PURBANCHAL UNIVERSITY



DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER ENGINEERING KHWOPA ENGINEERING COLLEGE LIBALI-8, BHAKTAPUR

A FINAL REPORT ON PADDY PRODUCTION FORECASTING WITH XGBOOST

Project work submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for the award of the degree of Bachelor of Engineering in Computer Engineering (Seventh Semester).

SUBMITTED BY:

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SUBMITTED TO:

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UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF

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09 March 2025

DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER ENGINEERING KHWOPA ENGINEERING COLLEGE LIBALI-8, BHAKTAPUR

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

This is to certify that the project entitled "PADDY PRODUCTION FORECAST-ING WITH XGBOOST" submitted by Rajesh Hamal, Rabin Thimi, Saurav Neupane, Salim Lawot, Jenish Prajapati as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Bachelor in Computer Engineering of Purbanchal University We have examined it and may place it before the examination board for their consideration.

Panel of Examiners:		
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Head of Department		
Er. Bikash Chawal		
Project Supervisor		
Er. Suresh Ghatuwa		

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the use of XGBoost (Extreme Gradient Boosting), a powerful machine learning technique, for predicting agricultural yields in Nepal. Despite a declining tendency in the agricultural sector's share in Nepal's GDP, paddy cultivation remains a significant contributor to the national economy. The XGBoost algorithm, known for its accuracy and performance, has been used to model paddy yields based on well-structured time series data. The model combines the gradient boosting technique with Classification and Regression Trees (CART) for better predictive performance. Necessary data preprocessing steps like missing values treatment, decomposition, and outlier detection had a significant impact on data preparation for modeling. The results reveal that XGBoost is capable of predicting paddy yields with good accuracy and hence provides valuable insights for agricultural sustainability. However, forecast accuracy of the model could be enhanced by integrating more data like weather patterns, soil types, and diseases. Future research will focus on expanding the dataset to make the model more accurate and reliable.

Keyword: XGBoost, gradient boosting, CART

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Nepal's agricultural sector, once the cornerstone of the economy, is going through big changes. Now the service sector is increasing while the agriculture sector is decreasing gradually. In 2021/22 the contribution of agriculture to total GDP was 25.8 percent which now went down to 24.7 percent in 2022/2023, with the industrial sector remaining relatively constant (Ministry of Finance [MoF], 2023). This shows the gradual descent of the whole agricultural economy of Nepal. However, agriculture still holds the major part of the economy and shows positive signs. Recently published data from MoF (2023) reveals a 3.9 percent increase in paddy production which is important since rice has been a major food source in Nepal for generations. However, there are some problems like droughts, diseases, lack of fertilizer, and inflation that remain.[1]

Over the past few years, Nepal has seen a positive change in the import of rice. According to the Nepal Rastra Bank(2023) report, in the fiscal year 2022/23, the import of paddy reached Rs. 36,404.3 Million, which is a 23.1 percent decrease compared to the previous year Rs. 47,356 Million. Rice imports constituted a notable 2.3 percent share in imports of 2022/23. So declining in rice imports hints a potential progress toward self-sufficiency in rice production and food security.[1]

Due to these changes in the agricultural sector, many nepali researchers are developing AI models. AI models helps to analyze data more efficiently and to uncover hidden patterns inside data. By using AI, researchers aim to enhance agricultural productivity, address challenges, and support Nepal's progress toward self-sufficiency in food production.

This research aims to develop and test another option for the time series data of agriculture model XGBoost and compare its accuracy with existing models. It is gaining popularity gradually among researchers due to its unique gradient-boosting method.

1.2 Motivation

For any country in the world, paddy cultivation is a cornerstone of the agricultural sector and a critical component of the nation's food security and rural economy. Despite its importance, paddy farmers in Nepal face significant challenges due to the inherent volatility in agricultural commodity prices. Factors such as changing weather patterns, limited access to advanced forecasting tools, and fluctuating market demands increases this volatility, making it difficult for farmers to plan effectively and secure stable incomes. Additionally, the lack of accurate, localized forecasting models often leads to inefficient resource allocation and market inefficiencies.

Motivated by these challenges, this project aims to develop a deep learning-based sales forecasting system specifically tailored to paddy in Nepal. By leveraging advanced time series forecasting techniques, the project seeks to provide more accurate predictions of paddy supply and demand, thereby helping farmers make informed decisions, optimize production strategies, and reduce the adverse effects of price volatility. This approach not only aims to stabilize farmer incomes but also contributes to overall agricultural sustainability and food security in the region.

1.3 Statement of Problem

In the context of Nepal, despite the importance of agriculture, the condition of the farmers and the market of the crops produced by these farmers face many challenges. Identifying and predicting the condition of padding production in the future is important.

1.4 Objective

The main objective of this project is to create a forecasting model for the paddy crops using gradient boosting technique in XGBoost.

1.5 Scope and limitation

The major scope of the project is, this project can provide a foundation for further research in agricultural forecasting, potentially leading to the development of similar models for other crops or regions.

And the main limitation of this project is the sufficient data. With the help of the gradient boosting method, we can forecast a target label that is influenced by many factors like (soil nutrition, weather and climate, seed quality and variety, fertilizer used, etc). However, there is no sufficient record of data available related to those factors performing it.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Classification or prediction is the most widely used data mining task. Classification algorithms are supervised methods that uncover the hidden relationship between the target class and the independent variables (Salzberg, 1994). Supervised learning algorithms allow labels to be assigned to the observations so that new data can be classified based on training data(Han et al., 2012; Kumar et al., 2015). Examples of classification tasks are image and pattern recognition, medical diagnosis, loan approval, detecting faults or financial trends(Salzberg, 1994; Wu et al., 2008).[2]

Aditya Pokhrel and Renisha Adhikari from Nepal Rastra Bank (2023) compared a comparative analysis of the ARIMA and ARIMAX model in terms of paddy production forecasting in Nepal. The ARIMAX model with agricultural land availability (AGLAND) as an external variable provided a more accurate forecast for 2022 at 5681.17 metric tonnes/hectare compared to the forecast by the ARIMA model at 5787.64 metric tonnes/hectare. Additionally, the ARIMAX model had better error metrics with a mean absolute error (MAE) of 0.0247, a mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) of 0.667, and a root mean square error (RMSE) of 0.0301 compared to an MAE of 0.0295, a MAPE of 0.797, and an RMSE of 0.0373 by the ARIMA model, thereby indicating improved forecast accuracy. These results emphasize the importance of incorporating external factors like AGLAND that represent real-world constraints like land availability that have a direct impact on paddy production.

Chaturbhujj Bhatt, Subarna Shakya, and Tej Bahadur Shahi (2020) conducted a research that compared several machine learning algorithms for predicting paddy yield in Nepal. Their assessment included Support Vector Machine (SVM), Neural Network, Decision Tree, and Naïve Bayes algorithms. The most accurate model came out to be the Decision Tree classifier with an accuracy rate of 80.19 percent, thereby making it the most suitable one for predicting paddy productivity in situations where there is limited availability of data. The performance of the Naïve Bayes algorithm was competitive; on the other hand, the SVM and Neural Network models had difficulties in properly classifying between diverse levels of productivity. The study emphasized on the potential benefits of utilizing decision tree methods with higher classification accuracy in predicting paddy productivity in Nepal.

CHAPTER 3 PROJECT MANAGEMENT

3.1 Team Management

Our 7th-semester project had focused on predicting paddy production using AI models, specifically XGBoost. The project, titled "Paddy Production Prediction with XGBoost," had been developed by our group members:

Rajesh Hamal (770329) Rabin Thimi (770328) Saurav Neupane (770340) Salim Lawot (770336) Jenish Prajapati (770314)

3.2 Work Breakdown Planning

Our work breakdown planning is as follow,

Job Description	Week										
Job Description	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th			
problem Identification	✓										
Requirement Analysis	✓	✓									
System design	✓	√									
Coding And development			√	√	√	√	√				
Testing And Implementation							√				
Documentation	√	√	√	✓	✓	√	√	√			

3.3 Feasibility Study

A feasibility test is done to check if a project is possible, economical, and time-consuming. We assess the availability of datasets required, required tools, and libraries to see if the project can succeed. We found the following outcomes:

3.3.1 Resources Feasibility:

For this project, we needed a reliable dataset containing labels of area, production, and yield. We went through similar project reports that performed a paddy production prediction with a different model. For the model training and prediction with the AI. We found out some people collect data sets directly with related people by questionnaire method and some people get datasets from the NRB database, but these people were employees of NRB who have access to the NRB database

Dataset: We made the dataset required for us by going through all available reports from MoAD and other related government offices. We enter data manually in an Excel file. Data were found in the different segments (1975-88), (1999-2011), (2014-15), (2018-22). We used different methods to fill the gaps, which are briefly

explained in the methodology.

3.3.2 Technical Feasibility:

In technical requirements, we need a computer to train the model, model (XGBoost), and different mathematical and statistical tools. We found the project to be technically feasible. The XGBoost model is an open-source model. Statistical tools are found in free libraries, and for hardware requirements, we used Google Collab for coding and training.

3.3.3 Economic Feasibility:

We found all the required tools, models, and hardware in free service and free-to-use. So the project is found feasible in an economic way.

3.3.4 Time Feasibility:

We use ready-made statistical and mathematical tools for calculation and evaluation, making the project easier and not overwhelming. It fits well within a one-semester timeframe, so the project is manageable and feasible in terms of time.

3.4 Software Requirements

For our project, the required software includes,

- 1. Google Colab
- 2. Python
- 3. Required libraries (eg. xgboost)
- 4. Excel
- 5. GitHub
- 6. Render

3.5 Hardware Requirements

In hardware, we use Google Colab to code and train the model. Google Colab provides all the necessary libraries and system resources like GPU, CPU, storage, and RAM. It offers 12.7 GB of RAM and 107.7 GB of storage, which is more than enough for our project.

3.6 Functional Requirements

The functional requirement for the systems are,

- a. The system should generate forecasts for paddy sales volumes and prices based on the trained model.
- b. The system must be able to ingest historical data on paddy production and other relevant factors.
- c. An interactive dashboard for users to view forecasts, visualize trends, and access historical data.

3.7 Non-Functional Requirements

These are essential for the better performance of the system. The points below focus on the non-functional requirement of the system,

- a. Ensure high accuracy in forecasts, with continuous monitoring and refinement of model performance.
- b. The system should deliver timely forecasts with minimal latency. Training times should be optimized to handle large datasets efficiently.

CHAPTER 4 SYSTEM DESIGN and ARCHITECTURE

4.1 System Block Diagram

This figure illustrates the working of the XGBoost model, which forms the foundation of our project. Initially, we use the current dataset for training and evaluation. We set labels within the data, then predict future values. As new data becomes available, we can easily feed it into the model, improving accuracy without starting from scratch, enabling parallel updates.

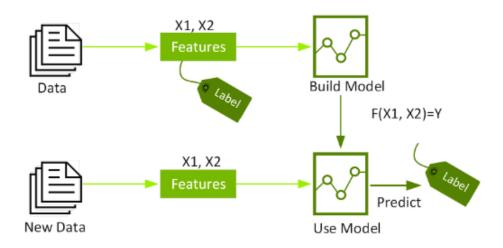


figure 4.1 basic representation of system

4.2 Use Case Diagram

The figure shows the use case of paddy production prediction system where user can select model.

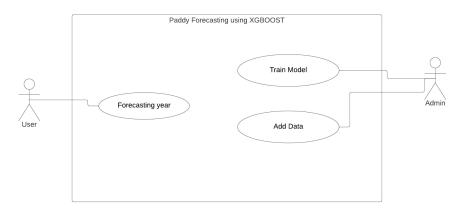


figure 4.2: usecase diagram of system

4.3 Work Flow Block Diagram

The figure shows the work flow of paddy production prediction system. It starts with data preparation, including cleaning, filling, and splitting. The XGBoost model is then trained and evaluated. After ensuring accuracy, it forecast future values. Finally, the trained model is saved for future use, enabling efficient forecasting.

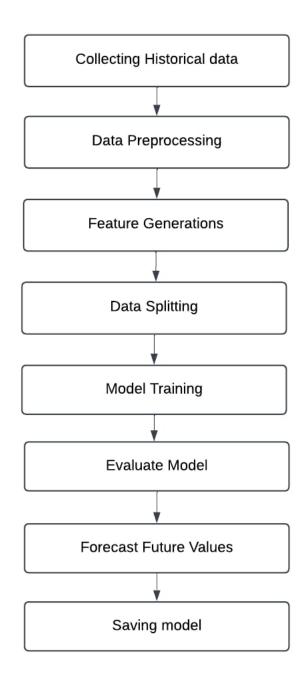


figure 4.3: basic block diagram of system workflow

CHAPTER 5 METHODOLOGY

5.1 Model Specification(XGBoost)

5.1.1 Introduction:

XGBoost stands for "Extreme Gradient Boosting", where the term "Gradient Boosting" originates from the paper Greedy Function Approximation: A Gradient Boosting Machine, by Friedman. XGBoost is an optimized distributed gradient boosting library designed to be highly efficient, flexible, and portable. It implements machine learning algorithms under the Gradient Boosting framework. XGBoost provides a parallel tree boosting (also known as GBDT, GBM) that solves problems in a supervised learning environment. [3]

When XGBoost is applied to supervised learning issues, a target variable y_i is predicted using the training data (which contains several features) x_i . In mathematical form, XGBoost can be expressed as below,[3]

$$\hat{y}_i = \sum_j \theta_j x_{ij}$$

where.

 θ = parameter which we need to learn from data

 \hat{y}_i = predicted data: weighted sum of multiple tree (CART)

5.1.2 Gradient Boosting:

Boosting is an ensemble technique that combines weak models, usually decision trees, to form a strong predictive model by correcting previous errors. Gradient Boosting builds on this by iteratively adding trees that address the residual errors of prior trees. Each tree is trained to minimize the gradient of the loss function, which measures the difference between predicted and true values. This process continues until the model converges or a set number of trees is reached.

5.1.3 Classification and Regression Trees (CART):

XGBoost uses CART (Classification and Regression Trees) instead of simple decision trees for learning through boosting. Unlike traditional decision trees, where leafs only contain decision values, CART assigns a real score to each leaf. This offers more detailed interpretations beyond just classification and enables a more structured and unified approach to optimization.[3]

We can see here a real score is assigned to the each leafs.

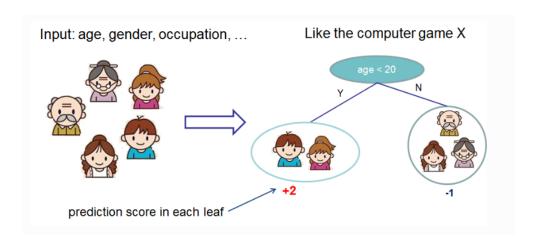


figure 5.1: example of CART (Classification and Regression Tree)

The scores of all tree of same leaf are summed, and this process is repeated across all trees in the ensemble. But in gradient boosting error is minimized in each new tree generation. Which is explain in **Tree Boosting and Scoring**.

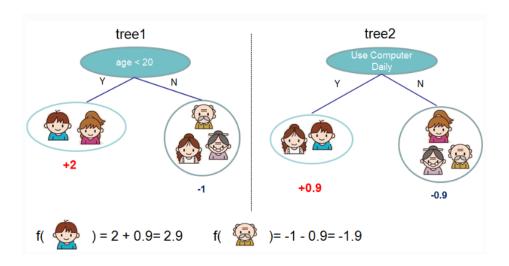


figure 5.1: example of boosting tree

Tree Boosting and Scoring

The parameters of trees include the tree structure and leaf scores. Learning the tree structure is more complex than traditional optimization, where gradients can be easily used. Instead of learning all trees at once, we use an additive strategy, fixing the learned trees and adding one new tree at a time to refine the prediction. While adding a new tree a target value of error is set which must be less than the previous which is gradient boosting. For this following function is used. It has two parts loss function and regularization function and the sum of this function is our objective function.

$$obj(\theta) = L(\theta) + \Omega(\theta)$$

where.

 $L(\theta)$ = Loss function(we will use mean squared error) = $\frac{1}{6}\sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$ $\therefore L(\theta) = \sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \ \Omega(\theta)$ = Regularization function = $\frac{1}{6}\sum_i \omega(f_i)$

We get,

$$obj = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \omega(f_i)$$

which can be further derived into,

$$obj^{t} = \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left[G_{j}\omega_{j} + \frac{1}{2}(H_{j} + \lambda)\omega_{j}^{2}\right] + \gamma T$$

here in this expression there is two main parameter λ and γ . These two parameter controls the regularization of tree and eventually of model itself. While training model we need to provide this parameter values which is described below parameter value.[3]

5.2 Work Flow

We followed a step-by-step process as below from data preparation and model training to evaluation and prediction.

5.2.1 Data Collection:

In this project, we require a dataset with three key labels: production, area, and yield. Even though searching through various government websites, we couldn't find the necessary data. We then explored similar projects sourced their data and discovered that many obtained their data from either internal databases, while others created their datasets through direct surveys and questionnaires

We found one dataset in Kaggle by Ashutosh Chapagain, which he also found from another source we checked in the source but not found. We couldn't verify the dataset. In conclusion, we downloaded all available yearly reports from the MoAD website and manually entered data. But there was another problem when we finished the manual data entry we found data large gap in data from 1988-1999(10 years), 2012-2013, 2016,2017, and 2021.

Due to the large gap in the data, we couldn't use KNN or regression methods. After reading blogs in the community and consulting with teachers, we discovered two effective methods to address the issue.

- 1. Exponential Smoothing
- 2. Polynomial curve fitting (Degree 3)

1. Exponential Smoothing:

We used the Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing method to fill the missing gap in the data, which does not have seasonality. The results are shown below.

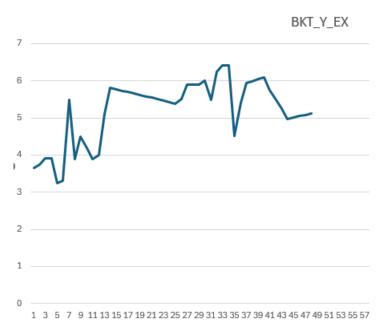


figure 5.2.1: exponential method result

2. Polynomial curve fitting (Degree 3)

We used a 3rd-degree polynomial function which fit nd followed the trend line of data to generate missing data. It show more accuracy than the exponential method with an \mathbb{R}^2 value of 71.



figure 5.2.1: polynomial method result

5.2.2 Data Preprocessing:

In this project, preprocessing raw data was a crucial step in ensuring the effectiveness of time series forecasting for using XGBoost. Since XGBoost is not inherently designed to handle sequential dependencies, it was necessary to transform the raw time series data into a structured format suitable for modeling. We handled missing values, used addictive and multiplicative decomposition to break data into components like seasonality, trend and residual (noise), used Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test to check if data is stationary or not and outliers detection to structure the time series data for XGBoost. We found the preprocessing steps essential for improving model accuracy. XGBoost requires structured input, and these techniques helped optimize learning. The preprocessing was feasible using Python libraries like Pandas and Scikit-learn, and we performed data preparation in Google Colab for efficiency. These preprocessing techniques helped improve the model's ability to learn patterns effectively, ultimately enhancing forecasting accuracy and robustness.

EAR	BKT_A	BKT_P	BKT_Y	KTM_A	KTM_P	KTM_Y	LLT_A	LLT_P	LLT_Y
1975	6000	21930	3.655	13000	48800	3.6	6500	22600	3.477
1976	5293	19742	3.73	12101	43563	3.6	5500	20900	3.8
1977	5060	19750	3.903	14170	54830	3.869	4920	16830	3.421
1978	5560	21700	3.903	12090	46780	3.869	5190	17750	3.42
1979	5370	17360	3.233	11720	37420	3.193	4400	15090	3.43
1980	6500	21450	3.3	11720	35280	3.01	4400	14960	3.4
1981	5220	28700	5.498	11060	52530	4.75	4860	18950	3.899
1982	5230	20340	3.889	11550	42390	3.67	3950	15370	3.891
1983	4830	21730	4.499	11000	49500	4.5	5290	21160	4
1984	5220	21920	4.199	11240	44960	4	5560	18350	3.3
1985	4890	19070	3.9	11200	39200	3.5	4700	15280	3.251
1986	4800	19200	4	11100	40000	3,604	4680	16000	3,419
1987	5190	26460	5.098	10460	43410	4.15	4590	18220	3,969
1988	5070	29410	5.801	10260	49250	4.8	4450	19580	4.4
1989									
1990		31480	6.6	9830	46990	4.78	4200	19740	4.7
1991	4750	24390	5.135	9730	40230			18510	
1992	4710		4,949	9690	39240	4.05		16000	4
1993	5000	25002	5	11160	44280			16800	
1994	5000	25200	5.04	11160	51336			17405	
1995	4700	23030	4.9	11146	45730				4,082
1996	4700	23050	4.904	11140	52410			16950	3.96
1997	4700	23050	4,904	11146	53500	4.8		24434	4,655
1998	4700	23500	5	11000				25200	
1999	4700	25310	5.385	9000	47529	5.281	4200	19740	4.7
2000		25850	5.5	9000				19664	4.682
2001	4577	27010	5.901	8100	46170	5.7		27540	5.46
2002	4577	27010	5.901	8100	46170			25423	5.137
2002	4577	27010	5.901	8100				25423	5.137
2004	4503	27018	5.501	8100				26068	5.6
2004	4480	24610	5,493	8000				23000	
2005	4480	28000	6.25	8000	40800	5.150		22504	4.85
2000	4400	28248	6.42	8000	42800			22645	4.87
2007	4400	28248	6.42	8050	43250	5.373	4650	22645	4.87
2008	4326	19493	4,506	8050	35700			21060	4.5
2009	4320	23220	5.4	8025	41730	5.2		21390	4.5
2010	4252	25220	5.936	8000	46080			26876	
2011		25241	5.930	8000	40080	3.70	4000	200/0	3.799
2012									
2013	4348	26523	6.1	7930	45245	5.706	4680	24804	5.3
2014	4,250		5.741	7,905	40,200				
2015		24,400	5.741	7,905	40,200	5.085	4,650	21,100	4.552
2016									
2017	2 070	10.015	4.00	6.015	26 210	4.38	4 744	10 517	4 47
	-,			6,015					
2019	3,925		5.02	5,959		4.45			4.45
2020	3,979	20,094	5.05	6,015	26,887	4.47	4,211	18,107	4.3
2021									
2022	3,891	19,922	5.12	5,556	25,058	4.51	4,012	17,894	4.46

figure 5.1: Data with missing values

YEAR	BKT_A	BKT_P	BKT_Y	KTM_A	KTM_P	KTM_Y	LLT_A	LLT_P	LLT_Y	
1975	6000	21930	3.655	13000	48800	3.6	6500	22600	3.477	
1976	5293	19742	3.73	12101	43563	3.6	5500	20900	3.8	
1977	5060	19750	3.903	14170	54830	3.869	4920	16830	3.421	
1978	5560	21700	3.903	12090	46780	3.869	5190	17750	3.42	
1979	5370	17360	3.233	11720	37420	3.193	4400	15090	3.43	
1980	6500	21450	3.3	11720	35280	3.01	4400	14960	3.4	
1981	5220	28700	5.498	11060	52530	4.75	4860	18950	3.899	
1982	5230	20340	3.889	11550	42390	3.67	3950	15370	3.891	
1983	4830	21730	4.499	11000	49500	4.5	5290	21160	4	
1984	5220	21920	4.199	11240	44960	4	5560	18350	3.3	
1985	4890	19070	3.9	11200	39200	3.5	4700	15280	3.251	
1986	4800	19200	4	11100	40000	3.604	4680	16000	3.419	
1987	5190	26460	5.098	10460	43410	4.15	4590	18220	3.969	
1988	5070	29410	5.801	10260	49250	4.8	4450	19580	4.4	
1989	4920	30445	6.20049999	10045	48120	4.79000000	4325	19660	4.55000000000	0001
1990	4770	31480	6.6	9830	46990	4.78	4200	19740	4.7	
1991	4750	24390	5.135	9730	40230	4.135	4070	18510	4.548	
1992	4710	23310	4.949	9690	39240	4.05	4000	16000	4	
1993	5000	25002	5	11160	44280	3.968	4000	16800	4.2	
1994	5000	25200	5.04	11160	51336	4.6	4100	17405	4.245	
1995	4700	23030	4.9	11146	45730	4.103	4628	18890	4.082	
1996	4700	23050	4.904	11140	52410	4.705	4280	16950	3.96	
1997	4700	23050	4.904	11146	53500	4.8	5249	24434	4.655	
1998	4700	23500	5	11000	54000	4.909	5250	25200	4.8	
1999	4700	25310	5.385	9000	47529	5.281	4200	19740	4.7	
2000	4700	25850	5.5	9000	45015	5.002	4200	19664	4.682	

figure 5.1: Data with filled missing values

We used rolling window mean with size 3 to fill the missing values above.

```
ADF Statistic: -3.285880233126018
P-Value: 0.01552154742905565
Critical Value (1%): -3.5778480370438146
Critical Value (5%): -2.925338105429433
Critical Value (10%): -2.6007735310095064
```

figure 5.1: Addictive Decomposition

As showen in above image our data only have long term patterns i.e. trend and do not have any seasonality and residual.

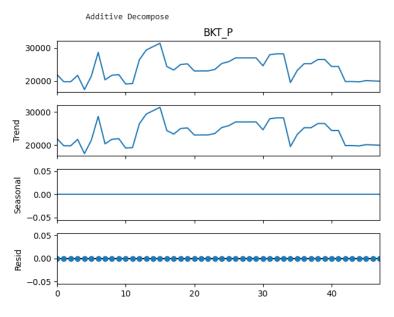


figure 5.1: ADFUller test for stationary

From the image we can see that the p-value is less than 0.05, and the ADF statistic is below the 5% critical value, we can conclude that the dataset is stationary with 95% confidence.

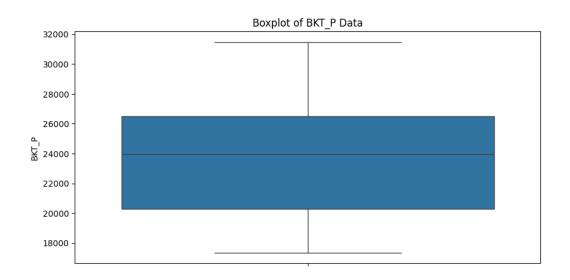


figure 5.1: Boxplot method for outliers

Above boxplot method shows that the there are no extreme ouliers in our data

5.2.3 Features Generations:

In feature generation, we created lag features and rolling window statistics to capture temporal patterns for XGBoost. Lag features helped the model learn dependencies, while rolling windows provided trend and seasonality insights. We found these techniques essential for improving forecasting accuracy. XGBoost requires structured inputs, and feature engineering optimized model learning. The process was feasible using Python libraries like Pandas and NumPy, and we also performed feature generation in Google Colab for efficiency.

	YEAR	BKT_A	BKT_P	BKT_Y	KTM_A	KTM_P	KTM_Y	LLT_A	LLT_P	LLT_Y	sales_log	lag_1	rolling_mean_1	expanding_mean	lag_2
0	1978.0	5560.0	21700.0	3.903	12090.0	46780.0	3.869	5190.0	17750.0	3.420	9.985114	19750.0	19750.0	20780.500000	19742.0
1	1979.0	5370.0	23945.0	3.233	11720.0	37420.0	3.193	4400.0	15090.0	3.430	9.761982	21700.0	21700.0	21413.400000	19750.0
2	1980.0	6500.0	21450.0	3.300	11720.0	35280.0	3.010	4400.0	14960.0	3.400	9.973527	23945.0	23945.0	21419.500000	21700.0
3	1981.0	5220.0	23945.0	5.498	11060.0	52530.0	4.750	4860.0	18950.0	3.899	10.264687	21450.0	21450.0	21780.285714	23945.0
4	1982.0	5230.0	20340.0	3.889	11550.0	42390.0	3.670	3950.0	15370.0	3.891	9.920394	23945.0	23945.0	21600.250000	21450.0
5	1983.0	4830.0	21730.0	4.499	11000.0	49500.0	4.500	5290.0	21160.0	4.000	9.986495	20340.0	20340.0	21614.666667	23945.0
6	1984.0	5220.0	21920.0	4.199	11240.0	44960.0	4.000	5560.0	18350.0	3.300	9.995200	21730.0	21730.0	21645.200000	20340.0
7	1985.0	4890.0	19070.0	3.900	11200.0	39200.0	3.500	4700.0	15280.0	3.251	9.855924	21920.0	21920.0	21411.090909	21730.0
8	1986.0	4800.0	19200.0	4.000	11100.0	40000.0	3.604	4680.0	16000.0	3.419	9.862718	19070.0	19070.0	21226.833333	21920.0
9	1987.0	5190.0	26460.0	5.098	10460.0	43410.0	4.150	4590.0	18220.0	3.969	10.183427	19200.0	19200.0	21629.384615	19070.0

figure 5.1: Data with generated features

5.2.4 Data Splitting:

In data splitting, we separated target and test features to train XGBoost effectively. The first 33 rows was divided into features X_train and X_test with test features and target features respectively, while the remaining rows were assigned to y_train and y_test with test and target features respectively. This ensured proper model training and evaluation. We found data splitting essential for avoiding data leakage and ensuring unbiased performance assessment. The process was feasible using Python libraries like Pandas and Scikit-learn, and we performed data partitioning in Google Colab for efficiency.

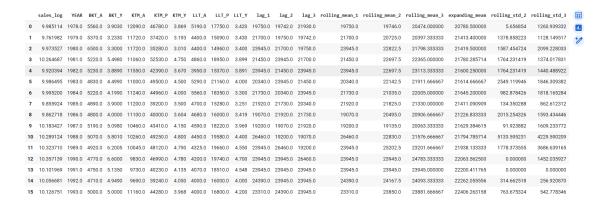


figure 5.1: Splitted test features

	BKT_P
0	21700.0
1	23945.0
2	21450.0
3	23945.0
4	20340.0
5	21730.0
6	21920.0
7	19070.0
8	19200.0
9	26460.0
10	23945.0
11	23945.0

figure 5.1: Splitted target feature

5.2.5 Model Training:

In model training, we used time-based cross-validation and RandomizedSearchCV to

optimize the XGBoost DART model. We split the data using TimeSeriesSplit $n_splits = 5$ to maintain the temporal order. The XGBRegressor was initialized with the DART booster, which helps handle overfitting by dropping trees during training. We defined a parameter grid, including learning_rate, max_depth, min_child_weight, gamma, lambda, rate_drop, skip_drop, n_estimators, subsample, and colsample_bytree, to explore various model configurations.

RandomizedSearchCV performed hyperparameter tuning with 50 iterations, using negative mean squared error for evaluation. After randomized tuning of hyperparameters the best combination of the hyperparameter was then selected using random_search.best_params_ to further train the model with single combination of hyperparameters. We applied feature scaling with scaler_transform X_train, X_test before fitting the model on X_train and y_train , with evaluation on X_test and y_test . The process was feasible using Scikitlearn and XGBoost.

5.2.6 Prediction:

After training, we used the best hyperparameters from RandomizedSearchCV to train an optimized XGBoost model. The XGBRegressor was initialized with random_search.best_params_, ensuring the bestperforming configuration. Before training, we applied scaler_transform X_train, X_test for feature scaling.

The model was trained on X_train and y_train, and predictions were made on X_test. The predicted values were stored in the test dataset under the column prediction. For evaluation, we calculated the mean squared error (MSE) and root mean squared error (RMSE) to assess model accuracy. The process was feasible using Scikitlearn and XGBoost, and execution was performed in Google Colab for efficiency.



figure 5.1: Predicted Data

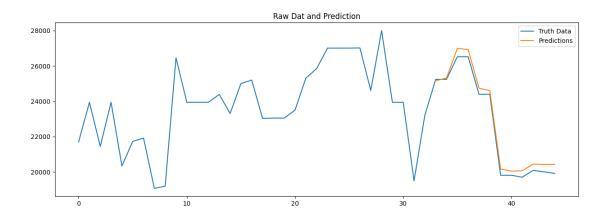


figure 5.1: Plotting original and predicted data

CHAPTER 6 RESULT AND OUTCOMES

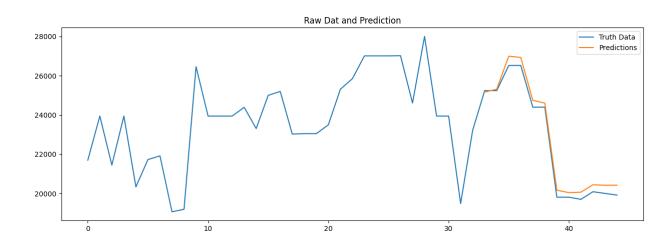


figure 5.1: Plotting original and predicted data

Here, we have plotted prediction of the test values along with the original data

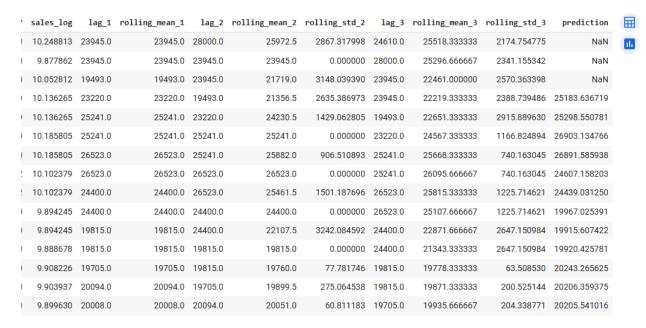


figure 5.1: Dataset with predicted values

Above dataset shows the last 15 rows of data along with original data and all the train features and predicted data. The null values in the prediction column denotes that the those rows were part of train set not the test set.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION

rajesh write conclusion text based on outcome here

7.2 Future Enhancement

The XGBoost model showed a reasonable degree of accuracy in predicting paddy crop yields from a limited data sample that did not include many critical contextual factors such as climatic conditions, soil health, natural disasters, and plant diseases. These factors are major determinants of agricultural yields; their absence in the model might have resulted in inaccuracy in overall predictions. Future development would focus on adding more data related to meteorological conditions like temperature, rainfall, and humidity to make predictions more holistic with regard to environmental determinants of agricultural yields. Adding information related to soil health indicators like soil pH levels the availability of nutrients and organic matter would enable the model to consider soil health as a major driver of plant growth. Adding data related to pest and disease outbreaks and records of natural disasters would make predictions more accurate. Increasing the data used and making suitable adjustments within the model would bring substantial opportunities to make agricultural forecasts more precise and reliable and hence support more sustainable and more resilient farming practices.

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