

SACRA — a method for the estimation of global high-resolution crop calendars from satellite-sensed NDVI

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Abstract

To date, many studies have performed numerical estimations of biomass production and agricultural water demand to understand the present and future supply–demand relationship. A crop calendar (CC), which define the date or month when farmers sow and harvest crops, is an essential input for the numerical estimations. This study aims to present a new global data set, the SAteellite-derived CRop calendar for Agricultural simulations (SACRA), and discuss advantages and disadvantages compared to existing census-based and model-derived products. We estimate global CC at a spatial resolution of 5 min using satellite-sensed NDVI data, which corresponds to vegetation vitality and senescence on the land surface. Using the time series of NDVI averaged from three consecutive years (2004–2006), sowing/harvesting dates are estimated for six crops (temperate-wheat, snow-wheat, maize, rice, soybean and cotton). An advantage of SACRA is its finer spatial resolution compared to census-based and model-derived products. The cultivation period of SACRA is identified from the time series of NDVI, therefore, SACRA considers current effects of human decisions and natural disasters. However, a disadvantage is that the mixture of several crops in a grid is not considered in SACRA. Disagreements in sowing dates of wheat are observed among SACRA and the census-based and model-derived products. The disagreements suggest that identification of spring-wheat and winter-wheat be a major source of error in global CC estimations. Due to data scarcity, we resort to averaged data from three consecutive years. Estimations of annual CC are a major part of our future scope.

1 1 Introduction

2 Recent population growth has increased **biomass** demand significantly, and humans have
3 expanded cropland globally. Agriculture occupies more than 70% of world water usage and
4 has a large impact on the water cycle (Rost et al., 2008). Consequently, simulations of
5 **biomass** production and agricultural water demand are necessary to understand the present
6 and future supply–demand relationship. To date, many studies have estimated **biomass**
7 **accumulation** (Fischer et al., 2000; Tan and Shibasaki, 2003; Stehfest et al., 2007) and
8 agriculture water demand (Döll et al., 2002; Hanasaki et al., 2008; Rockström et al., 2009;
9 Siebert and Döll, 2009; Pokrel et al., 2011). Those studies estimated **biomass** production and
10 agricultural water demand with numerical models using meteorological forcing data and land
11 surface parameters. A crop calendar (CC) is an essential input to estimate **biomass** production
12 and agricultural water demand accurately with those numerical models. CCs define the date or
13 month when farmers **sow** and harvest crops. There are three major approaches to develop CC
14 data sets: census-based; model-based; and **Earth observation-based**.

15 The first approach, the census-based method, estimates CCs by collecting and integrating
16 agricultural census data provided by international and national organizations such as the Food
17 and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the United States Department of Agriculture
18 (USDA). The census-based CC products are represented by MIRCA2000 (Portmann et al.,
19 2010; Monthly Irrigated and Rain-fed Crop Areas around the year 2000) and Sacks et al.
20 (2010). The census-based products have the advantage of high reliability in regions that have
21 sufficient census data. However, they also have the disadvantage of low reliability in regions
22 that have no census data. Additionally, the spatial resolution of census-based products is
23 limited because of the sampling scheme (Portmann et al., 2010). Because only one CC is
24 defined **per** administrative unit for each crop, differences in CCs for the same administrative
25 unit are not considered.

26 **Model-based approaches** generate CCs using crop growth models. These models simulate
27 crop growth **based on** meteorological forcing data such as temperature, solar radiation, and
28 soil moisture. In particular, accumulated temperature is widely used to indicate **phenological**
29 **progress**. Hanasaki et al. (2008) estimated global CCs for several crops using the soil and
30 water integrated model (SWIM; Krysnova et al., 2000). **Waha et al. (2012) simulated the**
31 **sowing dates of major annual crops based on climatic conditions and crop-specific**
32 **temperature requirements**. The crop growth models have the advantage of accurate crop-

1 growth simulation **in cases of** well-calibrated parameters. However, **proper calibration** is
2 difficult in areas where observation data are insufficient. Additionally, the crop growth model,
3 **being based on environmental processes, is of limited accuracy with respect to the**
4 **identification of sowing** dates, because the sowing date is heavily affected by human
5 decisions.

6 Finally, **Earth observation-based** studies estimate the CC using time series from satellite
7 observations. Time series of vegetation **indices** (VIs) correspond well to **vegetation vitality**
8 and **senescence** on the land surface. In this context, satellite-derived VIs have been widely
9 used to classify crop type and **to** monitor crop growth at **the** regional scale (Mingwei et al.,
10 2008; Sakamoto et al., 2005; Sakamoto et al., 2010; Wardlow and Egbert, 2008; Wardlow et
11 al, 2007). An advantage of satellite-derived data is its spatial resolution (less than 1 km).
12 However, few studies have estimated global CCs with satellite-derived data. Yorozu et al.
13 (2005) estimated a global CC using the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI), but
14 they **did not compare their results to** other global CC data sets.

15 **In this paper**, we present a new global data set, the SATellite-derived CRop calendar for
16 Agricultural simulations (SACRA). Using satellite-sensed NDVI data, we estimate the global
17 CC at a spatial resolution of 5 min (**~ 9.2 km at the equator**). This study aims to develop a
18 high-resolution and **highly-accurate** CC product by **combining** satellite-derived NDVI **with** a
19 census-based product. We also aim to **discuss** the advantages and disadvantages of our
20 satellite-derived CC, compared to existing census-based and model-derived products.

21 **2 Materials and Methods**

22 This section describes the methods **applied** to produce the SACRA according to **a defined**
23 data processing scheme (Fig. 1). The SACRA is produced from four different data sets: time
24 series of NDVI; land cover data; reanalysis temperature data; and census-based agricultural
25 data (Table 1). **This study estimates the CC for six crops (temperate-wheat, snow-wheat, rice,**
26 **maize, soybean, and cotton) that are widely cultivated around the world (Table 2a). We treat**
27 **temperate-wheat and snow-wheat separately because our method is unsuitable for estimating**
28 **sowing date in grid areas where the surface is covered by snow during the cultivating period**
29 **(e.g., Russia and North China; see Subsection 2.3 for details).**

30 **The following subsections describe identification of the dominant crop and census-based**
31 **CC (Subsection 2.1), vegetation indices (Subsection 2.2), estimation of global crop calendar**
32 **(first estimation; Subsection 2.3) and the SACRA data sets (Subsection 2.4).**

1 **2.1 Dominant crop and census-based sowing/harvesting data**

2 Firstly, we identify the dominant crop at a spatial resolution of 5 min using MIRCA2000.
3 The grid of the SACRA is set to that of MIRCA2000. Portmann et al. (2010) compiled
4 irrigated and rain-fed areas of 26 crop types at a spatial resolution of 5 min (cf. Table 4 in
5 Portmann et al., 2010). In other words, we can obtain 52 classes of crop areas at each grid
6 (i.e., both irrigated and rain-fed areas of 26 crop types). Their crop calendars in major and
7 second cultivation seasons are also defined in MIRCA2000. Since our method cannot
8 consider the mixture of several crops in a grid (see Subsection 2.2.2 for details), we consider
9 only one dominant crop in each grid. We define the dominant crop in the major cultivation
10 season as that which has the “maximum monthly cropped area” in the grid, out of 26 possible
11 crops (considering both rain-fed and irrigated areas). The dominant crop in the second
12 cultivation season is determined from those crops whose cultivation periods do not overlap
13 more than three months with that of the dominant crop in the major cultivation season.

14 Secondly, we obtain the sowing and harvesting months of the dominant crop in both major
15 and second cultivation seasons, using MIRCA2000. At each grid, we use the sowing and
16 harvesting months of the rain-fed or irrigated dominant crop, depending on which has the
17 larger “maximum monthly cropped area”. The census-based sowing and harvesting months
18 are used to calibrate crop calendar parameters in Subsection 2.3.

19 Finally, we classify temperate-wheat and snow-wheat (originally classified as “wheat” in
20 MIRCA2000) using reanalysis temperature data (Table 2). Again, our method is unsuitable
21 for the estimation of sowing date for grids where the surface is covered by snow during
22 cultivation. If the minimum monthly-averaged temperature during the cultivating period is
23 below 5.0 °C, the wheat is categorized as snow-wheat. In this categorisation, we use
24 MIRCA2000-derived cultivating periods (from sowing month to harvesting month) and
25 reanalysis temperature (Hirabayashi et al., 2008). Hirabayashi et al. (2008) compiled 3-hourly
26 surface temperature data by statistical methods, the parameters of which had been obtained
27 from available surface observations. Here, we simply use the reanalysed temperature of the
28 nearest grid from MIRCA2000’s 5-min grids.

29 The resulting global distribution of dominant crops in SACRA in the major cultivation
30 season is shown in Fig. 2a. The minimum monthly-averaged temperature during the
31 cultivation period of the dominant crop is shown in Fig. 2b. Regions showing the minimum
32 monthly-averaged temperatures below 5.0 °C in Fig. 2b are categorized as snow-wheat

1 (purple) or other crops (grey) in Fig. 2a. Note that the classification of temperate-wheat and
2 snow-wheat is independent of the classification of spring-wheat and winter-wheat.

3 2.2 Vegetation index

4 2.2.1 VEGETATION/SPOT NDVI data

5 Vegetation indices are simple, graphic indicators to assess whether the targeting area
6 contains live, green vegetation or not. In this study, we use NDVI defined by the following:

$$7 \quad NDVI = \frac{NIR - VIS}{NIR + VIS} \quad (1)$$

8 where *VIS* and *NIR* indicate the spectral reflectance in the visible and near-infrared bands. The
9 formula is based on the fact that chlorophyll absorbs *VIS*, whereas the mesophyll leaf
10 structure scatters *NIR* (Pettoirelli et al., 2005). NDVI correlates with the accumulation and
11 decomposition of leaf cell tissue. Therefore, we are able to detect crop growth with the time
12 series of NDVI over the cropland. The time series of satellite-sensed NDVI at a double-
13 cropping pixel in China is shown in Fig. 3a. As shown in Fig. 3a, peak dates can be clearly
14 identified from the time series of NDVI. In this study, we use a 10-day composite NDVI
15 provided by VEGETATION/SPOT (Maisongrande et al., 2004). To reduce the effect of
16 clouds, the best index slope extraction (BISE) method (Viovy et al., 1992) is applied to the
17 time series of NDVI (Fig. 3a). To estimate the CC with the smooth time series of NDVI, we
18 use averaged NDVI over three years (2004–2006). Hereafter, this averaged NDVI is indicated
19 by SPOT-NDVI in this manuscript. The time series of NDVI has inter-annual variability as
20 shown in Fig. 3b.

21 2.2.2 Aggregation of NDVI

22 Two NDVI data sets (NDVI-Pure and NDVI-Crop; 5-min resolution) are aggregated from
23 original SPOT-NDVI (1-km resolution) using two land-cover data sets: Global Land Cover
24 Characterization, version 2.0 (GLCC; Loveland et al., 2000) and Ecoclimap, version 2.0
25 (Faroux et al., 2013). The GLCC and Ecoclimap data are provided by the U.S. Geological
26 Survey and Meteo France, respectively. Schematic imagery of the aggregated NDVI-Pure and
27 NDVI-Crop data is shown in Fig. 4. The NDVI-Pure and NDVI-Crop data are aggregated by
28 averaging 1-km NDVI pixels where both GLCC and Ecoclimap agree on the cropland (i.e., at
29 a higher level confidence; Fig. 4a). However, it is possible for there to be no pixel where both

1 GLCC and Ecoclimap agree on the cropland. In this case, only the NDVI-Crop is aggregated
 2 by averaging the pixels where the GLCC and Ecoclimap disagree, but where one of them
 3 agrees on cropland (i.e., a lower level confidence; Fig. 4b). The NDVI-Pure is undefined in
 4 the latter case. The NDVI-Pure, containing only higher confidence grids, is used to identify
 5 the two CC parameters (Subsection 2.3). The NDVI-Crop is used to produce the global CC in
 6 Subsection 2.4. The two aggregations (spatial and temporal) aim to obtain a smoother time
 7 series of the NDVI by removing the phenology of non-dominant and voluntary crops.

8 **2.2.3 Normalization of NDVI**

9 Absolute peak values of NDVI differ depending on climate conditions and density of
 10 crops. Therefore, we normalize NDVI data to consider variety over a wide range of
 11 environmental conditions at the global scale. First, we identify cropping intensity using the
 12 time series of the NDVI. We define the peak of the NDVI ($NDVI_{pk}$) and the date of the peak
 13 (t_{pk}) if the time series of the NDVI satisfy Equations (2) and (3):

$$14 \quad NDVI(i) \leq NDVI(t_{pk}) \quad (i = t_{pk} - 1, t_{pk} - 2, \dots, t_{pk} - 6) \quad (2)$$

$$15 \quad NDVI(i) \leq NDVI(t_{pk}) \quad (i = t_{pk} + 1, t_{pk} + 2, \dots, t_{pk} + 4) \quad (3)$$

16 where the boundary is cyclic (i.e., $NDVI_0 = NDVI_{36}$, and $NDVI_I = NDVI_{37}$) since we have 36
 17 NDVI data per year from 10-day composite data of the SPOT-NDVI. We assume an
 18 increase/decrease in the NDVI before/after the peak of the NDVI, as shown in Eqs. (2) and
 19 (3). The cropping intensity is determined to be equal to the number of peaks of the NDVI, up
 20 to three times per year. Second, we detect the lowest NDVI between peaks ($NDVI_{btm}$). Finally,
 21 NDVI data is normalized using the following equations:

$$22 \quad nNDVI(t) = \frac{NDVI(t) - NDVI_{bas}}{NDVI_{pk} - NDVI_{bas}} \quad (4)$$

$$23 \quad NDVI_{bas} = \max(NDVI_{btm}, NDVI_{snow}) \quad (5)$$

24 where nNDVI represents normalized NDVI. Subscripts *btm*, *bas*, and *snow* denote bottom,
 25 base and snow, respectively. The $NDVI_{snow}$ is a parameter to avoid remnant irregular NDVI
 26 mainly caused by snow cover reflection. The $NDVI_{snow}$ is set at 0.20, which corresponds to 40
 27 % of the snow cover over the land surface (Dye and Tucker, 2003). Fig. 3c shows a schematic
 28 image of the normalization of NDVI at the double-cropping pixel in China. As shown in Fig.

3c, the normalized NDVI (hereafter, nNDVI) is scaled to a common maximum of nNDVI = 1.0. We do not need to avoid the negative nNDVI in this normalization process. The normalization is applied for both the NDVI-Pure and the NDVI-Crop.

The detected cropping intensity with the NDVI-Crop is compared with a climate-based estimation (Zabel et al., 2014). Zabel et al. (2014) estimated potential cropping intensity suitability for current climate conditions (1981–2010) for 16 crop types (Table 1b). Detected and estimated cropping intensities are shown in Figs. 5a and 5b. Since Zabel et al. (2014) estimated cropping intensities for 16 crops, we illustrate the cropping intensity of the dominant crop in the major cultivation season in SACRA. Six administrative units are emphasized with boxes (A–F) in Figs. 5a and 5b, where our estimations are different from those of Zabel et al. (2014).

Table 3 shows a comparison of estimated cropping intensity in this study and that of Zabel et al. (2014) for the six administrative units (six boxes A–F in Figs. 5a and 5b). The averaged cropping intensities over the administrative units are shown in the table. We illustrate the time series of the NDVI-Crop in the six administrative units in Fig. 6 to investigate the difference in cropping intensity. The time series of the NDVI-Crop, averaged over the administrative units, are shown in Fig. 6 for 2004, 2005, 2006, and averaged from 2004 to 2006 (red, blue, magenta, and green lines in Fig. 6). Since no remarkable inter-annual variability is detected by the four lines in Fig. 6, the difference in cropping intensity may be derived from the difference in estimating methods between this study and that of Zabel et al. (2014).

In China Henan and India Uttar Pradesh, the average cropping intensity in this study is larger than in Zabel et al. (2014). We see clear trimodal and bimodal NDVI-Crop (green lines) in Fig. 6 in the two administrative units. Again, Fig. 5b shows the average cropping intensity for the dominant crop in the major cultivation season, according to Zabel et al. (2014). Generally, farmers do not conduct multiple cropping with only wheat. Zabel et al. (2014) reported multiple-cropping intensities for other crops in two administrative units. The difference in Kansas (in the U.S.) and in Spain can be understood by the same explanation. In Kansas and Spain, unimodal and bimodal NDVI-Crop data (black lines) are shown in Fig. 6, suggesting a mixture of single and double cropping in the administrative units. On the other hand, Zabel et al. (2014) may underestimate cropping intensity in Kenya, where a clear bimodal NDVI-Crop (green line) is detected in Fig. 6.

1 For Brazil Rio Grande do Sul, the average cropping intensity in this study is smaller than
 2 in Zabel et al. (2014). A mixture of bimodal and nearly constant NDVI-Crop (black lines) is
 3 shown in Fig. 6. The nearly constant NDVI is characteristic of a tropical forest. The NDVI-
 4 Crop data may not represent the phenology of the cropland in some grids because of
 5 uncertainty of the land cover data and insufficient spatial resolution (see Subsection 3.3 for
 6 further discussion). Zabel et al. (2014) estimated potential cropping intensity, which may also
 7 provide a reason for the overestimation of cropping intensity compared to our study.

8 2.3 Estimation of global crop calendar

9 This study estimates **sowing** and harvesting dates (t_{sw} and t_{hv}) using two CC parameters
 10 ($nNDVI_{sw}$ and $nNDVI_{hv}$) and a time series of nNDVI data. The **sowing** and harvesting dates
 11 are determined by the following:

$$12 \quad t = \begin{pmatrix} t_{sw} \\ t_{hv} \end{pmatrix} \text{ when } \begin{pmatrix} t \leq t_{pk} & \text{and} & nNDVI(t) \geq nNDVI_{sw} \\ t \geq t_{pk} & \text{and} & nNDVI(t) \leq nNDVI_{hv} \end{pmatrix} \quad (6)$$

13 where subscripts sw , and hv denote **sowing**, and harvest, respectively. Figs. 7a and 7b show
 14 schematics of identification of sowing and harvesting dates for temperate crops (temperate-
 15 wheat, maize, soybean, and cotton) and snow-wheat. Our method is unsuitable for the
 16 estimation of sowing dates of snow-wheat because we assume an increase in NDVI from
 17 sowing date to peak in Eq. (6). However, NDVI decreases if the surface is covered by snow
 18 (Fig. 7b). **Therefore, in this process, we determine both sowing and harvesting dates for**
 19 **temperate crops, and only harvesting date for snow-wheat.** The two CC parameters, used for
 20 **the determination of sowing and harvest dates**, are defined for each crop type **with the**
 21 **exception of the $nNDVI_{sw}$ of snow-wheat.** We calibrated the two CC parameters ($nNDVI_{sw}$ and
 22 $nNDVI_{hv}$) for each crop type as described in the following paragraph.

23 To remove the noise of the time series of NDVI data as much as possible, we use limited
 24 **grids** (hereafter, **calibration grids**) to estimate the two CC parameters. The **calibration grids**
 25 satisfy the following conditions: 1) single cropping defined by cropping intensity; 2)
 26 dominant crop occupying more than 25 % of the total cropland area (**using land-cover fraction**
 27 **data from 26 crop types in MIRCA2000**); 3) up to five grids from the same administrative
 28 unit of MIRCA2000; 4) **$NDVI_{pk}$ is larger than $NDVI_{snow}$** ; and 5) **containing NDVI-Pure (i.e.,**
 29 **using only higher-level confident grids).** Once the parameters $nNDVI_{pl}$ and $nNDVI_{hv}$ are
 30 determined, **sowing** and harvesting dates can be determined using Eq. (6). The values of **the**

1 two CC parameters $nNDVI_{pl}$ and $nNDVI_{hv}$ are calibrated for each crop to minimize the errors
 2 over calibration grids between determined sowing/harvesting dates and MIRCA2000 (see
 3 Appendix A for details). Table 4 shows the number of calibration grids, the calibrated two
 4 CC parameters and averaged errors in sowing/harvesting dates for six crop types.

5 2.4 SACRA data sets

6 The global sowing and harvesting dates are determined by Eq. (6) using time series of the
 7 nNDVI-Crop) and two CC parameters (first estimation in Fig 1; except for sowing date of
 8 snow-wheat). Our method detects the cultivation season using time series of the satellite-
 9 sensed NDVI. However, our algorithm carries the possibility of overestimating or
 10 underestimating cultivation periods. The cultivation period (from sowing date to harvesting
 11 date) in our scheme is largely affected by the shape of the NDVI (i.e., kurtosis of the NDVI
 12 curve). Therefore, we adjust the length of the cultivation period to be equal to MIRCA2000.
 13 For the temperate crops, sowing and harvesting dates are moved (advanced or postponed) to
 14 adjust the cultivation period to MIRCA2000. In this treatment, the ratio of $t_{pk}-t_{sw}$ to $t_{hv}-t_{pk}$ is
 15 preserved as the ratio of $t_{pk}-t_{sw-adj}$ to $t_{hv-adj}-t_{pk}$, (Fig. 8a), where t_{sw} (t_{hv}) and t_{sw-adj} (t_{hv-adj})
 16 denote sowing (harvesting) dates for the first estimation and after the adjustment,
 17 respectively. For snow-wheat, the harvesting date is fixed (i.e., $t_{hv}=t_{hv-adj}$). The sowing date is
 18 determined by the cultivation period of MIRCA2000 and the harvesting date of the first
 19 estimation (Fig. 8b). Here, we use the cultivation period in MIRCA2000 from the 15th of the
 20 sowing month to the 15th of the harvesting month. For multiple-cropping grids, the
 21 corresponding cultivation season in MIRCA2000 (i.e., major or second cultivation seasons)
 22 from each cropping is determined by the following:

$$23 \quad \begin{pmatrix} major & season \\ second & season \end{pmatrix} \text{ when } \begin{pmatrix} Mon_{sw(major),1st} \leq t_{pk} < Mon_{sw(second),1st} \\ Mon_{sw(second),1st} \leq t_{pk} < Mon_{sw(major),1st} \end{pmatrix} \quad (7)$$

24 where $Mon_{sw,1st}$ denotes the 1st of the sowing month in MIRCA2000. Subscripts *major* and
 25 *second* denote major and second cultivation seasons, respectively. Here, we consider the
 26 cyclic boundary of the calendar. We apply the cultivation period of the major cultivation
 27 season in grids where no dominant crop in the second cultivation season is defined. The
 28 adjusted sowing and harvesting dates are referred to as SACRA and discussed in the next
 29 section.

1 3 Results and discussion

2 This section provides validation and discussion regarding the produced SACRA data set.
3 However, true validation is hard to achieve in global studies. Therefore, we compare the
4 estimated CC with other CC data produced using other estimations, either census-based or
5 model-based.

6 3.1 Comparison with census-based and model-based approaches

7 We compare the SACRA with two CC data sets: MIRCA 2000, and Waha et al. (2012;
8 hereafter W12). We selected MIRCA2000 and W12 arbitrarily as representing census-based
9 and model-based CC data, respectively. Waha et al. (2012) simulated the sowing dates of
10 major annual crops from 1900 to 2003 at a spatial resolution of 0.5 degrees. We use the
11 averaged sowing dates (2000–2003) of four crops (wheat, rice, maize and soybean) from W12
12 for comparison. Waha et al. (2012) assigned 1st January as the sowing date, as it is as good as
13 any other day for sowing in a favourable all-year climate. Therefore, averaged sowing dates
14 are computed, excluding grids assigning 1st January for sowing date. Note that the sowing
15 date of cotton is not estimated in W12. The averaged sowing date over years is computed by
16 the following:

$$17 \quad \eta_{year,sw} = F \left(DOY_{year,sw} \right) = \frac{DOY_{year,sw}}{\text{Days of the year}} \cdot 2\pi \quad (8)$$

$$18 \quad DOY_{ave,sw} = F^{-1} \left\{ \arg \left(\text{average} \left(\cos(\eta_{year,sw}) \right) + i \cdot \text{average} \left(\sin(\eta_{year,sw}) \right) \right) \right\} \quad (9)$$

19 where, DOY, η , arg, and i denote day of year, angle of the DOY (rad), argument, and
20 imaginary unit, respectively, and subscript *ave* denotes average. Eqs. (8) and (9) are used to
21 compute the averaged sowing date considering the cyclic boundary of the calendar.

22 The spatial distributions of the sowing dates for the dominant crops in the major cultivation
23 season for SACRA, MIRCA2000 and W12 are shown in Fig. 9. The sowing dates are
24 illustrated in grids where the dominant crop of SACRA in the major cultivation season is
25 temperate-wheat, snow-wheat, maize, rice, soybean or cotton. If multiple sowing exists in the
26 SACRA dates for the major cultivation season, we illustrate the sowing dates derived from
27 the largest $NDVI_{pk}$ among the sowing dates. For MIRCA2000, we illustrate the 15th of the
28 sowing month. Although three different sets of data are produced from the different
29 approaches (Earth observation-based, census-based, and model-based), they have similar

1 spatial patterns (Figs. 9a-1, 9b-1, and 9c-1). Their sowing dates generally represent spring in
2 their grids. Figs. 9a-2, 9b-2, and 9c-2 show the sowing dates in South Asia, selected
3 arbitrarily to highlight the higher spatial variability in SACRA. Since SACRA uses high-
4 resolution satellite data, it reflects a variety of sowing dates in the same administrative unit, as
5 shown in Fig. 9a-2 (e.g., Thailand, Vietnam, and Laos). W12 also resulted in a variety of
6 sowing dates for Vietnam (9c-2) due to the estimation being based on climatic data. The
7 detection of variability in the CC within an administrative unit is an advantage of Earth-
8 observation-based and model-based approaches compared to census-based methods. On the
9 other hand, SACRA carries the disadvantage of detection of a no-crop calendar in grids where
10 the NDVI-Crop is not defined (boxes in Figs. 9a-2, 9b-2, and 9c-2).

11 While SACRA can detect the variability of the CC within administrative units, it is
12 difficult to demonstrate whether the variability is correct around the globe without knowledge
13 of the local CC information. Therefore, the following subsection discusses the differences in
14 the CCs among the three products, with sowing dates averaged over administrative units.

15 **3.2 Comparison of averaged CC over administrative units**

16 To investigate the characteristics of the three approaches, we compare the averaged sowing
17 dates over administrative units. The averaged sowing dates of the dominant crop in the major
18 cultivation season are computed by three products (SACRA, MIRCA2000, and W12) using
19 Eqs. (8) and (9), averaging not over years but over administrative units. Here, only single
20 cropping grids are used to compute the averaged sowing date for SACRA. Again, we assign
21 the 15th of the sowing month for MIRCA2000. The sowing dates of temperate- and snow-
22 wheat in SACRA are compared with the sowing dates of “wheat” in MIRCA2000 and W12.

23 The differences in the sowing dates of the dominant crop are shown in Fig. 10. The
24 administrative units are illustrated if their dominant crop in the major cultivation season is
25 temperate-wheat, snow-wheat, maize, rice, soybean or cotton. The difference for each specific
26 crop type is shown in Fig. A3. The difference between the two data sets is less than two
27 months (< 62 days; yellow- or green-coloured units) in most of the administrative units in
28 Figs. 10a and 10b. Fig. A3 shows that wheat contains the largest number of units with a large
29 difference in sowing dates (> 93 days; red- or blue-coloured units). We observe a later
30 signalling trend in sowing dates in SACRA than in W12 (Fig. 10b; green- or blue-coloured

1 units). The direction of the later signalling trend is dominant in maize, rice and soybean (Figs.
2 A3-b2, A3-c2, and A3-d2).

3 Table 5 compares the sowing dates of the three products in 15 administrative units that fall
4 into the category of disagreement (more than 135 days) between SACRA and MIRCA2000 or
5 SACRA and W12. We present the cultivation seasons (from sowing to harvesting dates) in 15
6 administrative units in Fig. A4 to understand the discrepancies in the CCs of the three
7 products. To interpret the disagreements in Table 5 and Fig. A4, we use Fig. 11, which shows
8 the time series of the NDVI-Crop, average NDVI-Crop, average NDVI-Forest, and average
9 temperature data. Here, average means the average over administrative units. NDVI-Forest is
10 produced by following NDVI-Crop production, but with forest pixels using GLCC and
11 Ecoclimap land cover data.

12 We observe disagreements in eight administrative units where the dominant crops in the
13 major cultivation season are temperate- or snow-wheat, shown in Table 5. Cultivated wheat in
14 the world can be classified into two types: spring-wheat; and winter-wheat. The FAO (2002)
15 notes the following: 1) The sprouting of winter-wheat is delayed until the plant experiences a
16 period of cold winter temperatures (0–5 °C). It is planted in the autumn to germinate and
17 develop into young plants that remain in the vegetative phase during the winter and resume
18 growth in the early spring; 2) spring-wheat is usually planted in the spring and matures in late
19 summer but can be sown in autumn in countries that experience mild winters, such as in
20 South Asia, North Africa, the Middle East and at lower latitudes.

21 In Azerbaijan, Denmark, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, and Ukraine, large differences (> 135
22 days) are observed between SACRA and W12, while the differences between SACRA and
23 MIRCA2000 are < 50 days. In Mongolia, a large difference is observed between SACRA and
24 MIRCA2000. In the above six administrative units, the assumed wheat type (spring- or
25 winter-wheat) may be incorrectly identified in MIRCA2000 and W12. On the other hand,
26 SACRA's sowing dates differ from both MIRCA2000 and W12 for Beijing and Shnagdong in
27 China. In these two administrative units, SACRA has possibly detected incorrect signals of
28 NDVI (e.g., signals of forest or other crops). As shown in Fig. A3, wheat is related to the
29 largest number of units with disagreements in sowing dates. Disagreements in sowing dates
30 are also observed between MIRCA2000 and W12. The identification of spring-wheat and
31 winter-wheat may be a major source of error in global CC estimations.

1 In Brazil Roraima, French Guiana, Greece, and Uruguay, clear unimodal NDVI-Crops are
2 not observed in Fig. 11. The accuracy of SACRA is affected by the accuracy of the land cover
3 data sets. It is known that the 1-km land cover data sets contain uncertainties (Herold et al.,
4 2008; Nakaegawa, 2011). For example, forests may be classified as croplands in the 1-km
5 land cover data sets. Also, NDVI and land cover data sets at 1-km resolution may be
6 insufficient to detect the phenology of the dominant crop in the administrative units. In China
7 Anhui, China Yunnan, and Benin, we observe disagreements between SACRA and MIRCA.
8 In these three administrative units, we observe that some of the grids have bimodal NDVI-
9 Crop (black lines) in Fig. 11. It is possible that NDVI-Crop represents a mixed phenology of
10 non-dominant and voluntary crops. Our approach is unable to consider a mixture of
11 phenology. This may explain the disagreement between SACRA's sowing dates and those of
12 other products. Finer satellite sensors and land cover data sets would help to reduce the
13 uncertainty in NDVI.

14 Taking into account the extreme disagreement between SACRA and MIRCA2000/W12 in
15 some regions (Table 5 and Fig. 10), it becomes important to determine which CC is more
16 reliable. However, it is difficult to decide which data set is more accurate in global studies.
17 For example, the identification of spring-wheat and winter-wheat is difficult, as shown in
18 disagreements among the three products in eight administrative units (Table 5). Also, it is
19 possible that both are correct, e.g., if they referred to different time periods. MIRCA2000
20 possibly used the conditions of nearby administrative units because of a lack of more detailed
21 reference information. Therefore, it is difficult to determine the absolute accuracy of the
22 products through comparison. However, combined application of several products is useful to
23 take the uncertainty of the CC into account. Since SACRA, MIRCA and W12 detect the CC
24 from different approaches, a comparison of their results is useful for cross-validation.

25 3.3 Advantages and disadvantages of SACRA

26 This subsection discusses the advantages and disadvantages of SACRA compared to two
27 other approaches: census-based and model-based methods. Additionally, this subsection also
28 discusses possible improvements of SACRA. Table 6 summarizes the advantages and
29 disadvantages of the census-based methods, model-based methods, and SACRA.

30 An advantage of SACRA is its fine **spatial** resolution compared to the other two data sets.
31 Therefore, different CCs in the same administrative unit are considered in SACRA (Fig. 9a-

2). The model-based method can also result in a variety of CCs. However, it is difficult to demonstrate that the variability is correct around the globe without knowledge of local CC information.

The spatial resolution of SACRA is equal to the maximum resolution of the satellite-sensed NDVI and the crop classification map. At present, NDVI from the moderate-resolution imaging spectroradiometer (MODIS) is available at a spatial resolution of 250 m (e.g., Zhang et al., 2006). However, present studies provide global crop classification maps at a spatial resolution of 5 min (e.g., Monfreda et al., 2008; Portmann et al., 2010). Present land cover data sets, such as GLCC and Ecoclimap, only contain a small number of coarse agricultural classes. At the regional scale, many studies have been performed to classify crops using satellite-sensed data (e.g., Mingwei et al., 2008; Wardlow and Egbert, 2008; Wardlow et al., 2007). In this study, we use the crop classification map from MIRCA2000 at a spatial resolution of 5 min. SACRA can be recalculated with higher resolution remote sensing data (e.g., from future Sentinel-2 data; Drusch et al., 2012) if higher resolution land cover maps become available. The higher resolution CC products can contribute to hydrological/agricultural studies which aim to conduct simulations at spatial resolution of 1 km (e.g., Wood et al., 2011; Kotsuki et al., 2015).

A second advantage of SACRA is its easy detection of cultivation using time series of NDVI. Because agriculture is controlled by human decisions, it is difficult to estimate from the census-based and model-based methods whether or not farmers actually perform cultivation. Additionally, agriculture is affected by disasters, such as droughts, inundations, heat waves, and cool summer damages. The satellite-sensed NDVI can be used to detect whether the managed land is currently being cultivated or is temporarily in disuse. It is also possible to identify cropping intensity with time series of NDVI (Fig. 5).

However, SACRA has the disadvantage that it is inapplicable to future simulations such as impact assessments of climate change because SACRA is produced using past observational data. Future changes in agricultural water demand and biomass production are major issues in assessment studies of climate change (Hanjra and Qureshi, 2010). An advantage of SACRA compared to MIRCA2000 is that SACRA provides not only sowing/harvesting dates but also the peak date from the time series of NDVI. The peak date can be used to calibrate the parameters of crop growth models that simulate the growing stage during cultivation (e.g.,

1 Horie 1987). SACRA can contribute to future assessment studies indirectly by being utilized
2 to calibrate their model parameters.

3 It should be noted that our method is unsuitable for detecting the sowing dates of snow-
4 wheat. Furthermore, our algorithm carries the possibility of overestimating or underestimating
5 cultivation periods in the first estimation. Therefore, we adjusted the length of the cultivation
6 period of SACRA to MIRCA2000. For the temperate crops, sowing and harvesting dates are
7 moved (advanced/postponed) to adjust to the cultivation period. For snow-wheat, sowing date
8 is defined with respect to the cultivation period of MIRCA2000 and the harvesting date of the
9 first estimation. The adjustment indicates that the cultivation period of SACRA completely
10 relies on that of MIRCA2000. However, the cultivation period can be different in the same
11 administrative unit because of temperature. We plan to utilize both census-based and model-
12 based cultivation period for the adjustment. Also, utilization of snow-cover products from
13 satellite (e.g., MODIS snow cover product; Hall et al., 2002) or land surface analysis (e.g.,
14 global land data assimilation system; Rodel et al., 2004) would help to adjust the sowing date
15 of snow-wheat appropriately.

16 Our method has the disadvantage that the mixture of several crops in a grid is not
17 considered. Therefore, we assume that the NDVI-Crop represents the phenology of the
18 dominant crop at each grid. Because of this assumption, our approach contains the following
19 disadvantages: 1) The census-based and model-based approaches can contain CCs for more
20 than one crop for every unit (e.g., MIRCA2000 and W12), while SACRA only contains the
21 CC for the dominant crop in a given unit; 2) Census-based data can deliver a CC for either
22 irrigated or rain-fed crops, while SACRA cannot separate them. In fact, CCs for irrigated and
23 rain-fed cropland may be different. 3) Our approach cannot consider the mixture of phenology
24 from several crops and voluntary crops. The disadvantages of our approach may be reduced
25 with future improvements based on finer satellite sensors and crop type classification studies.

26 The idea behind CC estimation in SACRA is very simple, and therefore easily applicable
27 to the global cropland and additional satellite observations. Due to data scarcity, we resort to
28 averaged data from three consecutive years (2004–2006). The data product generated from
29 this study therefore is of limited use for the direct parameterization of global growth models.
30 However, taking into account the current development in Earth observation (e.g., the
31 development of the European Space Agency's Sentinel series), data scarcity will soon be less
32 of an issue. The proposed method represents a simple and thus easily applied approach that

1 can potentially make use of large amounts of temporally, highly-resolved, global, optical,
2 Earth observation data and may provide interesting input parameters for global land surface
3 models. For example, the estimation of an annual crop calendar is a major part of our scope.

4 Finally, the accuracy of SACRA depends on the accuracy of the NDVI and land cover data
5 sets. The wavelengths required for the calculation of the NDVI are relatively easy to measure
6 from satellite sensors. Therefore, the accuracy of the NDVI largely depends on the temporal
7 resolution of adequate observations (e.g., the revisiting time of the applied systems and
8 weather at satellite observation, such as cloud cover). Usage of several satellite sensors (e.g.,
9 MODIS) would help to reduce the uncertainty of the NDVI. With respect to the accuracy of
10 land cover data, we combine two land cover data sets to reduce the uncertainty of the land
11 cover data. The land cover data sets, however, contain uncertainties (Herold et al., 2008;
12 Nakaegawa, 2011). The land cover data sets could be improved by developing new
13 algorithms, increasing the amount of supervised data, and utilizing multi-spectrum
14 information. Further improvements of the land cover data sets would contribute to
15 improvement of SACRA.

16 **4 Summary**

17 This study aimed at producing a new crop calendar, SACRA, using satellite-sensed NDVI.
18 This paper describes the methods to produce SACRA from the following four data sets: time
19 series of NDVI, land cover data sets, reanalysis temperature, and census monthly agricultural
20 data. The resulting SACRA data set included three products at a spatial resolution of 5 min:
21 (1) the spatial distribution of the dominant crop in major and second cultivation seasons; (2)
22 time series of NDVI of the cropland; (3) sowing, peak, and harvesting dates of the dominant
23 crop. The advantages and disadvantages of SACRA compared to other global crop calendars
24 are summarized as follows.

25 First, an advantage of SACRA is its finer spatial resolution compared to other existing
26 global crop calendars. However, a disadvantage is that the mixture of several crops in a grid
27 is not considered in SACRA. Second, the cultivation period of SACRA is identified from the
28 time series of NDVI, which corresponds to vegetation vitality. Therefore, SACRA considers
29 current effects of human decisions and natural disasters. Satellite-sensed NDVI data enable
30 detection of whether the managed land is currently cultivated or temporarily in disuse.
31 Finally, SACRA is inapplicable to future simulations because it is based on Earth observation
32 data. However, SACRA can potentially be used to calibrate the parameters of crop growth

1 models. An advantage of SACRA compared to census-based crop calendars is that SACRA
 2 provides not only **sowing**/harvesting dates but also a peak date from the time series of NDVI
 3 data.

4 Many improvements to SACRA are possible. **For example, estimation of annual crop**
 5 **calendars is a major part of our scope.** We plan to make SACRA data sets available on our
 6 web page free of charge. We encourage researchers to utilize our data and provide feedback
 7 on errors or possible improvements.

8 **Appendix A: Calibration of crop calendar parameters**

9 This appendix describes the scheme used to calibrate two crop calendar parameters
 10 ($nNDVI_{sw}$ and $nNDVI_{hv}$) in Subsection 2.3. Once two parameters are given, the
 11 sowing/harvesting dates are uniquely determined with Eq. (6). We calibrated the two CC
 12 parameters so as to minimize the error between the determined and MIRCA2000 sowing
 13 (harvesting) dates among calibration grids. Here, the error for the sowing (harvesting) date is
 14 calculated by:

$$15 \quad \begin{aligned} ERR_{sw(hv)} = 0 \quad & \text{if} \quad Mon_{sw(hv),1st} \leq t_{sw,hv} \leq Mon_{sw(hv),End} \\ & \text{else} \quad ERR_{sw(hv)} = \min \left(\left| t_{sw(hv)} - Mon_{sw(hv),1st} \right|, \left| t_{sw(hv)} - Mon_{sw(hv),End} \right| \right) \end{aligned} \quad (A1)$$

16 where, ERR , t , and Mon denote error at the grid (day), sowing (harvesting) dates (day of year)
 17 determined by $nNDVI_{sw}$ ($nNDVI_{hv}$), and sowing (harvesting) month defined in MIRCA2000.
 18 $Mon_{1st(End)}$ denotes 1st (end) dates of the month (day of year). Subscripts sw , and hv denote
 19 sowing and harvesting dates, respectively. By changing $nNDVI_{sw}$ ($nNDVI_{hv}$) from 0.01 to 1.0
 20 with a 0.01 increment, we minimized the averaged ERR_{sw} and ERR_{hv} among calibration grids
 21 for each crop (Fig. A1). Note that $nNDVI_{sw}$ of snow-wheat is not calibrated in this study since
 22 our method is unsuitable for estimation of sowing dates of snow-wheat (Subsection 2.3). The
 23 global distribution of calibration grids for six crops is shown in Fig. A2.

24 **Appendix B: Comparison of sowing dates**

25 This appendix aims to illustrate the differences in sowing dates of the three data sets:
 26 SACRA, MIRCA2000 (Portmann et al., 2010), and Waha et al. (2012), to supplement
 27 discussions in Subsection 3.2. Fig. A3 is similar to Fig. 9, but shows the differences in sowing
 28 dates for five specific crops (wheat, maize, rice, soybean, and cotton). Fig. A4 shows the
 29 cultivation seasons of the three products in 15 administrative units in Table 5. Since Waha et

1 al. (2012) estimated only the sowing dates, we apply the cultivation period of MIRCA2000 at
2 each administrative unit for purposes of illustration. The cultivation period of SACRA was
3 also adjusted by that of MIRCA2000 (see Subsection 2.4 for details). Therefore, the three
4 products have the same cultivation period in each administrative unit in Fig. A4.

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1 Table 1. Characteristics and sources of the four global input data sets.

Data	Source	Detailed description
NDVI (30 seconds)	VEGETATION/SPOT	Maisongrande et al. (2004)
Land cover (30 seconds)	GLCC version 2.0	Loveland et al. (2000)
	Ecoclimap version 2.0	Faroux et al. (2013)
Census-based crop classification (5 min) and crop calendar (5min)	MIRCA2000	Portmann et al. (2010)
Temperature (0.5 degree)	H08	Hirabayashi et al. (2008)

2

3

1 Table 2. List of crops. Checkmarks denote crops used for (a) estimation of crop calendar and
 2 (b) comparison of cropping intensity.

ID	Crop name	(a) Calendar	(b) Intensity	ID	Crop Name	(a) Calendar	(b) Intensity
1	Temperate-wheat	✓	✓	10	Millet		✓
2	Snow-wheat	✓	✓	11	Oil palm		✓
3	Maize	✓	✓	12	Potato		✓
4	Rice	✓	✓	13	Rapeseed		✓
5	Soybean	✓	✓	14	Rye		✓
6	Cotton	✓		15	Sorghum		✓
7	Barley		✓	16	Sugarcane		✓
8	Cassava		✓	17	Sunflower		✓
9	Groundnuts		✓				

3

4

1 Table 3. Comparison of estimated cropping intensity in this study and Zabel et al. (2014) for
 2 six administrative units (six boxes A–F in Figs. 5a and 5b). Averaged cropping intensities
 3 over the administrative units are shown as “Cropping intensity”. “Code” and “Crop”
 4 represents assigned code of the administrative unit in MIRCA2000, and dominant crop in
 5 major cultivation season in this study.

Code	Box in Fig. 5	Name of administrative unit	Crop	Cropping intensity (yr ⁻¹)	
				this study	Zabel et al.
073	A	Brazil Rio Grande do Sul	RIC	1.2	2.9
109	B	China Henan	SWH	2.5	1.1
211	C	India Uttar Pradesh	TWH	2.0	1.0
227	D	Kenya	MAZ	1.8	1.3
314	E	Spain	BRY	1.2	1.0
356	F	U. S. Kansas	SWH	1.2	1.0

6 TWH: Temperate-wheat, SWH: Snow-wheat, MAZ: Maize, RIC: Rice, and BRY: Barley
 7

1 Table 4. Number of calibration grids, calibrated two crop calendar parameters (nNDVI_{sw} and
 2 nNDVI_{hv}), and averaged errors (nNDVI) in sowing/harvesting dates between determined
 3 and MIRCA2000 among calibration grids of the six crop types.

	unit	Temp. wheat	Snow-wheat	Maize	Rice	Soybean	Cotton
Num. of grid	N	91	114	132	106	84	43
nNDVI _{sw}	–	0.23	–	0.16	0.26	0.11	0.05
nNDVI _{hv}	–	0.38	0.79	0.56	0.73	0.36	0.34
Error (sow)	day	20.2	–	9.0	12.5	6.0	14.3
Error (harvest)	day	16.9	16.5	6.2	4.4	8.4	17.7

4

5

1 Table 5. Administrative units with large absolute differences in sowing date (> 135 days)
 2 between SACRA and MIRCA2000 or SACRA and Waha et al. (2012). SCR, MRC, and
 3 W12 in the table represent SACRA, MIRCA2000, and Waha et al. (2012), respectively.
 4 “Code” and “Crop” represent the assigned code of the administrative unit in
 5 MIRCA2000, and the dominant crop in the major cultivation season in this study. The
 6 table compares sowing dates averaged over the administrative units.

Code	Name of administrative unit	Crop	Sowing date (DOY)			Difference (days)	
			SCR	MRC	W12	SCR–MRC	SCR–W12
8	Azerbaijan	TWH	83.3	93	303.8	-9.7	144.5
75	Brazil Roraima	MAZ	152.9	15	112.6	137.9	40.4
98	China Anhui	RIC	123.9	304.4	119.4	-180.5	4.4
99	China Beijing	SWH	75.5	288	289.7	152.5	150.8
120	China Shangdong	SWH	65	284.1	300.8	145.9	129.2
126	China Yunnan	MAZ	172.4	319	107.8	-146.6	64.6
143	Benin	COT	154.3	349	–	170.3	–
144	Denmark	SWH	270.3	288	90.7	-17.7	179.6
158	French Guyana	RIC	157.4	16.8	53.6	140.6	103.7
168	Greece	MAZ	308.7	105	110.6	-161.3	-166.9
225	Kazakhstan	SWH	271.2	258.1	104.6	13.1	166.6
251	Mongolia	SWH	59	288	120.1	136	-61.2
323	Tajikistan	SWH	1.5	319	175.5	47.5	-174
336	Ukraine	SWH	276	258	73.8	18	-162.8
394	Uruguay	RIC	161.3	349	295	177.3	-133.7

TWH: Temperate-wheat, SWH: Snow-wheat, MAZ: Maize, RIC: Rice, COT: Cotton

Blue colours: SCR is similar to MRC (< 90 days), but different from W12 (> 100 days)

Green colours: SCR is similar to W12 (< 90 days), but different from MRC (> 100 days)

Red colours: SCR is different from both MRC and W12 (> 100 days)

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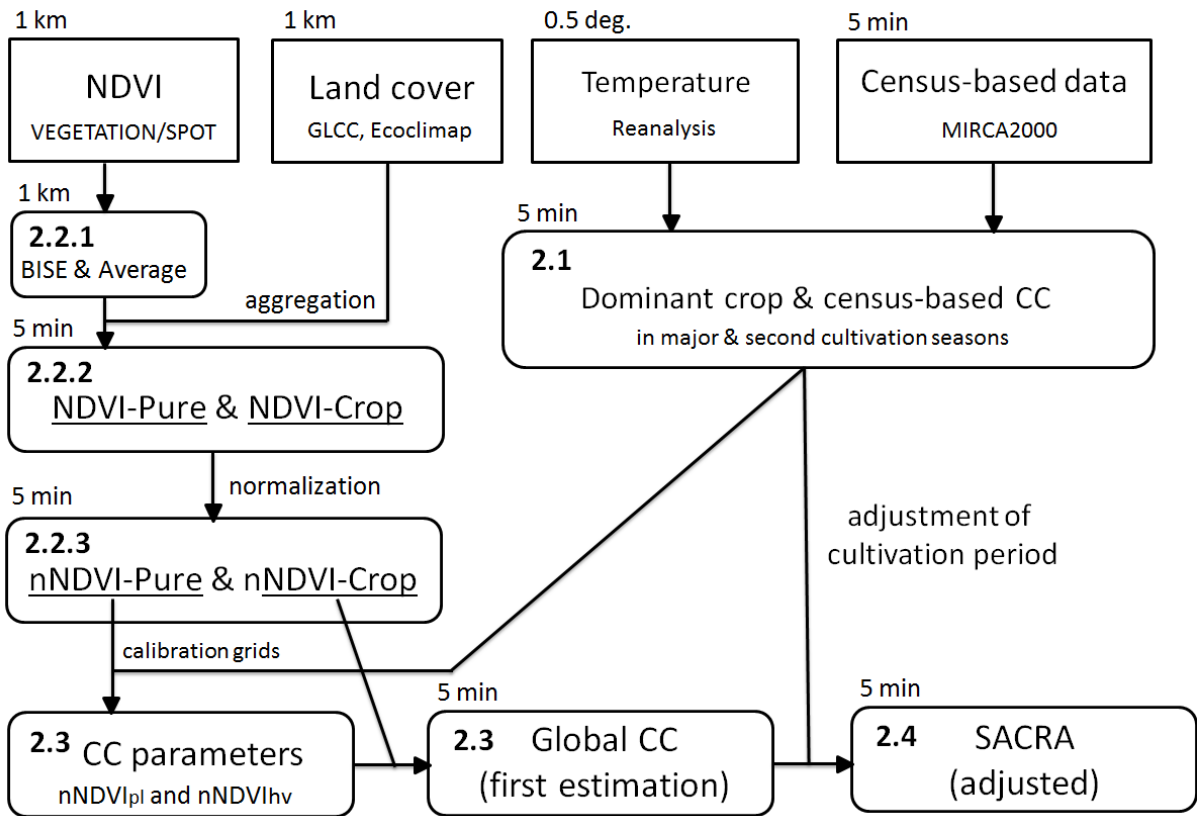
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1 Table 6. Advantages and disadvantages of three **types of** global crop calendars: census-based,
 2 model-based, and **Earth observation-based**.

	Census-based	Model-based	Earth observation-based
Main inputs	Census data	Forcing data	Satellite-sensed NDVI
Resolution	Country/state scale	Equal to forcing data	5 min
Different CC in a same admin. unit	impossible	possible	possible
Detection of cultivation	hard	hard	easy
Mixture of several crops in a grid	possible	possible	impossible
Application to future simulations	impossible	possible	impossible

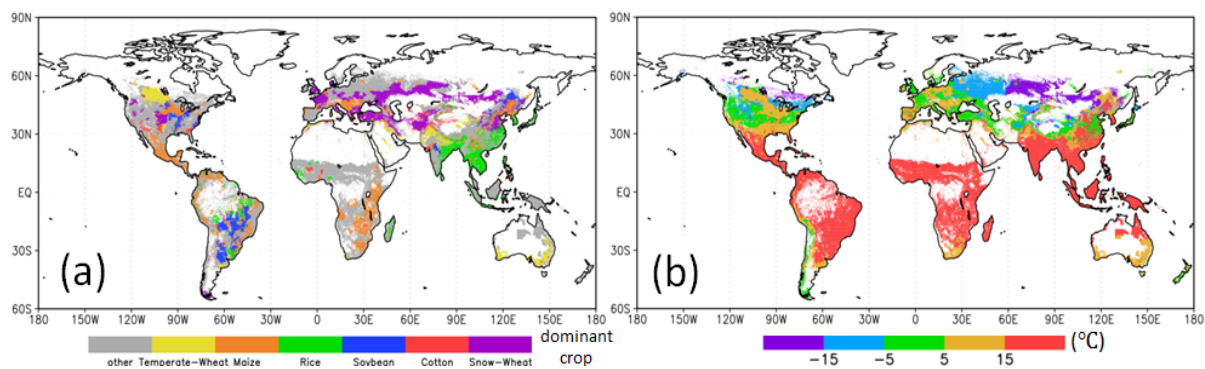
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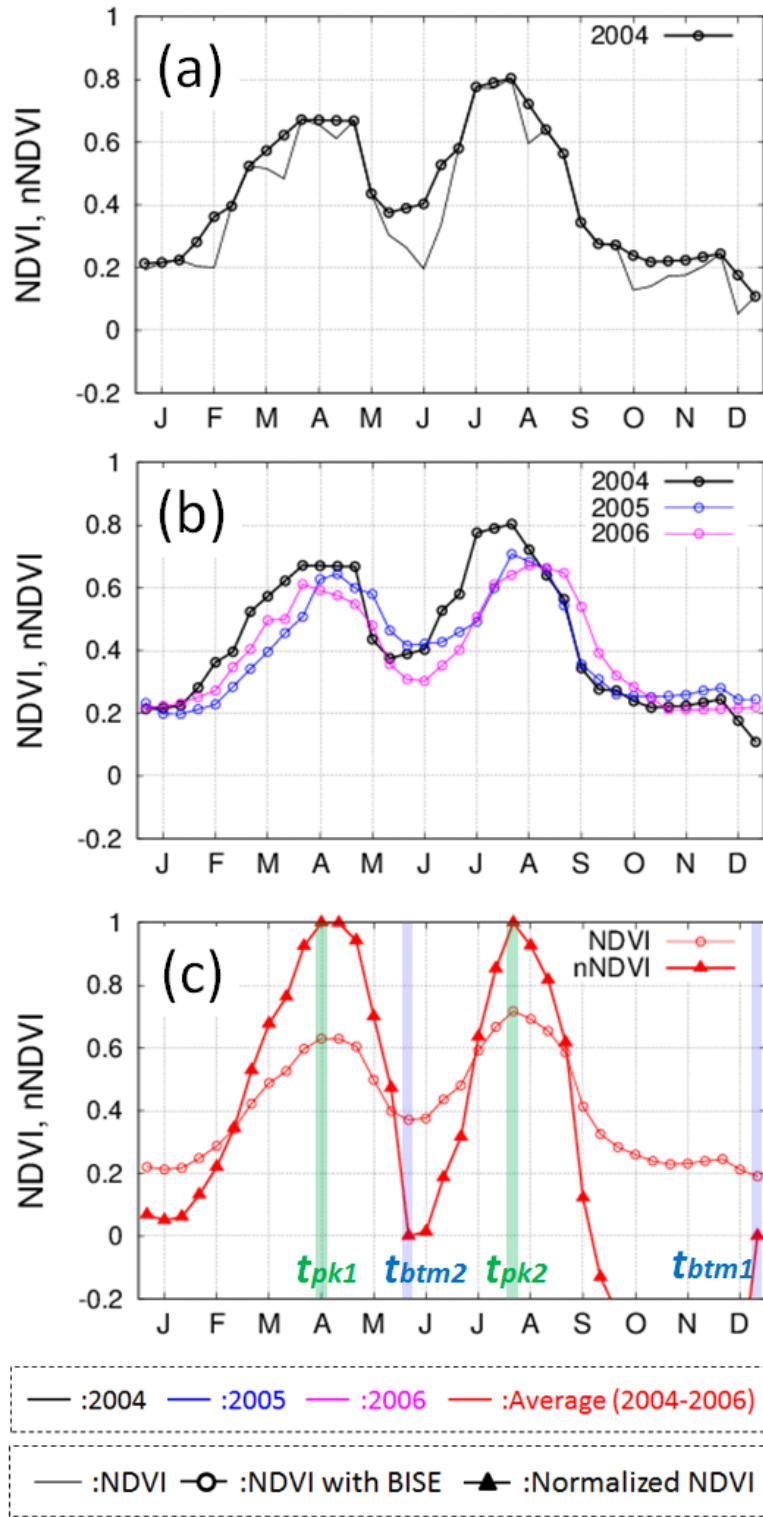


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Fig. 1. Data processing scheme for the production of the global satellite-derived crop calendar (SACRA). The bold numbers inside the boxes indicate the subsections in this paper where the different processing steps are described. The numbers outside the boxes indicate the spatial resolution of the respective data sets. The top four boxes indicate input data (Table 1), and the other boxes indicate the results from our data processes.

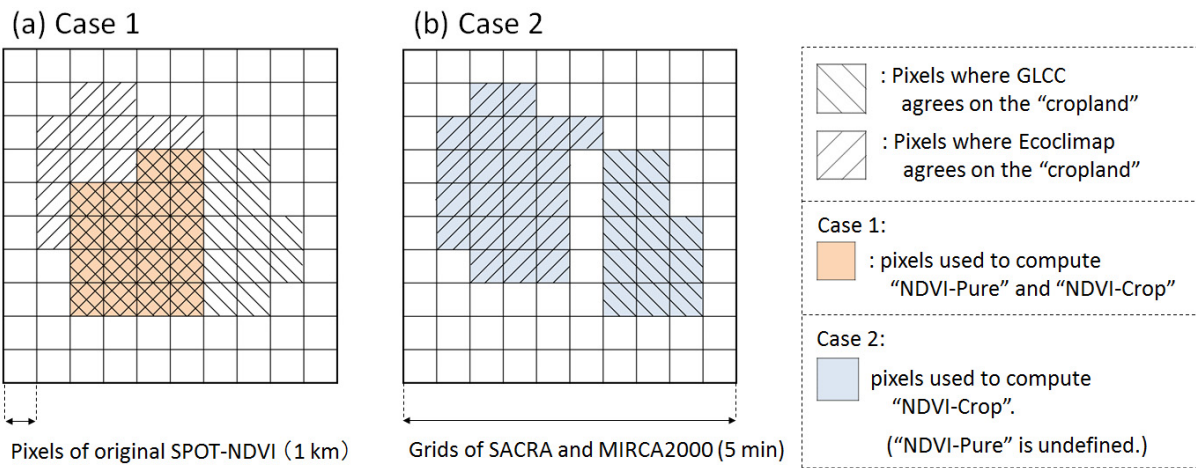


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 2 Fig. 2. Global distribution of (a) **dominant** crops in SACRA, and (b) minimum monthly-
 3 averaged temperature (°C) during the cultivation period of the **dominant** crops. **Both**
 4 **panels represent the dominant crop in the major cultivation season.**
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Fig. 3. Time series of NDVI at a double-cropping pixel in China (E116.76°, N32.60°). Panel (a) represents the original NDVI and NDVI with the BISE correction. Panel (b) represents the NDVI with the BISE correction from 2004 to 2006. Panel (c) represents NDVI average over 2004–2006, and normalized NDVI (nNDVI).



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Fig. 4. Schematic image of the aggregation of NDVI-Pure and NDVI-Crop from 1-km-resolution original NDVI. Small-sized squares with thin lines represent pixels of original SPOT-NDVI (1-km-resolution). Large-sized squares with bold lines represent grids of SACRA and MIRCA2000 (5-min-resolution). Pixels with diagonal lines (from upper-left to bottom-right and bottom-left to upper-right) show where GLCC and Ecoclimap agree on the cropland.

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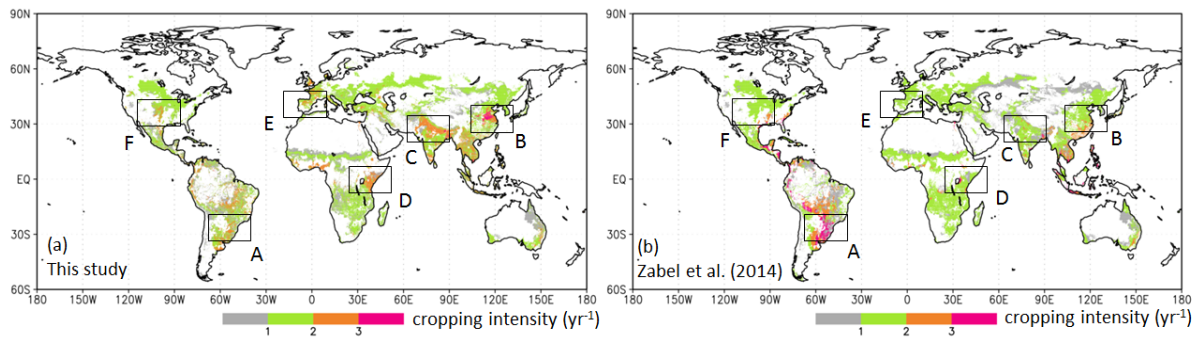
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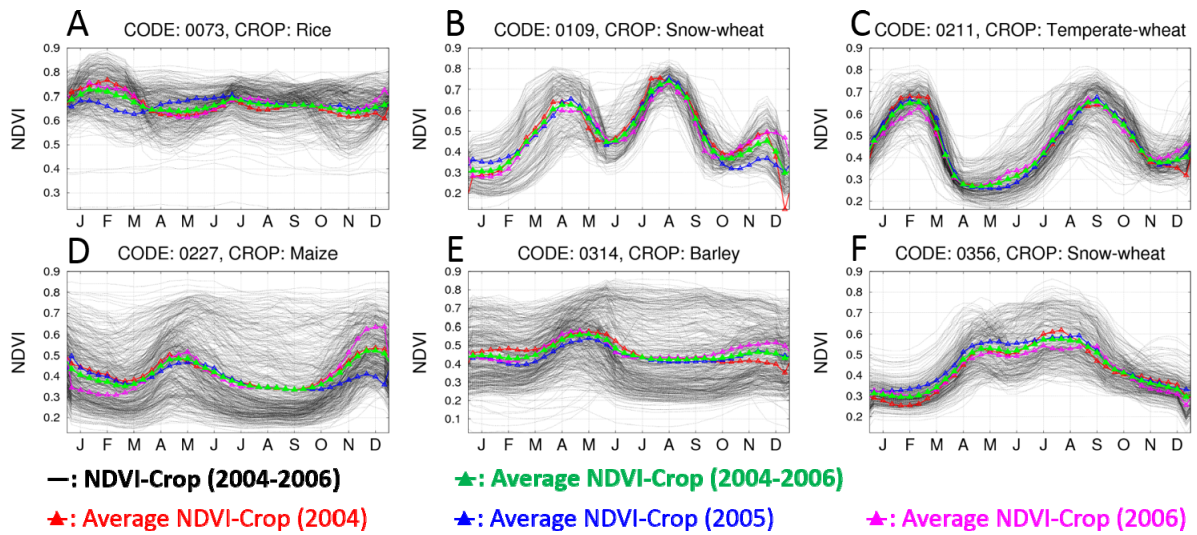
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2 Fig. 5. Global distribution of (a) detected cropping intensity in the current study, and (b)
 3 climate-based estimation of cropping intensity suitability (Zabel et al., 2014). The
 4 cropping intensity of the dominant crop is illustrated in Fig. 5(b).
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2 **Fig. 6.** Time series of NDVI for six administrative units in Table 3. Black lines show time

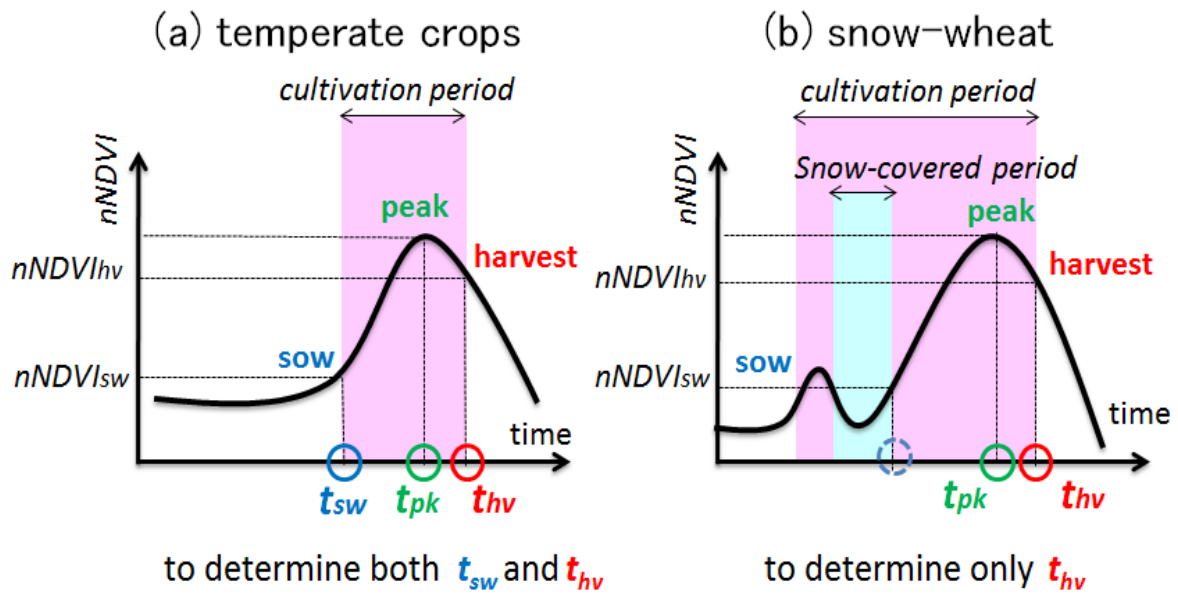
3 series of NDVI-Crop averaged over 2004–2006 in the administrative units (i.e., NDVI of

4 all grids in the administrative units). Green lines show the average of black lines (i.e.,

5 averaged over the administrative units). Red, blue, and magenta represent NDVI-Crop in

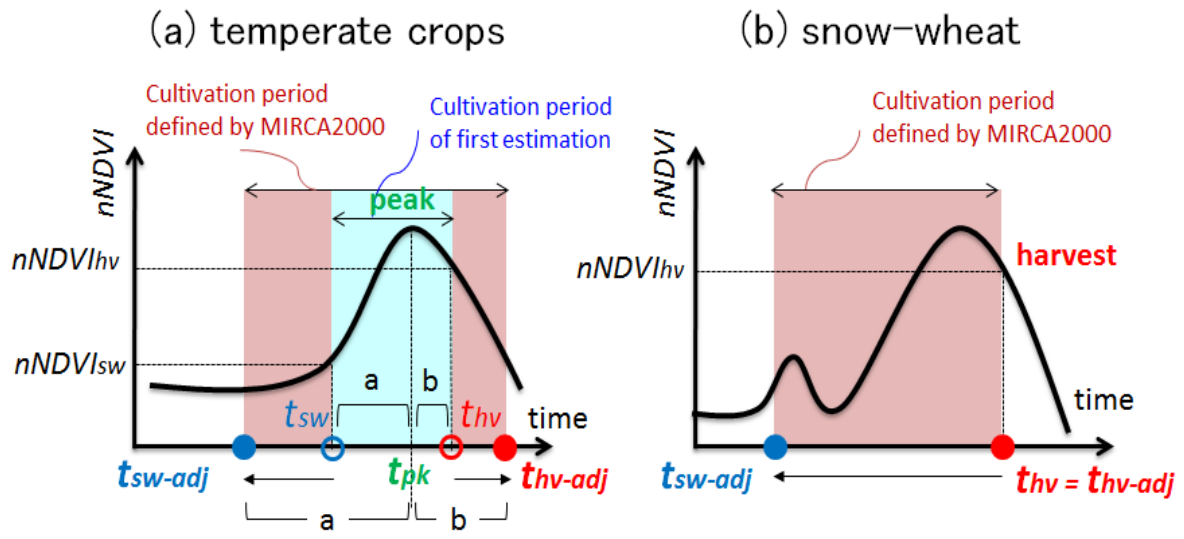
6 2004, 2005, and 2006, respectively, averaged over the administrative units.

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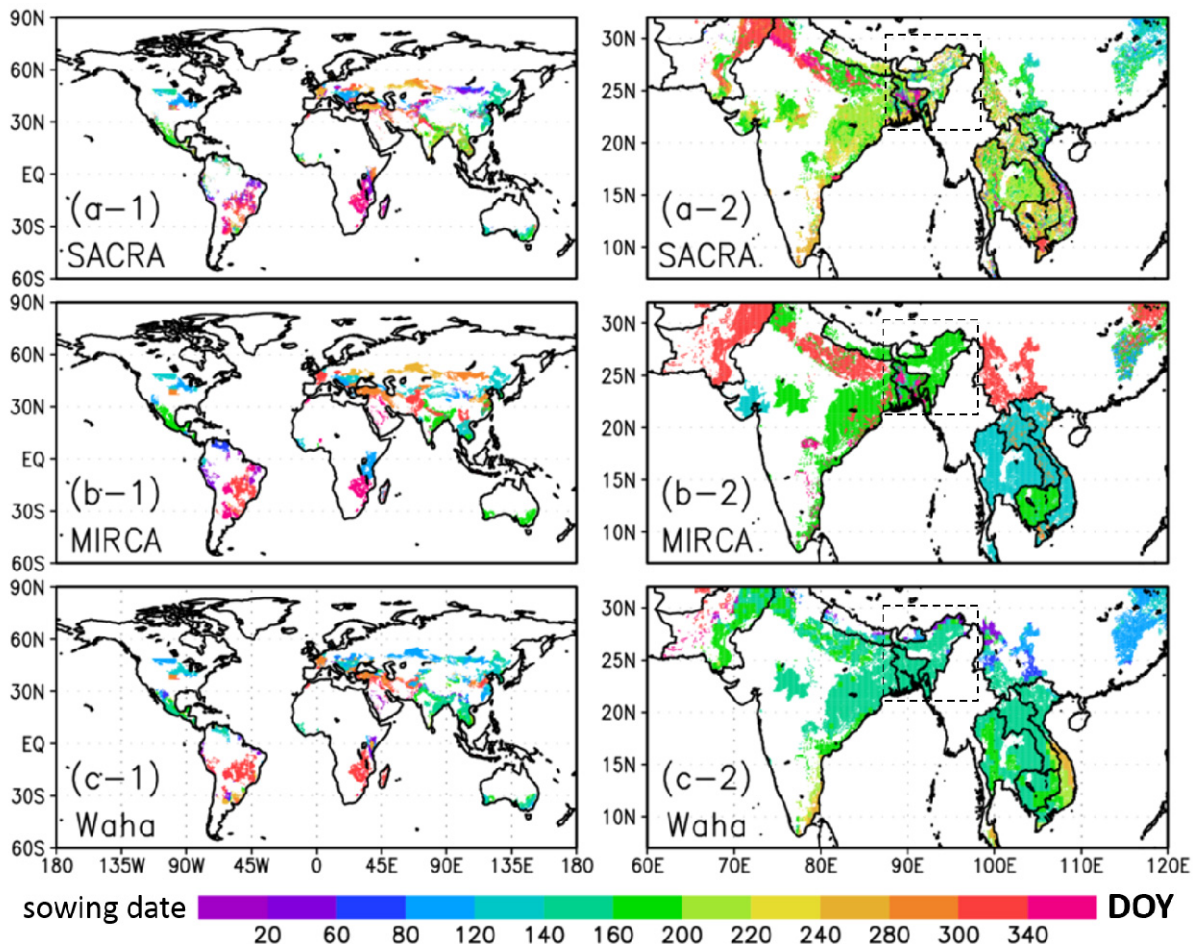
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Fig. 7. Scheme of identification of sowing and harvesting dates in this study. Sowing and harvesting dates (t_{sw} and t_{hv}) are identified together with a vegetation index time series (black lines) and two crop calendar (CC) parameters: $nNDVI_{sw}$ and $nNDVI_{hv}$. Figures (a) and (b) indicate temperate crops (temperate-wheat, maize, rice, soybean, and cotton) and snow-wheat, respectively. The two CC parameters are defined for the six crop types (Table 2a).



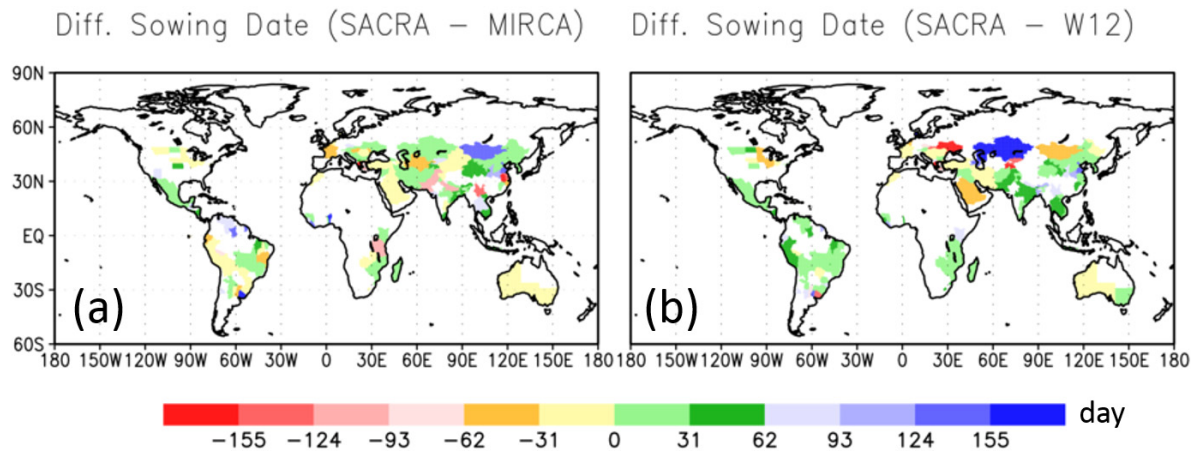
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Fig. 8. Scheme used to adjust the cultivation period of SACRA to that of MIRCA2000. t_{sw} (t_{hv}) and t_{sw-adj} (t_{hv-adj}) denote sowing (harvesting dates) for the first estimation and subsequent to the adjustment, respectively. For temperate crops, sowing and harvesting dates are moved (advanced or postponed) to adjust the cultivation period to MIRCA2000. In this treatment, the ratio of $t_{pk}-t_{sw}$ to $t_{hv}-t_{pk}$ is preserved as the ratio of $t_{pk}-t_{sw-adj}$ to $t_{hv-adj}-t_{pk}$. For snow-wheat, the harvesting date has not changed (i.e., $t_{hv}=t_{hv-adj}$). Sowing date is determined by the cultivation period of MIRCA2000 and the harvesting date of the first estimation.



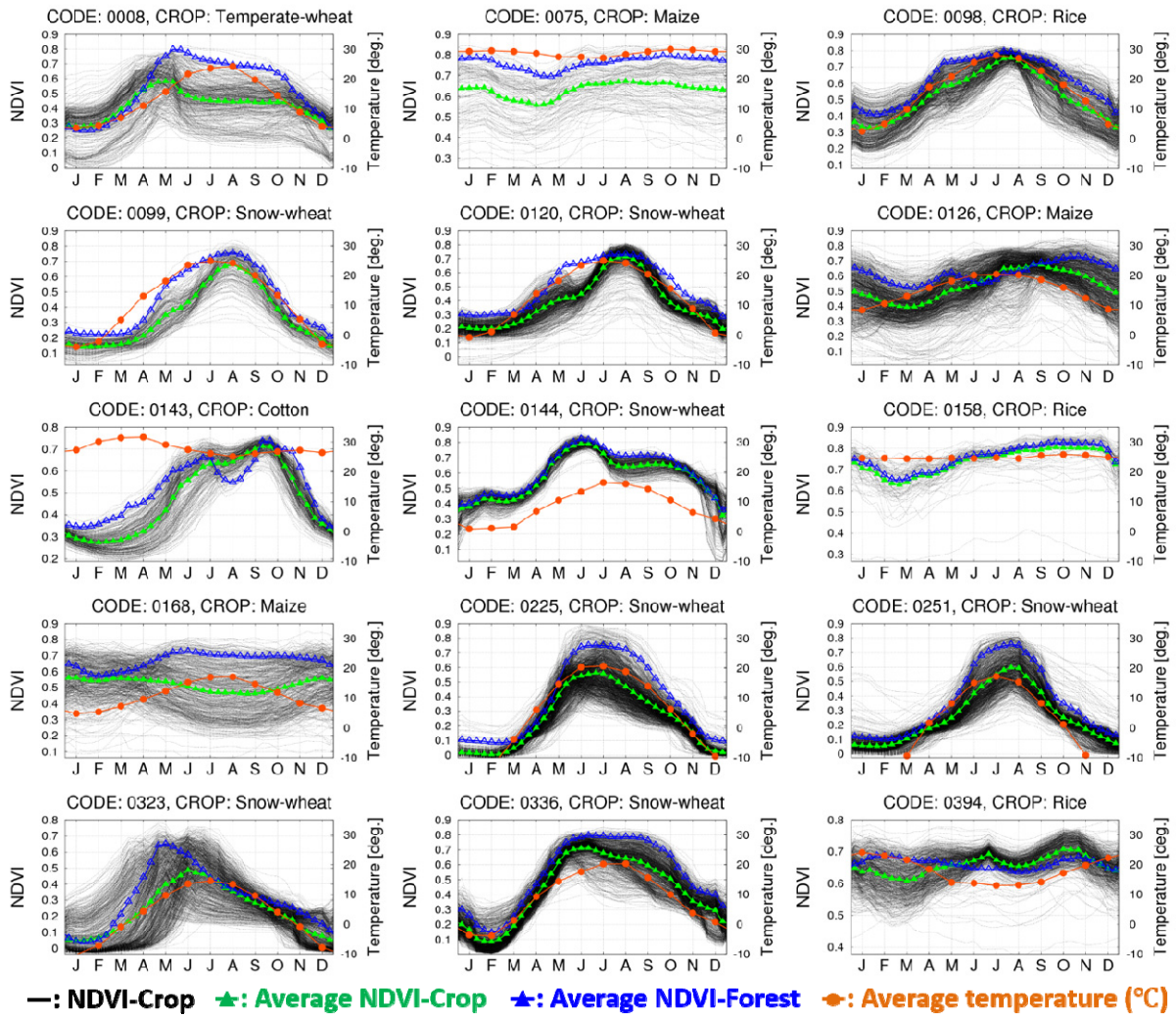
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Fig. 9. Sowing dates (unit: day of year) of dominant crops in the major cultivation season for (a) SACRA, (b) MIRCA2000, and (c) Waha et al. (2012). Left panels (a-1, b-1, and c-1) and right panels (a-2, b-2, and c-2) show global and South Asian maps, respectively. Sowing dates are illustrated in grids where the dominant crop is temperate-wheat, snow-wheat, maize, rice, soybean or cotton.



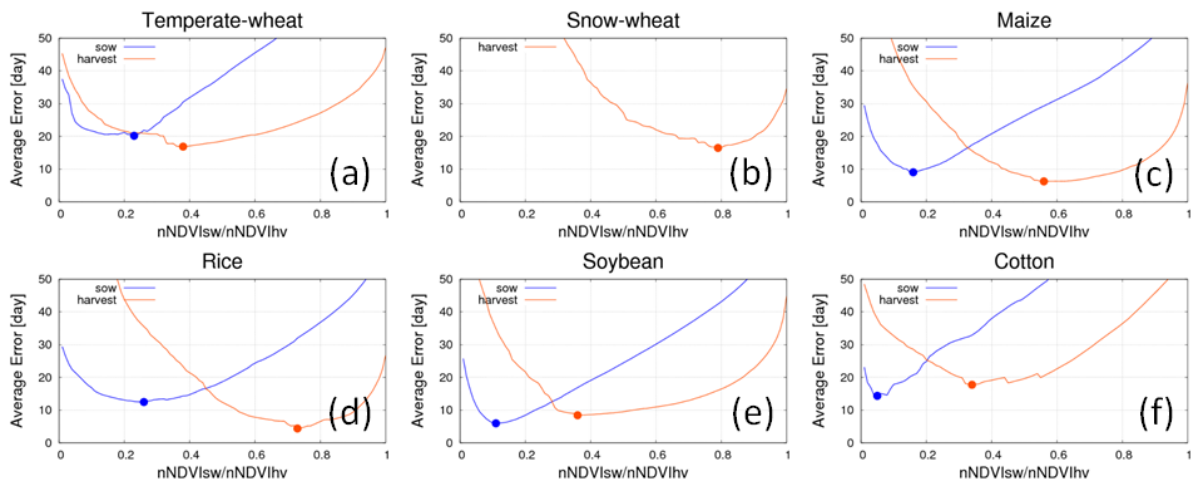
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Fig. 10. Differences in sowing dates of the dominant crop in the major cultivation season (a: SACRA–MIRCA2000; b: SACRA–Waha et al., 2012). The administrative units are illustrated if their dominant crop in the major cultivation season is temperate-wheat, snow-wheat, maize, rice, soybean or cotton. The differences for each specific crop type are shown in Fig. A3.



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Fig. 11. Time series of the NDVI-Crop (black lines), average NDVI-Crop (green lines), average NDVI-Forest (blue lines), and average temperature (orange lines; °C) in the 15 administrative units in Table 5. The average denotes average over the administrative units.



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Fig. A1. Average error of sowing/harvesting dates (blue/orange lines; unit days) among calibration grids for six crops (a: temperate-wheat, b: snow-wheat, c: maize, d: rice, e: soybean, and f: cotton). Dots in the figures represent minimized errors and $nNDVI_{sw}/nNDVI_{hv}$ (i.e., the calibrated two parameters in Table 4).

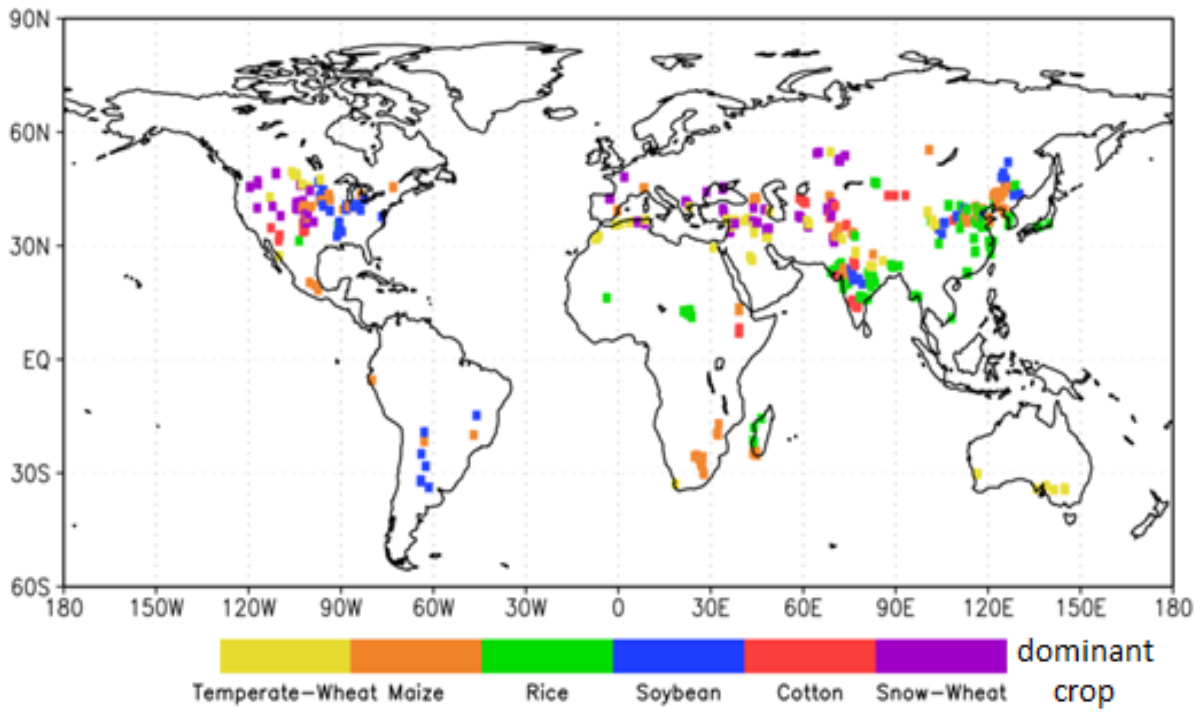
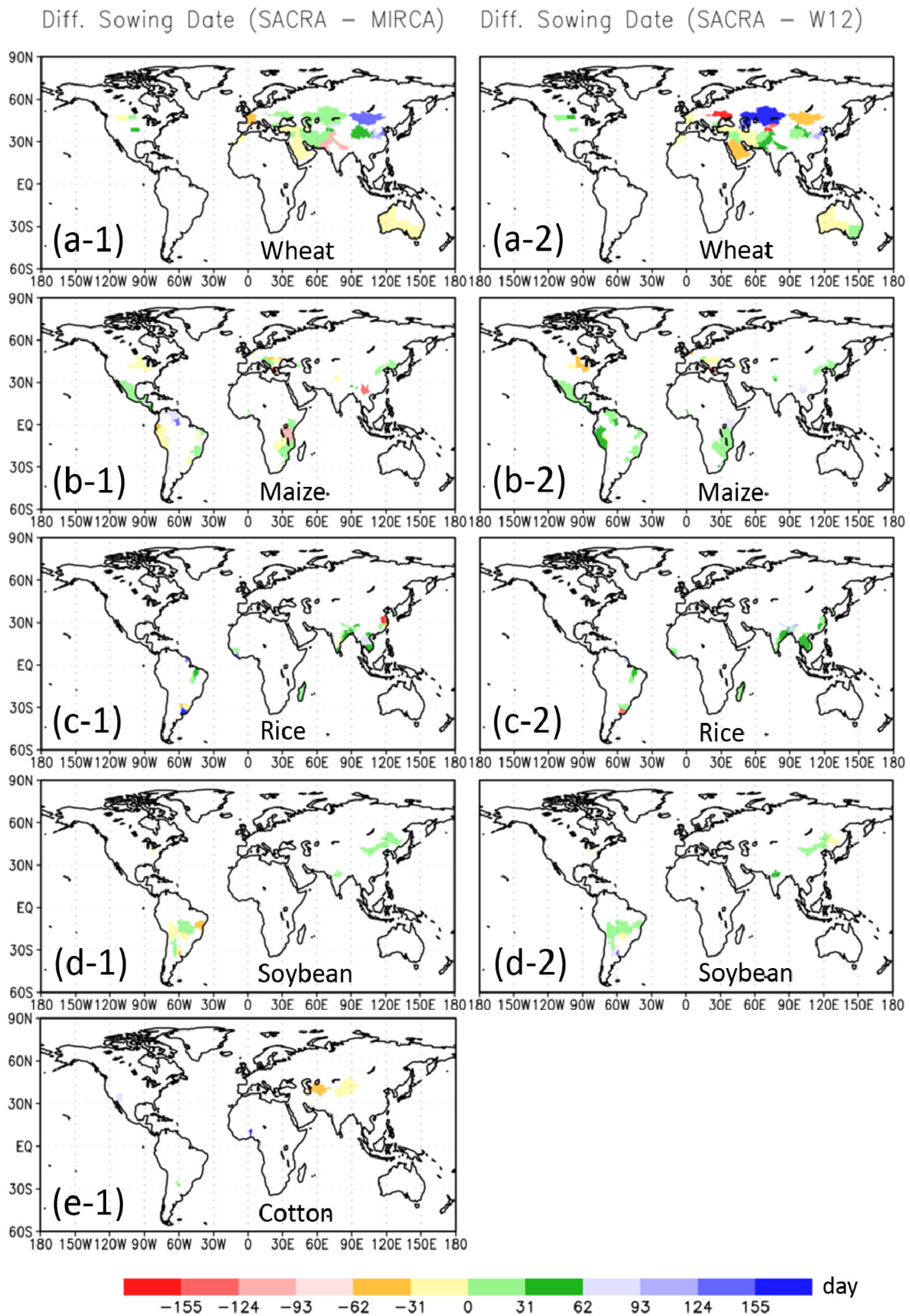
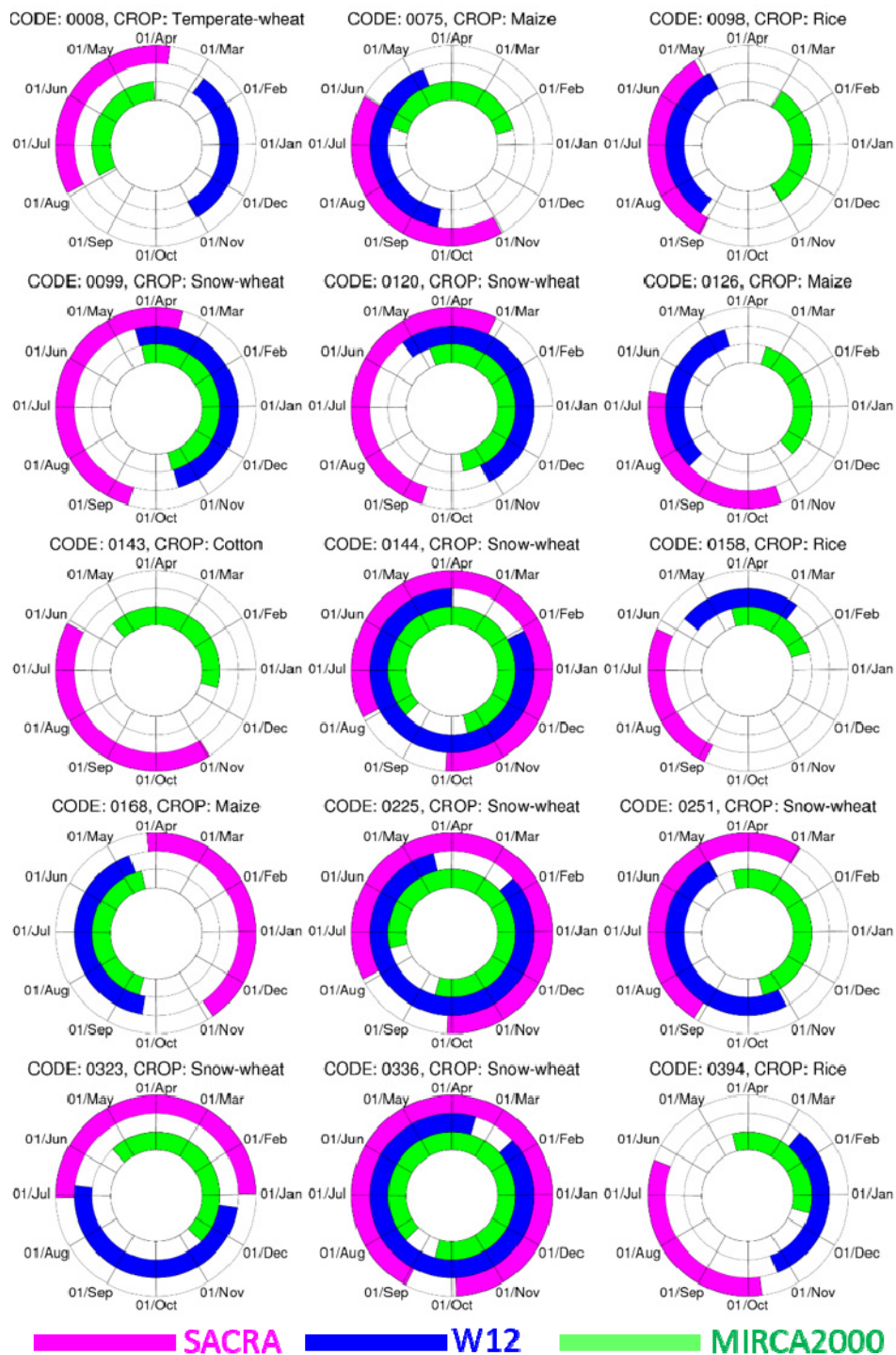


Fig. A2. Global distribution of calibration grids for the six crops. The calibration grids are illustrated larger than the real grid size (5 min) for emphasis.



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 2 Fig. A3. Same as Fig. 9 but for five specific crops (wheat, maize, rice, soybean, and cotton).
 3 The sowing date of cotton was not estimated by Waha et al. (2012).



1
2 Fig. A4. Cultivation seasons (from sowing to harvesting dates) in 15 administrative units in
3 Table 5. Magenta, blue, and green denote SACRA, Waha et al. (2012) and MIRCA2000,
4 respectively. For Waha et al. (2012), we apply the cultivation period of MIRCA2000 for
5 purposes of illustration at each administrative unit. The beginning and end of the labels
6 represent averaged sowing and harvesting dates, respectively, over the administrative
7 unit.