

Divergence of actual and reference evapotranspiration observations for irrigated sugarcane with windy tropical conditions

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Abstract

Standardized reference evapotranspiration (ET) and ecosystem-specific vegetation coefficients are frequently used to estimate actual ET. However, equations for calculating reference ET have not been well validated in tropical environments. We measured ET (ET_{EC}) using Eddy Covariance (EC) towers at two irrigated sugarcane fields on the leeward (dry) side of Maui, Hawaii, USA in contrasting climates. We calculated reference ET at the fields using

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the short (ET_0) and tall (ET_r) vegetation versions of the American Society for Civil Engineers (ASCE) equation. The ASCE equations were compared to the Priestley-Taylor ET (ET_{PT}) and ET_{EC} . Reference ET from the ASCE approaches exceeded ET_{EC} during the mid-period (when vegetation coefficients suggest ET_{EC} should exceed reference ET). At the windier tower site, cumulative ET_r exceeded ET_{EC} by 854 mm over the course of the mid-period (267 days). At the less windy site, mid-period ET_r still exceeded ET_{EC} , but the difference was smaller (443 mm). At both sites, ET_{PT} approximated mid-period ET_{EC} more closely than the ASCE equations ($(ET_{PT}-ET_{EC}) < 170$ mm). Analysis of applied water and precipitation, soil moisture, leaf stomatal resistance, and canopy cover suggest that the lower observed ET_{EC} was not the result of water stress or reduced vegetation cover. Use of a custom calibrated bulk canopy resistance improved the reference ET estimate and reduced seasonal ET discrepancy relative to ET_{PT} and ET_{EC} for the less windy field and had mixed performance at the windier field. These divergences suggest that modifications to reference ET equations may be warranted in some tropical regions.

1 Introduction

Accurate estimates of evapotranspiration (ET) are needed for numerous purposes including efficient irrigation scheduling (Davis and Dukes, 2010), parameterizing and running different classes of biogeochemical and hydrologic models (Fisher et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2013), assessing changes in regional hydrology under different cultivation systems (Ferguson and Maxwell; 2011; Holwerda et al., 2013; Waterloo et al., 1999), and evaluating the impacts of agricultural production on regional and global climate (Kueppers et al., 2007; Lo and Famiglietti, 2013; Puma and Cook, 2010) and hydrology (Anderson et al., 2012; Vörösmarty et al., 1998). In irrigated agriculture, underestimation of required ET can lead to sub-optimal yield due to water stress (Kang et al., 2002), whereas overestimation of ET can lead to excessive applied water, thus reducing water available for other uses or additional acreage (Perry, 2005), degrading water quality (Smith, 2000), and decreasing economic competitiveness (Hargreaves and Samani, 1984).

While accurate ET estimates are essential, ET can be challenging to measure. Numerous approaches have been developed to measure or estimate ET, including lysimeters (Meissner et al., 2010), micrometeorological methods (Anderson and Gouliden, 2009; Baldocchi, 2003; Hemakumara et al., 2003), satellite remote sensing (Bastiaanssen et al., 2005; Tang et al.

2009), and water balance methods. While these approaches vary in their spatial/temporal scale and methodological assumptions and accuracy, most require significant observational costs, technical expertise, or have operational difficulties that are too high for most farmers.

Because of the difficulties in actual ET measurement, the vegetation coefficient/reference ET approach (Jensen, 1968) has gained widespread acceptance for estimating actual ET for varied applications (e.g. Arnold et al., 1998; Cristea et al., 2012). This approach involves calculating a reference ET for a standard land surface, usually grass or alfalfa, using meteorological data and relating the reference surface to the ecosystem/land cover of interest with empirical coefficient(s):

$$ET_A = K_C * ET_0. \quad (1)$$

where ET_A is actual ET, ET_0 is reference ET, and K_c is the coefficient for the specific land cover type. Two of the most commonly used standard methods include the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) approach presented in Irrigation and Drainage Paper 56, hereafter referred to as FAO-56 (Allen et al., 1998), and the American Society of Civil Engineers approach, hereafter referred to as ASCE (Allen et al., 2005). Both approaches are based on the combination Penman-Monteith formula (Monteith, 1965) and account for ET from both solar irradiation and advectively-driven ET due to wind and vapor pressure deficit (VPD). Both the FAO-56 and ASCE approaches assume standard measurement conditions and surface parameters (e.g. canopy height, surface resistance, albedo, etc.), thus allowing canopy and atmospheric resistance terms to be condensed into constants. Both methods also provide scaling procedures to account for variation in meteorological measurements as well as missing or erroneous data.

Validation work of standardized reference ET equations against large weighing lysimeters with reference surfaces has been done primarily in the western continental U.S. with low atmospheric humidity (Evelt et al., 2000; Jensen et al., 1990). Internationally, most other reference ET validation has been done in Mediterranean climates with similar, low, humidity (Lecina et al., 2003; Ventura et al., 1999). Relatively little evaluation of these equations has been done in areas with higher relative humidity, presumably because of the perceived lack of use for reference ET equations in these areas. However, reference ET equations are used in more humid regions for applications such as watershed modeling (Rao et al., 2011), forecasting water demand (Tian and Martinez, 2012), and determining irrigation needs

(Suleiman and Hoogenboom, 2007). As such, it is necessary to test these reference ET equations in regions with high relative humidity to ensure accurate ET parameterization.

One major tropical and subtropical crop that has generally high ET is sugarcane. Sugarcane is a good crop to test reference ET parameterizations because of its longer full canopy period, when actual crop ET should be at its maximum relative to reference ET equations, and high crop coefficient that generally exceeds 1. Previous research in irrigated sugarcane has found full-canopy ET rates that equal or exceed evaporation rates from open-water pans (Campbell et al., 1960; Thompson and Boyce, 1967). Since the development and implementation of reference ET equations, researchers have generally found irrigated sugarcane to have a crop coefficient (K_c) greater than 1 in Australia and Swaziland (Inman-Bamber and McGlinchey, 2003), Brazil (da Silva et al., 2012), and Texas (Salinas and Namken, 1977). However, all of these studies found variable and differing K_c values, with Inman-Bamber and McGlinchey noting a correspondence between meteorological events and outlying daily K_c values.

Sugarcane's high water use, the potential for expanded irrigation to reduce yield deficits and increase production in tropical regions (Inman-Bamber et al., 1999), and the potential for sugarcane irrigation to stress water resources during dry periods in tropical areas (Ramjeawon, 1994), make it a good case study for evaluating reference ET equations in tropical regions.

To evaluate the performance of standardized reference ET equations, we established two Eddy Covariance towers over irrigated sugarcane fields in Hawaii, USA to measure ET (ET_{EC}). We calculated reference ET using the ASCE approach for short (ET_0) and tall (ET_r) reference vegetation. The FAO-56 ET_0 was not used as it is identical to ASCE ET_0 for calculations on a daily time step (Irmak et al., 2006; Suleiman and Hoogenboom, 2009). We also compared ET_{EC} to the Priestley-Taylor (PT) ET equation (ET_{PT}). Our objectives were (1) to determine if standardized reference ET equations adequately parameterized actual ET across differing microclimates, (2) determine the meteorological conditions that contribute to discrepancies in the standardized equations and (3) examine corrections to improve estimates of reference ET under relatively more humid conditions.

2 Methods

2.1 Study region

We evaluated reference ET approaches in two sugarcane (*Saccharum officinarum* L.) fields with identical cultivars (Heinz et al., 1981) at a commercial farm on Maui, Hawaii, USA (Fig. 1 and Table 1). Climatic conditions vary across the farm, with changes in precipitation, wind, solar irradiation, and air temperature due to orographic effects. Normal annual precipitation ranges from 275 mm/year to 1275 mm/year from the leeward (south) side to the windward (northeast) side of the plantation (Giambelluca et al., 2013). Elevations on the plantation range from near sea level to ~340 m. The western side of the plantation is generally windier (Table 1). Drip irrigation is used to maximize limited surface and ground water resources (Moore and Fitschen, 1990); drip tape spacing is 2.70 m with sugarcane rows planted 45 cm away from the tape on both sides; the tape irrigates at $1.58 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ hour}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$ and is regulated to 83 kPa of pressure at the head of the row. Irrigation amounts were recorded by the farm; rainfall was recorded at nearby weather stations (Supplemental S1). As is typical for Hawaii (Heinz and Osgood, 2009), sugarcane is grown on a 24 month rotation with planting and harvesting throughout most of the year. Peak ET, as determined by the length of the mid-season period, lasts significantly longer (330 days) than for sugarcane in other regions (190-220 days) (Doorenbos and Pruitt, 1977; Inman-Bamber and McGlinchey, 2003).

2.2 Eddy Covariance measurements and data analysis

We installed two micrometeorological towers in contrasting micro-climates (Fig. 1 and Table 1). These towers are at the “Windy” site (lower elevation, higher wind velocity, more constant wind direction, and sandy clay loam soil) and the “Lee” site (higher elevation, lower wind velocity, and clay soil). Field fetch in the prevailing wind directions was over 200 m for both towers. The slope in both fields, as determined using the $1/3 \text{ arcsec}$ (~10 m) Digital Elevation Model from the US Geological Survey’s National Elevation Dataset (<http://ned.usgs.gov/index.html>), is less than 3%. Beyond the edge of each field, Windy was surrounded by sugarcane fields on all sides for over 1500 m; Lee was bordered by non-irrigated rangeland in the non-prevailing wind directions (east and south) and contiguous sugarcane fields on the north and east.

1 Tower instrumentation included an integrated Eddy Covariance system (EC150 - Campbell
2 Scientific, Logan, Utah, USA²) with an open-path infrared gas analyzer, aspirated temperature
3 probe, attached 3-D sonic anemometer head (CSAT3A - Campbell Scientific), and enhanced
4 barometer (PTB110 – Vaisala, Vantaa, Finland). Relative humidity and air temperature were
5 measured by a combined temperature and relative humidity probe (HMP45C – Vaisala). Net
6 radiation was measured with a single component net radiometer (NR-Lite2 – Kipp and Zonen,
7 Delft, Netherlands). We corrected the single component net radiometer for the effect of wind
8 following Cobos and Baker [2003]. Ground heat flux was measured as the average of four
9 self-calibrating heat flux plates (HFP01SC – Huskeflux, Delft, Netherlands). The plates were
10 installed at 5 cm depth at four lateral locations perpendicular to the irrigation drip line
11 (Section 2.1): 0 cm (drip line), 45 cm (sugarcane row), 75 cm, and 135 cm (mid-point
12 between drip lines). All instruments were factory calibrated to ISO 9001:2008 standards prior
13 to deployment; data were recorded and processed on solid state dataloggers (CR3000,
14 Campbell Scientific).

15 Two Water Content Reflectometry probes (CS616 – Campbell Scientific) were installed at 20
16 cm depth at lateral two locations perpendicular to the drip line (45 and 135 cm) to measure
17 soil volumetric water content (VWC). These locations were chosen to correspond with the
18 sugarcane row (center of root zone) and halfway between sugarcane rows. VWC was
19 measured to independently assess potential water stress in both fields. VWC was calculated
20 using a quadratic equation with empirically determined coefficients specific to each field
21 following the manufacturer's recommendation. Soil water retention and permanent wilting
22 point were also determined for Windy, and could not be determined for Lee because of the
23 logistical difficulty and equipment risk in obtaining intact Tempe Cell samples below the
24 surface due to rockiness at the Lee site. More technical details on soil calibrations are provide
25 in Supplemental S1.

26 The EC150 system measured CO₂, H₂O, wind velocity, and sonic temperature at 10 Hz. Other
27 variables were averaged to 30 minute fluxes. We processed raw covariances on the datalogger
28 and post-processed high frequency time series data with commercial software (Eddy Pro
29 Advanced V 3.0 and 4.0 – LI-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska USA). Datalogger flux calculations

² Mention of trade names or commercial products in this publication is solely for the purpose of providing specific information and does not imply recommendation or endorsement by the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

were downloaded daily via cellular modem. High frequency (10 Hz.) data and half hourly fluxes were transferred monthly via data card. Raw time series data were checked following Vickers and Mahrt's (1997) tests. Sonic anemometer tilt was corrected using double rotation (Kaimal and Finnigan, 1994); lags between the infrared gas analyzer and sonic anemometer were determined using maximum covariance. We corrected for density fluctuations (Webb et al., 1980), low pass filtering (Moncrieff et al., 1997), and high pass filtering (Moncrieff et al., 2004). Flux footprint lengths were calculated following Kljun et al. (2004), and quality flags were assigned following the CarboEurope standard (Mauder and Foken, 2004). We independently calculated stability (Obukhov, 1971). After installation, tower heights were periodically adjusted to keep meteorological instrumentation ~3.0-3.3 m above the zero plane displacement height, which was assumed to be 67% of canopy height (Arya, 2001). Canopy height was measured biweekly, concurrent with the vegetation cover observations (Section 2.4). Additional, detailed, EC cross validation activities are described in Supplemental S1.

Half-hourly fluxes with instrumentation errors flagged by the EC150 system, rainfall, or lack of turbulence (friction velocity < 0.1 m/s) were excluded. Excluded fluxes were gap-filled as a function of fluxes measured from similar meteorological periods using the Max-Planck Institute tool (<http://www.bgc-jena.mpg.de/~MDIwork/eddyproc/index.php>) (Reichstein et al., 2005). Gap filled fluxes were used to calculate daily and cumulative fluxes, but were excluded from half hourly analyses. We corrected fluxes for energy budget closure by regressing daily EC observed available energy against measured available energy (net radiation minus ground heat flux) and forcing the regression through the origin, preserving the daily mean Bowen ratio and adjusting each day's ET by the regression slope for the entire study period (Anderson and Wang, 2014; Leuning et al., 2012).

2.3 Reference ET equations, corrections, and evaluation of controls

At each tower, daily and hourly reference ET was calculated using the ASCE short (ET₀) and tall (ET_r) reference equations, where short and tall refer to parameterized surfaces similar to well-watered fescue grass (short) and alfalfa (tall) with differences in the equations due to assumed leaf area index and bulk canopy resistance to ET

$$ET_{sz} = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{c_n}{T+273} u_2 (e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + C_d u_2)} \quad (2)$$

As shown in equation 2, ET_{sz} is the reference ET type (ET_r or ET₀ in mm/day or mm/hour

depending on time step), R_n and G are net radiation and ground heat flux ($\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ or $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{ hour}^{-1}$), γ is the psychrometric constant ($\text{kPa } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$), T is mean daily or hourly air temperature ($^\circ\text{C}$), u_2 is mean daily or hourly wind speed measured at or scaled to 2 m height, e_s and e_a are mean saturation and actual vapor pressure (kPa), respectively, and C_n and C_d are empirical numerator and denominator constants that change with reference surface and time step (Table 1 in Allen et al., 2005). We scaled all meteorological variables from 3 m above the zero plane displacement to 2 m height following the ASCE procedure for adjusting meteorological measurements at non-standard height. Following ASCE, mean daily meteorological values were calculated as an average of daily minimum and maximum values as opposed to averaging all 24 hours of measurements. Differences between these averaging approaches were small (mean T difference of 0.26°C and 0.27°C in Windy and Lee, respectively). Measured net radiation and ground heat fluxes were used for all calculations.

We also calculated another reference using the Priestley-Taylor (PT) equation (Priestley and Taylor, 1972). PT was chosen as a comparison because of its different treatment of advection versus the Penman-Monteith (PM) type equations, its wide usage, and the relative simplicity of its meteorological inputs compared to PM. The PT equation is

$$ET_{PT} = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda} * \frac{\Delta(R_n - G)}{\Delta + \gamma} . \quad (3)$$

ET_{PT} is the PT ET (mm day^{-1}); Δ , γ , R_n , G are the same as in equation 2; λ is the latent heat of vaporization; and α is an empirical constant. We assumed that λ is 2.45 MJ mm^{-1} , which is the same as the ASCE/FAO-56 approach. We used an α of 1.26, which is widely, but not universally, representative of a well-watered surface across a variety of climates (e.g. Eichinger et al., 1996; McAneney and Itier, 1996).

To examine the discrepancies between the ASCE equations (ET_0 and ET_r), the Priestley-Taylor equation (ET_{PT}), and measured ET_{EC} , we inverted the Penman-Monteith (PM) equation to calculate bulk canopy resistance (r_c) from ET_{EC} and ET_{PT} and compared the calculated r_c to the constant r_c used to calculate ET_0 and ET_r during the mid-period. The ASCE parameterization to calculate atmospheric resistance (r_a) was used in the inverted PM equation. Days with Available Energy (net radiation (R_n) - ground heat flux (G)) of $< 5 \text{ MJ day}^{-1}$ were excluded because low radiation values would result in extreme r_c values and to avoid including days with precipitation, which would bias the net radiation measurement of the NR-Lite2.

Once the discrepancies between reference and measured ET became apparent (see sections 3.2 and 3.3), we attempted two corrections to the ASCE reference ET approach to better parameterize sugarcane water use. One was a climatological correction to the ET coefficient (K_{C-adj}). Following the FAO-56 approach (Allen et al., 1998), an adjustment term (K_{adj}) was calculated

$$K_{adj} = 0.04 * (U_{2avg} - 2) - 0.004 * (RH_{avg} - 45) * h_{avg}^{0.3}, \quad (4)$$

$$K_{C-adj} = K_{C-FAO} + K_{adj}, \quad (5)$$

In equations 4 and 5, K_{C-FAO} is the literature mid canopy K_C value, U_{2avg} is mean location wind speed ($m\ s^{-1}$) at 2 m height, RH_{avg} is mean location relative humidity, and h_{avg} is average vegetation height. For our study we used average wind speed, relative humidity, and vegetation height over the mid-period to calculate these parameters in the absence of longer term climate data. The FAO-56 provides a range of mid-period K_C values for sugarcane (1.25-1.40) for short reference ET. For adjustment, we chose the lowest end of the range (1.25) for K_{C-FAO} to enable the most conservative estimate of parameterized ET.

The second correction was to parameterize the ASCE-PM equation with a custom, constant, r_c . To estimate a r_c value, an intermediate bulk canopy resistance of $165\ s\ m^{-1}$ was used, which was chosen as the weighted average of the r_c calculated by inverting the ET_{PT} at Windy and Lee. We then ran the full form PM equation to calculate a new reference ET (ET_{r-cane}).

Along with corrections to the reference ET equations, we examined potential controls on the discrepancies between reference and measured ET values. Daytime and nighttime r_c were investigated by inverting the full PM equation with measured ET to see if there was a systematic time of day difference between the fields and to see if errors in daytime or nighttime parameterized r_c were disproportionally contributing to discrepancies in reference ET. Daily daytime and nighttime r_c were calculated for days that had at least 8 (daytime) and 4 (nighttime) non-gap filled half hourly flux measurements. For these calculations, daytime was defined as $Rn > 50\ Wm^{-2}$ and nighttime as $Rn < -10\ Wm^{-2}$. We used this definition to avoid including periods with near zero Rn that would blow up the inverted PM equation. Finally, we evaluated the correlation between meteorological observations and discrepancies between the ASCE tall reference ET equation (ET_r) and ET_{EC} to assess the importance of the advective and radiation terms in the PM equation.

2.4 Canopy cover and determination of mid-period

We measured fractional canopy cover with an optical camera to obtain an independent, conservative determination of the mid-season period (mid-period) for intercomparison of measured and reference ET. The mid-period is one of the growth/ET stages in the FAO/ASCE methodology and corresponds to maximum plant transpiration and the highest ecosystem coefficient (K_{c-mid}). In unstressed sugarcane, the mid-period coefficient should exceed 1 (Allen et al., 1998), thus measured ET should exceed reference ET. The camera (TetraCam ADC multispectral camera, TetraCam Inc., Chatsworth, California, USA) contains a single precision 3.2 megapixel image sensor optimized for capturing green, red, and near-infrared wavebands of reflected light. A telescoping pole tripod system (GeoData Systems Management Inc., Berea, Ohio, USA) was used to suspend the camera directly above the plant at a height of 7 m and aim vertically downward at nadir view. Each field was photographed every $\sim 16 \pm 2$ days. Ten images were taken in two lines perpendicular to the irrigation line at pre-selected sampling locations in each field at solar noon \pm two hours; sampling locations were identical throughout the study. Each image was preprocessed in image processing software (LView Pro 2006 - CoolMoom Corp., Hallandale, Florida, USA) to paint out the pixels of soil, grass, shadow and other background. The preprocessed image was then analyzed using proprietary software (PixelWrench, TetraCam Inc.) to classify fractional vegetation cover based on threshold analysis, and the cover readings from the ten locations were averaged to determine mean and standard error of field vegetation cover. We considered the beginning of the mid-period to be the latter of the beginning date of mid-period from the FAO-56 K_C curve (Allen et al., 1998) or the date where canopy cover clearly exceeded 80%, which has been shown to coincide with the start of mid-period (Carr and Knox, 2011). The end of the K_{C-mid} period was set to 27 August 2012, which was the last date of irrigation data prior to the end of the FAO-56 mid-period. Finally, we further restricted the end of the mid-period in the earlier planted field (Lee) to ensure that the length of the mid-period was identical in both fields for intercomparison purposes.

2.5 Leaf Area Index and stomatal resistance measurements

We measured Leaf Area Index (LAI) and leaf stomatal resistance in a field campaign during the mid-period for both EC fields (July 2012). LAI was measured using a non-destructive, optical plant canopy analyzer (LAI 2200, LI-COR Inc.) on 13 July in the Lee field and 16 July in the Windy field. At each of the 10 TetraCam sampling locations in each field (Section 2.4),

we made 10 below canopy and 5 above canopy measurements with the optical canopy analyzer; we then used the manufacturer's software (FV2200, LI-COR Inc.) to determine mean and standard error of LAI for both fields. To observe leaf level stomatal resistance, we used a steady-state diffusion porometer (SC-1, Decagon Devices Inc.), which has been used to observe response to different irrigation regimes in multiple agronomic crops (e.g. Ballester et al., 2013; Hirich et al., 2014; Mabhaudhi et al., 2013; Mendez-Costabel et al., 2014). At each TetraCam point, 9 leaves were measured: 3 fully sunlit upper canopy leaves near (<20 vertical cm away from) the top visible dewlap (TVD) point (Glaz et al., 2008), 3 mid-level leaves that were attached to the cane stalk below the TVD height but which were still mostly sunlit, and 3 lower canopy leaves that were partially to mostly shaded. Porometry measurements were made in a 30 s measurement window using the porometer's automatic mode. We also repeated the stomatal resistance measurements at five of the TetraCam points in the Windy field to evaluate the larger discrepancies in reference ET observed in that field.

3 Results

3.1 Fractional vegetation cover, leaf area index, and leaf stomatal resistance

Fractional vegetation cover increased rapidly in both fields after the beginning of the EC measurements (Fig. 2). Initial cover was <20% in Windy and < 45% in Lee (112 and 142 days after planting (DAP), respectively). Some early TetraCam sampling dates were missed due to initial equipment failures. Vegetation cover exceeded 80% in Lee on 3 November 2011 and 5 December 2011 in Windy (220 and 208 DAP, respectively); which we considered the onset of the mid-period. Both of these dates are later than the onset of mid-period according to the FAO-56 curve (180 DAP). Variation in cover was largest at the beginning of the study period (standard deviation of ~10%) (Fig. 2). Vegetation cover was least variable near the onset of the mid-period (standard deviation <5%). Mean canopy height reached 3.97 m in Lee and 4.09 m in Windy by the end of the study.

Mean \pm standard error of measured Leaf Area Index (LAI) was 4.9 ± 0.2 in Windy on 13 July 2012 and 4.7 ± 0.3 in Lee on 16 July 2012. Midday leaf stomatal resistance (r_s) observations of fully sunlit leaves in Windy (n=32) and Lee (n=21) showed substantial variation, ranging from 45 to 259 s m⁻¹ in Windy and 40 to 640 s m⁻¹ in Lee. Median r_s in Windy and Lee were 112 and 114 s m⁻¹, respectively. Mean \pm standard deviation of r_s in Windy and Lee were

125±57 s m⁻¹ and 161±157 s m⁻¹, respectively. There were two observations in Lee of sunlit stomatal resistance of >500 s m⁻¹. Excluding these two observations resulted in a revised mean and median r_s in Lee of 114 and 104 s m⁻¹, respectively. Mean sunlit stomatal resistance was not significantly different ($p<0.01$) from 100 s m⁻¹ in either Windy ($p=0.02$) or Lee ($p=0.09$).

3.2 Meteorological observations

Air temperature and net radiation were similar in both Windy and Lee (Figs. 3a and 3c; Table 1). In Windy, mean daily air temperature ranged from 19.0 to 25.0 °C over the Study Period whereas in Lee mean daily air temperature ranged from 19.7 to 26.3 °C. Mean air temperature was higher in Windy than Lee (23.5 and 22.3 °C, respectively) with a similar, low day to day variability (standard deviation of 1.3 °C for both fields). Daily net radiation (Rn) was also similar between fields; Rn was slightly higher in Windy versus Lee (11.5 and 10.9 MJ m⁻² day⁻¹; Fig. 3c and Table 1). Both fields showed larger relative variations in Rn (~10 MJ m⁻² day⁻¹) than in other meteorological observations. Wind velocities were sharply divergent between the two fields. Mean wind velocity was more than twice as high (4.6 m s⁻¹ versus 2.0 m s⁻¹) in Windy compared to Lee (Fig. 3b; Table 1). Wind velocities were also more variable in Windy than Lee (standard deviation of 1.4 and 0.7 m s⁻¹, respectively).

Soil volumetric water content (VWC) observations in the Windy field underneath the sugar cane row/line varied from 23-30% during the mid-period except after major rain events in December 2011 and March 2012 when they spiked to 36-37% (Fig. 3d). At all times, VWC remained well above wilting point (12%) for both sensors (Table 1). Available plant water in the top 40 cm of the soil at minimum VWC was ~40 mm. Soil matric potentials in Windy near typical maximum (30%) and minimum (24%) soil VWC were -0.01 and -0.033 MPa, respectively (Table 1). Shallow VWC observations underneath the cane row are likely indicative of plant water stress due to the majority of drip-irrigated Hawaiian sugarcane roots being at less than 50 cm depth (Evensen et al., 1997). VWC observations between drip lines showed relatively little periodicity compared to underneath the cane row, indicating that neither irrigation events nor root depletion was impacting VWC at this location. Due to difficulties with instrument installation and instrument failure, we were not able to obtain a reliable time series of soil VWC observations in the Lee field. Precipitation at both fields was less than 150 mm over the course of the study, with irrigation providing more than 90% of the water input (Table 2)

From tower establishment to the end of the study period, daily EC measured evapotranspiration (ET_{EC}) ranged from 1.6 to 5.5 mm day⁻¹, with a mean of 3.2 mm day⁻¹, in Lee and 1.6 to 5.5 mm day⁻¹, with a mean 3.8 mm day⁻¹, in Windy (Fig. 4). ET_{EC} showed relatively little seasonal variation (<3 mm day⁻¹ from summer maxima to winter minima) and greater day to day variations of 1-2 mm day⁻¹. Cumulatively, mid-period ET_{EC} was 158 mm higher in Windy than in Lee (Fig. 5; Table 2). Factors contributing to higher ET_{EC} in Windy include higher wind speed, slightly higher R_n , a higher mean air temperature, and lower mean daily relative humidity. However, maximum daily air temperature is higher near Lee than Windy. Ground heat flux was minimal (<3% of R_n during daytime periods) at both sites during the mid-period.

Quality control checks on the EC data indicated no significant issues with ET measurements. Energy closure varied significantly between the sites, with daily energy closure of the turbulent fluxes of 75% at Lee and 97% at Windy. As data processing and instrumentation were identical between sites, the difference in energy closure is very likely due to the differences in topography and turbulence between the two fields, particularly nighttime turbulence (Anderson and Wang, 2014). Friction velocity at Windy rarely dropped below the critical threshold (0.1 m s⁻¹) at night (2.5% of the half hourly fluxes). Mean 90% footprint lengths during the Study Period determined following Kljun et al. (2004) were 158 m in Windy and 124 m in Lee, which indicate that our EC towers were observing the field of interest even during the rare periods (~7% of record) where we were observing in the short fetch direction (Table 1) such as during Kona winds (winds from the south and west). During the predominant trade wind flows (prevailing winds from the northeast), our fetch in both fields was >200 m.

3.3 Reference ET at EC tower sites

Daily short (ET_0) and tall (ET_r) ASCE reference ET were significantly different between the two sites (Fig. 4). In Windy, ET_0 ranged from 1.6 to 8.1 mm day⁻¹ over the study period with a mean of 5.2 mm day⁻¹ (5.1 mm day⁻¹ over the mid-period). ET_r ranged from 2.0 to 12.3 mm day with a mean of 7.14 mm day⁻¹ (7.0 mm day⁻¹ for mid-period). For Lee, ET_0 varied from 0.6 to 6.5 mm day⁻¹ with a mean of 4.0 mm day⁻¹ (3.9 mm day⁻¹ for mid-period). For ET_r , the range was 0.8 to 8.6 mm day⁻¹ with a mean of 5.0 mm day⁻¹ (4.8 mm day⁻¹ mid-period). The Priestley-Taylor ET (ET_{PT}) showed less difference between the two fields. Mean ET_{PT} was

1 slightly higher at Windy (4.3 mm day^{-1} and 4.1 mm day^{-1} mid-period) than at Lee (4.0 mm
2 day^{-1} and 3.8 mm day^{-1} mid-period).

3 Over the course of the study, Windy's cumulative ET_0 was 612 mm higher than in Lee, and
4 cumulative ET_r was 1032 mm higher (Fig. 5; Table 2). Similar to the daily values, cumulative
5 ET_{PT} values were considerably closer, with Windy exceeding Lee by 237 mm. As expected,
6 the cumulative difference between reference equations and ET_{EC} grew in the early portion of
7 the study period, prior to the mid-period (Fig. 5). During the mid-period, the difference
8 between ET_r and ET_{EC} grew significantly larger in both EC fields. Windy also saw increasing
9 differences between ET_0 , ET_{PT} , and ET_{EC} , whereas in Lee cumulative ET_0 and ET_{PT} tracked
10 quite closely with each other.

11 To further evaluate these discrepancies between reference and ET_{EC} , we calculated the
12 cumulative difference between the 3 reference ET equations and ET_{EC} during the mid-period
13 (Fig. 6). ET_{PT} was the only equation with near zero cumulative difference for a substantial
14 amount of the mid-period for both fields; ET_0 was near 0 for the Lee field from October 2011
15 – February 2012 but not for the Windy field. Over the mid-period in Windy, the difference
16 between cumulative ET_{EC} and ET_{PT} ranged from -40 mm in March 2012 to 92 mm at the end
17 of the study period (August 2012) with cumulative differences of $< 40 \text{ mm}$ until July 2012. In
18 Lee, the differences were greater, varying between -33 and 161 mm. The difference with ET_0
19 ranged from 0 (at beginning of mid-period) to 362 mm and 195 mm in Windy and Lee,
20 respectively. ET_r showed the greatest cumulative differences of 854 and 443 mm in Windy
21 and Lee.

22 **3.4 Bulk canopy resistances at EC towers, soil observations, and patterns in ET** 23 **discrepancies**

24 r_c varied considerably between Windy and Lee for ET_{EC} . For the mid-period, mean \pm standard
25 deviation of daily r_c at Lee and Windy were $201 \pm 47 \text{ s m}^{-1}$ and $145 \pm 36 \text{ s m}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig.
26 7). With respect to ET_{PT} , mean \pm standard deviation of daily r_c at Lee and Windy during the
27 mid-period were $146 \pm 28 \text{ s m}^{-1}$ and $175 \pm 42 \text{ s m}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig. 8). In all cases, mean r_c
28 values were significantly higher ($> 75 \text{ s m}^{-1}$) than the daily r_c values used to parameterize the
29 ET_0 and ET_r equations.

30 Daily daytime and nighttime r_c are shown in Fig. 9. Nighttime r_c shows greater difference
31 between towers, with mean \pm standard deviation in Windy and Lee of $675 \pm 289 \text{ s m}^{-1}$ and

1 808±445 s m⁻¹ and substantially larger absolute and relative standard deviation in r_c . For both
2 fields, daytime and nighttime r_c was larger than the ASCE r_c parameterizations for almost all
3 days. One other notable feature of the resistance terms was the low atmospheric resistance
4 (r_a); in Windy and Lee, mean daily r_a was 17.7 and 38.6 s m⁻¹, respectively, over the study
5 period.

6 With respect to meteorological controls on the discrepancies between ET_r and ET_{EC} , the only
7 parameter that was highly correlated to ET discrepancy ($ET_r - ET_{EC}$) was Vapor Pressure
8 Deficit (VPD) with a coefficient of determination (r^2) of 0.66 (Fig. 10a). VPD showed a much
9 stronger correlation with ET discrepancy than ET_{EC} ($r^2=0.19$) (Fig. 10b). Available Energy
10 was moderately correlated with ET discrepancy ($r^2=0.37$) while all other tested parameters
11 (daily minimum, mean and maximum wind speed and temperature) had weak or no
12 correlation with ET discrepancy ($r^2<0.1$).

13 3.5 Corrections to better parameterize sugarcane water use

14 The climatological K_C adjustment (K_{adj}) had relatively little impact on calculated water use. In
15 the Windy field, K_{adj} was -0.0126 and in Lee K_{adj} was -0.0359. For both fields, the wind
16 adjustment offset the relative humidity/vegetation height adjustment as all 3 parameters were
17 greater than zero. The magnitude of the K_{adj} term was insufficient to account for the observed
18 discrepancies between reference ET and ET_{EC} .

19 Cumulative differences between ET_{r-cane} and ET_{EC} are shown in Fig. 11 along with the
20 differences between ET_{PT} and ET_{EC} . ET_{r-cane} showed some improvements over ET_{PT} in
21 predicting measured ET between Oct 2011 – March 2012; in particular ET_{r-cane} had less
22 underestimation of ET (15 to 27 mm improvement) in winter and spring for both fields and
23 had consistently better performance in the Lee field. ET_{r-cane} had worse performance than ET_{PT}
24 during the summer in the Windy field (40 mm). The minimum cumulative difference between
25 ET_{r-cane} and ET_{EC} was -12 mm and -18 mm in Windy and Lee, respectively. The maximum
26 cumulative difference between ET_{r-cane} and ET_{EC} was 132 and 164 mm at the end of the study
27 period in Windy and Lee, respectively.

29 4. Discussion

4.1 Is Hawaiian sugarcane representative of a fully-transpiring reference ET surface?

Well-irrigated, full canopy, sugarcane has generally been reported to have an ET rate 1.1 to 1.4 times the ASCE/FAO-56 reference ET_0 equation (da Silva et al., 2012; Inman-Bamber and McGlinchey, 2003), and rain-fed sugarcane has been reported to have an ET rate approaching ET_0 (Cabral et al., 2012). Furthermore, a reference PM ET equation designed specifically for sugarcane created by McGlinchey and Inman-Bamber (1996) has a bulk canopy resistance that is slightly lower than the daily ASCE ET_r equation (40 s m^{-1} vs. 45 s m^{-1} for ASCE ET_r). Therefore, the significant overestimation of measured ET (ET_{EC}) by the ET_0 and ET_r equations found in this study was quite surprising. Although Windy and Lee fields had slight differences in planting dates, available soil water capacity, and fetch (Table 1), we do not believe these account for the observed ET/reference ET differences between the fields. Seasonal variation in temperature in Hawaii is quite small, wind speeds appeared to be uncorrelated to seasonality. Wind fields in Central Maui are generally very strong, and our separate calculations of reference ET using independent farm weather station observations (Supplemental S1) and publicly available airport weather data from Kahului airport (http://mesonet.agron.iastate.edu/request/download.phtml?network=HI_ASOS – station ID PHOG) show higher than typical values of reference ET for a tropical region.

The quality of Eddy Covariance observations was good, especially at the Windy tower where high turbulence, flux footprints that were well within field boundaries, low proportion of time periods requiring gap-filling, and excellent energy budget closure ($H+LE$ was $>95\%$ of daily R_n-G) indicated that the methodological requirements of the Eddy Covariance method were well satisfied (Anderson and Wang, 2014). At the Lee tower, Eddy Covariance measurements showed a more typical pattern with a larger number of gaps during still nighttime periods when ET is low. Furthermore, seasonal and annual totals of ET have been shown to be relatively insensitive to gap-filling methodologies (Alavi et al., 2006). Finally, while the gap filling method of Reichstein et al., (2005) may systematically underestimate wet canopy evaporation due to exclusion of all EC periods during and immediately after rain, this bias is likely to be insignificant at our sites due to the low precipitation (Table 2) and drip irrigation that would minimize wetting of the leaves.

One hypothesis is that portions of the fields measured by our Eddy Covariance towers were under significant water stress or had less than optimal cover, and thus were not representative

1 of a reference ET type surface. Uniformity of irrigation is a major concern with drip irrigation,
2 particularly with sub and near surface drip lines where root development can plug or pinch
3 drip lines, leading to insufficient irrigation (e.g. Soopramanien et al., 1990). At our field with
4 higher ET (Windy), visible dry lines arising from pinched drip tubes appeared in parts of the
5 field at and after the end of the study period. However, there are multiple independent lines of
6 evidence against this hypothesis.

7 With respect to canopy cover, the TetraCam observations of cover (Fig. 2) show that
8 fractional cover remained above 80%, a threshold for the mid-period K_C (Carr and Knox,
9 2011; Inman-Bamber and McGlinchey, 2003). More evidence for full canopy comes from the
10 leaf area index (LAI) measurements made in July 2012 toward the end of the mid-period. In
11 both Lee and Windy, mean LAI (4.7 and 4.9) were slightly higher than the LAI (4.5)
12 parameterized in the ET_r equation (Allen et al., 2005). These two types of data indicate that
13 incomplete cover is not an issue with our study sites.

14 Another possibility is that the sugarcane leaves are under significant water stress and thus are
15 transpiring at a lower rate. Four factors show that the sugarcane is unlikely to be water
16 stressed. First, porometer measurements from the July 2012 campaign of midday, sunlit, leaf
17 stomatal resistance were not significantly $>100 \text{ s m}^{-1}$. The 100 s m^{-1} comes from the mean leaf
18 level stomatal resistance of a sunlit leaf on a well-watered plant as measured by Szeicz and
19 Long (1969) and which is used as a basis for scaling bulk canopy resistance in the ASCE and
20 FAO-56 approaches (Allen et al., 1998; 2005). Second, we compared the daily observed ET
21 coefficient (K_C) from the day immediately preceding a substantial irrigation or rain event
22 (defined as $>8 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$) during the mid-period with daily K_C 2 and 3 days after the irrigation
23 event using a paired t-test ($n=106$ in Windy and $n=98$ in Lee). We reasoned that stressed full
24 canopy sugarcane would respond to irrigation within 3 days, but that 3 days were short
25 enough to avoid confounding changes due to variations in field water budgets. Neither field
26 showed significantly greater daily ET_{EC} following an irrigation during the mid-period ($p>0.40$
27 for all tests). Third, the soil volumetric water content (VWC) data from the Windy field
28 indicate relatively high soil moisture content; available soil water underneath the cane row in
29 the middle of the root zone always remained at $>50\%$ of available capacity. Windy's soils
30 were also near field capacity (and far above permanent wilting point) based on matric
31 potential at typical maximum and minimum soil VWC (Table 1). The VWC content also
32 argues against severe water stress that might persist after irrigation relieves the soil moisture

deficit; thus if the ASCE reference ET equations and coefficients were applicable to this situation, we should see at least some days with ET_{EC} in the range of ET_0 and ET_r (6-10 mm day⁻¹ in Windy) when soil moisture was near or above field capacity. Fourth, measured irrigation plus precipitation as recorded by the plantation was compared to measured cumulative ET_{EC} , with cumulative mid-period irrigation and precipitation exceeding ET_{EC} by 342 mm in Windy (Table 2). At all times in the Windy field, cumulative ET_{EC} was significantly less than irrigation plus precipitation. In Lee, by early January 2012, cumulative precipitation and irrigation exceeded ET_{EC} ; by the end of the mid-period (July 2012), cumulative irrigation and precipitation exceeded cumulative ET_{EC} by >500 mm (Table 2). In summary, the evidence of full canopy and the lack of evidence of water stress indicated that the mid-period sugarcane at our study fields should be fully transpiring.

4.2 Why do the standardized ASCE reference ET equations differ between similar sites?

Without clear evidence of water stress or lack of canopy cover over the study sites, we examine some explanations for the overestimation of the ASCE ET_0 and ET_r compared to ET_{EC} and ET_{PT} . Four hypotheses include (1) scaling of leaf level stomatal resistance to whole canopy bulk resistance, (2) incorrect parameterization of daytime leaf level resistance, (3) underestimation of nighttime bulk canopy resistance, and (4) underestimation of atmospheric resistance. Scaling up leaf level resistance measurements has long been recognized as a major challenge (Bailey and Davies, 1981; Furon et al., 2007; Sprintsin et al., 2012) due to heterogeneity of environmental variables. The ASCE/FAO reference ET methods take a single layer “big leaf” approach to scaling to convert non-stressed leaf resistances (r_s) into whole canopy bulk resistances (r_c) by using an “effective LAI” where r_c is calculated by dividing r_s by effective LAI. ASCE assumes that effective LAI is equivalent to 0.5 times measured LAI, which is assumed to be 2.9 for ET_0 and 4.5 for ET_r thus resulting in effective LAIs of 1.4 and 2.3, respectively. Studies of well watered crops have found effective LAIs which vary quite significantly from those assumed for the reference surface. Tolk et al. (1996) found an effective LAI of 1.3 for irrigated maize in Texas that was only 30% of maximum measured LAI. Other studies (Alfieri et al., 2008; Mehrez et al., 1992) have assumed effective LAI as a linear function of LAI, with effective LAI equaling 50% of LAI when LAI is 6. Ultimately, the effective LAI concept is only a presumed distribution of leaves with differing r_s (Bailey and Davies, 1981); there is a possibility that the relatively unique production system

1 in our study fields results in a different, distinctive leaf distribution with a lower effective
2 LAI. Along with effective LAI, another leaf parameter that could be different is leaf level
3 resistance (r_s). Although we did not find a highly significant difference between measured r_s
4 and the r_s assumed in the ASCE parameterizations (100 s m^{-1}), we were able to measure r_s in
5 only one field campaign during the mid-period, where r_s observations were limited by clouds
6 and other logistical limitations. A large number of r_s observations are needed to accurately
7 characterize r_c (Denmead, 1984); more than we could feasibly measure during our field
8 campaign. We also note that other researchers (e.g. Zhang et al., 2008) have found non-
9 stressed r_s values greater than 100 s m^{-1} .

10 Two other non-biological factors could help explain the discrepancy between ASCE reference
11 and mid-period ET_{EC} . One is nighttime r_c . Both ASCE approaches assume a nighttime r_c of
12 200 s m^{-1} , which is based on measurements of damp soil beneath a grass lysimeter (Allen et
13 al., 2006). Measured nighttime r_c at our fields was significantly higher. We suspect that the
14 taller sugarcane canopy and substantial layer of trash and lodged cane minimizes bare soil
15 water evaporation, thus increasing nighttime r_c . Oliver and Singels (2012) found significant
16 decrease in soil evaporation in sugarcane with surfaces covered by crop residue. Furthermore,
17 the minimal daytime ground heat flux (<5%) further reduces nighttime ET. Another factor is
18 canopy energy storage that is considerable in high biomass systems (Anderson and Wang,
19 2014). Finally, we note that nighttime r_c is likely to be a locally-specific value; 200 s m^{-1} is
20 too low for our study region, but it is too high for other regions with significant advection
21 (Evelt et al., 2012).

22 Along with nighttime r_c , we examined the role of atmospheric resistance (r_a) in parameterizing
23 ET, given the low observed mean r_a at Windy (< 20 s m^{-1}) and the demonstrated importance of
24 atmospheric resistance/conductance parameterizations in coastal tropical regions for accurate
25 ET parameterization (e.g. Holwerda et al., 2012). Given the canopy architecture of mid-period
26 sugarcane in our study fields, we were not certain about the equations that are commonly used
27 to parameterize zero plane displacement height and roughness lengths, which are also used in
28 the ASCE reference ET equations. To test the effect of r_a uncertainty, a sensitivity analysis
29 was conducted. We used r_a that was 200% and 50% of the original r_a and recalculated r_c for
30 both EC towers.. In all cases, the new r_a changed the r_c values by < 10 s m^{-1} , with most r_c
31 values changed by < 5 s m^{-1} . These values are too small to explain the discrepancy between

observed and parameterized r_c . The presence of r_a in both the numerator and denominator of the PM equation limits the impact of variation in r_a on r_c .

Finally, we note that the ASCE and FAO reference ET and Priestley-Taylor ET equations show varying sensitivity to meteorological variables depending upon climate. Multiple studies have shown spatial, seasonal, and interannual variation in the sensitivity of reference ET to meteorological inputs, with the most sensitive input (air temperature, wind velocity, relative humidity, etc.) changing depending upon season and location (e.g. Bandyopadhyay et al., 2009; Estevez et al., 2009; Gong et al., 2006; Huo et al., 2013; Irmak et al., 2006; Liang et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2014). Irmak et al. (2006) and Estevez et al. (2009) found increased sensitivity to reference ET parameterization at locations with higher wind velocities in the United States and Spain, respectively. Bandyopadhyay et al. (2009) and Huo et al. (2013) reported that decreased wind velocities accounted for the largest proportion of decreased reference ET in climatically differing regions in India and China. Across a large river basin in China (Chiang Jiang), Gong et al. (2006) showed that sensitivities of reference ET to other meteorological variables (air temperature and relative humidity) depended significantly on the spatial pattern of wind sensitivity. With respect to the Priestley-Taylor (PT) equation, variability in the PT coefficient (α) has been found at lower to middle LAI (LAI less than 3) depending upon the soil wetness and covering (Ding et al., 2013). This may be particularly relevant for our system in early growth stages with fractional soil wetness and partial cover from sugarcane detritus (trash). Conversely, at mid to full canopy (LAI greater than 3) or when soil moisture was greater than 50% of the available field capacity, α showed little sensitivity.

5 Summary and Conclusion

We investigated discrepancies between two standardized reference ET equations and Eddy Covariance measured ET at two field sites over irrigated sugarcane in Maui, Hawaii, USA. At both fields, measured daily ET during the mid-period should have approached the tall reference ET equation and exceeded the short reference ET equation. At both fields, both ASCE reference ET equations significantly overestimated mid-period ET compared to Eddy Covariance observations of ET. The Priestley-Taylor (PT) equation performed substantially better at the Windy field than the short reference ET, while the short reference ET equation and PT were more closely matched at the Lee field. We used a custom bulk canopy resistance

1 derived from inverting PT ET; the custom cane reference ET equation had less seasonal
2 variation in ET discrepancy. Multiple, independent, field observations did not indicate
3 insufficient canopy cover or plant water stress reducing ET_{EC} significantly.

4 This study indicated nighttime bulk canopy resistance, leaf stomatal resistance, and effective
5 leaf area index as possible causes for the discrepancy in bulk canopy resistance (and reference
6 ET estimates) between the ASCE reference equations and mid-period ET_{EC} . The higher bulk
7 canopy resistances and relationship between ET discrepancies and vapor pressure deficit
8 indicated that the ASCE equations overestimated the advective component of ET. Ultimately,
9 validation with field methods, including micrometeorology and water balance methods, is
10 needed to establish the accuracy of the ASCE equations in a region where they have not been
11 tested previously. Adjusting the bulk canopy resistance to local climate to reduce the
12 advective component of ET may make the full ASCE Penman-Monteith equation a more
13 appropriate equation in this region.

14 The Priestley-Taylor (PT) equation performs better than ET_r or ET_0 in our study region. The
15 PT equation likely provides a more robust estimation of reference ET in regions with high
16 humidity. The simplicity of the PT equation also makes it attractive for use in larger scale
17 project planning as it has been parameterized in satellite-based ET models (e.g. Choi et al.,
18 2011; Jin et al., 2011) and can be used in regions with a relative paucity of surface
19 meteorological data, unlike the ASCE/FAO equations that require near surface wind speed
20 and humidity data that are currently supplied by surface meteorological stations and which are
21 interpolated in satellite-based approaches (Allen et al., 2007; Hart et al., 2009).

22 The results illustrate the importance of careful use of reference evapotranspiration equations
23 and coefficients for assessing actual evapotranspiration in hydrologic applications. Our
24 finding of high bulk canopy resistance and low atmospheric resistance supports Widmoser's
25 (2009) recommendation into research on the canopy resistance/atmospheric resistance ratio.
26 Many areas with changing hydrology (Elison Timm et al., 2011) and areas that currently and
27 which may soon use irrigation in previously non-irrigated fields (Baker et al., 2012; Salazar et
28 al., 2012) are outside of the semi-arid areas where reference evapotranspiration methods have
29 been primarily developed and tested. As such, it will be important to ensure that the
30 appropriate reference equation is used to parameterize evaporative demand.

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- 17

1 Table 1: Eddy Covariance field site information.

Micrometeorological site information		
Field	Lee	Windy
Latitude (°N)	20.784664	20.824633
Longitude (°W)	156.403869	156.491278
Elevation (m)	203	44
Date field planted	March 28, 2011	May 11, 2011
Date tower established	July 21, 2011	July 23, 2011
Begin of mid-period (cover >80%)	November 3, 2011	December 5, 2011
End of analysis	July 26, 2012	August 27, 2012
Natural Resource Conservation Service (NRCS) Soil Series	Waiakoa very stony, silty clay loam	Pulehu cobbly silt loam
Bulk Density ³ (g/cm ³)	1.22	1.35
Porosity (%)	54	49
Soil texture classification ⁴	Clay	Sandy clay loam
Soil texture - Sand (%)	31	51
Soil texture - Silt (%)	15	16
Soil texture – Clay (%)	54	33
Soil volumetric water content (VWC) at saturation (mm/40 cm depth)	216	196
Soil Water storage (Water content at 30% VWC-wilting point) (mm)	60	72
Wilting Point (% VWC)	15	12
Matric potential at 30% VWC (MPa)	NA ⁵	-0.01
Matric potential at 24% VWC (MPa)	NA	-0.033
Field Size (ha)	99.1	62.6
Field length (m) (predominant wind)	>500	415
Field length (m) (shortest direction)	220	150
Mean meteorological observations (August 1, 2011 – July 31, 2012)		
Mean daily air temperature (°C)	22.3	23.4
Mean minimum daily air temperature (°C)	17.8	20.4
Mean maximum daily air temperature (°C)	27.3	26.9
Mean daily wind speed (m s ⁻¹)	2.0	4.6
Mean daily net radiation (MJ m ⁻² day ⁻¹)	10.7	11.3
Mean daily relative humidity (%)	65	62

2

³ All reported soil properties averaged/summed over the first 40 cm of soil depth.

⁴ Soil texture was determined in the lab using the Hydrometer method.

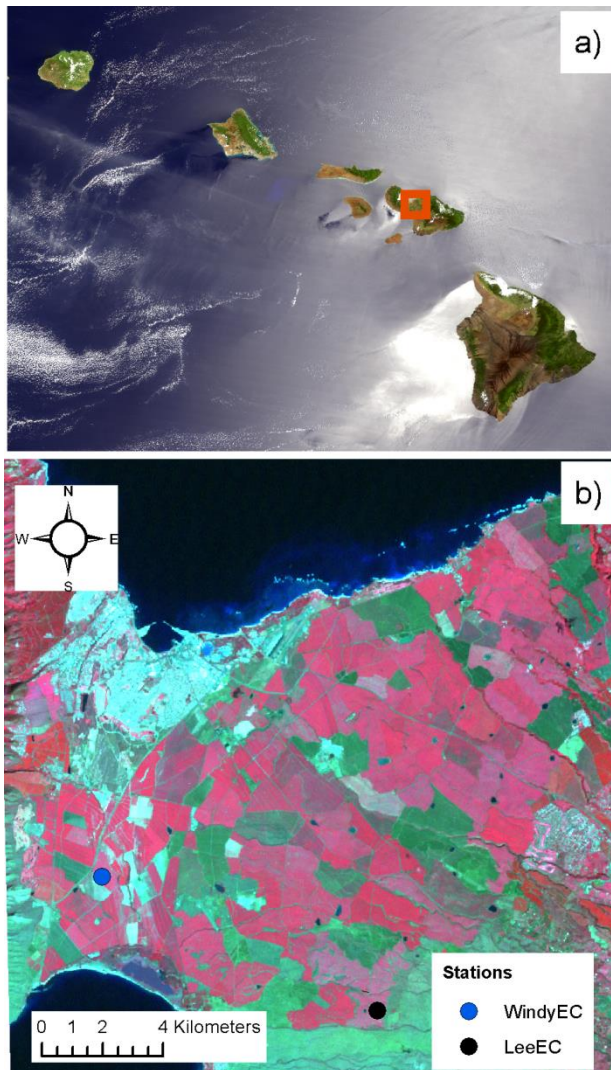
⁵ Matric potential not available for Lee because of extreme logistical difficulty in obtaining intact Tempe Cell samples at depth for determination of water retention characteristics.

- 1 Table 2: A summary of cumulative irrigation, rain, actual measured evapotranspiration-ET_{EC},
- 2 and reference evapotranspiration values (ASCE short-ET₀ and tall-ET_r, Priestley-Taylor-ET_{PT},
- 3 and a custom cane reference ET-ET_{r-cane}) for the entire study period and the mid-period. All
- 4 values are in mm.

	Lee		Windy	
	Whole Study	Mid-Period	Whole Study	Mid-Period
Irrigation	1599	1348	1928	1221
Rain	58	58	140	122
ET _{EC}	1191	843	1389	1001
ET ₀	1487	1042	2099	1367
ET _r	1828	1292	2861	1861
ET _{PT}	1470	1008	1707	1096
ET _{r-cane}	1317	947	1662	1128

5

1 Figure captions



2
3 Figure 1: a) True color image of the main Hawaiian Islands from the MODerate resolution
4 Imaging Spectroradiometer (250 m resolution – image date: May 27, 2003). Study region is
5 outlined in red box. b) The Study Region on Central Maui showing the location of the Eddy
6 Covariance (EC) towers (Windy and Lee) used in this study. Image is false color Landsat 7
7 (30 m resolution – image date: February 5, 2000).

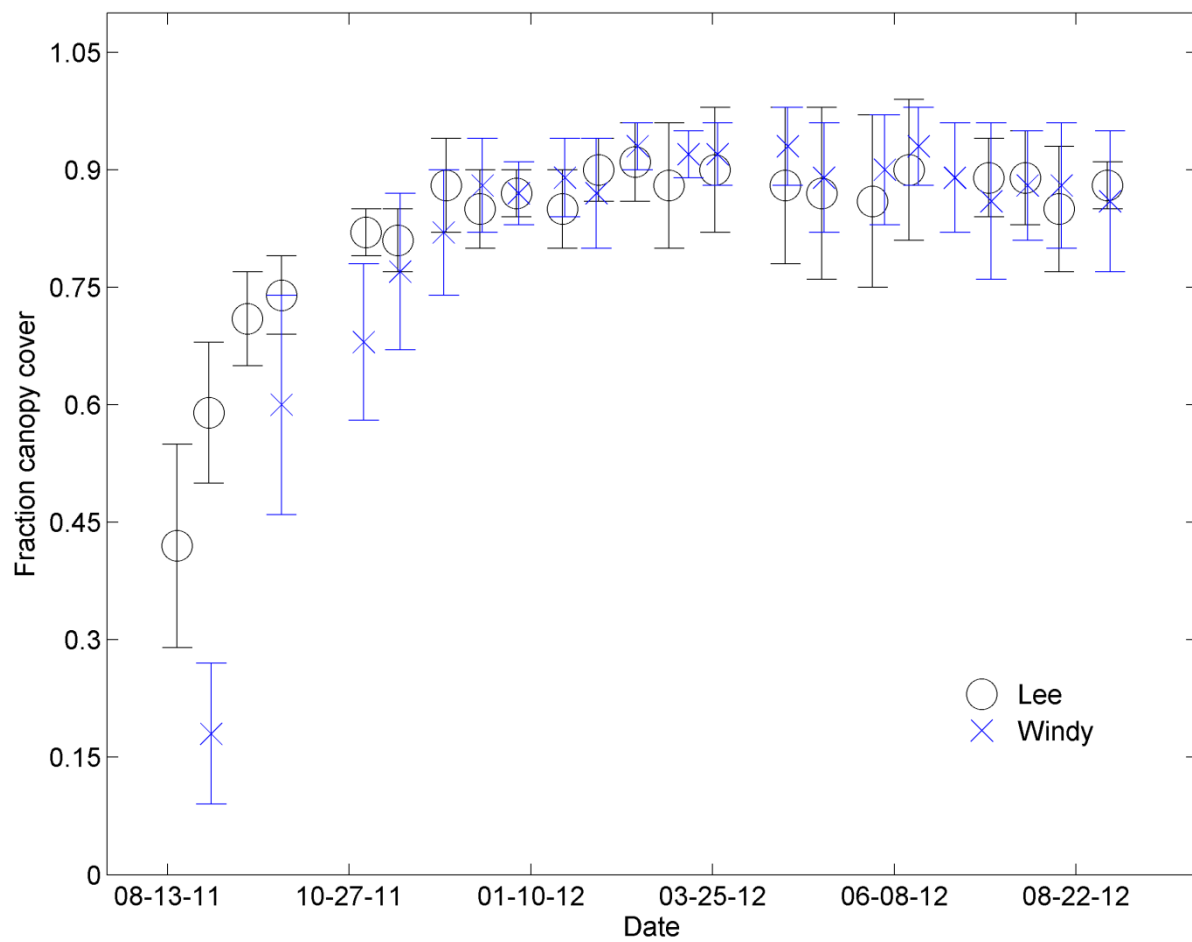


Figure 2: Measured mean and standard deviation of fractional vegetation cover from TetraCam for Windy and Lee fields.

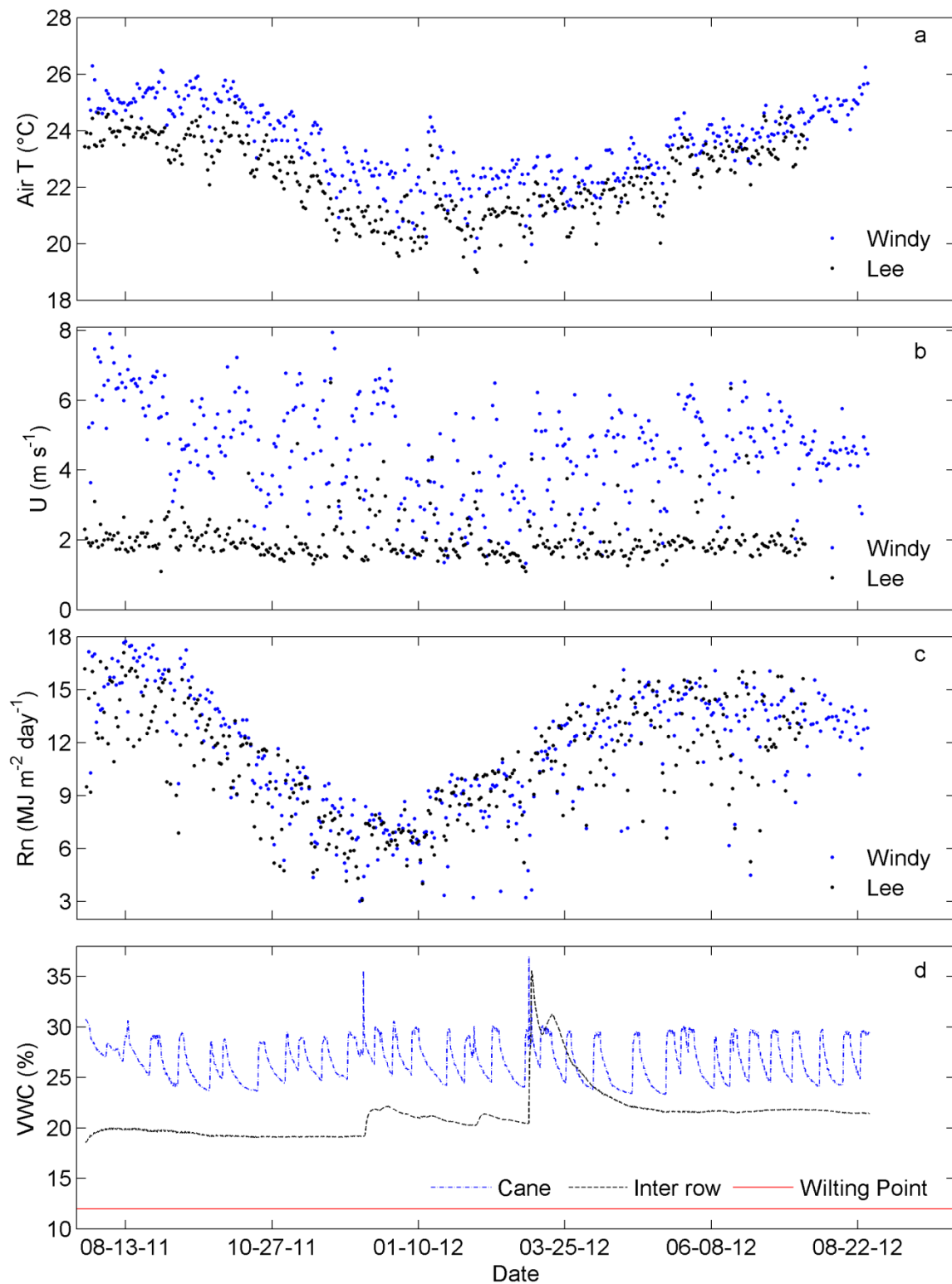


Figure 3: Meteorological and soil observations during the study period: a) Mean daily air temperature; b) mean 24 hour wind velocity; c) Cumulative daily net radiation; and d) soil volumetric water content (VWC) data from Windy field at 20- cm depth underneath cane row (45 cm away from drip line) and inter row or midway between drip lines (137 cm away from drip line). Wilting point noted as solid red line (12% VWC).

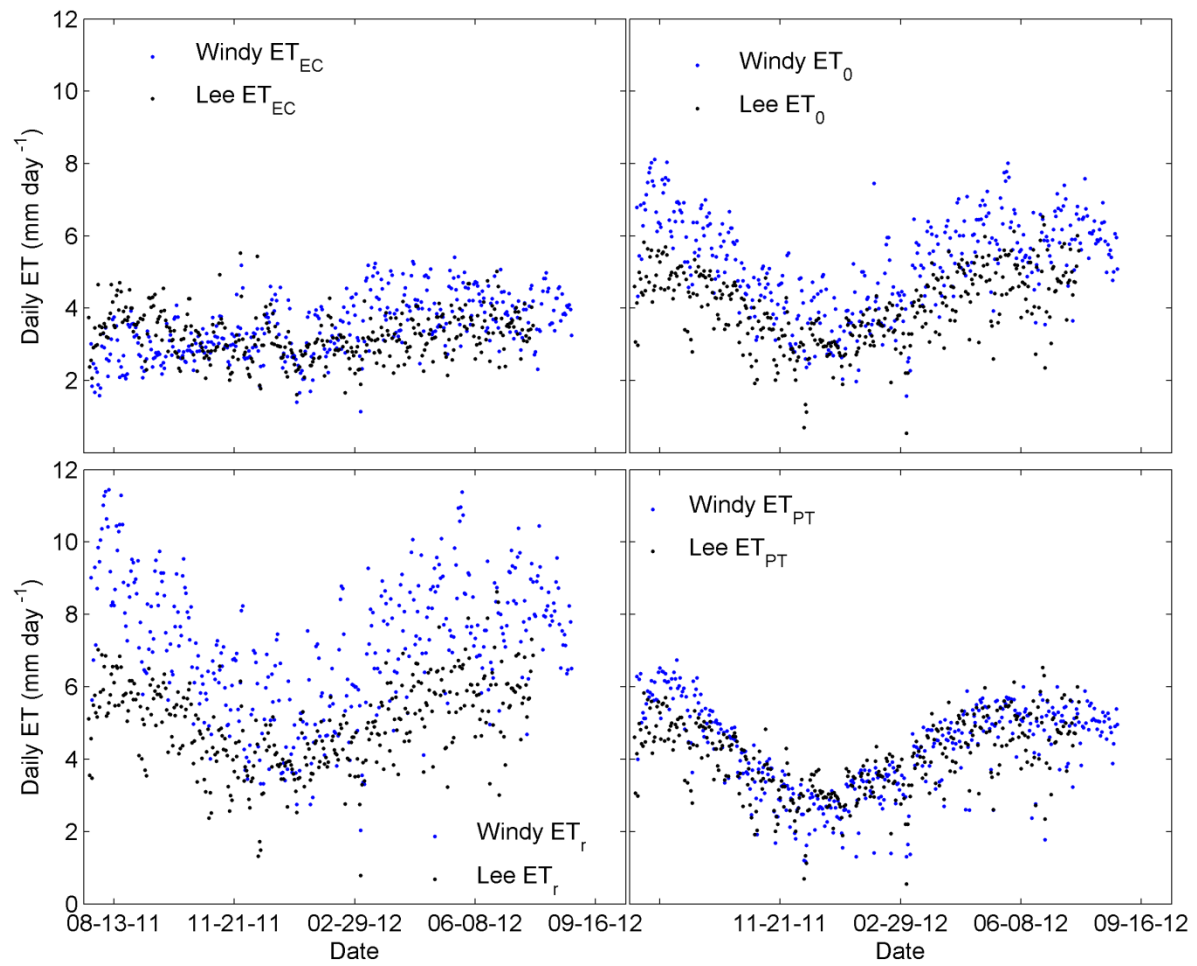


Figure 4: Daily measured and reference ETs for EC tower fields from tower establishment until the end of the study period for each field.

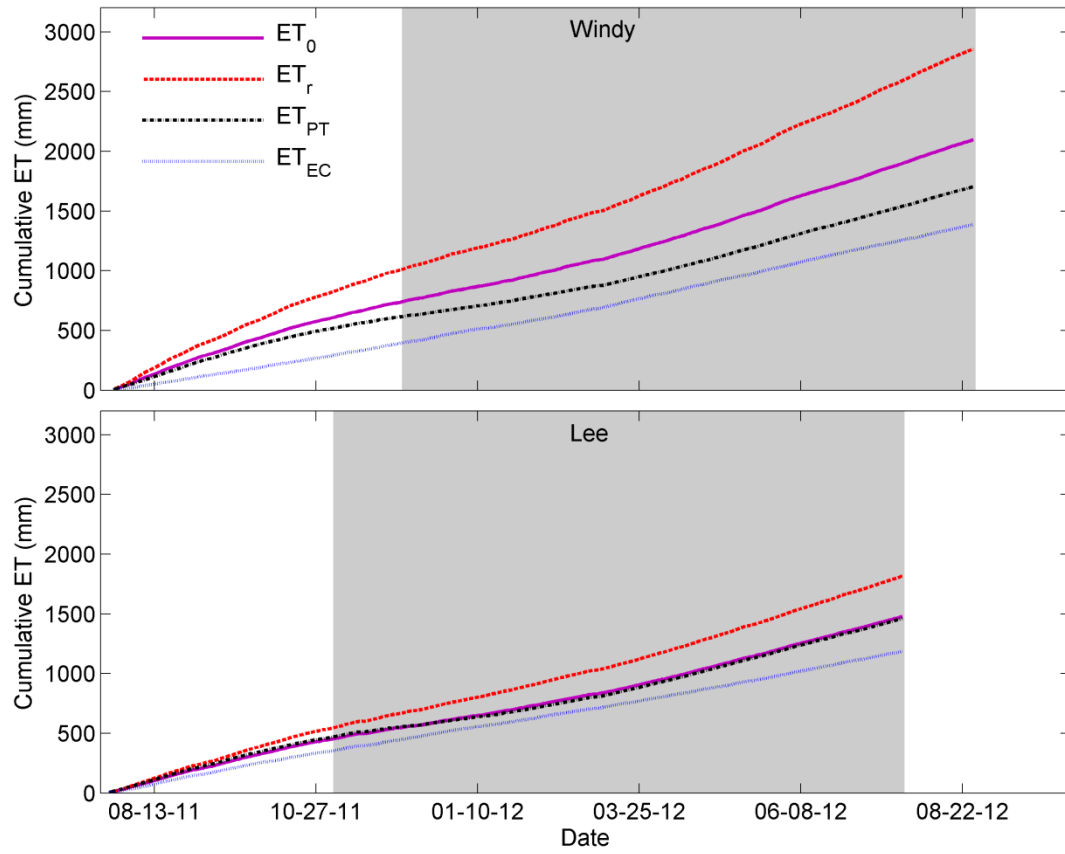


Figure 5: Cumulative measured and reference ET for Windy and Lee. Shaded background indicates mid-period when ground canopy cover exceeded 80%.

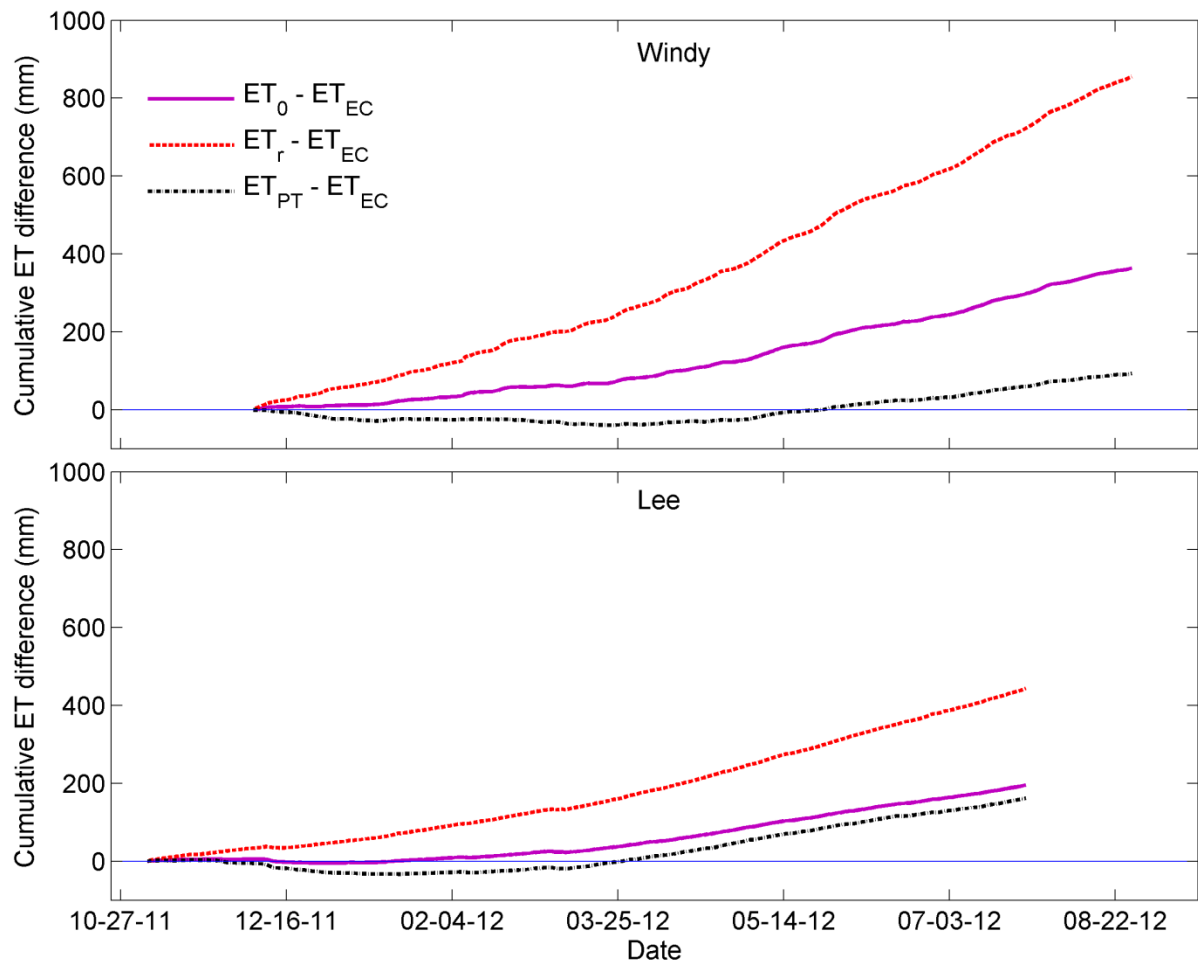


Figure 6: Cumulative difference between reference and measured ET since the beginning of the mid-period in each EC tower field.

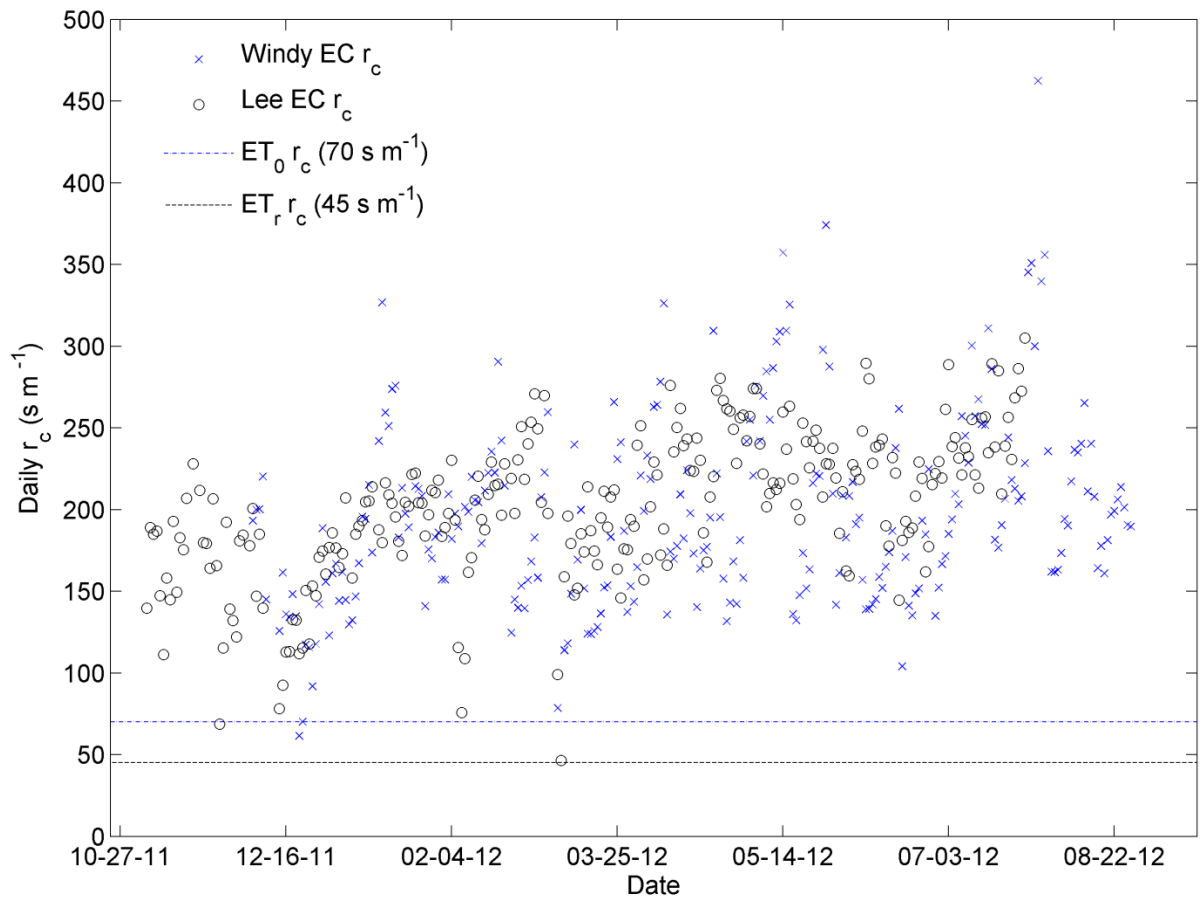


Figure 7: Calculated daily bulk canopy resistance at Windy and Lee from the EC towers for the mid-period. Dotted lines show daily time step resistances from short canopy ($ET_0 - 70 \text{ s m}^{-1}$) and tall canopy ($ET_r - 50 \text{ s m}^{-1}$) reference surfaces.

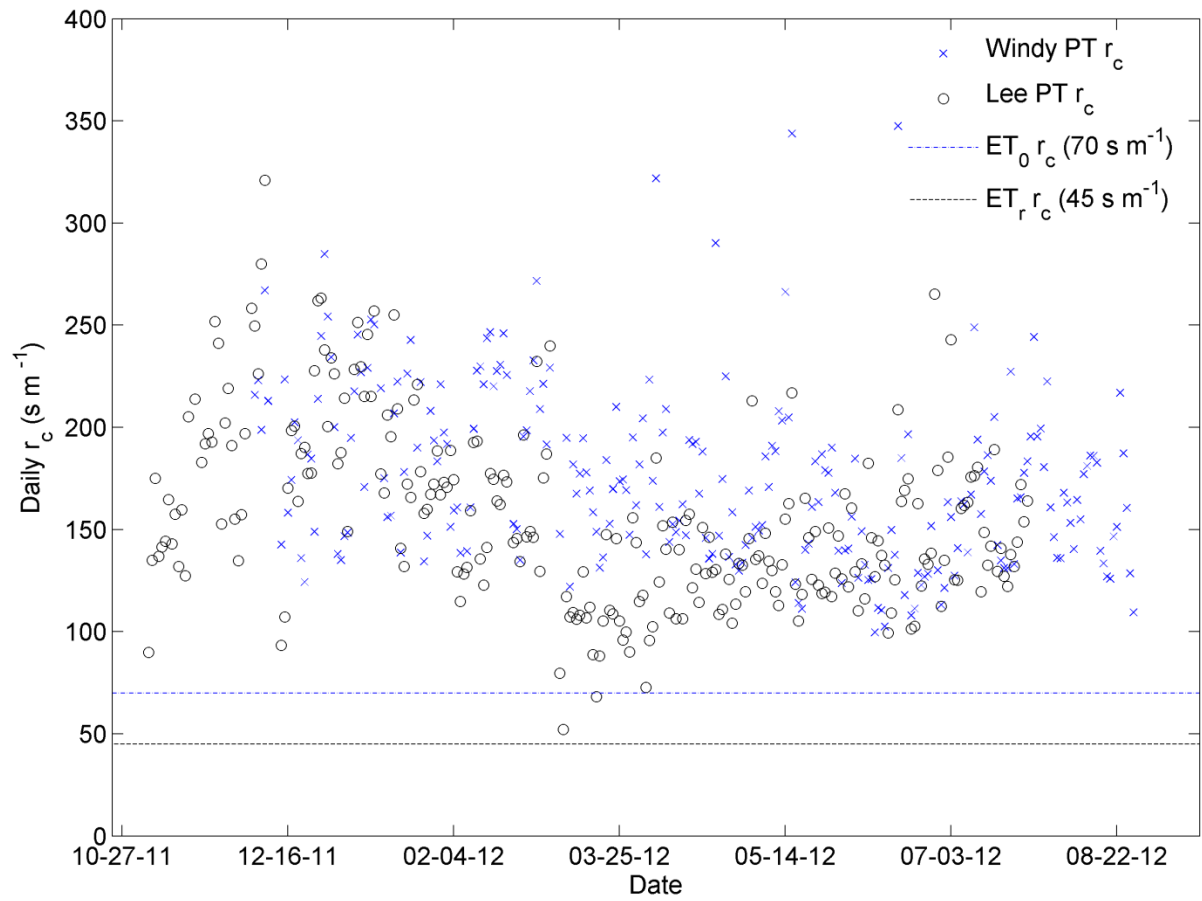


Figure 8: Calculated daily bulk canopy resistances at Windy and Lee from inverting the Priestley-Taylor (PT) ET for the mid-period. Dotted lines again show daily time step resistances from short and tall canopy for comparison.

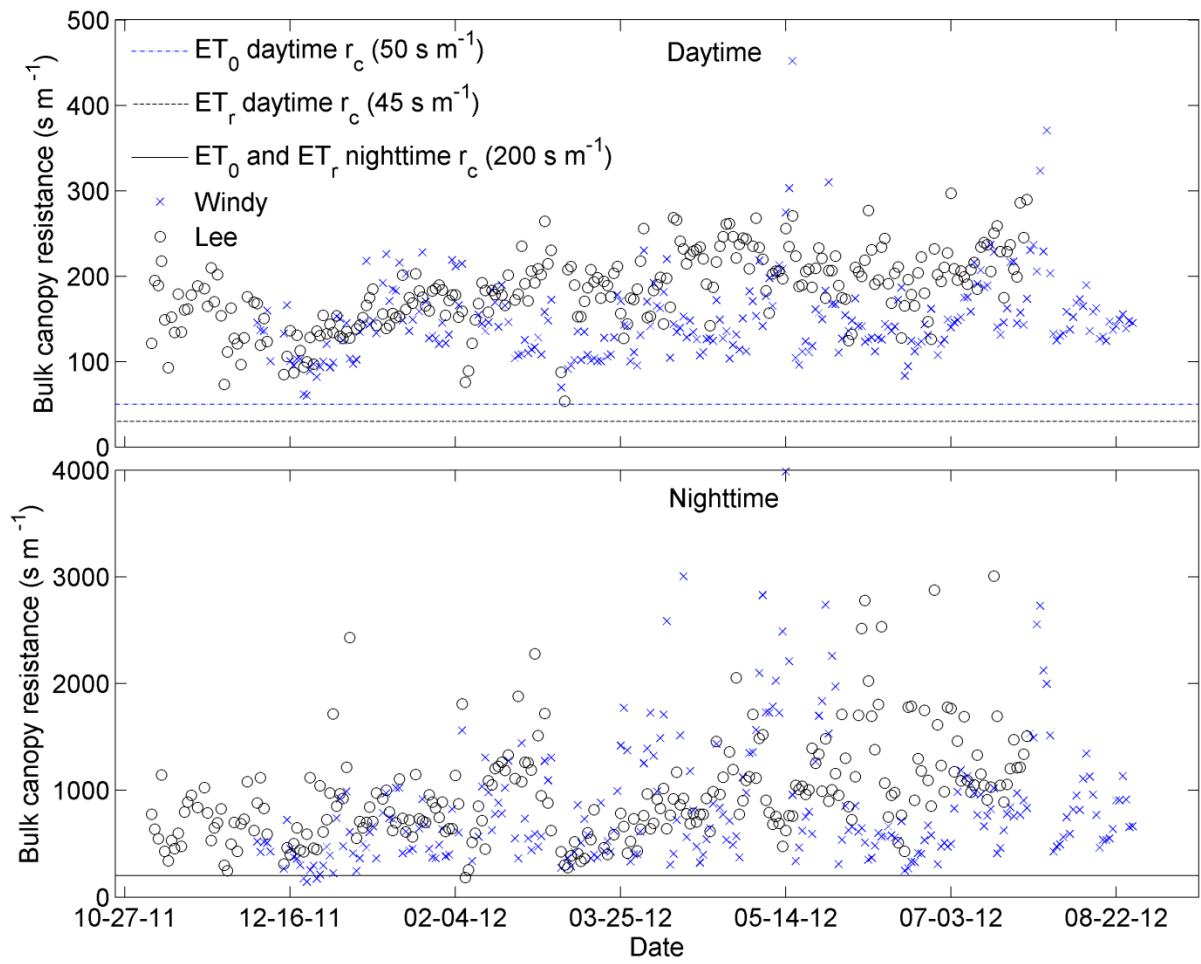


Figure 9: Calculated mean nighttime and daytime bulk canopy resistances (following Fig. 6) compared to assumed resistances.

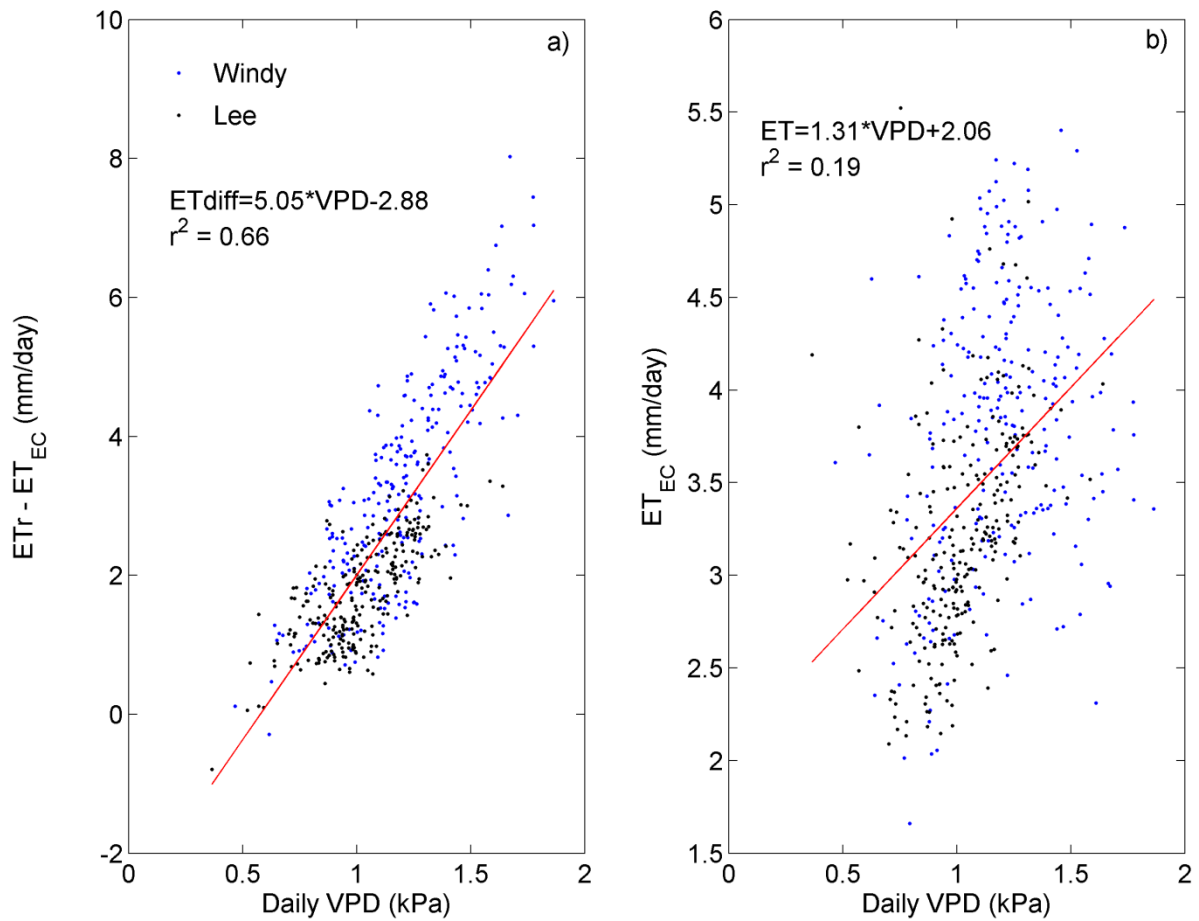
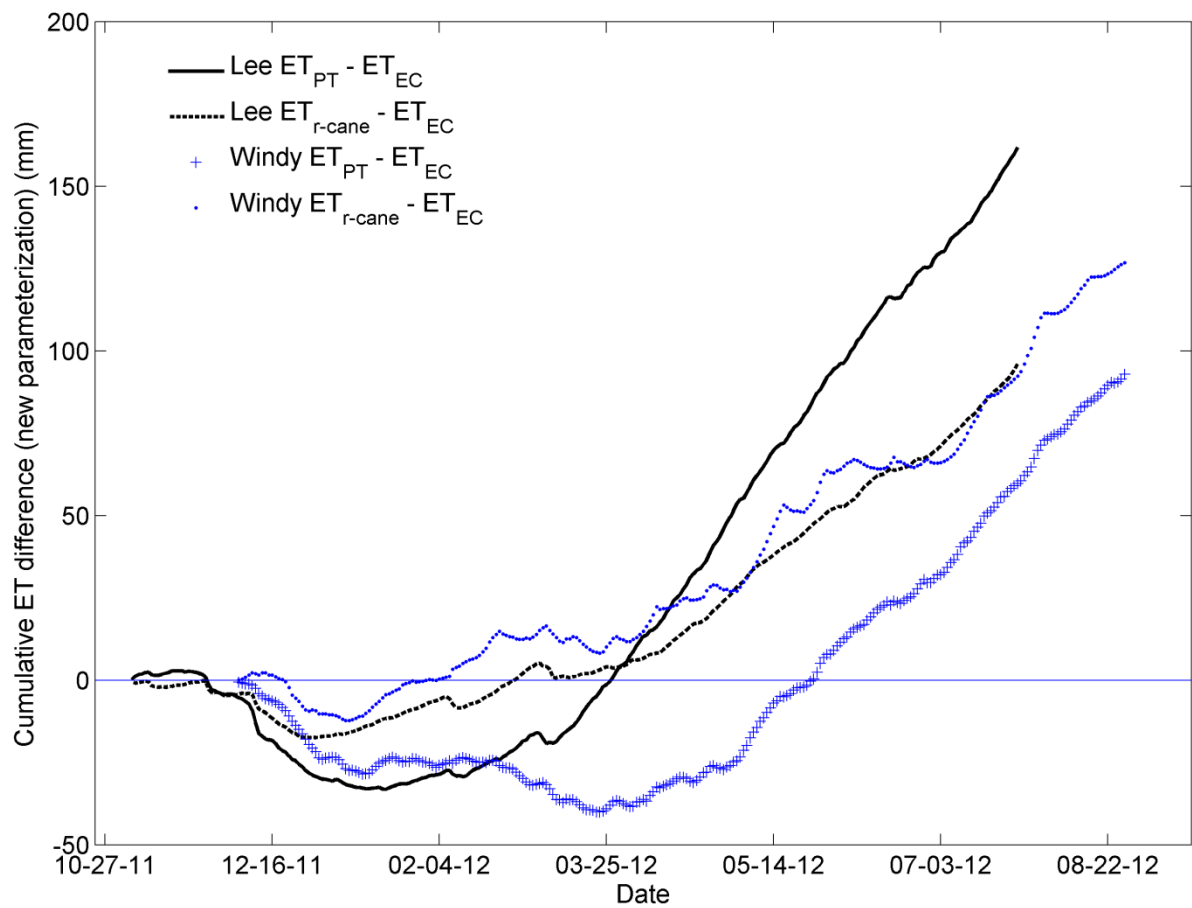


Figure 10: a) Relationship between daily ET discrepancy ($ET_r - ET_{EC}$) and daily Vapor Pressure Deficit (VPD) from the beginning of the mid-period to the end of the study period. Regression equation is fitted to entire pool of data from Lee and Windy. b) Relationship between measured ET and daily VPD. Time period and regression approach are the same as in a).



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 2 Figure 11: Cumulative difference between new reference ET (custom bulk canopy resistance
 3 of 165 s m^{-1}) and measured ET for both EC tower fields during the mid-period.