# Tracing Crop Water Requirement in the Pumping, Gravitational and Inundation Irrigation Schemes Using Cloud–Based IrriSAT Application

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#### Abstract

Tracing crop coefficient  $(K_c)$  at all the stages of crop growth is commonly essential for an accurate estimation of crop water use. This study applied the cloud–based IrriSAT application to trace the dynamic values of crop coefficient in three different sorts of irrigation schemes; pumping, gravitational and inundation irrigation for estimating crop water requirement in the Chao Phraya River Basin (CPYRB), Thailand. Three selected irrigation schemes; Bang Bal (BB), Thabua (TB), and Yom–Nan (YN) representing pumping, gravitational, and inundation irrigation schemes were selected to trace crop coefficient values of in–season and off–season crops and to estimate long–term crop water requirement (ET<sub>c</sub>) from 2015–2020. The results of dynamic values of K<sub>c</sub>–IrriSAT were verified and adjusted with average K<sub>c</sub> established by the Royal Irrigation Department (K<sub>c</sub>–RID) which were calculated as a function of K<sub>c</sub> from field observation for the different types of crops and accumulated area size monitored by the Geo–Informatics and Space Technology Development Agency (GISTDA). The results revealed the similar patterns of average  $K_c$  generated by IrriSAT corresponding to the average  $K_c$ –RID. After the calibration procedure was successfully done, the correlations between K<sub>c</sub>–IrriSAT adjusted and average K<sub>c</sub>–RID for BB, TB, and YN irrigation schemes are relatively higher with  $R^2$ of 0.8304, 0.8466, and 0.8314, respectively. In addition, it shows the explicit variability on monthly and yearly crop water demands of these three sorts of irrigation schemes when the adjusted  $K_c$ –IrriSAT was employed. It would be concluded that cloud–based IrriSAT application can be a very supportive tool in estimating the actual crop water requirement particularly for irrigators to evaluate the current status of irrigation water use and to improve the irrigation efficiency at the field scale.

Keywords: Crop Coefficient, Crop Water Requirement, Reference Crop Evapotranspiration, Cloud–Based IrriSAT Application, Normalized Difference Vegetation Index.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Thailand is one of the top leaders for agricultural production in the Southeast Asia (BOI, 2021). It is stated that the economic development of Thailand has been predominantly driven by the agricultural sector (Singhapreecha, 2014). Therefore, enhancing agricultural productivity in the large–scale irrigation schemes play an important role to raise livelihood of the local people and to drive the economic growth of the country (Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives of the Kingdom of Thailand, 2016). Importantly, water supply facilities and sufficient irrigation water should be provided to farmers in association with the agricultural water demand to increase crop yields.

Increasing water demand for multiple uses in the Chao Phraya River Basin (CPYRB) which is located in the central region of Thailand, has embraced the risk in water resource management specially to satisfy agricultural water demand in the Greater Chao Phraya Irrigation Schemes (GCPYIS). Due to uncertainty of water supply from the headwater of the Chao Phraya River, the extreme events of flood and drought have been frequently occurred in the past few decades (Thanadachophol et al., 2020). Therefore, tracing crop water requirement  $(ET_c)$  at all the stages of crop growth in the various sorts of irrigation schemes is necessarily essential to estimate the right amount of crop water demand in GCPYIS.

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Crop Water Requirement (CWR) is principally the precise amount of water consumed through evapotranspiration and to meet crop water needs during the specified time periods. In other words, CWR, also known as crop evapotranspiration  $(ET_c)$ , is described as the depth of water (millimeters) needed to compensate for the water losses through crop evapotranspiration. The main factors affecting crop water requirement are climate factors, crop types, and growth stage of crops. Crop water requirement can be derived based upon the reference crop evapotranspiration  $(ET_0)$  and crop coefficient  $(K_c)$ . The reference evapotranspiration  $(ET_0)$  is the rate of evapotranspiration from a hypothetical reference crop which is relatively subject to climate conditions (Pereira & Alves, 2005). The crop coefficient  $(K_c)$  varies accordingly with crop types and development stages of the crops. The values of crop coefficient for a given crop have represented the dynamics of crop evapotranspiration (Pandey, 2021).

Since most of the irrigated land area in Thailand are continually cultivated throughout the year, it is rarely possible to clearly determine the beginning of cultivation and to find the dynamic changes of  $K_c$  and crop evapotranspiration  $(ET_c)$  values over a year. As the satellite–based crop monitoring platform is well proven its capability to monitor crop growth status and vegetation indices, this study aims at tracking the dynamic values of crop water requirement  $(ET_c)$  using cloud–based IrriSAT application in the different sorts of irrigation schemes to provide useful information and tools for the analysis of agricultural water requirement in the Chao Phraya River Basin. The cloud–based IrriSAT application is satellite–based irrigation scheduling service developed in 2005. It was designed to help farmers with irrigation management at a wide range of irrigation scales (Hornbuckle et al., 2016). The reference crop evapotranspiration  $(ET_0)$  is estimated by  $FAO$ Penmen Monteith equation using observations from weather stations. IrriSAT can also anticipate crop water requirement by referring to the strong relations between the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) from the cultivated land and crop coefficient  $(K_c)$ (Hornbuckle et al., 2016). Moreover, water balance deficit in the root zone of crops based upon the water balance approach can be traced to indicate the levels of irrigation water requirements.

#### 2. METHODOLOGY

## 2.1 Study Area

The study area is in the Greater Chao Phraya Irrigation Scheme (GCPYIS) occupying an irrigation service area of more than  $19,654 \text{ km}^2$  (12 million rai). GCPYIS lies in the Lower Ping (LPRB), Lower Nan (LNRB) and Chao Phraya–Thachin (CPY–TCRB) River Basins which are major parts of river basin cluster of CPYRB as can be seen in Fig.1–Fig.3. The general characteristics of 35 irrigation schemes in CPYRB are

summarized in Table 1. However, only three different sorts of irrigation schemes in GCPYIS representing pumping, gravitational, and inundation irrigation were selected to trace the dynamic values of crop water requirement in this study; Bang Bal (BB), Thabua (TB), and Yom–Nan (YN). Pumping irrigation is powered by pumping system installed at the site to supply the irrigation water to the fields. For gravitational irrigation, the flow irrigation water is directly supplied to the fields through the canals off taking from the headworks. Inundation irrigation, also known as river–canal irrigation, is a type of direct irrigation without construction of hydraulic structures to control the water level in the river.



Figure 2 Five irrigation schemes in LNRB





Figure 3 Twenty-six irrigation schemes in CPY–TCRB

Table 1 General characteristics of irrigation schemes in CPYRB

No.	Name of <b>Irrigation Scheme</b>	Type of Irrigation	Irrigation Area (km <sup>2</sup> )		
		<b>Scheme</b>			
Lower Ping River Basin					
1	Tortongdang	Inundation	992		
$\overline{c}$	Wangyang	Inundation	1,336		
3	Wangbua	Inundation			
$\overline{4}$	Nongkwan	Inundation	1,129		
Lower Nan River Basin					
1	Dongsetthee	Gravitation	449		
$\overline{c}$	Thabua*	Gravitation	398		
$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	Plaichumpol	Gravitation	433		
$\overline{4}$	Naresuan	Gravitation	172		
$\overline{5}$	Yom-Nan*	Inundation	515		
Chao Phraya-Thachin River Basin					
$\mathbf{1}$	Wat Sing	Pumping	123		
$\overline{2}$	Bang Bal*	Pumping	268		
3	Pollathep	Gravitation	200		
$\overline{4}$	Thabot	Gravitation	338		
5	Samchuk	Gravitation	609		
$\overline{6}$	Donjedee	Gravitation	270		
$\overline{7}$	Phophraya	Gravitation	659		
8	Borommathat	Gravitation	677		
9	Chanasute	Gravitation	880		
10	Yangmanee	Gravitation	403		
11	Phak Hai	Gravitation	338		
12	Maharaj	Gravitation	853		
$\overline{13}$	Manorom	Gravitation	529		
14	Chong Kae	Gravitation	449		
15	Khokkathiam	Gravitation	421		
16	Roeng Rang	Gravitation	320		
$\overline{17}$	Southern Pasak	Gravitation	404		
18	Nakhon Luang	Gravitation	476		
19	Northern Rangsit	Gravitation	773		
20	Southern Rangsit	Gravitation	1,112		



As CPYRB is in the tropical climate influenced by northeast and southwest monsoons, rainfall data exhibits the temporal and spatial variation particularly at the river basin level. The mean annual rainfall in the Central Thailand from 2003 to 2007 ranges between 899 and 1,136 millimeters (mm). The mean monthly temperature data evaluated from the long–term record steadily varies between  $22^{\circ}-31^{\circ}$ Celsius. Dry season which is a period of low rainfall and off–season crops cultivation is undertaken, runs from November to April. Wet season generally begins in May and lasts in October when in– season crops cultivation is sparsely implemented during time periods. In addition, high values of monthly evaporation loss are obviously found in this region ranging between 120–130 mm for the period 1991–2000 of climatological data reported by the Thai Meteorological Department (TMD).

## 2.2 Data Collection

Data required for this study includes (1) GIS shapefiles of the study area collected from the Land Development Department (LDD) of Thailand, (2) crop coefficient values provided by the Royal Irrigation Department (RID) of Thailand, (3) planting area of four main types of crops including rice, maize, sugarcane, and cassava monitored by the GISTDA from 2018 to 2019, and (4) climate data collected from the Thai Meteorological Department (TMD) from 2000 to 2020 from the nearest climate stations. The simplified overview of data collection process is presented in Fig.4.



Figure 4 Simplified overview of data collection process

The GIS shapefiles were used to delineate the location of the irrigation area by IrriSAT application. Crop coefficient values  $(K_c)$  corresponding to Penman– Monteith equation of major crops, which are publicly provided by the Royal Irrigation Department (RID) from field measurement, was used to validate the results of  $K_c$ estimation from IrriSAT. The planting area of four main types of crops monitored by GISTDA using remote sensing technique was used to verify the area size of each crop. In addition, the long–term monthly climate data including atmospheric pressure, temperature, relative humidity, wind speed as well as sunshine duration from 2000 to 2020 from the nearest climate stations in the study area was used to calculate the reference crop evapotranspiration  $(ET_0)$ .

## 2.3 Estimating Crop Coefficient Using Cloud–Based IrriSAT Application

Estimating the dynamic values of crop coefficient over the growth stages can be commonly implemented by cloud–based IrriSAT application which is the satellite– based decision support tool for irrigators (Hornbuckle et al., 2016). In fact, cloud–based IrriSAT application has been developed to estimate  $K_c$ ,  $ET_o$  and to predict daily and seven–day crop water use  $(ET_c)$  (Hornbuckle et al., 2016). These are presented as aggregated values at various spatial and temporal scales. Due to the limits of global climate data at ground stations in Thailand available on the cloud platform, consequently,  $ET_0$  and  $ET_c$  cannot be generated and presented. However, the aggregated values of crop coefficient can be only evaluated by IrriSAT. To identify the crop growing area as input data of cloud–based IrriSAT application, the GIS shape files of three irrigation schemes must be converted into Keyhole Markup Language (KML) files as typically illustrated in Fig.5.



Figure 5 Display of the study area imported in cloud– based IrriSAT application

The maximum, average and minimum crop coefficient  $(K_c)$  values were then achieved. The results were automatically displayed in the form of the time series of the crop coefficient according to the specified

duration of planting and harvesting dates of crops. However, crop water demand was not directly calculated by IrriSAT in this study. Therefore, the crop water demand  $(ET_c)$  for each irrigation area was computed by referring to the calculated reference crop evapotranspiration  $(ET_0)$  and crop coefficient performed by IrriSAT ( $K_c$ –IrriSAT). ET<sub>o</sub> calculator (Raes, 2012) was used as the analytical tool to calculate reference crop evapotranspiration. The chart of crop coefficient generated from IrriSAT is illustrated in Fig.6.



Figure 6 Typical chart of crop coefficient generated by cloud–based IrriSAT application

Cloud–based IrriSAT application was brought to estimate crop coefficient for three main irrigation schemes; BB, TB, and YN from 2015 to 2020. Various forms of crop efficient namely;  $K_c(\text{average})$ ,  $K_c$ (observed),  $K_c$ (override),  $K_c$ (stddev),  $K_c$ (min),  $K_c$ (Q1),  $K_c$ (median),  $K_c(Q3)$ , and  $K_c(max)$  as well as field visibility (%) were accordingly generated. However, only  $K_c$ (average) was used to compare with those values of crop coefficient  $(K_c–RID)$  performed by using observation data from RID and GISTDA.

## 2.4 Estimating Average Crop Coefficient (Average Kc– RID) Using Observation Data

The results of dynamic values of  $K_c$ –IrriSAT from 2015 to 2020 were verified and adjusted with average  $K_c$ – RID which were calculated as a function of  $K_c$  from field observation for the different types of crop and accumulated area size of crops monitored using the remote sensing technique (GISagro 4.0) by GISTDA. Due to the limit of GISagro 4.0, the average  $K_c$ –RID on the weekly scale can be computed based upon four main types of crop namely; (1) rice, (2) sugarcane, (3) maize, and (4) cassava by using the Eq. (1).

$$
Average Kc-RID =
$$

$$
\frac{(Kcri x Areai) + (Kcsu x Areau) + (Kcmi x Areami) + (Kcca x Areaca)}{Total Area}
$$
\n(1)

where, Kcri, Kcsu, Kcmi, Kcca are crop coefficients of rice, sugarcane, maize, and cassava, respectively. Areari, Areasu, Areacmi, Areaca are the accumulated

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planting areas of rice, sugarcane, maize, and cassava, respectively.

Therefore, the calculation of average  $K_c$ –RID of BB, TB, and YN irrigation schemes was accordingly estimated based upon these four major crops planted from 2018 to 2019 which occupied only 58%, 66%, and 64% of the total cultivated areas, respectively.

## 2.5Calibrating Crop Coefficient Values Done by IrriSAT

Calibrating  $K_c$  values performed by IrriSAT was conducted using least square criterion to envisage the degree of agreement between K<sub>c</sub>-IrriSAT and average  $K_c$ –RID and to find the adjusted factors for the specified time periods (Kyaw et al., 2020). The method of least squares is a standard approach in regression analysis to approximate the solution of overdetermined systems by minimizing the sum of the squares of the residuals made in the results (Demaison & Vogt, 2020). In this study, two different periods of planting in–season and off–season crops in the area were identified to compute the adjusted factors of  $K_c$ –IrriSAT. These adjusted factors were solved using optimization solver based upon the long–term data sets of  $K_c$ –IrriSAT and average  $K_c$ –RID.

#### 2.6 Estimating Reference Crop Evapotranspiration  $(ET<sub>o</sub>)$

The monthly calculations of reference crop evapotranspiration  $(ET_0)$  was implemented based upon the FAO Penman–Monteith equation using  $ET_0$ calculator (Saha, 2020). The Penman–Monteith equation requires air temperature, humidity, solar radiation, and wind speed data as key inputs as expressed in Eq. (2).

ET<sub>o</sub> = 
$$
\frac{0.408\Delta(R_n \cdot G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T + 273} u_2 (e_s \cdot e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma (1 + 0.34 u_2)}
$$
 (2)

where,  $ET_0$  is reference evapotranspiration (MJ m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>),  $R_n$  is net radiation at the crop surface (MJ m<sup>-2</sup>  $day^{-1}$ ), G is soil heat flux density (MJ m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>), T is the mean air temperature at 2 m height ( $^{\circ}$ C),  $u_2$  is the wind speed at 2 m height (m  $s^{-1}$ ),  $e_s$  is saturation vapor pressure (kPa),  $e_a$  is actual vapor pressure (kPa),  $e_s - e_a$  is the saturation vapor pressure deficit (kPa),  $\Delta$  is the slope of the vapor pressure curve (kPa  ${}^{\circ}C^{-1}$ ), and  $\gamma$  is the psychometric constant (kPa  ${}^{\circ}C^{-1}$ ).

## 2.7 Calculating Long–Term Crop Water Requirement  $(ET_c)$

The final step is to calculate long–term crop water requirement  $(ET_c)$  from 2015–2020 using Eq. (3) (Allen et al., 1998) after the calibration procedure for  $K_c$ adjustment and  $ET_0$  calculations were successfully done.

$$
ET_c = K_c \times ET_o \tag{3}
$$

where,  $ET_c$  is crop water requirement (mm/period),  $K_c$  is crop coefficient done by could–based irrisat application ( $K_c$ –irriSAT adjusted) and average  $K_c$ –RID, and ET<sub>o</sub> is reference crop evapotranspiration (mm/period).

#### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

## 3.1 Crop Coefficient ( $K_c$ ) Generated from Cloud–Based IrriSAT Application

The dynamic values of  $K_c$ –IrriSAT of three irrigation schemes were generated in many forms from 2015 to 2020 and were displayed in almost one week timeframe. However, only maximum  $K_c$  (average) was presented and used to compare the results with average  $K_c$ –RID as summarized in Table 2. It is found that the maximum values of Kc(average)–IrriSAT are 0.7019, 0.7997, and 0.7763 for BB, TB, and YN irrigation schemes, respectively which are relatively lower than those received from K<sub>c</sub>(average)–RID with 1.4638, 1.4402, and 1.5042, respectively. In addition, the average values of Kc–IrriSAT among these different types of irrigation schemes are in the same range.

Table 2 Characteristics of crop coefficient values obtained from cloud–based IrriSAT application

Name of Irrigation <b>Scheme</b>	Type of Irrigation <b>Scheme</b>	Max. $K_c(avg.)$ <b>IrriSAT</b>	Max. $K_c(avg.)$ <b>RID</b>
ВB	Pumping	0.7019	1.4638
TB	Gravitation	0.7997	1.4402
ΥN	Inundation	0.7763	1.5042

## 3.2 Relationship between  $K_c$ –IrriSAT and average  $K_c$ – RID

The relationships between  $K_c$ –IrriSAT and average  $K_c$ –RID before and after the calibration procedure corresponding to specific growing periods of three main irrigation schemes are presented in Fig.7 and Fig.8. Before calibrating, the patterns of  $K_c$ –IrriSAT and average  $K_c$ –RID over the growth stages of crops are likely similar. However, the  $K_c$  values calculated by IrriSAT for three irrigation schemes are highly deviated from average  $K_c$ –RID values in some growing periods in both in– season and off–season crops. It is found that the values of  $K_c$ –IrriSAT are higher than average  $K_c$ –RID from filed observation in initial and late stages of crop growth in dry and wet seasons for these three irrigation schemes as can be seen in Fig.7. Meanwhile, the lower values of  $K_c$ – IrriSAT are found in the mid–stages of dry and wet seasons. The reason might be that evaluating  $K_c$  by IrriSAT on cloud–based platform entails the entire planting area. However, calculating average  $K_c$ –RID is manipulated based upon some specific types of crop in a given area. Therefore, calibrating  $K_c$  values performed by IrriSAT was then conducted using least square criterion to envisage the degree of agreement  $(R<sup>2</sup>)$  to the average  $K_c$ –RID. After calibrating, the adjusted factors

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corresponding to time periods identified can be made as presented in Table 3. The comparison of  $K_c$ -IrriSAT before and after adjustments with the average  $K_c$ –RID are shown in Fig.7. Correlations between  $K_c$ –IrriSAT after adjusted and average  $K_c$ –RID for BB, TB, and YN irrigation schemes are relatively higher with  $R^2$  of 0.8304, 0.8466, and 0.8314, respectively as can be seen in Fig.8.









obtained from cloud–based IrriSAT application







# 3.3 Results of Reference Crop Evapotranspiration (ET $_o$ )

The calculation of the reference crop evapotranspiration  $(ET_0)$  for BB, TB, and YN irrigation schemes was accomplished using observed climate data at the nearest weather stations located in Ayutthaya, Phichit–Nakhon Sawan, and Phitsanulok–Sukothai Provinces, respectively.

The results of  $ET_0$  calculation are illustrated in Table 4. It is found that the average values of  $ET_0$  in the Pichit and Nakhon Sawan Provinces are relatively closer to the Phitsanulok and Sukhothai Provinces due to the similar physical circumstances in the Lower Nan Basin. On the other hand, the values of  $ET_0$  calculated using climate data in the Ayutthaya Province in the Chao Phraya– Thachin River Basin seem to be bigger over the year. However, the ranges of  $ET_0$  in this region vary between 4.30–6.10, 2.61–5.45, and 2.78–4.37 mm/day for BB, TB, and YN, respectively which is in a similar range comparing with those previously reported by several studies (HII, 2012a; 2012b, 2012c, 2012d; NRCT, 2022).

Table 4 Reference crop evapotranspiration values estimated by the FAO–Penman Monteith formula

Month	$ET_0$ (mm/day)			
	<b>FAO-Penman Monteith Formula</b>			
	BB	TB	YN	
Jan	4.69	2.95	2.87	
Feb	4.47	3.88	3.37	
Mar	5.35	5.00	3.88	
Apr	5.39	5.45	4.28	
May	5.23	5.08	4.37	
Jun	5.29	4.84	4.26	
Jul	5.23	4.61	4.19	
Aug	4.98	4.33	4.14	
Sep	4.31	3.85	3.94	
Oct	4.30	3.32	3.54	
Nov	4.79	2.84	3.03	
Dec	5.29	2.61	2.78	

#### 3.4 Comparison of Crop Water Requirement between  $ET_{c}$ –IrriSAT and  $ET_{c}$ –RID

 Fig.9 and Table 5 show the calculated values of monthly and yearly crop water demands  $(ET_c)$  for three different sorts of irrigation schemes using two kinds of  $K_c$ namely, (1) K<sub>c</sub>–IrriSAT adjusted and (2) average K<sub>c</sub>– RID. It is illustrated that applying the average  $K_c$ –RID and adjusted  $K_c$ -IrriSAT values provide the similar patterns of the monthly crop water demands from 2015 to 2020 for BB, TB, and YN irrigation schemes. In addition, it shows the equality of mean of the yearly crop water demands of two datasets for these three irrigation schemes. However, when the adjusted  $K_c$ –IrriSAT was adopted under the same circumstances of cultivated area size used, the explicit variability on yearly crop water demands of BB, TB, and YN irrigation schemes was found. This is because the cloud–based IrriSAT application can provide the dynamic values of  $K_c$  in accordance with the changes in planting area size and

NDVI values (Hornbuckle et al., 2016). Among the different sorts of irrigation schemes selected in GCPYIS, the mean values of monthly and yearly crop water demand performed by adjusted  $K_c$ –IrriSAT are likely close to those obtained by  $K_c$ –RID for all sorts of irrigation. Moreover, the greater variability in the values of monthly and yearly crop water demands made by adjusted K<sub>c</sub>–IrriSAT are predominantly found. However, the further study on the performances of IrriSAT in estimating  $K_c$  and  $ET_c$  values and relation between  $K_c$  and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) in the different sorts of irrigation is highly encouraged for the achievement of satellite–based crop water requirement estimation.

#### 4. CONCLUSION

The cloud–based IrriSAT application can be a very supportive tool for tracking the dynamics of crop coefficient which is a key parameter for accurate estimation of crop water use. This study revealed the application of IrriSAT in estimating actual crop water demand promptly on cloud–based platform in various types of irrigation schemes in Thailand. In addition, the calibration procedures to find the adjusted factors of dynamic crop coefficients estimated by IrriSAT were also envisaged. The results show that the cloud–based IrriSAT application can deliver the explicit variability on monthly and yearly crop water demands in these three sorts of irrigation schemes which represent the pumping, gravitational and inundated irrigation in GCPYIS. In addition, it can be used for crop water demand estimation particularly in small to large scale irrigation areas. Importantly, it is very helpful for the water resources planners to identify affordable water delivery and to improve the irrigation efficiency at the field scale corresponding to the dynamic values of estimated crop water demand and water supply status.

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Figure 9 Patterns of monthly  $ET_c$  values from 2015 to 2020 in each irrigation project

Table 5 Yearly crop water requirement values from 2015 to 2020



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#### 7. BIOGRAPHIES



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Areeya Rittima received her doctoral degree in Irrigation<br>Engineering from Kasetsart Engineering from Kasetsart University, Thailand in 2006. She is currently an associate professor at the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Mahidol University, Thailand. Her research

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Yutthana Phankamolsil received the doctoral degree in Irrigation Engineering from Kasetsart University, Thailand in 2008. Currently, he is an assistant professor in the Environmental and Disaster Management Program, Kanchanaburi Campus, Mahidol

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Wudhichart Sawangphol received the Master of Information Technology (MIT) with honors in Data Management, Software Engineering, and Knowledge Engineering and Ph.D. in Ontology Reasoning and Optimization from Monash University, Australia in 2013 and 2017. Currently, he is a

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Jidapa Kraisangka received the Ph.D. in Information Science from the University of Pittsburgh, USA in 2019. Currently, she is an instructor at the Faculty of Information and Communication Technology, Mahidol University, Thailand. Her research interests are<br>probabilistic and decisionprobabilistic

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