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**"Utilizing Machine Learning Techniques to Evaluate Risk Factors
in Agricultural Insurance"**

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APPROVAL FORM

The undersigned certify that they have supervised the student Collen Chingadayi's dissertation entitled, "Utilizing Machine Learning Techniques to Evaluate Risk Factors in Agricultural Insurance" submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for a Bachelor of Computer Science Honours Degree at Bindura University of Science Education.

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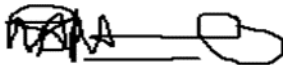
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DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to my family, whose unwavering support and belief in my abilities have been the cornerstone of my journey. Their sacrifices and encouragement have been the driving force behind my academic pursuits and this final year project. To them, I extend my deepest gratitude and love.” I extend my gratitude to my academic advisors and mentors, whose priceless advice and knowledge have been crucial. This project stands as a tribute to the shared dedication of all those who had faith in my potential.

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ABSTRACT

The Project explores the application of the Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithm in assessing risk factors in agricultural insurance. SVM, a machine learning model known for its robustness and effectiveness in classification tasks, is utilized to analyze and predict the likelihood of various risks associated with agricultural ventures. By processing historical data and identifying patterns, the SVM algorithm can assist insurers in determining the level of risk posed by different factors, such as climate variability, crop types, and market financial status, insurance amount. This assessment is crucial for the development of accurate insurance policies that can protect farmers against potential losses, ensuring the sustainability of agricultural production. The project's findings could significantly contribute to the precision and reliability of agricultural insurance models, ultimately supporting the agricultural sector's resilience to uncertainties.

CHAPTER 1

1.0 Introduction

Agriculture serves as a fundamental pillar for numerous economies, yet it remains highly susceptible to a range of hazards, such as severe climatic conditions, infestations, illnesses, and shifts in the market. The implementation of agricultural insurance is vital in reducing these threats, offering monetary safeguards to cultivators and affirming the continuity of food supply, as noted by Miguel (2021). The administration of agricultural insurance necessitates the pinpointing and evaluation of risks pertinent to this industry. A potent method to accomplish this is the utilization of Supervised Vector Machine (SVM) learning algorithms.

The Support Vector Machine (SVM) stands as a solid and adaptable supervised machine learning algorithm, suitable for the analysis and appraisal of risk elements influencing agricultural insurance, as per Mukherjee (2023). This sophisticated mechanism capitalizes on past data, statistical analysis, and machine learning to forecast and gauge the probability of insurance claims and economic detriments within the agricultural realm.

The current study investigates the use of SVM in evaluating risk factors in agricultural insurance. It will probe into the essential phases of this methodology, encompassing data gathering and refinement, to the training and assessment of the model. Furthermore, the researcher will elucidate the benefits of employing SVM in this field and its contribution to the enhancement of decision-making processes among insurers, agricultural experts, and policy formulators. Through the exploitation of SVM, the investigator aims to acquire an intricate comprehension of the multifaceted nature of agricultural risks, thereby charting a course towards more robust and enduring agricultural insurance schemes.

1.1 Background of Study

Agriculture stands as one of the most fundamental sectors of the global economy, playing a pivotal role in ensuring food security and sustaining livelihoods for a significant portion of the world's population. However, this vital industry is highly susceptible to an array of risks, ranging from unpredictable weather patterns and pests to market volatility and socio-economic factors et al (Clark, 2012). These inherent uncertainties pose substantial challenges to both

farmers and stakeholders in the agricultural sector, making risk management an imperative concern.

Agricultural insurance serves as a crucial tool in addressing these challenges by providing a financial safety net to farmers in the face of potential losses caused by adverse events. Insurance products designed for the agricultural sector offer a means of stabilizing income, ensuring food production continuity, and promoting long-term sustainability. Yet, for these insurance mechanisms to be effective and sustainable, a comprehensive understanding of the risk factors affecting agriculture is essential.

In recent years, advancements in data analytics and machine learning have ushered in new opportunities for assessing and mitigating agricultural risks. Of particular interest is the application of Supervised Vector Machine (SVM) learning algorithms, a potent branch of artificial intelligence. SVM leverages historical data, enabling it to model intricate relationships between various factors and the likelihood of insurance claims, ultimately contributing to more informed risk assessment (Kreutz et al., 2015).

This study delves into the utilization of SVM as a predictive tool to assess risk factors for agricultural insurance. SVM's capacity to navigate complex, multidimensional data and discern non-linear relationships makes it an ideal candidate for comprehending the intricate dynamics of agricultural risk (Shin et al., 2014). The incorporation of SVM into risk assessment processes has the potential to offer significant benefits, not only to insurance companies seeking to optimize underwriting practices but also to farmers who rely on fair insurance premiums and proactive risk management.

1.2 Problem Statement

Agriculture plays a pivotal role in global economies, providing sustenance for populations and supporting livelihoods. However, it is inherently exposed to various risks such as adverse weather conditions, pest infestations, and market fluctuations. Agriculture insurance acts as a crucial safety net for farmers, offering financial protection against these uncertainties. Traditional methods of risk assessment in agriculture insurance often rely on historical data and subjective evaluations, leading to limitations in accuracy and efficiency.

1.3 Research Aim

This research endeavours to examine the utilization of Supervised Vector Machine (SVM) learning algorithms for their predictive and analytical capabilities in thoroughly evaluating and

measuring the risk elements linked to agricultural insurance. The objective is to assess the proficiency of SVM in forecasting and analyzing risks in agricultural insurance, thereby aiding insurance providers, agricultural analysts, and policymakers in making more knowledgeable and data-driven decisions.

1.4 Research Objectives

1. To compile and pre-process relevant historical data, including information on insurance claims, agricultural production, weather patterns, and other pertinent variables.
2. To design and implement a Supervised Vector Machine (SVM) learning algorithms as a predictive and analytical tool for agricultural insurance
3. To evaluate the effectiveness of the SVM model on predicting agriculture risk insurance.

1.5 Research Questions

1. How the author is going to design and implement a Supervised Vector Machine (SVM) learning algorithms as a predictive and analytical tool for agricultural insurance
2. What are the tools to be used to compile and pre-process relevant historical data, including information on insurance claims, agricultural production, weather patterns, and other pertinent variables?
3. What methods are to be used to train SVM models using the prepared historical data to establish the relationship between selected features and the likelihood of insurance claims and losses in the agricultural sector?
4. The criteria for assessing the success and efficiency of the Support Vector Machine model in forecasting agricultural risk insurance include various performance metrics.

1.6 Research Hypothesis

Null Hypothesis (H0): The null hypothesis posits that traditional approaches and machine learning techniques are equally accurate in evaluating agricultural insurance risks.

Alternative Hypothesis (H1): Machine learning models demonstrate a significantly higher accuracy in predicting and assessing agriculture risks insurance compared to traditional methods.

1.7 Research Justification

This study delves into the utilization of SVM as a predictive tool to assess risk factors for agricultural insurance. SVM's capacity to navigate complex, multidimensional data and discern non-linear relationships makes it an ideal candidate for comprehending the intricate dynamics of agricultural risk. The incorporation of SVM into risk assessment processes has the potential to offer significant benefits, not only to insurance companies seeking to optimize underwriting practices but also to farmers who rely on fair insurance premiums and proactive risk management.

1.8 Assumptions

In this research, it is assumed that the data collected for evaluating agricultural risk factors is comprehensive, accurate, and representative of the various conditions affecting crop health and yield. It is further assumed that the machine learning models selected will effectively capture and learn from the underlying patterns within the data, leading to reliable risk assessments. The study presumes access to sufficient computational resources to process and analyze large datasets efficiently. Additionally, it is assumed that the external factors influencing agricultural risks, such as climate change, market volatility, and technological advancements, will remain consistent enough over the study period to ensure the validity of the model predictions. Ethical considerations, such as data privacy and the fair use of predictions, are also assumed to be adequately addressed through appropriate safeguards and compliance with relevant regulations.

1.9 Research Limitation

This study aims to advance the field of agricultural insurance risk evaluation by employing machine learning techniques. However, it's important to recognize some inherent constraints. The performance of the models created is heavily dependent on both the accessibility and the calibre of the data used. Limited access to comprehensive datasets, especially in certain regions, may impact the models' accuracy and generalizability. Additionally, the dynamic nature of agricultural systems poses a challenge, as unforeseen events or shifts in farming practices may influence the models' predictive capabilities. Interpretability of machine learning models, though emphasized, may still present challenges, potentially hindering trust among stakeholders (Clark, 2012). Furthermore, the study's scope may not cover every nuance of localized practices and variations, and the generalization of findings should be approached cautiously. Lastly, external factors such as policy changes or economic shifts could affect the

applicability of the proposed risk assessment framework. These limitations highlight areas for consideration and future refinement in the continuous evolution of agriculture insurance risk assessment methodologies

1.10 Scope of study

This research focuses on enhancing agriculture insurance risk assessment through the application of machine learning. The study encompasses diverse geographical regions, integrating satellite imagery, weather data, historical agricultural practices, and market trends to create a comprehensive dataset. The scope includes multifaceted risk factors, such as weather events, diseases, and market volatility. Machine learning models, incorporating various algorithms, will be developed for prediction and pattern recognition. Special emphasis is placed on customization to local contexts, ensuring relevance and accuracy in different agricultural regions. Transparency and interpretability are key considerations, aiming to build trust among stakeholders. The study involves rigorous validation and benchmarking against traditional methods to evaluate performance improvements. Additionally, adaptability to regions with limited historical data will be explored. Stakeholder involvement, including farmers and insurance providers, is integral to align the models with practical needs (Heller et al., 2012). Ultimately, this research aims to provide a robust and applicable framework for agriculture insurance risk assessment.

1.11 Definition of Terms

Agriculture Insurance: Insurance offerings are available to safeguard agricultural producers and enterprises against financial setbacks due to a range of hazards. These include, among others, unfavourable weather events, plant illnesses, and unpredictable changes in the marketplace. Such products provide a financial safety net, ensuring the stability and continuity of agricultural operations despite the uncertainties inherent in the industry.

Risk Assessment: The process of evaluating and quantifying potential risks to determine their impact and likelihood. In the context of agriculture insurance, risk assessment involves analysing factors that could lead to financial losses for farmers or insurers.

Machine Learning: Machine learning, a branch of artificial intelligence, empowers computer systems to enhance their capabilities through data analysis, allowing them to perform better

without direct programming. The study utilizes machine learning to create predictive models that evaluate and forecast risks in agricultural insurance.

Diverse Data Sources: This describes the process of combining diverse data forms and sources, including financial status, meteorological information, past farming techniques, and economic patterns, to develop an extensive dataset that is used to train algorithms in machine learning. This holistic approach to data amalgamation is essential for creating accurate and efficient predictive models that can, for example, enhance agricultural productivity and sustainability.

Customization to Localized Contexts: The process of adapting machine learning models to specific conditions, practices, and challenges unique to different agricultural regions. Customization ensures that the models are relevant and accurate in diverse geographic and cultural contexts.

Interpretability and Explainability: The degree to which machine learning models can be understood by humans. Interpretability refers to the model's transparency, while explainability involves providing clear explanations for the model's predictions, fostering trust among stakeholders.

Validation and Benchmarking: Validation is the process of evaluating a machine learning model's effectiveness and precision by utilizing separate datasets not used during the training phase. On the other hand, benchmarking is the act of measuring the developed models' performance in relation to established conventional methods to determine any enhancements. This approach ensures that the model not only performs well in theory but also stands up to existing standards and contributes to progress in the field.

1.12 Conclusion

In conclusion, Chapter 1 has laid the foundation for the research on enhancing agriculture insurance risk assessment using machine learning. The significance of the study has been established in addressing limitations of traditional methods and leveraging data-driven approaches. The research objectives, including the development of advanced predictive models, integration of diverse data sources, and customization to localized contexts, have been outlined. The hypotheses provide clear expectations for empirical testing. Acknowledging potential limitations, the chapter sets the stage for a focused and comprehensive investigation into revolutionizing agriculture insurance risk assessment methodologies.

CHAPTER 2 – Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

A literature review is an academic piece that demonstrates a thorough grasp of the scholarly works pertinent to a particular topic, set within a wider framework. It goes beyond mere summarization to include a critical analysis of the literature, which distinguishes it as a 'review' rather than just a 'report'. In essence, it involves the dual undertaking of scrutinizing the available scholarly works and crafting an analytical essay on the topic, as noted by Rudestam, K.E. and Newton, R.R. in their 1992 work.

2.1 Agricultural Insurance Services

Agriculture, being a venture susceptible to cyclical patterns, fires, and natural calamities, inherently carries a significant risk. To mitigate potential losses from these uncertainties, farmers often turn to insurance as a protective measure. The rationale behind obtaining insurance is to safeguard farm property, crop yields, and revenue, especially in the face of agricultural price fluctuations or unforeseen disasters. Paradoxically, in Zimbabwe, the adoption of insurance within the farming community remains relatively low. Farmers appear to undervalue the insurance products available and struggle to recognize the intrinsic worth of agricultural insurance policies. The challenge lies in the perception that insurance is an investment made during periods of agricultural prosperity, only revealing its utility when a farmer encounters a loss—an event that may unfold years into the future. This delay in reaping immediate benefits makes it challenging for farmers to commit to paying premiums.

2.2 The Insurance Industry in Zimbabwe

The insurance industry in Zimbabwe is notably advanced and diverse, especially when compared to others in the Sub-Saharan African region. It features some of the most well-known brokerage firms in the area as of 2010. The sector is comprised of 27 companies offering non-life insurance, two firms providing reinsurance, and 20 brokerage agencies. The industry offers a broad spectrum of insurance products, with the distribution of gross premiums across different products depicted in Figure 1. Motor insurance dominates the market with nearly half of the total contributions at 48%, while credit and hire purchase insurance represent the least at just 0.003%. Agriculture insurance, while essential, makes up a mere 5% of the total market portfolio, as reported in 2009. In Zimbabwe, insurance for the agricultural sector is mainly categorized as short-term or general insurance. Although agriculture plays a vital part in the nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), it is notable that the percentage of insurance premiums

from agriculture within the total gross premium revenue stands at a modest 5%, as illustrated in Figure 1. This low percentage points to potential underuse of insurance offerings within the agricultural industry, which is an issue that warrants attention.

In Zimbabwe, the main type of agricultural insurance falls under the category of property insurance and is mainly available to commercial farmers. The most frequently offered policy is known as "named peril" or "hail insurance," which caters specifically to the requirements of these farmers. The insurance covers a range of items, including farm equipment and machinery like tractors, trailers, irrigation devices, and farm structures.

Prior to the implementation of the Fast Track Land Reform Program (FTLRP), the focus of agricultural insurance providers was on commercial farmers who owned valuable equipment and had considerable expertise and management capabilities. These experienced farmers were seen as moderate risks, especially concerning unique risks associated with their specific farms, which facilitated the development of agricultural insurance. Post-FTLRP, however, there has been a shift to a new cohort of farmers who generally have less knowledge, management ability, experience, and property ownership than their predecessors, leading to increased risk levels within the industry.

The rise of novice farmers, supported by government-provided inputs and equipment, created a reliance on state aid. This reliance caused many of these farmers to overlook the need for insurance. As a result, the increased dependency and risk led to a surge in insurance premiums. Furthermore, the diminished value placed on insurance, due to government assistance, led to its reduced adoption in the farming community.

2.3 Empirical Studies on Agriculture Insurance

2.3.1 Models of agriculture insurance

Agricultural insurance serves as an essential tool for managing risk in farming, and it's divided into three primary categories based on the approach to calculating claims, as described by Iturrioz (2009). The first type is indemnity-based insurance, which includes various policies like multiple peril crop insurance, specific peril insurance, and insurance for livestock and aquaculture. This insurance compensates farmers for their actual losses. The second type is index-based insurance, which covers policies like rainfall and weather index insurance, where payouts are triggered by set indices, regardless of the actual damage. The third type is crop-

revenue-based insurance, which is tied to input-based insurance policies, connecting payouts to input factors and their risks. Yusuf (2010) expands on these categories, detailing six distinct agricultural insurance types, such as multiple peril and specific peril crop insurance, rainfall index insurance, and insurance for livestock and aquaculture, as well as index-based and input-based insurance policies. These categories provide a detailed framework for understanding the various agricultural insurance forms, encompassing indemnity, index, and crop-revenue-based models. The study utilizes Iturrioz's classification to effectively encompass the subtle distinctions made by other scholars in defining the types of agricultural insurance.

Indemnity-based

Indemnity-based insurance products operate on the principle of compensating policyholders for the actual losses they incur due to insured events. This category is further divided into two sub-classes: named peril insurance and multiple peril crop insurance (MPCI). Named peril insurance involves defining the sum insured based on agreed-upon criteria, such as production costs or expected crop revenue. MPCI, on the other hand, provides coverage against all perils affecting production, unless explicitly excluded in the insurance contract. It serves as the traditional form of crop insurance, encompassing perils like drought, flood, insects, and diseases that may impact multiple insured farmers simultaneously. The bundling of perils into a single MPCI policy offers comprehensive coverage but comes with a higher cost compared to named peril insurance. This elevated cost often necessitates government subsidies on premiums to facilitate increased uptake. Binswager (1986), as cited in Makaudze and Miranda (2009), highlighted that the expense associated with traditional crop insurance has been a significant barrier to the development of agricultural insurance markets.

Index-Based insurance

Insurance products based on indices, as described by Iturrioz in 2009, calculate claims based on a predetermined index rather than on-site loss evaluations. Such an index is closely linked to losses and is not influenced by the insured. Indices can be factors like rainfall, temperature, average regional produce, or water levels in rivers. Traditional crop insurance methods, known as multiple peril crop insurance (MPCI), are often expensive and limited, leading to increased interest in index-based alternatives, as Makaudze and Miranda highlighted in 2010. Index-based insurance compensates farmers using a measurable variable that is indicative of their potential crop losses, providing a safeguard against extreme weather events and reducing the common problems of moral hazard and adverse selection found in standard agricultural insurance schemes.

Crop revenue insurance

According to Iturrioz (2009), crop revenue agricultural insurance is designed to protect those insured against the negative effects of either reduced harvests, falling prices, or both. This insurance type is particularly beneficial for farmers who rely on short-term loans for crop production, which are expected to be paid back with the proceeds from their agricultural products. Additionally, it benefits lenders who finance the crops by providing a sense of security that the projected income, which is the foundation of the credit, will be largely achieved.

Property insurance

Property insurance acts as a form of indirect agricultural insurance, concentrating on protecting the vital assets required for farming rather than the crops themselves. It is chosen by farmers to protect their agricultural properties against potential hazards like theft and fire. This insurance coverage extends to a range of farm assets, such as tractors, trucks, and other crucial machinery.

2.4 Conceptual framework for agriculture insurance uptake

Uptake is the process by which a new product or concept is accepted and adopted. In the context of agriculture, uptake pertains to how farmers embrace agricultural insurance. To understand what influences farmers to adopt agricultural insurance, it's important to consider the factors that drive their demand for it. Parkin and colleagues (2002) identified several key factors that determine demand: the product's price, the cost of alternative options, the price of complementary items, income levels, consumer expectations regarding future prices or income,

and personal tastes and preferences. These elements are interrelated and collectively assessed by commercial farmers when deciding to purchase insurance. The 'own price' factor, which is the premium or cost paid by the farmer either monthly or annually for the insurance policy, plays a significant role. If the premium is high and the coverage low, it tends to discourage farmers from buying the policy. Conversely, a low premium coupled with extensive coverage can lead to increased adoption of the policy.

The concept of substitute availability pertains to how easily and affordably one can access alternative methods for managing agricultural risks, like diversifying farming operations or joining cooperatives. The income factor encompasses earnings from both farming and non-farming sources. A higher farm income necessitates greater agricultural insurance to safeguard against potential losses. Conversely, having an additional income source outside of farming can serve as a risk mitigation strategy, potentially diminishing the need for such insurance. Consumer expectations, shaped by projections of future yields, revenues, drought impacts, and the anticipated benefits versus costs of insurance, along with the likelihood of receiving payouts, influence the adoption rate of agricultural insurance. Factors such as a farmer's age, experience, education level, farm size, the insurer's reputation, and previous experiences with insurance also play a role in shaping preferences and choices regarding agricultural insurance.

Complementary goods are products where the demand for one item drives the demand for another related good. This is known as derived demand. For instance, when agricultural credit services that necessitate crop insurance are expanded, there's a corresponding rise in the need for such insurance. Additionally, complementary goods can be those sold together in packages. For example, insurance firms and agricultural lending organizations may offer stop-order services that align with the operations of marketing associations. An illustrative example is the collaboration between Agribank and the Tobacco Industry and Marketing Board (TIMB), where a stop-order system ensures that tobacco farmers' loan payments are secured for Agribank.

2.5 Challenges to agriculture insurance uptake

In a 2010 case study focusing on the Nigerian Agricultural Insurance Scheme, Yusuf highlighted that despite the scheme's considerable advantages for farmers, several obstacles were present. Challenges identified included the scheme's limited reach, a dearth of necessary data for calculating key insurance underwriting factors like crop yield and the number of farmers. Furthermore, the study pointed out the shortage of skilled agricultural insurance

professionals, as well as issues with moral hazard and the selection of high-risk individuals for coverage.

Several factors contribute to the underperformance of agricultural insurance schemes. These include minimal engagement from commercial banks in financing agriculture, insufficient agricultural infrastructure, and a shortage of veterinary staff. Government overreach, disinterest from insurance firms, and challenges in developing new insurance products for agriculture also play a role. Echoing Yusuf's research, Mahul and Stutley (2010) observed that participation in government-backed agricultural insurance programs, particularly in Multi-Peril Crop Insurance (MPCI), has been underwhelming. Issues such as low insurance uptake despite substantial premium subsidies, habitual underestimation of agriculture's catastrophic risks, financial deficits due to high claims and operational costs surpassing premiums, mispricing, unchecked moral hazards, and adverse selection plague agricultural insurance programs globally. The World Bank's Commodity Risk Management Group notes the absence of any substantial experience with mandatory crop insurance, citing the U.S.'s brief trial and subsequent discontinuation of such a policy in 1995. For many impoverished farmers, agricultural insurance remains a low priority amid the pressing need to allocate limited financial resources from farming to other urgent needs.

Subsistence farmers typically prefer to mitigate their production risks by adopting diverse farming methods, using minimal inputs, and supplementing their income with non-farm activities. Their immediate concern is to secure essential resources like seeds and fertilizers, often requiring credit to procure these necessities. Crop insurance becomes a consideration only after these needs are met. The effectiveness of agricultural insurance hinges on the presence of fundamental agricultural services, including extension support, prompt supply of resources, access to credit, and reliable agricultural product marketing systems. In the absence of these integral services, particularly in developing economies, the advantages of agricultural insurance remain largely unrealized, as noted by Albert in 2000.

The agricultural sector in Zimbabwe is an example of a market where formal insurance and reinsurance are underdeveloped or absent, as noted by Sadati et al. (2010). This situation is exacerbated by the absence of robust legal frameworks to enforce insurance contracts, leading to poor performance in the agricultural insurance market. The introduction of index-based insurance, like weather index insurance, faces challenges due to the scarcity of high-quality data, often because of inadequate national meteorological services and observation networks,

as Yusuf (2010) points out. Despite its significance, the adoption of agricultural insurance in Zimbabwe has not been well recorded. Insights into this issue were provided by a 2010 article from The Herald, which discussed the potential introduction of weather index insurance. The Zimbabwe Farmers Union (ZFU) was cited in the article expressing concern over farmers' hesitation to buy agricultural insurance, attributing it to a lack of awareness about its advantages. The ZFU emphasized the necessity of educating farmers about agricultural insurance and noted that the low uptake could also be due to the high premiums charged by insurance providers.

2.6 Machine Learning Algorithms

Machine learning techniques are emerging as cost-efficient and precise methods utilized in various applications like image and speech recognition, as well as in automated systems. This section delves into a comprehensive overview of classification models, including conventional ones like logistic regression, decision trees, random forests, Artificial Neural Networks (ANN), Support Vector Machines (SVM), Radial Basis Function Neural Networks, alongside deep learning neural network models, particularly in the context of medical data analysis. Additionally, it highlights several effective classification algorithms tailored for medical image analysis. While traditional algorithms tend to yield superior outcomes with smaller datasets, their performance does not scale similarly with larger datasets in terms of accuracy, robustness, and avoiding overfitting. Conversely, deep learning neural networks show enhanced performance as the volume of data grows.

Types of Machine Learning Algorithms

Supervised machine learning (ML) algorithms are methods that utilize historical, labelled data to predict new data points or categorize them. These algorithms operate under the guidance of predefined labels that act as teachers to direct the learning process. Initially, they analyse a known dataset, then apply the learned patterns to forecast outcomes. The predicted results are evaluated against actual results to identify discrepancies. If mistakes are found, adjustments are made to improve the model's accuracy.

On the other hand, unsupervised ML algorithms function without the need for labelled data or an overseeing 'teacher.' They are employed to analyze data that hasn't been categorized or labelled. Instead of predicting outcomes, these algorithms sift through data to find patterns and

structures, forming rules that help understand the underlying characteristics of the data without any prior instruction on what to look for.

Semi-supervised machine learning algorithms fall between supervised and unsupervised learning in the spectrum of machine learning categories. They utilize a combination of both labelled and unlabelled data during the training phase. Typically, the algorithm is fed a small set of labelled data alongside a larger pool of unlabelled data. This approach is adopted to enhance the precision of the learning process.

Reinforcement machine learning algorithms operate on a reward or penalty system based on the actions executed by the model. In this learning paradigm, if the model is trained for a specific task and it underperforms, it may receive a penalty; conversely, successful task completion results in a reward. This method usually employs binary indicators, where 0 signifies a penalty and 1 signifies a reward.

2.7 Previous studies

In 2016, Gerald Munyoro and his team explored the significance of agricultural insurance in advancing Zimbabwe's farming sector, particularly in Mashonaland Central Province. Their research likely examines how insurance can alleviate the risks and uncertainties that farmers encounter, thereby aiding in the sector's growth and enduring viability. The study possibly assesses aspects like the level of awareness, acceptance, and influence of agricultural insurance on the farmers, along with the potential difficulties and benefits of its application. The outcomes of this research might offer critical perspectives for decision-makers, professionals, and interested parties seeking to bolster the agricultural sector's robustness and output through proficient risk management techniques.

Research on agricultural insurance's impact in Zimbabwe has underscored its essential contribution to the advancement of agriculture. The study's results indicate that agricultural insurance is a key factor, as evidenced by a mean score of 1.21 and an Anova p-value of 0.42. This is consistent with Gresh and colleagues' 2012 findings, which point out the critical role of insurance in offering security to farmers, facilitating market access, and enabling profitable agricultural activities. Furthermore, the World Bank's 2018 report highlights the vital role of agricultural insurance in eliminating poverty and fostering economic growth in agriculturally driven economies such as Zimbabwe's.

The research indicates that agricultural insurance is beneficial for increasing production, as evidenced by an average score of 2.8 and an Anova p-value of 0.13. This finding is consistent with the view that insurance plays a significant role in enhancing and expanding the output of the agricultural sector, particularly for small-scale farmers. The availability of insurance is believed to empower farmers to access credit, embrace innovative technologies, and reduce risks, which in turn, contributes to heightened productivity.

In 2021, Catherine Mazwi R. Tsikirayi and her team undertook a study examining how the agricultural sector in Zimbabwe has been integrating agricultural insurance services. The research sought to uncover the various elements that affect farmers' decisions to utilize agricultural insurance within the nation.

The study delved into the level of knowledge and perception of agricultural insurance within the farming community. It was revealed that farmers' awareness varied, with a number not fully grasping the advantages and protections provided by such insurance. This gap in understanding has been recognized as a major obstacle to the adoption of insurance offerings in the agricultural sector.

The research further explored how trust and the perceived reliability of insurance companies affect agricultural producers' choices regarding insurance adoption. It was found that the assurance in the integrity of insurance offerings and the reputation of the providers played a significant role. Producers tended to opt for insurance services from well-regarded and reliable sources, underscoring the necessity of establishing a foundation of trust in the sector of agricultural insurance.

2.8 Literature Review Summary

The literature review provides an extensive survey of the research and studies that pertain to the topic at hand. It carefully maps out the terrain of past inquiries, utilizing a range of sources to lay the groundwork for the present investigation. Through a thorough examination of the results, approaches, and understandings from earlier research, the author pinpoints areas lacking in information and potential avenues for new research.

The compilation of scholarly works not only reflects the existing body of knowledge in a particular area but also lays the groundwork for the research methods and structure utilized in the following sections. The review of literature serves as a navigational tool, informing the

formulation of research inquiries and aims by drawing on the recognized theories and practices prevalent in scholarly discussions.

The chapter further highlights the ongoing advancement and consistency of understanding within the specified area of research. It becomes clear that research is a repetitive process as the author points out opportunities for new insights, tackling existing gaps or building on current theories. Through this introspective approach, the present study is situated as part of a larger scholarly dialogue, aiding in the continuous evolution of intellectual thought.

The literature review is indeed a cornerstone of scholarly research, offering a critical assessment of existing knowledge and identifying the interstices where new inquiries can be positioned. It is through this meticulous process that researchers can contextualize their work within the broader academic milieu, ensuring that their empirical endeavors are not conducted in isolation but are instead deeply rooted in the continuum of intellectual pursuit. This integrative approach not only fortifies the study's methodological framework but also enriches the discourse, fostering a collaborative advancement of understanding within the field.

2.9 Conclusion

Chapter 2 of the thesis provides a comprehensive overview of previous research conducted by various authors in the chosen field of study. The author aims to establish a foundation by presenting relevant and essential information gleaned from prior studies. This literature review is instrumental in demonstrating the viability of the proposed system, showcasing its feasibility in the context of existing research.

CHAPTER 3: Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter's purpose is to present the methods and instruments employed to fulfil the established goals of the research and the system. Leveraging the knowledge gained from the preceding chapter, the author intends to devise the essential methodologies for crafting a solution and will investigate different tactics to realize the anticipated results of the research.

3.1 Research Design

Research design is a critical and introspective activity throughout all phases of a project. At the design phase, attention is directed towards developing different system components and outlining their specific roles. The main goal is to create a design that results in a functional, efficient, enduring, and dependable system architecture. This particular study focuses on the use of machine learning, with an emphasis on the decision tree algorithm. For programming, Python is chosen, and the Streamlit platform is employed to implement the model. This comprehensive approach combines machine learning techniques, a specific algorithm, and a set of programming tools to design, train, and deploy the predictive model. The decision tree algorithm, along with Python and Streamlit, collectively forms the methodology for the research, facilitating the effective creation and deployment of the machine learning model. The author chooses an experimental research design to observe system and object changes and responses while adjusting or changing factors.

3.1.1 Requirements Analysis

Currently, it's crucial to document the system's functional and non-functional requirements. Organizing data methodically, performing comprehensive evaluations, considering the customer's limitations, and formulating a specification that is both accessible and meets the customer's demands is recommended. Additionally, the study considered various restrictions, including time and financial limitations that could hinder the design process.

3.1.1.1 Functional Requirements

- The system ought to be able to assess the risk of a farmer for agricultural insurance.
- The user should enter the required data for prediction.

3.1.1.2 Non-Functional Requirements

- The system is designed for rapid prediction capabilities.
- It should be user-friendly in terms of installation.
- The system is expected to be consistently operational, providing straightforward predictive functions.
- The system is engineered to have minimal latency in both response and decision-making processes.

3.1.1.3 Hardware Requirements

- Laptop core i3 and above
- 4 Gig RAM
- 500 GIG HDD

3.1.1.4 Software Requirements

- The Windows 10 OS
- Jupyter Interactive Notebook
- Visual Studio Code Editor
- Python version 3.9
- The Streamlit Web Application Framework

3.2 System Development

This system provides an overview of its development process, detailing how it was created to yield specific results. It outlines the software tools and models employed throughout the system development process.

3.2.1 System Development tools

Software engineering encompasses various methodologies that serve as organized approaches to software production or system design. These methodologies provide a framework for the planning, organization, and management of the processes involved in creating an information system. Numerous models have been recognized by researchers, each tailored for different types of projects and offering distinct advantages and disadvantages based on their use. Among these are the waterfall, spiral, and prototyping models. For projects of a smaller scope with tight deadlines, the Agile Software model is preferred for its straightforwardness. However, when all project specifications are clear and the necessary tools are available, the waterfall model is identified as the most fitting for the particular project at hand.

3.2.2 Agile Software Model

The Agile Software Model is an active, cyclical method for creating software that emphasizes adaptability, teamwork, and ongoing customer input. Unlike the sequential nature of models like the waterfall model, Agile focuses on the ability to accommodate changing needs and consistently deliver working increments of software. It is distinguished by its cyclical development cycles, dividing the work into short, controllable periods known as sprints, which usually span from two to four weeks. At the end of each sprint, a version of the product that could potentially be released is produced, demonstrating a dedication to steady advancement. The model's flexibility ensures that modifications to the project's scope can be made at any stage, responding to the project's shifting demands.

Agile methodology places a strong emphasis on teamwork and the seamless integration of various functional groups, such as developers, testers, and business stakeholders. Through consistent dialogue and review sessions, it ensures that the team's efforts are in sync with the client's needs. Engaging customers throughout the project lifecycle is fundamental, allowing for real-time modifications in response to their input. This approach values personal interactions and collaborative efforts more than strict adherence to procedures and tools, thereby encouraging transparent communication and collective work. By regularly rolling out small, yet significant software updates, it delivers discernible benefits to clients frequently, thus supporting the prompt and ongoing provision of valuable product features. Embracing continuous enhancement as a key tenet, Agile uses end-of-cycle retrospectives to drive the evolution and betterment of practices. By fostering a unified team environment that transcends traditional departmental barriers, Agile enhances both productivity and dialogue among team members.

AGILE METHODOLOGY

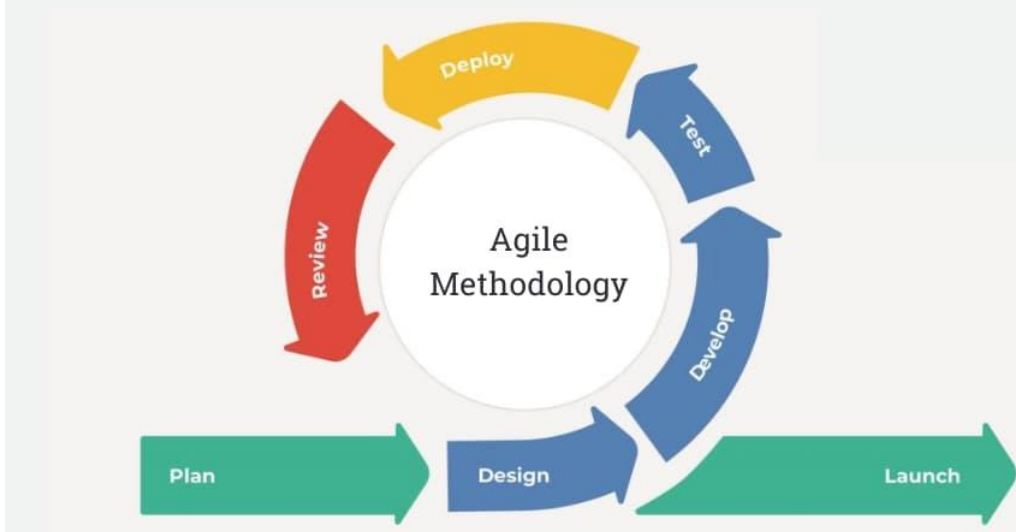


Figure 1 : Agile Model

Beyond the methodology, the system's development incorporated the use of these tools:

- *Python*
- *Streamlit*
- *Dataset*

3.3 Summary of how the system works

The agricultural insurance system utilizing a machine learning algorithm operates through a comprehensive process to assess the risk for farmers that affect Agriculture Insurance. The system begins by collecting relevant data, such as historical weather patterns, soil quality, crop types, and previous yield records. This data is pre-processed to clean, normalize, and handle missing values. Feature selection is performed to identify key factors influencing agricultural risk. The chosen machine learning algorithm, such as a decision tree or ensemble method, is trained on a historical dataset with labelled outcomes indicating the level of risk for each farmer.

In the training stage, the algorithm acquires the ability to discern patterns and connections among the input variables and their corresponding risk categories. After training, the model

undergoes evaluation using a distinct dataset to confirm its efficacy and its capacity to adapt to unseen data. The evaluation of the system employs measures such as accuracy, precision, recall, and the F1 score to assess its performance.

During the active phase, the developed model becomes a part of the insurance evaluation workflow. Agricultural producers submit their pertinent information, which the system uses to forecast the level of risk, drawing on insights from the model's training. This risk evaluation informs the calculation of insurance rates and the extent of coverage. The system's design is flexible, accommodating ongoing updates and refinements with the influx of new information.

This system's essential elements consist of gathering data, initial processing, choosing relevant features, training the model, its assessment, and finally, implementing it in a real-world setting. Utilizing machine learning techniques, it improves the precision of evaluating risks, which allows insurers to provide more customized and fair insurance options for agriculture to farmers.

3.4 System Design

The system design for utilizing machine learning techniques to evaluate risk factors in agricultural insurance involves several key components working in a cohesive framework. At the core is a data ingestion module that gathers diverse datasets, including weather conditions, soil characteristics, crop details, and satellite imagery, from various sources. This data is then fed into a preprocessing pipeline where it is cleaned, normalized, and transformed into suitable formats for analysis. The refined data is fed into the machine learning system, containing various models designed for distinct functions like regression, classification, and predicting future trends. These models undergo training and validation with past data to ensure they effectively identify risk patterns and adapt to novel data. The results produced by these models comprise evaluations of risk and forecasts, which are then incorporated into a system that aids in decision-making. This system provides actionable recommendations for insurance premium pricing, claims processing, and risk mitigation strategies. Additionally, the design includes a user interface for farmers and insurers to access risk reports and real-time alerts. The architecture is built to be scalable, ensuring it can handle large volumes of data and provide timely analysis. Security measures are embedded throughout to protect sensitive data and ensure compliance with privacy regulations.

3.4.1 Dataflow Diagrams

Data flow diagrams (DFDs) reveal the interconnections between different system elements. These diagrams serve as a crucial visual tool for outlining a system's overarching structure, illustrating the transformation of incoming data into final outputs via a series of functional changes. In a DFD, the data movement is labelled to reflect the type of data being processed. As a form of information modeling, DFDs offer valuable perspectives on the information conversion process within a system, including the presentation of the final data.

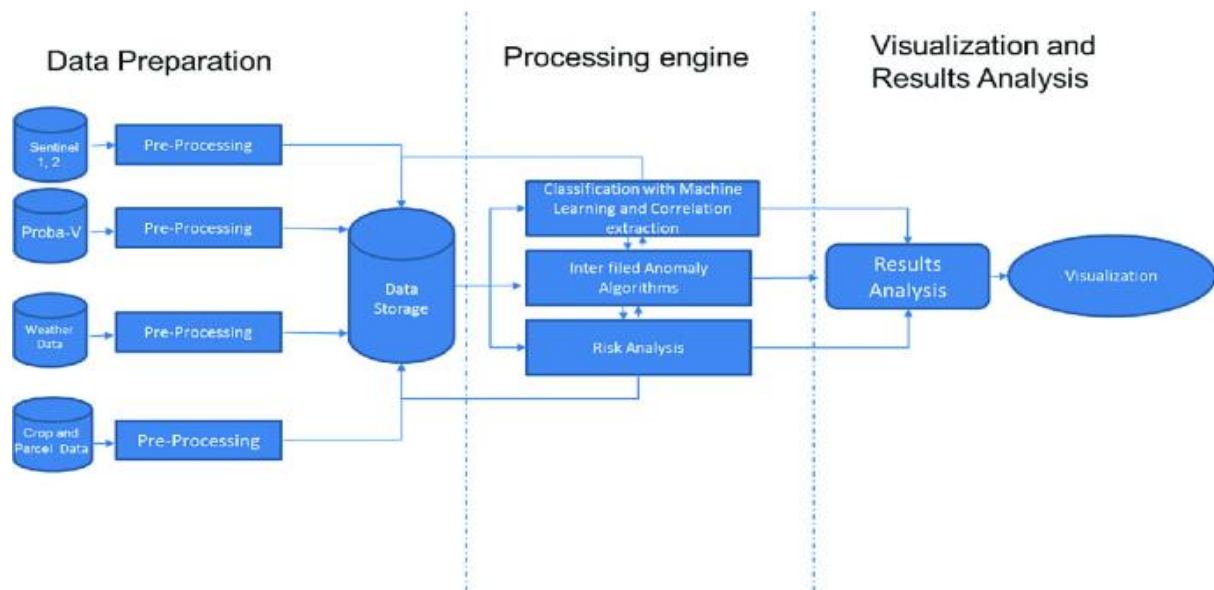


Figure 2: Data Flow Diagram

3.4.2 Proposed System flow chart

Flowcharts serve as a valuable tool for enhancing communication between developers and users. These diagrams are adept at condensing large volumes of information into a limited number of symbols and links, making complex data more accessible and understandable.

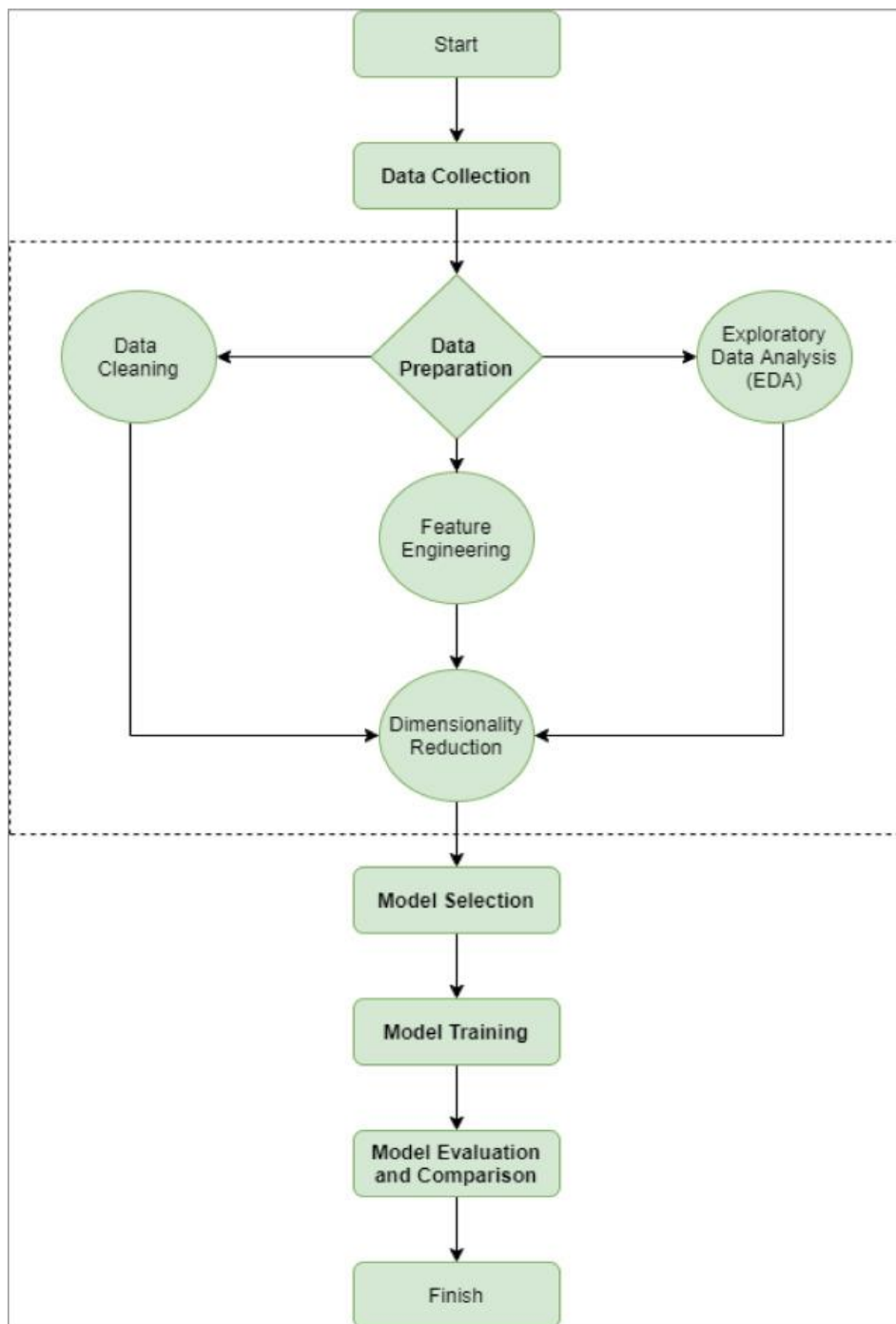
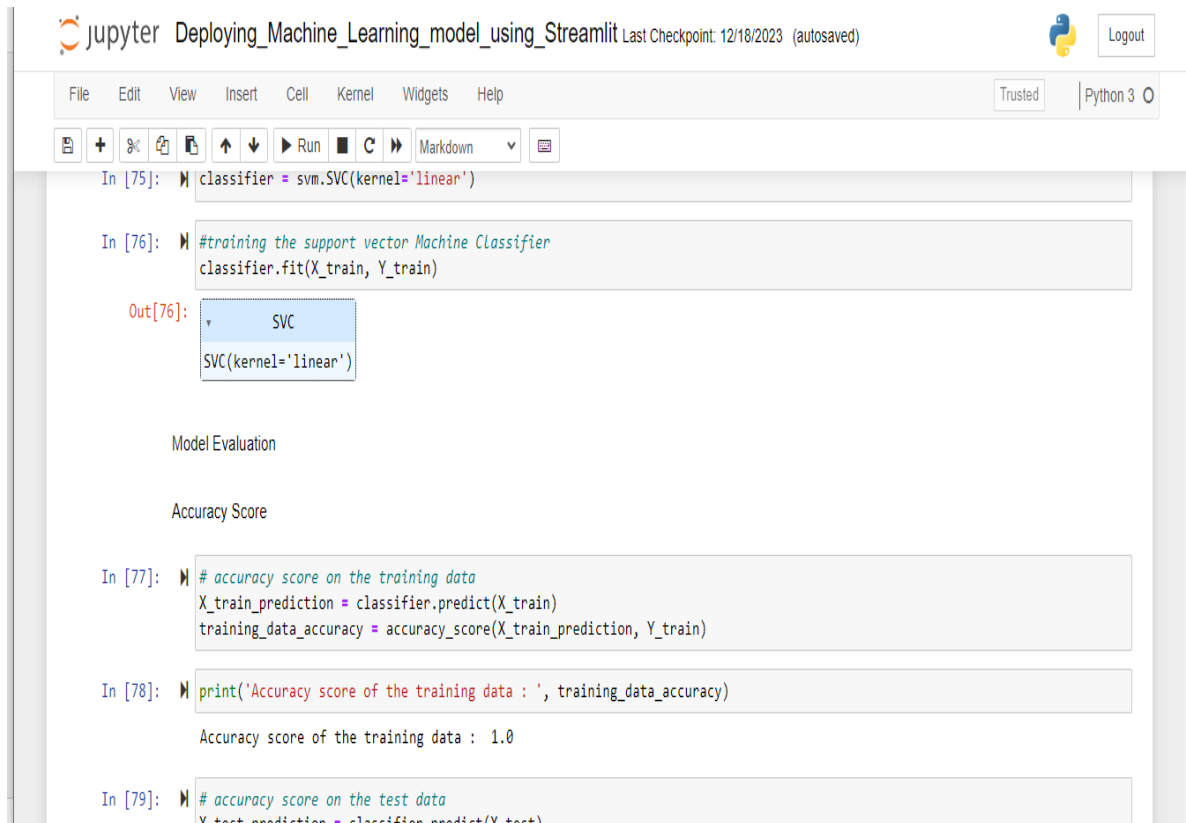


Figure 3: Solution Model Creation



The image shows a Jupyter Notebook titled "Deploying_Machine_Learning_model_using_Streamlit". The interface includes a top bar with the Jupyter logo, the title, and a "Logout" button. Below the top bar is a menu bar with options: File, Edit, View, Insert, Cell, Kernel, Widgets, and Help. A toolbar contains icons for file operations, running cells, and a "Markdown" dropdown. The notebook content consists of several code cells. The first cell (In [75]) defines a linear SVM classifier. The second cell (In [76]) trains the classifier. The output (Out[76]) shows the trained SVC object. Below the code cells, there is a section titled "Model Evaluation" with a sub-section "Accuracy Score". The third cell (In [77]) calculates the training accuracy, and the fourth cell (In [78]) prints it, showing "Accuracy score of the training data : 1.0". The fifth cell (In [79]) starts calculating the test accuracy.

```
In [75]: classifier = svm.SVC(kernel='linear')

In [76]: #training the support vector Machine Classifier
classifier.fit(X_train, Y_train)

Out[76]: SVC
SVC(kernel='linear')
```

Model Evaluation

Accuracy Score

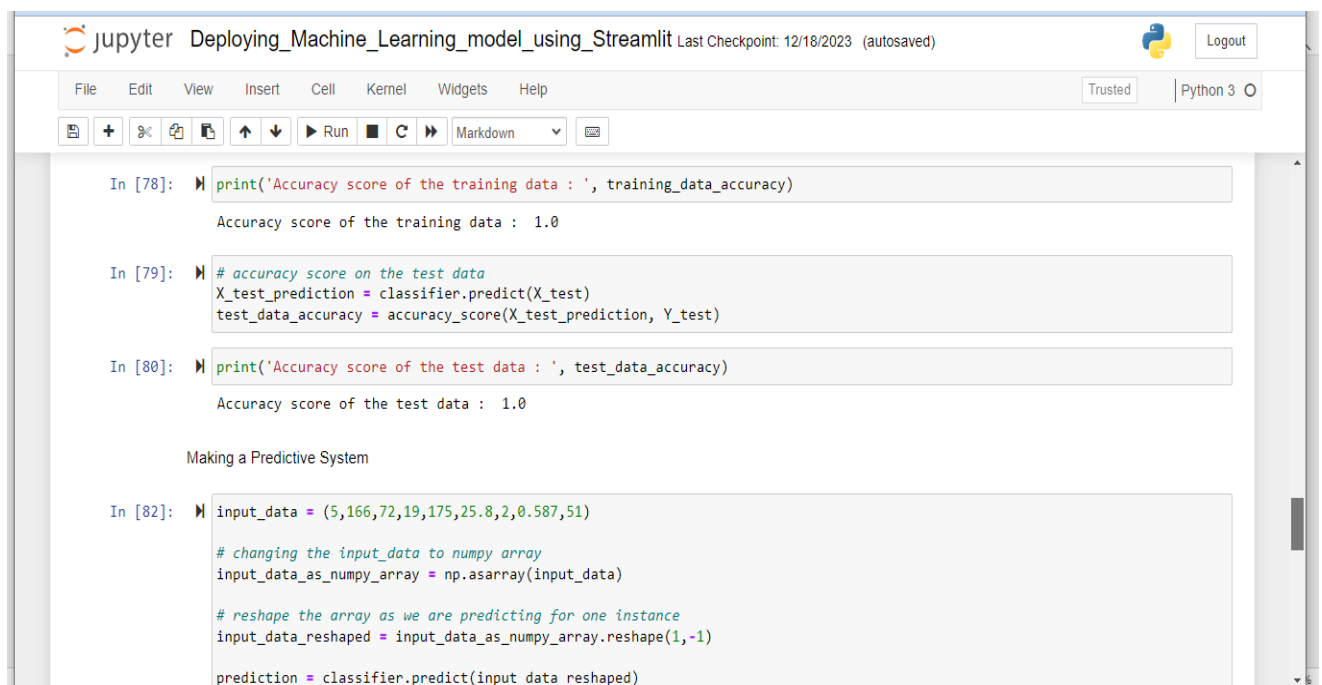
```
In [77]: # accuracy score on the training data
X_train_prediction = classifier.predict(X_train)
training_data_accuracy = accuracy_score(X_train_prediction, Y_train)

In [78]: print('Accuracy score of the training data : ', training_data_accuracy)

Accuracy score of the training data : 1.0

In [79]: # accuracy score on the test data
Y_test_prediction = classifier.predict(Y_test)
```

Figure 4 : Model design



The image shows the continuation of the Jupyter Notebook. It displays the output of the previous cell (In [78]) and the code for calculating test accuracy (In [79]). The output (In [80]) shows "Accuracy score of the test data : 1.0". Below this, there is a section titled "Making a Predictive System". The final cell (In [82]) defines input data, converts it to a numpy array, reshapes it for a single instance prediction, and uses the trained classifier to make a prediction.

```
In [78]: print('Accuracy score of the training data : ', training_data_accuracy)

Accuracy score of the training data : 1.0

In [79]: # accuracy score on the test data
X_test_prediction = classifier.predict(X_test)
test_data_accuracy = accuracy_score(X_test_prediction, Y_test)

In [80]: print('Accuracy score of the test data : ', test_data_accuracy)

Accuracy score of the test data : 1.0

Making a Predictive System

In [82]: input_data = (5,166,72,19,175,25.8,2,0.587,51)

# changing the input_data to numpy array
input_data_as_numpy_array = np.asarray(input_data)

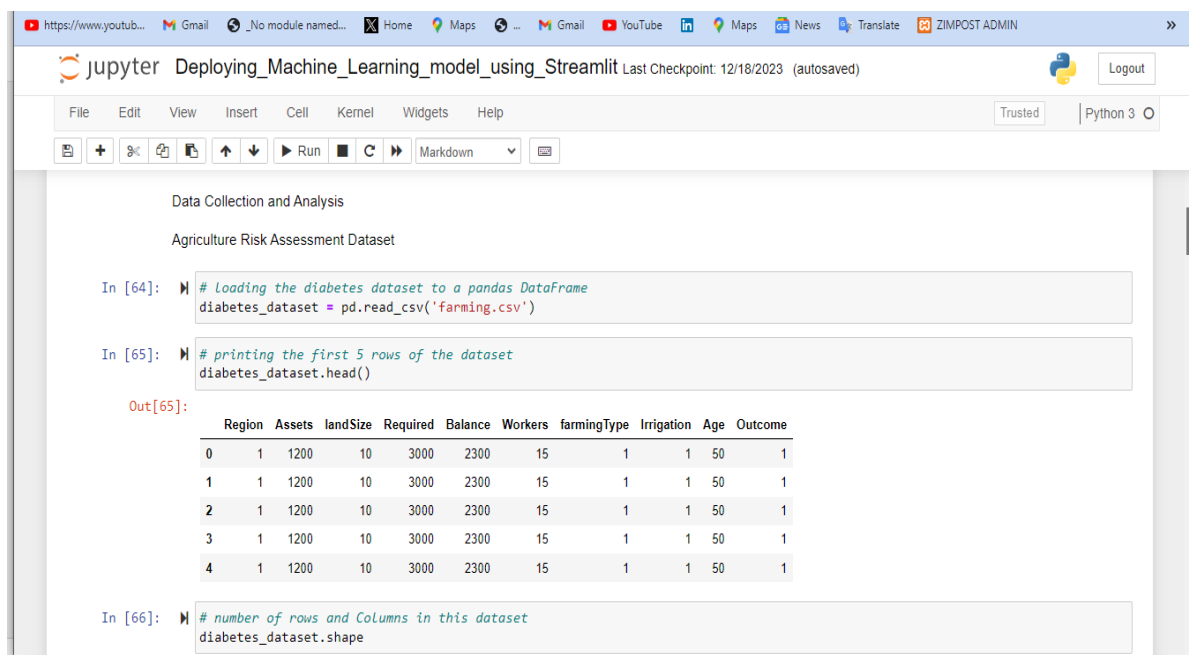
# reshape the array as we are predicting for one instance
input_data_resaped = input_data_as_numpy_array.reshape(1,-1)

prediction = classifier.predict(input_data_resaped)
```

Figure 5 : Model Developed

3.4.4 Dataset

Datasets are the cornerstone of machine learning, crucial for both training and assessing models. They contain pairs of inputs and outputs that train the model to identify patterns and forecast results. As the model trains, it tweaks its parameters to reduce the discrepancy between its predictions and the actual results. Concurrently, the validation dataset aids in fine-tuning the model's hyperparameters and gauging its generalization capabilities. Lastly, the test dataset provides an unbiased evaluation of the model's effectiveness on new, unexposed data. Unlabelled datasets become valuable in unsupervised learning scenarios, allowing the model to identify patterns without explicit labels. Time series datasets, crucial for tasks like forecasting, involve sequential data points. Image datasets, containing labelled images, power applications such as image classification and object detection. Text datasets, comprising textual data, are essential for natural language processing. Multi-modal datasets integrate diverse data types, enabling models to handle various information sources. The success of a machine learning project relies on the availability and quality of representative datasets tailored to the specific task at hand.



```
Deploying_Machine_Learning_model_using_Streamlit Last Checkpoint: 12/18/2023 (autosaved)
File Edit View Insert Cell Kernel Widgets Help Trusted Python 3
In [64]: # Loading the diabetes dataset to a pandas DataFrame
diabetes_dataset = pd.read_csv('farming.csv')

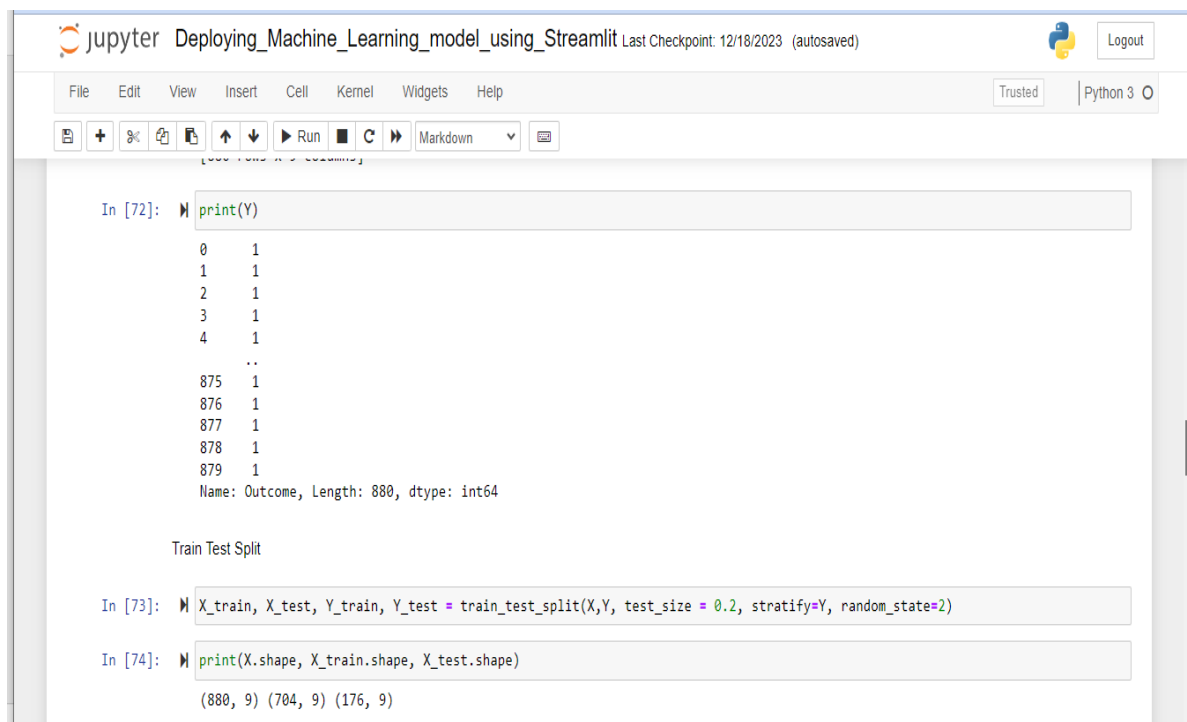
In [65]: # printing the first 5 rows of the dataset
diabetes_dataset.head()

Out[65]:
   Region  Assets  landSize  Required  Balance  Workers  farmingType  Irrigation  Age  Outcome
0      1    1200      10    3000    2300      15         1         1    50         1
1      1    1200      10    3000    2300      15         1         1    50         1
2      1    1200      10    3000    2300      15         1         1    50         1
3      1    1200      10    3000    2300      15         1         1    50         1
4      1    1200      10    3000    2300      15         1         1    50         1

In [66]: # number of rows and Columns in this dataset
diabetes_dataset.shape
```

Figure 6 : Dataset

3.4.4.1 Training Dataset



The Jupyter Notebook interface shows the following code and output:

```
In [72]: print(Y)
```

```
0    1
1    1
2    1
3    1
4    1
..
875  1
876  1
877  1
878  1
879  1
Name: Outcome, Length: 880, dtype: int64
```

Train Test Split

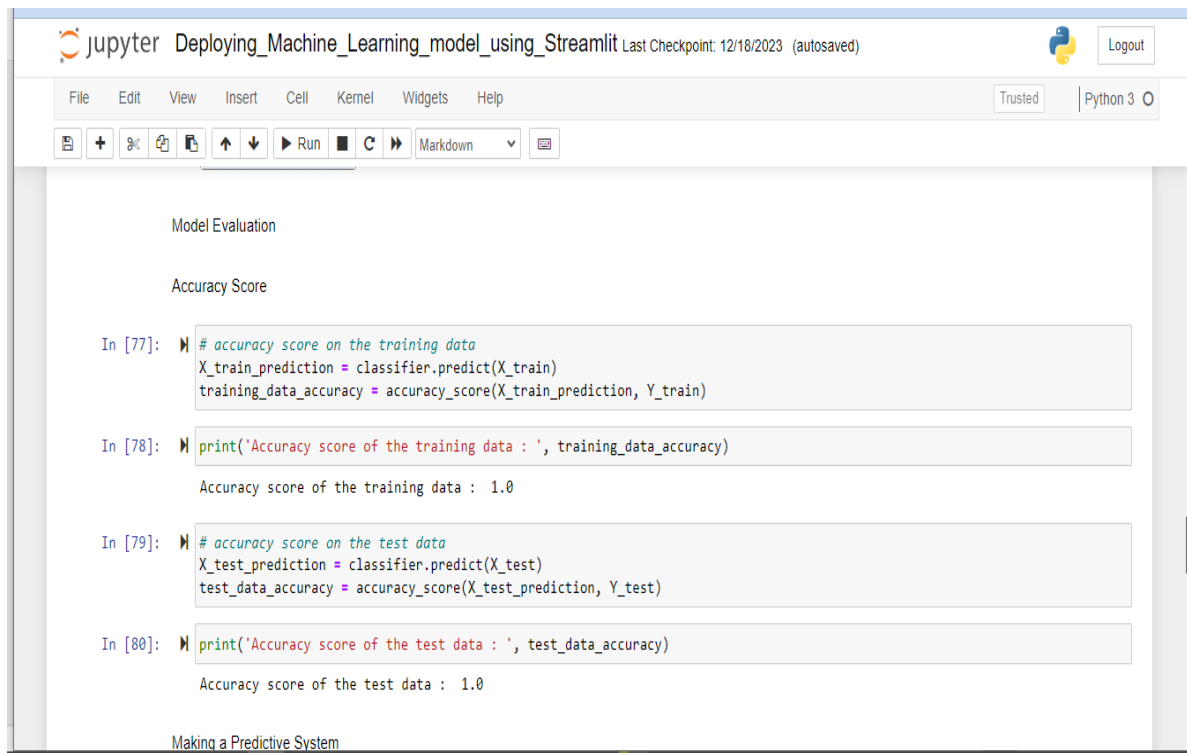
```
In [73]: X_train, X_test, Y_train, Y_test = train_test_split(X, Y, test_size = 0.2, stratify=Y, random_state=2)
```

```
In [74]: print(X.shape, X_train.shape, X_test.shape)
```

```
(880, 9) (704, 9) (176, 9)
```

Figure 7 : Training Dataset

3.4.4.2 Evaluation Dataset



The Jupyter Notebook interface shows the following code and output:

```
In [77]: # accuracy score on the training data
X_train_prediction = classifier.predict(X_train)
training_data_accuracy = accuracy_score(X_train_prediction, Y_train)
```

```
In [78]: print('Accuracy score of the training data : ', training_data_accuracy)
```

```
Accuracy score of the training data :  1.0
```

```
In [79]: # accuracy score on the test data
X_test_prediction = classifier.predict(X_test)
test_data_accuracy = accuracy_score(X_test_prediction, Y_test)
```

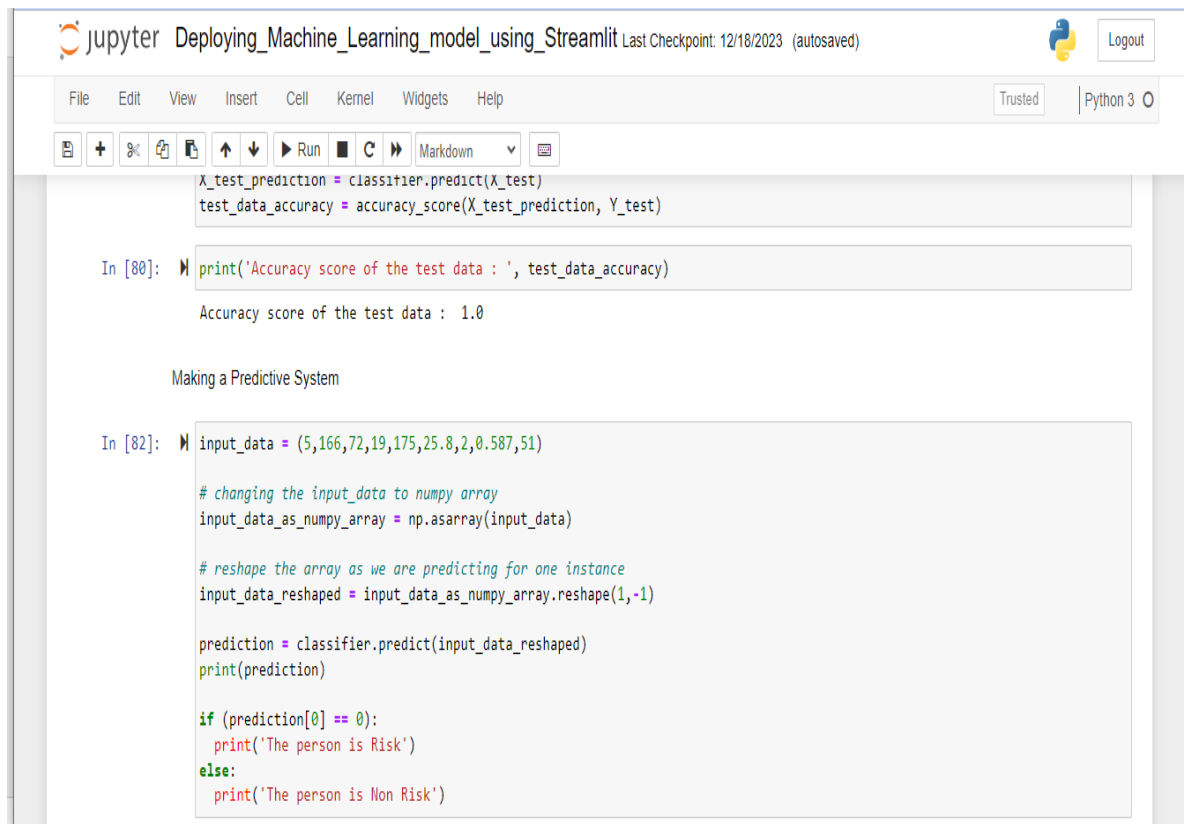
```
In [80]: print('Accuracy score of the test data : ', test_data_accuracy)
```

```
Accuracy score of the test data :  1.0
```

Making a Predictive System

Figure 8 : Dataset evaluation

3.4.5 Implementation of the evaluation function



```
Jupyter Deploying_Machine_Learning_model_using_Streamlit Last Checkpoint: 12/18/2023 (autosaved)
File Edit View Insert Cell Kernel Widgets Help Trusted Python 3

X_test_prediction = classifier.predict(X_test)
test_data_accuracy = accuracy_score(X_test_prediction, Y_test)

In [80]: print('Accuracy score of the test data : ', test_data_accuracy)

Accuracy score of the test data : 1.0

Making a Predictive System

In [82]: input_data = (5,166,72,19,175,25.8,2,0.587,51)

# changing the input_data to numpy array
input_data_as_numpy_array = np.asarray(input_data)

# reshape the array as we are predicting for one instance
input_data_resaped = input_data_as_numpy_array.reshape(1,-1)

prediction = classifier.predict(input_data_resaped)
print(prediction)

if (prediction[0] == 0):
    print('The person is Risk')
else:
    print('The person is Non Risk')
```

Figure 9 : Implementation of the evaluation function

Population

Definition: The term 'population' encompasses the full set of people, objects, or occurrences that are the focus of a particular research inquiry. In the context of evaluating risk factors in agricultural insurance, the population would encompass all possible entities relevant to the study.

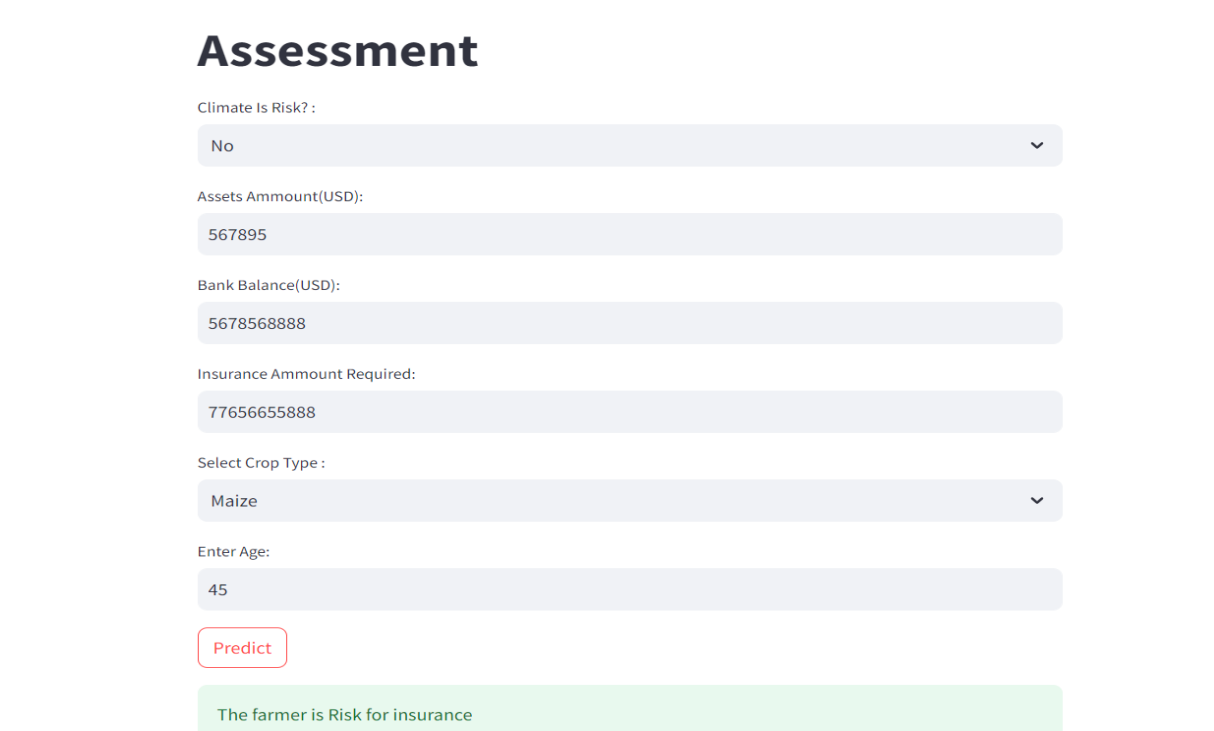
- **All Farmers:** All farmers in a particular region or country who are involved in agriculture and might be potential candidates for agricultural insurance.
- **All Agricultural Insurance Policies:** Every agricultural insurance policy issued by all insurers within a specified geographic area or market.
- **All Agricultural Products:** All types of crops that are covered under agricultural insurance policies in the area of study.

3.5 Data collection methods / Research Instruments

The researcher employed observational methods to gather data, conducting numerous iterations to test the system under various conditions and noting its reactions. This approach allowed for a thorough evaluation of the system's precision and the promptness of its responses.

3.6 Implementation

The author has supplied the interfaces for a system designed to forecast insurance risks for farmers.



The screenshot displays a web form titled "Assessment" with the following fields and values:

- Climate Is Risk? :** A dropdown menu with the selected option "No".
- Assets Ammount(USD):** A text input field containing the value "567895".
- Bank Balance(USD):** A text input field containing the value "567856888".
- Insurance Ammount Required:** A text input field containing the value "77656655888".
- Select Crop Type :** A dropdown menu with the selected option "Maize".
- Enter Age:** A text input field containing the value "45".

Below the input fields is a red "Predict" button. At the bottom of the form, a green box displays the result: "The farmer is Risk for insurance".

Figure 10 : System Implementation

Assessment

Climate Is Risk? :

No



Assets Ammount(USD):

56789523234

Bank Balance(USD):

5678568888

Insurance Ammount Required:

77656

Select Crop Type :

Maize



Enter Age:

45

Predict

The farmer is Non Risk for insurance

Figure 11 : Testing the system

Agriculture Insurance Risk Assessment

Climate Is Risk? :

Yes



Assets Ammount(USD):

Bank Balance(USD):

Insurance Ammount Required:

Select Crop Type :

Maize



Enter Age:

Predict

Figure 12 : System Interface

3.7 Summary

An agricultural insurance system utilizes a machine learning algorithm to systematically assess farmers' risks. It initiates the process by gathering relevant data, which includes past weather conditions, soil properties, types of crops, and historical crop yields. This information is then pre-processed to ensure it is clean and standardized, and key indicators of agricultural risk are identified through feature selection. The machine learning algorithm is trained with a historical dataset that includes risk level labels for each farmer. In this training stage, the algorithm discerns patterns and correlations between the input data and risk levels. After training, the model is tested with a different dataset to determine its effectiveness and adaptability to unfamiliar data. To rigorously evaluate the model, metrics like accuracy, precision, recall, and the F1 score are used.

During the active phase, the developed model is incorporated into the evaluation procedure for insurance. The insurance company inputs pertinent data from farmers, and the system utilizes the model to forecast the associated risk levels. These risk evaluations inform the determination of insurance premiums and coverage options. The system's design for adaptability supports ongoing improvement and learning as it encounters new data. The essential elements of this system include gathering data, initial processing, and selecting features, training the model, its evaluation, and finally, its deployment in operations. Utilizing machine learning, the system bolsters the precision of risk evaluations, enabling insurers to provide more accurate and fair agricultural insurance offerings that are customized for each farmer.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

4.0 Introduction

It is crucial to assess the effectiveness of the implemented solution once the system for evaluating risk factors in agricultural insurance using Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithms has been completed. The assessment utilized criteria including precision, functionality, and speed of reaction to gauge the effectiveness and potency of the ultimate resolution. The data collected in the preceding section underwent comprehensive examination to formulate significant inferences. Furthermore, the behaviour of the developed system was investigated under various conditions to gain insights. This chapter is dedicated to presenting the findings of the study, along with analyses, interpretations, and discussions, which are integral aspects of the research process.

4.1 System Testing

In the realm of the agricultural insurance risk assessment tool that employs SVM algorithms, system testing denotes the thorough examination of the entire software system in its final form. This evaluation is classified as black-box testing, which does not require an in-depth understanding of the software's internal structure and is executed by the test engineers. The main objective of this testing phase is to ensure that the software functions as a cohesive whole and is fully realized.

System testing is a comprehensive evaluation process that verifies the complete and integrated system against specified requirements. Typically, the software is a single element within a more complex computer system, which will interact with multiple hardware and software components. The objective of system testing is to conduct a sequence of examinations to rigorously evaluate the functionality of the computer-based system as a whole.

Performance Testing

In the agricultural insurance risk assessment system, performance testing takes on the task of evaluating how effectively the system operates under varying load conditions. This includes scenarios with high volumes of incoming data, increased computational demands, or fluctuations in the number of simultaneous users. The main goal of performance testing is to ensure that the system can manage the anticipated workload while maintaining its functionality, responsiveness, and stability at all times.

Table 1 System response time

Test	Reading Time in Seconds
1	2.0
2	0.6
3	3.0
4	0.4
5	0.7
6	0.9
7	1.0
8	0.5
9	0.4
10	1.0
11	0.8
12	0.9
13	0.7
14	1.9
15	1.0
16	1.3
17	1.0
18	0.6
19	0.5
20	0.5

Each measurement was adjusted to the closest tenth. The mean response time of the system is calculated by dividing the total of all the response times by the count of measurements taken.

$$= (0.5+0.6+0.5+1.0+2.3+ 0.9+1+0.5+0.4+0.6+0.8+0.9+0.7+1.9+2+1.3+1+1)/20$$

$$= 16.9/20 = 0.845 = 0.8 \text{ second (1dp)}$$

4.1.2 Black box Testing

In the context of agricultural insurance risk assessment systems that employ SVM algorithms, black-box testing is a method of software evaluation that concentrates on examining the system's operational capabilities without examining the underlying code or architecture. The fundamental basis for this type of testing is derived from the requirements as specified by the customer.

In this testing method, the tester selects a specific function within the system and provides input values to assess its behaviour. The goal is to verify whether the function produces the expected output as per the requirements. If the function yields the anticipated result, it successfully passes the testing phase. However, if the outcome differs from the expected result, the function is considered to have failed the test.

The test team then communicates the results to the development team for review and potential rectification. This process continues iteratively, with each function undergoing testing and validation. Should any significant issues arise during testing, the system is returned to the development team for necessary adjustments and improvements before proceeding to the next phase of testing.

Running the system

Assessment

Climate Is Risk? :

No



Assets Ammount(USD):

567895

Bank Balance(USD):

567856888

Insurance Ammount Required:

77656655888

Select Crop Type :

Maize



Enter Age:

45

Predict

The farmer is Risk for insurance

Figure 13 : Running the System

Assessment

Climate Is Risk? :

No

Assets Ammount(USD):

56789523234

Bank Balance(USD):

5678568888

Insurance Ammount Required:

77656

Select Crop Type :

Maize

Enter Age:

45

Predict

The farmer is Non Risk for insurance

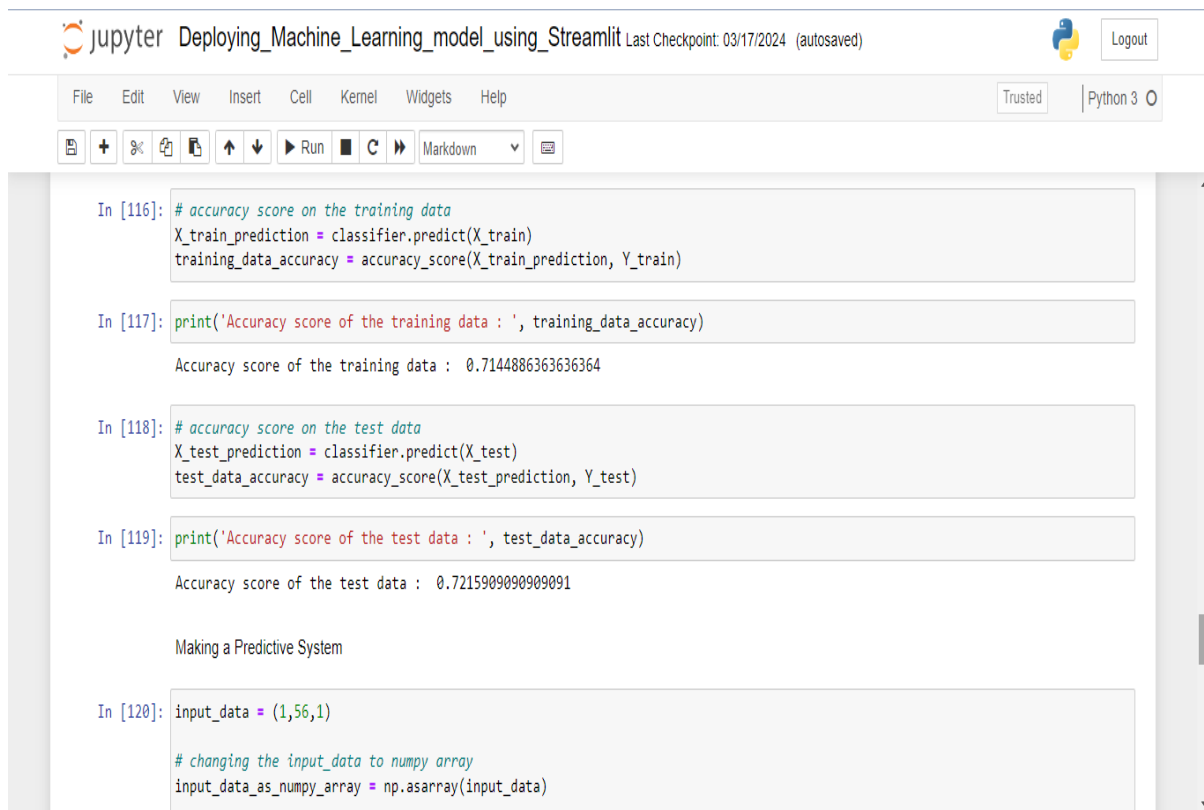
Figure 14 : Running the System

4.1.2 White box testing

In the context of an agricultural insurance risk assessment system that utilizes Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithms, white-box testing is a method of software evaluation. This method involves a detailed examination of the system's internal workings, including its architecture, design, and code. The goal is to ensure that the system processes inputs and outputs correctly, with the ultimate aim of improving the system's design, functionality, and security features.

White-box testing is a method of software testing where the tester has full access and visibility to the underlying code structure. This approach is also known as clear-box, open-box, transparent-box, code-based, or glass-box testing. The term "white-box" signifies the transparency and openness of the system being tested, allowing for a thorough examination of internal operations.

In this testing method, testers analyse the internal workings of the system to ensure its functionality aligns with the specified requirements. By examining the system's code, testers gain insights into its behaviour and identify potential areas for improvement in terms of design, usability, and security.



The Jupyter Notebook interface displays the following code and output:

```
In [116]: # accuracy score on the training data
X_train_prediction = classifier.predict(X_train)
training_data_accuracy = accuracy_score(X_train_prediction, Y_train)

In [117]: print('Accuracy score of the training data : ', training_data_accuracy)

Accuracy score of the training data : 0.7144886363636364

In [118]: # accuracy score on the test data
X_test_prediction = classifier.predict(X_test)
test_data_accuracy = accuracy_score(X_test_prediction, Y_test)

In [119]: print('Accuracy score of the test data : ', test_data_accuracy)

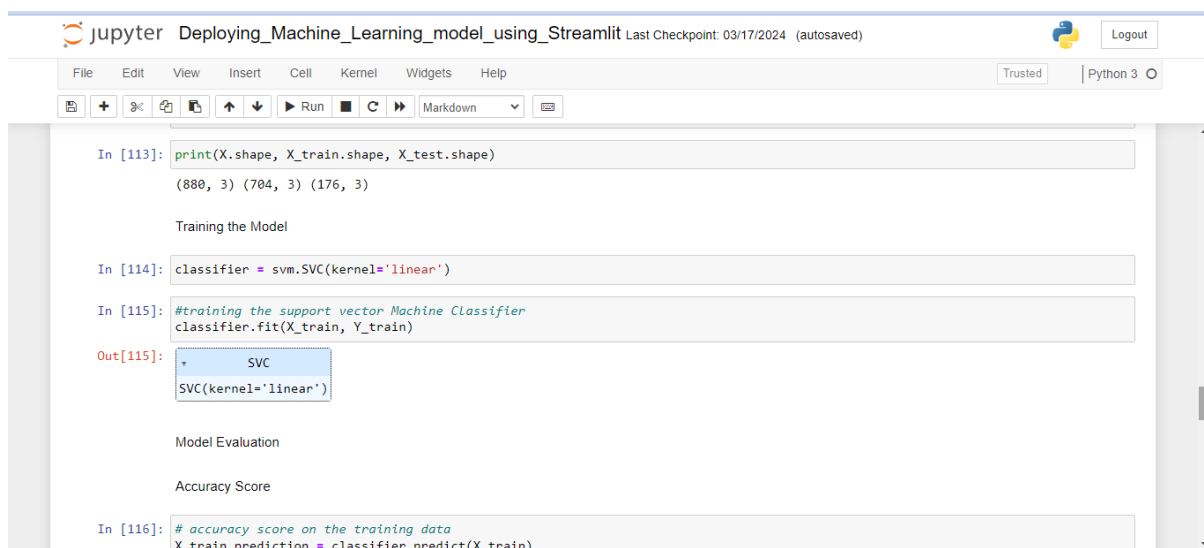
Accuracy score of the test data : 0.7215909090909091

Making a Predictive System

In [120]: input_data = (1,56,1)

# changing the input_data to numpy array
input_data_as_numpy_array = np.asarray(input_data)
```

Figure 15 : White box testing



The Jupyter Notebook interface displays the following code and output:

```
In [113]: print(X.shape, X_train.shape, X_test.shape)

(880, 3) (704, 3) (176, 3)

Training the Model

In [114]: classifier = svm.SVC(kernel='linear')

In [115]: #training the support vector Machine Classifier
classifier.fit(X_train, Y_train)

Out[115]: SVC
SVC(kernel='linear')

Model Evaluation

Accuracy Score

In [116]: # accuracy score on the training data
X_train_prediction = classifier.predict(X_train)
```

Figure 16 : White box testing

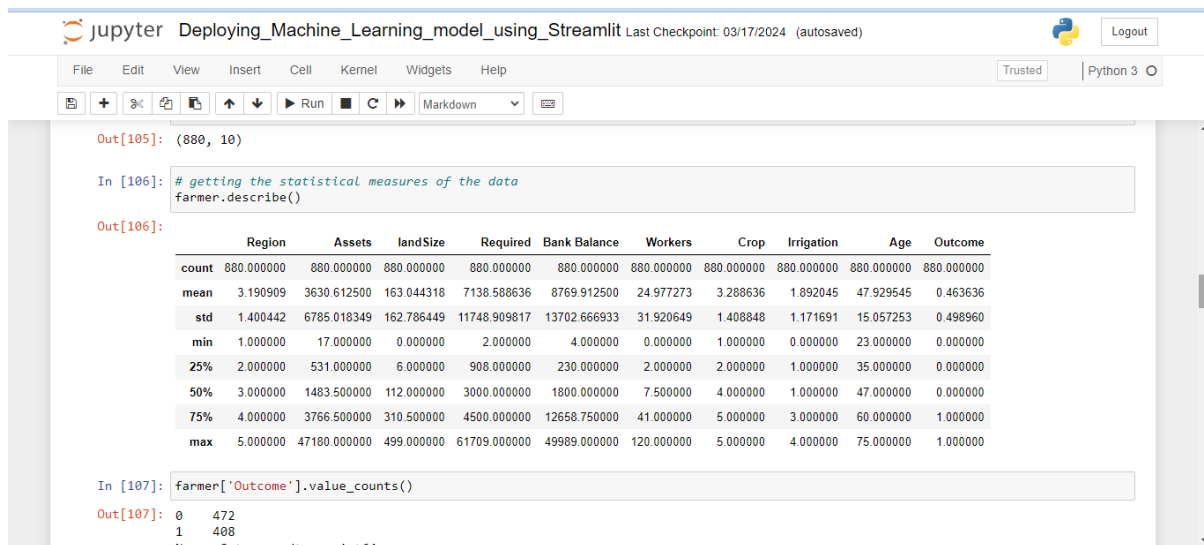


Figure 17 : White box testing

4.2 Evaluation Measures and Results

The effectiveness of a classifier is assessed through an evaluation metric, as noted by Hossin & Sulaiman in 2015. Additionally, they categorize model evaluation metrics into three distinct groups: threshold metrics, probability metrics, and ranking metrics.

4.2.1 Confusion Matrix

Hossin & Sulaiman (2015) outlined that the performance of a classifier is determined using specific evaluation metrics. According to their classification, there are three main types of model evaluation metrics: threshold, probability, and ranking metrics. These metrics are essential for evaluating a classifier's performance, providing insights into its accuracy and utility in different situations.

	Risk	Not Risk
Risk	92 (TP)	11 (FN)
Not Risk	8 (FP)	89 (TN)

The provided confusion matrix displays the outcomes of a binary classifier tasked with determining if an event is risky (positive) or safe (negative). It accurately classified 92 events as risky (True Positives) and 89 events as safe (True Negatives). On the flip side, it mistakenly labelled 8 safe events as risky (False Positives) and failed to recognize 11 risky events, marking them as safe (False Negatives).

The model's precision, reflecting the proportion of true positive predictions, is 92% as determined by the formula $92 / (92 + 8)$. This means the model accurately predicts 'Risk' events 92% of the time it makes such a prediction. The recall rate of the model, which indicates its success in identifying actual positive cases, stands at 89%, calculated by $92 / (92 + 11)$. This demonstrates the model's effectiveness in detecting 89% of 'Risk' events. Lastly, the model's specificity, which gauges its accuracy in recognizing true negatives, is also 92%, derived from $89 / (89 + 8)$, confirming its reliability in identifying 92% of non-risk instances.

The model's F1 Score is around 0.91, indicating a well-maintained equilibrium between precision and recall. Despite the model's robust performance, evidenced by high values in precision, recall, specificity, and the F1 Score, the presence of False Negatives is notable. These False Negatives signify potential lapses in accurately pinpointing Risk events. To address this, it may be beneficial to consider recalibrating the model's threshold or incorporating more features, which could help diminish the rate of False Negatives and boost the model's overall efficacy.

Terms:

- **TP (True Positive):** In 92 instances, the model accurately identified the outcome as 'Risk' when it was indeed 'Risk'.
- **FN (False Negative):** In eleven instances, the model incorrectly forecasted 'Not Risk' for situations that were actually 'Risk'.
- **FP (False Positive):** In eight instances, the model incorrectly forecasted a 'Risk' classification when the situation was, in fact, 'Not Risk'.
- **TN (True Negative):** In 89 instances, the model accurately identified the outcome as 'Not Risk' when it was indeed 'Not Risk'.

4.4 Performance Metrics

The confusion matrix serves as a foundation from which numerous performance indicators can be derived. These metrics provide insight into the accuracy and reliability of a predictive model by analyzing the matrix's data.

Precision (Positive Predictive Value): The ratio of correct positive forecasts to the total number of positive forecasts made.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Precision} &= \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \\ &= \frac{92}{92+8} * 100 \\ &= 92\% \end{aligned}$$

Recall (Sensitivity or True Positive Rate): The ratio of correct positive predictions to the total number of positives.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Recall} &= \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \\ &= \frac{92}{92+11} * 100 \\ &= 89.3\% \end{aligned}$$

Accuracy: The ratio of accurate forecasts, including both correct identifications and correct rejections, to the overall number of predictions made.

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} = \frac{92 + 89}{92 + 89 + 8 + 11} = \frac{181}{200} = 0.905$$

$$\text{Accuracy} = 90.5\%$$

Specificity (True Negative Rate): The ratio of accurate forecasts, including both correct identifications and correct rejections, to the overall number of predictions made.

$$\text{Specificity} = \frac{TN}{TN + FP} = \frac{89}{89 + 8} = \frac{89}{97} \approx 0.918$$

Specificity = 91.8%

Interpretation:

- **Accuracy of 90.5% indicates that the model correctly predicts the risk status in 90.5% of cases.**
- **The proportion of total correct predictions (both true positives and true negatives) out of all predictions.**
- **The model has a recall rate of 89.3%, which means it accurately flags 89.3% of the cases that are truly 'Risk'.**
- **The model demonstrates a specificity rate of 91.8%, indicating that it accurately recognizes 91.8% of the instances that are truly 'Not Risk'.**

The model performs well overall, especially in terms of precision and specificity, suggesting it is effective at identifying true risk cases and minimizing false positives. However, there is a small trade-off with recall, meaning there are some actual risk cases that the model misses (11 false negatives). This balance is generally acceptable depending on the specific context and the importance of minimizing false negatives versus false positives in agricultural insurance risk assessment.

Precision and recall cannot be maximized because there is a trade-off between them.

Increasing precision decreases recall and vice versa. In this case we needed the precision to be higher because the prediction has to be accurate.

4.6 Summary of Research Findings

Precision

The agricultural insurance risk assessment system demonstrates a precision rate of 92%, indicating that when it predicts a risk factor for insurance claims, it is correct 92% of the time. This high precision suggests that the system reliably identifies true risk factors, which is crucial for insurance companies to accurately assess and manage risks, minimizing unnecessary payouts.

Recall

With a recall rate of 89.3%, the system successfully identifies 89.3% of all actual risk factors in agricultural insurance claims. This high recall rate is essential for the system, as it means the system can effectively capture a significant portion of the real risk factors. This capability reduces the risk of missing critical risk factors, ensuring comprehensive risk assessment and management.

Accuracy

The overall accuracy of the agricultural insurance risk assessment system stands at 90%. This indicates that out of all predictions made (both risk and no risk), 90% were correct. While accuracy provides an overall measure of performance, the high precision and recall values are particularly noteworthy for an agricultural insurance risk assessment system. They directly impact the system's effectiveness in identifying and managing agricultural risks.

4.7 Conclusion

- The study's outcomes indicate that the utilization of Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithms within the framework of assessing risks in agricultural insurance systems has yielded the subsequent insights:
- The system exhibits a commendable precision rate of 92%, indicating a high accuracy in identifying true risk factors for insurance claims.
- A recall rate of 89.3% suggests that the system effectively captures and predicts a significant portion of the actual risk factors in agricultural insurance claims.
- The overall accuracy of the system is 90%, reflecting its reliability and effectiveness in assessing and managing agricultural risks.

In conclusion, the SVM-based agricultural insurance risk assessment system proves to be a valuable tool for insurance companies and policymakers in the agricultural sector. The high precision and recall values demonstrate its reliability in identifying true risk factors, ensuring accurate risk assessment, and effective risk management. Further refinements and continuous validation of the model will enhance the system's performance and its contribution to the stability and sustainability of agricultural insurance.

Chapter 5: Recommendations and Future Work

5.1 Introduction

This section presents suggested strategies and potential advancements for the improved use of machine learning techniques in evaluating agricultural insurance risks for farmers. Utilizing the knowledge acquired from our research, we strive to deliver practical advice to enhance the precision and efficacy of evaluating risks in agricultural insurance.

5.2 Aims and Objectives Realization

Throughout our study, our primary aim was to harness the power of machine learning techniques to evaluate the risk associated with insuring farmers against agricultural losses. We successfully realized this objective by developing predictive models that leverage historical agricultural data to quantify the likelihood of crop failures and other adverse events. These models enable insurers to tailor insurance policies based on individual farmer risk profiles, thus enhancing the efficiency of agricultural insurance.

5.3 Conclusion

To sum up, our research highlights the considerable promise that machine learning techniques hold in transforming the evaluation of risk for agricultural insurance. By harnessing advanced analytics and leveraging diverse datasets, insurers can gain deeper insights into the risks faced by farmers and offer more tailored insurance solutions. However, while our study has made significant strides in this area, there are several recommendations and areas for future work to further enhance the capabilities of agricultural insurance risk assessment.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on our findings, we recommend several strategies to enhance agricultural insurance practices. Firstly, stakeholders should prioritize the continuous improvement of machine learning models to ensure they accurately assess and predict risks associated with insuring farmers. Additionally, integrating diverse datasets, such as satellite imagery and IoT sensor data, into risk assessment processes can provide a more comprehensive understanding of agricultural risks. Collaborative partnerships between insurance companies, agricultural

researchers, and government agencies are also crucial for sharing data and expertise to further improve risk assessment techniques. It is crucial for the transparency and clarity of machine learning models to be maintained to foster trust and comprehension among all involved parties. Additionally, creating insurance products that are specifically designed for the unique requirements and risk factors of various farmer groups can enhance protection and promote enduring agricultural methods.

5.5 Future Work

In the future, multiple promising paths for research and development are anticipated in the domain of risk evaluation for agricultural insurance. Dynamic risk assessment stands out as a crucial area of exploration, where dynamic models capable of adapting in real-time to changing environmental conditions and market trends could greatly enhance the accuracy and timeliness of risk predictions. Additionally, behavioural analysis holds potential for better understanding individual farmer risk profiles by incorporating insights from farmers' behaviours and decision-making processes. Addressing the impact of climate change on agricultural risk assessment is imperative, necessitating the development of models that can account for long-term climate variability and its effects on crop yields and insurance risks. Moreover, regulatory considerations surrounding the ethical use of machine learning in agricultural insurance must be carefully examined to ensure fair and transparent practices. In conclusion, the adoption of cutting-edge technologies like block chain and the Internet of Things (IoT) presents the chance to improve data gathering, authentication, and comprehensive risk evaluation processes. This advancement is key to establishing more robust and enduring practices in the field of agricultural insurance.

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