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## **RMAPS: AN INTEGRATED TOOL TO DELIMITATE HOMOGENEOUS MANAGEMENT ZONES**

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#### *Abstract.*

*We present rmaps, an R package that integrates soil and crop yield spatial variability using geostatistical methods and one-hidden-layer perceptron (OHLP) modeling, to identify how input parameters influence crop yield and delimit homogenous zones. rmaps were tested using three synthetic datasets and one sugarcane dataset. The synthetic datasets consisted of 21 randomized, linear, and random-linear parameters with 2000 samples, 20 used as inputs and the remaining one as the output parameter. The sugarcane dataset consisted of 54 soil samples where physical and chemical properties were measured in the laboratory, drainage was used as a binary parameter, and yield data were collected from 2015–2016. The results of the synthetic*  dataset showed that the OHLP, implemented in rmaps, could identify the linear relationship *between the input and output parameters when these parameters are linearly related (* $R^2$  *=* 0.912, < 0.001*). In contrast, rmaps could not identify any relationships among parameters for the randomized dataset*  $(R^2 = 0.001, p > 0.05)$ . Regarding the sugarcane dataset, drainage was *the parameter that mainly explained changes in sugarcane yield with a relative importance, compared to the remaining input parameter of 26.722% (* < 0.05*). The relevance metric map showed homogeneous zones where drainage and soil properties can be managed differentially to increase sugarcane yield. We conclude that rmaps permit the identification of relevant input parameters for improving crop yields and displaying them in homogeneous management zones.*

#### *Keywords.*

*Artificial intelligence; artificial neural networks; R package; precision agriculture; relevance metric maps*

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### **Introduction**

The use of management zones (MZs) is one of the most studied methods used in precision agriculture (PA) to optimize crop yield and address soil spatial variability. These are defined as subareas within a field with similar soil, plant, topographic, and climate characteristics in which PA practices are carried out in an uninform manner (Guastaferro et al., 2010; Nawar et al., 2017). MZs vary in number per field, shape, and extent, from field to field, and throughout time. An MZ can cover a few square meters to several hectares. Fertilization, irrigation, seeding, and weed control practices are carried out by zone. Although ancient farmers fractioned fields according to their fertility, this method was developed from the opportunity to use geospatial technology to the traditional uniform management applied in agriculture before the PA (Robert, 2002).

Considering that soil, plants, topography, and climate interact in an unknown manner to return a crop yield, parameters from these factors are usually measured and estimated to delimit MZs. Some approaches are focused on soil properties, others are focused on plant parameters, with yield being the primary parameter, and the remaining approaches are focused on a combination of these two parameters (Ortega & Santibáñez, 2007). These parameters, measured with sensors or manually in the field, processed in the laboratory and spatialized with geostatistics, are sorted in georeferenced layers and incorporated into empirical or stochastic models. Among the models reported to delineate MZs are cluster (k and c-means), Rasch, coefficient of variation, and principal component models (Gavioli et al., 2019). The collection, filtering, selection, grouping, and mapping of MZs are required (Santos & Saraiva, 2015).

Because of its ability to provide reasonable responses to highly complex problems, artificial intelligence is broadly used in PAs (Shaikh et al., 2022). Regarding MZs, Von Hebel et al. (2021) used the ML technique fuzzy c-means to delineate two MZs in six potato fields using the NDVI and apparent electrical conductivity. The authors found that the yield did not significantly differ between the two zones. Gallardo-Romero et al. (2023) found that the machine learning (ML) algorithms used to predict three MZs in corn were accurate. Gallardo-Romero et al. (2023) arbitrarily defined the number of MZs based on the high, medium, and low yield values. Ohana-Levi et al. (2019) analyzed the influence of soil, plant, and topographic parameters on crop yield to define MZs. Using the weights of each input parameter, Ohana-Levi et al. (2019) delineated four MZs that are not associated with an agronomical task in the field. (Bai et al., 2023) used a multiscale segmentation method to delineate salinity management zones. This study also lacks specific recommendations for salinity management for each delimited zone.

According to the above studies, we determined that MZs do not integrate the effects of soil, topography, and other influential factors on crop yield; the number of MZs, usually three, is defined by the authors; the most commonly used methods for delineating MZs are traditional (k-means) and ML clustering (fuzzy c-means); and each MZ zone in the map is represented by a single parameter, usually yield, vegetation index, or nitrogen, hindering several tasks at the same time. Erazo et al. (2015) proposed a method to identify limiting crop factors using the internal structure of a trained artificial neural network (ANN) and spatialized this result through relevance metric maps. These maps show homogeneous areas that can be analogized to MZs and fill the mentioned gaps. This study develops the methodological framework presented by Erazo et al. (2015) in a set of R functions compiled in the R package rmaps.

## **Methods and data**

#### **Conceptualization and methodological framework of rmaps**

Crop yield can be seen as the result of interactions among soil, plants, topography, agronomic tasks, and climate factors. Each of these factors is composed of parameters such as bulk density, soil organic matter, NDVI, slope, or fertilization, which influence the yield to a variable degree. In an agricultural field, the climate is relatively uniform, and several agronomic tasks are assumed to be homogeneous, by which soil, plant, and topographic parameters are spatially variable. Information and communication technologies and spatial soil sampling permit accounting with digital and successive layers composed of pixels with values of these parameters. In a particular pixel, crop yield is a function dependent on soil, plant, and topographic parameters.

Relevance Metric Maps (rmaps) is an R package for analyzing soil, topography, climate, plant, and crop yield spatial variability and delimitating homogenous zones. rmaps are based on the relevance metric methods reported in Satizábal & Pérez-Uribe (2007), and the spatialization of these methods is based on the use of training and testing datasets of ANNs reported by Zurada et al. (1997). rmaps perform four main processes: geostatistical analysis, multilayer perceptron training, relevance metric analysis, and relevance metric mapping. Geostatistical analysis is composed of eight functions, and the other processes implement one function (Table 1). Geostatistical functions can be run sequentially through function computemaps or individually. The R maps were built in R (version 4.4.0) via the sf, gstat, and neuralnet packages.



From georeferenced data with soil, plant, management, climate, and crop yield parameters, as shown in Fig. 1, rmaps transforms geographic to projected coordinates; identifies spatial duplicate and outlier samples; computes statistical descriptive parameters; identifies and removes (when applicable) first- and second-order spatial trends; models the spatial correlation structure (variogram); and interpolates and performs cross-validation. rmaps trains a one-hidden-layer perceptron (OHLP) and selects the number of hidden neurons with the lowest training error on the dataset resulting from spatializing with geostatistical input and output parameters. Then, perturbance methods applied to the trained OHLP weights and associated with interpolated pixels produce relevance metric maps with positive and negative impacts of the input parameters on the crop yield. These relevance metric maps, homologated with homogeneous management zones, contain the spatial distribution of the most influential input parameters on crop yield.



**Fig 1. Methodological framework of rmaps.**

The geostatistical framework of the rmaps is described in Bivand et al. (2008). The ANN used for rmaps a is a feedforward multilayer perceptron with a backpropagation training algorithm available in the neuralnet R package through the function neuralnet (Fritsch et al., 2019). Although rmaps is designed to train and test multilayer perceptron nets, in this study, an OHLP was implemented because relevance metric methods apply for a one-hidden-layer perceptron. Among the limitations of rmaps are that their implementation depends on georeferenced samples in the field, which impedes the direct addition of a raster layer to remote sensing products. To simultaneously perform geostatistical analysis for several parameters, these parameters must be sampled in a unique spatial sample grid. rmaps are focused on analyzing the spatial variability of crop factors per crop cycle, i.e., they do not include a spatiotemporal analysis of the crop. Moreover, the use of the OHLP for MZ computation restricts the use of more hidden layers, weakening the model accuracy in some cases.

#### **Data**

#### *Synthetic datasets*

Synthetic datasets were created to verify the robustness of the architecture and relevancemetric rmaps functions for identifying correlations between inputs and output parameters. We expected to find a weak correlation between the inputs and output parameters for the random dataset. For linear and linear-random relationships, a strong correlation is expected to be found with all and with one input parameter, respectively. These datasets were built in R with 21 parameters and 2000 samples each, of which 20 parameters corresponded to inputs and the remaining parameter corresponded to the output parameter.

Samples for the 20 input parameters for all datasets and the output parameter of the random dataset were randomly extracted from the uniform distribution varying between -1 and 1. The output samples of the linear dataset resulted from the sum of each of the input samples plus a random value from the uniform distribution between –1 and 1. The output parameter for the linearrandom dataset corresponded to the  $20<sup>th</sup>$  parameter multiplied by 2. Therefore, the number of input parameter samples for all datasets varied between –1 and 1, the number of output samples for the linear dataset varied between -9 and 9, and the number of output samples for the linearrandom dataset varied between –2 and 2.

#### *Sugarcane dataset*

This consisted of 54 soil samples spatially distributed across 100 ha taken at the sugarcane Farm Churimal (Valle del Cauca, Colombia) in 2019. Three soil physical and nine chemical properties were measured in the laboratory as follows. The percentages of sand, silt, and clay, pH, percentage of organic matter (OM), phosphorus (P, meq 100 g<sup>-1</sup>), calcium (Ca, cmol kg<sup>-1</sup>), magnesium (Mg, cmol kg<sup>-1</sup>), potassium (K, cmol kg<sup>-1</sup>), cation exchange capacity (CEC, cmol kg<sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup>), ratio of calcium magnesium (Ca/Mg), and ratio of calcium plus magnesium to potassium [(Ca+Mg)/K] were determined. The presence or absence of drainage technology was also recorded in the plots as an input parameter, expressed in binary numbers (0 for absence and 1 for presence of drainage). The sugarcane yield during the 2015-2016 season was recorded with a yield monitor in units of t ha<sup>-1</sup>.

#### **rmaps testing**

The function architecture trains an OHLP and selects the optimum number of neurons in the hidden layer. This function was tested by training 20 OHLP architectures and selecting the one with the lowest root mean square error (RMSE). The architectures consisted of 1 to 20 neurons in the hidden layer. Each architecture was trained 50 times, for a total of 1000 OHLPs trained per dataset. The synthetic datasets used to train the OHLPs were split 65% for training and 35% for testing. The first 20 columns and the last column were used as the inputs and outputs of the OHLP model, respectively. In the training and testing stages, the RMSE was computed, taking the observed data as the output parameter from the dataset and the simulated data as the parameter outputted from the trained OHLP. In addition to the RMSE, the coefficient of determination  $(R^2)$ was computed for testing.

Function computemaps were used to perform geostatistical analysis of spatial soil sampling and yield data for sugarcane crops in the Churimal Farm. Geostatistical analysis revealed spatial outliers, computed descriptive statistics, experimental and theoretical semivariograms, and interpolation with kriging or inverse distance weighting. The RMSE, mean error (ME), mean absolute error (MAE), standardized RMSE (RMNSE), normalized RMSE (RMSEr), and coefficient of correlation (r) were computed for cross-validation (Hengl, 2009). Once spatialized, OHLPs with 1 to 13 hidden neurons were trained and tested 100 times. The best OHLP architecture had the lowest RMSE and the highest R<sup>2</sup>. The function relevance metric was used to compute the relative importance of each input parameter to the crop yield, and the Wilcoxon test was used to determine whether the input parameters significantly differed from the remaining parameters. The relevance metric results were spatialized through functional relevance maps to determine the effects of positive impact parameters on yield and to delimit homogeneous management zones. All computations and figures were coded in R. All values reported in intervals  $(±$  symbols) in the results refer to the average and uncertainty, computed with the mean and standard deviation.

## **Results and discussion**

#### **rmaps testing with synthetic datasets**

The output parameter values for the random, linear, and linear-random datasets varied from – 0.999 to 0.999, –8.664 to 8.955, and –1.999 and 1.999, respectively, with average values of 0.003, –0.065, and –0.037, respectively. The Kolmogorov‒Smirnov test for each sample revealed that random and linear random data were obtained from a uniform distribution, and linear data were obtained from a normal distribution. Regarding the distribution of input data, ANNs have been demonstrated to accurately predict a variety of data distributions, noise, nonlinear problems, and learning from the probabilistic distribution of input data (Yuan et al., 2020).

The function architecture trained 1000 OHLP with random, linear, and linear-random datasets in 0.57, 0.12, and 0.12 h, respectively. The processing time of OHLPs depends on the difficulty of finding relationships between inputs and output parameters, as discussed by Shamir (2016). The architectures with the lowest RMSEs for the random, linear, and linear-random datasets were 1, 11, and 3 neurons in the hidden layer, respectively, with average RMSEs of 0.582 ± 0.003, 0.918 ± 0.141, and 0.127 ± 0.056, respectively. The RMSE as a function of the number of neurons in the hidden layer varied differently according to the dataset. For the random dataset, more neurons had a higher RMSE; for the linear datasets, more neurons had a lower RMSE of up to 11 neurons, from which the RMSE increased slightly; and for the linear-random datasets, more neurons had a lower RMSE of up to 3 neurons, from which the RMSE increased to 12 neurons and then remained relatively constant. Similar to that reported by D'souza et al. (2020), the OHLP architecture selected corresponds to an optimization process where the OHLP prediction accuracy can be improved or the processing time, which maintains the accuracy, can be reduced.



**Fig 2. Performance of one-hidden layer perceptron testing and relevance metric analysis of inputs on output parameters with random (a, d), linear (b, e), and linear-random (c, f) datasets.**

The testing and relevance metric analysis of the trained OHLPs for the three datasets are shown in Fig. 2. OHLP poorly predicted the output parameter in the random dataset, which was expected because of the null relationship between the inputs and the output parameters (Fig. 2a). This is the result of the low relative importance of inputs to the output in the random dataset (Fig. 2d). The accuracy and relative importance of inputs on output increased significantly in linear and linear-random datasets, where input parameters were strongly correlated with the output (Figs. 2b, e, c, and f). In the linear dataset, an  $R^2$  of 0.912 and a relative importance of 0.120 indicate a strong correlation between the inputs and output (Figs. 2b and 2e). Because the output is the sum of all inputs, the relative importance was equally distributed among all inputs with the same percentage (Fig. 2e). In the linear-random dataset, the strong correlation between the inputs and the output (Fig. 2 c) is due to the output being a linear function of parameter 20 (P20), which was significantly different from the others according to the Wilcoxon test (Fig. 2f). The remaining parameters acted as noise in the dataset (Fig. 2f).

Although the above-described ANN capabilities are fully documented (Salah & Hannan, 2020), the results of the tested rmaps functions architecture and relevancemetric suggest that these were correctly parameterized, and internal processes such as the transformation and backtransformation of parameters between 0 and 1 (function tr), dataset splitting, the selection of the OHLP architecture, and relevance metric methods were properly coded. Regarding relevance metric methods, recent studies have reported how to extract information from the internal structure of multilayer neural networks (Jeczmionek & Kowalski, 2022), suggesting an opportunity to improve rmaps.

#### **RMpas testing with the sugarcane dataset**

Function computemaps can be used to geostatiscally analyze sugarcane dataset parameters. The function outliers removed 10% of the spatial outliers using the method described in Lu et al. (2003). The function statistics computed descriptive statistics for the parameters. The sugarcane yield in the Churimal for 2015-2016 varied between 105.25 and 120.38 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, with an average of  $112.97$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>, and followed a normal distribution. The circular and spherical semivariograms, fitted with theoretical functions, were better adjusted to the experimental semivariance for 11 of the 13 parameters. The ratio of nugget to total semivariance for pH was 0.865, suggesting weak spatial dependence, and the remaining parameter was lower than 0.272, indicating strong spatial dependence (Cambardella et al., 1994). Function computemaps were parameterized to generate spatially coincident maps of inputs and output parameters with a pixel size of  $20 \times 20$  m.

Cross-validation of the interpolated parameters, computed through function interpolation, indicates a high correspondence between the interpolated and observed data for sand, silt, clay, OM, P, Ca, Mg, CEC, and Ca/Mg (Table 2). This contrasts with the findings for pH, K, (Ca+Mg/K), and yield, where the interpolation method weakly predicts the observed data in the field (Table 2). The spatial variability map shows that the yield was lower than 110 t ha<sup>-1</sup> in the upper central part and greater than 115 t ha<sup>-1</sup> from the central part downward. Although several factors explain the low interpolation accuracy in the context of soil and crop spatial variability (Lin et al., 2005; Peukert et al., 2012), we attribute weak interpolation predictions to the low number of spatial points sampled.





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The OHLP training results indicate that the architecture with 13 neurons in the hidden layer predicted the lowest RMSE (0.853  $\pm$  0.108 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and highest R<sup>2</sup> (0.853  $\pm$  0.038) (Fig. 3a). The RMSE as a function of the number of neurons suggests that the greater the number of neural processing units is, the lower the error prediction, similar to that found by Çolak (2021). Relevance metric analysis of the sugarcane dataset indicated that drainage, silt, and sand had a strong influence on yield during the 2015-2016 crop season, with relative importance values of 26.722  $(p < 0.05)$ , 8.220  $(p < 0.05)$ , and 7.754%, respectively (Fig. 3b). This result agrees with that of Deng & Bailey (2020), who found that simulated drainage practices led to crop benefits.



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The functional relevance maps were spatially distributed for the relevance metric analysis on a map with four zones (Fig. 3c). Silt (47.866% of the area), drainage (29.703%), CEC (7.853%), and OM (7.750%) occupied 97.172% of the area of the Churimal Farm. Silt and drainage were more spatially continuous than OM and CEC were (Fig. 3c). By extrapolating to the spatial context the interpretation of relevance metric methods (Satizábal & Pérez-Uribe, 2007), we affirm that improving drainage, increasing silt (which is complex but can be interpreted as balancing the other soil texture fractions), CEC, and OM in the zones shown in Fig. 3c could increase sugarcane yield.

Clustering is the method most commonly used in studies to delimit MZs (Gavioli et al., 2019). MZs delimited by clustering lack physical interpretation. We present a disruptive way to compute and interpret homogeneous management zones in precision agriculture because management zones spatialized with relevance metric methods are associated with input parameters that influence crop yield. The agronomic recommendations for the findings of our study are as follows: for drainage MZs, farmers could install drainage pipes and increase the maintenance of open channels, pumping, and land levelling (Castellano et al., 2019). For OM and CEC MZs, farmers can fertilize sugarcane crops with organic fertilizers, mulch, and other organic amendments without tillage (Chenu et al., 2019). For the silt MZ, farmers could add silt-rich stones to the soil to modify the soil texture (Zhang et al., 2020).

## **Conclusions**

rmaps use the influence of input factors on yield crops to delimit homogeneous management zones in precision agriculture. Specific agronomical tasks can be recommended based on the use of rmaps to delimit homogeneous management zones, generating a potential improvement in yield for the following seasons.

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