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A scale-aware parameterization for estimating subgrid variability of downward solar radiation using high-resolution Digital Elevation Model data

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Key points

- Subgrid variability of downward solar radiation and subgrid variability of terrain are connected in a straightforward way through this study.

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- The proposed scheme provides an effective approach to include high-resolution topographic information in a coarse model grid cell.
- The proposed scheme can be used in any hydrological or land-surface model to estimate variance of downward solar radiation within each model grid cell.

Abstract

Subgrid variability of solar downward radiation at the surface can be important in estimating subgrid variability of other radiation-driven variables, such as snowmelt and soil temperature. However, this information is ignored in current hydrological and weather prediction models as only the mean downward solar radiation of model grid is used. In this study, a parameterization for estimating subgrid variability of downward solar radiation from the model grid mean using high-resolution Digital Elevation Model (DEM) data is proposed. This scheme considers aspect and slope effects on the subgrid variability. The advantage of this scheme is that computations are performed at the same resolution as the considered hydrological or weather prediction model, and subgrid topographic properties derived from high-resolution DEM data are used as static inputs. This proposed scheme has been verified in mountainous and flat areas, respectively. It is found that the scheme can well estimate the subgrid variability of downward solar radiation. Also, effects of the DEM resolution on the calculated subgrid variability and the spatial correlation of downward solar radiation are studied. Results show that modeled subgrid variability highly depends on the resolution of the DEM, while the spatial correlation is negligibly time-dependent. The proposed scheme can be used in any hydrological and weather prediction model to estimate subgrid variability of downward solar radiation. For example, it is planned to be tested in future NOAA regional and global

weather models to account for the effects of the subgrid variability of downward solar radiation on the snow model of the land-surface component.

1 Introduction

Solar radiation is the energy source for all forms of life, and it determines dynamics of many landscape processes such as transport of soil temperature and moisture, snowmelt, photosynthesis and transpiration, with direct impact on human society (Hofierka and Suri, 2002). Among others, the spatial variability of solar radiation affects the hydrological cycle and surface energy budget. For example, it affects snowmelt rate, and this contributes to the spatial variability of snow distribution (He et al., 2019). Further, the spatial variability of snow distribution results in differences in surface energy fluxes, which can potentially affect the vertical structures and mixing processes in the atmospheric boundary layer (Wu et al., 2015).

The subgrid variability issue is common in Earth-system models at almost any spatial resolution. Recently, the hydrology community identified 23 unsolved scientific problems in hydrology, and four of them are related to spatial variability and scaling (Blöschl et al., 2019). Generally, a common basic assumption in Earth-system models is that state variables and processes are uniform within a model grid, which is determined by the spatial resolution (Yano, 2016). However, elements of the Earth system are generally heterogeneous and the part of spatial variability within a model grid, referred to as subgrid variability, still could be substantial. Basically, two long-established approaches are used in the practice for representing subgrid variability. One is the statistical dynamic approach (e.g. Avissar, 1992; Liang et al., 1996) and the other is the mosaic approach (e.g. Avissar and Pielke, 1989; Smirnova et al., 2016). In general, the spatial resolution of atmospheric and land-surface models ranges from one kilometer to tens of kilometers for

different applications. For example, the NOAA operational hourly updated numerical weather prediction systems, the Rapid Refresh (RAP) and High-Resolution Rapid Refresh (HRRR), are implemented at the 13-km and 3-km spatial resolution, respectively (Benjamin et al., 2016). The National Water Model (NWM), which is an operational hydrological model that simulates and forecasts streamflow over the entire continental U.S., runs at a spatial resolution of one kilometer (<https://water.noaa.gov/about/nwm>). Even a spatial resolution of a few kilometers is considered as high resolution in these applications, it is still too coarse to fully capture effects of surface heterogeneity. For instance, land hydrology depends on surface morphology and soil characteristics that can be highly variable in space down to extremely fine scales of a few meters (Giorgi and Avissar, 1997).

The subgrid variability of downward solar radiation can be useful as long as such information is provided for each model grid cell since variabilities of other processes (e.g. snowmelt, evaporation, and soil temperature) affected by solar radiation may be estimated from it. For example, He and Ohara (2019) proposed a model for representing subgrid variability of snow, and the subgrid variability of downward solar radiation information is needed in the model. At the subgrid scale, heterogeneity of downward solar radiation can be remarkable as solar irradiance is dramatically modified by rough topography. Although effects of topography on the downward solar radiation have been well formulated (Linke 1922; Lee 1963; Bras 1990; Sproul 2007) at point scale, subgrid topographic influences are usually simplified or neglected in hydrological and land-surface models and only model grid cell mean values are used. However, an increasing number of studies have found that the subgrid topographic effects on downward solar radiation need to be considered for large scale applications (Helbig and Löwe 2012; Lee

et al. 2011; Lai et al. 2010; Essery and Marks 2007; Dubayah et al. 1990; He and Ohara 2019). These applications include weather-prediction models (e.g., NOAA HRRR and RAP models, Benjamin et al 2016) where requirements for accurate near-surface predictions necessitate subgrid-scale effects of topography. Therefore, to maintain computation performance, it is necessary to have a parameterization scheme that can efficiently estimate subgrid variability of downward solar radiation from topographic properties of the model grid. Such a scheme is proposed in this study. Topographic properties become more available with the development of new measurement techniques. For example, one-third arc-second Digital Elevation Model (DEM) data of the CONUS can be freely accessed online (<https://www.usgs.gov/core-science-systems/ngp/tnm-delivery/>), and topographic properties can be computed easily from these DEM data.

There are some studies have looked at subgrid variability of downward solar radiation (Dubayah et al. 1990; Müller and Scherer 2005; Essery and Marks 2007; Lai et al. 2010; Helbig and Löwe 2012; Löwe and Helbig 2012), but they focus on estimating model grid-cell mean rather than variance of downward solar radiation within a model grid cell. Dubayah et al. (1990) derived two equations for estimating mean and variance of direct solar radiation by assuming a constant terrain slope and uniformly distributed aspect. However, these assumptions are too limiting and may lead to substantial errors in the weather prediction application on the regional and global scales. Müller and Scherer (2005) proposed a subgrid-scale parameterization scheme computing mean of radiation fluxes for a model grid cell by considering topography at fine resolution. With this method, mean downward solar radiation of the model grid cell can be estimated more accurately compared to Dubayah et al. (1990), but they did not compute the variance within a model grid cell, and also, they did not separate time-dependent variables from

static variables. Essery and Marks (2007) developed parameterizations for spatial averages, standard deviations, and distributions of direct and diffuse downward solar radiation with the assumption of fitted Laplace and extreme-value distributions of slope components and horizon angles. Helbig and Löwe (2012) presented a complete radiation parameterization scheme accounting for shading, limited sky views, and terrain reflections in radiation estimation, but they used the scheme of Dubayah et al. (1990) for estimating mean of direct solar radiation with the limitations mentioned above. All these studies focus more on representing grid-cell mean downward solar radiation, but give less attention to computing variance of downward solar radiation within a model grid derived from the actual topography.

The purpose of this study is to develop a parameterization scheme to compute variance of downward solar radiation in a model grid cell using the high-resolution DEM data of the model grid cell. More specifically, we establish a relationship between subgrid variability of downward solar radiation and subgrid variability of terrain. The advantage of using the subgrid variability of terrain is that these properties are time-independent, can be treated as static inputs, and would not cause additional computation cost in application. We will investigate how subgrid slope and aspect variability control the variance of downward radiation. Also, effects of the spatial resolution of the DEM data on the calculated subgrid variability of downward solar radiation will be evaluated. Finally, the spatial correlation of downward solar radiations will be investigated using the proposed scheme through spatial autocorrelation function.

This paper has five sections: introduction, methods, results, discussion, and conclusions. Section 2 gives a detailed explanation on the proposed parameterization scheme and a short description of a sophisticated solar radiation model that provides verification on

the proposed scheme. Section 3 describes results of this study. Discussion and conclusions are presented in Sections 4 and 5, respectively.

2 Methods

2.1 Subgrid variability of direct irradiance

Generally, solar radiation is composed of three components: direct radiation, diffuse radiation, and reflected radiation. These three components have different characteristics. As mentioned by Dubayah et al. (1990), variations in the diffuse and reflected irradiance make relatively little contribution to the overall variance as compared with variability in the direct irradiance. Thus, only the variability from the direct irradiance is considered in this study and the variabilities of diffuse and reflected radiation are ignored.

The direct irradiance on a plane normal to the direct beam, I_n , can be calculated as (Linke 1922; Bras 1990)

$$I_n = W_0 \exp(-T_L a_1 m) \quad (1)$$

where W_0 is the solar constant [1367 W/m^2], T_L is the Linke atmospheric turbidity coefficient, m is air mass, a_1 is the Rayleigh optical thickness of air mass m . The direct irradiance on a panel of arbitrary slope and aspect, I_D , is given by

$$I_D = I_n \cos\theta \quad (2)$$

where I_n is surface direct irradiance from Equation (1) [W/m^2], θ is angle of incidence of the direct irradiance onto the panel surface. From the solar geometric relationships (Sproul 2007),

$$\begin{aligned} \cos\theta &= \sin(\beta)\sin(\gamma)C_1 + \sin(\beta)\cos(\gamma)C_2 + \cos(\beta)C_3 \\ \text{with } C_1 &= \cos(\alpha_s) \sin(\gamma_s) \\ C_2 &= \cos(\alpha_s) \cos(\gamma_s) \\ C_3 &= \sin(\alpha_s) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where β is slope of the panel, γ is aspect of the panel (North is zero, and is measured positive to the East), α_s is elevation angle of the sun, γ_s is azimuth (aspect) angle of the sun. Substituting Equations (1) and (3) into (2) gives

$$I_D = W_0 \exp(-T_L a_1 m) [\sin(\beta) \sin(\gamma) C_1 + \sin(\beta) \cos(\gamma) C_2 + \cos(\beta) C_3] \quad (4)$$

This is the equation calculating direct irradiance on a panel of arbitrary slope β and aspect γ with the given sun's position α_s and γ_s .

Next, we derive an equation for calculating the mean of direct irradiance at a model grid cell by considering the subgrid variability of topography. It is assumed that a model grid cell area consists of many subgrid areas, and direct irradiance at subgrid scale can be calculated through Equation (4). If slope, aspect, and direct irradiance of subgrid area i are denoted as β_i , γ_i , and $I_{D,i}$, respectively, the mean direct irradiance, \bar{I}_D , of the model grid cell area can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{I}_D &= \langle I_{D,i} \rangle \\ &= \langle W_0 \exp(-T_L a_1 m) (\sin(\beta_i) \sin(\gamma_i) C_1 + \sin(\beta_i) \cos(\gamma_i) C_2 + \cos(\beta_i) C_3) \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where $\langle \rangle$ is the ensemble-average operator. To simplify Equation (5), it is assumed that the Linke atmospheric turbidity coefficient T_L , Rayleigh optical thickness a_1 , air mass m , and the sun's position parameter C_1 , C_2 , and C_3 are homogeneous within the model grid cell area. This should be a reasonable assumption since the atmospheric conditions and position parameters of the sun have small variation over distances of order of magnitude of 10 km. Also, this assumption will be verified in section 3.1. Then, Equation (5) can be simplified as

$$\bar{I}_D = I_n(\langle A_{1,i} \rangle C_1 + \langle A_{2,i} \rangle C_2 + \langle A_{3,i} \rangle C_3)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} A_{1,i} &= \sin\beta_i \sin\gamma_i \\ A_{2,i} &= \sin\beta_i \cos\gamma_i \\ A_{3,i} &= \cos\beta_i \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

This equation calculates the mean direct irradiance of a model grid cell including effects of the subgrid variability of slope and aspect within it. To apply this equation to a model grid, central latitude of the grid, date, local time, and subgrid DEM data should be provided. The verification of this equation is presented in section 3.1. From the above equation, the coefficient for mean, C_m , is defined as $C_m = (\langle A_{1,i} \rangle C_1 + \langle A_{2,i} \rangle C_2 + \langle A_{3,i} \rangle C_3)$ in this paper for later discussion.

To quantify the variability of direct irradiance within a model grid cell, an equation for calculating variance of direct irradiance is derived as well. We can write subgrid topographic related values in the Reynolds decomposition forms

$$\begin{aligned} A_{1,i} &= A'_{1,i} + \langle A_{1,i} \rangle \\ A_{2,i} &= A'_{2,i} + \langle A_{2,i} \rangle \\ A_{3,i} &= A'_{3,i} + \langle A_{3,i} \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

These equations decompose each subgrid area value into a model grid cell mean term and a subgrid fluctuation term. The first term on the right-hand side (RHS) of Equation (7) is the fluctuation term, and the second term on the RHS of Equation (7) is the model grid cell mean term. Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(I_D) &= \langle (I_{D,i} - \bar{I}_D)^2 \rangle = I_n^2 \langle (C_1 A'_{1,i} + C_2 A'_{2,i} + C_3 A'_{3,i})^2 \rangle = I_n^2 C_v \\ \text{with } C_v &= C_1^2 \langle A_{1,i}'^2 \rangle + C_2^2 \langle A_{2,i}'^2 \rangle + C_3^2 \langle A_{3,i}'^2 \rangle + 2C_1 C_2 \langle A'_{1,i} A'_{2,i} \rangle + \\ &\quad 2C_1 C_3 \langle A'_{1,i} A'_{3,i} \rangle + 2C_2 C_3 \langle A'_{2,i} A'_{3,i} \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

This equation calculates variance of direct irradiance of a model grid cell by considering subgrid variability of aspect and slope. From Equation (8), we can see that the variance

of downward solar direct irradiance is a linear combination of variances (the first three terms of C_v) and covariances (the last three terms of C_v) of the subgrid topographic information. The required information for applying this equation is the same as for Equation (6), namely, central latitude of the model grid, date, local time, and subgrid DEM data. From Equation (8), the coefficient for variance, C_v , is defined in this study for later discussion. This equation is useful since it tells us that the spatial variability of downward solar direct radiation can be calculated from the variance and covariance of subgrid topographic information, which is time-independent. Time independence means that these values need to be calculated only once and can be treated as static inputs. The shadowing effect was not included in Equation (8) although it would be complete to include the process (e.g. Li and Weng, 1988). The reasons are: (1) the incoming solar radiation is heavily attenuated when the sun is low enough for shadowing to occur (Dubayah et al., 1990); and (2) shadowing is time dependent and has to be estimated at the subgrid scale at every time step, increasing computation cost significantly.

In hydrological and land-surface models the radiation forcing provides the grid-cell mean downward solar radiation, I_D (Equation (6)), rather than the direct solar irradiance I_n . Therefore, to estimate the variance of the downward solar radiation from the given grid-cell mean, we can substitute Equations (6) into (8) and obtain

$$\text{var}(I_D) = \bar{I}_D^2 \frac{C_v}{C_m^2} \quad (9)$$

Equation (9) is ready to be used in any hydrological and land-surface models for estimating subgrid variability of downward solar radiation in a model grid cell from the provided mean downward solar radiation of the model grid. The interaction of solar radiation with surface is determined by two groups of factors: time-dependent parameters (declination angle, solar hour angle); and time-independent parameters

(elevation, surface slope and aspect, and latitude). In Equation (9), the time-dependent coefficients are evaluated at the model grid cell scale at every time step. The time-independent subgrid terrain properties are computationally intensive, but they are pre-processed and treated as static inputs.

2.2 Solar radiation model *r.sun*

In order to verify the proposed parameterization scheme of this study, results of a sophisticated solar radiation model called *r.sun* were used to compare against results of the proposed scheme. *r.sun* is a GIS-based model, and it is based on previous work done by Hofierka (1997) and implemented in the GRASS[®] Geographic Information System (GIS) environment (Neteler and Mitasova 2013). This model considers the spatial variation of downward solar radiation due to terrain and terrain-shadowing effects, and it can calculate direct, diffuse, reflected, and total solar irradiance (Hofierka and Suri, 2002). Its applicability has been demonstrated in many applications (e.g. Šúri and Hofierka, 2004; Ruiz-Arias et al., 2009; Hofierka and Kaňuk, 2009; Nguyen and Pearce, 2010; Pintor et al., 2015). The algorithm of *r.sun* is described in the paper by Hofierka and Suri (2002). The fundamental required input data of *r.sun* are DEM data.

Model *r.sun* calculates solar radiation based on the resolution of DEM data. For example, if the resolution of the provided DEM data is 50 m, then solar radiation at every 50 m pixel is calculated based on the time, location, and sun's position. By providing high-resolution DEM data to model *r.sun*, mean and variance of solar radiation over a specific region can be calculated based on the high-resolution solar radiation from model *r.sun*. This method is different from the proposed scheme of this study. The proposed scheme does not calculate solar radiation directly from the provided resolution of the DEM data, but calculates coefficients for mean C_m and variance C_v (i.e. from Equations (6) and (8))

from the provided resolution of the DEM data. It then calculates mean and variance of solar radiation over the specific region from these two coefficients, time, location, and sun's position.

3 Results

3.1 Verification

To verify these derived equations for calculating mean (Equation (6)) and variance (Equation (8)) of downward direct irradiance, comparisons to model *r.sun* have been conducted (Fig. 1). Although shading effect is not included in the proposed scheme, it is considered in model *r.sun* for all verifications. Two grids, one from a mountainous area and another from a flat area and both covering 13-km \times 13-km at 50-m spatial resolution, have been used in this study for testing and analyzing. Table 1 gives the basic elevation statistical information of these two grid cells, referred to in the following discussion as Grid 1 (mountains) and Grid 2 (flat). From the statistics of Table 1, it can be seen clearly that Grid 1 has more variation in elevation than Grid 2, and this motivates the choice of these two grid cells.

First, mean and variance of downward direct solar irradiance of Grid 1 and Grid 2 have been calculated through the proposed scheme (Equations (6) and (8)) and verified by comparing to values computed through model *r.sun*. To make results of these two methods comparable, exactly the same parameters (refer to Hofierka and Suri 2002) as in model *r.sun* were used in calculating I_n , which is direct irradiance on a horizontal panel given in Equation (1). In calculating the sun's position parameters, latitudes of center points of Grid 1 and Grid 2 (see Table 1) have been used. The topographic trigonometric variables at subgrid scale ($A_{1,i}$, $A_{2,i}$, and $A_{3,i}$) were computed using Equation (6). Then, the mean ($\langle A_{1,i} \rangle$, $\langle A_{2,i} \rangle$, and $\langle A_{3,i} \rangle$), variance ($\langle A_{1,i}^2 \rangle$, $\langle A_{2,i}^2 \rangle$, and $\langle A_{3,i}^2 \rangle$), and covariance

$\langle A'_{1,i}A'_{2,i} \rangle$, $\langle A'_{1,i}A'_{3,i} \rangle$, and $\langle A'_{2,i}A'_{3,i} \rangle$) of these trigonometric variables were calculated on a grid scale for both grids. With these calculated grid-scale I_n and topographic mean, variance, and covariance, the mean and variance of downward direct solar irradiance were calculated for Grid 1 and Grid 2 through Equations (6) and (8). To validate results from proposed scheme, the mean and variance of downward direct solar irradiance for Grid 1 and Grid 2 were also calculated through subgrid scale values from model *r.sun*. These calculations were performed for every hour on four different days. These four days were selected from winter (1 January, Julian day=1), spring (1 April, Julian day=91), summer (1 July, Julian day=182), and fall (1 October, Julian day=274), respectively. Comparisons of results from the proposed scheme and model *r.sun* are given in Fig. 1 and Table 2. The results from the proposed scheme are marked with solid line and the results from the model *r.sun* are marked with triangles. In Table 2, Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) (e.g. He et al., 2019), which ranges from negative infinity to 100%, is used as the index for evaluating the similarity of the results between the proposed scheme of this paper and the model *r.sun*. Both Fig. 1 and Table 2 show that the results from the two different methods match very well. Also, it shows that the calculated variances from Equation (8) are a little bit higher than the calculated variances from the model *r.sun* when the sun's elevation angle is low.

Table 2 shows that all NSEs for different days are very large and some of them even up to 100% (perfect match of two time series), which means the results from the proposed scheme and model *r.sun* are very similar.

In deriving Equations (6) and (8), it was assumed that the Linke atmospheric turbidity coefficient T_L , Rayleigh optical thickness a_1 , air mass m , and the sun's position parameters C_1 , C_2 , and C_3 are homogeneous within the grid cell. This assumption will be verified here

through a comparison of the spatial distribution of downward solar irradiance with and without the assumption. Spatial distribution of downward direct solar irradiance at subgrid scale is calculated using Equation (4), which includes this assumption. On the contrary, model *r.sun* calculates the spatial distribution of downward direct solar irradiance at subgrid scale without making this assumption. Maps and histograms of the spatial distribution of downward solar radiation and the difference for Grid 1 and Grid 2 at 14:00 (local time) on 1 April (day=91) are shown in Fig. 2. This figure demonstrates that the calculated spatial distribution of downward direct solar irradiance from Equation (4) is very similar to the one from the model *r.sun* (for example, Fig. 2a and b for Grid 1). Also, both results show clearly that downward solar radiation in the mountainous grid is more heterogeneous than the flat grid. Maps and histograms of total radiation (sum of direct, diffuse, and reflected radiation) from the model *r.sun* are also presented in Fig. 2 for later discussion.

The proposed scheme has been also compared against the previous method from Dubayah (1990), and results are given in Figure 3 for different seasons. In this figure, results from model *r.sun* are also marked with triangles and treated as reference values. The results show that the method from Dubayah (1990) overestimates standard deviation when the sun's elevation angle is relatively high, while the method from this study has improved performance over that from Dubayah (1990).

The proposed scheme does not take into account shadowing effects, and the impact of this limitation has been evaluated using simulations from the model *r.sun*. The results from the *r.sun* simulations with and without shadowing effect for Grid cell 1 (Table 1) at different dates (Figure 4) show that ignoring shadowing effect causes some errors in

calculated variability (standard deviation) of radiation within the grid cell. However, the errors are still relatively small compared to the total variability.

These results lead us to conclude that Equations (6) and (8) are accurate enough to study the subgrid variability of solar radiation, and further discussions are presented in Section 4.

3.2 DEM data resolution effects on the subgrid variability

To investigate effects of DEM data resolution on the calculated subgrid variability of downward solar radiation, mean and variance of solar direct irradiance have been calculated at different resolutions for Grid 1 and Grid 2. Since downward direct irradiance I_n on a horizontal surface is homogeneous within a model grid, only the coefficients for mean and variance have been calculated and analyzed in this section. The coefficient for mean and the coefficient for variance have been defined from Equations (6) and (8). One advantage of these coefficients is that they are normalized by the magnitude of solar irradiance and can be compared with each other. However, they are time-dependent. In this study, coefficients have been calculated at 8:00, 10:00, 12:00, 14:00, and 16:00 local time on 1 April (day=91) to investigate effects of the DEM resolution on the subgrid variability. For this purpose, the resolution of DEM data is decreased from 10 meters to 1,000 meters in 20-m increments, and the results are shown in Fig. 5. From these results, we can see that: (1) effects of resolution on the calculated subgrid variability of downward direct solar irradiance is time dependent; (2) the effect of resolution on the calculated subgrid variability of downward direct solar irradiance is much larger than for the calculated mean; (3) the resolution is longer important for variance (C_v) in the mountainous Grid 1, than in the flat Grid 2; (4) the calculated coefficient for variance (C_v) decreases exponentially with the decrease of spatial resolution, while the coefficient for

mean (C_m) changes slightly only in the mountainous Grid 1 due to differences in representation of terrain slope and aspect at different resolutions of DEM data, and (5) for a specific grid, the effect of time of the day on the variability of solar irradiance is less important than topography.

3.3 Spatial correlation of the downward direct solar irradiance

Spatial correlation of downward solar irradiance will be studied in this section using the spatial Autocorrelation Function (ACF). Dubayah et al. (1990) studied the spatial correlation of downward solar radiation using semi-variograms. However, the magnitude of the semi-variogram depends on the magnitude of the data. This makes it difficult to compare the calculated semi-variogram curves at different times even for the same grid. ACF is a normalized function (Box et al. 2015); therefore, using it to study the spatial correlation of downward solar radiation at different times is more convenient than using a semi-variogram. ACFs of downward direct solar irradiance are calculated at five different local times (8:00, 10:00, 12:00, 14:00, and 16:00) on day 91 for Grid 1 and Grid 2 in 50-m increments up to five kilometers, and the results are given in Fig. 6. These results demonstrate that ACFs of downward direct solar radiation at different times are very similar, and this means that the spatial correlation of downward direct solar irradiance does not change significantly with time. The correlation lengths of Grid 1 and Grid 2 are different as the correlation length varies with topography. From Fig. 6, it can be seen that the correlation length is larger in the mountainous area (Grid 1) than the flat area (Grid 2). More details on the potential usage of spatial correlation is given in the discussion section.

4 Discussion

The effectiveness of the proposed parameterization scheme (i.e. Equations (6) and (8)) has been verified through comparing it against the model *r.sun*, which is a sophisticated solar radiation model, over a mountainous area (Grid 1) and a flat area (Grid 2). The results have demonstrated that the proposed scheme is accurate enough in estimating the mean and variance of subgrid downward direct solar irradiance within a model grid. In deriving the parameterization scheme, it is assumed that direct solar irradiance I_n on a horizontal plane and the sun's position parameters C_1 , C_2 , and C_3 are homogeneous within a model grid. This assumption has been verified by comparing the calculated spatial distributions of downward direct solar irradiance using Equation (4) against the results of model *r.sun* (Fig. 2). Maps and histograms of the calculated spatial distribution of downward direct solar irradiance show that the assumption is reasonable since the results with and without this assumption are almost the same. In validating these assumptions, it can be seen from Fig. 1 that the calculated variance from the proposed model is larger than the model *r.sun*. From the equation for calculating variance, we know that two factors contribute to the magnitude of variance/standard deviation. The first factor is the magnitude of downward direct solar irradiance, and the second factor is the variability of downward direct solar irradiance. Ignoring the shadowing effect increases the magnitude of solar radiation, thus increasing the variance. Also, ignoring the shadowing effect reduces the variability of solar radiation, thus reducing the variance. In our results, the magnitude of solar radiation from the new model is larger than that from *r.sun* (as we can see from the left two panels of Figure 1), and the variance is larger as well. This demonstrates that the first factor is dominating over the second one.

The second assumption in this study is that the variance of downward solar radiation can be approximated by the variance of downward direct solar radiation, and contributions

from the other two components (diffuse and reflected radiation) are negligible. To verify this assumption, spatial distributions of total downward solar irradiance from model *r.sun* were shown in Figs. 2 c and g. Comparing with the spatial distributions of downward direct solar irradiance (Figs. 2 a, b, e, and f) and their difference (Figs. 2 d and h), we can see that their variances, spatial distributions, and shapes of histograms are highly similar although their means are different. This illustrates that it is reasonable to assume that the variance of total downward irradiance is dominated by the variance of downward direct solar irradiance. This is also consistent with the findings from Dubayah et al. (1990). In addition, the results clearly show that the variability of solar radiation is much larger in the mountainous area (i.e. Grid 1) than in the flat area (i.e. Grid 2). When the sun's elevation angle is low, the magnitude of diffuse radiation could be larger than direct radiation, and this may result in larger variance from diffuse radiation (e.g. Liu and Jordan, 1960). However, effects of variance on the related processes, such as snowmelt, soil moisture, and evaporation, are not significant as the total radiation is fairly small when the sun is low.

The calculated spatial variability of downward direct solar irradiance depends critically on the resolution of DEM data. Equations (6) and (8) are convenient for studying effects of the resolution on the calculated subgrid variability of downward solar radiation since only the coefficients for mean and variance are needed to be calculated while the magnitude of the real solar irradiance is not needed. Section 3.2 is a good example to demonstrate the capability of these two coefficients. It has been realized that the resolution of DEM data affects the representation of variability on solar radiation. However, there is no specific study on how the calculated variability changes with resolution. In Section 3.2, their relationships were investigated with these two

coefficients. It is found that the mean does not change much with decrease of resolution, but the variance exponentially decreases with the decrease of resolution. The magnitudes of coefficient for variance reveal that the spatial variability of the downward direct solar radiation is much larger in the mountainous area than in the flat area (see Fig. 5). It also has been known that the effects of topography on the variance of solar irradiance depend on time as the variance changes with solar position. In addition, it can be seen that the time effect on the variability of downward solar radiation in the mountain area (i.e. Grid 1) is stronger than in the flat area (i.e. Grid 2) because the terrain varies a lot more in the mountain area.

The subgrid variability of downward solar radiation can be estimated using high-resolution DEM data through Equations (8) and (9). The proposed scheme treats those required topography properties as static inputs which are pre-calculated from the high-resolution DEM data. The proposed scheme does have some time dependent parameters, but they are separated from topographic parameters and calculated at the grid scale rather than the subgrid scale. Thus, the computational cost of the proposed scheme is very low. Generally, land-surface and hydrological models use the model grid cell mean downward surface solar radiation as the atmospheric forcing. The variance of subgrid downward solar radiation can be estimated from the given model grid cell mean surface solar radiation and other parameters through the derived Equation (9) of this study. This would provide additional information on the downward solar radiation that can be potentially used by other processes in estimating subgrid variability, such as snow melt, evaporation, and soil temperature. Also, the proposed scheme provides an effective way to take high-resolution topographic information into consideration in modeling. This is

important in mountain hydrology modeling (de Jong, 2015) and large-domain parameter estimation for hydrological and land-surface models (e.g. Mizukami et al., 2017).

Spatial correlation of the downward direct solar radiation is another important characteristic that is useful in modeling. For example, if the Fokker-Planck equation approach is adopted in representing subgrid variability (e.g. He and Ohara, 2019), then spatial correlation lengths of stochastic variables will be critical in determining the diffusion coefficient. From this study, it is found that spatial correlation of the downward direct solar radiation is difficult to describe quantitatively with a general model. However, ACFs of the downward direct solar radiation have shown that the correlation length is only slightly time dependent (Fig. 6). In particular, it is found that time effect on correlation length can be ignored in the mountain area (Grid 1). This characteristic is important as it has good potential to simplify calculations in studying effects of subgrid variability of downward solar radiation on other processes, such as snow melting. Since we have related terrain variability to radiation variability, it is possible to predict spatial correlation of radiation from terrain considerations. However, it is generally time dependent, which means that the spatial correlation needs to be calculated at each time. The above-mentioned characteristic, namely the time effect on correlation length can be ignored in the mountain area, means that only one spatial correlation would be a reasonable approximation for different times.

5 Conclusions

A parameterization scheme for estimating mean and variance of subgrid downward solar irradiance by using high-resolution DEM data is proposed in this study. The spatial distribution of radiation and terrain variability are related in a straightforward way through this scheme. This scheme can also be used to approximately evaluate the

variability of subgrid downward solar radiation, which is composed of direct, diffuse, and reflected radiation. The proposed scheme has been applied to two grid cells with the size 13-km \times 13-km for verifying its performance. Results from the proposed scheme were compared against the results from the sophisticated radiation model *r.sun*. These comparisons have shown that the proposed scheme performs very well. The following conclusions have been drawn from this study:

(1) In determining spatial variability of solar radiation at scale on the order of magnitude of 10 km, it is reasonable to assume that heterogeneity of direct solar irradiance on a horizontal plane and the sun's position parameters can be ignored. At this or smaller scale, terrain plays a more important role in affecting downward solar radiation than the others.

(2) The subgrid variability of downward solar radiation can be estimated from high-resolution DEM data through the proposed scheme of this study. Although the subgrid variability is time dependent, the proposed scheme of this study will not significantly increase computational cost since the required topography information only needs pre-processing at one time and then is used as a static input. Also, the proposed scheme provides an effective approach to include high-resolution topographic information in model grids.

(3) The resolution of the DEM data has big effects on the calculated subgrid variability of the downward solar radiation. The high-resolution DEM data can represent the subgrid variability much better than the coarse-resolution DEM data, and the variance of subgrid downward direct solar radiation exponentially decreases with the decrease of the resolution of the DEM data. Resolution of DEM data does not obviously affect mean of the

downward solar radiation. Also, it was found that the effect of time on the variability of solar irradiance decreases with decrease in resolution.

(4) The spatial correlation of the downward direct solar radiation obviously varies with topography, but it only slightly changes with time.

The next step is to apply this subgrid variability of solar radiation within a full weather/land-surface prediction model to consider subgrid variability of other radiation-driven processes. For instance, Smirnova et al (2016) showed that improved representation of subgrid snow processes can result in more accurate 2-m air temperature prediction in such a model. Application of this new parameterization scheme to weather prediction will be described in a subsequent paper.

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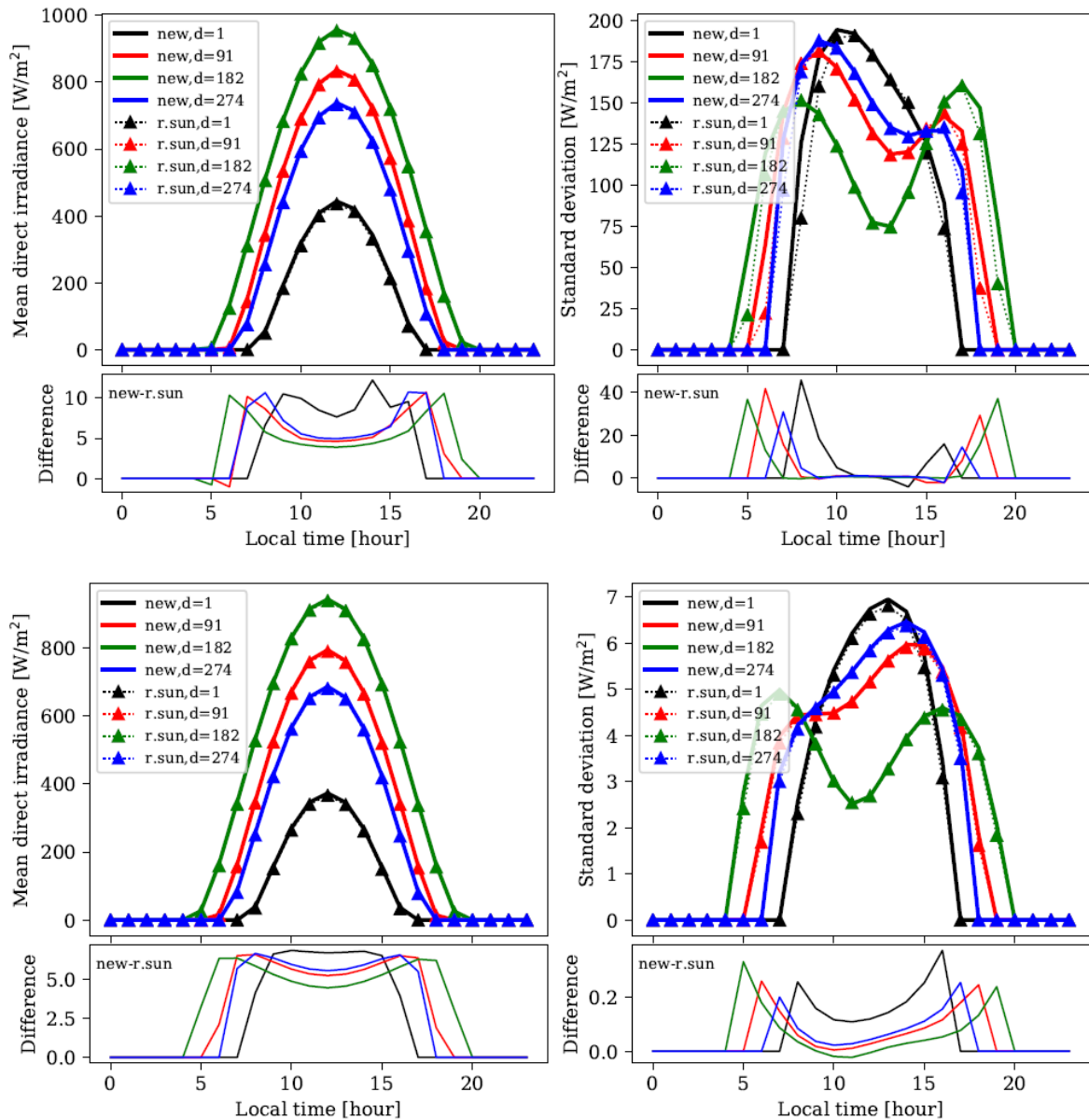


Fig. 1. Comparisons of the calculated mean (left) and standard deviation (right) of downward direct solar irradiance from the proposed scheme (i.e. Equations (6) and (8)) and model r.sun. Results from model r.sun are denoted with dash lines with triangle markers, and results from the proposed scheme were denoted with solid lines. Different days are in different colors. The top panel is from the mountainous area (Grid 1) and the bottom panel is from the flat area (Grid 2) at the locations shown in Table 1. The differences between the proposed scheme and model r.sun are plotted as the subplots at the bottom of each panel

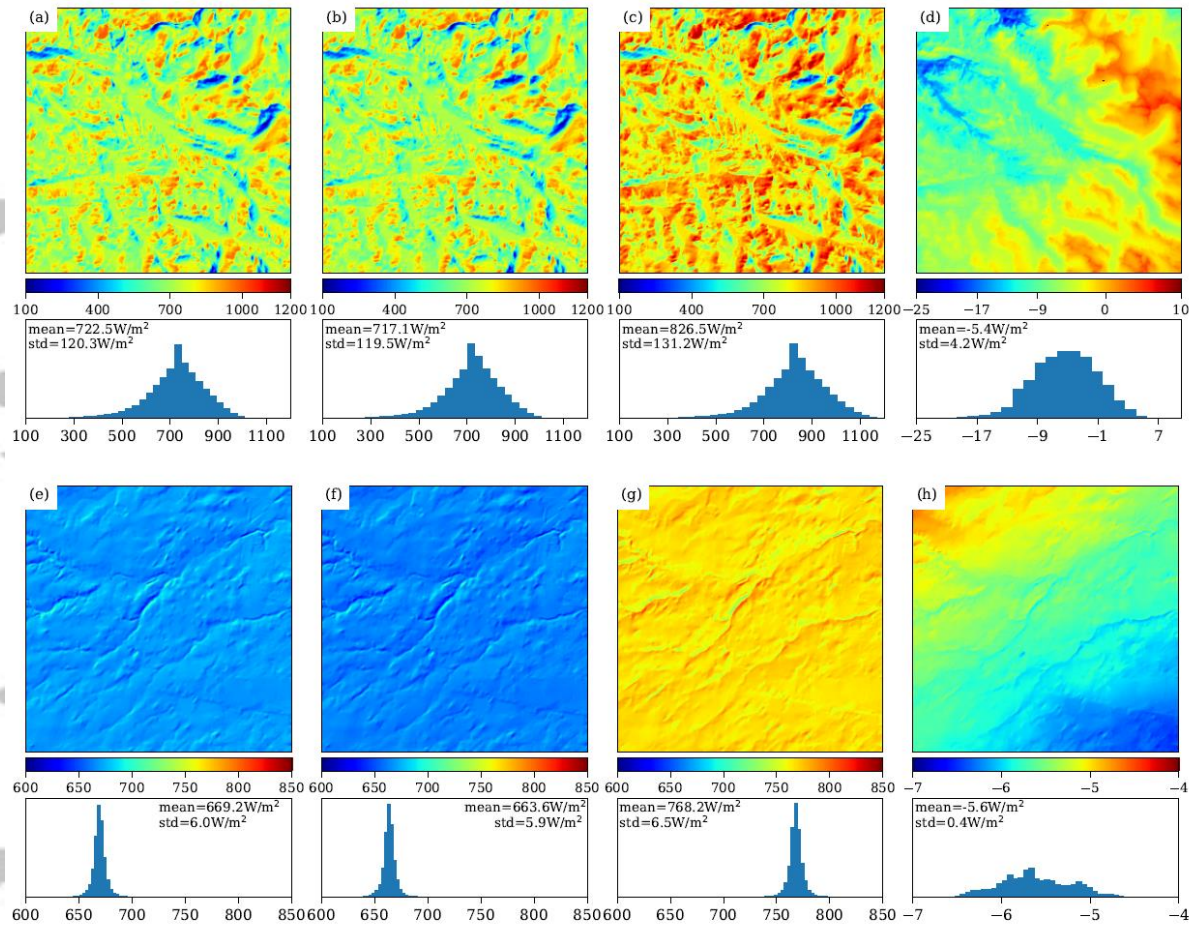


Fig. 2. Comparisons of the calculated spatial distribution of downward direct solar irradiance and their histograms from Equation (4) and the model r.sun. The top panel is from the mountainous area (Grid 1) and the bottom panel is from the flat area (Grid 2). (a) and (e) are downward direct solar irradiance from Equation (4), (b) and (f) are downward direct solar irradiance from the model r.sun, (c) and (g) are total (sum of direct, diffuse and reflected) solar irradiance from model r.sun, (d) and (h) are difference of downward direct solar irradiance between Equation (4) and model r.run (i.e. (b)-(a) and (f)-(e)). These values are for 14:00 (local time) on 1 April (day=91), again using locations in Table 1.

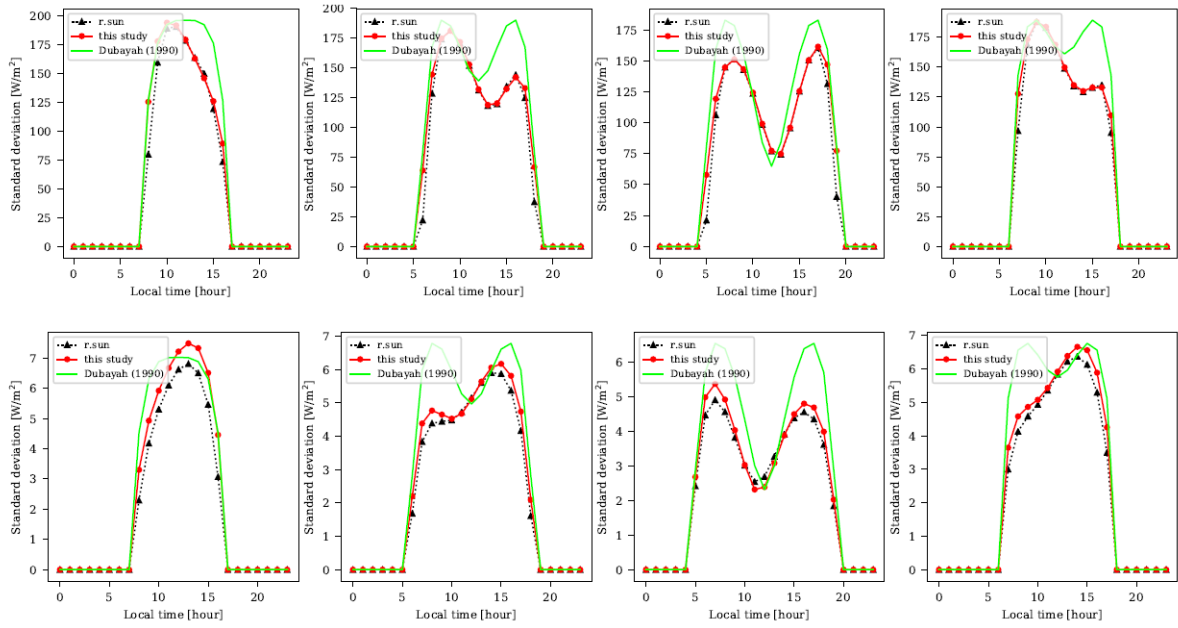


Fig. 3. Comparison of the calculated standard deviations between the proposed scheme of this study (red lines) and Dubayah (1990) (green lines). Results from model r.sun are also shown in black lines and treated as reference values. The top panel is from the mountainous area (Grid 1) and the bottom panel is from the flat area (Grid 2) at the locations shown in Table 1. From left to right, the corresponding dates are Jan 1, April 1, Jul 1, and Oct 1.

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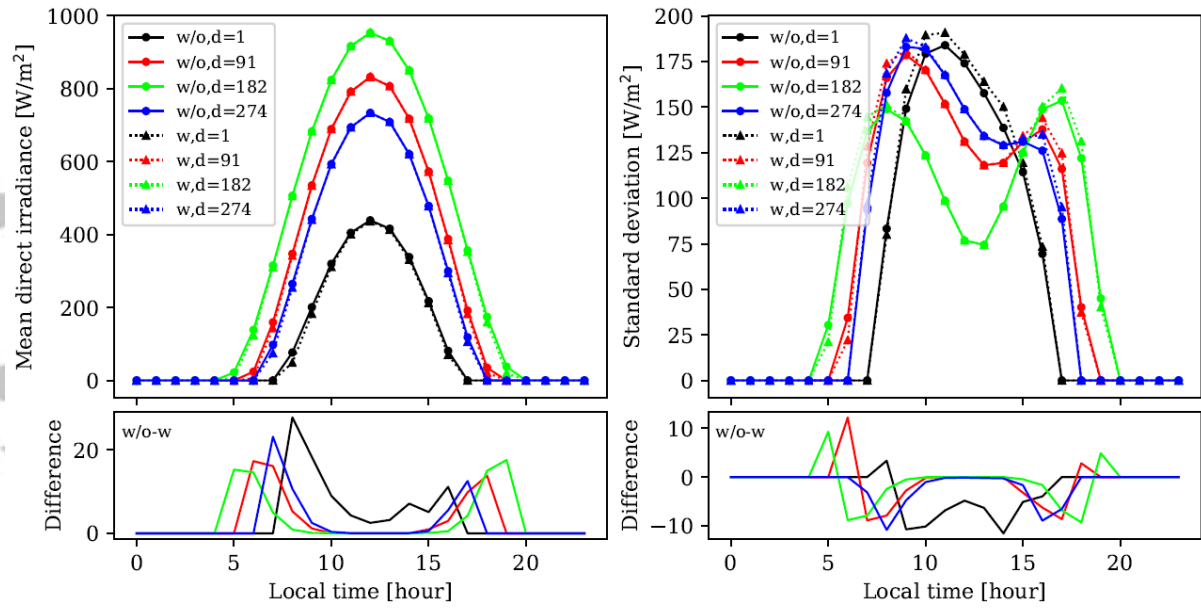


Fig. 4. Comparison of (mean – right, standard deviation – left) solar radiation with (dashed lines) and without (solid lines) shadowing effect from r.sun model for mountainous Grid 1 (Table 1). Lower panels show the differences between results with and without shadowing effect. Different colors represent days from different seasons (black - Jan 1, red - April 1, green - July 1, and blue - October 1).

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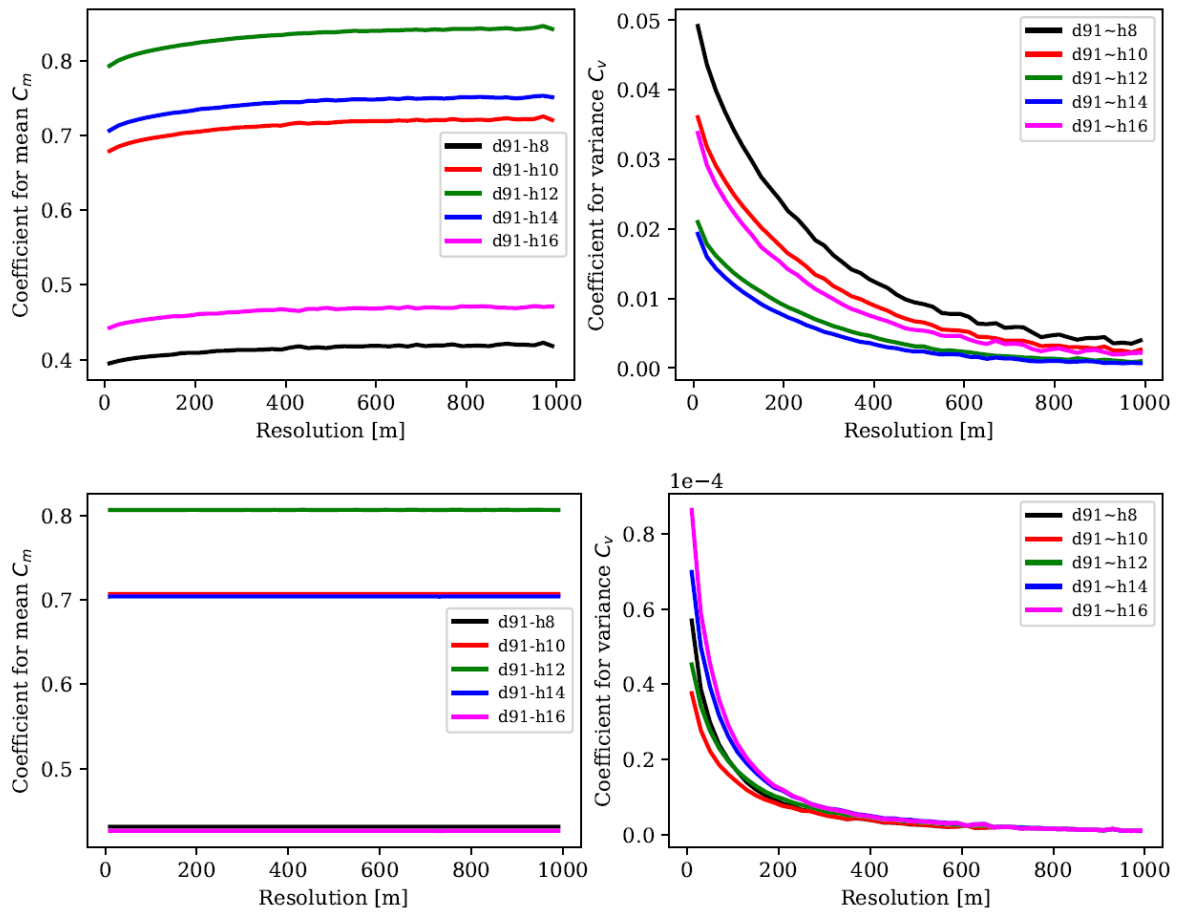


Fig. 5. The calculated coefficients for mean (C_m) and variance (C_v) (both are defined in Equations (6) and (8)) at different spatial resolutions of DEM data. They are calculated for 8:00, 10:00, 12:00, 14:00, and 16:00 local time (shown in different colors) on day 91 (1 April). The top panel is from the mountainous area (Grid 1) and the bottom panel is from the flat area (Grid 2).

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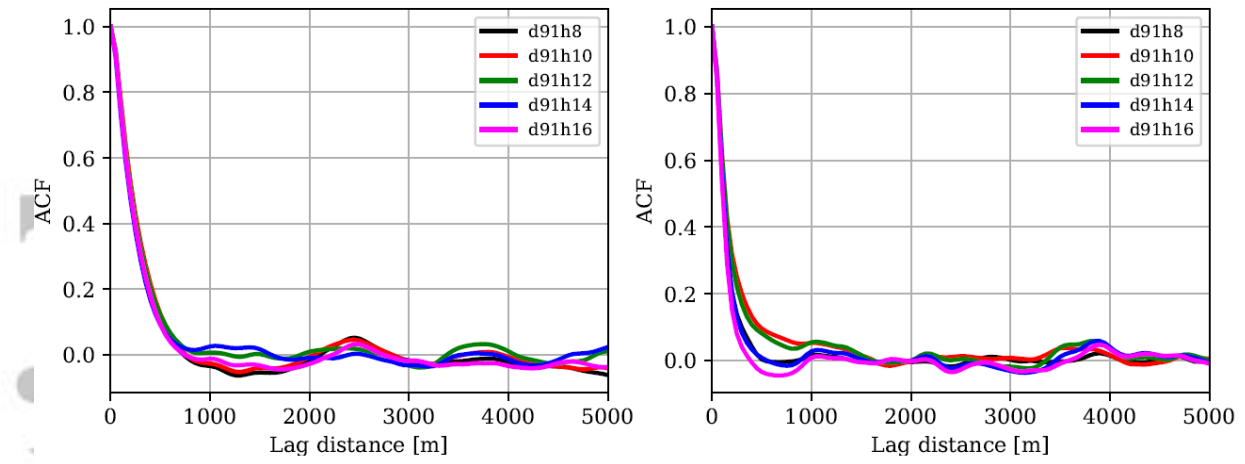


Fig. 6. Autocorrelation functions (ACFs) of downward direct solar irradiance at different times shown in different colors on day 91. The left panel is from the mountainous area (Grid 1) and the right panel is from the flat area (Grid 2).

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Table 1. Elevation statistics of the two grids

NO	From	Range	Mean	Stand deviation	Mean slope (degree)	(longitude,latitude)
Grid cell 1	Mt. area	1081 m	2645 m	188.8 m	15.1	(119.715W,38.141N)
Grid cell 2	flat area	55 m	1127 m	11.5 m	0.5	(102.165W,40.843N)

Table 2. Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) of the calculated mean and standard deviation from the proposed model and model r.sun. As mentioned in Table 1, Grid 1 is from the mountainous area and Grid 2 is from the flat area.

NO	Day=1	Day=91	Day=182	Day=274
Grid 1, mean	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Grid 2, mean	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Grid 1, standard deviation	97.9%	97.6%	96.6%	99.1%
Grid 2, standard deviation	99.8%	99.8%	99.7%	99.9%