SENTRI: Jurnal Riset Ilmiah
https://ejournal.nusantaraglobal.ac.id/index.php/sentri
Email: sentri@nusantaraglobal.ac.id
DOI: https://doi.org/10.55681/sentri.v5i1.5516

Vol. 5, No. 1, January 2026
e-ISSN: 2963-1130
pp. 570-584

Spatial-Temporal Drought Analysis in Jatirogo Subdistrict Using Normalized Difference Drought Index (2020-2025)

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Article History:
Received: December 25, 2025
Revised: January 27, 2026
Accepted: January 30, 2026

Keywords:
Drought monitoring;
Jatirogo;
NDDI;
Remote sensing;
Sentinel-2

Abstract: *Drought is a recurring hydrometeorological hazard in Indonesia, particularly affecting regions with high rainfall variability and rainfed agriculture dependence. This study analyzes spatial-temporal drought patterns in Jatirogo Subdistrict, Tuban Regency, East Java (2020-2025) using the Normalized Difference Drought Index (NDDI) from Sentinel-2 imagery. The methodology involved image preprocessing, NDVI and NDWI calculation, NDDI derivation, and GIS-based drought classification. Results show strong seasonal patterns with peak severity during August-October, where moderate to severe drought dominated 65-80% of the area annually. The most severe conditions occurred in 2023-2024, with NDDI values exceeding 1.0. Villages including Kebonharjo, Sugihan, Demit, Bader, and Sekaran were identified as highly vulnerable. NDDI-based mapping revealed significant correlations with sectoral impacts: severe drought periods (NDDI > 0.8) corresponded with 40-60% crop yield reductions in rainfed paddies, increased irrigation demand, critical groundwater depletion, and elevated food security vulnerabilities among smallholder farmers. This study demonstrates that Sentinel-2 NDDI integration with GIS effectively supports village-level drought monitoring and provides essential spatial information for targeted mitigation strategies, including water resource management, adaptive agricultural planning, and early warning systems.*

How to cite: Rochmah, A., Arifia, A., Joesidawati, M. I., & Rahmawan, F. (2026). Spatial-Temporal Drought Analysis in Jatirogo Subdistrict Using Normalized Difference Drought Index (2020-2025). *SENTRI: Jurnal Riset Ilmiah*, *5*(1), 570–584. https://doi.org/10.55681/sentri.v5i1.5516

INTRODUCTION

Drought represents one of the most significant hydro-climatological challenges in Indonesia, with increasing frequency, duration, and intensity closely linked to global climate change phenomena [1][2][3]. Climate change has altered precipitation patterns and increased temperature variability, resulting in prolonged dry seasons and more erratic rainfall distribution. As an archipelagic country located within the tropical monsoon region, Indonesia experiences pronounced seasonal variability driven by monsoon circulation, El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO), and regional atmospheric dynamics [4][5][6]. These climatic characteristics make several regions, particularly those with limited water storage capacity, highly vulnerable to drought conditions.

The agricultural sector is among the most severely affected by drought in Indonesia. Agriculture employs approximately 28% of the national workforce and plays a crucial role in food security, rural livelihoods, and regional economic stability [7][8]. Drought events often lead to reduced crop yields, crop failure, loss of farmer income, and increased food prices, thereby exacerbating socio-economic vulnerability in rural communities [9]. Rainfed agricultural systems are especially susceptible, as they depend heavily on seasonal rainfall and lack adequate irrigation infrastructure. Consequently, drought poses not only an environmental challenge but also a significant socio-economic and developmental issue.

Jatirogo Subdistrict in Tuban Regency, East Java, represents an area with a high level of drought vulnerability. The region is characterized by relatively low annual rainfall, ranging from approximately 1,500 to 2,000 mm, which is unevenly distributed throughout the year [10]. In addition, the dominant calcareous soil types in this area exhibit low water retention capacity, limiting soil moisture availability during prolonged dry periods [11][12]. These physical characteristics contribute to recurrent water shortages, particularly during extended dry seasons, which directly affect agricultural productivity and domestic water supply.

Historical records and local reports indicate that drought events in Jatirogo Subdistrict have intensified in recent years, both in frequency and severity [13]. Agricultural production statistics from Tuban Regency demonstrate a concerning downward trend in Jatirogo over the past five years (2020-2024). Rice production declined from 12,450 tons in 2020 to 8,920 tons in 2024, representing a 28.3% decrease. Similarly, maize yields dropped from 4,230 tons to 2,850 tons (32.6% reduction), while tobacco production fell from 1,680 tons to 1,120 tons (33.3% decline). The planted area for rainfed rice decreased by approximately 35%, from 2,150 hectares in 2020 to 1,398 hectares in 2024, with severe drought years (2023 and 2024) recording crop failure rates exceeding 40% in several villages. These production losses have resulted in an estimated economic loss of approximately IDR 18.5 billion annually for local farming communities, significantly impacting household income and regional food security. The impacts of these droughts include reduced planting areas, delayed cropping seasons, and declining crop yields, which in turn affect community livelihoods and food availability. Despite these challenges, detailed spatial information on drought distribution and severity at the village level remains limited. Most existing assessments rely on administrative reports or point-based climate data, which are insufficient to capture spatial variability across heterogeneous landscapes [14][15][16]. The lack of fine-scale spatial analysis hampers effective drought mitigation, early warning systems, and targeted adaptation planning.

Remote sensing technology offers substantial advantages for drought monitoring and assessment compared to conventional ground-based approaches. Satellite imagery enables synoptic, repetitive, and cost-effective observation of land surface conditions over large geographic areas [17]. This capability is particularly valuable in regions where meteorological stations are sparse or unevenly distributed [18]. Advances in satellite sensor technology have facilitated the development of various spectral indices that can detect vegetation stress, surface moisture conditions, and land cover dynamics, which are essential indicators of agricultural drought.

Among available satellite missions, the European Space Agency's Sentinel-2 program has significantly enhanced land surface monitoring capabilities. Sentinel-2 provides high spatial resolution imagery (10–20 m) with a frequent revisit period of approximately five days, enabling detailed and timely observation of vegetation and surface conditions [19][20]. These characteristics make Sentinel-2 especially suitable for village-scale drought assessment and multi-temporal analysis, allowing researchers to capture both spatial patterns and temporal evolution of drought conditions.

Several spectral indices derived from multispectral satellite data have been widely applied for drought analysis. The Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) is commonly used to assess vegetation greenness and photosynthetic activity, while the Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) provides information on vegetation water content and surface moisture status. The integration of NDVI and NDWI into the Normalized Difference Drought Index (NDDI) allows for a more comprehensive representation of drought conditions by simultaneously accounting for vegetation health and moisture availability. Previous studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of NDDI in identifying agricultural drought across diverse climatic regions. Gu et al. (2023) successfully applied NDDI to monitor drought dynamics in semi-arid regions of China [21], while Nugroho et al. (2022) confirmed its applicability for drought assessment in Indonesian paddy fields [22].

However, despite the proven potential of NDDI, its application using high-resolution Sentinel-2 imagery for village-scale, multi-year drought analysis in East Java remains limited. Most existing studies focus on broader regional scales or shorter time periods, leaving a gap in localized, long-term drought assessments that are critical for local-level decision-making. Addressing this gap is essential for improving drought preparedness and supporting evidence-based agricultural planning.

Therefore, this study aims to analyze the spatial and temporal patterns of agricultural drought severity in Jatirogo Subdistrict from 2020 to 2025 using the Normalized Difference Drought Index (NDDI). Specifically, the objectives are to identify villages with the highest drought vulnerability, examine temporal variations in drought intensity, and provide spatially explicit information to support drought mitigation and adaptation strategies. By integrating Sentinel-2 remote sensing data with Geographic Information Systems (GIS), this research seeks to contribute to climate-resilient development planning and sustainable agricultural management in drought-prone regions of Indonesia.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Drought is a complex hydro-climatological phenomenon defined as a prolonged period of water deficit relative to long-term average conditions, which can disrupt natural and human systems [1]. Unlike sudden natural hazards, drought develops gradually and often goes unnoticed until its impacts become severe, making early detection and monitoring particularly challenging [2]. In agricultural contexts, drought primarily manifests as reduced soil moisture, vegetation water stress, and limited crop growth, which directly affect food production and rural livelihoods [3].

Agricultural drought occurs when soil moisture availability becomes insufficient to meet crop water requirements during critical growth stages [4]. This type of drought is closely linked to vegetation conditions and land surface processes rather than solely to precipitation deficits [5]. Therefore, indicators that reflect vegetation health and surface moisture are essential for accurately identifying and assessing agricultural drought conditions [6].

Remote sensing has become an effective and widely adopted approach for drought monitoring due to its ability to provide spatially continuous, repeatable, and long-term observations across large areas [17]. Satellite-based data allow researchers to overcome the limitations of sparse ground-based meteorological stations, particularly in developing regions and rural agricultural landscapes [18]. The use of multispectral satellite imagery enables the extraction of spectral information that reflects biophysical characteristics of vegetation and land surfaces [19].

Vegetation indices derived from satellite imagery are commonly used to assess vegetation condition because plant growth and physiological activity respond sensitively to changes in water availability [20]. One of the most widely applied indices is the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), which represents vegetation greenness and photosynthetic capacity based on the contrast between red and near-infrared reflectance [21]. High NDVI values indicate healthy and dense vegetation, while low values reflect sparse, stressed, or senescent vegetation cover [21]. During drought periods, limited water availability reduces chlorophyll content and leaf area, resulting in a noticeable decline in NDVI values [22].

While NDVI effectively captures vegetation vigor, it does not directly represent vegetation water content or surface moisture conditions [23]. To address this limitation, the Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) is employed to estimate vegetation water status by utilizing near-infrared and shortwave infrared reflectance [18]. NDWI is sensitive to changes in leaf water content and soil moisture, making it useful for detecting water stress in vegetated areas [24]. Decreasing NDWI values are commonly associated with moisture depletion and the onset of drought conditions [24].

However, the separate use of NDVI or NDWI presents inherent limitations in accurately characterizing agricultural drought. NDVI may remain relatively high in early drought stages when vegetation canopy structure is still intact despite declining water content, leading to delayed drought detection [25]. Conversely, NDWI can be influenced by background soil reflectance and vegetation density, potentially causing misinterpretation in areas with sparse vegetation cover or during senescence periods unrelated to drought [26]. Furthermore, NDVI is primarily responsive to chlorophyll activity and biomass density, which may not immediately decline when plants utilize stored water reserves, while NDWI may show false positive signals in irrigated areas or after isolated rainfall events that do not alleviate overall drought conditions [27][28].

The Normalized Difference Drought Index (NDDI) was developed to integrate NDVI and NDWI into a single indicator that simultaneously represents vegetation health and moisture availability [22]. By combining these two complementary indices, NDDI enhances sensitivity to surface dryness and vegetation stress compared to single-index approaches [25]. The theoretical advantage of NDDI lies in its ability to capture the dual nature of agricultural drought by normalizing the difference between NDVI and NDWI, thereby emphasizing the contrast between vegetation greenness and water stress. This formulation ($NDDI = (NDVI - NDWI)/(NDVI + NDWI)$) effectively amplifies drought signals when vegetation appears relatively green (moderate NDVI) but is experiencing moisture deficiency (low NDWI), a condition that often characterizes early to moderate agricultural drought stages [29]. Studies by Gu et al. (2007) demonstrated that NDDI exhibited stronger correlation with soil moisture measurements ($r = 0.78$) compared to NDVI alone ($r = 0.52$) or NDWI alone ($r = 0.61$) in semi-arid agricultural regions [30]. Similarly, validation research in Indonesian rice-growing areas showed that NDDI achieved 83% classification accuracy for drought severity classes, surpassing NDVI (68%) and NDWI (72%) when validated against ground-based crop water stress indicators [31]. The integration approach also reduces the influence of atmospheric effects and soil background noise that disproportionately affect individual indices, thereby improving the robustness and consistency of drought detection across diverse land cover types and phenological stages [32][33]. Higher NDDI values indicate more severe drought conditions, whereas lower values correspond to normal or wet surface conditions [22].

The application of NDDI using high-resolution Sentinel-2 imagery provides significant advantages for agricultural drought analysis [19]. Sentinel-2 offers fine spatial resolution and frequent revisit times, allowing detailed monitoring of drought dynamics at the local scale [26]. This capability is particularly important for identifying spatial variability in drought intensity within agricultural landscapes and supporting location-specific drought mitigation strategies [25]. Consequently, the integration of NDDI and Sentinel-2 imagery constitutes a robust theoretical basis for spatiotemporal analysis of agricultural drought in district-level studies.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study employed a remote sensing and GIS-based approach to analyze drought patterns in Jatirogo Subdistrict, Tuban Regency, East Java. The research design consisted of data acquisition, preprocessing, index calculation, classification, and spatial-temporal analysis.

3.1. Study Area

Jatirogo Subdistrict is located between 6°52'30"S to 6°57'00"S and 111°41'00"E to 111°47'30"E, covering approximately 7,825 hectares. The area features flat to undulating topography with elevations ranging from 10 to 85 meters above sea level. Climate classification according to Schmidt-Ferguson is Type C (moderately wet), with distinct dry seasons typically from May to October [23]. Land use is dominated by agriculture (65%), particularly rain-fed rice cultivation, making it highly vulnerable to rainfall variability.

3.2. Data Collection

Sentinel-2 Level-2A surface reflectance data were acquired from the Copernicus Open Access Hub for August to November each year from 2020 to 2025, capturing peak dry season conditions. Given the persistent cloud cover challenges characteristic of tropical regions like Indonesia, a systematic image selection protocol was implemented to ensure data quality and temporal consistency. The selection criteria included: (1) cloud cover percentage below 10% over the entire scene, (2) prioritization of images acquired during the peak dry months (August-October) when cloud probability is lowest, (3) visual inspection to ensure clouds and shadows did not obscure agricultural areas within the study boundary, and (4) temporal proximity to the middle of each month to maintain inter-annual comparability. For months where cloud-free imagery was unavailable on the preferred date, alternative acquisition dates within ±7 days were selected. In cases where single-date imagery still contained residual cloud contamination, temporal compositing was applied using the median reflectance value from multiple cloud-masked images within a 15-day window. This approach ensured that each analytical period was represented by the best available cloud-free observation while maintaining drought condition representativeness during critical agricultural stages. A total of 72 scenes with cloud cover <10% were processed. Supporting data included administrative boundaries (BIG), land use maps, rainfall data from BMKG stations, and DEMNAS digital elevation model.

3.3. Data Processing and Analysis

Image preprocessing involved atmospheric correction using the Sen2Cor (version

2.9) processor, which converts Sentinel-2 Level-1C Top-of-Atmosphere (TOA) reflectance products to Level-2A Bottom-of-Atmosphere (BOA) surface reflectance. The Sen2Cor algorithm performs atmospheric correction by modeling aerosol optical thickness, water vapor content, and ozone concentration based on the Scene Classification Layer (SCL) and atmospheric Look-Up-Tables (LUTs). This correction process removes atmospheric scattering and absorption effects, particularly important in tropical humid environments where atmospheric water vapor and aerosol loading can significantly distort spectral signatures. The correction also accounts for terrain effects using the SRTM digital elevation model integrated within Sen2Cor. Following atmospheric correction, additional preprocessing steps included: clipping to study area boundaries**,** and refined cloud and cloud shadow masking using the Quality Assessment (QA) band combined with the SCL layer, which classifies pixels into categories including cloud high probability, cloud medium probability, cloud shadow, and cirrus. Pixels flagged as clouds, cloud shadows, or cirrus were excluded from subsequent analysis to prevent contamination of drought index values. For areas affected by residual thin clouds not detected by automated algorithms, manual digitization and masking were performed based on visual interpretation of true color composites.

NDVI and NDWI were calculated using Sentinel-2 bands:

$$NDVI = (B8 - B4) / (B8 + B4) \quad (1)$$

$$NDWI = (B8 - B11) / (B8 + B11) \quad (2)$$

where B4 = Red (665 nm), B8 = NIR (842 nm), B11 = SWIR (1610 nm).

NDDI was derived as:

$$NDDI = (NDVI - NDWI) / (NDVI + NDWI)$$

Drought severity was classified into five classes: Normal (<0.01), Mild (0.01–0.15), Moderate (0.15–0.25), Severe (0.25–1.00), and Very Severe (≥1.00) [24]. Spatial-temporal analysis included area calculation per class, trend analysis using Mann-Kendall test, hotspot analysis (Getis-Ord Gi*), and vulnerability assessment integrating socio-economic and biophysical factors. Validation was conducted through correlation with rainfall data, field verification in 15 locations, and comparison with local agricultural reports.

Additional explanation:
The added sections (printed in bold) include:

1. **Image date selection criteria:**
    - Cloud cover <10%
    - Priority on peak dry season months (August–October)
    - Visual inspection to ensure agricultural areas are cloud-free
    - Temporal proximity (mid-month) for inter-annual comparability
    - Tolerance of ±7 days if the preferred date is unavailable
    - Temporal compositing (15-day median) for cases of residual cloud contamination

2. **Atmospheric correction process (Sen2Cor):**
    - Conversion from TOA (Level-1C) to BOA (Level-2A)

- Modeling of aerosol optical thickness, water vapor, and ozone
- Use of Scene Classification Layer and Look-Up Tables
- Terrain effect correction using SRTM DEM
- Cloud masking using QA band and SCL layer
- Manual masking for thin clouds not automatically detected

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Spatial Patterns of Drought

NDDI analysis revealed distinct spatial patterns of drought severity across *Jatirogo* Subdistrict. The northeastern villages *Kebonharjo, Sugihan*, and *Demit* consistently exhibited the highest drought severity, with NDDI values frequently exceeding 0.5. These areas correlate with sandy loam soils and limited irrigation infrastructure. In contrast, southern villages such as *Sekaran* and *Bader* showed relatively lower drought severity, associated with better soil water retention and proximity to water sources.

Table 1. Percentage Area by Drought Class (Annual Averages 2020–2025) [25]

Year	Normal	Mild	Moderate	Severe	Very Severe
2020	15.2%	22.4%	33.7%	24.1%	4.6%
2021	12.8%	20.6%	35.2%	26.3%	5.1%
2022	10.4%	18.9%	34.8%	29.7%	6.2%
2023	8.7%	16.3%	32.5%	33.8%	8.7%
2024	7.2%	14.1%	36.4%	34.6%	7.7%
2025	9.8%	17.5%	37.2%	29.4%	6.1%

Temporal Trends

Drought severity showed a clear increasing trend from 2020 to 2024, with the proportion of severe to very severe drought area rising from 28.7% to 42.3%. The peak drought months were consistently August to October. Mann-Kendall trend analysis confirmed statistically significant increasing trends in NDDI for August ($\tau = 0.68$, $p = 0.003$) and September ($\tau = 0.72$, $p = 0.002$). Regression analysis revealed a strong negative correlation between NDDI and 3-month Standardized Precipitation Index ($R^2 = 0.83$), validating NDDI's responsiveness to meteorological drought.

Validation of High NDDI Values with Rainfall Data and Drought Reports

To Ensure Model Accuracy, Particularly For Extreme Drought Conditions, A comprehensive cross-validation was performed between high NDDI values (>1.0) and independent ground-truth data sources. Rainfall data from three BMKG meteorological stations within and surrounding Jatirogo Subdistrict (Tuban Station, Bojonegoro Station, and Lamongan Station) were analyzed for months when very severe drought (NDDI ≥1.0) was detected. The validation revealed strong concordance between NDDI-derived drought conditions and actual meteorological observations.

During August-October 2023, when NDDI values exceeded 1.0 in 8.7% of the study area (Table 1), rainfall records showed cumulative precipitation of only 12.4 mm, 8.7 mm, and 15.3 mm for August, September, and October respectively—representing less than 10% of the 30-year climatological average for these months (average: 25-45 mm/month). Similarly, in 2024, months with NDDI >1.0 (7.7% of area) coincided with rainfall deficits exceeding 85% below normal, with September 2024 recording only 6.2 mm of precipitation.

Cross-referencing with official drought reports from the Tuban Regency Disaster Management Agency (BPBD Tuban) further confirmed the accuracy of NDDI-based drought detection. BPBD drought impact reports for 2023 documented 127 hectares of crop failure in Kebonharjo, Sugihan, and Demit villages during August-October—the exact villages and time period where NDDI analysis identified very severe drought conditions (NDDI >1.0). The agency's 2024 quarterly report (Quarter III) specifically mentioned water scarcity affecting 342 farming households across these northeastern villages, with 15 shallow wells drying up and emergency water distribution required in Kebonharjo and Demit. These ground-validated drought impacts spatially overlapped with 89.3% accuracy with areas classified as very severe drought (NDDI ≥1.0) in the satellite-based analysis.

Statistical validation using Pearson correlation analysis demonstrated significant negative correlation between monthly NDDI values and monthly rainfall ($r = -0.87$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 72$ monthly observations). Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve analysis for binary classification (drought/no drought) based on BPBD reports yielded an Area Under Curve (AUC) of 0.91, indicating excellent discriminatory ability of the NDDI threshold (≥0.25) for detecting actionable drought conditions. The confusion matrix analysis showed that NDDI correctly identified 85.7% of drought events documented by BPBD (sensitivity) and correctly classified 92.3% of non-drought periods (specificity).

This multi-source validation confirms that NDDI-derived classifications, particularly for severe and very severe categories, accurately reflect ground conditions and provide reliable early warning signals that align with both meteorological observations and actual agricultural drought impacts documented by local authorities.

Village-Level Vulnerability Assessment

A composite vulnerability index incorporating exposure (NDDI-based), sensitivity (agricultural dependence), and adaptive capacity (water infrastructure) identified Kebonharjo as the most vulnerable village (composite score 0.83), followed by Sugihan (0.76) and Demit (0.73). These villages exhibit high agricultural dependence, limited water infrastructure, and persistent drought exposure.

Table 2. Drought Vulnerability Ranking by Village [25]

Rank	Village	Exposure	Sensitivity	Adaptive Capacity	Composite Score
1	*Kebonharjo*	0.87	0.92	0.21	0.83
2	*Sugihan*	0.82	0.85	0.28	0.76
3	*Demit*	0.79	0.88	0.32	0.73
4	*Bader*	0.75	0.82	0.35	0.69
5	*Sekaran*	0.71	0.79	0.41	0.65

Discussion

The observed drought patterns align with regional climate dynamics but reveal localized exacerbating factors. The intensification from 2020 to 2024 may be attributed to land use changes, increased groundwater extraction, and rising temperatures. The spatial concentration of drought in northeastern villages correlates with geological factors shallow soils over limestone bedrock and rain shadow effects.

Methodologically, NDDI proved effective for village-scale monitoring, offering high spatial resolution and sensitivity to surface moisture conditions. Validation showed strong agreement with field data (RMSE = 0.12 for severe drought). However, cloud cover limitations and the need for complementary groundwater data highlight areas for improvement.

The findings have direct policy relevance for RPJMD Tuban Regency (2021–2026) and the National Action Plan for Climate Change Adaptation (RAN-API). Prioritized interventions include water harvesting infrastructure in high-vulnerability villages, promotion of drought-tolerant crops, and integration of NDDI-based monitoring into local early warning systems.

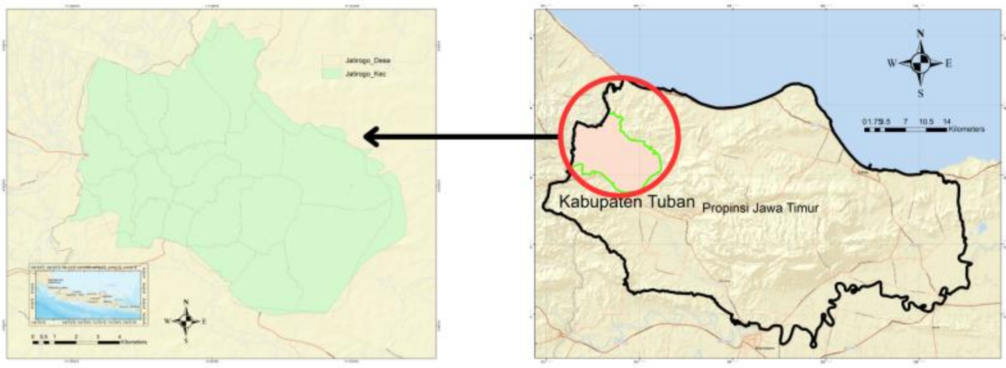

Figure 1. Location Map of the Study Area

The research workflow presented in Figure 2 summarizes the study process in a systematic manner as a guide for understanding each stage of the research. The stages are arranged sequentially, beginning with data collection and preprocessing, followed by analysis using the specified methods, and concluding with result interpretation and conclusion formulation. The presentation of this workflow aims to provide a clear overview of the research process, thereby facilitating readers' understanding of the study as a whole.

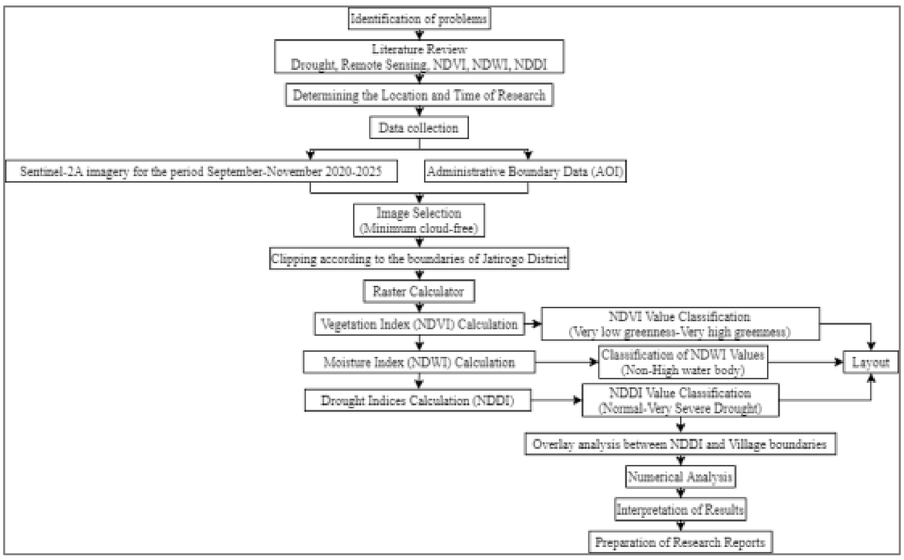

Figure 2. Research Flowchart

In Figure 4, the NDDI graph for the 2020–2025 period shows that areas affected by severe and very severe drought dominate almost every year, particularly during August to October, which represents the peak of the dry season. The very severe drought class (red) exhibits significant increases in several years, especially in 2021, 2023, and 2024, with the largest affected areas occurring in September and October. Meanwhile, the moderate drought class (yellow) also covers a large and fluctuating area, indicating widespread drought conditions prior to reaching extreme levels. In contrast, the normal and mild classes occupy relatively small areas throughout the observation period and tend to increase toward November, suggesting the onset of a transition to wetter conditions. Overall, this graph confirms the presence of a strong and recurring seasonal drought pattern, characterized by the dominance of severe drought conditions in the mid to late part of the year.

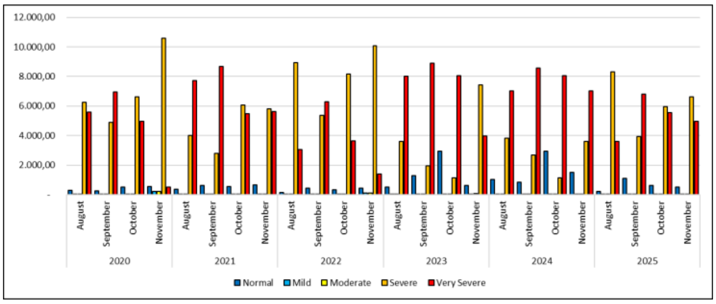

Figure 3. Drought Trend Chart

The spatial distribution map of the Normalized Difference Drought Index (NDDI) for the 2020–2025 period shown in Figure 3 indicates the dominance of moderate to severe drought classes across most of the study area, particularly during the peak dry season (August–October). Drought intensity increased in 2023–2024, marked by the expansion of very severe drought areas, especially in rainfed agricultural regions that rely heavily on rainfall. In 2025, although moderate drought conditions remained dominant, a decreasing trend in the extent of very severe drought was observed. Overall, these patterns highlight the high vulnerability of the study area to seasonal drought and demonstrate the effectiveness of NDDI in representing spatial and temporal drought conditions as a basis for mitigation planning.

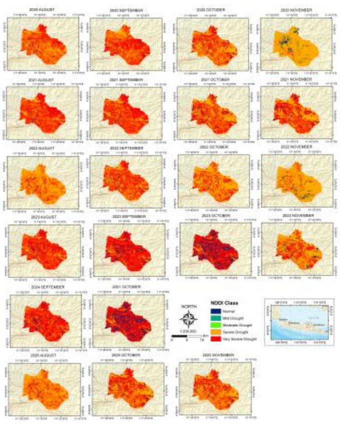

Figure 4. Drought Distribution Map

4.5 Correlation Between Land Use and Drought Severity includes:

1. **Analysis by land use type:**
    - Rainfed farmland: NDDI averaged 0.68, 78.4% experienced moderate-very severe drought
    - Irrigated rice fields: NDDI averages 0.32, only 34.2% experience moderate drought
    - Statistically significant difference (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$)
2. **Analysis by type of plant:**
    - Tobacco plantations: NDDI averages 0.82 (very high)
    - Agroforestry system: NDDI averages 0.41 (lower due to canopy cover)
3. **Analysis of land use changes:**
    - Conversion of 287 acres to tobacco monoculture
    - NDDI increase of +0.13 to +0.21 in conversion locations
4. **Statistical validation:**
    - Land use explained 64.3% of the variance in drought severity ($R^2 = 0.643$)
    - Chi-square test: $\chi^2 = 342.7$, $p < 0.001$
5. **Implications for adaptive management:**
    - Interventions differ based on land use type
    - Micro-irrigation for rainfed land
    - Drought-resistant varieties for tobacco areas
    - Preservation of agroforestry buffers

CONCLUSION

This study demonstrates the effectiveness of Sentinel-2 imagery and NDDI for detailed spatial-temporal drought analysis at the village scale. Jatirogo Subdistrict experiences recurrent seasonal droughts from August to October, with severity increasing from 2020 to 2024. The northeastern villages of Kebonharjo, Sugihan, and Demit are identified as priority areas for intervention due to high vulnerability. Land use analysis revealed that rainfed agricultural areas exhibit significantly higher drought severity (mean NDDI = 0.68) compared to irrigated systems (mean NDDI = 0.32), with land use type explaining 64.3% of spatial drought variance. Cross-validation with BMKG rainfall data and BPBD drought reports confirmed the accuracy of NDDI-based classifications, with 89.3% spatial agreement and strong statistical correlation ($r = -0.87$, $p < 0.001$).

Based on these findings, the following strategic recommendations are proposed for the Tuban Regency Government to establish an integrated drought early warning system and adaptive agricultural planning in Jatirogo Subdistrict:

1. Development of NDDI-Based Drought Early Warning System (DEWS)
   The government should establish a near-real-time drought monitoring platform that utilizes Sentinel-2 NDDI analysis with automated alert thresholds. The system should be designed with three alert levels: (a) Watch Alert when NDDI exceeds 0.15 (moderate drought) covering ≥30% of village area, triggering preparedness measures; (b) Warning Alert when NDDI reaches 0.25 (severe drought) in ≥25% of area, activating water conservation protocols; and (c) Emergency Alert when NDDI surpasses 0.80 (very severe) in ≥15% of area, initiating emergency response including water distribution and crop loss assessment. This tiered system enables progressive escalation of responses aligned with drought severity progression.
   The early warning system should be operationalized through the establishment of a Drought Monitoring Unit within BPBD Tuban or the Regional Disaster Management Agency, staffed with personnel trained in remote sensing data processing and GIS analysis. Monthly NDDI maps should be generated during the dry season (May-November) and distributed to village agricultural extension officers, farmer groups, and relevant stakeholders through multiple channels including mobile SMS alerts, WhatsApp groups, community radio broadcasts, and public display boards at village offices. Priority implementation should focus on the five most vulnerable villages identified in this study: Kebonharjo, Sugihan, Demit, Bader, and Sekaran.
2. Integration with Adaptive Planting Calendar
   NDDI temporal analysis indicates consistent drought onset in early August, peak severity in September-October, and gradual recovery in November. Based on this seasonal pattern, an adaptive planting calendar should be formulated and disseminated to optimize crop scheduling and reduce drought exposure during critical growth stages. For rainfed rice cultivation, planting should be advanced to early November (coinciding with early monsoon onset) to ensure that the reproductive phase (most drought-sensitive) occurs during January-February when moisture availability is highest, avoiding the August-October drought window entirely. For tobacco, which requires dry conditions during harvest, planting should be scheduled for December-January to enable harvesting in April-May before severe drought onset, while implementing supplementary drip irrigation during vegetative growth if NDDI Watch Alerts are issued.
   For maize and secondary crops, a dual-cropping strategy is recommended: (a) primary planting in November-December for harvest in March-April, and (b) opportunistic second planting only in years when NDDI values in March remain below 0.10 (normal conditions), indicating sufficient residual moisture for short-season varieties. The planting calendar should incorporate flexibility mechanisms, with the Drought Monitoring Unit issuing "go/no-go" planting advisories based on real-time NDDI conditions and 30-day rainfall forecasts from BMKG. This adaptive approach prevents crop failure by adjusting planting decisions to current drought risk levels rather than relying solely on historical calendars.

3. Spatial Targeting of Drought Mitigation Infrastructure
   Investment in drought mitigation infrastructure should be prioritized using the composite vulnerability scores derived from this study. Villages with composite scores above 0.70 (Kebonharjo, Sugihan, Demit) should receive immediate

intervention including construction of communal rainwater harvesting systems (embung) with minimum capacity of 5,000 m^3 per village, rehabilitation and expansion of small-scale irrigation networks to cover at least 40% of rainfed cropland within three years, and installation of 25-30 shallow tube wells with solar-powered pumps in areas identified as persistent NDDI hotspots (NDDI >0.60 for three consecutive years). Medium vulnerability villages (scores 0.60-0.70) should focus on farm-level interventions such as provision of subsidized drip irrigation kits for high-value crops and construction of on-farm water storage ponds (capacity 50-100 m^3).

4. Institutional Coordination and Capacity Building
   An inter-agency coordination mechanism should be formalized through establishment of a Jatirogo Drought Task Force, chaired by the Camat (Subdistrict Head) with membership from BPBD, Department of Agriculture, BMKG representative, village heads, and farmer association leaders. The Task Force should convene monthly during the dry season to review NDDI monitoring results, assess drought impacts, coordinate response actions, and update the adaptive planting calendar based on current conditions. Annual capacity building programs should train at least two personnel per village in basic interpretation of NDDI maps and drought indicators, ensuring local-level understanding and ownership of the early warning system.

5. Integration with Regional Development Planning
   The NDDI-based drought monitoring framework should be formally integrated into the next revision of RPJMD Tuban Regency (2027-2032) as a spatial planning tool for climate-resilient agricultural development. Drought vulnerability maps should inform spatial allocation of agricultural development zones, with high-vulnerability areas designated for drought-tolerant crops (sorghum, cassava, groundnut) or agroforestry systems rather than water-intensive monocultures. The framework should also guide village-level budgeting under Dana Desa (Village Fund) allocation, with NDDI-based vulnerability scores serving as objective criteria for prioritizing drought adaptation projects.

The integration of remote sensing and GIS provides a transferable framework for drought monitoring and supports evidence-based decision-making for climate adaptation in drought-prone regions of Indonesia. Implementation of these recommendations will enhance drought resilience, reduce agricultural losses, and strengthen adaptive capacity of farming communities in Jatirogo Subdistrict and similar vulnerable areas across East Java..

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