major impact on water 324 transport (Opp & Bodenkörper, 2011). Sandy soil has a rapid rate of infiltration; more-325 coarse, loamy soil with a high sand content has been given higher importance; and fine 326 soil with a smaller rate of infiltration owing to a greater amount of clay has been allocated 327 low priority (Shekhar & Pandy, 2015). The studied basin is characterized by sandy loam 328 to loam of different proportions of sand, silt, and clay (Fig. 4c). Thus, it is classified into 329 sandy loam, loam 1, loam 2, and loam 3, ordered from high to infiltration capacity and 330 covering 2.36, 3.16, 13.22, and 81.26, respectively. 331

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4.13. Lineaments

Lineaments have a significant impact on groundwater circulation and storage, as well 333 as how surface runoff gets absorbed into the ground (Subba Rao 2009). Groundwater 334 recharge systems, as well as movement directions, are controlled by fracture and fault 335 systems. The fracture and fault systems are controlling the groundwater recharge systems 336 and movement directions. They are linear features that promote secondary porosity. Ge-337 ologic characteristics known as lineaments are linear or curved and have a major role in 338 the development and transport of groundwater in crystallized terrain. The infiltration of 339 surface runoff and replenishment of the hard-rock aquifer are caused by lineaments, in-340 cluding cracks, fissures, and joints, which often form because of tectonic stress/strain. 341 Many authors have highlighted that a high lineament density leads to a high well output 342 by using the connection between the presence of groundwater and lineaments (Achu et 343 al. 2020; Hung et al. 2005). The area is classified into five classes (Fig. 4d) including 0 -344 7.95, 7.95 – 18.75, 18.76 – 29.83, 29.84 – 42.33, and 42.34 – 72.45, respectively. 345

4.14. Groundwater prospective map GPZs

The GPZs were established by combining elevation, slope, curvature, drainage density, distance to river, TWI, rainfall, TRI, NDVI, soil, and lineaments data from satellite pictures, hydrologic, and geologic. According to the likelihood of GW, the area was separated into different six zones (Fig. 6). The six categories are excellent (10.98 %), very high (21.98 %), high (24.99 %), moderate (21.44 %), low (14.70 %), and very low (5.91 %). The region with the highest potential is now clearly visible. The GW recharge zones are supported by sand and gravel, depressions, and a high flat or gentle slope in this area. The gathered wells confirmed the GPZs in order to validate the estimated model. Additionally, places with vegetation and agricultural activities are connected with good groundwater potential zones. Zones with a high slope, elevated ranges, and low density have little infiltration. Dams in this range would make it possible to capture water and protect the downstream areas as well as newly growing urban areas (Souissi et al., 2018). Zones with well-sorted sand that promote high porosity variations reveal high infiltration capability.

According to the computational models, high-ranking probabilities are consistent 360 with the well location and vegetated areas. As a result, abundant spring sites coincident 361 with the area of high to excellent potentiality, which doesn't display more springs from 362 "Low" potential zones. The GWPZ map of the research area is confirmed through the 363 ROC curve (Fig. 9). The usefulness of the system's assessment is shown by the fact that the 364 AUC can be utilized to define the system's ability to properly anticipate both the occur-365 rence of "groundwater" and its absence from the system. Values for the AUC range from 366 0 to 1 (Fig. 9), with lower values denoting beneficial predictions and higher values denot-367 ing more reliable estimations. The AUC for the model is 0.73, which indicates improved 368 accuracy. As multiple wells are compatible with the zones of high prospective, the field 369 investigations verified the GWPZ map. Several farms also correlate with those zones (Fig. 370 8). Based on the Sentinel-2 band combined 12, 8, 3, in R, G, and B, accordingly, vegetation 371 and water resources make up the majority of the extremely high to extreme GWPZs (Fig. 372 9). 373

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Figure 8. Groundwater prospective zones.



Figure 9. AUCs of predicted GWPZ model (AUC: 0.73).



Figure 10. Excellent groundwater prospective zone overlain by main roads, streams and water-shed.

5. Discussion

Wadi Fatima's geologic and topographic setting in western Saudi Arabia promotes the rainfall conditions at the elevated upstream areas that drain to the Red Sea at Jeddah city. Such a setting gave it a promising area for water harvesting and accumulation. The applied model utilized multi-criteria of topography, meteorology, geology, structures, and hydrology parameters. Areas of high potentiality are consistent with zones of low topography, high lineament density, and flat to gentle slopes (Li et al., 2023; Zhu & Abdelareem, 2021). Additionally, areas with loose sediments in the downstream and highly vegetated areas would promote infiltration and minimize runoff (Sun et al., 2023).



Figure 11. Sentinel-2 12, 8, and 3 of the studied basin that overlain by well locations; (b, d, f, h) Sentinel-2 image subset; (c, e, g,i) In SAR CCD.

The wet and moist soil in these locations is another effect of the high TWI values 418 [Beven et al., 1979; Sun et al., 2023]. This suggests that groundwater has accumulated in 419 these areas. The combined data in a GIS model allowed highlighting such promising areas 420 consistent with groundwater sites. Such source of water allowed the reclamation of land 421 for diverse agricultural purposes and the development of new settlements at the down-422 and midstream areas (Fig. 11). Sentinel-1 imagery employing InSAR CCD data proves 423 significant variations in LU/LC, particularly in the context of agricultural and other hu-424 man activities in the essentially downstream region. 425

The validity of the developed model was verified against the field observations, pre-426 vious geophysical investigations, well yield, and the location of groundwater wells that 427 present in areas with the highest potential of groundwater occurrence in the study area. 428 The results of the GWPZ map are consistent with geoelectric results (Alshehri & Abdelrah-429 man, 2023) which implied high potential amounts of groundwater at the shallow ground-430 water aquifer in Wadi Fatimah. Additionally, the highest density of wells, along with the 431 high transmissivity values of the shallow aquifer, range between 300 m2/d and 1800 m2/d 432 (Al Sefry et al., 2003), while the storativity values are averaged at 0.06, and the specific 433 yield values ranged from 0.12 to 0.2 ((Sen, 1995; Dawson & Istok, 1991). These values in-434 dicate that the aquifer yields range from mid to high potential and water accessibility to 435 the wells. According to Al Sefry et al. (2003) and based on the aquifer testing and geophys-436 ical surveys, the estimated groundwater volume is around 42x106m3. Thus, the verifica-437 tion proved that the GWPZ generated from GIS techniques is reliable and representative. 438

6. Conclusions

Groundwater is a vital water source for sustainable development, particularly for dry 440 and hyper-arid regions. Remote sensing imagery and GIS techniques were efficiently 441 merged to uncover, assess, and monitor exploration data for water resources in varied climatic conditions. In order to determine probable zones of groundwater potentiality, W. Fatima, located in the Makka region, is explored using GIS and satellite imagery methods. 444Many GIS maps that show the geology, geomorphic, climatic, and hydrologic conditions have been processed, normalized, and revealed the groundwater potential zones, which 446 are categorized into five zones: excellent (10.98%), very high (21.98%), high (24.99%), mod-447 erate (21.44%), low (14.70%), and very low (5.91%). Overall, investigating the GWPZ area 448 utilizing GIS and remote sensing methods is extremely beneficial to sustainability and 449 decision-makers. The GWPZ map was tested and compared to the receiver operating char-450 acteristic (ROC) curves and field data, locations of existing wells, and thickness of the wa-451 ter-bearing formations inferred from geophysical data. Thus, the verification proved that 452 the GWPZ generated from GIS techniques is reliable and representative. 453

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