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2 **TITLE**

3 **Estimation of Tree Heights in Mixed Forest Plantation Using Artificial Intelligent Models**

4
5 **ABSTRACT**

6 The diameters and heights of the trees are two of the most important measurements in a forest
7 inventory for biomass estimation and sustainable management. Measuring tree height in a forest
8 stand is time consuming and costly, it is necessary to develop models that accurately estimate
9 tree heights from easily measured variables (tree diameter). This study aims to develop models
10 for estimating tree height in a forest plantation located in North-central, Nigeria. The systematic
11 sampling method was used to allocate 21 0.09 ha sample plots in study area. Data on tree height
12 and diameter were collected using relaskop. Artificial neural network (ANN) model, support
13 vector regression (SVR) model, and four empirical nonlinear models were tested for estimating
14 tree height. The models were evaluated using the Coefficient of Determination, Residual
15 standard Error, Mean Bias and Akaike's Information Criterion. The results showed that the SVR
16 model best predicted tree heights in the study area than the ANN and empirical nonlinear
17 models. The SVR model explain about 94% variance associating with the dependent variable,
18 while only 92% variance was explained by ANN model in this study. R-square of 0.94, RMSE
19 (1.017), and Bias (-0.005) were some of the performance metrics that support the superiority of the SVR
20 model over other models. The SVR models can be conveniently used for predicting the height of
21 trees in the study area. The complex nature of trees, data collecting restrictions, simplifying
22 assumptions, fluctuation in environmental variables, and problems in forecasting future
23 conditions all contribute to the scientific uncertainty of the SVR tree height model. However,
24 there should be caution when using the model outside this region.

25 **Keywords:** Artificial neural network, Height–diameter models, Non-linear, Tree height

26 **INTRODUCTION**

27 Tree height and diameter at breast height (DBH) are the two key factors in tree growth models.
28 Tree height, however, is more difficult to measure in the field than DBH. Both observer error
29 and visual obstacles frequently have an impact on tree height measurement (Colbert *et al.*, 2002;
30 Lei *et al.*, 2009). An allometric relationship exists between tree height and DBH, which is useful
31 and widely employed in stand-level planning for effective monitoring and alternative silviculture
32 strategies (Rojo *et al.*, 2005; Cutini *et al.*, 2013). As a result, DBH may be used to accurately
33 measure tree height. For yield modeling, measuring above-ground biomass and carbon, and
34 compiling forest inventories, accurate tree height prediction is crucial (Peng *et al.*, 2004; Leduc
35 *et al.*, 2009; Stankova *et al.*, 2013). Accurate tree height estimation is crucial for biomass
36 estimation and sustainable forest management. It enables precise carbon stock estimation, aids in
37 reducing climate change, and encourages the formation of well-informed judgments regarding
38 techniques for managing forests, such as logging and regeneration.

39 The lack of data on tree height in tropical forests is caused by the challenge of measuring it in
40 closed-canopy forests, including the associated time and cost requirements of the measurement
41 (Larjavaara and Muller-Landau 2013). In carbon-accounting programmes, tree height is
42 frequently overlooked due to the challenges in data acquisition (Hunter *et al.*, 2013), which
43 could lead to increased bias. This tree height data acquisition problem can be solved by using
44 height-diameter models (Chave *et al.*, 2014; Feldpausch *et al.*, 2012).

45 A nonlinear function is widely used to model the relationship between the height and diameter
46 of trees. Different researchers have fitted height-diameter models using the least squares
47 regression method (Chenge, 2021), Neural networks (Zçeliket *et al.*, 2013; Thanh *et al.*, 2019),
48 mixed-effect regression (Kalbi *et al.*, 2018; Corral Rivas *et al.*, 2019; Vanderschaaf, 2020),
49 quantile regression (Zhang, *et al.*, 2020), and reduced major axis regression (Chen, 2018).
50 Ogana (2019) worked on Tree height prediction models for two forest reserves in Nigeria using
51 mixed-effects approach. Ogana (2021) also modeled height-diameter relationships in complex

52 tropical rain forest ecosystems using deep learning algorithm. However, there is not any
53 published work that has been done on modeling H-D of trees in Tar-ukpe forest plantation in
54 north-central Nigeria, using artificial intelligence models. Limited studies have carried out to
55 facilitate the management of the forest for optimum growth and yield. This study aims to
56 development a model for estimating the height of trees in the plantation. This holds great
57 significance in environmental conservation and climate change mitigation by providing accurate
58 estimations of forest structure and biomass. It enables efficient forest inventories, aids in
59 sustainable forest management, and contributes to ecological studies and disaster risk
60 management. Furthermore, this research advances artificial intelligence techniques and promotes
61 the understanding and valuation of ecosystem services provided by forests.

62 MATERIALS AND METHODS

63 Study Area

64 The Tar-Ukpe forest plantation (between 7°21'25.2" N, 7°21'50.4" N and 9°2'30.8" E, 9°3'7.2"
65 E, Fig. 1) is located in Yandev, Gboko Local Government Area of Benue State, North-Central
66 Nigeria. The forest covers approximately about 35.3 hectares. The plantation is a mixed species
67 stand of predominantly *Gmelina arborea*, *Daniellia oliverii*, and *Tectona grandis*, tree species.
68 There are two distinct seasons in the study area's climate: the rainy season and the dry season.
69 The rainy season lasts from April to October, and the dry season is from November to March.
70 The Tar-Ukpe Forest plantation falls within the Guinea savannah ecological zone of Nigeria,
71 which is characterized by mainly woodland with shrubs and grasses.

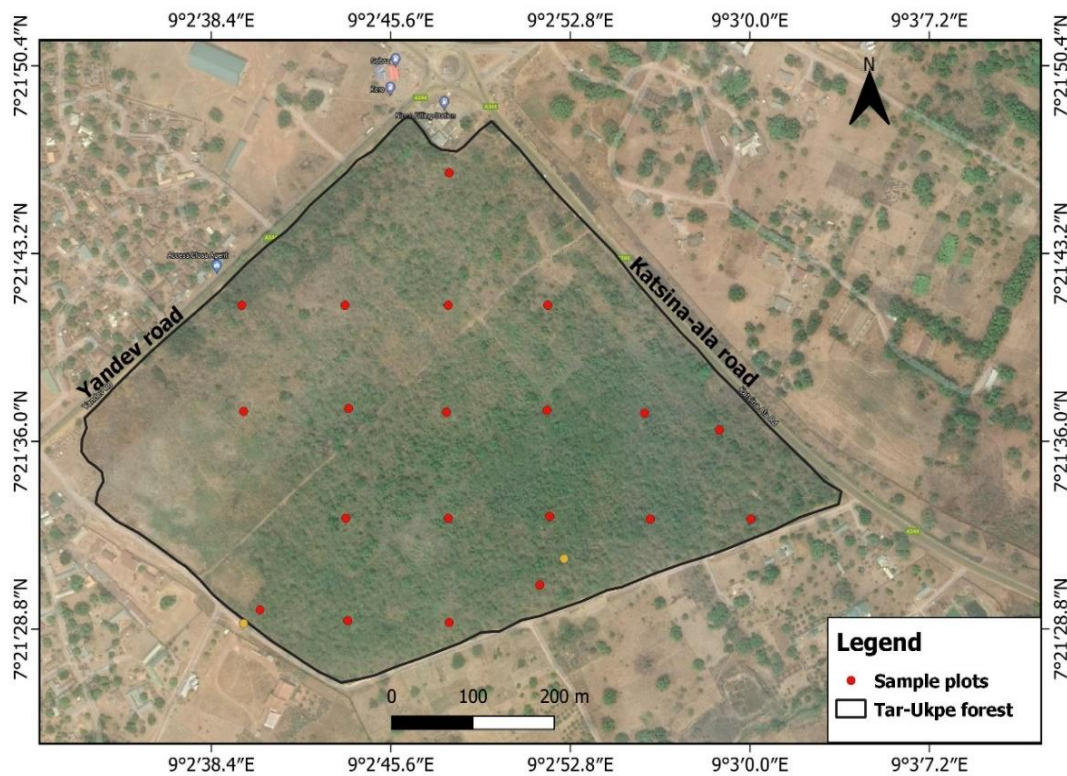
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74 Data Collection

75 The systematic sampling method (Avery and Burkhart, 2002) was used to locate 21 sample plots
76 of 0.09 ha in study area. A GIS software was used to overlay a systematic grid with 21 plot

77 points spaced at regular intervals of 133.8 meters on the map of the forest plantation (Japheth *et*
78 *al.*, 2022). The plots' coordinates were taken out and entered into a global positioning system
79 (Garmin GPSMAP 78) (Japheth and Meer, 2023). Using the GPS, the plots were then located in
80 the forest, and each plot coordinates were retaken at the plot center and recorded. Measurements
81 of DBH and tree height for all live trees in the sample plots, that had a stem diameter at breast
82 height (DBH) equal to or greater than 10 cm, were taken; the Spiegel relaskop was used for
83 measuring the tree heights.



84
85 **Figure 1:** A map of Tar-Ukpe forest plantation Gboko LGA

86 **Data Analysis**

87 The data collected were partitioned into model fitting (80%) and model validation (20%) data
88 sets. The nature of the relationship between the tree height and DBH variables was assessed
89 using a scatter plot. The R program software (version 4.1.1) was used to analyze all the data.
90 Four common nonlinear models (Table 1) including Power (Arabatzis and Burkhart, 1992),
91 Chapman-Richards (Richards, 1959 and Chapman, 1961), Logistics (Zeide, 1993), and Weibull

92 (Zeide, 1993) models were fitted to the fitting data. The "nls function" in the R software was
 93 used to fit the models. The starting values for the model was determined using the
 94 "startHDpower, startHDrichards, startHDlogistic and startHDweibull" function of the "lmfor"
 95 package in R (Mehtatalo, 2020).

96 The machine learning algorithms Support Vector Regression (Samadianfardet *al.*, 2019) and
 97 Artificial Neural Network (Bayatet *al.*, 2020) were fitted to the fitting data using the "svm
 98 function" for SVM in the "e1071 package" (Meyer, 2021) and "neuralnet function" for ANN in
 99 the "neuralnet package" (Fritsch, 2019).

100 **Table 1:** A list of candidate height-diameter models

Model	Input	Equation	References
M. 1 (SVR)	D	$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N (\alpha_i^* - \alpha_i)K(x, x_i) + B$	Samadianfardet <i>al.</i> , 2019.
M. 2 (ANN)	D	$f(x) = \frac{w}{w + e^{-x}}$	Bayatet <i>al.</i> , 2020.
M. 3 (Power)	D	$H = 1.3 + aD^b$	Arabatzis and Burkhart, 1992.
M. 4 (Chapman-Richards)	D	$H = 1.3 + a(1 - \exp(-bD))^c$	Richards, 1959 and Chapman, 1961.
M. 5 (Logistics)	D	$H = 1.3 + \frac{a}{1 + b \exp(-cD)}$	Zeide, 1993.
M. 6 (Weibull)	D	$H = 1.3 + a(1 - \exp(-bD^c))$	Yang <i>et al.</i> , 1978 and Zeide, 1993.

101 SVR = Support Vector Regression, ANN = Artificial Neural Network, H = Height, D =
 102 Diameter at Breast Height (DBH), $f(x)$ = activation function, $K(x, x_i)$ = Kernel function for
 103 SVR, B = gamma, \exp = Exponential, K = Cost, α = epsilon, w = start-weight, x = input
 104 information of neuron for ANN, α_i^* , $\alpha_i \geq 0$ are Lagrange multipliers for SVR.

105 The models were evaluated using the Adjusted coefficient of determination (R_{adj}^2), Akaike
 106 information criterion (AIC), residual standard error (RSE) and mean bias (e).

107
$$R_{adj}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) * (n - 1)/(n - K - 1) \quad (1)$$

108
$$AIC = n \ln(\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2/n) + 2K \quad (2)$$

109
$$RSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2} \quad (3)$$

110
$$e = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i) / n \quad (4)$$

111

112 Where R_{adj}^2 = Adjusted coefficient of determination, n = number of observations, K = number of
113 parameters in the model, \ln = the natural logarithm of a number, y_i = observed height, and \hat{y}_i =
114 predicted height

115 RESULTS

116 A total of 590 individual trees were sampled, which belong to 14 different tree species and 6
117 families (Table 2). *Gmelina arborea* (390), *Daniellia oliverii* (58), and *Tectona grandis* were the
118 most abundant tree species in the forest plantation. A stand density of 312 trees per hectare was
119 estimated. The DBH of all trees in the plantation ranged from 10.2 to 54.7 cm, and the height of
120 all trees ranged from 4.0 to 20.5 m. The mean DBH and height values were 22.9 cm (\pm 6.6) and
121 11.2 m (\pm 4.2), respectively. DBH and height ranges of the fitting and validation data are
122 presented in Table 3. The nature of the relationship between the sampled trees as visually
123 examined using scatter plots is shown in Figure 2. A nonlinear relationship was observed, thus
124 fitting non-linear models to the data was appropriate. The results of the parameter estimate of all
125 the models are presented in Table 4, and the model evaluation statistics are presented in Table 5.

126 All parameter estimates for nonlinear functions were significant (p 0.05). R_{adj}^2 and RSE values
127 for the nonlinear models ranged from 0.821 to 0.923 and 1.149 to 1.78, respectively. The SVR
128 and ANN models had R_{adj}^2 values of 0.94 and 0.924, and RSE values of 1.017 and 1.142
129 respectively. The Power (Model 3) showed the poorest fit with the lowest R_{adj}^2 (0.821), highest
130 RSE (1.78), and highest AIC (1889.557). The SVR (Model 1), ANN (Model 2), Chapman-
131 Richards (Model 4), Logistics (Model 5), and Weibull (Model 6) had higher R_{adj}^2 values and
132 lower RSE as shown in Table 5. The nonlinear empirical model with the best fit statistics was
133 the logistics (Model 5), while the machine learning model with the best fit statistics was the
134 SVR model. Overall, the SVR model produced the best fitted statistics, followed by the ANN
135 model. The curve fit for all tested models is displayed in Figure 3. The validation of all the

136 models using the independent validation data also showed that SVR model produced the best
 137 prediction results.

138 The residual plots for the best nonlinear empirical model (Logistics) and the best machine
 139 learning model (SVR) were examined for outliers, lack of fit, and unequal variance. The two
 140 graphs (residuals scatter plots and quantiles of standard normal plot), as illustrated in Figure 4,
 141 depict approximately homogeneous variances of the residuals over the full range of predicted
 142 values, with zero mean, indicating that the assumptions of the regression analysis were met and
 143 that the height was well predicted across diameter. The normal probability plots also indicate no
 144 departures from the assumption of normality for errors within the models.

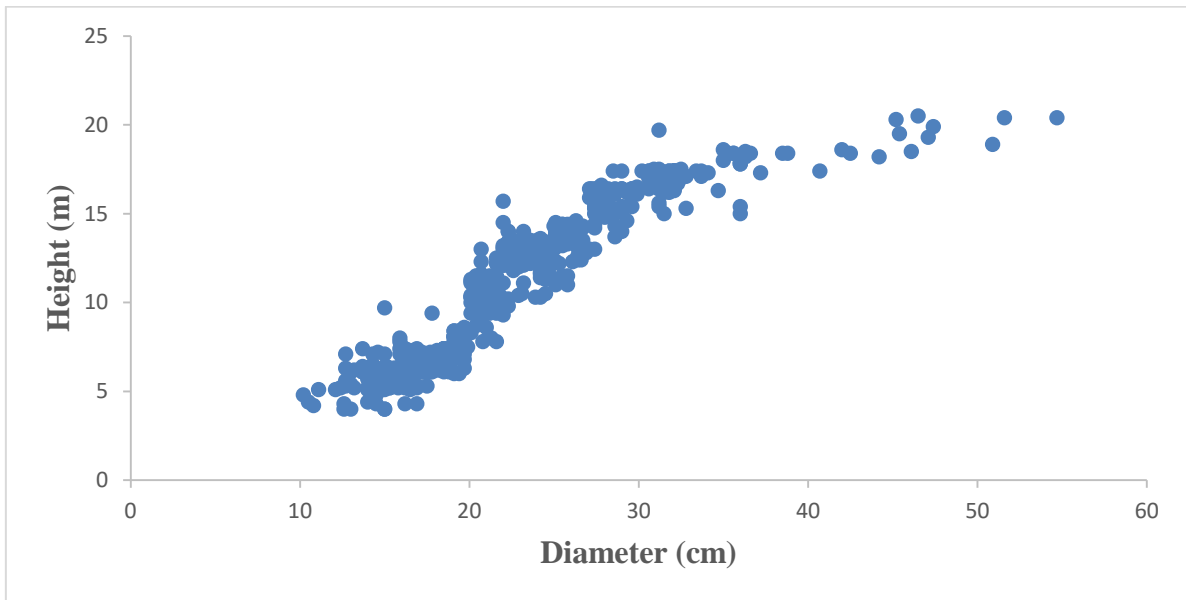
145 **Table 2: Tree species Occurrence in the study area**

Species	Family	Occurrence	Relative Frequency
<i>Azelia africana</i>	Fabaceae	8	1.4
<i>Anthocleista djalonensis</i>	Gentianaceae	17	2.9
<i>Daniella olivera</i>	Fabaceae	58	9.8
<i>Ficus sur</i>	Moraceae	1	0.2
<i>Gmelina arborea</i>	Lamiaceae	390	66.1
<i>Khayasenegalensis</i>	Fabaceae	19	3.2
<i>Lannea schimperi</i>	Anacardiaceae	9	1.5
<i>Mangifera indica</i>	Anacardiaceae	1	0.2
<i>Parkia biglobosa</i>	Fabaceae	2	0.3
<i>Pterocarpus erinaceus</i>	Fabaceae	9	1.5
<i>Sarcocephalus latifolius</i>	Rubiaceae	2	0.3
<i>Senna siamea</i>	Fabaceae	18	3.1
<i>Tectona grandis</i>	Lamiaceae	46	7.8
<i>Vitex doniana</i>	Fabaceae	10	1.7
Total		590	100.0

146
 147 **Table 3: Summary Statistics of Growth Variables in the Study Area**

Descriptive Statistics	Diameter at Breast Height (cm)			Height (m)		
	Fitting	Validation	Total	Fitting	Validation	Total
Mean	22.81	23.46	22.94	11.1	11.4	11.16
Minimum	10.2	12.1	10.2	4	4	4
Maximum	55	50.9	54.7	20.5	19.3	20.5
Standard Deviation	6.53	7.09	6.64	4.15	4.29	6.64
Sample Size	472	118	590	472	118	590

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150 **Figure 2: Scatter plot showing the relationship between Tree Height and Diameter**

151 **Table 4:Parameter estimates of Models developed in the Study Area**

Model	Parameters of Models			
	w	K	B	α
Model 1 (SVR)	-	1	1	0.1
Model 2 (ANN)	1	-	-	-
	a	b	c	-
Model 3 (Power)	0.06	1.61	-	-
Model 4 (Chapman-Richards)	38.2	0.04	0.11	-
Model 5 (Logistics)	24.96	18.69	0.11	-
Model 6 (Weibull)	24.96	0	2.08	-

152 SVR = Support Vector Regression, ANN = Artificial Neural Network, $B = \gamma$, $K = \text{Cost}$, α
153 = epsilon, $w = \text{start-weight}$, a , b and $c = \text{Parameters}$.

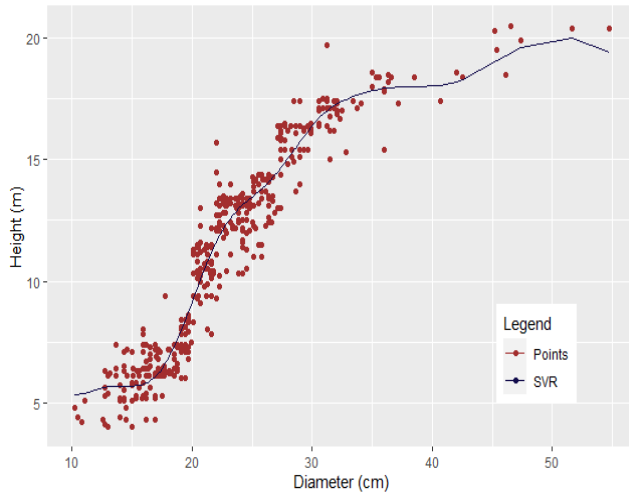
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156 **Table 5: Statistics Evaluation for Models developed in the Study Area**

Model	Fitting (80%)				Validation (20%)	
	R^2_{adj}	RSE	Bias	AIC	RSE	Bias
M. 1 (SVR)	0.94	1.017	-0.005	-	0.979	-0.057
M. 2 (ANN)	0.924	1.142	0.000002	-	1.082	-0.065
M. 3 (Power)	0.821	1.780	-0.098	1889.557	1.896	-0.151
M. 4 (Chapman-Richards)	0.918	1.191	0.027	1512.424	1.219	-0.022
M. 5 (Logistics)	0.923	1.149	0.009	1478.6	1.118	-0.053
M. 6 (Weibull)	0.821	1.168	0.014	1494.326	1.153	-0.049

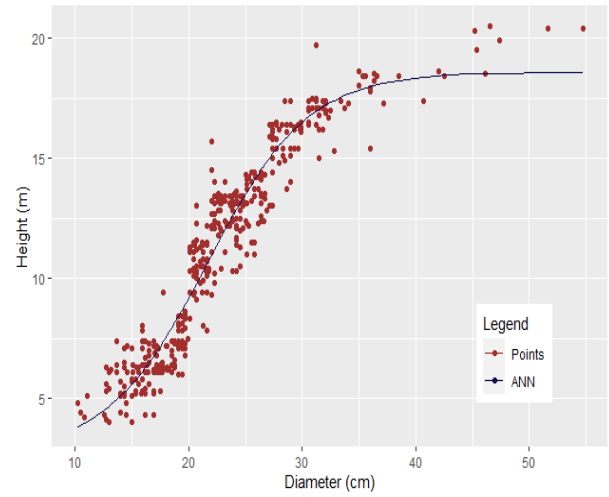
157 SVR = Support Vector Regression, ANN = Artificial Neural Network, $R^2 = \text{Coefficient of}$
158 Determination , $RMSE = \text{Root Mean Squared Error}$, $AIC = \text{Akaike's Information Criterion}$.

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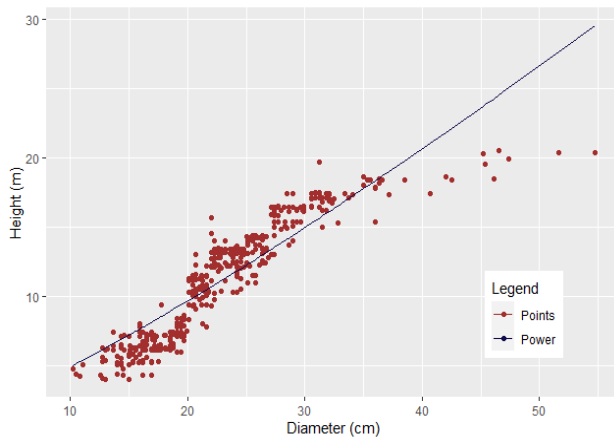
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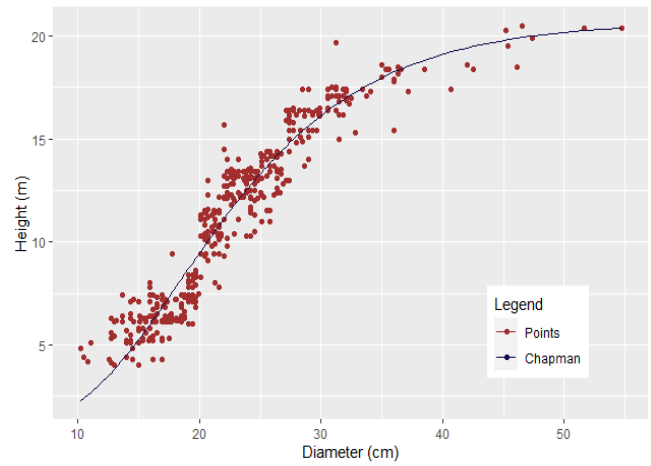
162 **Model 1 (SVR)**
163



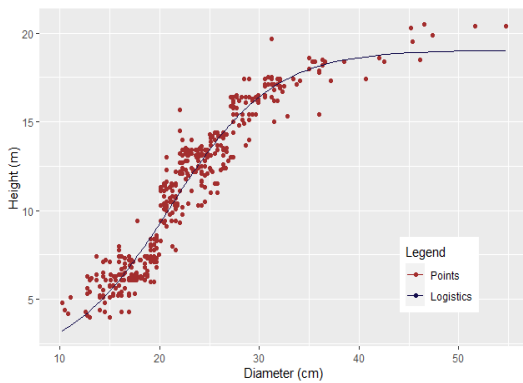
Model 2 (ANN)



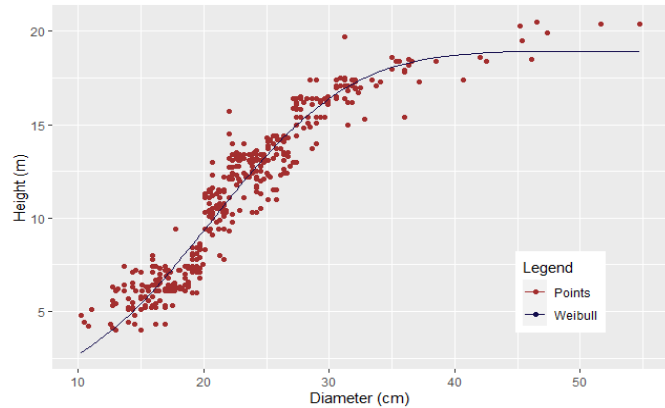
165 **Model 3 (Power)**
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164 **Model 4 (Chapman-Richards)**



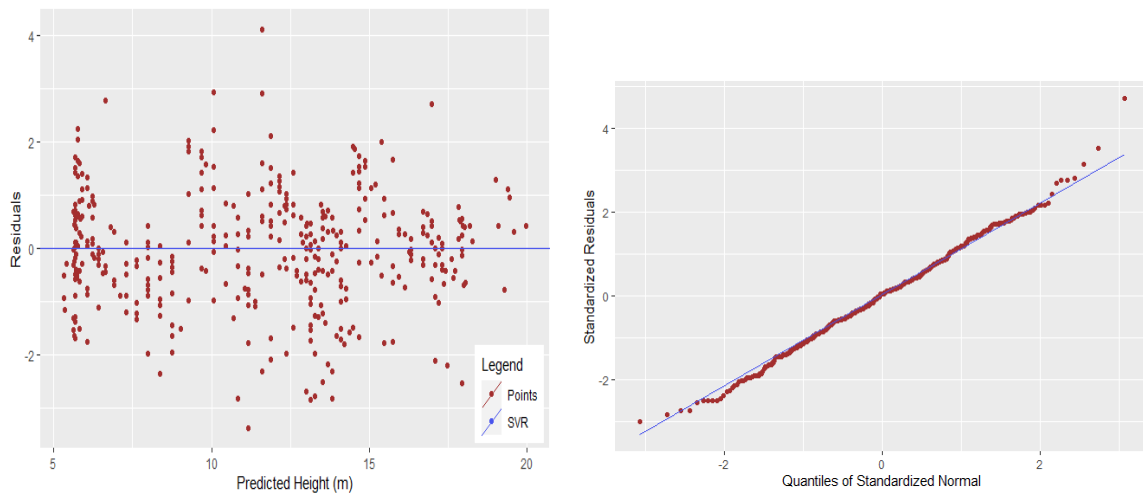
169 **Model 5 (Logistics)**



168 **Model 6 (Weibull)**

Figure 3: Curve Fit for all the Tested Models in the Study Area

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18 /

188 **Figure 4: Residuals Scatter plots and Quantiles of Standard Normal Plot**

189 **DISCUSSION**

190 Accurate tree height prediction is essential for the development of forest inventories, yield
 191 models, management decisions, and the carbon budget (Peng *et al.*, 2004; Leduc *et al.*, 2009;
 192 Stankova *et al.*, 2013). The three top-performing candidate models for height prediction, were
 193 model 1 (SVR), model 2 (ANN), and model 5 (Logistics) out of the six tested. The power model
 194 which have been shown to produce good results in some previous studies (Imani *et al.*, 2017;
 195 Mensah *et al.*, 2018; Chenge, 2021) produced the least results in this study.

196 Overall, the SVR model outperformed all other models tested for predicting the height of trees
 197 in the study area. The machine learning models (SVR and ANN) tested in this study
 198 outperformed all the other empirical nonlinear models. This indicates the potential of machine
 199 learning models for tree height-diameter modeling as also shown in several other studies (e.g.
 200 Diamantopoulou and Ozcelik, 2012; Bourque *et al.*, 2019; Bayat *et al.*, 2020; Diamantopoulou *et*
 201 *al.*, 2023). Bayat *et al.* (2020) evaluated ten nonlinear functions and the machine learning
 202 algorithms ANN and ANFIS (Adaptive Neuro-Fuzzy Inference System) to fit height-diameter
 203 models in a mixed unevenly aged forest in Northern Iran, and found that the machine learning
 204 models produced the best results. Diamantopoulou and Ozcelik (2012) evaluated six nonlinear
 205 regression models and the generalized regression neural network (GRNN) technique to estimate
 206 tree heights in the western Mediterranean Region Forests of Turkey. The validation data of their

207 models revealed that the GRNN model had both greater and lower error rates than all the tested
208 nonlinear regression models. Diamantopoulou et al. (2023), also found the SVR model
209 outperformed the GRNN model, nonlinear fixed and mixed effects model, and quantile
210 regression model evaluated in their study. Lee *et al.* (2018) predicted the tree heights of forest
211 stands in South Korea using three new machine learning techniques, including support vector
212 regression (SVR), modified regression trees (RT), and a random forest (RF), and found that
213 these three models were effective.

214 Each artificial intelligence and regression model used to forecast forest performance has
215 advantages and disadvantages of its own. The vast range of statistical assumptions, such as the
216 independence of the variables and the data's normal distribution, are just two of the many
217 shortcomings of conventional regression models (Bayat *et al.*, 2020). The fact that artificial
218 intelligence modeling techniques typically do not have the same limitations as empirical models
219 is one advantage of adopting them (Lombardi *et al.*, 2017). For instance, some assumptions
220 (such as data normality and others) may influence the quality of empirical models (Vieira *et al.*,
221 2013). Other advantages of artificial intelligence systems that are often widely recognized in
222 predicting tree heights include the capacity to work with qualitative qualities as well as relative
223 accuracy and precision (Vieira *et al.*, 2018). All of these are consistent with this research in
224 demonstrating the superiority of neural network and artificial intelligence methods over
225 regression models, despite variations in the types of neural network and vector power models
226 utilized in our investigations or in the quantities and types of model inputs.

227 **CONCLUSION**

228 Accurate models that can predict crucial aspects of the forest, like tree diameters and heights, are
229 necessary for forest management. The study concludes that in forest modelling, machine
230 learning models have the potential to both supplement and replace empirical models (nonlinear
231 functions). For the cases modelled here, the SVR model outperformed all empirical models
232 (nonlinear functions) in estimating the tree height for the study area, supporting previous

233 research on the topic and demonstrating that machine learning techniques can take the place of
234 empirical models in projects requiring the estimation of forest conditions. The results in this
235 study show the SVR model is more precise, flexible, and better able to model complex and
236 nonlinear interfaces. However, a given diameter-height model may not always be suitable for all
237 types of settings where a particular tree species may be found because site factors might
238 influence the diameter-height connection.

239 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

240 The authors guarantee that none of their financial or close personal relationships that are known
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