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## Predicting Soil Cation Exchange Capacity from Satellite Imagery Using Random Forest Models

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### **Abstract.**

*Crop yield variability is often attributed to spatial variation in soil properties. Remote sensing offers a practical approach to capture soil surface properties over large areas, enabling the development of detailed soil maps. This study aimed to predict cation exchange capacity (CEC), a key indicator of soil quality, in the agricultural fields of the Lower Mississippi Alluvial Valley using digital soil mapping techniques. Approximately 14,000 soil samples were collected from agricultural fields across the study area between fall 2019 and fall 2023, which provided ground reference information. A bare soil composite image was created from Landsat 9 imagery drawn from the months of October to April of each year from 2019 to 2023 using Google Earth Engine. Cation exchange capacity was predicted using a Random Forest model based on the reflectance of bands 2 (blue, 0.45 - 0.51  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 3 (green, 0.53 - 0.59  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 4 (red, 0.64 - 0.67  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 5 (near infrared, 0.85 - 0.88  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 6 (short-wave infrared 1, 1.57 - 1.65  $\mu\text{m}$ ), and 7 (short-wave infrared 2, 2.11 - 2.29  $\mu\text{m}$ ). The model's performance was evaluated using an 80/20 training/testing split. Overall, the predictive model performed successfully, achieving an R-squared value of 0.63 and a root mean squared error of 5.6 meq 100 g<sup>-1</sup>. The most important spectral bands were short-wave infrared 2 and near infrared. These results suggest that digital soil mapping techniques can effectively map CEC in this region, reducing the need to extensively sample for future studies.*

### **Keywords.**

*digital soil mapping, bare soil composite imagery, machine learning, management zones.*

## Introduction

Crop yield variability, often attributed to spatial variation in soil properties, can be addressed by exploring the relationship between remotely sensed properties and agronomic relevance. As a tool for precision agriculture, satellite-based sensors offer a practical approach to capture soil surface properties over large areas (Ben-Dor et al., 2009), enabling the development of detailed soil maps, a process referred to as “digital soil mapping” (DSM). An alternative to traditional methods (Lagacherie & McBratney, 2006), DSM uses readily available spatial data like remotely sensed imagery to develop models that can predict soil properties. Machine learning algorithms have been applied to DSM as early as the 1990s (Lagacherie, 2008). Brown et al. (2006) demonstrated the relative strength of decision trees for estimating soil parameters such as clay, soil carbon, and cation exchange capacity (CEC); decision trees also outperformed geostatistical techniques such as kriging for DSM (Vandana et al., 2024). While DSM requires bare soil (Dobos, 2006), techniques like time series composites from multiple satellite images can overcome this limitation (Demattê et al., 2016). The success of these techniques in other regions (Demattê et al., 2018; Rizzo et al., 2020; Rogge et al., 2018; Safanelli et al., 2020) suggests they may be appropriate for mapping the Lower Mississippi Alluvial Valley with its highly variable soils (Logan, 1916). Moreover, the window between crop cycles in the region offers a multi-month fallow period with bare soil imagery.

Heil et al. (2018) found that soil parameters offered a better basis for delineation of management zones than yearly variation in yield. Cation exchange capacity reflects a soil's capacity to retain exchangeable cations that could be absorbed or released at a defined pH (Huang et al., 2015). High CEC soils exhibit improved fertility, structure, and buffering capacity against chemical changes; the end result of which is that high CEC is a key indicator of soil quality (Charman & Murphy, 2007; Larson & Pierce, 1994; Masto et al., 2008). Precise spatial mapping of CEC allows for site-specific management practices, such as variable-rate application of fertilizers, seeds, and herbicides (Lacoste et al., 2014), and thus serves as a tool for farmers to optimize crop performance and improve resource management. However, conventional methods involving field data collection are recognized for being inefficient, requiring significant time, financial resources, and manual labor (Minasny & McBratney, 2016). Therefore, this study seeks to apply a Random Forest (RF) model to predict CEC across a large portion of Lower Mississippi Alluvial Valley.

## Methods and Materials

The study area covers 44,590 km<sup>2</sup> in the Lower Mississippi Alluvial Valley, including portions of northwest Mississippi, southeast Arkansas, and northeast Louisiana. Centuries of seasonal flooding from the Mississippi River and its tributaries have deposited deep alluvial soils, rich in nutrients but exhibiting significant spatial heterogeneity in texture, structure, depth, and drainage due to variations in overflow frequency (Snipes, 2005). Approximately 14,000 soil samples were collected from agricultural fields representing 0-15 cm depth on a ~0.4-ha grid across the study area from 2019 to 2023. Cation exchange capacity was determined for all soil samples based on the Mehlich III extraction of calcium, magnesium, potassium, sodium, and an estimate of exchangeable hydrogen obtained from the buffer pH. A multi-temporal bare soil composite image representing the median reflectance for 2021-2024 was generated utilizing the Google Earth Engine platform (Hird et al., 2017) using atmospherically corrected Landsat 9 images drawn from the fallow season (October to April). Bare areas were isolated by applying masks (as outlined in Table 1). Reflectance bands in the composite image included blue (band 2, 450-510 nm), green (band 3, 530-590 nm), red (band 4, 640-670 nm), near infrared (band 5, 850-880 nm), and short-wave infrared (band 6, 1570-1650 nm; band 7, 2110-2290 nm) (Demattê et al., 2020; Demattê et al., 2018; Sorenson et al., 2021). Finally, a RF model was developed utilizing the 'ranger' package (Wright & Ziegler, 2015) in program R to predict soil CEC across the study area based on reflectance values from a bare soil composite image and soil test CEC. To ensure robust evaluation and minimize farm-specific biases, stratified K-fold cross-validation (K=5) was employed. Data were first stratified by farm, and within each stratum, an 80/20 split was used for

training and testing. For each combination of train and test data, a model was generated, and the average result was extracted. The model performance was evaluated using several metrics including: the square root of the mean squared error (RMSE), the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), the ratio of performance to deviation [RPD, (Williams, 1987)], and bias.

**Table 1. Vegetation indices and their associated thresholds used for generating the bare soil composite image**

Vegetation Index	Equation	Threshold
Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI)	$NIR - Red / NIR + Red$	0.3
Normalized difference water index (NDWI)	$Green - NIR / Green + NIR$	0.5
Normalized burn ratio 2 (NDR <sub>2</sub> )	$SWIR1 - SWIR2 / SWIR1 + SWIR2$	0.1
Normalized difference index 7 (NDI <sub>7</sub> )	$NIR - SWIR2 / NIR + SWIR2$	0

Abbreviations: NIR, near infrared; SWIR, short-wave infrared. Reflectance bands: green (530-590 nm); red (640-670 nm); NIR (850-880 nm), SWIR1 (1570-1650 nm); SWIR2 (2110-2290 nm).

## Results and Discussion

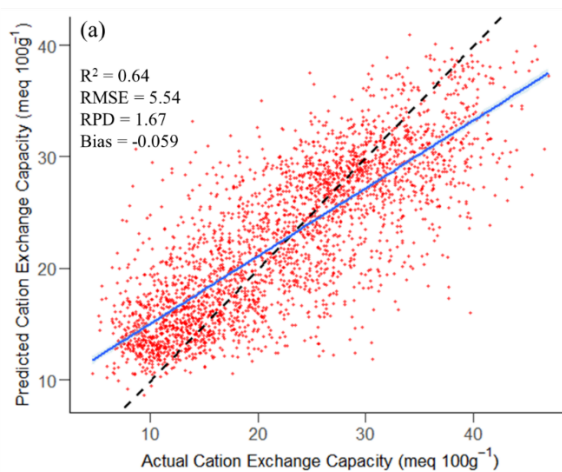
Cation exchange capacity values ranged from 3.7 to 50.4 milliequivalents per 100 grams of soil ( $\text{meq } 100\text{g}^{-1}$ ), with a mean of  $22.5 \text{ meq } 100\text{g}^{-1}$  and a median of  $22.2 \text{ meq } 100\text{g}^{-1}$ . The standard deviation for CEC was  $9.25 \text{ meq } 100\text{g}^{-1}$ . This suggests that the sampling captured significant variability within the study area, providing a good representation of the region's soil characteristics. The CEC model exhibited an  $R^2$  of 0.64, a RMSE of  $5.54 \text{ meq } 100\text{g}^{-1}$ , and a RPD of 1.67 (Fig. 1). The most important spectral bands were short-wave infrared 2 and near infrared. Since clay share absorption features within the short-wave infrared band (Rossel & Behrens, 2010), the model captures the CEC variability indirectly through its relationship as observed in other studies (Sorenson et al., 2022). This study achieved performance that was comparable or better than similar previous research (Gallo et al., 2018; Rizzo et al., 2020; Safanelli et al., 2020), but the need for improvement is clear. Results from other studies support improvements to model performance through the addition of covariates such as topography, climate, and soil texture (Bouslihimi et al., 2024; Cambule et al., 2013; McBratney et al., 2003; Xia et al., 2022). However, there are some limitations inherent in the study area to meaningful inclusion of some covariates (e.g., the widespread prevalence of laser land leveling, which effectively removes the influence of topography), and therefore careful consideration of potential covariates is warranted.

## Summary

This study utilized DSM techniques with RF models to predict CEC in the Lower Mississippi Alluvial Valley. The model achieved fair accuracy, comparable to or exceeding the results of previous remote sensing applications for similar purposes. While this study demonstrates the effectiveness of DSM, the model could have benefitted from additional data, and future efforts should seek to include such parameters as soil moisture, topography, and climate (where such factors exhibit sufficient variability or where utility is not limited by external factors).

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**Figure 1. The relationship between predicted and observed cation exchange capacity ( $\text{meq } 100\text{g}^{-1}$ ) in the validation dataset. The dashed line represents the 1:1 line for perfect agreement, while the solid line represents the linear regression line.**

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