

1 **Upscaling instantaneous to daily evapotranspiration using**  
2 **modelled daily shortwave radiation for remote sensing**  
3 **applications: an Artificial Neural Network approach**

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## 1 **Abstract**

2 Upscaling instantaneous evapotranspiration retrieved at any specific time-of-day ( $ET_i$ ) to daily  
3 evapotranspiration ( $ET_d$ ) is a key challenge in mapping regional  $ET$  using polar orbiting  
4 sensors. Various studies have unanimously cited the short wave incoming radiation ( $R_S$ ) to be  
5 the most robust reference variable explaining the ratio between  $ET_d$  and  $ET_i$ . This study aims  
6 to contribute in  $ET_i$  upscaling for global studies using the ratio between daily and  
7 instantaneous incoming short wave radiation ( $R_{Sd}/R_{Si}$ ) as a factor for converting  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$ .

8 This paper proposes an artificial neural network (ANN) machine learning algorithm first to  
9 predict  $R_{Sd}$  from  $R_{Si}$  followed by using the  $R_{Sd}/R_{Si}$  ratio to convert  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  across different  
10 terrestrial ecosystem. Using  $R_{Si}$  and  $R_{Sd}$  observations from multiple sub-networks of  
11 FLUXNET database spread across different climates and biomes (to represent inputs that  
12 would typically be obtainable from remote sensors during the overpass time) in conjunction  
13 with some astronomical variables (e.g., solar zenith angle, day length, exoatmospheric  
14 shortwave radiation etc.), we developed ANN model for reproducing  $R_{Sd}$  and further used it to  
15 upscale  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$ . The efficiency of the ANN is evaluated for different morning and  
16 afternoon time-of-day, under varying sky conditions, and also at different geographic  
17 locations.  $R_S$ -based upscaled  $ET_d$  produced a significant linear relation ( $R^2 = 0.65$  to  $0.69$ ),  
18 low bias ( $-0.31$  to  $-0.56$  MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) (appx. 4%), and good agreement (RMSE 1.55 to 1.86 MJ  
19 m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) (appx. 10%) with the observed  $ET_d$ , although a systematic overestimation of  $ET_d$  was  
20 also noted under persistent cloudy sky conditions. Inclusion of soil moisture and rainfall  
21 information in ANN training was found reduced the systematic overestimation tendency on  
22 overcast days. An intercomparison with existing upscaling method at daily, 8-day, monthly,  
23 and yearly temporal resolution revealed a robust performance of the ANN driven  $R_S$ -based  
24  $ET_i$  upscaling method and was found to produce lowest RMSE under cloudy conditions.  
25 Sensitivity analysis revealed variable sensitivity of the method to biome selection and high  
26  $ET_d$  prediction errors in forest ecosystems are primarily associated with greater rainfall and  
27 clouds. The overall methodology appears to be promising and has substantial potential for  
28 upscaling  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  for field and regional scale evapotranspiration mapping studies using  
29 polar orbiting satellites.

1 *Key Words:* Evapotranspiration, upscaling, artificial neural networks, short wave radiation,  
2 rainfall, soil moisture, FLUXNET

### 3 **1 Introduction**

4 Satellite-based mapping and monitoring of daily regional evapotranspiration (*ET* hereafter)  
5 (or latent heat flux,  $\lambda E$ ) is considered as a key scientific concern for multitudes of applications  
6 including drought monitoring, water rights management, ecosystem water use efficiency  
7 assessment, distributed hydrological modelling, climate change studies, and numerical  
8 weather prediction (Anderson et al., 2015; Senay et al., 2015; Sepulcre-Canto et al., 2014). *ET*  
9 variability during the course of a day is influenced by changes in the radiative energy being  
10 received at the surface (Brutsaert & Sugita, 1992; Crago, 1996; Parlange & Katul, 1992), due  
11 to soil moisture variability particularly in the water deficit landscapes, and also due to the  
12 stomatal regulation by vegetation.

13 One of the fundamental challenges in regional *ET* modelling using polar orbiting satellites  
14 involves the upscaling of instantaneous *ET* retrieved at any specific time-of-day ( $ET_i$   
15 hereafter) to daily *ET* ( $ET_d$  hereafter). For example,  $ET_i$  retrieved from LANDSAT, ASTER  
16 and MODIS sensors typically represent  $ET_i$  at a single snapshot of 1000, 1030 and 1330 hrs  
17 local time, which needs to be upscaled to daily timescale for making this information usable  
18 to hydrologists and water managers (Cammalleri et al., 2014; Colaizzi et al., 2006; Ryu et al.,  
19 2012; Tang et al., 2013).

20 In order to accommodate the temporal scaling challenges encountered by remote sensing  
21 based *ET* models, techniques have been proposed and applied by various researchers to  
22 upscale  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$ . These include: (1) the constant evaporative fraction (*EF*) approach which  
23 assumes a constant ratio between  $\lambda E$  and net available energy ( $\phi = R_n - G$ ,  $R_n$  is the net  
24 radiation and  $G$  is the ground heat flux) during daytime [ $EF = \lambda E / (R_n - G)$ ] (Gentine et al.,  
25 2007; Shuttleworth et al., 1989), (2) constant reference evaporative fractions ( $EF_r$ ) method  
26 where the ratio of  $ET_i$  between a reference crop (typically grass measuring a height of 0.12 m  
27 in an environment that is not water limited) and an actual surface is assumed to be constant  
28 during daytime, allowing  $ET_d$  to be estimated from the daily  $EF_r$  (Allen et al., 1998; Tang et  
29 al., 2013), (3) constant global shortwave radiation method ( $R_S$ ) where  $R_S$  is the reference  
30 variable at the land surface and it is assumed that the ratio of daily to instantaneous shortwave

1 radiation ( $R_{Sd}$  and  $R_{Si}$ ) values (i.e.,  $R_{Sd}/R_{Si}$ ) determines  $ET_d$  to  $ET_i$  ratio (Jackson et al., 1983;  
2 Cammalleri et al., 2014), and (4) constant extra-terrestrial radiation method where the exo-  
3 atmospheric shortwave radiation ( $R_S TOA$ ) is the reference variable and the ratio of  
4 instantaneous to daily  $R_S TOA$  ( $R_{Si} TOA$  and  $R_{Sd} TOA$ ) is assumed to determine the ratio of  $ET_d$   
5 to  $ET_i$  (Ryu et al., 2012; Van Niel et al., 2012). These methods have been reviewed and  
6 compared in different studies with the view of identifying the most robust  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$   
7 upscaling approach based on different data sets, time integrals and varying sky conditions  
8 (Cammalleri et al., 2014; Ryu et al., 2012; Tang et al, 2013, 2015; Van Niel et al., 2012; Xu et  
9 al., 2015).

10 Based on the previous studies, we find that the  $R_S TOA$  approach performed consistently good  
11 at lower temporal resolution namely eight-day to monthly scales (Ryu et al., 2012; Van Niel  
12 et al., 2012) as well as under clear-sky conditions (Cammalleri et al., 2014), whereas the  $R_S$   
13 approach was identified as the most preferred method for  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  conversion at a higher  
14 temporal scale i.e. daily timescale in addition to under variable sky conditions (Cammalleri et  
15 al., 2014; Chávez et al., 2008; Colaizzi, et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2015). Although the  $EF_r$ -based  
16 method produced comparable  $ET_d$  estimates as the  $R_S$ -based method, however the dependence  
17 of  $EF_r$  estimates on certain variables (e.g., daily net available energy;  $\phi$  and wind speed) and  
18 the difficulty to characterise them at the daily scale from single acquisition of polar orbiting  
19 satellites (Tang et al., 2015) makes it a relatively less attractive method. Furthermore the  $EF$ -  
20 based method appeared to consistently underestimate  $ET_d$  in all these studies.

21 The motivation of the current work is built on the conclusions of Colaizzi et al. (2006),  
22 Chávez et al. (2008), Cammalleri et al. (2014), and Xu et al. (2015) that the ratio of the  
23 instantaneous to daily  $R_S$  incident on land surface is the most robust reference variable  
24 explaining the ratio between  $ET_d$  and  $ET_i$  among all the tested methods. This work aims to  
25 contribute in  $ET_i$  upscaling by first developing a method for estimating  $R_{Sd}$  from any specific  
26 time-of-day  $R_S$  information ( $R_{Si}$ ) and further using  $R_{Sd}/R_{Si}$  ratio as a factor for converting  $ET_i$   
27 to  $ET_d$ . We develop an artificial neural network (ANN) machine learning algorithm  
28 (McCulloch & Pitts, 1943) for estimating  $R_{Sd}$ . Although net radiation ( $R_N$ ) is more closely  
29 associated with  $ET$ , but  $R_S$  constitutes 80-85% of  $R_N$  (Mallick et al., 2015). Also from remote  
30 sensing perspective,  $R_{Si}$  is relatively easily retrievable irrespective of the sky conditions  
31 (Wang et al., 2015; Lopez and Batlles, 2014), and its relationship to  $R_{Sd}$  is primarily governed

1 by cloudiness (cloud fraction, cloud optical depth) and astronomical variables (e.g., solar  
2 zenith angle, day length,  $R_{S_{TOA}}$  etc.). Given the information of cloudiness is also obtainable  
3 from remote sensing, we consider  $R_S$  to be a robust variable to explore  $ET_i$  upscaling.

4 Even though this study is intended for remote sensing application, we tested the method using  
5 meteorological and surface energy balance flux measurements from eddy covariance (EC)  
6 system at the FLUXNET (Baldocchi et al., 2001) sites mainly for the purpose of temporal  
7 consistency. However, we evaluate the performance in consideration with overpass time of  
8 polar orbiting satellites commonly used in operational  $ET$  mapping namely MODIS and  
9 LANDSAT. By choosing to use data distributed over different ecosystems and climates  
10 zones, we are faced with two problems : (1) changing cloud conditions across ecosystems, (2)  
11 varying energy balance closure (EBC) requirements for the fluxes in different ecosystems  
12 (Foken et al., 2006; Franssen et al., 2010; Mauder & Foken, 2006; Wilson et al., 2002).  
13 Currently, information on cloudiness is obtainable from geostationary meteorological  
14 satellites, at hourly to 3-hourly time steps e.g., from the Clouds and Earth's Radiant Energy  
15 System (CERES), the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project–Flux Data (ISCCP-  
16 FD), and Global Energy and Water cycle Experiment Surface Radiation Budget (GEWEX-  
17 SRB). The CERES algorithm uses cloud information from MODIS onboard both Terra and  
18 Aqua platforms and combines it with information from geostationary satellites to accurately  
19 capture the diurnal cycles of clouds. In this study, cloudiness is not included in the list of  
20 variables used to estimate  $R_{S_d}$  due to inconsistency in spatial resolution of data to match with  
21 the other predictive variables used. Including cloudiness holds a great potential in improving  
22 the ANN  $R_{S_d}$  predications due to their direct relationship (Mallick et al., 2015). However, we  
23 assess the performance of the ANN under cloudy sky conditions based on simple cloudiness  
24 index computations as adopted from previous works (Baigorria et al., 2004). The EBC  
25 problems have been reported to vary across landscapes due to management practices, climate,  
26 seasons and plant functional type characteristics (Foken et al., 2006). In this study, in order to  
27 test the robustness of the proposed method, we initially disregard the site specific EBC  
28 problems and assume that the systematic bias of fluxes fall within the same range across  
29 entire FLUXNET database used.

30 The objectives of the present study are: (1) using a ANN with Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)  
31 architecture to predict  $R_{S_d}$  based on  $R_{S_i}$  satellite observations, (2) applying  $R_{S_d}/R_{S_i}$  ratio as a

1 scaling factor to upscale  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  under all sky conditions, and (3) comparing the  
2 performance of proposed  $R_S$ -based  $ET_i$  upscaling method with  $R_S TOA$  and  $EF$ -based  $ET_i$   
3 upscaling methods across a range of temporal scales, biomes and variable sky conditions.

## 4 **2 Methodology**

### 5 **2.1 Rationale**

6 The presented method of  $ET$  upscaling from any specific time-of-day to daytime average  
7 evaporative fluxes is based on the assumption of self-preservation of incoming solar energy  
8 (i.e., shortwave radiation) as proposed by Jackson et al. (1983).

$$9 \quad ET_d \approx ET_i \frac{R_{Sd}}{R_{Si}} \quad (1)$$

10 Where,  $ET_d$  is the daily average evapotranspiration in  $W m^{-2}$ ,  $ET_i$  is the instantaneous  
11 evapotranspiration at any instance during daytime in  $W m^{-2}$ ,  $R_{Si}$  and  $R_{Sd}$  are the values of  
12 shortwave radiation recorded at any instance and the daily average having units  $W m^{-2}$ . Daily  
13 total  $ET_d$  and  $R_{Sd}$  is expressed in  $MJ m^{-2} d^{-1}$  by using standard conversion from Watts to Mega  
14 Joules. Following Jackson et al. (1983) and Cammalleri et al. (2014), we hypothesized that  
15 the mean diurnal variation of  $ET$  for any particular day scales with the mean diurnal variation  
16 of  $R_S$ . The justifications are: (a)  $R_S$  is the principal driver that controls sub-daily  $ET$  variability  
17 unless there is substantial diurnal asymmetry in cloudiness or abrupt change in sub-daily soil  
18 moisture between morning and afternoon. (b) Under thick cloudy conditions,  $ET$  scales with  
19  $R_S$ . Under clear sky conditions  $ET$  also scales with  $R_S$  and both are in phase if sufficient soil  
20 moisture is available at the surface. (c) Phase difference between  $R_S$  and  $ET$  are commonly  
21 found under soil moisture deficit conditions in clear-sky days. However, the magnitude of  
22 clear-sky  $ET_i$  in water deficit conditions is also be very low, which will lead to substantially  
23 low  $ET_i/R_{Si}$  ratio, and would unlikely to introduce any uncertainty in  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  upscaling in  
24 the framework of eq. (1).

25 For any remote sensing studies using polar orbiting satellites, although the retrieval of  $ET_i$  and  
26  $R_{Si}$  has been standardised (Tang et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2012; Polo et al., 2008; Laine et al.,  
27 1999), but, estimating  $R_{Sd}$  and  $ET_d$  from  $R_{Si}$  and  $ET_i$  are still challenging. Presently, upscaling  
28  $R_{Si}$  to  $R_{Sd}$  is primarily based on the clear sky assumption, i.e., for the entire daytime

1 integration period, the sky remains cloud-free (Bisht et al., 2005; Jackson et al., 1983).  
2 However, the clear-sky assumption is not always appropriate for upscaling remote sensing  
3 based  $R_{Si}$  and hence  $ET_i$  because the sky conditions during a specific time-of-day may be clear  
4 whereas the other part of the day might be cloudy. Under such conditions, the clear-sky  
5 assumption of  $ET_i$  upscaling will lead to substantial overestimation of  $ET_d$  in cloudy  
6 conditions. Hence reliable estimates of all-sky (i.e., both clear and cloudy)  $R_{Sd}$  would greatly  
7 improve the  $ET_d$  estimates in the framework of eq. (1). Given the unavailability of a definite  
8 method to directly estimate all-sky  $R_{Sd}$  from  $R_{Si}$  information, here we proposed a simple  
9 method to upscale  $R_{Si}$  to  $R_{Sd}$  using ANN. This method uses the observations of both  $R_{Sd}$  and  
10  $R_{Si}$  from all the available FLUXNET sites in conjunction with some ancillary variables to  
11 build the ANN as described in section 2.2. A schematic diagram of the ANN method is given  
12 in Fig. 1. The analysis is based on 24-hour period, meaning night time  $ET$  contribution is  
13 implicitly considered. However, studies have already shown that the nighttime  $ET$  in semi-  
14 arid and sub-humid regions contributes only 2 – 5% of the total season  $ET$  (Malek, 1992; Tolk  
15 et al., 2006), and therefore does not appear to be significant.

16 The overarching aim of this study is to develop an approach that would help in the upscaling  
17 of  $ET_i$  (retrieved at satellite overpass time) to  $ET_d$ . Additional value of this study also consists  
18 of exploiting  $R_{Si}$  information at satellite local crossing time to predict  $R_{Sd}$  which is not directly  
19 retrievable from any polar orbiting satellites, so that the ratio of  $R_{Sd}/R_{Si}$  can be further used to  
20 upscale  $ET_i$  to obtain  $ET_d$  estimates. Currently we are limited to demonstrating with MODIS  
21 satellite overpass times (Terra and Aqua), however for the future missions with different local  
22 overpass time, the method would still be applicable.

23 In any natural ecosystem,  $R_S$  on a particular day is primarily influenced by the cloud  
24 (especially cloud cover fraction and optical thickness) (Mallick et al., 2015; Hildebrandt et al.,  
25 2007), latitude, season, and time-of-day. Therefore,  $R_{Sd}$  on any specific day is expected to be a  
26 function of  $R_{Si}$  (as a representative of  $R_S$  and cloudiness factors), solar zenith angle  
27 (representing latitude, season, time-of-day), day length (representing latitude and season), and  
28  $R_{S}TOA$  (representing latitude, season, time-of-day). Besides, atmospheric aerosols also  
29 interact with  $R_S$  and absorb some of the radiation particularly in the urban areas. Considering  
30 the applications of  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  modeling in the natural ecosystems, we include  $R_{Si}$ ,  $R_{Si}TOA$ ,  
31  $R_{Sd}TOA$ , solar zenith angle and day length for  $R_{Sd}$  (and subsequently  $ET_d$ ) prediction.

## 1 2.2 Development of Artificial Neural Network (ANN)

2 ANN is a non-linear model which works by initially understanding the behaviour of a system  
3 based on a combination of a given number of inputs and subsequently is able to simulate the  
4 system when fed with independent set of inputs of the same system. ANN approach has been  
5 successfully used in estimating global solar radiation in many sectors and more so in the field  
6 of renewable energy (Ahmad et al., 2015; Hasni et al., 2012; Lazzús et al., 2011). Multi-layer  
7 perceptron (MLP) is one of the ANN architectures commonly used as opposed to other  
8 statistical methods, makes no prior assumptions concerning the data distribution, has ability to  
9 reasonably handle non-linear functions and reliably generalise independent data when  
10 presented (Gardner & Dorling, 1998; Khatib, Mohamed, & Sopian, 2012; Wang, 2003). In the  
11 present study, MLP was chosen as it has been widely used in many similar studies and cited  
12 to be a better alternative as compared to the conventional statistical methods (Ahmad et al.,  
13 2015; Chen et al., 2013; Dahmani et al., 2016; Mubiru & Banda, 2008). The MLP is  
14 composed of 5 neurons in the input layer, 1 output layer and 10 hidden layers (Fig. 2). The  
15 input layer neurons are made up of instantaneous incoming short wave radiation ( $R_{Si}$ ),  
16 instantaneous exo-atmospheric shortwave radiation ( $R_{SiTOA}$ ), daily exo-atmospheric  
17 shortwave radiation ( $R_{SdTOA}$ ), solar zenith angle ( $\theta_z$ ), and day length ( $L_D$ ) as the predictor  
18 variables whose values are initially standardized to range between -1 to 1. The choice of the  
19 inputs is intentionally limited to the variables that cannot only be acquired by measurements  
20 from meteorological stations but also derived from simple astronomical computations (Ryu et  
21 al., 2012) mainly to help minimize on the spatial distribution problem (as described earlier in  
22 the introduction) that is often linked to ground weather stations. In the MLP processing, the  
23 input layer directs the values of each input neuron  $x_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3 \dots n$ ) into each neuron ( $j$ ) of  
24 the hidden layers. In the hidden layer,  $x_i$  is multiplied by a weight ( $w_{ij}$ ) followed by a bias ( $b_j$ )  
25 assigned for each hidden layer also is applied. The weighted sum (eq. (2)) is fed into a  
26 transfer function. In this work a tangent sigmoid (TANSIG) function is used (eq. (3)) in the  
27 hidden layer while in the output layer a PURELIN function is applied (eq. (4)) to give a single  
28 output value which is the predicted daily shortwave radiation ( $R_{Sd\_pred}$ ). PURELIN is a linear  
29 neural transfer function used in backpropagation network. It calculates a layer's output from  
30 its net input. The function generates outputs between zero and 1 as the neuron's net input goes  
31 from negative to positive infinity. The training of the ANN is completed by a regression



1 analysis being performed internally by the algorithm between the target variable i.e. the  
 2 observed and predicted daily shortwave radiation ( $R_{Sd\_obs}$  and  $R_{Sd\_pred}$ ).

$$x_j = \int \left( \sum_{i=1}^n w_{ij} y_i b_j \right) \quad (2)$$

$$y_j = \frac{2}{(1 + \exp(-2X_i) - 1)} \quad (3)$$

$$y_j = X_i(PURELIN) \quad (4)$$

3 Bayesian regularization algorithm was chosen for the optimization process because it is able  
 4 to handle noisy datasets by continuously applying adaptive weight minimization and can  
 5 reduce or eliminate the need for lengthy cross-validation that often leads to overtraining and  
 6 overfitting of models (Burden and Winkler, 2009).

### 7 **2.3 Datasets**

8 Daily and half-hourly data on  $R_s$  ( $W m^{-2}$ ),  $R_{STOA}$ , net radiation ( $R_n$ ,  $W m^{-2}$ ), latent heat flux  
 9 ( $\lambda E$ ,  $W m^{-2}$ ), sensible heat flux ( $H$ ,  $W m^{-2}$ ) and ground heat flux ( $G$ ,  $W m^{-2}$ ) measured by the  
 10 FLUXNET (Baldocchi et al., 2001) eddy covariance network were used. A total of 126 sites  
 11 from the years 1999 to 2006 distributed between latitude 0-90 degrees north and south of the  
 12 equator were used for the present analysis. The data sites covered a broad spectrum of  
 13 vegetation functional types and climatic conditions and a list of the sites are given in Table S1  
 14 in the supplementary section.

15 Among 126 sites, 85 sites were used for training and remaining 41 sites were used for  
 16 validation. Partition of the data into training and validation was randomly selected regardless  
 17 of the year. These translated into 194 and 86 yearly data for the respective sample. A global  
 18 distribution of the data sites is shown in Fig. 3. From the training dataset, three samples were  
 19 internally generated by the algorithm i.e., training datasets, validation datasets, and a testing  
 20 dataset in a percentage ratio of 80:15:5 respectively. The ANN algorithm is designed to  
 21 validate its performance for any given training which in most cases should be sufficient for  
 22 validating the network. However to ensure the network is robust, we further test the generated  
 23 network with independent dataset. Considering the equatorial crossing time of different polar

1 orbiting sensors like LANDSAT, ASTER, and MODIS Terra-Aqua, unique networks were  
 2 generated for different time of day from morning to afternoon, and thus we had a total of 8  
 3 networks to represent potential satellite overpass times between 1030 to 1400 hours using 30  
 4 minutes interval as the closest reference time for each hour. The generated networks were  
 5 then applied to an independent validation data set.

## 6 **2.4 Intercomparison of $ET_i$ upscaling methods**

7 An intercomparison of three different  $ET_i$  upscaling methods is performed with the  
 8 homogeneous datasets to assess their relative performance across a range of temporal scales  
 9 and variable sky conditions. These are: (a)  $R_S$ -based upscaling method, where ANN predicted  
 10  $R_{Sd}$  is used in conjunction with observed  $R_{Si}$  to predict  $ET_d$  using eq. (1).

11 (b) The exo-atmospheric irradiance method (Ryu et al., 2012) where the reference variable is  
 12  $R_S TOA$ .

$$R_{Sd} TOA = S_{sc} \left[ 1 + 0.033 \cos \left( \frac{2\pi t_d}{365} \right) \right] \cos \theta_Z \quad (5)$$

$$SF_{RTOA} = \frac{R_{Sd} TOA}{R_{Si} TOA} \quad (6)$$

$$ET_d = ET_i SF_{RTOA} \quad (7)$$

13 Where  $S_{sc}$  is the solar constant ( $1360 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ),  $t_d$  is the day of year (DoY), and  $\theta_Z$  is the solar  
 14 zenith angle.

15 (c)  $EF$ -based method (Cammalleri et al., 2014), where reference variable is the net available  
 16 energy ( $\phi$ ) (i.e.,  $R_n - G$ ).

$$SF_{EF} = \frac{\lambda E}{R_n - G} \quad (8)$$

$$ET_d = 1.1(R_n - G)_d SF_{EF} \quad (9)$$

17 Where  $SF_{EF}$  is the  $EF$ -based scaling factor,  $(R_n - G)_d$  is the daily net available energy.

1 We tested the performance of the three upscaling algorithms for all possible sky conditions  
 2 assumed to be represented by daily atmospheric transmissivity ( $\tau_d$ ) (eq. 10) namely (i)  
 3  $0.25 \geq \tau \geq 0$  ( $\tau_1$ , hereafter), (ii)  $0.5 \geq \tau \geq 0.25$  ( $\tau_2$ , hereafter) (iii)  $0.75 \geq \tau \geq 0.5$  ( $\tau_3$ , hereafter), and (iv)  
 4  $1 \geq \tau \geq 0.75$  ( $\tau_4$ , hereafter), respectively. We use daily  $\tau$  because it indicates the overall sky  
 5 condition throughout a day.

$$\tau_d = \frac{R_{Sd}}{R_{Sd}TOA} \quad (10)$$

6  $R_{Sd}$  and  $R_{Sd}TOA$  are daily shortwave radiation and the exo-atmospheric shortwave radiation in  
 7  $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  (converted from  $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ).

## 8 **2.5 Statistical error analysis**

9 The relative performance of the ANN and three upscaling methods is evaluated using  
 10 statistical indices generated namely: coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), root mean square error  
 11 (RMSE), mean absolute percentage error (MAPE), index of agreement (IA), and bias.  $ET_d$   
 12 estimates using the respective upscaling coefficients were compared with measured  $ET_d$ .

$$13 \quad R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - o_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (o_i)^2} \quad (11)$$

$$14 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (o_i - p_i)^2}{n}} \quad (12)$$

$$15 \quad MAPE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|o_i - p_i|}{n} * 100 \quad (13)$$

$$16 \quad IA = \frac{\sum_i (p_i - o_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (|p_i - o_i| + |o_i - p_i|)^2} \quad (14)$$

$$17 \quad Bias = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - o_i)}{n} \quad (15)$$

1 Where,  $n$  is the number of data points;  $o_i$  and  $p_i$  are daily observed and estimated  $R_{Sd}$  or  $ET_d$ ,  
2 respectively.  $\bar{O}$  was the mean value of observed  $R_{Sd}$  or  $ET_d$ .

### 3 **2.6 Sensitivity of ANN training and validation**

4 Given the majority of the FLUXNET sites represent forest biomes and the distribution of EC  
5 sites over non-forest biomes are proportionately lower as compared to the forests, we  
6 performed a sensitivity analysis of the ANN-based approach by assessing the error statistics  
7 ( $R^2$  and RMSE) of predicted  $ET_d$  for different scenarios of ANN training. Three case studies  
8 were generated: (a) Case1, where ANN was trained by including data randomly from the  
9 forests and  $ET_d$  validation was done in non-forest biomes (i.e., grassland, crops and  
10 shrublands); (b) Case2, where ANN was trained by including data randomly from the non-  
11 forest biomes and predicted  $ET_d$  was evaluated in forest biome; (c) ANN was trained by using  
12 data randomly from equal proportions of forest and non-forest biomes, and  $ET_d$  validation was  
13 also done in forest and non-forest biomes. Each individual case was replicated 10 times and  
14 an ensemble mean statistics of predicted  $ET_d$  is reported in section 3.5.

## 15 **3 Results and discussion**

### 16 **3.1 Testing the performance of predicted $R_{Sd}$**

17 Given that the performance of  $ET_d$  upscaling depends on the soundness of  $R_{Sd}$  estimation, we  
18 first evaluate the efficacy of the ANN method for predicting  $R_{Sd}$ . Figure 4 summarises the  
19 statistical results of predicted  $R_{Sd}$  ( $R_{Sd\_pred}$ , hereafter) including all the site-year average  $R^2$ ,  
20 RMSE, IA, and MAPE values for eight different time-of-day upscaling time slots. The RMSE  
21 of  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  from forenoon upscaling varied between 1.81-1.85 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with MAPE,  $R^2$ , IA  
22 varying between 20–21%, 0.76–0.77, and 0.79 and 0.80, respectively (Fig. 4). For the  
23 afternoon, these statistics were almost similar and varied between 1.83–1.96 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, 19-  
24 20%, 0.75–0.77, and 0.80–0.81 (Fig. 4). Given the minimal discrepancy in error statistics  
25 from both forenoon and afternoon integration and considering the MODIS Terra-Aqua  
26 average overpass time we have considered 1100 and 1330 hours of daytime for the detailed  
27 follow up analysis.

28 Figure 5 (a, b) evaluates  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  statistics under different level of atmospheric transmissivity  
29 ( $\tau$ ) ( $0.25 \geq \tau \geq 0$ ,  $0.5 \geq \tau \geq 0.25$ ,  $0.75 \geq \tau \geq 0.5$ , and  $1 \geq \tau \geq 0.75$ ) with an overall RMSE of 1.81 and

1 1.83 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> for the forenoon and afternoon upscaling respectively. Table 1 and Fig. 5  
2 clearly show an overestimation tendency of the current method under persistent cloudy sky  
3 conditions ( $\tau_1$ ), whereas the predictive capacity of the ANN model is reasonably strong with  
4 increasing atmospheric clearness. The RMSE of  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  for different  $\tau$  class from forenoon  
5 upscaling varied between 0.62 to 2.45 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with MAPE, R<sup>2</sup> and IA of 9.2 to 53%, 0.67  
6 to 0.98, and 0.67 to 0.95, respectively (Table 1). For the afternoon upscaling these statistics  
7 were 0.89 to 2.4 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (RMSE), 2.4 to 52% (MAPE), 0.65 to 0.98 (R<sup>2</sup>), and 0.67 to 0.95  
8 (IA) (Table 1).

9 The overestimation of  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  at low values of  $\tau$  is presumably associated with varying levels  
10 of cloudiness during the daytime. Since  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  depends on the magnitude of  $R_{Si}$ ,  $L_D$ ,  $\theta_Z$ ,  
11  $R_{SiTOA}$ , and  $R_{SdTOA}$ , there will be a tendency of overestimating  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  on partly cloudy days if  
12  $R_{Si}$  at a specific time-of-day is not affected by the clouds ( $L_D$ ,  $\theta_Z$ ,  $R_{SiTOA}$ , and  $R_{SdTOA}$  are not  
13 influenced by the clouds).

### 14 **3.2 Evaluation of predicted $ET_d$ based on $R_{Sd\_pred}$**

15 Figure 6 summarises the statistical results of predicted  $ET_d$  ( $ET_{d\_pred}$ , hereafter) for eight  
16 different time-of-day slots. Upon statistical evaluation, all the cases showed significantly  
17 linear relationship between  $ET_{d\_pred}$  and observed  $ET_d$  ( $ET_{d\_obs}$ , hereafter). The RMSE of  
18  $ET_{d\_pred}$  from forenoon upscaling varied from 1.67–1.84 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with MAPE, R<sup>2</sup>, IA  
19 varying between 30%–34%, 0.62–0.68, and 0.77–0.80, respectively (Fig. 6). For the afternoon  
20 upscaling, these statistics varied between 1.5–1.6 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, 29%–30%, 0.67–0.71, and 0.80  
21 (Fig. 6). These results also indicate that the error statistics were nearly uniform and the  
22 accuracy of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  varied only slightly when integration was done from different time-of-  
23 day hours between 1030 to 1400 h. These typical error characteristics can greatly benefit the  
24  $ET_d$  modelling using polar orbiting data with varying overpass times between 1030 to 1400  
25 hours. This also opens up the possibility to use either forenoon satellite (e.g., MODIS Terra,  
26 LANDSAT, ASTER etc.) or afternoon satellite (i.e., MODIS Aqua) to upscale  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$ .  
27 Following  $R_{Sd}$ , here also we restricted our analysis to the two different time-of-day (1100h  
28 and 1330h) representing Terra and Aqua overpass times.

1 Figure 7 (a and b) compares  $ET_{d\_pred}$  against  $ET_{d\_obs}$  for different level of daily  $\tau$ . The overall  
2 RMSE, MAPE, and  $R^2$  were 1.86 and 1.55  $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ , 31% and 36%, 0.65 and 0.69 for the  
3 forenoon and afternoon upscaling, respectively. As seen in Fig. 7, there is a systematic  
4 overestimation of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  relative to the tower observed values for low range of  $\tau$  (i.e., cloudy  
5 sky). It is important to realise that, unlike  $ET_{d\_obs}$ ,  $ET_{d\_pred}$  might be an outcome of  $ET_i$   
6 instances when the sky was not overcast, i.e., the sky conditions might be clear at specific  
7 time-of-day but can be substantially overcast for the remainder of the daytime. As a result,  
8 any bias in the daily shortwave radiation prediction ( $R_{Sd\_pred}$ ) will result in biased  $ET_{d\_pred}$   
9 according to eq. 1, and the omission of non-clear sky conditions at any particular time of  
10 daytime would tend to lead to  $ET_{d\_pred} > ET_{d\_obs}$  for generally overcast days. However, there  
11 could be another opposite case that sky is cloudy at e.g., 1100 hr but clear at other times. This  
12 will probably lead to an underestimation of  $R_{Sd\_pred}$ , and consequently underestimation of  
13  $ET_{d\_pred}$ . Such cases were also found in  $\tau_3$  categories in Fig. 7 where clouds of data points  
14 clearly falling significantly below the 1:1 line, thus showing substantial underestimation of  
15  $ET_{d\_pred}$ . Since  $ET_{d\_obs}$  are the integrations of multiple  $ET_i$  measurements, such conditions  
16 could be conveniently captured in the observations which were not possible in the current  
17 framework of  $ET_{d\_pred}$ . Therefore, when upscaling was done under clear skies at nominal  
18 acquisition time for generally overcast days, higher errors in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  can be expected  
19 (Cammalleri et al., 2014) and vice-versa. We examined this cloudy sky overestimation pattern  
20 in greater detail by evaluating the error statistics in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for four different levels of daily  $\tau$   
21 categories (Fig. 8).

22 Statistical evaluation of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for different classes of daily  $\tau$  (estimated as the ratio between  
23 daily observed  $R_{Sd}$  and  $R_{SdTOA}$ ) indicates the tendency of higher RMSE and low  $R^2$  in  
24  $ET_{d\_pred}$  under the persistent cloudy-sky conditions ( $\tau_1$ ), while the performance of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  is  
25 reasonably good with increasing atmospheric clearness ( $\tau_2$ ,  $\tau_3$ , and  $\tau_4$ ) (Fig. 8). The RMSE of  
26  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for different  $\tau$  class from forenoon upscaling varied between 1.09 to 2.96  $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ,  
27 with MAPE,  $R^2$  and IA of 25 to 75%, 0.38 to 0.79, and 0.71 to 0.82, respectively. For the  
28 afternoon upscaling, these statistics were 0.98 to 2.02  $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  (RMSE), 24 to 87%  
29 (MAPE), 0.40 to 0.68 ( $R^2$ ), and 0.71 to 0.77 (IA).

1 To probe into detail of the high errors under persistent cloudiness conditions, a new ANN was  
2 trained by introducing daily precipitation ( $P$ ) and soil moisture ( $SM$ ) information (along with  
3  $R_S$ ,  $R_{S\text{TOA}}$ ,  $\theta_z$ , and  $L_D$ ) assuming that the inclusion of these two variables might improve the  
4 predictive power of  $R_S$ -based ANN. In the new ANN, we used data from the sites where  
5 coincident measurements of  $P$  and  $S_M$  were available along with  $R_S$  and  $ET$ , and validated  $ET_d$   
6 predictions of the new ANN on independent sites. The analysis revealed 34% reduction in  
7 RMSE (from 3.28 to 2.88 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>), 16% reduction in MAPE (from 90 to 76%), and 49%  
8 reduction in mean bias (0.76 to 0.39 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) for persistent cloudy-sky cases (i.e.,  $\tau_1$   
9 scenarios) from 1100 hr upscaling. However, no significant improvements in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  were  
10 evident for  $\tau_2$ ,  $\tau_3$ , and  $\tau_4$  and also for any of the  $\tau$  classes from the afternoon (1330 hr)  
11 upscaling (Fig. 9).  $ET_d$  is generally controlled by radiation and soil moisture availability.  
12 Under the radiation controlled conditions,  $ET_d$  is generally not limited due to soil moisture  
13 and 70 – 75% of the net radiation is contributed to  $ET_d$ . Therefore,  $R_S$ -based method of  $ET_i$   
14 upscaling is expected to perform reasonably well unless the upscaling is performed from a  
15 clear sky instance for a predominantly overcast or rainy day. However, from Fig. 9 is it  
16 apparent that the inclusion of cloud information (cloud fraction, cloud optical thickness) in  
17  $R_S$ -based ANN would substantially reduce  $ET_{d\_pred}$  errors when upscaling is performed from a  
18 clear sky instance for a predominantly overcast day and vice-versa. Improvements of  $ET_{d\_pred}$   
19 error statistics by including daily  $P$  and  $SM$  (as an indicator of cloudiness) is also suggestive  
20 to the relevance of such approach as a future improvement of the current framework, which is  
21 expected to reduce the systematic error under overcast conditions. However, the cloud  
22 information available from alternative sources e.g., from the Clouds and Earth's Radiant  
23 Energy System (CERES), the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project–Flux Data  
24 (ISCCP-FD), and Global Energy and Water cycle Experiment Surface Radiation Budget  
25 (GEWEX-SRB) are available at coarse spatial resolution (100 km<sup>2</sup>) and combining these  
26 information with EC tower measurements to train ANN could also introduce additional errors  
27 due to the spatial scale mismatch, is therefore out of scope of the present study.

28 Figure 10 shows the time series comparisons between observed  $ET_d$  and  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for four  
29 different stations representing different latitude bands of both the Northern (Sweden) and  
30 Southern (Brazil, Australia, and South Africa) hemispheres. These reveal that the temporal  
31 dynamics of  $ET_d$  is in general consistently captured by the proposed method throughout year.

1 In Br\_SP1, relatively less seasonality was found in both observed and predicted  $ET_d$ . This is  
2 because SP1 is a tropical site having an annual rainfall of 850–1100 mm most of which is  
3 evenly distributed between March to end of September. The peaks in  $ET_d$  values during the  
4 beginning of year and October onwards coincided with the periods of increased  $R_S$ , and  
5  $ET_{d\_pred}$  could reasonably capture the observed trends during both rainy and non-rainy  
6 periods. Similarly the low  $ET_d$  pattern (0.1 to 2 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) in the hot arid climate of South  
7 Africa (Za-Kru) could also be reasonably captured in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  (Fig. 10).  $ET_{d\_pred}$  in the other  
8 Southern hemisphere (AU-Tum) and Northern hemisphere (SE-Fla) sites have shown distinct  
9 seasonality (high summer and low winter  $ET_d$ ) coinciding with the observed  $ET_d$  patterns.

### 10 **3.3 Comparison with existing $ET$ upscaling methods**

11  $ET_{d\_pred}$  from  $R_S$ -based method was intercompared with two other upscaling schemes ( $R_S TOA$   
12 and  $EF$ ) over 41 FLUXNET validation sites for two different time-of-day, 1100h and 1330h,  
13 the statistics of which are given in Table 2. This comparison was also carried out according to  
14 different  $\tau$  classes as defined in section 2.2.3.

15 From Table 2 it is apparent that the  $R_S$ -based method has generally produced relatively low  
16 RMSE (1.21 to 1.99 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and MAPE (23 to 50%) as well as relatively high IA (0.72 to  
17 0.84) as compared to  $R_S TOA$  and  $EF$ -based upscaling methods. The  $EF$ -based upscaling  
18 method appears to systematically underestimate  $ET_d$  for both forenoon and afternoon as  
19 evident from high negative bias compared to the other two methods (Table 2). On comparing  
20  $R_S$  and  $R_S TOA$  methods,  $R_S$ -based method performed relatively better than the  $R_S TOA$  scheme  
21 for low magnitude of  $\tau$  (i.e., under predominantly cloudy-sky). However, the results suggest  
22 comparable performance of  $R_S TOA$ -based approach under clear sky conditions which are  
23 reflected in lowest RMSE (1.09 and 1.13 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  as compared to the other  $\tau$   
24 classes. In general, all the schemes performed relatively better from the afternoon upscaling as  
25 compared to the morning upscaling (as evidenced in higher  $R^2$  and lower bias) (Table 2)  
26 which is in agreement with the findings from Ryu et al. (2012). Due to their comparable error  
27 statistics, an intercomparison of  $R_S$  and  $R_S TOA$ -based methods of  $ET_i$  upscaling was also  
28 carried out across different biomes.

29 Biome specific evaluation of  $R_S$ -based  $ET_{d\_pred}$  (Fig. 11) revealed lowest RMSE and highest  
30  $R^2$  both in the grassland (GRA) (0.68 to 1.14 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>; 0.53 to 0.79) and shrubland (SH)



1 (0.66 to 1.76 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>; 0.60 to 0.82) whereas the RMSE was comparatively high over the  
2 tropical evergreen broadleaf forests (EBF) (1.41 to 2.02 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and deciduous broadleaf  
3 forests (DBF) (1.94 to 2.55 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>). Similar evaluation with *R<sub>s</sub>TOA*-based method  
4 revealed the lowest RMSE and highest R<sup>2</sup> in the grassland (0.64 to 1.14 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>; 0.61 to  
5 0.84), and highest RMSE in EBF, DBF, and evergreen needleleaf forests (ENF) (1.57 to 2.05  
6 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, 1.2 to 2.25 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> and 0.93 to 4.02 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) (Fig. 11c and 11d). Higher  
7 *ET<sub>d,pred</sub>* errors in forests are related to the predominant cloudy-sky issue as described earlier.  
8 Tropical evergreen broadleaf forests (and forests in general) have high *ET*, water tends to re-  
9 cycle locally and generate rainfall. Therefore, cloudy sky conditions are more frequent at  
10 tropical evergreen broadleaf forest and other forests types than at grassland and shrublands. In  
11 the biome specific *ET<sub>d,pred</sub>* error statistics (Fig. 11), relatively large bias in crop *ET<sub>d,pred</sub>* is  
12 introduced due to the inclusion of irrigated agroecosystems in the validation. In irrigated  
13 agroecosystems, day-to-day variation in soil moisture is not substantial and *ET<sub>d</sub>* is  
14 predominantly controlled by the net radiation. Therefore, the inclusion of soil moisture in the  
15 current ANN framework is unlikely to improve *ET<sub>d,pred</sub>* statistics in the irrigated  
16 agroecosystems. Further having many explanatory variables (e.g., land management,  
17 irrigation statistics, anthropogenic factors) to train the ANN, we risk overfitting the model and  
18 hence introducing bias. It is also evident that both *R<sub>s</sub>* and *R<sub>s</sub>TOA*-based method of *ET<sub>d</sub>*  
19 estimation would be better suited for natural ecosystem e.g., in the Amazon basin or in the  
20 forest ecosystems where significant hydrological and climatological projections are  
21 emphasizing the role of *ET<sub>d</sub>* to understand the resilience of natural ecosystems in the spectre  
22 of hydro-climatological extremes (Harper et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2012). The performance of  
23 the method in the semi-arid shrublands appear to be promising (Fig. 11) and therefore the  
24 method seems to be credible under water-stressed environment also.

25 Given this analysis was based on FLUXNET sites distributed across 0-90 degrees latitude  
26 north and south, the training datasets covers substantial climatic and vegetation variability.  
27 The percentage distribution of the training data according to vegetation type was; 23% crops,  
28 31% deciduous broadleaf forest, 10% evergreen broadleaf forest, 20% evergreen need leaf  
29 forest, 8% grassland, 7% shrubs and 1% aquatic as indicated in table S1. The number of  
30 grassland and shrubs as indicated were relatively less as compared to the crops and forests  
31 sites. However, biome specific error statistics (Fig. 11) indicted the absence of any systematic

1 errors due to vegetation sampling with the exception of EBF. Availability of more EBF sites  
2 in the training datasets is expected to reduce the cloudy-sky errors substantially, due to the  
3 assimilation of more cloud information into the  $R_S$ -based ANN training.

4 The tendency of positive bias in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  from both  $R_S$  and  $R_{S_{TOA}}$  in clear skies from  
5 afternoon upscaling is partly explained by the fact that, during the afternoon the values of  
6 both  $R_S$  and  $R_{S_{TOA}}$  reached maximum limit and dominates their daily values (Jackson et al.,  
7 1983). The post afternoon rate of reduction in  $ET$  does not coincide with the shortwave  
8 radiation due to stomatal controls on  $ET$ , and the total water flux from morning to afternoon  
9 (0700h to 1300h) is generally greater than the total water flux from post afternoon (1500h  
10 onwards) till sunset. Therefore multiplying 1330h  $ET_i$  with high magnitude of  $R_{S_d}/R_{S_i}$  or  
11  $R_{S_d_{TOA}}/R_{S_i_{TOA}}$  might lead to an overestimation of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  in the clear sky days.

12 Since extraterrestrial shortwave radiation is not affected by the clouds,  $ET_{d\_pred}$  from  $R_{S_{TOA}}$   
13 performed comparably with the  $R_S$ -based  $ET_{d\_pred}$  with increasing atmospheric clearness (i.e.,  
14 for the higher levels of daily  $\tau$ ). However, increased differences in the RMSE of  $ET_{d\_pred}$   
15 between  $R_S$  and  $R_{S_{TOA}}$  upscaling in the predominantly cloudy days indicates that more  
16 deviations can be expected in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  from these two different method of upscaling under  
17 principally overcast conditions (Tang et al., 2013). This happens because the ratio of  $R_{S_d_{TOA}}$   
18  $/R_{S_i_{TOA}}$  is not impacted by the clouds and the magnitude of this ratio becomes markedly  
19 different from  $R_{S_d}/R_{S_i}$  ratio in the presence of clouds, which leads to the differences in  $ET_{d\_pred}$   
20 between them. The  $R_S$ -based method is relatively efficient to discriminate the impacts on  $ET$   
21 by  $R_{S_d}/R_{S_i}$  due to the clouds. The generally good performance of  $R_S$ -based method and  
22 comparable error statistics with  $R_{S_{TOA}}$ -based  $ET_d$  estimates are consistent with the findings  
23 of Cammalleri et al. (2014) and Van Niel et al. (2012). As shown in Table 2, relatively lower  
24 RMSE of  $R_{S_{TOA}}$ -based  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for atmospheric transmissivity class above 0.75 reveals that  
25 under pristine clear sky conditions  $R_{S_{TOA}}$  can be successfully used to upscale  $ET_i$ . However,  
26 one of the main reasons for the differences in RMSE between  $R_S$  and  $R_{S_{TOA}}$  method for daily  
27 transmissivity above 0.75 could be due to the fact that if  $ET_i$  upscaling is performed from a  
28 cloudy instance for a predominantly clear sky day, then such RMSE difference between the  
29 two different upscaling methods is expected. These results also revealed the probability of a  
30 hybrid  $ET_i$  upscaling method by combining cloud information or  $SM$  and  $P$  in  $R_S$ -method (for

1 transmissivity between zero to 0.5) and  $R_S TOA$ -method (for transmissivity greater than 0.5).  
2 However this hypothesis needs to be tested further.

3 The systematic  $ET_d$  underestimation by  $EF$ -based upscaling method and nearly similar pattern  
4 of bias from two different time-of-day upscaling (Table 2) further points to the fact that the  
5 concave-up shape of  $EF$  during daytime (Hoedjes et al., 2008; Tang et al., 2013) will tend to  
6 underestimate  $ET_d$  if  $EF$  is assumed to be conservative during the daytime.  $EF$  remains  
7 conservative during the daytime under extremely dry conditions when  $ET_d$  is solely driven by  
8 deep layer soil moisture. The systematic underestimation of  $ET_d$  from  $EF$ -based upscaling  
9 method corroborates with the results reported by other researchers (Cammalleri et al., 2014;  
10 Delogu et al., 2012; Gentine et al., 2007; Hoedjes et al., 2008) which suggests that the self-  
11 preservation of  $EF$  is not generally achieved, and this systematic underestimation of  $ET_d$  can  
12 be partially compensated if  $EF$ -based  $ET_i$  upscaling is done from morning 0900h or afternoon  
13 1600h time-of-day.

14 We further resampled  $ET_d$  (both predicted and observed) from daily to 8-day, monthly, and  
15 annual scale, and statistical metrics from the three different upscaling methods at three  
16 different temporal scales are shown in Fig. 12 and Table 3. Averaging  $ET_d$  at 8-day, monthly  
17 and annual scale substantially reduced the RMSE to the order of 60 to 70% for all the three  
18 upscaling methods. The  $R_S$ -based upscaled  $ET_d$  from morning and afternoon showed reduction  
19 in RMSE from 1.79 MJ to 0.57 MJ and 1.74 MJ to 0.51 MJ from daily to annual  $ET$ ,  
20 respectively. For the other two upscaling method these statistics varied from 1.85 and 1.89 MJ  
21 to 0.62 and 0.53 MJ ( $R_S TOA$  method), and 2.16 and 1.33 MJ to 2.20 and 1.31 MJ ( $EF$   
22 method) (Fig. 12 and Table 3). The impacts of daily cloud variability might have smoothed  
23 out in 8-day, monthly and annual scale which led to reduced RMSE and higher correlation  
24 between  $ET_{d\_pred}$  and  $ET_{d\_obs}$ . Nearly similar error statistics in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  from both the morning  
25 and afternoon upscaling also substantiates the findings of Ryu et al. (2012) and greatly  
26 stimulate the use of either morning satellite (i.e., Terra) or after satellite (i.e., Aqua) to upscale  
27  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  or 8-day mean  $ET_d$ .

28 The principal limitation of the approach is the dependence of  $ET_d$  and  $R_{Sd}$  on single snapshot  
29 of  $ET_i$  and  $R_{Si}$ . Although hourly  $R_S$  data from geostationary satellite are becoming available;  
30 but these are available as sectorial products (i.e. for particular continents) instead of full

1 global coverage. Ongoing efforts to develop geostationary based data by merging multiple  
2 geostationary satellites tend to overcome this limitation.

### 3 **3.4 Impact of energy balance closure on $ET_{d\_pred}$**

4 FLUXNET EC sites have long been identified to be prone to surface energy budget  
5 imbalance, which might lead to ( $\pm 20\%$ ) to ( $\pm 40\%$ ) under measurement of latent heat fluxes.  
6 In order to assess the impacts of surface energy balance (SEB) closure on current  $ET_d$   
7 prediction, we further compared the error statistics of  $R_S$ -based  $ET_{d\_pred}$  (Table 4) for both  
8 ‘closed’ and ‘unclosed’ surface energy balance datasets. These are the subsets of the data  
9 where all the four SEB components ( $\lambda E$ , sensible heat flux, ground heat flux, and net  
10 radiation) were available and SEB was closed by the Bowen ratio closure method (Foken,  
11 2006). Table 4 revealed substantially low RMSE (10 to 60%),  $R^2$  (8 to 100%) and MAPE (1  
12 to 75%) in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  when  $ET_i$  upscaling is done by ‘unclosed’ SEB. A consistently high  
13 positive mean bias (0.63 to 3.83) in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  with ‘closed’ SEB was also noted (Table 4).  
14 Although, various methods exist to close the surface energy balance, but, the impact of  
15 various SEB closure methods on  $ET_{d\_pred}$  statistics is beyond the scope of the current study. It  
16 is also important to mention that in the satellite based  $ET_i$  retrieval, net available energy is  
17 partitioned into  $ET$  and sensible heat flux with the implicit assumption of SEB closure.  
18 Therefore, application of the current ANN framework is expected not to impact the remote  
19 sensing based  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  upscaling. However, for the validation of remote sensing based  $ET_d$   
20 retrievals, surface energy balance fluxes from eddy covariance measurements need to be  
21 closed.

### 22 **3.5 Sensitivity of ANN derived $ET_{d\_pred}$ to biome selection**

23 A sensitivity analysis of ANN derived  $R_S$ -based  $ET_{d\_pred}$  revealed variable sensitivity of the  
24 ANN framework to the biome selection. The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) varied between  
25 0.71 to 0.84 and RMSE between 0.96 to 2.10  $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  across three different scenarios of  
26 ANN training and validation (Fig. 13). However, RMSE was found to be relatively high in  
27 forests in Case2, where ANN was trained by using the data from crops, grasslands and  
28 shrublands only. For the Case1 and Case3, no substantial difference was noted (Fig. 13). This  
29 therefore revealed the fact that the inclusion of forests in ANN training leads to lower errors  
30 in  $ET_{d\_pred}$  over non-forest biomes, although the reverse scenario is not likely to be true. Since

1 forests generally have high  $ET$ , water recycling tends to be more over the forests which  
2 produces substantial rainfall, variable atmospheric water vapor, associated cloudiness, and  
3 radiation. Cloudiness is a phenomenon that significantly influences the reliability of a model  
4 to predict incoming solar radiation as they are directly related to each other. Therefore, when  
5  $R_S$ -based ANN is trained with data from forests, the model assimilates information on a  
6 diverse range of radiative forcings which broaden their applicability in other biomes. This  
7 also emphasizes the fact that the performance of such ANN-based approach is primarily  
8 sensitive to their training over a broad spectrum of atmospheric conditions.

#### 9 **4 Summary and Conclusions**

10 Given the significance of  $ET_d$  in remote sensing based water resource management from polar  
11 orbiting satellites, this study developed and evaluated a temporal upscaling method for  
12 estimating  $ET_d$  from different time-of-day instantaneous  $ET$  ( $ET_i$ ) measurements with the  
13 assumption that the ratio between daytime to instantaneous shortwave radiation ( $R_{Sd}/R_{Si}$ ) is the  
14 predominant factor governing  $ET_d/ET_i$  ratio. However, since  $R_{Sd}$  is not directly measurable  
15 from the polar orbiting satellites, we trained an ANN with the FLUXNET observations of  $R_{Si}$   
16 and  $R_{Sd}$ , and validated the model to predict  $R_{Sd}$  over independent sites, followed by using  
17  $R_{Sd}/R_{Si}$  ratio for converting  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$ . The overarching goal of this study is to provide an  
18 operational and robust  $ET_i$  upscaling protocol for estimating  $ET_d$  from any polar orbiting  
19 satellite. The datasets used for the ANN model development covers a wide range of biome,  
20 climate, and variable sky conditions. Therefore, we assume the  $R_{Sd}$  prediction from ANN to  
21 capture a broad spectrum of radiative forcing, which is also reflected in the independent  
22 validation of  $R_{Sd}$  and  $ET_d$  (Fig. 5, Fig. 7, Table 2). However, the performance of this model  
23 for satellite retrieval of  $R_{Sd}$  (from  $R_{Si}$ ) is dependent on the accuracy of  $R_{Si}$  retrieval (Loew et  
24 al., 2016). Also, the distribution of sites over the tropics, Africa, and South East Asia are  
25 poor, and more sites over these regions are expected to make the ANN model performance  
26 more robust.

27 Based on measurements from 126 flux tower sites, we found  $R_S$ -based upscaled  $ET_d$  to  
28 produce a significant linear relation ( $R^2 = 0.65$  to  $0.69$ ), little bias ( $-0.31$  to  $-0.56$   $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ )  
29 (appx. 4%), and good agreement (RMSE  $1.55$  to  $1.86$   $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) (appx. 10%) with the  
30 observed  $ET_d$ . While the exoatmospheric shortwave radiation driven  $ET_i$  upscaling method

1 (i.e.,  $R_{S}TOA$ -based) appeared to produce slightly lower RMSE (10% lower) under cloud-free  
2 conditions (Table 2), global shortwave radiation driven method (i.e.,  $R_S$ -based method)  
3 demonstrates more robust performance and was found to be better under cloudy conditions.  
4 Despite  $R_S$ -based method yielded relatively better overall accuracy in  $ET_d$  prediction (i.e.,  
5  $ET_{d\_pred}$ ) statistics when compared with the  $R_{S}TOA$  and evaporative fraction based ( $EF$ -based)  
6 method, statistical analysis of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  accuracy of different temporal upscaling methods (as  
7 discussed in section 3.3) suggests that  $R_S$  and  $R_{S}TOA$  to produce commensurate results under  
8 coarse temporal resolutions (Table 3). Therefore, at the coarse temporal scale (8-day and  
9 above), any of these two methods ( $R_S$  and  $R_{S}TOA$ ) can be used for  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  upscaling.

10 The proposed upscaling method is based on the idea that instantaneous  $ET/R_S$  is equal to daily  
11  $ET/R_S$ , although it implicitly includes the stomatal controls on  $ET$  observations mediated by  
12 the vegetation. The cases where  $ET_i$  is low due to water stress induced strong stomatal  
13 control; low magnitude of  $ET$  will also be reflected in upscaling  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$  (according to eq.  
14 1). However, to account for any carry over effects of the stomatal control on  $ET_d$ , inclusion of  
15 longwave radiation would likely to improve the scheme. Stomatal control is significantly  
16 dependent on the thermal longwave radiative components, and, therefore, the relative  
17 proportion of downwelling and upwelling longwave radiation is expected to be a stomatal  
18 constraint. However, the availability of longwave radiation measurement stations in the  
19 FLUXNET datasets is limited to formulate ANN and evaluate this hypothesis. In general, the  
20 stomatal and biophysical constraints are imposed in state-of-the-art thermal remote sensing  
21 based  $ET_i$  retrieval schemes, and, therefore the ANN framework can be applied to upscale  
22 remote sensing based  $ET_i$  to  $ET_d$ . Also, relatively good performance of the model in semiarid  
23 shrubland also indicated the applicability of the method in water stressed ecosystems where  
24 stomatal controls are predominant.

25 Among all the upscaling method tested,  $R_S$ -based method carries maximum information on  
26 the cloudiness and produced generally lowest RMSE, low bias (Table 3), and, therefore,  
27 overall the preferably robust scaling mechanism (at the daily scale) among all the other  
28 methods tested. The true added value of the ANN is for an operational  $ET_d$  product from polar  
29 satellites. Currently, the polar Earth orbiting satellites provide us with  $ET_i$  only. However, for  
30 most hydrological and ecosystem modeling applications,  $ET_d$  is needed. Therefore, for studies  
31 that will opt to apply  $R_S$ -based method as a scaling algorithm,  $R_{Sd}$  will be easily available for

1 any measurement of  $R_{Si}$  by the satellite using the ANN. However, upscaling large-area  
2 satellite-based  $ET_i$  by using retrieved  $R_{Si}$  would require accurate  $R_{Si}$  retrieval techniques,  
3 which are currently commonplace (Ahmad et al., 2015; Boulifa et al., 2015; Dahmani et al.,  
4 2016; Hasni et al., 2012; Li, Tang, Wu, & Liu, 2013) to support regional scale hydrological  
5 applications. Of the two other upscaling methods,  $R_S TOA$  could be easily applied over large  
6 areas, had lower errors than  $EF$ , had second best RMSE, and overall lowest bias among the  
7 two. We conclude that using modelled  $R_S$  to upscale  $ET_i$  at daily scale appears to be viable for  
8 large-area hydrological remote sensing applications from polar orbiting satellites irrespective  
9 of any sky conditions.

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1 **Table 1:** Statistical analysis of the performance of ANN in predicting  $R_{Sd}$  under varying sky  
 2 conditions represented by four different classes of daily atmospheric transmissivity ( $\tau$ ). Here the  
 3 statistical metrics of  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  for two different upscaling hours (1100 and 1330 h) are presented.

Time-of-day (h)	$\tau$	$R^2$	RMSE ( $MJ\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ )	IA	MAPE	Bias ( $MJ\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$ )
1100	$\tau_1$	0.67	1.84	0.67	53.56	1.12
	$\tau_2$	0.79	2.45	0.80	16.69	0.59
	$\tau_3$	0.88	2.30	0.82	9.17	-0.74
	$\tau_4$	0.98	0.63	0.95	1.69	0.08
1330	$\tau_1$	0.65	1.77	0.67	51.50	1.06
	$\tau_2$	0.81	2.44	0.81	16.83	0.69
	$\tau_3$	0.89	2.23	0.83	8.94	-0.85
	$\tau_4$	0.98	0.89	0.95	2.40	-0.46

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1 **Table 2:** A summary of  $ET_d$  error statistics by comparing the performance of  $R_S$ -based,  $R_{S}TOA$ -based and  $EF$ -based  $ET_i$   
 2 upscaling methods with regard to different sky conditions. Here  $\tau_1$  represents low atmospheric transmissivity due to high  
 3 cloudiness while  $\tau_4$  represents high transmissivity under clear sky conditions.

Time-of-day (h)	$\tau$	$R^2$			RMSE ( $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ )			IA			MAPE			Bias ( $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ )		
		$R_S$	$R_{S}TOA$	$EF$	$R_S$	$R_{S}TOA$	$EF$	$R_S$	$R_{S}TOA$	$EF$	$R_S$	$R_{S}TOA$	$EF$	$R_S$	$R_{S}TOA$	$EF$
1100	$\tau_1$	0.49	0.32	0.32	1.34	1.65	2.07	0.72	0.67	0.71	50.14	66.70	64.19	-0.13	-0.04	0.05
	$\tau_2$	0.72	0.70	0.69	1.73	1.81	1.93	0.81	0.78	0.69	26.47	32.41	36.42	-0.21	-0.19	-0.95
	$\tau_3$	0.72	0.73	0.79	1.99	1.94	2.38	0.81	0.79	0.59	24.69	25.66	40.37	-0.24	-0.37	-1.78
	$\tau_4$	0.77	0.81	0.68	1.32	1.13	2.00	0.84	0.81	0.49	32.17	30.02	55.43	0.05	-0.19	-1.34
1330	$\tau_1$	0.52	0.34	0.29	1.21	1.68	2.34	0.73	0.69	0.71	48.29	66.09	68.14	-0.11	0.08	0.12
	$\tau_2$	0.73	0.72	0.71	1.71	1.93	1.86	0.82	0.79	0.71	26.12	33.71	35.33	-0.01	0.24	-0.88
	$\tau_3$	0.75	0.75	0.76	1.89	1.96	2.43	0.82	0.82	0.61	23.17	25.82	41.65	0.09	0.14	-1.75
	$\tau_4$	0.79	0.86	0.80	1.32	1.09	1.86	0.84	0.86	0.49	29.54	26.59	53.91	0.10	0.11	-1.38

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1 **Table 3:** Error statistics of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  at four different temporal scales from three  $ET_i$  upscaling methods.

Time-of-day (h)	Temporal scale	$R^2$			RMSE ( $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ )			IA			MAPE			Bias ( $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ )		
		$R_S$	$R_{S\text{TOA}}$	$EF$	$R_S$	$R_{S\text{TOA}}$	$EF$	$R_S$	$R_{S\text{TOA}}$	$EF$	$R_S$	$R_{S\text{TOA}}$	$EF$	$R_S$	$R_{S\text{TOA}}$	$EF$
1100	Daily	0.71	0.72	0.71	1.79	1.85	2.16	0.82	0.80	0.67	28.80	32.98	57.00	0.19	0.22	1.21
	8-days	0.86	0.84	0.85	1.17	1.22	1.65	0.87	0.86	0.67	18.50	20.63	46.96	0.19	0.22	1.16
	Monthly	0.89	0.88	0.88	0.99	1.04	1.61	0.89	0.67	0.67	15.52	17.22	49.72	0.19	0.22	1.16
	Annually	0.92	0.91	0.93	0.57	0.62	1.33	0.87	0.84	0.54	11.12	12.54	45.88	0.19	0.22	1.21
1330	Daily	0.75	0.74	0.69	1.74	1.89	2.2	0.83	0.82	0.67	26.59	29.89	56.45	-0.04	0.17	-1.18
	8-days	0.87	0.86	0.84	1.11	1.21	1.7	0.88	0.88	0.68	16.80	17.97	50.36	-0.04	0.17	-1.18
	Monthly	0.90	0.90	0.87	0.93	1.00	1.59	0.90	0.89	0.68	13.69	14.85	48.08	-0.04	0.17	-1.18
	Annually	0.93	0.93	0.92	0.51	0.53	1.31	0.88	0.88	0.54	9.00	9.70	44.13	-0.04	0.17	-1.18

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1 **Table 4:** Evaluation of the  $R_g$ -based ANN predicted  $ET_d$  ( $ET_{d\_pred}$ ) error statistics based on ‘closed’ (EBC) and unclosed’ (EBO) surface energy balance  
2 under varying sky conditions represented by four different classes of daily atmospheric transmissivity ( $\tau$ ). Here  $\tau_1$  represents low atmospheric  
3 transmissivity due to high cloudiness while  $\tau_4$  represents high transmissivity under clear sky conditions. The statistical metrics of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for two  
4 different upscaling hours (1100 and 1330 h) are presented.

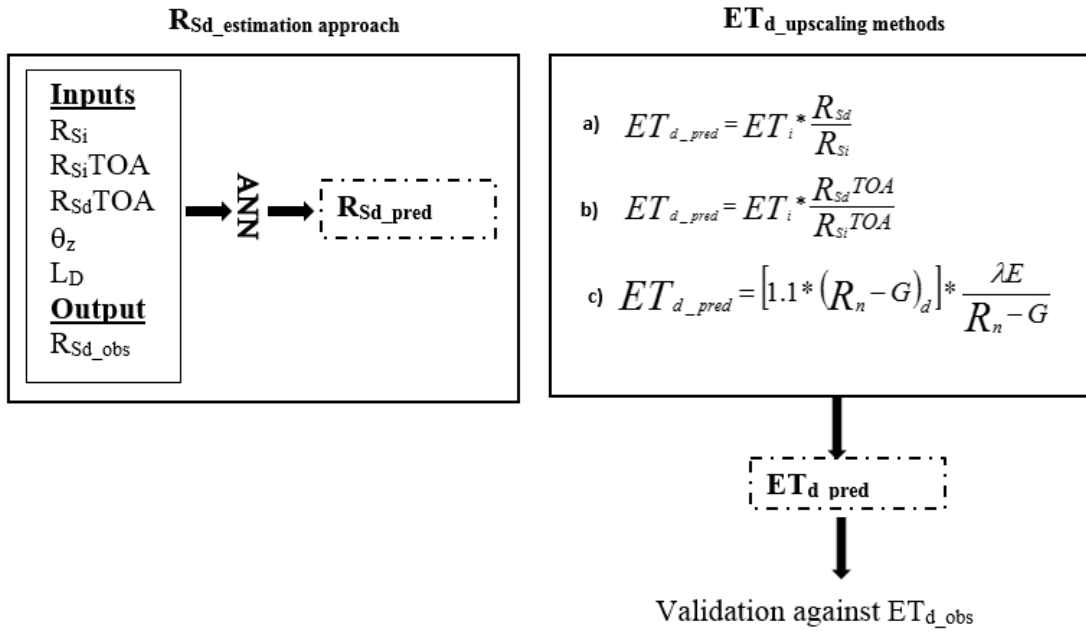
Time-of-day (h)	$\tau$	$R^2$		RMSE (MJ m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )		IA		MAPE		Bias (MJ m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	
		EBO	EBC	EBO	EBC	EBO	EBC	EBO	EBC	EBO	EBC
1100	$\tau_1$	0.37	0.17	2.96	3.31	0.71	0.57	87.21	86.49	0.66	1.12
	$\tau_2$	0.68	0.54	1.64	2.94	0.78	0.68	28.66	38.01	-0.10	0.65
	$\tau_3$	0.75	0.61	1.77	3.20	0.76	0.66	25.31	37.82	-0.67	1.34
	$\tau_4$	0.66	0.61	1.09	3.40	0.71	0.30	21.77	85.80	-0.31	3.83
1330	$\tau_1$	0.35	0.25	2.02	2.70	0.71	0.60	69.78	78.18	0.37	0.87
	$\tau_2$	0.76	0.5	1.54	3.27	0.81	0.69	27.56	40.98	0.23	0.63
	$\tau_3$	0.77	0.59	1.66	3.18	0.80	0.70	23.16	34.17	-0.46	0.76
	$\tau_4$	0.84	0.64	0.98	2.46	0.76	0.66	23.30	43.89	-0.56	1.23

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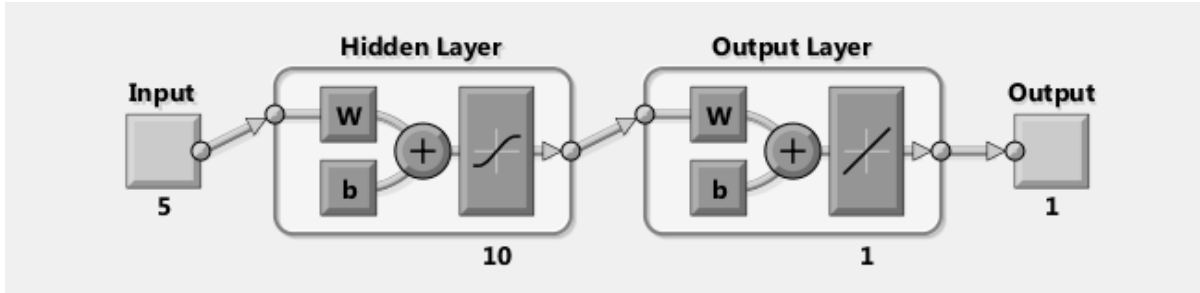
**Figure 1.** A conceptual diagram of the methodology. On the left side is a representation of predicting daily incoming short wave radiation ( $R_{Sd\_pred}$ ). The ANN is trained to learn the system response to a combination of explanatory variables i.e. instantaneous incoming short wave radiation ( $R_{Si}$ ), instantaneous exo-atmospheric shortwave radiation ( $R_{SiTOA}$ ), daily exo-atmospheric shortwave radiation ( $R_{SdTOA}$ ), solar zenith angle ( $\theta_z$ ), and day length ( $L_D$ ), by being fed with a sample data of observed daily incoming short wave radiation ( $R_{Sd\_obs}$ ) which is the dependant variable. On the right side are methods of upscaling instantaneous ( $ET_i$ ) to daily ET ( $ET_d$ ) using our  $R_S$ -based method (a) and other two approaches (b, c) are the  $R_{STOA}$  and  $EF$ -based methods respectively used which are used for comparison.



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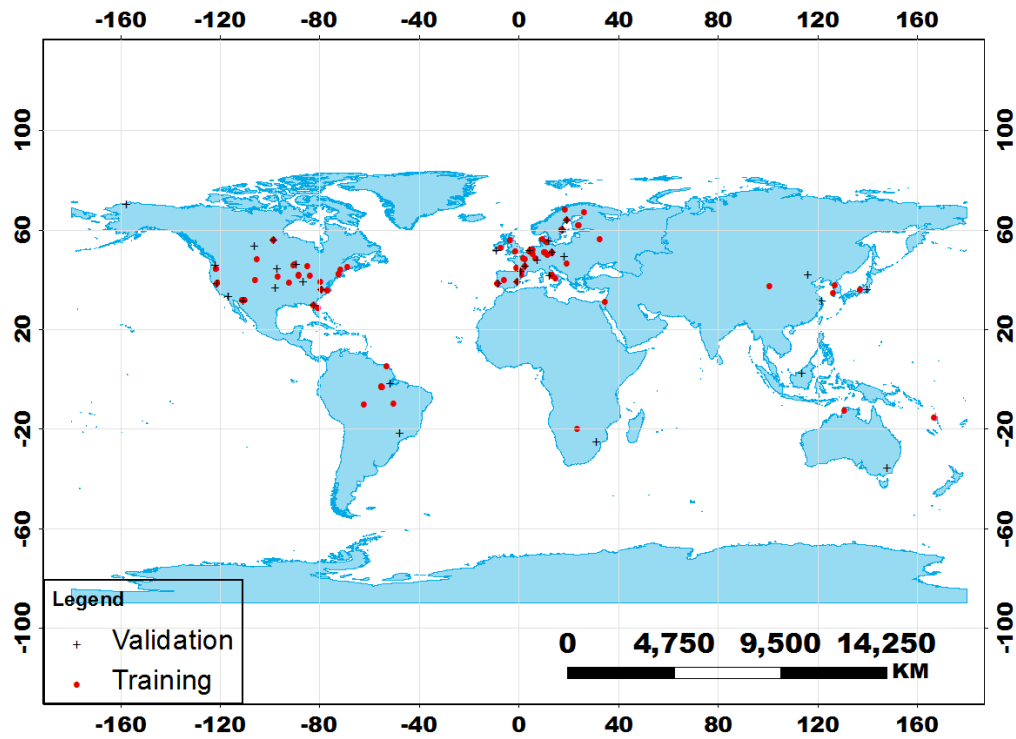
**Figure 2.** Schematic representation of a simple artificial network model. The artificial neuron has five input variables, for the intended output. These inputs are then assigned weights ( $W$ ) and bias ( $b$ ), and the sum of all these products ( $\Sigma$ ) is fed to an activation function ( $f$ ). The activation function alters the signal accordingly and passes the signal to the next neuron(s) until the output of the model is reached (Mathworks, 2015).



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**Figure 3.** Distribution of 126 sites of the FLUXNET eddy covariance network used in the present study with 85 and 41 sites for training and validation, respectively between the years 1999 and 2006.



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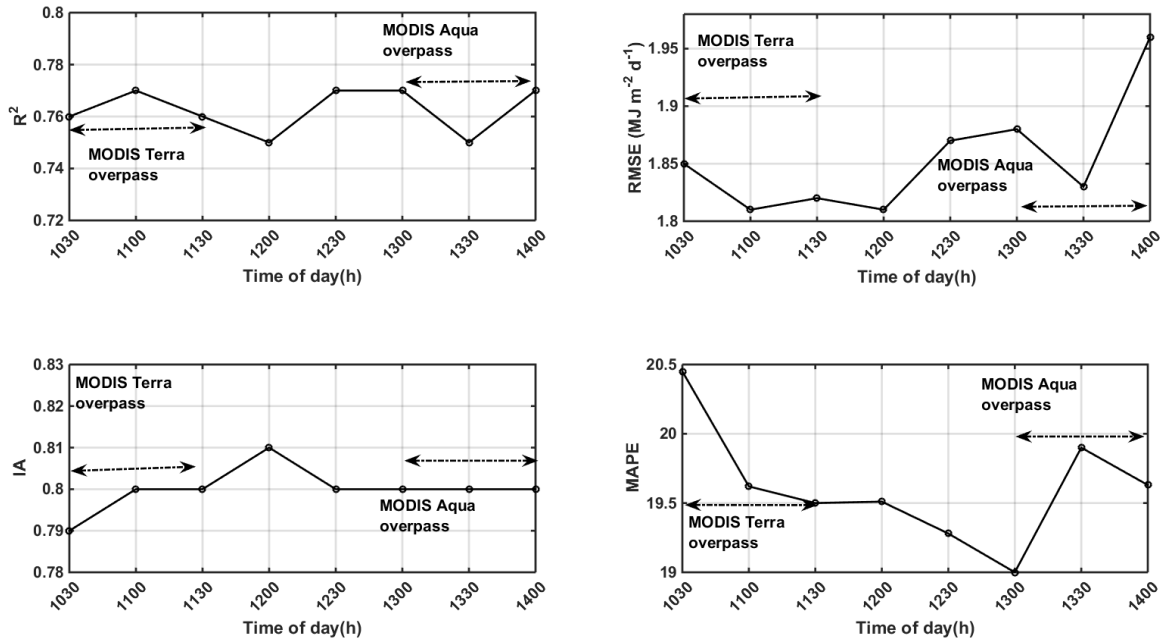
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**Figure 4.** Statistical metric of  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  by ANN for different time-of-day. As the study is intended for remote sensing application, we demonstrate the potential of the method for future research in the case where satellite will be used and as such we pick MODIS overpass time as an example to highlight on the predictive ability of the ANN at the specific overpass times.



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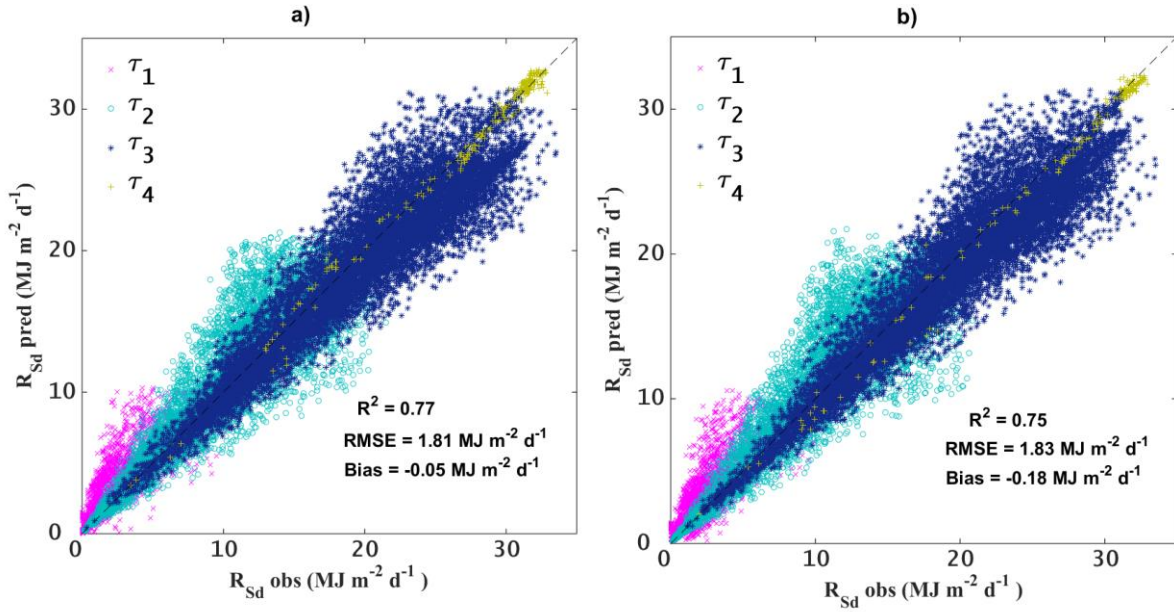
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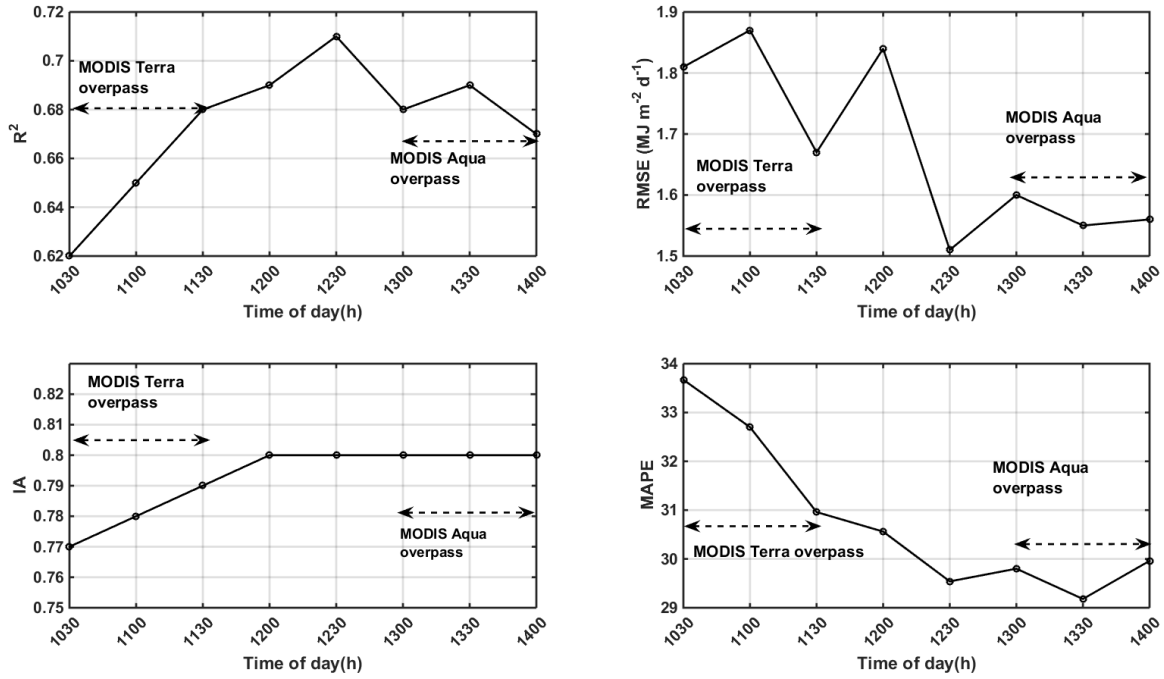
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**Figure 5.** Scatter plots between  $R_{Sd\_obs}$  versus  $R_{Sd\_pred}$  for different levels of daily atmospheric transmissivity classes ( $\tau$ ) from (a) 1100 and (b) 1330 hours upscaling. Here  $\tau_1$ – $\tau_4$  represent daily atmospheric transmissivity of four different class,  $0.25 \geq \tau \geq 0$ ,  $0.50 \geq \tau \geq 0.25$ ,  $0.75 \geq \tau \geq 0.50$ , and  $1 \geq \tau \geq 0.75$ , respectively, with  $\tau_1$  signifying high degree of cloudiness (or overcast skies) whereas  $\tau_4$  indicates clear skies.



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**Figure 6.** Statistical summary of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for different time-of-day using Eq. (1) based on  $R_{Si}$  and  $R_{Sd\_pred}$ . As the study is intended for remote sensing application, we once again demonstrate the potential of the method for future research in the case where satellite will be used and as such we pick MODIS Terra-Aqua overpass time.



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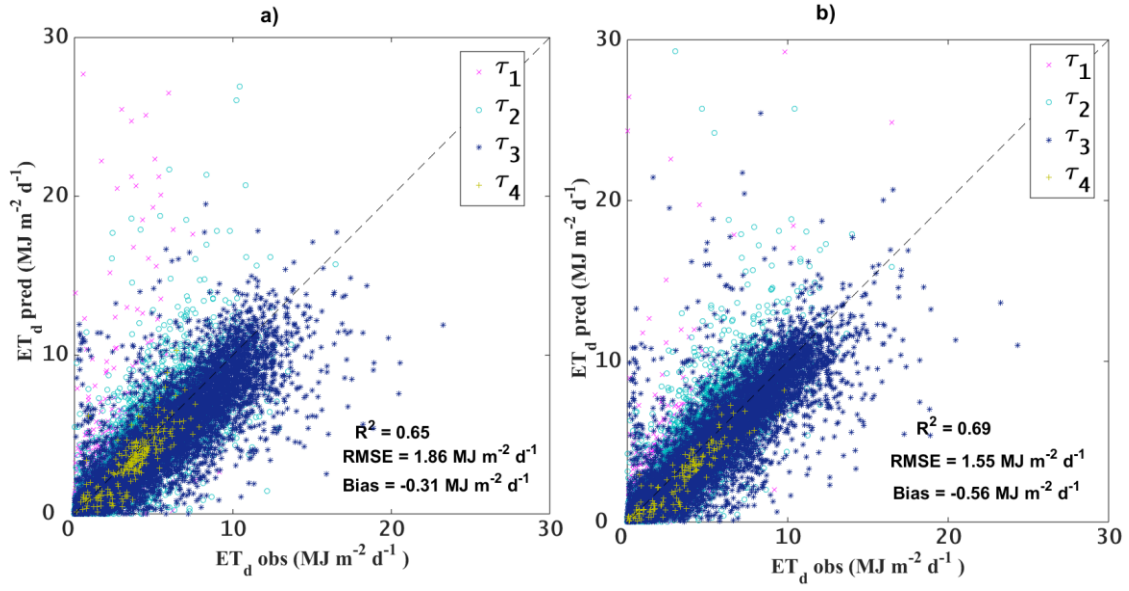
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**Figure 7.**  $ET_{d\_pred}$  obtained through eq. (1) versus  $ET_{d\_obs}$  for different levels of  $\tau$  from both forenoon (a) and afternoon (b) upscaling (1100 and 1300 h daytime hours).



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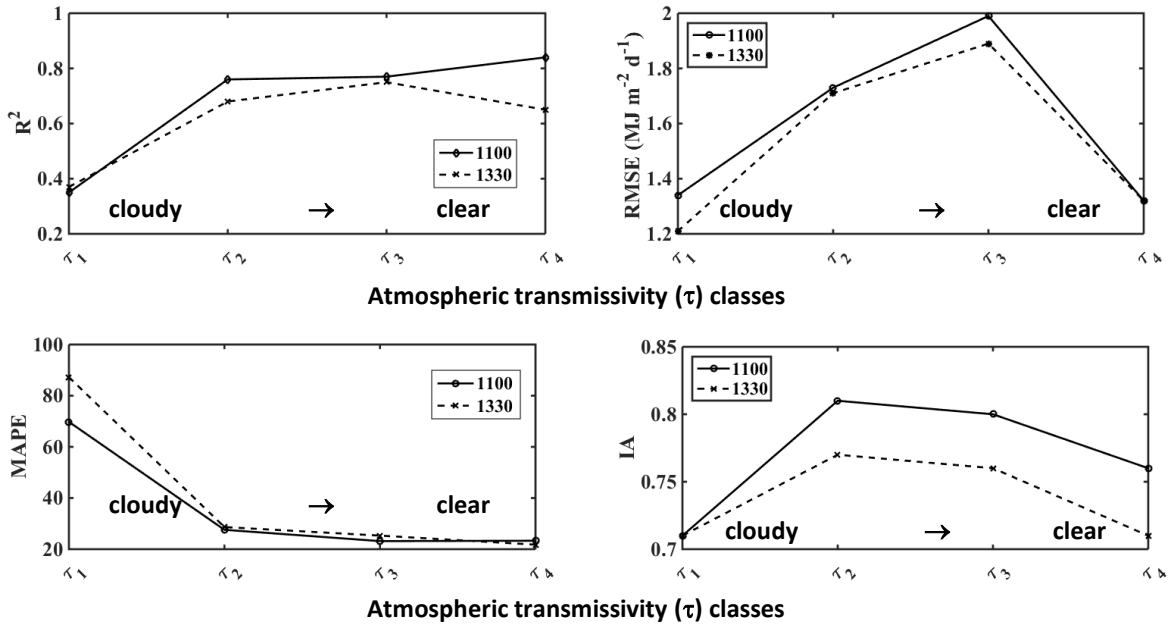
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**Figure 8.** Assessing the statistical metrics of  $ET_{d,pred}$  (using eq.1) for different levels of daily atmospheric transmissivity classes (representing cloudy to clear skies) for both 1100h and 1330h time-of-day  $ET_i$  scaling.



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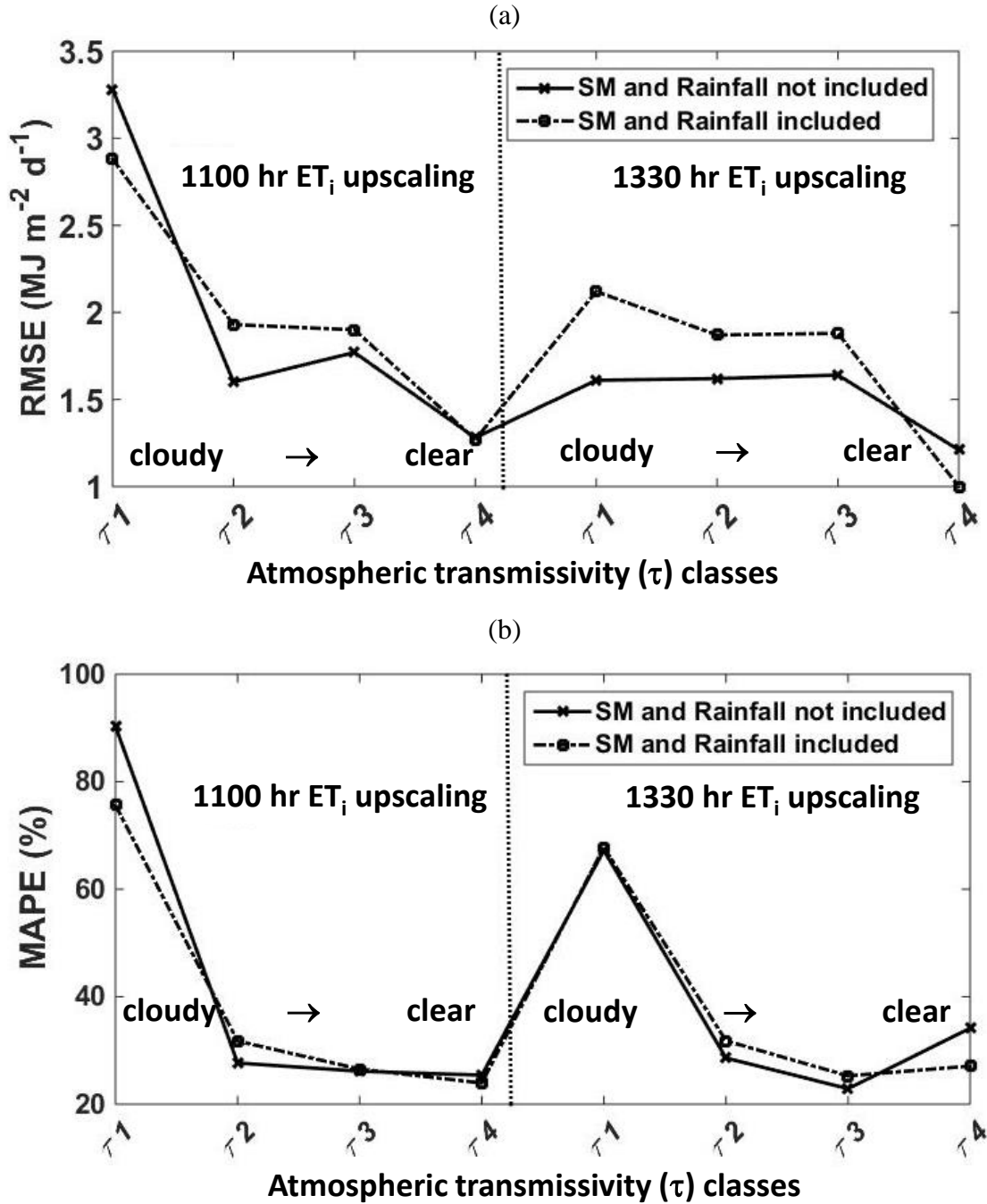
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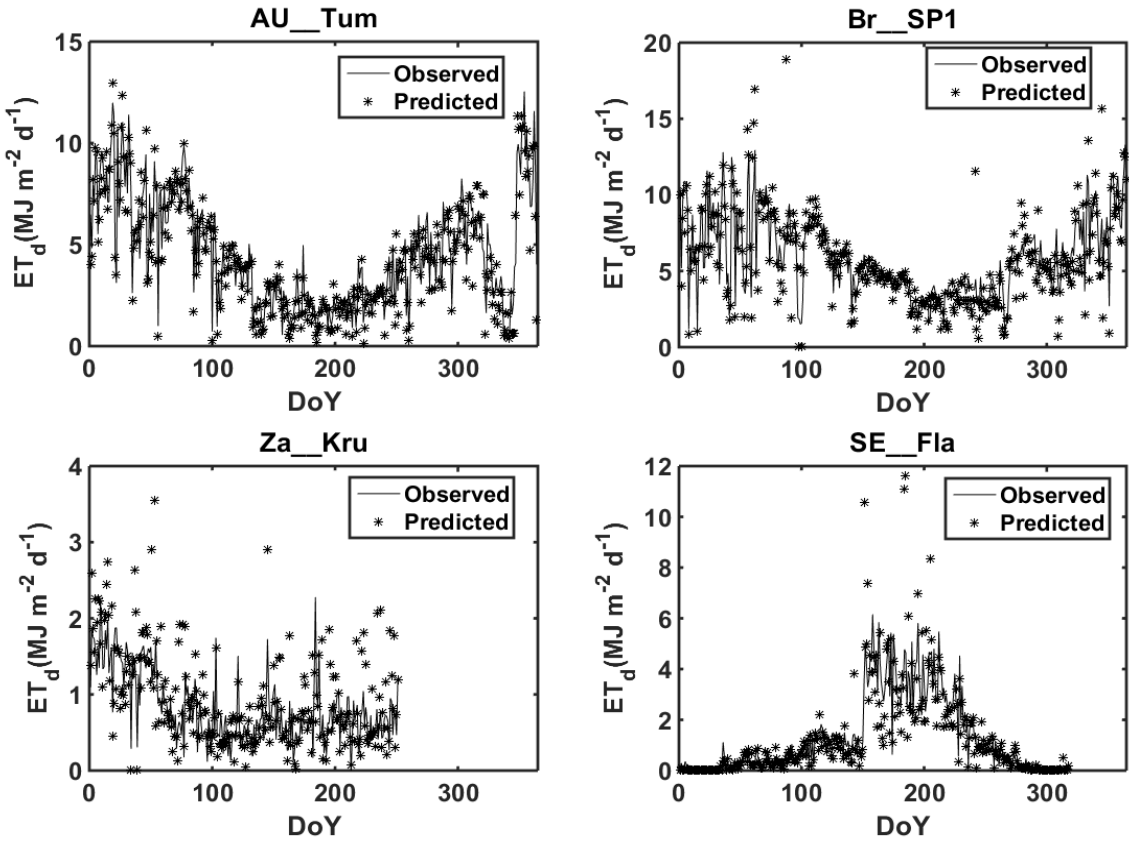
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**Figure 9.** An intercomparison of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  error statistics (RMSE and MAPE) for different levels of atmospheric transmissivity classes based on two different ANN training (ANN trained with shortwave radiation and astronomical variables only; and ANN trained with radiation, astronomical variables, soil moisture and rainfall) based on 1100h and 1330h time-of-day  $ET_i$  scaling.

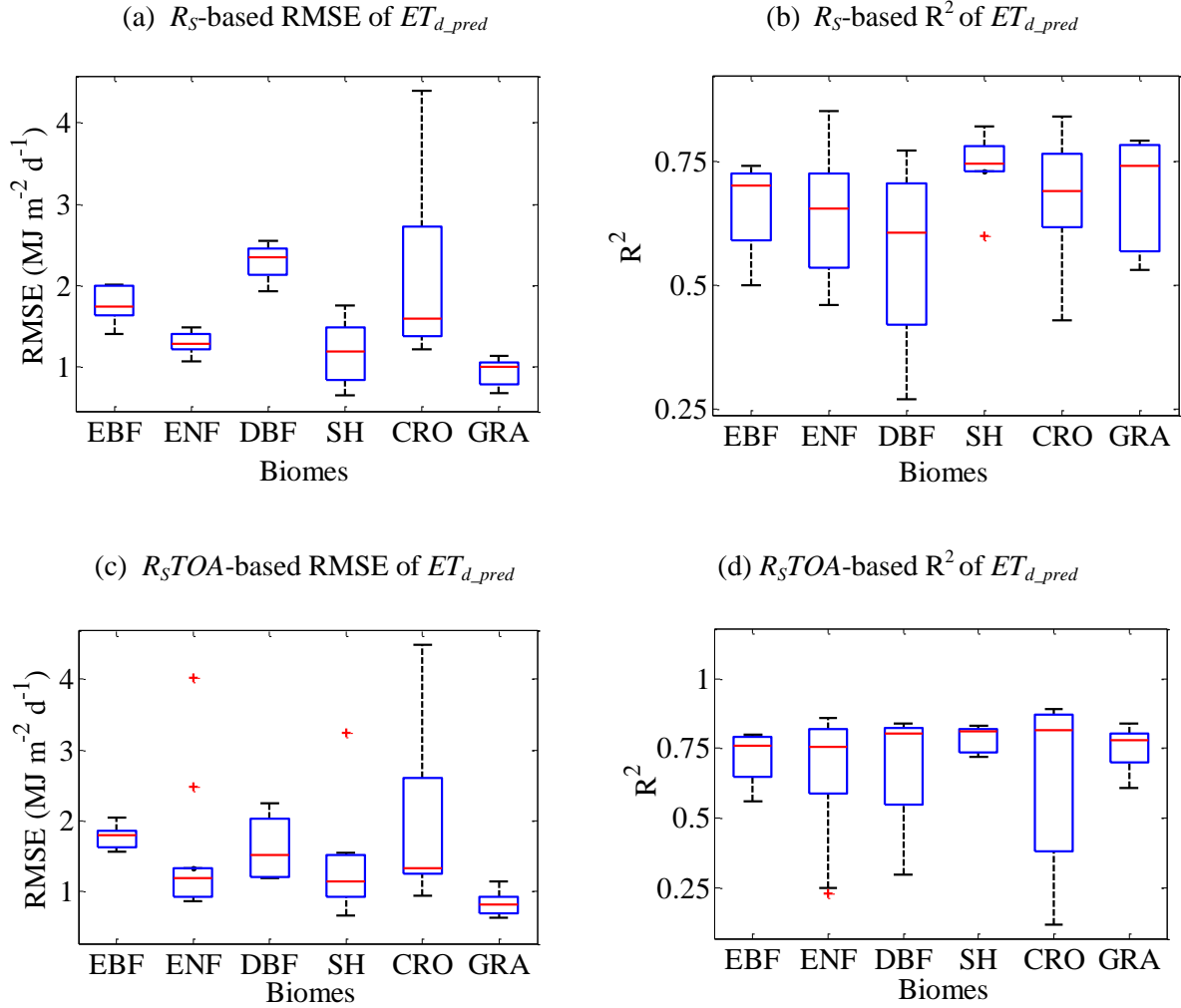


**Figure 10.** Time series comparison between observed and predicted  $ET_d$  for four representative sites located in Australia, Brazil, South Africa and Sweden.



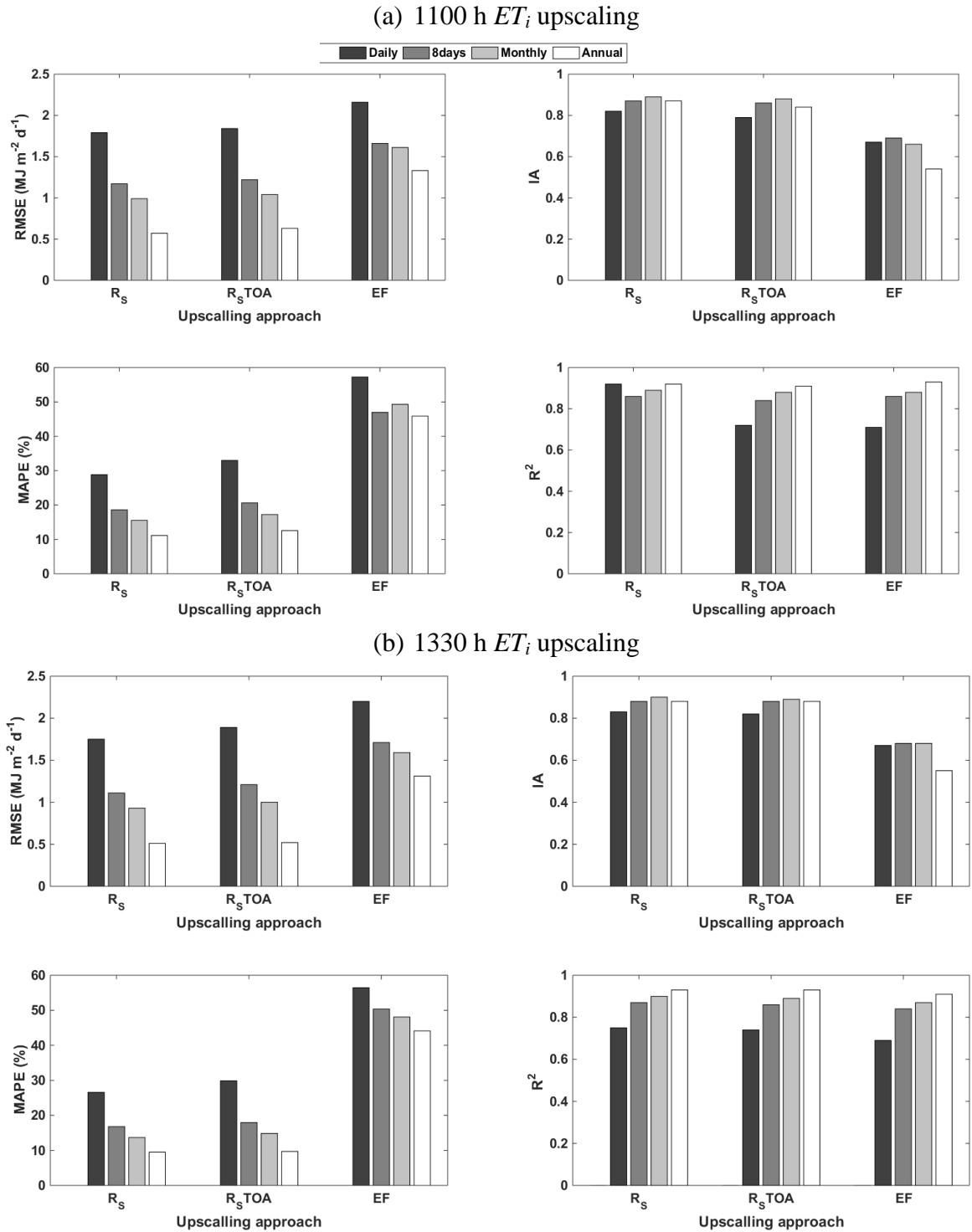
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**Figure 11.** Biome specific error characteristics of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  displaying the box plots of RMSE and coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) from both  $R_S$ -based and  $R_{S\text{TOA}}$ -based  $ET_i$  upscaling. The biome classes are evergreen broadleaf forest (EBF), evergreen needleleaf forest (ENF), deciduous broadleaf forest (DBF), shrubland (SH), cropland (CRO), and grassland (GRA), respectively.



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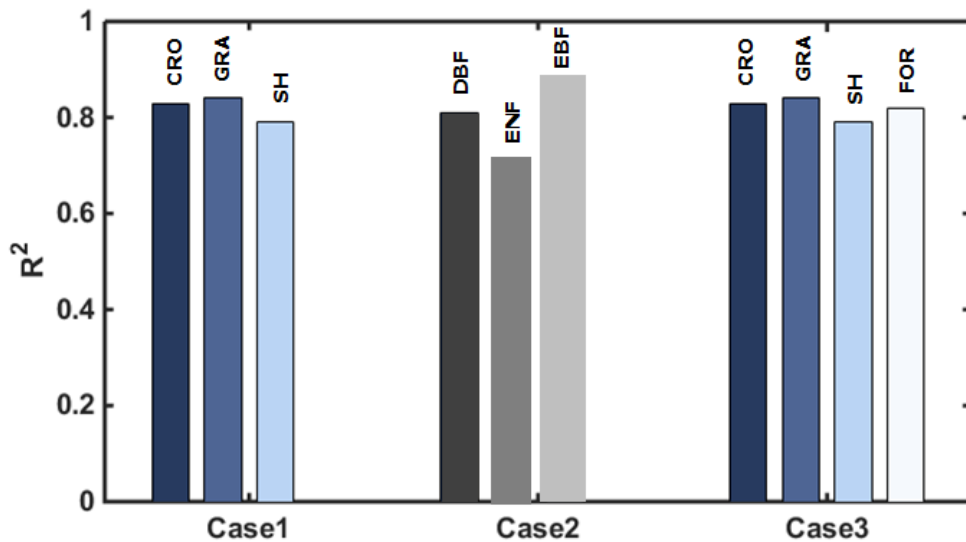
**Figure 12.** Statistical metrics of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  from three different  $ET_i$  upscaling approaches [shortwave incoming radiation ( $R_s$ ), exo-atmospheric shortwave radiation ( $R_{sTOA}$ ) and evaporative fraction ( $EF$ )] at different temporal scales based on  $ET_i$  measurements at (a) 1100h and (b) 1330h time-of-day.



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**Figure 13.** Illustrative examples of the sensitivity of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  error statistics ( $R^2$  and RMSE) to the different biome type scenarios of ANN training. Here, Case1 consist of training the ANN with forest (FOR) datasets and evaluating ANN predicted  $ET_d$  statistics on non-forest biomes, Case2 consist of training the ANN with non-forest datasets and evaluating ANN predicted  $ET_d$  statistics on forest biomes, Case3 consist of training the ANN with both forests and non-forest datasets and evaluating ANN predicted  $ET_d$  statistics on all the biomes.

(a)  $R^2$  of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for three different ANN training scenarios



(b) RMSE of  $ET_{d\_pred}$  for three different ANN training scenarios

