



# Modelling effective soil depth at field scale from soil sensors and geomorphometric indices

## Modelación de la profundidad efectiva del suelo a escala de lote a partir de sensores del suelo e índices geomorfométricos

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### Abstract

The effective soil depth (ESD) affects both dynamic of hydrology and plant growth. In the southeast of Buenos Aires province, the presence of petrocalcic horizon constitutes a limitation to ESD. The aim of this study was to develop a statistic model to predict spatial patterns of ESD using apparent electrical conductivity at two depths: 0-30 (ECa<sub>30</sub>) and 0-90 (ECa<sub>90</sub>) and geomorphometric indices. To do this, a Random Forest (RF) analysis was applied. RF was able to select those variables according to their predictive potential for ESD. In that order, ECa<sub>90</sub>, catchment slope, elevation and ECa<sub>30</sub> had main prediction importance. For validating purposes, 3035 ESD measurements were carried out, in five fields. ECa and ESD values showed complex spatial pattern at short distances. RF parameters with lowest error (*OOBerror*) were calibrated. RF model simplified which uses main predictors had a similar predictive development to it uses all predictors. Furthermore, RF model simplified had the ability to delineate similar pattern to those obtained from *in situ* measure of ESD in all fields. In general, RF was an effective method and easy to work. However, further studies are needed which add other types of variables importance calculation, greater number of fields and test other predictors in order to improve these results.

**Key words:** Feature selection, Petrocalcic horizon, Random Forest.

### Resumen

La profundidad efectiva del suelo (PES) afecta la dinámica hidrológica y el crecimiento vegetal. En el sudeste bonaerense, una limitante de la PES es la presencia de horizontes petrocálcicos. El objetivo fue desarrollar un modelo estadístico para la predicción de patrones espaciales de PES, a partir de conductividad eléctrica del suelo medida a dos profundidades: 0-30 (CEa<sub>30</sub>) y 0-90 (CEa<sub>90</sub>), e índices geomorfométricos. Para esto, se aplicó Random Forest (RF), el cual permitió seleccionar los predictores de acuerdo a su potencial predictivo para PES. En su orden, CEa<sub>90</sub>, pendiente de captación, elevación y CEa<sub>30</sub> tuvieron mayor capacidad predictiva. Para validar el modelo, 3035 mediciones de PES fueron realizadas, en cinco lotes agrícolas. Las mediciones de CEa y PES reflejan patrones espaciales complejos. Los parámetros de RF con menor error (*OOBerror*) fueron calibrados. El modelo RF simplificado con los predictores más importantes, tuvo un desempeño predictivo similar al modelo RF que utilizó todos los predictores. Además, el modelo RF simplificado tuvo la capacidad de demarcar patrones similares a los mapas obtenidos por mediciones directas de PES, en todos los lotes. En general, RF fue una herramienta efectiva y fácilmente aplicable. Sin embargo, trabajos futuros deben incluir otros tipos de determinación de importancia de variables, mayor cantidad de lotes y probar otros predictores, de modo que se puedan mejorar los resultados obtenidos.

**Palabras clave:** Bosques aleatorios, Horizonte petrocálcico, Selección de variables.

## Introduction

The effective soil depth (ESD) affects the spatial-temporal hydrological dynamic of soil and plant growth (Tesfa *et al.*, 2009). Approximately 40000 Km<sup>2</sup> in the southeastern of Buenos Aires province, region of this study, the ESD is generally limited by the presence of a petrocalcic horizon, locally referred to as “tosca” layer. The tosca usually shows abrupt changes in the thickness, density and depth at very short distances. This complexity determines that conventional methods to describing the spatial pattern of tosca are destructive, expensive and time-consuming. This has limited the precision agriculture spread (Castro Franco *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, there is a need for models with high predictive accuracy of ESD at farm scale, from ancillary information sources (Tesfa *et al.*, 2009).

Lagacherie (2008), reported the soil science could not be isolated from technological developments in last decades. Actually, these advances have been used to collect ancillary soil information fast, easily and accurately. Furthermore, this information is related to factors of soil formation proposed by Jenny (1941). At this respect, recent go on soil sensors and geomorphometric indices derived from digital elevation models (DEM) have demonstrated high predictive accuracy of the spatial variability in soil properties (Corwin & Lesch, 2003).

It is through the go on sensors that is possible to collect numerous of apparent electrical conductivity (ECa) measurements, in an efficient and cost-effective manner (Friedman, 2005). It has been reported that ECa is influenced by texture, organic matter, soil structure, bulk density and cation exchange capacity (Friedman, 2005). However, a few studies have reported the tosca effect on ECa (Corwin & Lesch, 2003). Particularly, in the southeastern of Buenos Aires province there is no evidence of studies which use the ECa to modeling the ESD.

The simultaneous use of geomorphometric indices and ECa have improved the spatial prediction of soil properties (Kitchen *et al.*, 2003). It is widely accepted that topography is considered one of the factors which determines the spatial distribution of soil properties. As a result, numerous studies have reported the predictive potential of these indices on the spatial model of soil properties (Lagacherie, 2008). However, there is no evidence about the simultaneous use of geomorphometric indices and ECa to modeling ESD limited by tosca.

The aim of this study was to develop a statistical model that can predict spatial patterns of ESD limited by tosca in the southeastern

conditions, using both ECa measurements and geomorphometric indices. To get this aim, “*Random Forest*” algorithm was applied. From our results, we hope to optimize digital soil mapping process at field scale.

## Material and methods

### Experimental fields

A total of 5 farm fields located in the southeastern of the Buenos Aires province were selected to explore the relationships among effective soil depth and those predictor variables related to factors of soil formation (Figure 1, Table 1). The area studied was 280 hectares. The soils are classified as Typic Argiudoll and Petrocalcic Argiudoll (USDA Taxonomy) (INTA, 2010).

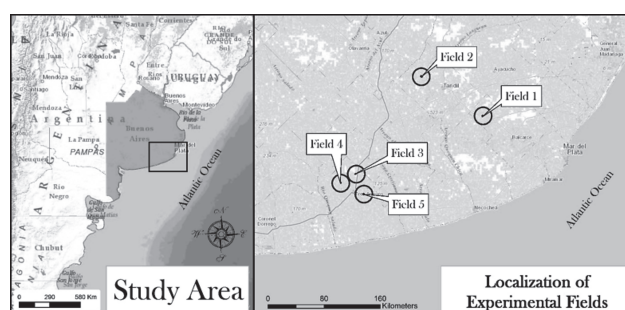


Figure 1. Location of study area and experimental fields

Source: ©OpenStreetMap.

### Effective soil depth and site variables collection

The ESD up to the tosca layer was the variable to predict. To validating the model efficiency, the ESD was measured in each field. A total of 3035 soil depth measurements were carried out between 2010 and 2012. Each measurement was carried out using a soil hydraulic sampler (Giddings Machine Co., Fort Collins, CO) on a 30-m grid resolution. Table 1, shows the description of site variables.

The numerical calculation of predictor variables was carried out using different geomatic tools. Elevation was measured using a DGPS (Trimble R3 Navigation Limited, USA). A digital elevation model (DEM) was obtained from elevation data. From each DEM, geomorphometric indices were calculated using SAGA-GIS v2.0™ Terrain Analysis tool (SAGA, 2012). The geomorphometric indices were selected according to their capability for representing relief geometry, hydrological features and spatial topographical context in each field. On the one hand, slope and aspect are the primary geomorphometric indices related to basic

relief parameters. On the other hand, catchment slope, drainage areas, topographic wetness index (TWI), SAGA wetness index (SWI), stream power index (SPI) and loss soil factor (LS\_Factor), are secondary geomorphometric indices related to surface hydrology and spatial topographical context. A detailed description of these algorithms can be found in Hengl & Reuter (2008).

E<sub>Ca</sub> data were collected using Veris 3100® (Veris Technologies, Salina, KS, USA). This measurement was carried out in a series of parallel transects spaced 20 m apart (Corwin & Lesch, 2003). The six electrodes configuration is referred to as Wenner array, which is a commonly used on a measurement of soil electrical resistivity (Corwin & Lesch, 2003). Veris 3100, have allowed georeference measurements at 0-30 cm (E<sub>Ca\_30</sub>) and 0-90 cm (E<sub>Ca\_90</sub>), simultaneously.

**Table 1.** Description of site predictors

Site Properties		Description
Apparent Soil Electrical Conductivity	0 - 30 cm Depth (E <sub>Ca30</sub> )	Apparent Soil Electrical conductivity in mS * m <sup>-1</sup> to 0-30 cm depth range using Veris 3100 EC® (Corwin and Lesch, 2003).
	0 - 90 cm Depth (E <sub>Ca90</sub> )	Apparent Soil Electrical conductivity in mS * m <sup>-1</sup> to 0-90 cm depth range using Veris 3100 EC® (Corwin and Lesch, 2003).
Basic Land Surface Parameters	Elevation (m)	Elevation in meters
	Slope (%)	Slope gradient in percent, for each grid cell in an digital elevation model (DEM)
	Aspect (°)	Slope orientation in degrees for each grid cell in an digital elevation model (DEM)
Hydrologic Parameters	Catchment Slope (Catch_Slope)	Average gradient above flow path (percent). Is related with surface runoff rate and drainage density (Hengl and Reuter, 2008).
	Catchment Area (Catch_Area)	Is a measure of the contributing area. It can be defined as area of all cells upslope that will provide flow to this cell and the area of the cell itself (Hengl and Reuter, 2008).
	Topographic Wetness Index (TWI)	Takes into account both a local slope geometry and site location combining slope and catchment area. It is a grid cell that describe the propensity for a site to be saturated to the surface given its contribution area and local slope characteristics (Hengl and Reuter, 2008).
	SAGA Wetness Index (SWI)	Similar to the TWI. It is based on a modified catchment area calculation. Has higher potential soil wetness than the TWI to grid cells situated in valley floors with a small vertical distance to a channel (Hengl and Reuter, 2008).
	Stream Power Index (SPI)	Describes the potential flow erosion at the given point in a digital elevation model (DEM) (Hengl and Reuter, 2008).
Loss Soil Factor (LS_Factor)	Grid cell that represent the effect of topography on soil loss. Combines the effects of the slope length and slope gradient	

ESD and predictors were computed with ordinary kriging method using ArcGIS v10. Based on this interpolation, a map was carried out at a spatial resolution of 10 m.

### Ensemble of general data set

A dataset was ensemble using all predictors. To facility the comparison among fields, elevation parameter was transformed. The transformation consisted of subtracting at all elevation values, the lowest one for each field. The dataset was prepared as follows: (i) design and confection of a 20 m regular grid for each field, using spatial analyst extension in ArcGis 10.0™, (ii) values extraction of variable predictor at each grid point, using the function -extract multi values to point-spatial analyst extension in ArcGIS 10.0. and (iii) unify all points forming the dataset.

The dataset was ensemble using 6145 training dataset, obtained from predictors for all fields. Then, the training dataset was randomly divided into two subsets: a calibration dataset (CD, n=4300) and a validation dataset (VD, n=1845). The CD was used to model the relationship among ESD and predictors, while the VD was used to test the accuracy of the models prediction.

### Variable selection and model simplification

A variable selection procedure and the model simplification involved: (i) calibration of “*Random Forest*” (RF) algorithm, (ii) quantification of the predictors importance, (iii) variables selection and (iv) simplification of predictive model. This procedure is usually used for variable selection in high dimensional issues (Genuer *et al.*, 2010).

The aim of RF calibration is to adjust the parameters of the algorithm in order to develop an optimal predictive model (Guyon & Elisseeff, 2003). This calibration was carried out in two steps. Firstly, correlation among predictors was calculated. Secondly, the parameters of RF were estimated: number of trees in the forest (*ntree*) and number of predictors evaluated at each node (*mtry*). The RF calibration procedure was carried out using “*RandomForest*” library of R v3.1.2.™. RF calibrated *ntree* and *mtry* parameters using “bootstrap” as method for error estimation (Breiman, 2001). This consists of using several random samples (*bootstrap samples*) from the CD. Then, RF builds a tree for each bootstrap sample. At each bootstrap sample  $X_i$ , one-third of data are left out of it and not used in the construction of the *k*-th tress, so-called out of bag (*out-of-bag* (OOB)). OOB estimate of error rate ( $OOB_{EER}$ ) is estimated from aggregating trees in the forest. This  $OOB_{EER}$  is calculated following equation 1.

$$OOB_{EER} = \left(\frac{1}{ntree}\right) \sum_{i=1}^{ntree} [y_i - y_{OOB}(X_i)]^2$$

Equation 1

Where,  $y_i$  is the initial ensemble error classification on OOB. As a bootstrap sample is added, an OOB error ( $y_{OOB}(X_i)$ ) is estimated and repeating  $k$ -times. Those  $mtry$  and  $ntree$  which have the lowest  $OOB_{EER}$  should be selected for the model (Breiman, 2001).

The importance classification for predictors was carried out using the procedure known as “permutation accuracy importance”. Details are described in Strobl *et al.* (2009). “permutation accuracy importance” is the most adequate procedure for classifying importance variables when RF is used (Breiman, 2001). Results were graphically represented using “party” R package v3.1.2.

To reduce the number of predictors without losing predictive accuracy, the model is simplified (Xiong *et al.*, 2012). This procedure is running in two steps. First, a prediction model was computed considering all predictors. The purpose was to determine the effect on predictive RF model performance by reducing the number of variables. Second, it was evaluated the RF model simplified with CD and VD.

We used iterative elimination to describe the predictive accuracy of RF model (Xiong *et al.*, 2012). To do this, we used “caret” R package v3.1.2. Coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) and Root mean square error (RMSE) for each model were calculated to compare the overall accuracy of RF models while applying iterative elimination. The RF simplified model was applied to estimate the effective soil depth for each field. Then, a regression analysis was carried out among effective soil depth observed and predictive values. This regression was applied to CD and VD. Finally, the prediction performance of RF simplified was compared with a visual analysis of effective soil depth maps generated for each field.

## Results and discussion

Table 2, shows mean values and coefficient of variation (CV) for each predictor.

A total of 65% of ESD values were among 75 and 100 cm. Lower ESD means were observed in fields 3 and 4. Ranges of ECa were associated to non-saline soils conditions for all fields (Rhoades, 1996). According to their CV, ECa and ESD seemed to have a similar tendency. Fields 1 and 2, had a lower CV. Both are located in a hill zone, whereas fields 3, 4 and 5 are in a plain area.

Our results suggest that spatial pattern of ESD are complex at field scale. At his respect, Amiotti *et al.* (2001), reported that complex soil patterns exist at field scale in the southeast of Buenos Aires province. It is due to the soil formation period was characterized up to three different pedogenic cycles. On the other hand, Pazos & Mestelan (2002), demonstrated that complex spatial relationships exist between elevation and ESD up to tosca layer. In general, our results confirm the complexity for tosca spatial pattern at field scale, in all fields studied.

**Table 2.** Statistical summary of site predictors for each experimental field

Field	Effective Detph <sup>†</sup>		Elevation		ECa <sub>30</sub> <sup>‡</sup>		ECa <sub>90</sub> <sup>‡</sup>	
	Mean (cm)	CV (%)	Mean (cm)	CV (%)	Mean (mS*m <sup>-1</sup> )	CV (%)	Mean (mS*m <sup>-1</sup> )	CV (%)
1	101.90	13.96	162.50	1.95	18.09	16.57	26.31	13.90
2	103.03	9.05	200.42	2.72	25.80	7.84	22.41	7.21
3	64.86	34.35	158.49	2.19	24.36	20.55	27.15	21.58
4	62.20	33.48	156.38	0.36	28.84	13.53	27.56	22.78
5	106.83	18.32	133.09	3.50	20.47	9.54	19.97	5.57

<sup>†</sup>. Effective soil depth up to Petrocalcic horizon

<sup>‡</sup>. ECa<sub>30</sub>: Apparent Electrical Conductivity 0 - 30 cm depth

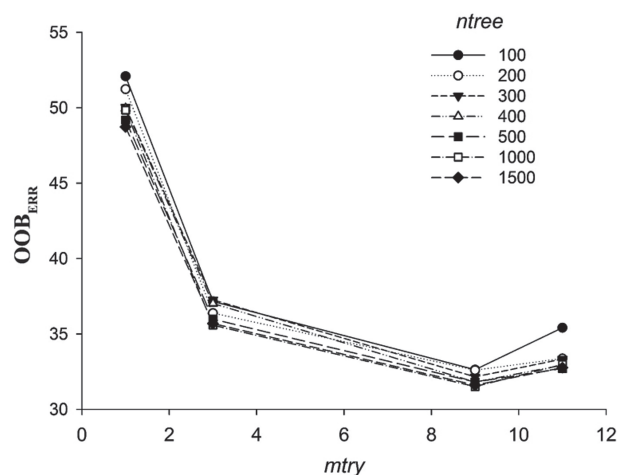
ECa<sub>90</sub>: Apparent Eletrical Conductivity 0-90 cm depth

Table 3, shows the properties for each soil map unit and its proportional soil series composition for each field. This information could be used as complement information about understanding the spatial patterns of predictors.

A total of nine soil cartography units are spatially corresponded to experimental fields. General characteristics for each soil series can be found in INTA (2010). 53% of soil series are Petrocalcic Argiudolls (USDA Taxonomy). The others are Typic Argiudolls. The most important difference between them is the presence or not of petrocalcic horizon, also depth and thickness in the argillic horizon (INTA, 2010).

## Parameters calibration of “Random Forest” algorithm

Figure 2, summarizes the simultaneous evaluation  $OOB_{EER}$  from  $mtry$  and  $ntree$  tested. It was evident the effect of  $mtry$  increment on  $OOB_{EER}$ . When  $mtry$  increased,  $OOB_{EER}$  decreased from 50% ( $mtry=1$ ) to 32% ( $mtry=9$ ). Changes in  $OOB_{EER}$  indicate the importance of additional variables. RM model with  $mtry$  higher than 9 incremented  $OOB_{EER}$  and can generate an over-fit model (Breiman, 2001). The effect of  $ntree$  was lower than  $mtry$ . RF models with  $ntree$  higher than 500 showed more stability.



**Figure 2.** Relationship between  $OOB_{ERR}$  and quantity of predictors per node ( $mtry$ ) for different regression trees ( $ntree$ )

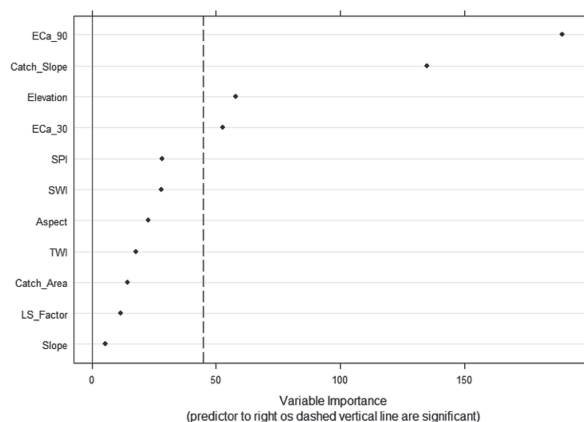
In general, our results indicated that  $mtry$  equal to 9 and  $ntree$  equal to 500 are those parameters of RF model which fit best, in order to achieve an improvement in overall accuracy of ESD.

**Table 3.** Soil Mapping Unit for each experimental field

Field	Soil Mapping Unit	Soil Series	%	Soil Classification (USDA)
1	MP11	Balcarce	40	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
		Mar del Plata	60	Typic Argiudoll
	MP24	Mar del Plata	70	Typic Argiudoll
		Tres Esquinas	30	Typic Argiudoll
2	SP6	Azul	30	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
		Cinco Cerros	25	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
		Sierra padres	45	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
3	TA48	Tres Arroyos	80	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
		Semillero Buck	20	Typic Argiudoll
4	Lpd11	Laprida	50	Typic Argiudoll
		Tres Arroyos	50	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
5	CMI1	Claudio Molina	50	Typic Argiudoll
		El Gavilan	50	Typic Argiudoll
	Lpd13	Laprida	70	Typic Argiudoll
		Tres Arroyos	30	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
	RG6	Rancho Grande	60	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
		Miscelanea	40	Petrocalcic Argiudoll
Lpd9	Laprida	60	Typic Argiudoll	
		Tres Arroyos	40	Petrocalcic Argiudoll

### Predictors importance for effective soil depth

Figure 3, shows the results of “*permutation accuracy importance*” use.



**Figure 3.** Predictors importance for effective soil depth data sensitivity to %IncMSE generated by Random Forest algorithm

“*Permutation accuracy importance*” classifies the variables importance according to difference in prediction before and after a variable was permuted to all  $ntree$ . The average of this difference in all  $ntree$ , determine the absolute value of predictor importance (Strobl *et al.*, 2009).

Our results suggested that the limit absolute value between relevant and irrelevant variables is 45 (dashed line - Figure 3). According to that, those most important predictors of effective depth were ECa\_90, catchment slope, elevation and ECa\_30.

Our results showed that ECa could have better predictive accuracy than geomorphometric indices to model ESD. The complexity of spatial pattern of predictors may be related to abrupt changes at short distances for depth, strengthen and thickness in petrocalcic and argillic horizons. According to Dietrich *et al.* (2014), it is possible that ECa would have affected by: (i) high spatial variability of ESD and (ii) changes in  $CaCO_3$  density in the petrocalcic horizon. Generally, depth toscas present lower  $CaCO_3$  density (Pazos & Mestelan, 2002). These changes affect soil hydrological dynamic and thus soil electrical conductance.

Argillic horizon may affect ECa values in mainly two ways. The first, due to the percentage relation between argillic horizon and those underlying and overlying; the second would be attributed to the simultaneous presence of petrocalcic and argillic horizons. This was assessed by Pazos & Mestelan (2002), who reported that the presence of toscas affects either depth and thickness of argillic horizons.

In that context, ECa may possibly be affected by the dynamic of spatial patterns of petrocalcic and

argillic horizons. Therefore, ECa can be a potential predictor for determining spatial patterns of ESD.

The importance of catchment slope in the ESD prediction was expectable. This is related to water holding capacity, runoff rate and water drainage (Wilson & Gallant, 2000). It is widely known that these hydrological characteristics are directly related to ESD. Despite that, none evidence was found which had mentioned catchment slope as predictor of ESD. Therefore, this can be a novel result.

**Simplification of “Random Forest” model**

Figure 4, shows the changes on prediction performance of RF model whereas predictors were iteratively eliminated. That RF model which only uses ECa\_90, catchment slope, elevation and ECa\_30 had a similar performance as one with all predictors. However, this is not indicating that the rest of predictor lack of prediction accuracy. It would be probably that prediction accuracy could decrease since ECa\_90, catchment slope, elevation and ECa\_30 had a better prediction performance in the model (Xiong *et al.*, 2012).

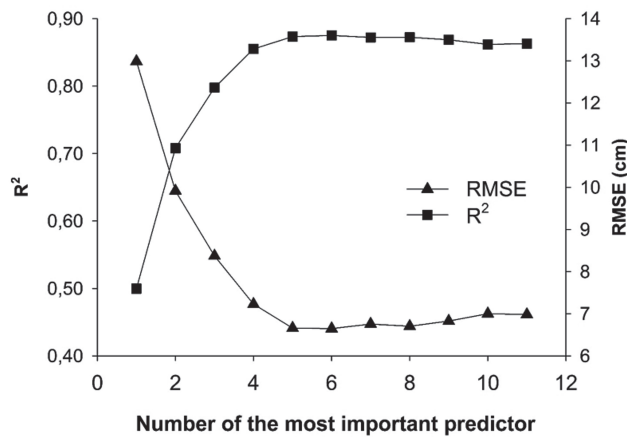


Figure 4. Coefficient of determination (R<sup>2</sup>) and root mean square error (RMSE) of Random Forest once less important predictors were removed.

**Prediction of effective soil depth from simplified model**

Figure 5, shows the prediction performance of simplified RF model applied to CD and VD. Our results suggested that simplified RF model demonstrated a potential application to ESD prediction. However, its use in others fields is limited for different reasons: (i) a high variability in depth, thickness and CaCO<sub>3</sub> density of tosca at short distance, (ii) the relationship between tosca and argillic horizon and (iii) the anthropic effect. It is widely known that the southeast of Buenos Aires province is

an outstanding zone due which income depends on agricultural production. Due to that, common suitability land processes such as terraces, crop management zones and drainages had been valuable. Generally, these could affect the spatial pattern of ECa as well as geomorphometric indices and therefore, increase error of simplified RF model developed.

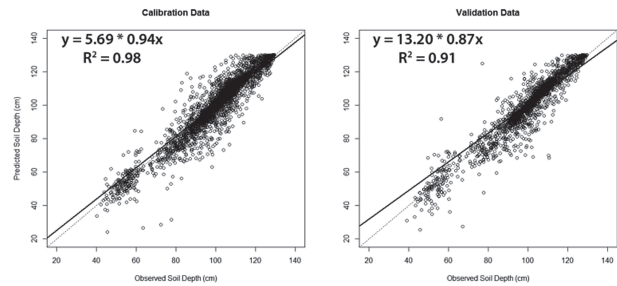


Figure 5. Random Forest model applied for calibration dataset (CD) (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.98, P<0.01) and validation dataset (VD) (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.91, P<0.01).

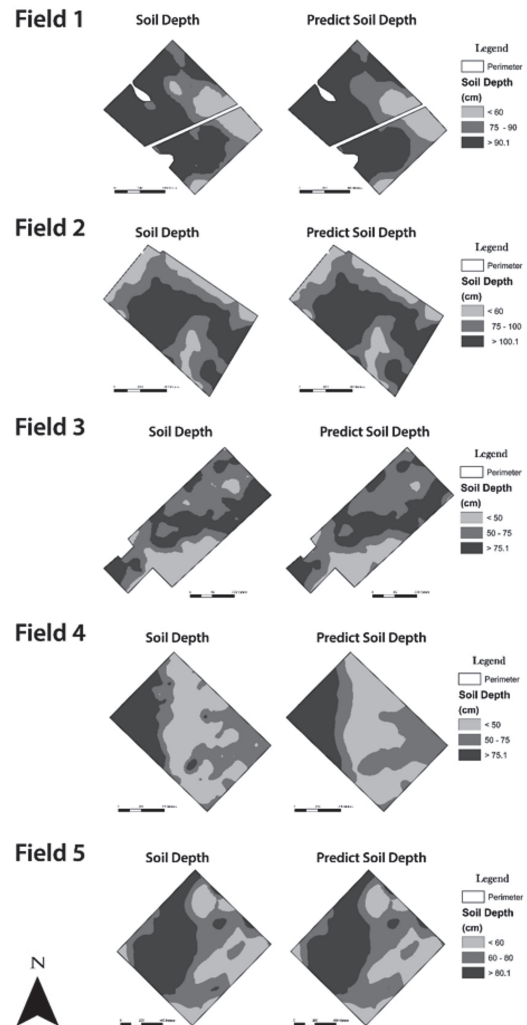


Figure 6. Visual comparison between effective soil depth map and estimated from Random Forest model for all fields

Figure 6, shows maps of effective depth made from simplified RF model development and ESD interpolation. Simplified RF model determined similar spatial patterns of ESD as interpolation technique did. Based on our result, we could validate that RF may be an effective and practical tool to select and predict ESD. However, although this RF model would not have the same performance for all fields, further studies will improve that.

## Conclusion

In this study, RF algorithm was used to selecting predictors and developing a simplified model to predict ESD at field scale through soil sensor and geomorphometric indices information. Despite the complexity of toasca spatial patterns, our results show that simplified RF model was an effective and practical tool to predicting spatial patterns of ESD at field scale.

Either toasca and catchment slope are directly correlated to soil hydrological processes and thus could be related to ECa spatial pattern. The RF model which only used ECa\_90, catchment slope, elevation and ECa\_30 had a similar performance as one considering all predictors. Furthermore, spatial predictions of ESD achieved from simplified RF model were similar to those obtained using interpolation techniques in each field.

RF can be effective to modeling ESD in the southeastern of Buenos Aires condition. However, further studies should be required: (i) to assess relationship among predictors and ESD using a different variable selection method from RF; (ii) to examine specific correlations among ECa, catchment slope and ESD; and (iii) to include others predictors.

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