

REVIEW OF CROP YIELD ESTIMATION USING MACHINE LEARNING AND DEEP LEARNING TECHNIQUES

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Abstract. The agriculture sector is subjected to constant challenge of yield deficit due to rising population, improper resource management and shrinking agricultural land. Advance yield estimates help in systematic planning to reduce such losses. However, prediction of accurate estimates is still an open challenge due to geographical diversity, crop diversity & crop area. Recently non-destructive approach has gained attention due to its robustness and provides easy availability of data from heterogeneous resources compared to its counterpart; destructive approach which is computational, resource intensive and hence less utilized. This paper conducts a detailed study on utilization of non-destructive approach to estimate yield taking into account, input feature, and methodology. We consider five major observations namely, data acquisition, pre-processing techniques, features, methodology, and result. Moreover, we summarize analysis of each observation, extract most prominent technique, the adopted methods, and finally recommends integration of different models that can be explored to improve accuracy.

Key words: Crop yield estimation, vegetation indices, counting, regression, segmentation, machine learning, deep learning

1. Introduction. Steep population growth has led to a rise in food demand over the last few decades. Undernourished and hunger counts have been consistently increasing as per FAO statistics [1]. Major agendas of the FAO included improving the quality and quantity and minimizing the losses of agricultural produce. Fig. 1.1(a) depicts the ratio of crop production to the population from the year 2015 to 2020, which shows an increasing trend, while crop production is not increasing as per yield requirement [2]. Fig. 1.1(b) depicts the year-wise production of major crops viz. Soyabean, Maize, Wheat and Rice [3]. Production losses and wastage is estimated to be about 600 million tons worldwide [4].

Accurate and advanced crop yield estimates are required for planning and gap analysis. This task involved obtaining potential and actual yield data of a particular crop. Potential yield y_P is obtained when a crop is grown in an ideal condition with optimal nutrient supply and an adapted environment without any stress [5]. Actual yield y_A is obtained when the crop is subjected to realistic conditions. The difference between potential and actual yield gap δy_G as shown in Equation 1.1.

$$\delta y_G = y_P - y_A \tag{1.1}$$

Destructive and non-destructive approaches were adopted to obtain actual yield value, which is still an open challenge. It depends on factors like regional crop cultivation techniques, climatic conditions, meteorological, physiological, growth factors, quality of the crop, etc. Several such factors were identified and categorized into qualitative and quantitative factors. Agrometeorological data like irrigation, soil data, climate, and soil nutrients were majorly incorporated into yield estimation models. Factors such as VI, LAI, and phenotype evapotranspiration were accommodated into quantitative data-oriented estimation models. There was a need to gather accurate agrometeorological data. Country-wise, meteorological and agricultural departments contributed to this task. These RS data obtained from the specialized sensor were also made available. The availability of diverse data led to various model designs ranging from traditional CCE to modern AI-based models. The survey focuses on the non-destructive approach adopted to calculate the yield y_A .

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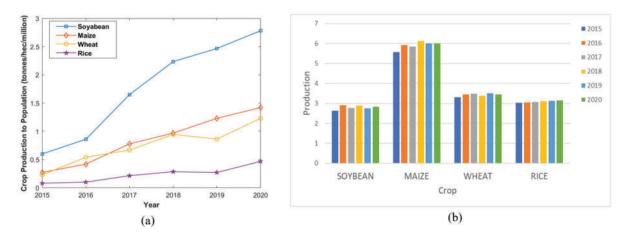


Fig. 1.1: (a) Crop production versus population (b) Year-wise crop production

Ref	Summary	Data Model A B C D 1 2 3			əl					
nei	Summary	Α	В	С	D	1	2	3	4	5
[6]	RS with regression to estimate yield		\checkmark	\checkmark			\checkmark		\checkmark	
[7]	ML algorithms along with RS data		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark			\checkmark
[8]	Brief overview of ML yield model	\checkmark						\checkmark	\checkmark	
[8]	Discussed ML & RS integration		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark	
[10]	ML applicability in yield estimation with climatic		\checkmark	\checkmark					\checkmark	
	parameters as input									
[12]	Summarized statistical and simulation models		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark				
[13]	DL and counting based model	\checkmark						\checkmark		\checkmark
[14]	A combination of ML and DL algorithms with ma-		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark				\checkmark	\checkmark
	jor focus on ML									
[15]	DL and image-based yield	\checkmark								\checkmark
[16]	ML with specific focus on palm oil yield		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark				\checkmark	
Our paper		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark

Table 1.1: Comparative study of yield estimation surveys with our survey

1.1. Scope of the survey. This section covers a summary of the existing review articles about yield estimation. Johnson *et al.*, considered popular ML models with ANN and regression, BP-ANN [6]. Chivasa *et al.*, conducted similar studies [7], using meteorological & environmental data and suggested to include RS data into ML model. Liakos *et al.*, reviewed application of ML into agricultural sector [8]. Chlingaryan *et al.* further explored RS with ML, stating the need for a feature-rich dataset and advanced ML algorithms [9]. Elavarasan and Vincent studied environment and climate data. They studied the applicability of unsupervised and supervised ML algorithms with climatic parameters [10]. Kamilaris & Prenafeta-Boldu explored DL architectures, and their applicability to sub-areas of precision agriculture was stated [11]. Brasso summarized statistical, and simulation models and Liu [12]. Fruit detection and localization using the counting technique to estimate was reviewed by Koirala *et al.*, [13]. Counting-based techniques was also studied by Maheswari *et al.*[15], Agrometeorological and RS by-products as input features was surveyed by Van Klompenburg *et al.*, [14]. Rashid *et al.* reviewed ML-based models along with their advantage and disadvantage [16] for palm oil prediction. A brief comparative study and our scope are summarized in Table 1.1

1.2. Contribution of the Survey. In this survey, a systematic review of yield estimation is presented. The entire paper collection is segregated into five different models based on the input data and methods. We

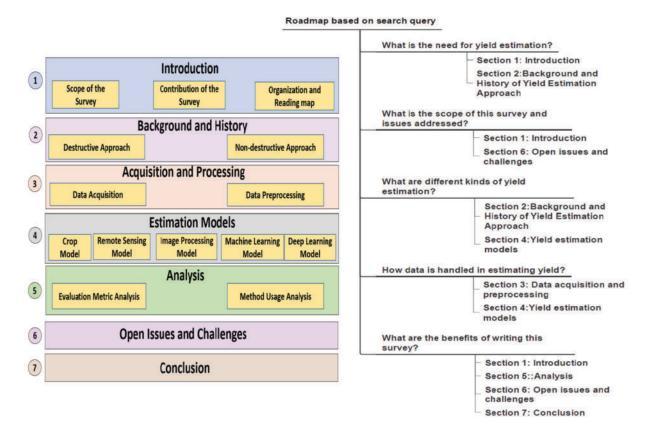


Fig. 1.2: (a): Organisation and reading map of the survey (b): Query based reading map

have highlighted the open issues and challenges faced in this research area. In line with the above statements, the major contributions made in our survey are enlisted as follows.

- A detailed description of data acquisition, preprocessing and taxonomy with comprehensive coverage of numeric and non-numeric data.
- Categorized each paper based on the input feature and the method and covered the growth of this field from traditional destructive approaches to modern non-destructive approaches.
- Presented overview of standard analysis to verify the results with their usage summary with the count. This provides an insight into the choice of evaluation metric and would aid in model designing.
- We have addressed research challenges and concluded with solution insights into open issues and challenges.

1.3. Organization and Reading Map. Standard sources such as Google Scholar, Scopus, ScienceDirect, SpringerLink and Web of Science were looked for papers. Data acquisition, preprocessing, input type, method and result analysis were significant observations that were used for selection. Based on these observations, the papers were grouped into five models: CM, RS, IP, ML and DL. Further, it was observed that the critical input features of one model were integrated into other models to obtain better results which is a significant inclusion in our survey.

A reading map consisting of the paper's complete visual layout and a query-based reading map to address readers' crucial questions is shown in Fig. 1.2. Table 1.2 list the abbreviations used in our survey.

2. Background and History of Yield Estimation Approach. Based on sampling schemes adopted, the approach is categorized into destructive and non-destructive approaches [17]. Different models were designed

Abbrev.	Meaning	Abbrev.	Meaning
AI	Artificial Intelligence	NDVI	Normalized Difference Vegetation In-
			dex
ANN	Artificial Neural Network	NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Ad-
			ministration
AVHRR	Advanced Very High Resolution Ra-	NRMSE	Normalized Root Mean Square Error
	diometer		
BP-ANN	Back Propagation Artificial Neural	RMSE	Root Mean Square Error
	Network		
CCE	Crop Cutting Experiment	ROI	Region of Interest
CM	Crop Model	RRMSE	Relative Root Mean Square Error
CP-ANN	Counter Propagation Artificial Neural	RS	Remote Sensing
	Networks		
DL	Deep Learning	RS	Remote Sensing
DVI	Difference Vegetation Index	RVI	Ratio Vegetation Index
EVI	Enhanced Vegetation Index	SKN	Supervised Kohonen Networks
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization	SMLR	Stepwise Multiple Linear Regression
GI	Greenness Index	SNN	Semiparametric Neural Network
HRV	High Resolution Vertical	SPOT	French: Satellite Pour l'Observation de
			la Terre
IP	Image Processing	TCI	Temperature Condition Index
LAI	Leaf Area Index	VCI	Vegetation Condition Index
MAE	Mean Absolute Error	VHI	Vegetation Health Indices
MAPE	Mean Absolute Percentage Error	VI	Vegetation Indices
ML	Machine Learning	WDRVI	Wide Dynamic Range Vegetation Index
MODIS	Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectro-	WHR	Weighted Histogram Regression
	radiometer		
NAIP	National Agriculture Imagery Program	WOFOST	WOrld FOod STudies

Table 1.2: Abbreviations used in the survey

and experimented with for each approach, as shown in Fig. 1.3. Each model used a subset of data gathered from heterogeneous sources. Researchers have explored several methods ranging from traditional field surveys, and CCE [18] to modern DL [82] to provide a solution. A detailed discussion of these models and the methods adopted in each model is covered in the subsequent sections.

2.1. Destructive approach. The destructive approach means clearing a portion of the field for sampling or harvesting the crop to obtain estimates. The approach is further segregated into the pre-harvest and post-harvest models. Pre-harvest model provides yield estimates before actual harvest, such as CCE. A physical field examination with a collection of samples for analysis is done in CCE [20]. Yield is estimated and extrapolated to the entire crop region during sample analysis as illustrated in Fig. 1.3. Yield details are obtained from market records post-harvest. Both methods provide accurate estimates. However, this approach is resource intensive. A considerable workforce and micro-level planning are required for CCE site identification and market surveys. Site visits and market surveys in the post-harvest method are difficult due to inherent variations in market structure, geographical diversity, and biodiversity [21]. Further, estimates are available at the later stage or after harvest, which affects the planning. Hence, the destructive approach is less used and is not covered in our survey.

2.2. Non-destructive approach. Several visual and analytical models were designed and studied using data from heterogeneous sources such as past yield data, environmental, meteorological, physiological and visual data. This approach provided advanced estimates without undergoing any destructive process such as harvesting, hence the non-destructive method. Non-destructive offers advanced estimates without experiencing time-consuming market surveys, CCE site identification and experimentation at a macro level. But is highly

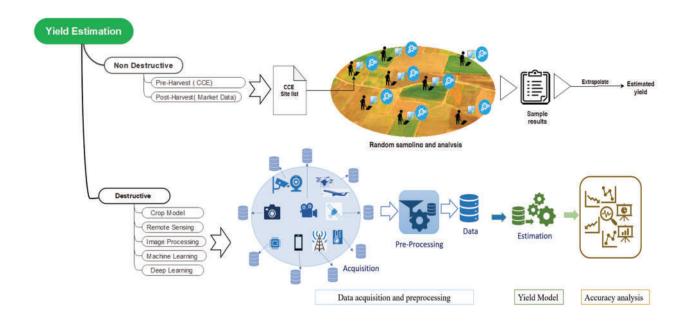


Fig. 1.3: Different yield estimation approaches

dependent on accurate data. The study was initialized with numerical data. However, the availability of data from heterogeneous sources and technological progress allowed researchers to explore the possibility of including them in yield models. The entire non-destructive approach is summarized into three generic phases as shown in Fig. 1.3.

3. Data acquisition and preprocessing. To estimate yield, data plays a vital role. This section covers the detailed taxonomy of data acquisition and processing. A brief specification of their usage in different models is also covered in this section.

3.1. Data acquisition. The data acquisition process involves data collection. Site-specific data are recorded using various devices. Gathered data is categorized into numeric & non-numeric. Numeric data is segregated into meteorological, environmental and economic [22], [23]. The data combines categorized or continuous data and provides qualitative and quantitative features that can be used as input. Temperature, humidity, sunshine, and precipitation are widely used meteorological data. Environmental parameters include soil properties, crop type, harvest information, acreage, phenology, & irrigation. Economic data includes market statistics such as trading prices and harvest information about crop gathering and production. Machine learning [39], [40], crop models [41] widely use this data for estimate prediction.

Non-numeric data include images and remote sensing data products. RGB images acquired from the camera are used in image processing and deep learning models [42]. Specialized cameras such as LED [43], thermal [44], and monocular high-resolution camera devices [45] were used to capture images. Other non-numeric data are acquired from remote sensors. The most widely used remote sensing products were NIR, R(Red), and B(Blue) bands to compute values like NDVI and EVI. Data was gathered from various satellites with remote sensors such as SPOT [46], MODIS [47], Terra and Aqua [48], Landsat [49] and IRS [20]. The computation of NDVI [50] and EVI [51] for MODIS data is shown in Equation 3.1 and Equation 3.2 where β NIR, β R, β B and G represents NIR, R, B band and gain factor respectively. A sample image was acquired from earth explorer, and VI were computed. Apart from these AVHRR NOAA [52], hyperspectral imagery [53] and multispectral images [39] were also used. Fig. 3.1 illustrates the taxonomy of data.

Model	Dataset	Type of data	Preprocessing techniques
	source		
CM	[66]-[69]	Meteorological, envi-	Recalibration, ensemble, Kalman filter, calibration of
		ronmental, economi-	data using standard equations, atmospheric corrections,
		cal	normalization
RS	[66], [70]-[72]	Environmental, im-	GA for optimization, radiometric corrections, atmo-
		age	spheric corrections, NDVI, LAI, EVI calculation, spatial
			sampling, recalibration of parameters, spectral clustering,
			ROI extraction, manual detection of boundary mask.
IP	[43], [44], [59],	Image, economical	Color conversion, grey scaling, shape analysis, segmen-
	[80]		tation, color, texture detection, edge detection, threshold-
			ing, histogram processing, histogram equalization, blur-
			ring, laplacian, sobel, symmetry analysis
ML	[73]-[76]	Meteorological, envi-	Replacing missing values by mean, median, removal or
		ronmental, economi-	merging certain column data, normalization (Z-score,
		cal	mean, standard deviation)
DL	[66], [76]-[79]	Image, economical	Pixel annotation, spectral processing, cropping ROI, an-
			notation, segmentation of pixel, augmentation, PCA, his-
			togram processing

Table 3.1: Data acquisition and preprocessing details

Several datasets are available as specified in the dataset source column of Table 3.1. Meteorological, environmental and economic data can be obtained from these sources. Entire data or a few subsets of features after required preprocessing can be used in CM, RS and ML models. IP and DL model mostly uses image data. Due to the expensive data gathering process, most of these data are unavailable as open access.

$$NDVI = \frac{\beta NIR - \beta R}{\beta NIR + \beta R}$$
(3.1)

$$EVI = G \frac{\beta NIR - \beta R}{\beta NIR + 6\beta R - 7.5\beta B + 1}$$
(3.2)

3.2. Data preprocessing. The data had to be preprocessed for several reasons, such as missing values, outliers, etc. Crop and ML models used numerical data such as climate, weather information, soil data, and meteorological data. These data were obtained from standard data sources released by country or state such as USDA, IOWA [55], Illinois [40], Minnesota university [56] etc. The data obtained from such sources might contain missing data or need to undergo recalibration. Data normalization techniques such as Z-score, mean, and standard deviations [22] were used to fix the values in the required range. Atmospheric corrections filters such as Kalman filters [55], [57] are also applied numeric data. RGB to HSV color conversion [42], reshaping [58], resizing, grey scaling [59] are some of the techniques applied to images. Apart from this, segmentation using colour, texture [59], and watershed algorithm [42] were also applied to separate ROI from the image. Preprocessing remote sensing data is essential due to the inherent complexity of data and its acquisition process. Recalibration [60], radiometric, atmospheric [46], spatial and spectral [53] corrections were applied before using the values. Since the image acquired spans a large area, ROI extraction, manual demarcation, and spatial sampling [61] were applied. GA [62] was used for optimal parameter selection on data gathered from sensors. Most deep learning models require an image dataset with a large sample size for model training. Augmentation techniques [63] helps to enhance dataset size. Remote sensing (RS) data was integrated into a deep learning model. However, the data had to be preprocessed using techniques such as histogram processing [64], pixel annotation [82]. RS data was segmented using spectral clustering [65] and ROI extraction. Table 3.1 summarizes the data acquisition techniques, a few dataset sources and preprocessing techniques widely adopted in the research work.

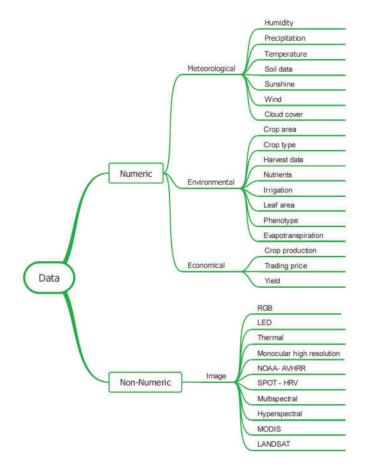


Fig. 3.1: Taxonomy of Data

4. Yield estimation models. Several methods are tried depending on the features extracted from different sources. The taxonomy of modes is shown in Fig. 4.1. Each technique is explained as it evolved in technological advancement.

4.1. Crop Models. The crop model estimation involves two mathematical models, viz. qualitative and quantitative. Crop models can be categorized as statistical or simulation-based, depending on the input. Statistical estimation models accept a set of agrometeorological data as an input into a statistical regressor to estimate yield. However, the past few decades have witnessed wide variations in climate and soil structures, impacting the estimated yield. Statistical models failed to incorporate this dynamic aspect. To overcome this, qualitative features such as soil, weather, phenology with other infield observations are incorporated into simulation models. Plant biomass and yield were generated as an output by these models. In [83], environment and growth-related parameters were used to estimate yield; the study was conducted at geographical sites with local weather station data. Experimental observations concluded that there could not be a global optimized model to estimate yield for all crops. Region-wise new models of existing models should be developed. Production and crop growth analysis was done in the WOFOST model [84]. The CERES-Maize water balance model experimented with [85] under varied weather and soil conditions in the Netherlands. Input data comprised crop species, soil profile, fertility, physical properties and historical crop yield. Initially, SUCROS [86] model studied growth under sufficient water supply and nutrients. This model did not consider growth inhibitors such as pests, diseases and weeds. Variants of this model integrated other data such as SPOT, aerial images and

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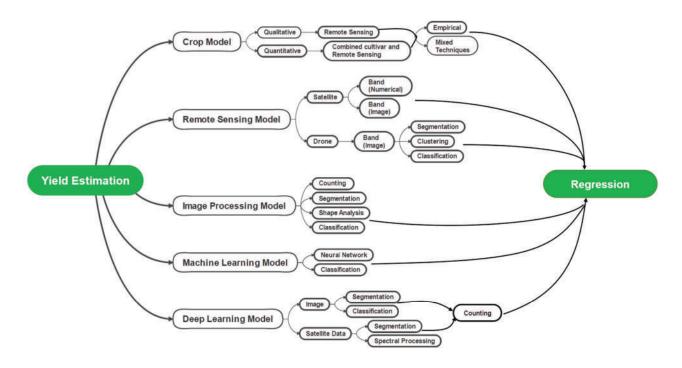


Fig. 4.1: Taxonomy of methods

remote sensing data to improve the accuracy of the model [60] [87].

A comparative study was conducted between SUCROS2 and SAIL [88] model. These models used SPOT and aerial photos to calculate leaf area; it is an early study of integrating remote sensing data into the crop model. Irrigation and Nitrogen related studies were conducted in designing the VSM model [89]. Plant density and mean daily solar parameters are included in it. Similar studies were conducted between CERES and CroySyst model in Indo-Gangetic plains. In [90] with CropSyst gives better results in the Indian subcontinent scenario. SBOCM [41] integrated geographical data from the weather station in China and the SVR method to estimate crop growth at various stages. Upscaling of AquaCrop model with RS data used to compute crop canopy and biomass was used in AquaCrop-RS [91] model for regional yield. Table 4.1 includes the summary of crop models.

4.2. RS model. Aerial and RS images were mainly used for land cover, crop classification, etc. However, certain features extracted from these images provided qualitative parameters which were integrated into yield models. The frequency of data capturing and a good resolution have allowed researchers to design a model to incorporate them. Several parameters could be calculated with the captured spectral band [92]. A subset of these calculated or calibrated values played a significant role in yield estimation models. The plant absorbs energy during photosynthesis as per plant physiology. IR and NIR bands capture this qualitative feature, indicating plant health and growth process. [61] stated the usage of RVI and NDVI data to estimate crop yield along with field survey data for the crop in India. NDVI calculated from Landsat and IRS-1A and IRS- 1B band assisted in CCE site identification leading to higher accuracy in the yield model [20]. Evapotranspiration (ET) data computed from (RS) was used in the SWAP model to recalibrate soil water content managing parameters which widely assisted in increasing yield [49]. A combination of soil moisture and LAI was integrated into the DSSAT-CSM model [55] which was unsuccessful due to discontinued satellite services. Early studies showed a linear correlation between GIN values acquired from Landsat in the US and yield estimates when integrated into the Agromet model [93]. In another paper greenness value obtained from Landsat and AVHRR data was used to generate yield estimates [94].

4.2.1. RS data used in other models. Recalibration of LAI using SPOT/ HRV data was used in the SAFY yield model [46]. In another work, LAI calculated from Landsat 7, and 8 and Sentinel-2A were assimilated into the WARM model [57]. WOFROST-PROSAIL model used KS reflectance algorithm with MODIS surface reflectance. The highest accuracy was achieved when KS reflectance values were used [47]. VI product of MODIS and LAI products was used in the CSM-CERES model for estimating yield with a conclusion that only half year product is sufficient to estimate yearly produce [62]. RS data was also used to estimate grassland biomass [95] in regions such as Ireland. Another product of MODIS, DVI was used at the national and further at the subnational level capturing extreme weather conditions [48].

The growing popularity of AI and ML led researchers to explore the possibility of using them to solve the yield estimation problem. SKN, CP-ANN and XY-F algorithms were used along with NDVI [23]. Spectral clustering of ROI into tomato and non-tomato was done using aerial images captured from a UAV. SOM and EM for clustering were used, and EM gave better results [65]. Linear regression with NDVI was used in [96]. VHI, VCI, and TCI computed weekly for almost two decades (1982- 2004) using NOAA-AVHRR were used in PCR [52] to estimate crop yield. Table 4.2 summarizes the RS yield model.

4.3. Image processing model. Several methods depending on the image source and the image acquisition mode were experimented with to obtain a yield estimate. Color, contrast, texture, and shape can be input features. Image processing techniques are used to extract these features from images. Usually, images are captured in broad daylight with maximum sun exposure using normal handheld cameras [42], [59] and mobile cameras [58]. Images captured under a controlled lighting environment using the specialized LED camera at night to avoid errors due to illumination effect [43] were also experimented. A different set of input images captured from different devices such as thermal camera [44] monocular high-resolution camera [45] was also tried. The manual image capturing was difficult due to various conditions such as large crop areas, repeated site visits at a specific time, etc. This process was automated using aerial vehicles and satellite payloads. Specialized vehicles such as UAV [65], [74], computer vision integrated autonomous vehicles [45] were used. A combination of thermal, multispectral and RGB image data captured and features extracted from them were used in another image processing-based yield model [74].

Color is an important feature that can be used in designing a yield model. Colour format conversions such as RGB to HSV were also explored to improve efficiency [97]. Experiments were conducted on trees with objects of high or meagre contrast [45], [42], [59], [98] against green foliage. The work in [99] discusses correlations such as count and weight, size and weight, and area and weight using a grape cluster as a case study. These correlations are essential while using count to estimate yield. Table 4.3 summarizes different yield models based on image processing.

4.4. Machine Learning Model. ML in AI is widely used for yield estimation. Widely used ML models include simple feed-forward neural network (NN) [101], back-propagation [22], [40] and NN.

Meteorological, environmental, and market pricing were widely used for training NN [22, 102]. SNN (a variant of NN) with panel regression using environmental features were also tried [102]. ENN gave better results when compared with BPN with different input features [22]. KNN, ANN [39], [102] used different parameters for estimation. C4.5 [104] was also used to focus on GUI design for illustrating climatic variations and estimation. GA was used for selecting optimal input features that could maximize yield estimation using BP-ANN [40]. SMLR with feed-forward NN was designed to model the relation between soil parameters, climate, and yield [101].

Ref	Method	Input feature	Output	Evaluation	Summary	Open issues
				metric		
[00]	SUCROS	SPOT, leaf area,	Potential growth	RMSE	RS with data re-calibration	Data availability con-
		atmospheric data	under ideal condi- tions		& modelled potential growth	straints
[85]	Carbon	LAI, meteorologi-	Water content,	RMSE, R^2	Growth related parameters	Limited $\&$ missing
	Balance +	cal, soil	expanded leaf,		with water content, leaf ex-	environment data,
	CERES-		aerial phytomass		pansion, phytomass	Early work
	Maize water balance				5 1 1	1
[86]	SUCROS-87	Sunlight, temper-	Potential growth	R^2	Pest, disease-free growth	Potential model suit-
		ature, leaf area,	rate		model	able under ideal con- ditions.
[91]	AquaCrop-RS	Soil, climate,	Yield and other	RMSE, RE,	Integration of calculated	Missing validation
		NDVI, irrigation,	simulated units	NRMSE	canopy coverage, biomass	with the latest data.
		canopy coverage,			from RS data into model.	
		biomass				
[41]	SBOCM	Meteorological	Rice develop-	RMSE, RE	Estimates 1-year rice pro-	Missing economic pa-
		database of	ment, Rice Yield		ductions with meteorologi-	rameters
		China.			cal RS data	
[55]	EnKF-	Soil moisture,	Yield with differ-	R, MBE,	Inclusion soil moisture, leaf	Discontinued satel-
	DSSAT-	yield, weather,	ent data assimila-	RMSE	area, data acquired from re-	lite & data unavail-
	CSM-Maize	leaf area	tion		mote sensing	ability
[00]	CERES -	Weather, soil,	Status of crop	MAE, RMSE	Yield model comparison	Geographical con-
	Wheat and	plant phenotype	and soil, Growth,		with increasing nitrogen	straints and location
	CropSyst		Environment and		supply	dependency
			stress			
[89]	VSM	Irrigation, Nitro-	Potential yield of	$ m R^2$	Yield model with minimum	Missing important
		gen	rice grains and		input parameters	environment data
			biomass			
[87]	SUCROS2	SPOT, photos,	Potential yield	RRMSE	Integration of RS and aerial	Model complexity
	and SAIL	atmospheric data	with and without		photos into the model	and data acquisition
			assimilation.			difficulty.

Table 4.1: Summary of crop model

model
of RS
Summary
Table 4.2:

Ref	Method	Band	DA	Bes	Period	Outnut	ΕM	Summ	0.L
[93]	Linear re-	Landsat	GIN data	10m	9 day cy-	Estimated & $ob-$	Yield	Integrated GIN	Delayed yield
	gression	Spectral Band	computed		cle: 1978- 79	served yield dif- ference	differ- ence	& Agromet model	data generation.
[94]	Linear re- gression	GI from Landsat NOAA- AVHRR	Landsat NOAA-6 AVHRR data	1 km	1981 year data	linear relation between GI & yield	Я	Study of yield and GI	Early work. Missing other RS parameters
[20]	Linear re- gression	Radiance in NIR and R	IRS 1A, 1B Land- sat LISS- sensor	Not consid- ered	22 days	CCE site & yield estimation	R, SE	CCE site and yield using RS data	Limited inputs and no crop phenology
[49]	SWAP with GA for as- similation	ETM+ sensor 8 bands	Landsat7 ETM+ images	Not speci- fied	Feb 4 & March 8, 2001	Yield under irri- gation scenarios	Yield differ- ence	RS with CM, yield with dif- ferent irrigation scenarios	Missing environ- mental data
[52]	PCR with VHI, VCI and TCI	AVHRR, NOAA GVI, NIR, IR	NOAA AVHRR	Not men- tioned	1 week (23 yrs)	Yield compared with USDA data	${ m MAE}, { m RMSE}, { m R}^2$	Used NOAA AVHRR data	Large areas without much geographical variations.
[62]	CSM- CERES maize with LAI & VI	Blue, Green and NIR	MODIS	1Km	16 days	Included VI and LAI data as pa- rameters	RMSE	Showed half year values are suffi- cient	Discontinued satellite and cloud contamina- tion
[23]	Ortho- rectification, reflectance & calibra- tion	Green, Red, NIR	MODIS	30m	8 day	Estimate soil properties	Accu- racy	RS, ML integra- tion	No environ- mental data & generic study
[65]	Spectral clustering Spatial seg- mentation	Red Green Blue	UAV	NA	AA	Matured stage detection	Recall Preci- sion, F mea- sure	Detected green and red toma- toes effectively.	Missed counting and calibration of results
[95]	MLR, ML ANN and ANFIS	Blue, Green and NIR		$250\mathrm{m},$ $500\mathrm{m}$	8 day	VI values and raw band values	${ m RMSE}{ m R^2}$	Statistical & ML were used for estimation	Dataset size, Data quality
[46]	Linear re- gression	Red, IR, Green, MIR	SPOT 4,5	5:10m, 4:20m	21 days	Correlation of es- timated & mea- sured yield	${ m RMSE}{ m R^2}$	CM with LAI from SPOT	Data availability, cloud cover & re- calibration

Ket.	Method	Band	D.A.	$\mathbf{Res.}$	\mathbf{Period}	Output	EM	Summ.	0.I.
[96]	Linear re-	Red , NIR	Terra	$30 \mathrm{m}$	8 day	Yield estimated	RMSE	Estimates for 7 Missing	Missing phys-
	gression		MODIS &			compared with		crops with an-	iological $\&$
			Landsat			USDA data		nual variations	environmental
			5,7						data
[57]	Use of LAI	Not men-	Landsat	$30\mathrm{m}$	2014 - 2016	Estimates with	MAE	RS(LAI) used in	Recalibration
	into WARM	tioned	7,8 and			& without use of	RRM-	WARM model	
	rice model		sentinel-			LAI data	SE	gave better	study of in-field
			2A					results	yield variation
[47]	MODIS,	MODIS: 1-	MODIS	$30 \mathrm{m}$	8 days	Assimilated	RMSE	RS with syn-	Getting optimal
	Landsat &	$7 \mathrm{band}$	and Land-			results with dif-	${ m R}^2$	thetic KS yield-	
	synthetic		sat $5,$			ferent reflectance		ing better results	calibration is
	KS into		8 re-			products			tedious
	WOFROST-		flectance						
	PROSAIL								
[48]	Linear	Red and	Terra	1Km	2001-2917	Winter yields	R,	Captured low	Unable to in-
	regres-	NIR band	& Aqua			with additional	RMSE	yields due to	corporate other
	sion with		satellites			low yields at		extreme weather	weather extrem-
	DVI from					extreme weather		conditions	ity
	MODIS					conditions			
[100]		NIR, R	MODIS	231.7m,	8 day,	Yield estimates	RMSE,	VI w	Suitable for rain-
	÷			463.3m	2000-2018		\mathbf{R}^{2}	computed &	fed region with
	V1 Irom MODIS							used	high yield

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Ref.	Method	Device	Dataset	Output	EM	Summ.	0.I
[44]	RGB conversion and	Thermal	120 images	fruit diameter esti-	Differenc	DifferenceThermal data for	Missed hidden
	image detection	image camera		mates & count		counting	objects
[45]	Segmentation, HSV	Monocular	Single image	Segmented object	Error	Different acquisition	Expensive
	with geo-tagging,	camera over	for counting	with counting to	(Differ-	method	cannot han-
	counting	autonomous		estimate yield	ence)		dle object
		vehicle					clusters.
[59]	Shape analysis, SVM	camera	100 random	Count classified ob-	Accuracy	Accuracy Classification $\&$	Occlusion,
	& Segmentation		images	ject		counting in outdoor	illumination
						environment	were not
							handled
[98]	Detection (radial	Camera	Sample size	Correlation between	\mathbb{R}^2	Count, weight corre-	Occlusion not
	symmetry), cluster-		not specified	count $\&$ weight after		lation of grape clus-	handled
	ing $\&$ counting			harvest		ter	
[43]	Night image pixel	LED camera	Tree:41 im-	segmentation $\&$	Accuracy	Accuracy Approach avoids illu-	Missing object
	segmentation	& night image	ages: 141	count		mination effects	localization
[26]	HSV conversion,	Camera	Tree:591	Object detected,	Mean,	Less error for green	Complex pre-
	thresholding, his-		Images:1182	$\operatorname{count} \& \operatorname{time}$	\mathbb{R}^2	objects & green back-	processing
	togram equalization,					ground	
	spatial filter Gaus-						
	sian blur						
[58]	Canny edge detec-	Mobile cam-	Dataset: 4300	Classified ripe, semi-	\mathbb{R}^2	Low cost, ML to com-	Blurring of
	entatio	era	images	ripe, unripe object $\&$		pute yield	images during
	classification $\&$			count			capture
	counting						
[42]	HSV conversion,	camera	Tree: 21 Im-	Segmented object	\mathbb{R}^2	Counting based algo-	Single tree
	thresholding, color		age: 84	and count		rithm	was taken into
	detection, watershed						consideration
	segmentation, blob						for the study
	counting						
[74]	Image stitching, geo-	RGB, ther-	Single image	Yield estimated using	$\mathbb{R}^{2},$	Different features	Complex and
	tagging with differ-	mal, multi-	from each de-	regresso	RMSE	into yield model	expensive pro-
	ent features	spectral	vice				cess
Ref.: R	Ref.: Reference, EM: Evaluation metric, Summ.:	n metric, Summ.:	Summarization,	Summarization, O.I.: Open Issues.			

Table 4.3: Summary of image processing model

Ref.	Method	Dataset	Output	EM	Summary	Open issues
[63]	R-CNN, ZF net,	PASCAL-VOC	Ground truth vs	F1 Score	Augmentation was used	Error in ground truth la-
	VGG16 Augmen-		count by network		to enhance dataset size.	belling & missed detect-
	tation: Flip, scale,					ing few in a cluster.
5	51	2		100	5 0 0	
[54]	S	MODIS multispec-	Yield estimation	RMSE	Integration of RS data	Computationally com-
	Gaussian Process	tral data	through regression	MAPE	into DL	plex with extensive
	pre-processing: His-					training & preprocessing
	togram generation					time
[106]	Modified Inception-	Training: 24000 Test-	Linear regression	MSE	The algorithm handled	Synthetic images with
	Resnet A	ing:100	based on counting		partially occluded image,	missing data for unripe
					shadow, moderate over-	objects
					lapping	
[64]	Transfer learning	MODIS	Regression NDVI,	RMSE R^2	Transfer learning with	Data-dependency, issue
	with LSTM, Pre-		Band modes		RS data to estimate	related to specific crop
	processing:Histogram				yield	data availability
	& bin generation					
[53]	Spectral processing,	Hyperspectral cam-	Field count vs esti-	\mathbb{R}^2 , $\mathbb{R}MSE$	Hyperspectral sensor	Occlusion problem, com-
	tree detection, CNN	era 494 tree images	mated count		data used in the deep	plex model due to large
	for identification and				learning model	number of bands
	counting					
[107]	DNN author de-	Syngenta crop chal-	Estimated yield,	RMSE	Environment with geno-	Complex model & hard
	signed	lenge 2018 dataset	check yield and yield		type data were used for	to get a biological insight
			difference		estimation	testing hypothesis
[82]	CNN with semantic	Image:40,	Manual vs system-	Precision	Resolves problems faced	Considers only one side
	segmentation	Patches:11096	generated count	Recall	in image processing	of image. Multiple side
		Testing: Image:4		F1-Score		images may lead to dupli-
		Patches:1500		Accuracy		cate counting.
[108]	DNN preprocessing:	Author generated	Regression: Random	RMSEP,	Multimodal feature fu-	Complex data gathering
	fusion of features	thermal, multispec-	forest, SVR, PLSR,	R^2	sion with data gath-	and preprocessing tech-
	from multimodal	tral and RGB images	DNN-F1 & DNN-F2		ered from multiple sen-	niques. Compute inten-
	data				sors boarded on a UAV	sive process.

Table 4.4: Summary of Deep Learning Model

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The calendar day model against thermal was modelled to estimate yield in [103] as there were greater variations in temperature conditions. Within a year, spatial changes and weather were studied using BPNN [105]. Table 4.5 summarises various ML-based yield model.

Ref	Model	Input features	Evaluation	Description	Open issues
			\mathbf{metric}		
[40]	BP-ANN	Yield, weather, soil	RMSE, Ac-	Studied fertilizer & rain-	Missing weather pat-
		details, phenology	curacy	fall with input parameter	terns, history and re-
				combinations	gional data.
[101]	NN, SMLR	Soil data, yield, tem-	\mathbb{R}^2	Quantifiable relations be-	Overfitting & need
		perature, rain		tween climate, soil &	more data on climate
				yield.	
[105]	BPNN	14 factors (site, to-	RMSEP	Used BPNN & major pat-	Missing input feature
		pography, weather,		terns were captured	selection technique
		soil)			
[103]	ANN, k-NN,	Growth, reproduc-	Accuracy	Calendar-oriented estima-	Limited input fea-
	MR	tive stage		tion	tures
[104]	C4.5	Cloud, rainfall, tem-	Average Ac-	GUI for ease of usage. Cli-	Missing environmen-
		perature, yield	curacy	mate changes were a ma-	tal data.
				jor factor	
[22]	BPN, ENN,	meteorological, envi-	Error rate	reduction in error rate	Optimal architecture
	regression	ronmental, economi-			was not fixed.
		cal			
[39]	MLR, RF,	Agrometeorological,	RMSE,	overall harvest with opti-	Unbalanced & miss-
	SVM, K-NN,	RS, economical data	MAER	mal seed selection	ing environmental
	ANN, WHR				data
[102]	SNN, Panel	parameters: environ-	MSE	climate change impact on	Missing site-specific
	Regression	ment, economic, irri-		yield	data & warmer
		gation			climate conditions

Table 4.5: Summary of ML model

4.5. Deep learning model. DNN has gained attention for solving yield estimation problems through regression analysis. Clustering and segmentation architectures are also used along with regressors to identify or extract ROIs. The ROI's were further processed to estimate the count of objects being studied. These outputs were then fed to the regressor designed for yield estimation. Deep architectures need a large dataset with a high variance to train the network. Usually, augmentation techniques such as flip, scale, PCA augmentation were used to increase the dataset size [63]. A modified inception-ResNetA architecture was used to count ROI in the image with Adam optimizer and Xavier weight to initialize the network [106]. PASCAL-VOC data set was used to identify and count from the image to estimate against ground truth [63]. DNN was used by the winners of the Syngenta challenge 2018, wherein the data set provided was used to estimate corn yield [107]. CNN-based semantic segmentation with counting technique was also used [82]. Hyperspectral and multispectral images obtained from RS or specialized cameras were available for studies. The paper discussed a preprocessing technique in which multispectral data was processed, and histograms were generated. These histograms were fed to CNN, and LSTM was integrated with a GP. A combination of CNN, LSTM and GP was also tried in [54], [64]. In another approach, spectral processing and CNN for ROI identification were experimented with using hyperspectral image (HSI) [53]. Multimodal fusion of data from different sensors captured using a UAV experimented. The extracted features were concatenated and fed as input to DNN, which was used as a regressor to estimate yield [108]. Table 4.4 list the details of DL methods in crop yield estimation.

5. Analysis. The critical part of estimation is the analysis of model-generated output with actual data to ensure the correctness of estimates generated. This section covers the evaluation metric and methods that are widely used.

5.1. Evaluation Metric. The wide methods utilized in the literature for accuracy and performance analysis are RMSE, \mathbb{R}^2 , RE and Accuracy. It was difficult to identify common evaluation metrics with benchmark values as different methods were used with different input parameters across different models. Example CM and RS models were used for rice yield estimation. However, RMSE, RE [41] MAE, RRMSE [57] and \mathbb{R}^2 [89] with different output values were used for result analysis. This is an open issue that needs to be addressed. Hence, metric usage was considered in our study for various models. Fig. 5.1 shows the graphical representation of the metric evaluation usage across five different models considered in the survey. The most important metric having wide acceptance for evaluation has been kept initially. It also shows that the RMSE and \mathbb{R}^2 are acceptable evaluation metrics for all five models.

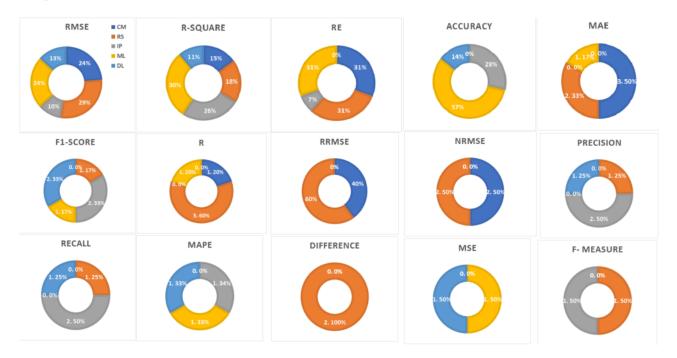


Fig. 5.1: Percentage distribution of prominent evaluation metric across 5 yield models

5.2. Method usage. We have implemented ML techniques such as SVM, segmentation, classification, clustering, K-Means, KNN, LSTM, Random Forest, NN, DNN and CNN for yield estimation. These techniques are based on statistical analysis and regression. Regressors were used in all five models. SVM in CM, IP, ML model. Segmentation in RS, IP, DL model. Classification in IP, ML, DL model. Clustering in RS, IP, DL model. LSTM in RS, DL model. Random Forest and NN in RS, ML model. DNN and CNN in DL models. It is quite clear that regression-based methods are predominantly used for yield estimation. Fig. 5.2 shows detailed usage distribution of method used across all models.

6. Open issues and challenges. This section discusses the open issues and challenges of the yield estimation models. Specific issues are common to few models.

6.1. Data related issues. A major challenge is data availability. The unavailability of historical data to train or design the model is a significant issue [87]. National or global scale data gathering is essential to test the correctness of a model developed at the regional level [52]. Satisfying this requirement is difficult due to economic and government policies laid by nations. Hence, synthetic data are generated and used while designing and testing the estimation model. This may produce incorrect results over real data [106]. Further, RS depends on satellite services to gather the required data. Discontinuity of satellite services affects the model under design or deployment [62]. RS and ML models could provide better results compared to CM. However, these models

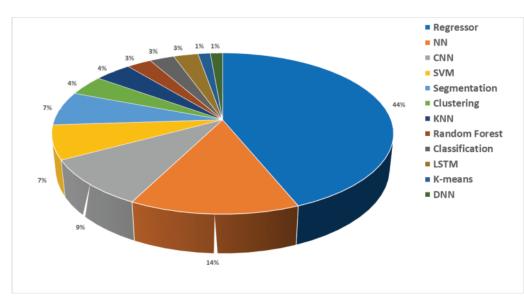


Fig. 5.2: Detailed usage distribution of methods across the entire survey

require large amount of data [95] and accurate calibration [46], [57]. Cloud cover and other weather extremities can affect the quality of data gathered [46] [48]. Another challenge is crop diversity due to geographical and environmental variations. It is difficult to obtain specific data on multiple variants of the individual crop, which is crucial for estimation [20] [57]. Expensive equipment is required for data gathering, which is a bottleneck for economical solutions [45]. Further, data gathering is subjected to several inherent problems such as blurring of images [58], limited [42], unbalanced [39], missing data [85] and complex capturing technique [108]. Certain IP, DL, and RS models provide better results. However, the data required by these models need to undergo a complex preprocessing stage which is resource intensive, and time-consuming [97] [74] [108].

6.2. Model related issues. Researchers designed several estimation models using different methods. The designed model is applicable with specific conditions or over specific crops due to inherent variations. Example RS model is suitable for rainfed crops and cannot be applied to irrigated lands on the specified ROI [100]. Also, there is no common model that fits all crops. Research is carried out around standard crops [17] such as wheat [90] [23], rice [41], cotton [80], few fruits [44] [45] [97] and vegetables [65]. This introduces a new issue of certain crops being eliminated as they are grown in limited regions or countries which needs to be addressed. Certain models such as RS, ML and DL depend on image data and focus on counting-based yield estimation [99] [44]. However, inherent image processing issues such as occlusion [53], illumination [59], duplicate count [82], georeferencing [45] [74], and object clusters [98] are few major challenges that affect the accuracy of prediction in these models. ML, RS, and CM need a careful selection of input features. No standard algorithms or methods can be used to perform this task [105]. DL and CM simulation version have high computational complexity due to complex input data [54] [53] [74]. Certain IP, DL, and RS models provide good results with certain inputs. However, it requires a resource-intensive and time-consuming preprocessing stage to generate these inputs [108] [85]. Also, these models require expensive equipment for data capturing, preprocessing and training [45] [74]. Insufficient or missing historical yield estimates gathered using traditional techniques [102] or market studies led researchers to fill the gap using synthetic data, which may not lead to an optimal model [47] [106].

6.3. Analysis related issues. Count and weight are the major representation of yield value. CM, RS [46] and ML models produce weight-based results [93], while image processing, RS (image) and deep learning models provide counting based results [63] [99] [44]. A single model cannot handle both representations. Further, different models are designed to solve estimation problems for a particular crop. Researchers have used different evaluation metrics and input parameters to solve the problem. For example, CM and RS models are used to

estimate rice yield. However, different evaluation metrics with different result values were used for result verification as per their design [41][57][89]. Hence, it isn't easy to establish a common evaluation metric with benchmark values.

7. Conclusion. The paper summarizes non-destructive approaches designed to estimate crop yield. Different models were developed based on input data and the methodology adopted. Statistical and simulation crop models were less researched as they could not incorporate various dynamic features effectively. The qualitative by-products of RS, such as NDVI, EVI, and DVI data, were extensively used in the crop and ML model to improve the accuracy of the model. Clustering and segmentation were widely used to separate ROIs in the image processing model. Pixel classification and segmentation architectures were used in the deep learning model for estimating crop yield. Most CNN and its variants, LSTM, were used to test and train the model for object detection and then proceeded towards counting. RS data was also experimented with for integration into deep architectures with histogram preprocessing.

To summarize, weight-based yield estimation was implemented by the crop model, ML model and RS model. These models were generally used for estimating yield in large geographical areas. Counting-based analysis was implemented by image processing, RS model and deep learning model using an image as a primary input. Single and a bunch of objects were explored during the counting process. But accuracy is still an open challenge due to object clutter and occlusion. R2, RMSE is widely used to analyze the accuracy of the yield estimation model. Further, there is a broad scope to harness the multimodal integration of RS image data, image processing techniques and deep learning techniques to estimate crop yield over large areas.

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