Forecasting the black Sigatoka development rate: A comparison of machine learning techniques

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Abstract

Pending.

Keywords: Machine learning, Black Sigatoka, Support vector regression, Banana disease prediction, Biological warning system

1 1. Introduction

- The black Sigatoka disease caused by the fungus Mycosphaerella fijiensis
- 3 Morelet is the major pathological problem of banana and plantain crops in
- 4 Central America, Panama, Colombia and Ecuador, as in many parts of Africa
- 5 and Asia [6].
- This disease attacks the plant leaves producing a rapid deterioration of the
- leaf area, affects the growth and productivity of the plants due to the impairment
- of their photosinthetic ability causes a reduction in the quality of the fruit, and
- promotes premature maturation of bunches, which is the major cause of product
- losses associated with the black Sigatoka. Figure 1 shows three stages of this
- disease.
- Phytopathological studies point out that precipitation, temperature, relative
- humidity and wind are the main climatic variables that affect its development

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4 [6].

disease.

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Figure 1: Examples of three disease stages of the black Sigatoka. (a) Initial stage. (b) Intermediate stage, and (c) Advanced stage.

According to studies by the National Banana Corporation of Costa Rica 15 (Corbana) made in 2013, considering on average between 53 thru 57 cycles of 16 fungicide applications per farm, the cost per hectare per year ranged between \$1800 USD and \$1900 USD. This represents about 0.76 cents of the price of a box of 18.14 kilograms. Overall, this represents 10% to 12% of the total 19 production cost Brescani [1]. 20 The past and present rates of disease development can in principle be used 21 to predict its future behavior and to determine whether particular fungicide 22 spray schedules will be able to effectively and economically control the disease 23 Chuang and Jeger [3]. 24 There are efforts to apply machine learning methods for decision-making in 25 agriculture, including the control of crop diseases. For example, [Camargo et al.,2012] 26 present an intelligent system for the assessment of crop disorders, [4] introduce a plant virus identification method based on neural networks with an evolutionary preprocessing stage, [5] summarize in their survey crop pests prediction 29 methods using regression and machine learning approaches, while [7] present an 30 intelligent agricultural forecasting system based on wireless sensor networks. 31 In this work, we compare four machine learning techniques (support vector 32 regression (SVR), echo state networks (ESN), ridge regression and ordinary least squares linear regression) to predict the development rate of the black Sigatoka 34

The main contribution of this work is a comparison between machine learning

methods to forecast black Sigatoka development rate. (FALTA COMPLETAR)

38 2. Materials and methods

- 39 2.1. Concepts
- 40 2.1.1. Biological warning system
- The system measures the disease development state to determine when to
- apply fungicides [6]. This system is based on two components: a climate com-
- ponent, which is given by the Piche evaporation and a biological component,
- 44 given by the stage of progress or the rate of disease development. Originally,
- this system was designed to work with young plants. One selected plant must
- exhibit a normal growth and be in a place that enforces a healthy development.
- 47 The plant must start with 5 to 6 true leaves. The assessments are made at
- 48 fixed intervals of seven days as long as possible, on the same plant. The first
- observations should consider the leaf emission, also the level of infection on the
- be leaves should be evaluated considering the stages of development [6].

2.1.2. Support Vector Regression (SVR)

From the perspective of Support Vector Regression (SVR) the regression function y = f(s) for a given dataset $D = (s_i, y_i)_i = 1)^n$, is represented as a linear function of the form (Wei, Tao, ZhuoShu, and Zio, 2013): $f(s) = w^T s + b$ where w and b are respectively the weight vector and the intercept of the model, and they are selected to find an optimal fit to the data available in D. For nonlinear cases, one proceeds by mapping the input p-dimensional vectors via a nonlinear function $R^p F$, onto the feature space F. After nonlinear mapping, the regression function evolves to a pervasive form:

$$f(s) = w^T(s) + b$$

- 52 SVR uses the -insensitive loss function:
- which ignores the error if the difference between the prediction value and
- the actual value is smaller than . -insensitive loss function allows to find the

coefficients w and b by solving a convex optimization problem, which balances

the empirical error and the generalization ability. In SVR, the empirical error is

measured by the loss function -insensitive and the generalization ability is mea-

sured by the Euclidean norm of w. Then, the optimization problem to identify

the regression model can be formulated by (Wei, Tao, ZhuoShu, and Zio, 2013):

where C denotes the penalty parameter between empirical and generalization

errors, and i, i*) are slack variables, as shown in Fig 2.

 $_{\rm 62}$ $\,$ Fig 2: -insensitive loss function (Wei, Tao, ZhuoShu, and Zio, 2013) The

solution of this optimization problem by the Lagrange method is: where $_{i},_{i}^{*}$ are

the Lagrange multipliers of the optimization problems dual form and $K(s_i, s_j)$

is the kernel function satisfying Mercer condition, and can be described by:

66 Common kernel functions are: linear, polynomial and sigmoid. Operations in

the kernel function $K(s, s_i)$ are performed in the input space rather than in the

potentially high dimensional feature space of . An inner product in the feature

space has an equivalent kernel in the input space (Alonso, Rodrguez Castan,

₇₀ and Bahamonde, 2013).

2.1.3. Ordinary least square

This method fits a linear model with coefficients w = (w1,...,wp) to minimize

the residual sum of squares between the observed responses in the dataset, and

the responses predicted by the linear approximation. Mathematically it solves

a problem of the form (scikit-learn developer, 2014):

76 2.1.4. Ridge regression

77 This addresses some of the problems of Ordinary Least Squares by imposing

₇₈ a penalty on the size of coefficients. The ridge coefficients minimize a penalized

residual sum of squares (scikit-learn developer, 2014): Here, 0 is a complexity

parameter that controls the amount of shrinkage: the larger the value of, the

greater the amount of shrinkage and thus the coefficients become more robust

to collinearity.

2.1.5. Echo State Networks (ESN)

Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN) are useful for temporal patterns, but when they are trained with backpropagation method, they are very slow. Echo 85 State Network (ESN) is an alternative training method to solve that problem. ESN is based on the observation that if a random RNN possesses certain algebraic properties, training only a linear readout from it is often sufficient to achieve excellent performance in practical applications (Lukoeviius and Jaeger, 2009). For a given training input signal $u(n)R^{(N_u)}$ a desired target output 90 signal is known. Here n = 1, ..., T is the discrete time and T is the number of 91 data points in the training dataset. The task is to learn a model with output $y(n)R(N_y)$, where y(n) matches $y^t arget(n)$ (n) as well as possible, minimizing 93 an error measure $E(y, y^t arget)$, and, more importantly, generalizes well to un-94 seen data. The untrained RNN part of an ESN is called a dynamical reservoir, 95 and the resulting states x(n) are termed echoes of its input history (Lukoeviius M., 2012). Finally, these signals are sent to an output layer as shown in the following Fig. 98

Figure 3: An echo state network (Lukosevicius, 2012) The connections between the different elements of an Echo State Network have weights randomly 100 generated. The weights of the internal connections of the reservoir (W) as well 101 as the weights of the input layer (Win), after being generated are set statically during all stages of implementation of the algorithm. The weights between the 103 reservoir and the output layer (Wout) are subject to changes of a supervised 104 learning algorithm to correct the degree of error generated by the entire system 105 (Lukoeviius M., 2012). Related works A related work, no machine learning 106 approach, was performed by Romero (1995) who in the third chapter of his 107 doctoral thesis in the field of plant pathology, proposed regression models using 108 stepwise procedure to predict incubation and latency times of black Sigatoka. 109 The author performed experiments on two farms located in Costa Rica (Rita 110 and Waldeck, the same as those used in this study but with different names). The time intervals used for that study were: December 1993 thru August 1995. 112

Romero concluded that the model to predict the incubation period accounted a R2 of 69% in his observed data but it was not a good predictor when it was 114 validated against an independent dataset (cross validation). For latency, he developed two models that accounted a R2 of 78% in the observed data, however, 116 when validated against an independent dataset (cross validation), the model 117 was incorrect for Weldeck, and for Rita obtained an adjusted R2 of 82%. A ma-118 chine learning method was proposed by Glezakos, Moschopoulou, Tsiligiridis, 119 Kintzios, and Yialouris (2010), who presented a genetic algorithm as to smooth 120 out the initial information while, the so produced meta-data sets were used in 121 the training and testing of the applied neural network, producing fitter training 122 data. Given the features of the acquired virus time-series signals of the problem 123 under study, an evolutionary method was proposed in order to produce meta-124 data from the original time-series initial information, reduce the dimensionality of the input data space, and eliminating the noise inherent in the initial raw 126 information The method was tested against some of the most commonly used 127 classifiers in machine learning (Bayes, Trees and k-NN) via cross-validation and 128 proved its potential towards assisting virus identification. They made their test 129 with CGMM and TR viruses. In agricultural area, Alves, de Carvalho, Pozza, 130 Sanches, and Mai (2011) selected the zones that are potentially favorable to 131 coffee, soybean and banana diseases in Brazil according to the spatial-temporal 132 variability of climatic variables and the geographical distribution of hosts. Their 133 study applied methodology enabled the visualization of the variation of areas favorable to epidemics under future scenarios of climate change. The geosci-135 entific and statistical modeling techniques developed in that study enabled the 136 development of predictive models and the characterization of risk areas for soy-137 bean rust, coffee rust and black Sigatoka disease of banana. There have been 138 attempts to generate software tools, Camargo, Molina, Cadena-Torres, Jimnez, 139 and Kim (2012) presented an information system for the assessment of plant 140 disorders (Isacrodi). They proposed that experts will attain a much better 141 accuracy than the Isacrodi classifier, particularly when provided with samples 142 from the affected crop. However, where such expertise is not available, they

suggest that Isacrodi can provide valuable support to farmers. Isacordi includes 144 15 crop disorders, but the black Sigatoka no is one. The prediction process is 145 based on multi-class Support Vector Machines. Regarding black Sigatoka with machine learning methods, Bendini, Moraes, da Silva, Tezuka, and Cruvinel 147 (2013) presented a study about the risk analysis of black Sigatoka occurrence 148 based on polynomial models. A case study was developed in a commercial ba-149 nana plantation located in Jacupiranga, Brazil, it was monitored weekly during 150 the period from February to December 2005. Data were the weekly monitoring 151 of the diseases evolution stage, time series of meteorological data and remote 152 sensing data. They obtained a model to estimate the evolution of the disease 153 from satellite imagery. This model relates gray levels (NC) of the corresponding 154 image, band 2 of the Landsat-5 satellite, with the progress status or disease 155 severity (EE): Authors express have reach an R2 of 90Also there are research related to banana fruit, Soares, Pasqual, Lacerda, Silva, and Donato (2014) 157 show in their study that to the analyses, the neural network proved to be more 158 accurate in forecasting the weight of the bunch in comparison to the multiple 159 linear regressions in terms of the mean prediction-error (MPE = 1.40), mean 160 square deviation (MSD = 2.29) and coefficient of determination (R2 = 91In 161 general, machine learning methods applied to prediction plant diseases can be 162 classified in two main approaches: 1) Those that their main inputs are images, 163 and 2) Those that their main inputs are environmental and biological variables. 164 Our study is focus in the second one.

166 2.2. Data

In this work we used data acquired in two research farms of Corbana in Costa Rica: 1) 28 Millas (located at Matina) and La Rita (located at Pococ), both in the province of Limn, Costa Rica. The banana type is Musa AAA, subgroup Cavendish, cv. Grande Naine. Table 1 shows the variables considered initially. Table 1 Variables used in the study Variable Meaning

The value to be predicted in all cases was ES, that is the total measure of the biological warning system. The data on the biological warning system are collected once a week. Although Corbana has meteorological stations that take data every five minutes, for these experiments, weekly averages generated by nearby stations to each of the farms were used. The time intervals used for this study were: La Rita, week 48 of 2002 to week 17 of the 2015 (647 weeks) and for 28 Miles, week 37 of 2003 to week 18 of 2015 (605 weeks). Data preprocessing In 28 Miles farm we detect that 1% of the data were missing, while in La Rita 2.25% of the data were missing. To complete the missing value we use spline interpolation. The data collected did not exhibit outliers. Due the fact that the variables measure meteorological or biological process, they are discretized in order to reflect trends in the data rather than the specific continuous values. The coefficient of variation $C_v(x)$ of each variable x was used to determine the numbers of discretizations with:

$$n = 100C_{\nu}(x)$$

Each discretization range was uniformly partitioned. Besides enabling the capture of tendencies, the discretization removes the effect of small variations in the data collection, either by inaccuracies of the instruments (meteorological variables) or by subjective bias introduced by the human who collects the data (biological warning system). Each feature was scaled in a range 0 between 1. The variable to be predicted was not scaled.

2.3. Evaluation criteria

Although there are many types of indicators to assess the quality of the prediction, we selected the root mean square error (RMSE) and the determination coefficient (R2). This decision is supported by the widespread use in machine learning and agriculture areas (Soares, Pasqual and Lacerda (2013); Soares, Pasqual and Lacerda (2014); Ibrahim and Wibowo (2014) and Demir and Bruzzone (2014)).

2.4. Methods

This research had two phases.

7 Phase one

In the phase one, we did ten-fold-cross-validation and did a lot of proofs with 189 different machine learning methods and different configuration. We proved with several combinations: Patterns: From one week of observed data to predict the 191 next week until nine weeks before to predict two weeks later. Algorithms: Sup-192 port vector regression with different kernel functions: linear, RBF (Gaussian) 193 and sigmoid; echo state networks; ordinary least squares linear regression and 194 ridge regression. Variables included in the model. We proved the following 195 combinations: All variables. Only variables that according to expert judgment 196 have more impact on the black Sigatoka development: humidity, precipitation, 197 temperature and wind speed (Marin Vargas and Romero Caldern, 1995). From 198 the four variables listed in the previous paragraph, runs were conducted using 199 each of the variables separately, and combining other runs all the possible pairs of those four variables. 201

202 Phase two

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In the second phase, we used the best configurations obtained en la phase one and did validation with the last 52 and 102 weeks. This second phase pretended to show how these methods behaved on a time of important climate change how are 2014 and 2015 years.

Programming environment We use python programming language with the
Integrated Development Environment (IDE) Spyder, particularly with libraries:
pandas (Comunity, 2014); numpy (numpy.org, 2013); for SVR, ridge and ordinary least squares, we used sklearn (Pedregosa, et al., 2011); and for ESN the
python-based code used belongs to Dr. Mantas Lukoeviius (2012) from which
we made the necessary adjustments for the experiments of this research. The
computer was a Lenovo ThinkPad, processor Intel(R) Core i7-4800MQ CPU @
2.70GHz, 16.0 GB RAM, running Windows 8 Pro.

215 3. Results

216 4. Discussion and conclusions

5. References

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