

# 1 Quantifying individual and collective influences of soil properties on 2 crop yield

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## 8 **Abstract**

9 Quantifying the agronomic influences of soil properties, collected at high sampling  
10 resolution, on crop yield is essential for site specific soil management. This study  
11 implements a novel Volterra Non-linear Regressive with eXogenous inputs (VNRX-  
12 LN) model, to quantify causal factors to explain yield using high resolution data on key  
13 soil properties affecting wheat yield in a 22 ha field with waterlogging problem in  
14 Bedfordshire, UK. A total of eight soil properties including total nitrogen (TN), organic  
15 carbon (OC), pH, available phosphorous (P), magnesium (Mg), calcium (Ca), moisture  
16 content (MC), and cation exchange capacity (CEC) were collected with an on-line  
17 (tractor mounted) visible and near infrared spectroscopy (vis-NIR) sensor and used as  
18 multiple-input to the VNRX-LN model, while crop yield represented the single-output  
19 in the system.

20 Results showed that the largest contributors to wheat yield were CEC, Mg and TN, with  
21 error reduction ratio contribution (ERRC) values of 14.6%, 4.69% and 1%, respectively.  
22 The overall contribution (SEER) of the soil properties considered in this study totals a  
23 value of 23.21%. This was attributed to a large area of the studied field having been

24 waterlogged, which masked the actual effect of soil properties on crop yield. It is  
 25 recommended to validate the introduced concept on a larger number of fields, where  
 26 other crop yield affecting parameters e.g., crop disease, pests, drainage, topography and  
 27 microclimate conditions should be taken into account.

28 **Keywords:** Yield limiting factors; proximal soil sensing; VNRX; nonlinear parametric  
 29 modelling.

30 **Table of abbreviation**

AFOLS	Adaptive-forward-orthogonal least squares
Ca	Calcium
CAA	Circle-based average approximation
CEC	Cation exchange capacity
DGPS	Differential global positioning system
ERR	Error reduction ratio
ERRC	Error reduction ratio contribution
LAI	Leaf area index
MC	Moisture content
Mg	Magnesium
NDVI	Normalised difference vegetation index
NFIR	nonlinear finite impulse response
OC	Organic carbon
OLS	Orthogonal least squares
P	Phosphorus
SDA	Shortest distance approximation
SERR	Sum of error reduction ratio
TN	Total nitrogen
vis-NIRS	Visible and near infrared
UTM	Universal transverse Mercator
VNRX	Volterra non-linear regressive with eXogenous
VNRX-LN	Volterra non-linear regressive with eXogenous, accounting for both linear and non-linear variability

31  
 32

## 33 **1. Introduction**

34 The world's population is expected to rise to 9 billion by 2050 and, based on the current  
35 land available, an increase in crop yield of 60% will be required. Precision management  
36 of farm resources (e.g., fertilisers, seeds, water, etc.) is one potential way to increase  
37 crop yield. The spatial variability in agricultural fields exists at different spatial scales  
38 (Raun 1998; Dhillon *et al.* 1994), which requires precise management with the aim to  
39 increase yield at reduced input cost and related environmental impacts. This is hardly  
40 achievable by conventional agriculture that relies on homogeneous applications of  
41 external inputs. For example, current fertiliser applications are made based on a bulked  
42 composite soil sample collected per field or 1-3 ha in the best scenario, which ignore  
43 within field variability. This may result in over-application in rich zones, and under-  
44 applications in poor zones in the field. In this context, recent years have seen a surge of  
45 variable-rate application technologies where external farm inputs are applied in  
46 response to input data from normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI), leaf area  
47 index (LAI), high resolution soil properties or a combination of these (Lowenberg-  
48 DeBoer and Aghib 1999; Maleki *et al.* 2008; Mouazen *et al.* 2009; Halcro *et al.* 2013;  
49 Mouazen and Kuang 2016). Although variable rate fertilisation is a strategy to increase  
50 crop yield, understanding and quantifying the yield limiting factors is still a crucial  
51 research question to be answered, before variable rate applications can be optimised.

52 Since spatial variability in the majority of agricultural fields exist, proximal sensor  
53 technologies are invaluable to measure this variability accurately. This will require  
54 robust and reliable sensing platforms of crop and soil. Proximal (e.g., Crop Circle ACS  
55 470, Holland Scientific, Lincoln, NE USA) and remote sensing (e.g., satellite imagery,

56 unmanned aerial vehicles or aircrafts) both can provide high resolution data on crop  
57 canopy characteristics indicated e.g., as NDVI or LAI (Mulla 2013; Kipp *et al.* 2014)  
58 and they are commercially available. However, remote sensing methods based on  
59 spectral reflectance provide data on the top millimetres of soil and require a bare soil  
60 surface. Furthermore, due to the complex nature and vast variability of agricultural  
61 soils, the majority of proximal soil sensors are still premature to fulfil this requirement.  
62 Kuang *et al.* (2012) concluded in an extensive review that the most promising proximal  
63 sensing technologies for quantifying soil properties are electrochemical technique and  
64 optical visible and near infrared (vis-NIR) spectroscopy. Although they are limited to  
65 particular research groups worldwide, on-line (tractor mounted) vis-NIR sensors  
66 (Shibusawa *et al.* 2001; Mouazen *et al.* 2006; Christy 2008) enable the collection of  
67 high sampling resolution (e.g., >500 samples per ha) of key soil properties (Kuang *et al.*  
68 2012; Kuang and Mouazen 2013; Marin-González *et al.* 2013; Kodaira and Shibusawa  
69 2013; Kweon *et al.* 2013), which are valuable sources of information to manage the  
70 within field spatial variability.

71 Nonlinear parametric modelling approaches offer novel tools for the quantification and  
72 better understanding of the influences of soil related yield limiting factors, collected at  
73 high sampling resolution with on-line soil sensors, which cannot be obtained with the  
74 traditional soil sampling and laboratory analytical methods. One of these parametric  
75 methods is Volterra Non-linear Regressive with eXogenous inputs (VNRX-LN) model,  
76 which was broadly used in the engineering sector, but not common in agriculture.

77 The aim of this work was to use the VNRX-LN model to quantify causal factors to  
78 explain yield using high resolution data on key soil properties affecting wheat yield in a  
79 22 ha field with waterlogging problem in Bedfordshire, UK.

## 80 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 81 *2.1 Study site*

82 The study site was one field designated as Horns End, and located at a commercial  
83 farm, called Duck end farm, in Wilstead, Bedfordshire UK (52°5'52.087''W latitude and  
84 0°27'19.76''N longitude). The field is about 22 ha area, with an average annual rainfall  
85 of 598 mm. According to the UK meteorology Office  
86 (<http://www.metoffice.gov.uk/climate/uk/summaries>), May was particularly wet in  
87 2013, and spring was cooler than average, whilst summer was the driest for the UK  
88 since 2003. Nevertheless, there were some notably wet days, particularly in July and  
89 August. The farm has a crop rotation of barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), wheat (*Triticum*  
90 *aestivum*) and oil seed rape (*Brassica napus*). The soil texture over the field down to  
91 0.20 m is non-homogeneous, including three textures of sandy loam, loam, and sandy  
92 clay loam according to the United State Department of Agriculture (USDA) texture  
93 classification system. Wheat was cultivated during the experiment in 2013.

### 94 *2.2 On-line collected data*

95 The on-line vis-NIR sensor (Mouazen 2006) was used (Figure 1) to carry out the field  
96 measurement. It consists of a subsoiler that penetrates the soil to the required depth,  
97 making a trench, whose bottom is smoothed due to the downwards forces acting on  
98 the subsoiler (Mouazen *et al.* 2005).

99

**[Figure 1]**

100 The optical probe, housed in a steel lens holder, was attached to the rear of the subsoiler  
101 chisel to acquire soil spectra in reflectance mode from the smooth bottom of the trench.  
102 The subsoiler, retrofitted with the optical unit, was attached to a frame that was  
103 mounted onto the three point hitch of the tractor. An AgroSpec mobile, fibre type, vis-  
104 NIR spectrophotometer (tec5 Technology for Spectroscopy, Germany) with a  
105 measurement range of 305-2200 nm was used to measure soil spectra in diffuse  
106 reflectance mode. A differential global positioning system (DGPS) (EZ-Guide 250,  
107 Trimble, USA) was used to record the position of the on-line measured spectra with  
108 sub-metre accuracy. On-line soil measurement occurred in summer 2012 after the  
109 harvest of the previous crop, at parallel transects of 15 m space, with an average  
110 forward speed of the tractor of 2 km h<sup>-1</sup> and the measurement depth set at 150 mm. A  
111 few on-line collected vis-NIRS spectra are shown in Figure 2, as an example.

112

**[Figure 2]**

113 During on-line measurement, two or three soil samples per line were collected from the  
114 bottom of a trench and the sampling positions were carefully recorded with the DGPS.  
115 These samples were analysed for calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg), cation exchange  
116 capacity (CEC), phosphorous (P), pH, moisture content (MC), organic carbon (OC) and  
117 total nitrogen (TN), using the following laboratory analytical methods:

- 118
- Exchangeable Ca and Mg were determined by Agilent 240 FS AA atomic  
119 absorption spectrophotometry (Agilent Technologies, Inc. USA).
  - CEC was determined using a Flame Photometer (Chapman 1965).
- 120

- 121 • Available P concentration was determined by an ascorbic acid method (Olsen *et*  
122 *al.* 1954).
- 123 • pH was measured potentiometrically on a suspension of soil to water ratio  
124 (1:2.5) (DEFRA 1986).
- 125 • MC was determined by oven drying of samples at 105° for 24 h.
- 126 • OC was determined using a combustion method (British Standard BS 7755  
127 Section 3.8 1995).
- 128 • TN was determined by the Dumas method, where soil samples are heated to 900  
129 °C in the presence of oxygen gas (British Standard BS EN 13654-2:2001).

130 The selection of these eight soil properties was attributed to the fact that these  
131 properties are considered important in explaining crop yield response and can be  
132 measured with the on-line vis-NIRS sensor with appreciable accuracy (Kuang and  
133 Mouazen 2013; Marin-González *et al.* 2013).

134 Partial least squares regression (PLSR) based calibration models, developed with  
135 Unscrambler V9.8 software (Camo Software, Norway) were used to predict all eight  
136 soil properties using the on-line collected soil spectra (>500 samples per ha). The on-  
137 line prediction accuracy of properties with direct spectral responses (i.e., MC, OC and  
138 TN) indicated as residual prediction deviation (the ration of standard deviation divided  
139 by root mean square error of prediction (RMSEP) ranged between 1.96 and 3.06 (good  
140 to excellent predictions). For the soil properties with indirect spectral responses (i.e.,  
141 Ca, Mg, CEC, P and pH), RPD ranged between 1.30 and 2.14 (moderate to good  
142 predictions). More details about the on-line vis-NIR sensor and accuracy of

143 measurement can be found in Kuang and Mouazen (2013) and Marin-González *et al.*  
144 (2013).

145 Wheat yield data was collected in August, 2013 by the on-board yield sensor and GPS  
146 system of the farmer's combine harvester (New Holland, CX8070 model), with a header  
147 width of 7.25 m commonly used for barley and wheat harvest. In addition, the harvest  
148 was optimised to: I) record wheat yield when the machine header was full for the full  
149 length of the study area, and II) avoid the bare soil in the tramlines. Total yield was  
150 calculated from the mean yield (tonnes per hectare) of an area, multiplied by the size of  
151 the area (m<sup>2</sup>), which was derived using ArcGIS (Esri, USA).

### 152 *2.3 Data processing*

153 Features in the environment, are the product of many interacting processes, including  
154 physical, chemical and biological. They are determined with exceedingly complex  
155 interactions, which along with incomplete understanding can make the occurrence seem  
156 random. Due to this, a way of overcoming the prediction of distribution is to treat the  
157 variation as if it is random (Matheron 1963). The measurement points from the on-line  
158 soil sensor and yield sensor required a method of interpolation, to provide a continuous  
159 data set across the locations. Kriging was selected as a non-biased approach to predict  
160 the values between the sample points, where semi-variograms were first produced and  
161 then applied in Kriging predictions. The interpolated data were then converted into a  
162 common 5 m raster grid in ArcGIS (Esri, USA) in order to assist data fusion (Frogbrook  
163 and Oliver 2007). The raster squares of the layers were converted into this common grid  
164 of points by extracting the value at the midpoint of each raster square. A smaller  
165 resolution has no practical implementation, due to the limitations of the size and

166 response time of the precision farming equipment. The 5 m grid size provided a balance  
167 between adequately characterising the spatial variation and practical farm management.  
168 These steps ensured that all layers consisted of a common set of 5 m grid point-values,  
169 to allow the application of parametric modelling to be carried out. This method allowed  
170 data from a diverse range of soil and crop property surveys, measured at different  
171 resolutions, to be merged (Khosla *et al.* 2008). The different soil and crop layers of a 5  
172 by 5 m grid were subjected to the VNRX-LN detailed in the following section.

#### 173 *2.4 Volterra Non-linear Regressive with eXogenous Model*

174 In this study, the simplified VNRX-LN model, also known as NFIR model, was  
175 implemented, which represent a multi-inputs and single-output system:

176

177

$$178 \quad y = f(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_R) + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

179

180

181 where  $R$  is the number of the system inputs,  $f$  is some unknown linear or non-linear  
182 mapping, which links the system output  $y$  to the system inputs  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_R$ ;  $\varepsilon$  denotes  
183 the model residual.

184 The on-line measured soil properties (i.e., TN, OC, pH, P, Mg, Ca, MC, and CEC) were  
185 normalised and used as inputs ( $R = 8$ ) to the VNRX-LN model, whereas the model  
186 output was wheat yield. The analysis also included the interaction between pairs of soil

187 properties and their contribution to crop yield. The aim was to investigate the  
188 contribution of each soil property and their pairwise interaction on crop yield.

189 Parameters are estimated based on the observations, and these are determined by the  
190 structure, using the orthogonal least squares (OLS) estimation procedures. Adaptive-  
191 forward-orthogonal least squares (AFOLS) was employed not only to determine the  
192 model structure but also to estimate the unknown parameters. More detailed description  
193 of this method can be found in Zhao *et al.* (2012).

194 Performance of VNRX-LN model output was evaluated by considering the value of  
195 error reduction ratio (ERR) for each parameter to the prediction of yield (system  
196 outputs). Values of ERR always range from 0% to 100%. The larger the ERR is, the  
197 higher the dependence is between this term and the output. It is, therefore, a useful  
198 index to indicate the contribution of each term to the output. To calculate the  
199 contribution of each input variable to the output, the sum of ERR values (SERR) of all  
200 selected terms is used to describe the percentage explained by the identified model to  
201 the system output. If the considered inputs can fully explain the variation of system  
202 output, the value of SERR is equal to 100%. It is an indicator of model performance and  
203 uncertainty. The contribution of the  $i^{th}$  input variable to the variation of the system  
204 output, denoted as  $ERRC_i$ , is defined as the sum of ERR values of the terms that include  
205 this input variable. The value of  $ERRC_i$  should be always between 0% and 100%.

## 206 2.5 Significance Test

207 To determine the statistical significance of the contribution from each input to the  
208 system output, a threshold  $\tau_i$ , representing the level of contribution, above which value

209 had less than a 5% probability of occurring by chance, requires being determined. The  
210 conventional 95% confidence interval is not suitable for this study because the  
211 distribution of ERRC value is unknown. For this purpose, the following surrogate data  
212 technique was used.

213 Assuming the signal  $Y$  is a function of the signal  $X$ , this sort of dependence is destroyed  
214 when  $Y$  is ordered randomly in some way while  $X$  keeps the same order. For this  
215 purpose, the order of the data in  $Y$  was randomised by a shuffle procedure that saves the  
216 distribution properties of the  $Y$  signal, but destroys the spatial relationship between  $X$   
217 and  $Y$ . This procedure was repeated 100 times and then the 95% quantile was  
218 determined as the threshold. A significance threshold for each term is firstly calculated,  
219 and then the significance threshold for each input can then be derived by the same way  
220 to calculate  $ERRC_i$ .

## 221 *2.6 Optimal spatial resolution of soil properties versus yield*

222 Since the spatial sampling resolutions of soil properties and crop yield are different,  
223 before applying the proposed VNRX-LN modelling method, the data must be re-  
224 sampled to establish the correspondence between the inputs and the output. Two re-  
225 sampling techniques have been used in this study. In the first technique, for each crop  
226 yield data  $y(e_i, w_i)$  on a location  $(e_i, w_i)$ , the corresponding soil properties were  
227 approximated by the properties on the location that has the shortest distance to  $(e_i, w_i)$ ,  
228 which must be smaller than a radius  $r$ . It is possible that some crop yield data cannot  
229 find corresponding soil properties if  $r$  is too small, for which scenario this yield data  
230 will be discarded. In the second technique, for each crop yield data  $y(e_i, w_i)$ , each  
231 corresponding soil property was approximated by the averaging value of all values of

232 this soil property inside a circle with a radius  $r$ . A small value of  $r$  refers to more  
233 accurate correspondence between yield and soil properties, but a lower number of  
234 samples included in the analysis. The former method of re-sampling is designated here  
235 as ‘shortest distance approximation (SDA)’, whereas the latter method is designated as  
236 ‘circle-based average approximation (CAA)’.

### 237 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 238 *3.1 Pearson correlations*

239 Pearson coefficient ( $r$ ) values between pairs of soil properties suggest collective  
240 (positive) linear relationships to exist between Ca and CEC, MC, Mg, OC, pH and TN  
241 ( $r = 0.519 - 0.747$ ) and between CEC and Ca, Mg, MC and pH ( $r = 0.590 - 0.748$ ). This  
242 may indicate that although Ca has no direct spectral response in the NIR range, it is  
243 measured with vis-NIR spectroscopy through covariation with MC and OC, both having  
244 direct spectral response (Stenberg *et al.* 2010; Kuang *et al.* 2012). However, CEC is  
245 measured through covariation with MC only. As expected, TN correlated with OC,  
246 which is a similar result to that reported elsewhere (Carlyle 1993; Kuang and Mouazen  
247 2011).

248 Examining  $r$  values between the eight on-line measured soil properties and yield,  
249 reveals negligible (negative) relationships (Table 1) between laboratory measured soil  
250 properties and yield. The highest linear correlation is calculated between CEC and yield  
251 ( $r = -0.349$ ). This again proves the complexity of the system and necessitates the need  
252 for more advanced modelling techniques that account for both linear and nonlinear  
253 interactions.

254 **[Table 1]**

255 *3.2 Model output*

256 The detailed correspondence between inputs variables and soil properties are described  
257 in Table 2. The initial full model, based on quadratic terms, was chosen in this paper,  
258 which can be written as follows:

259

260

261 
$$y = \theta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^8 \theta_i u_i + \sum_{i=1}^8 \sum_{j=i}^8 \theta_{ij} u_i u_j + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

262

263

264 This model has 45 terms. All inputs and output were normalised by removing the mean.  
265 The proposed method was then applied to calculate the ERRC of each term. Table 3  
266 lists the first 10 terms selected using the SDA re-sampling technique with a 3 m radius.  
267 From this calculation it was observed that the contribution of CEC to the wheat yield  
268 variability was the largest (e.g. ERRC = 15.68%) among the 45 terms, including all soil  
269 properties and their interactions. This was followed successively by Mg (ERRC =  
270 3.57%) and Ca \* CEC (ERRC = 1.13%) terms. This is explained by the fact that  
271 although CEC is not a nutrient, it is a widely accepted measure to assess the fertility of  
272 the soil. In fact, CEC represents the soil ability to hold positively charged ions e.g.,  
273 exchangeable cations, which is directly linked to nutrients, hence, it is an important  
274 indicator of soil fertility (Hazelton and Murphy 2007). Its significant contribution to

275 crop yield could be due to the quantity of nutrients in the field being variable through  
276 the field. Furthermore, CEC is an important indicator influencing soil structure stability,  
277 nutrient availability, soil pH and the soil's reaction to fertilisers and other ameliorants  
278 (Hazelton and Murphy, 2007), which as a result will have a positive influence of crop  
279 growth and yield. Furthermore, CEC is also related to potassium content and clay  
280 particles, which affect available water content (Bergaya and Vayer 1997), hence,  
281 influencing crop growth and development.

282 **[Table 2]**

283 **[Table 3]**

284 By comparing the contribution of each soil property to the wheat yield with the  
285 corresponding significance threshold, the soil properties having significant contribution  
286 to the crop yield can then be highlighted as shown in Table 4. Amongst the eight studied  
287 soil properties, CEC, Mg, TN, Ca, OC and MC all have significant influence on the  
288 crop yield, with declining order. However, the largest influence is attributed to CEC,  
289 followed successively by Mg and TN. It is worth noting that pH is normally associated  
290 with soil fertility and CEC (Hazelton and Murphy 2007) has the lowest influence on  
291 yield. But, pH level directly affects nutrient availability and crop nutrient uptake  
292 (HGCA 2014). With acidic soils (soil pH is smaller than 5), the pH would have negative  
293 influence on nutrient uptake. It is commonly stated in farmer's guides that the optimum  
294 pH for soils under continuous arable cropping of cereal crops is between 6 and 7 with  
295 6.5 being the ideal. However, in the Horns End experimental field, the pH value of the  
296 majority of the field area ranged between 5.6 and 8, which may explain the low  
297 contribution of pH to yield prediction (Bruulsema 2015). Similar observation can be

298 made for P. Although P is a key nutrient for crop growth and development, no  
299 significant contribution to wheat yield was observed. One explanation could be that P is  
300 not a limiting property in Horns End field, as manure is being frequently applied  
301 (Mouazen and Kuang 2016). Another reason might be the fact that a part of the field  
302 i.e., the north-west part experienced a waterlogging problem associated with a poor  
303 drainage system for many years. This is also reflected on the poor yield harvested in  
304 2013, as shown in Figure 3, where low harvest can be observed particularly on the  
305 northern and south western parts of the field, coinciding well with areas with the  
306 waterlogging problem.

307 **[Figure 3]**

308 **[Table 4]**

309 A multiple linear regression analyses with least square estimation conducted by  
310 Kravchenko and Bullock (2000) found OC as the main and most consistent, positively  
311 correlated parameter with corn and soybean yield. Interestingly, they found that the  
312 contribution from K, CEC and P was mostly negligible, and this was attributed to K and  
313 P being ample in abundance in the soils. This finding is in line with those of the current  
314 work regarding P only. However, Kravchenko and Bullock (2000) stated that the  
315 performance of crop prediction models varies from field to field across different  
316 cropping seasons.

317 After CEC and Mg, TN ranked as the third largest contributor to wheat yield, a result  
318 which is supported by previous research suggesting that nitrogen supply is a large  
319 limiting factor of crop yield (Agegnehu *et al.* 2016) and is strongly linked with soil TN

320 content before planting and uptake rate by plants during the growing season.  
321 Surprisingly, Mg has the second largest contribution to the wheat yield variance. Mg is  
322 an essential plant nutrient for plant growth, as it has well-known roles in photosynthesis  
323 process and chlorophyll building (Mengel and Kirkby 1987). Deficiency in Mg by  
324 leaching may take place in highly acidic sandy soils. However, this is not the case of  
325 the current experimental field, where pH varies between 5.6 and 8 in a mixture of  
326 medium soil texture classes of sandy loam, loam, and sandy clay loam. This could  
327 explain the high contribution of magnesium distribution to crop yield variation.

328 Due to the waterlogging problem associated with the poor drainage system in the north-  
329 west part of the field (Figure 4), MC had only a minor influence on crop yield as it is  
330 ranked sixth among the eight soil properties included in the analysis. There is an  
331 optimum for soil moisture (varying with crop growth stage) being beneficial to crop  
332 yield. As MC increases it may become a hindrance to crop yield after reaching a  
333 threshold. The waterlogged areas are of high MC and nutrient concentrations but low in  
334 yield due to the water stress, which affects crop establishment, growth and yield.  
335 Waterlogging causes the crop roots to be unable to respire and when there is too little  
336 oxygen in the soil pores, the demand for oxygen varies with crop and crop growth stage  
337 (Boyer 1982). Waterlogging at grain filling stages can cause a significant loss in grain  
338 yield (Condon and Giunta 2003).

339 **[Figure 4]**

340 *3.3 Model sensitivity to sampling technique*

341 All results discussed above are based on the SDA re-sampling technique with a 3 m  
342 radius. To evaluate the sensitivity of the results to the selection of re-sampling  
343 technique and the size of radius, more tests were performed, whose results are shown in  
344 Table 5, in which only the top 3 significant soil properties are presented. Inspection of  
345 Table 5 reveals that the top two soil properties (e.g., CEC and Mg) showed exactly  
346 same response for all tests, appearing at first and second factors affecting yield,  
347 respectively, whereas TN appears three times and Ca appears once in the third position.  
348 Additionally, the CAA re-sampling technique consistently had a larger total  
349 contribution (SERR = 22.97% for 3 m radius) to wheat yield than that of the SDA re-  
350 sampling technique (SERR = 20.29% for 3 m radius), which indicates the CAA  
351 technique may be more suitable for the high resolution soil and yield data, because the  
352 identified model explains more of the system output. Also, the total contribution  
353 decreases following the increase of the sample number, which is expected because more  
354 samples indicate more spatial variations of the underlying rule (Billings 2013). This is  
355 also true for the radius, because with a larger radius, larger samples are included in the  
356 analysis.

357 **[Table 5]**

358 Results showed that the overall contribution of the eight soil properties to wheat yield is  
359 23.21%. One would expect that the contribution of soil properties to yield should be  
360 larger than the overall calculated contribution in this study. However, the results  
361 obtained confirmed this to be a significant contribution, but also shows that there is  
362 variability still at play, influencing the crop yield (e.g., crop disease, pests, topography,

363 micro-climatic conditions etc.). For example, whilst TN and OC should have significant  
364 effects, and both are required by the crop for healthy growth and grain production, they  
365 can also increase and prolong the leaf area index of the crop, which in turn increases  
366 humidity, making the plant more susceptible to disease, hence, crop yield is negatively  
367 affected (Bryson *et al.* 1997). Therefore, there is a need for a future work to expand on  
368 the current data mining approach to quantify yield limiting factors, under larger number  
369 of fields with different crops and different agricultural systems. The study should also  
370 account for the other affecting factors of crop yield including crop disease, pests,  
371 topography, micro-climatic conditions etc.

#### 372 **4. Conclusions**

373 A volterra non-linear regressive with eXogenous inputs (VNRX) model accounting for  
374 the linear and non-linear variability (VNRX-LN) was used to quantify yield limiting  
375 factors of wheat in one field in Bedfordshire, the UK. The input data were eight soil  
376 properties (e.g. OC, TN, CEC, Mg, MC, Ca, pH and P), collected at a high sampling  
377 resolution rate (>500 sample per ha), with an on-line visible and near infrared  
378 spectroscopy (vis-NIRS) sensor, whereas crop yield represented the single-output in the  
379 system. Based on the results obtained the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 380 1. The VNRX-LN model can be successfully used to quantify the influence of  
381 multi-soil properties, collected at high sampling resolution with an on-line soil  
382 sensor, on crop yield.
- 383 2. The effect of soil properties on crop yield varied with soil property, with the  
384 largest contribution observed for CEC, Mg and TN, with error reduction ratio  
385 contribution (ERRC) values of 14.6%, 4.69% and 1%, respectively.

386 3. The overall contribution of the eight soil properties sums up to an ERRC value  
387 of 23.21%. This value was found to be surprisingly low, but was explained by  
388 the fact that a large part of the studied field suffers of a drainage problem, which  
389 masked the actual effect of soil properties on crop yield.

390 It was recommended to validate the concept introduced in this study on a larger number  
391 of fields, where other affecting parameters (e.g. crop diseases, pests, topography,  
392 microclimate conditions) of crop growth and yield should be taken into account.

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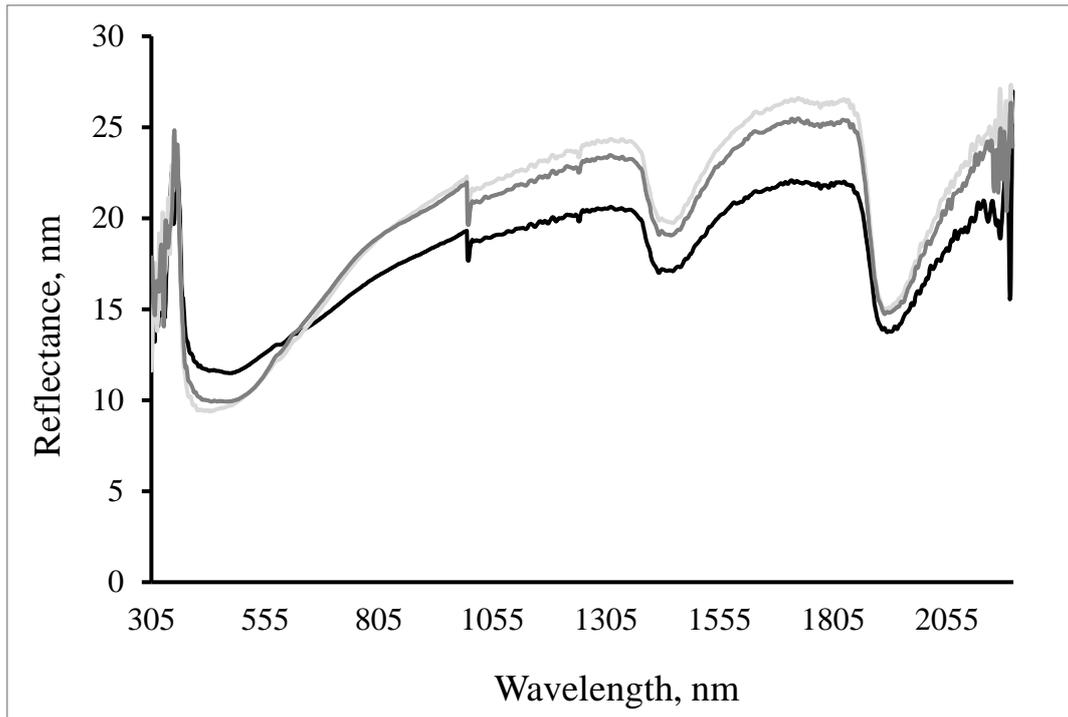
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496 Figure 1. Illustrated image of the tractor mounted on-line visible and near infrared

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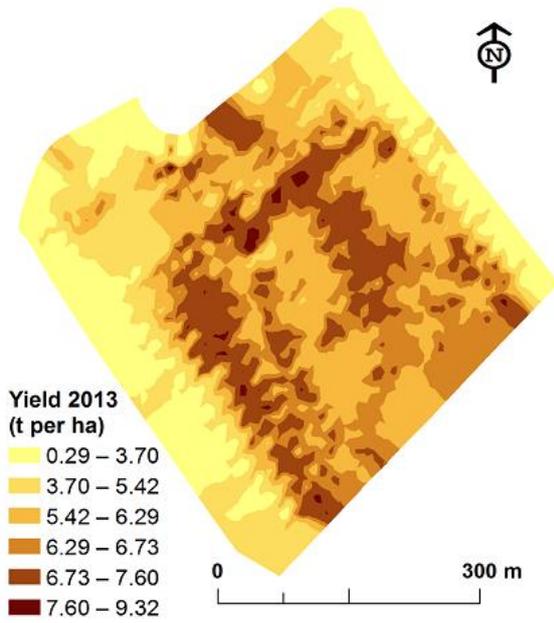
spectroscopy (vis-NIRS) sensor (Mouazen 2006).



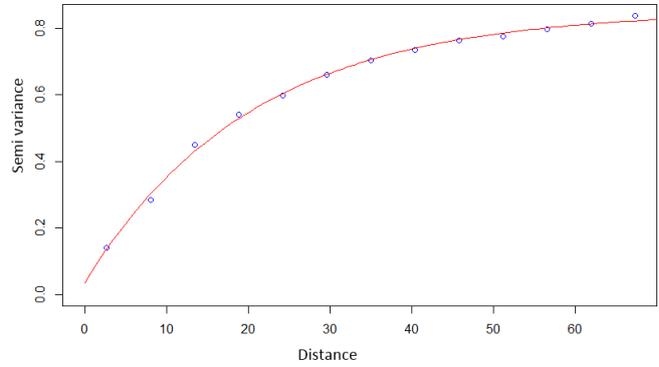
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499 Figure 2. Examples of the raw on-line soil visible and near infrared (vis-NIR) spectra,  
500 collected with the on-line sensor. Showing slight deviations in relative absorbance,  
501 across the wavelengths, which is dependent on the soil properties.

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503  
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505  
506  
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509  
510



(a)



(b)

511  
512 Figure 3. Interpolated yield map (a) and exponential semi-variogram of 0.036, 0.817  
513 and 20.358, representing, nugget, sill and range, respectively (b) based on the 2013  
514 harvest of wheat grain in tons per hectare. Lighter areas representing lower yield.

515

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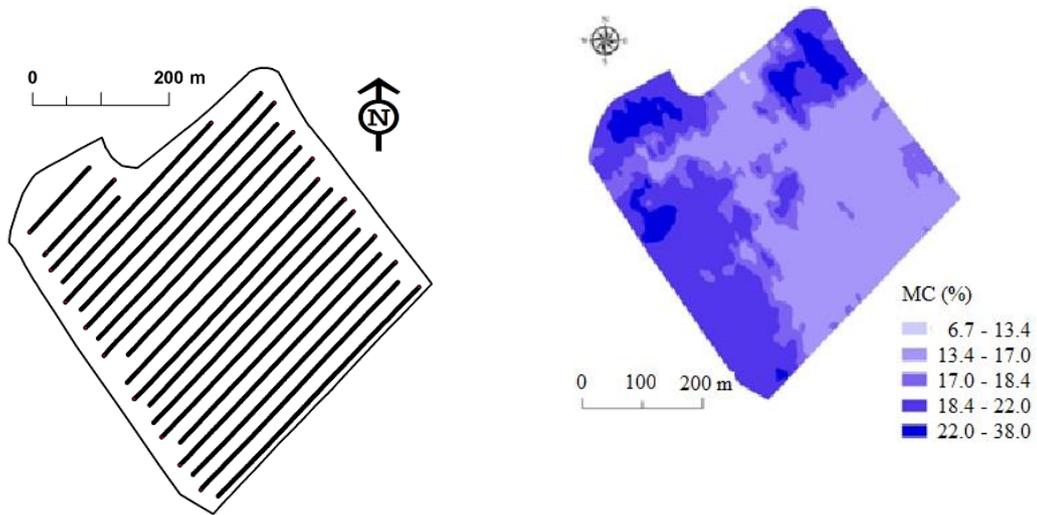
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(a)

(b)

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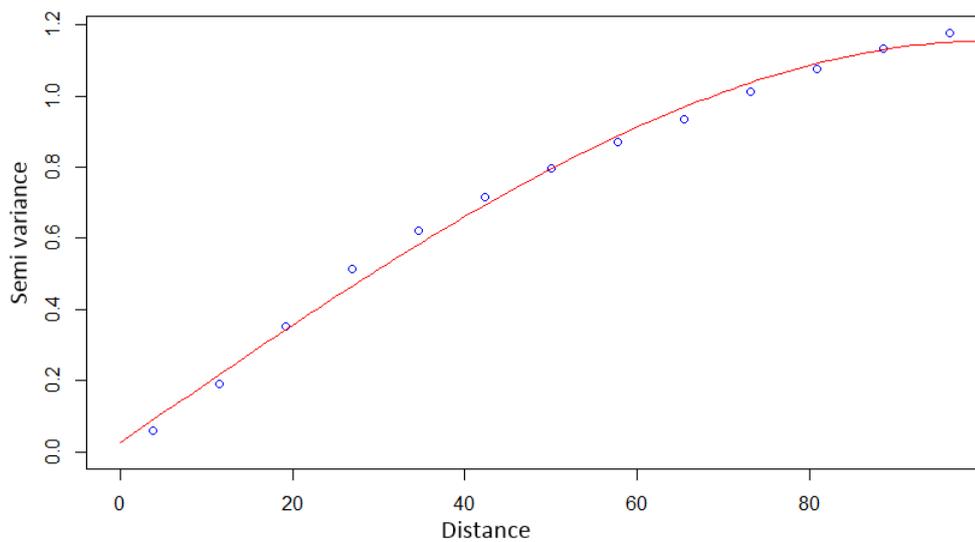
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(c)

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531 Figure 4. Measured transects (a), map of the soil moisture content (MC) measured with  
532 the on-line visible and near infrared spectroscopy (vis-NIRS) sensor after crop harvest  
533 in August, 2012 (b), and the spherical semi-variogram used for krigging of MC map  
534 with nugget, sill and range values of 0.036, 0.817 and 20.358, respectively.

535

536 Table 1: Pearson correlation ( $r$ ) between on-line measured soil properties in 2012 and  
 537 wheat yield harvested in 2013.

	Ca	CEC	MC	Mg	OC	P	pH	TN	Yield
Ca	1.000								
CEC	<b>0.733</b>	1.000							
MC	<b>0.519</b>	<b>0.748</b>	1.000						
Mg	<b>0.628</b>	<b>0.586</b>	0.476	1.000					
OC	<b>0.650</b>	0.441	0.436	0.176	1.000				
P	0.163	0.216	0.019	0.042	0.027	1.000			
pH	<b>0.747</b>	<b>0.590</b>	0.492	0.348	0.432	-0.013	1.000		
TN	<b>0.596</b>	0.411	0.269	0.167	<b>0.543</b>	<b>0.556</b>	0.307	1.000	
Yield	-0.321	-0.349	-0.209	-0.320	-0.199	-0.000	-0.152	-0.057	1.000

538 OC is organic carbon in %; P is extractable phosphorous in mg/l; MC is moisture  
 539 content in %; TN is total nitrogen in %, CEC is cation exchange capacity in meq/100g;  
 540 Ca is calcium in mg/l; Mg is magnesium in mg/l; and pH the log measurement of  
 541 acidity.

542 Table 2: The correspondence between inputs variables in Volterra Non-linear  
 543 Regressive with eXogenous inputs (VNRX) model and soil properties

Input	Property	Input	Property	Input	Property	Input	Property
$u_1$	Ca	$u_2$	CEC	$u_3$	MC	$u_4$	Mg
$u_5$	OC	$u_6$	P	$u_7$	pH	$u_8$	TN

544 OC is organic carbon in %; P is extractable phosphorous in mg/l; MC is moisture  
 545 content in %; TN is total nitrogen in %, CEC is cation exchange capacity in meq/100g;  
 546 Ca is calcium in mg/l; Mg is magneium in mg/l; and pH the log measurement of acidity.  
 547

548 Table 3: The first ten terms with corresponding error reduction ratio contribution  
 549 (ERRC) values and coefficients based on the shortest distance approximation (SDA) re-  
 550 sampling technique with a three m radius

Rank	Term	ERRC	Coefficient $\theta_i$
1	CEC	15.68%	-0.0948
2	Mg	3.57%	-0.4840
3	Ca*CEC	1.13%	-0.0025
4	MC*Mg	0.72%	-0.0558
5	OC	0.78%	-0.2056
6	Mg*P	0.34%	-0.9615
7	Mg*TN	0.78%	5.0750
8	pH*pH	0.39%	-0.0670
9	constant	0.82%	0.1917
10	TN*TN	0.37%	-8.5096

551 OC is organic carbon in %; P is extractable phosphorous in mg/l; MC is moisture  
 552 content in %; TN is total nitrogen in %, CEC is cation exchange capacity in meq/100g;  
 553 Ca is calcium in mg/l; Mg is magnesium in mg/l; and pH the log measurement of  
 554 acidity.

555 Table 4: Error reduction ratio contribution (ERRC) contribution of each soil property  
 556 (input) to the crop yield (system output) with corresponding significance threshold  
 557 based on the shortest distance approximation (SDA) re-sampling technique with a three  
 558 m radius

Rank	Input	ERRC (%)	Significance threshold (%)	Significant
1	CEC	14.60	0.60	Yes
2	Mg	4.69	0.52	Yes
3	TN	1.00	0.50	Yes
4	Ca	0.98	0.43	Yes
5	OC	0.68	0.49	Yes
6	MC	0.62	0.47	Yes
7	pH	0.34	0.46	No
8	P	0.30	0.56	No
Total		23.21	4.03	

559 OC is organic carbon in %; P is extractable phosphorous in mg/l; MC is moisture  
 560 content in %; TN is total nitrogen in %, CEC is cation exchange capacity in meq/100g;  
 561 Ca is calcium in mg/l; Mg is magnesium in mg/l; and pH the log measurement of  
 562 acidity.

563 Table 5: Contribution of the top three significant soil properties in terms of the sum of  
 564 error reduction ratio (SERR) on the crop yield, based on shortest distance  
 565 approximation (SDA) and (CAA) sampling techniques calculated for different radius  
 566 values.

Re-sampling technique	Re-sampling radius	Sampled number	Top three inputs		Total Contribution (SERR)
			Inputs	Contribution	
SDA	3	1377	CEC	14.60%	20.29%
			Mg	4.69%	
			TN	1.00%	
CAA	3	1377	CEC	16.54%	22.97%
			Mg	4.00%	
			TN	2.43%	
SDA	5	3605	CEC	9.20%	13.61%
			Mg	2.45%	
			TN	1.96%	
CAA	5	3605	CEC	12.90%	15.87%
			Mg	3.02%	
			Ca	2.65%	

567 TN is total nitrogen in %, CEC is cation exchange capacity in meq/100g; Mg is  
 568 magnesium in mg/l.