Polish Academy of Sciences (PAN), Committee on Agronomic Sciences
 Section of Land Reclamation and Environmental Engineering in Agriculture, 2019
 Institute of Technology and Life Sciences (ITP), 2019

Available (PDF): http://www.itp.edu.pl/wydawnictwo/journal; http://www.degruyter.com/view/j/jwld; http://journals.pan.pl/jwld

 Received
 27.11.2018

 Reviewed
 24.02.2019

 Accepted
 22.03.2019

- A study design
- B data collection
- C statistical analysis
- \mathbf{D} data interpretation \mathbf{E} – manuscript preparation
- \mathbf{F} literature search

Performance evaluation of solar radiation equations for estimating reference evapotranspiration (*ETo*) in a humid tropical environment

Emeka NDULUE^{1) ACDEF ⊠}, Ikenna ONYEKWELU^{2) CDE}, Kingsley Nnaemeka OGBU^{3) BEF}, Vintus OGWO^{4) BF}

⁴⁾ University of Nigeria, Faculty of Engineering, Department of Agricultural and Bioresources Engineering, Nsukka, Nigeria; e-mail: vintus.ogwo@unn.edu.ng

For citation: Ndulue E., Onyekwelu I., Ogbu K.N., Ogwo V. 2019. Performance evaluation of solar radiation equations for estimating reference evapotranspiration (*ETo*) in a humid tropical environment. Journal of Water and Land Development. No. 42 (VII–IX) p. 124–135. DOI: 10.2478/jwld-2019-0053.

Abstract

Solar radiation (*Rs*) is an essential input for estimating reference crop evapotranspiration, *ETo*. An accurate estimate of *ETo* is the first step involved in determining water demand of field crops. The objective of this study was to assess the accuracy of fifteen empirical solar radiations (*Rs*) models and determine its effects on *ETo* estimates for three sites in humid tropical environment (Abakaliki, Nsukka, and Awka). Meteorological data from the archives of NASA (from 1983 to 2005) was used to derive empirical constants (calibration) for the different models at each location while data from 2006 to 2015 was used for validation. The results showed an overall improvement when comparing measured *Rs* with *Rs* determined using original constants and *Rs* using the new constants. After calibration, the Swartman–Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.97$) and Chen 2 models (*RMSE* = 0.665 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed best while Chen 1 ($R^2 = 0.66$) and Bristow–Campbell models (*RMSE* = 1.58 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed least in estimating *Rs* in Abakaliki. At the Nsukka station, Swartman–Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.96$) and Adeala models (*RMSE* = 1.96 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed least in estimating *Rs*. Chen 2 ($R^2 = 0.98$) and Swartman–Ogunlade models (*RMSE* = 0.43 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed best while Hargreaves–Samani ($R^2 = 0.68$) and Chen 1 models (*RMSE* = 1.64 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed least in estimating *Rs* in Awka. For estimating *ETo*, Adeala ($R^2 = 0.98$) and Swartman–Ogunlade models (*RMSE* = 0.43 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed best at the Awka station and Swartman–Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.98$) and Chen 2 models (*RMSE* = 0.43 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed best at the Awka station and Swartman–Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.98$) and Chen 2 models (*RMSE* = 0.43 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed best at the Awka station and Swartman–Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.98$) and Chen 2 models (*RMSE* = 0.43 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed best at the Awka station and Swartman–Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.98$) and Chen 2 models (*RMSE* = 0.43 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed be

Key words: calibration, models, reference evapotranspiration, solar radiation, validation

INTRODUCTION

Solar energy (radiation) is the primary source of energy on earth and a major driver of the hydrological cycle (evaporation, transpiration, evapotranspiration etc.), photosynthesis, photo voltaic cells, and solar energy systems. Evapotranspiration, ET, is an integrated process of evaporation and transpiration that describes water loss through

¹⁾ orcid.org/0000-0002-0510-2706; University of Nigeria, Faculty of Engineering, Department of Agricultural and Bioresources Engineering, Nsukka Road, 410001 Nsukka, Enugu State, Nigeria; e-mail: emeksonuchenna@gmail.com

²⁾ orcid.org/0000-0002-8037-3282; University of Portsmouth, School of Earth and Environmental Science, United Kingdom; e-mail: up869310@myport.ac.uk

³⁾ orcid.org/0000-0002-6385-4797; Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Faculty of Engineering, Department of Agricultural and Bioresources Engineering, Awka, Nigeria; e-mail: kn.ogbu@unizik.edu.ng

the soil and plant's stomata openings in leaves and stem. The process of *ET* is simultaneous and combined, thus it is difficult to separate [ALLEN et al. 1998]. Determination of the crop evapotranspiration (ETc) is usually preceded by calculating the reference evapotranspiration [LÓPEZ-URREA et al. 2006]. The term "reference evapotranspiration (ETo) as defined by ALLEN et al. [1998] refers to evapotranspiration rate from a well-watered hypothetical grass surface of 0.12 m in crop height, albedo of 0.23 and surface resistance of 70 s m⁻¹". ETo is important in determining crop and irrigation water requirement of crops [ALLEN et al. 1998; VOZHEHOVA et al. 2018], ecological and climate change studies [NISTOR et al. 2017], hydrological modeling [SCHNEIDER et al. 2007], irrigation scheduling and irrigation design and implementation [SENTELHAS et al. 2010]. Solar radiation (Rs) is an important parameter in computing ETo together with other meteorological parameters like wind speed, temperature and relative humidity. Studies have shown strong correlation between solar radiation and ETo [DJAMAN et al. 2018; KOSA 2011; KOUDAHE et al. 2018; MARTEL et al. 2018]. This shows that solar radiation is a dominant factor controlling the evapotranspiration process in these regions. Despite its importance, Rs data are low when compared with precipitation or temperature data [THORNTON, RUNNING 1999]. Across the globe, temporal and spatial Rs data are scarce because measuring instruments (pyranometers) are costly, time consuming, and requires regular maintenance and calibration [LIU et al. 2009; WU et al. 2017]. Even measured Rs data are prone to inconsistencies caused by wind drift [WANG et al. 2015].

The FAO Penman-Monteith (FAO-PM) equation is the recommended method for estimating ETo [ALLEN et al. 1998]. Despite its accuracy and robustness, the FAO-PM method suffers constraint in application due to absence of weather data. The situation is worse in developing countries. In Nigeria, observation stations are poorly and sparsely distributed. Nigeria has about 40 sparsely distributed weather observations managed by NIMET (Nigerian Meteorological Agency) but only few measure Rs [ADA-RAMOLA 2012; OGOLO 2014]. To overcome this problem, empirical Rs models have been developed as alternative. Some of these models make use of readily available meteorological data like temperature to estimate Rs. A review of literature shows that there are so many empirical Rs equations developed for different regions in the world including Nigeria [ADARAMOLA 2012; AKPABIO et al. 2005; AKPABIO, ETUK 2003; BESHARAT et al. 2013; OKUNDA-MIYA et al. 2016]. A major limitation of Rs models is that they are area specific. Thus, it is necessary to assess the performance of empirical Rs models before application in a location where it was not previously developed. Studies have shown that local calibration of empirical constants improved Rs estimate [DE MEDEIROS et al. 2017; ESTEVEZ et al. 2012; ZHANG et al. 2018]. For example, WU et al. [2017] calibrated the Angstrom-Prescott-Page Rs model across five stations in China. Some studies have further evaluated the impacts of different Rs models on ETo estimates [XU et al. 2008]. TABARI et al. [2016] calibrated twelve Rs models for estimating ETo under arid and semiarid conditions in Iran. They found an improvement of estimates after calibration. Similarly, MOUSAVI *et al.* [2015] calibrated the Angstom–Prescott–Page *Rs* model for *ETo* estimate in Iran. ALADENOLA, MADRAMOOTOO [2014] studied nine *Rs* models for estimating *ETo* across Canada. Their results showed reduction of errors in *ETo* estimates with the new empirical constants.

However, there has not been any assessment of Rs and its effects on ETo estimate in Nigeria (south east) found in literature. The south eastern part of Nigeria is traditionally known to engage in agricultural activities, although in small holdings. The region is known for cultivation of cash and tree crops like oil palm, yam, kolanuts, cassava, vegetables, etc. So therefore, the objective of this study is to evaluate the performance of fifteen solar radiation models (Hargreaves-Samani, Bristow–Campbell, Swartman-Ogunlade, Chen 1, El-Sebaii, Almorox and Hontoria, Ogelman, Dogniaux and Lemoine, Glower and McCulloch model, Elagib and Mansell, Chen 2, Adeala, Hassan, Angstrom-Prescott-Page, and Ezekwe and Ezeifo) and determine its effects on ETo estimates in Abakaliki, Nsukka and Awka using the FAO-PM equation. The selected towns are within the south east agro-ecological zone of Nigeria particularly known for growing crops like Nsukka yellow pepper and Abakaliki rice. The results of this study will help in water resources management, planning and irrigation system design for the region.

METHODS

STUDY AREA

The study area falls within the south east geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Three major towns comprising of Nsukka (Enugu state), Abakaliki (Ebonyi) and Awka (Anambra state) were studied. The region is within the humid tropical region which is characterized by two seasons. The wet season usually starts from April to October and dry season runs from November to March. As characteristic of the dry season, water is limited, and evapotranspiration rates are 50% higher than during the wet season [GOBIN 2000]. Nsukka is native to the Nsukka hot yellow pepper (Capsicum annuum L.), commonly called 'ose nsukka' in local parlance and known for its unique flavor, quality and colour [ONWUBUYA et al. 2009]. The Abakaliki rice (Oryza sativa) is one of the characteristics Ebonyi state is known for. Historically, they are well known rice farmers growing different varieties of rice species. Anambra state also grow Abakaliki rice [EGBODION, AHAMDU 2015]. Dry season farming provides an economic advantage in the region because agricultural produce command high prices, hence more profit for the farmers. Thus, accurate estimates of *ETo* is therefore very important in the region for optimizing irrigation in order to have a guaranteed cropping season.

METEOROLOGICAL DATA

Daily weather data (solar radiation, minimum temperature, maximum temperature, relative humidity and wind speed) as summarized in Table 1, was obtained from the archives of NASA (National Aeronautics Space Administration) Prediction of Worldwide Energy Resource, POWER (https://power.larc.nasa.gov/) for a 32-year period (July 1983- December 2015). Similar studies [ADARAMO-LA 2012; CHINEKE 2008; EGEONU *et al.* 2015; OKUNDA-MIYA *et al.* 2016] have adopted this method. The data was further checked for error, quality assessment, inconsistencies and missing data as recommended by World Meteorological Organization [WMO 1987] and ALLEN [1996]. NASA POWER datasets are from satellite observations that provides reliable time series solar and meteorology data in space and time, especially for areas where instruments are limited or not available [NASA 2016].

EMPIRICAL SOLAR RADIATION (Rs) MODELS

Empirical *Rs* models are broadly classified into sunshine-based, cloud-based, temperature-based, relative humidity-based, precipitation-based models and hybrid parameters-based models [BESHARAT *et al.* 2013; NWOKOLO 2017]. This classification is based on the relationship between solar radiation and weather parameters. Fifteen solar radiation models were evaluated in this study. They include seven sunshine-based models (Almorox and Hontoria, Ogelman, Dogniaux and Lemoine, Glower and McCulloch, Elagib and Mansell, Angstrom–Prescott–Page, and Ezekwe and Ezeifo), four temperature-based models (Hargreaves–Samani, Bristow–Campbell, Hassan, and Chen 1), four hybrid models (Chen 2, El-Sebaii, Swartman-Ogunlade and Adeala).

• Model 1: Hargreaves-Samani model [HARGREAVES, SAMANI 1985]. It relates solar radiation, difference between the maximum and minimum air temperature and extra-terrestrial radiation. The Hargreaves–Samani equation is given as:

$$R_s = a(\Delta T)^{0.5} R_a$$

HARGREAVES and SAMANI [1985] determined a = 0.16 for inland region, a = 0.19 for coastal region

• Model 2: Bristow-Campbell model [BRISTOW, CAMP-BELL 1984]. It is given as:

$$R_s = a[1 - \exp(-b\Delta T)^C] R_a$$

where: a = 0.7, b = 0.004, c = 2.4.

• Model 3: Swartman-Ogunlade model [SWARTMAN, OGUNLADE 1967]. It is given as:

$$R_s = \left[a + b\left(\frac{n}{N}\right) + cRH\right] \cdot 0.485 \cdot 0.0864$$

where: a = 464, b = 265, c = 248.

• Model 4: Chen 1 model [CHEN *et al.* 2004]. It is expressed as:

$$R_s = [a(\Delta T)^{0.5} + b]R_a$$

where: a = 0.28, b = -0.15

• Model 5: El-Sebaii model [EL-SEBAII *et al.* 2009]. It is expressed as:

$$R_s = [a + bT + cRH]R_a$$

where: a = -1.62, b = 2.24, c = 0.332.

• Model 6: Almorox and Hontoria model [ALMOROX, HONTORIA 2004]. This model for estimating *Rs* is given as:

$$R_s = \left[a + b \exp(\frac{n}{N})\right] R_a$$

where: a = -0.0271, b = 0.3096.

• Model 7: Ogelman model [OGELMAN *et al.* 1984]. *Rs* model is given as:

$$R_{s} = \left[a + b\left(\frac{n}{N}\right) + c\left(\frac{n}{N}\right)^{2}\right]R_{a}$$

where: a = 0.195, b = 0.676, c = 0.142.

• Model 8: Dogniaux and Lemoine model [DOGNIAUX, LEMOINE 1983]. It is expressed as:

$$R_{s} = \left[a + \left[b\left(\frac{n}{N}\right) - c\right]\varphi + d\left(\frac{n}{N}\right)\right]R_{a}$$

where: a = 0.37022, b = 0.00506, c = 0.00313, d = 0.32029.

• Model 9: Glower and McCulloch model [GLOWER, MCCULLOCH 1958]. It is expressed as:

$$R_s = \left[a\cos\varphi + b\left(\frac{n}{N}\right)\right] \cdot R_a$$
 where $a = 0.29, b = 0.52$

• Model 10: Elagib and Mansell model [ELAGIB, MANSELL 2000]. It is expressed as:

$$R_s = \left[a \exp\left[b\left(\frac{n}{N}\right)\right]\right] R_a$$

TOGRUL and TOGRUL [2002] calibrated the Elagib and Mansell model as a = 0.3396 and b = 0.8985

• Model 11: Chen 2 model [CHEN *et al.* 2004]. *Rs* model is expressed as:

$$R_{s} = \left[a\ln(\Delta T) + b\left(\frac{n}{N}\right)^{c} + d\right]R_{a}$$

where: a = 0.04, b = 0.48, c = 0.83, d = 0.11

• Model 12: Adeala model [ADEALA *et al.* 2015]. *Rs* model is given as:

$$R_{s} = \left[a + b\left(\frac{n}{N}\right) - cRH + dT + eU_{2}\right]R_{a}$$

where a = 0.96518, b = 1.0928, c = -0.00364, d = 0.04022, e = 0.1293 according to ADEALA *et al.* [2015].

• Model 13: Hassan model [HASSAN *et al.* 2016]. *Rs* model is expressed as:

$$R_s = [(a+bT)(\Delta T)^c]R_a$$

where: a = -0.05614, b = 0.0101, c = 0.4908.

• Model 14: Angstrom-Prescott-Page model [ANG-STROM 1924; PRESCOTT 1940; PAGE 1961]. It is one of the oldest *Rs* model and is expressed as:

$$R_s = \left[a + b \log\left(\frac{n}{N}\right)\right] R_a$$

where: a = 0.46, b = 0.16 according to AYODELE and OGUNJUYIGBE [2016].

• Model 15: Ezekwe and Ezeifo model [EZEKWE, EZEIFO 1981]. *Rs* model is expressed as:

$$R_s = \left[a + b\left(\frac{n}{N}\right)\right] R_a$$

where: a = 0.28 and b = 0.18.

Extraterrestrial radiation, R_a , is expressed as:

$$R_a = \frac{24 \cdot 60 \cdot G_{SC} \cdot d_r}{\pi} [\omega_s \sin\varphi \sin\delta + \cos\varphi \cos\delta \sin\omega_s]$$

where: d_r is the relative distance between the earth and the sun, ω_s is the sunset hour angle in radians, φ is latitude, δ is solar declination angle

$$d_r = 1 + 0.033 \cos \frac{2\pi J}{365},$$

 $\omega_s = \arccos(-\tan\varphi\,\tan\delta), \delta = 0.4093\sin(\frac{2\pi}{365}J - 1.39)$

where: J = Julian day number.

Day light hours, N is determined as:

$$N = \frac{24\omega_s}{\pi}$$

where: R_s is solar radiation (MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹), R_a is extraterrestrial radiation (MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹), *n* is sunshine hours, *N* is day light hours, T_{\min} and T_{\max} minimum and maximum temperature respectively, *RH* is relative humidity (%), *P* is precipitation (mm), T_{ave} is average temperature (°C), ΔT is difference between minimum and maximum temperature, φ is latitude, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e* are regression coefficients.

FAO-PM EVAPOTRANSPIRATION EQUATION, ETo

As stated earlier, the FAO-PM equation is the standard equation for determining reference crop evapotranspiration and was used for estimating *ETo* in this study. It is expressed as

$$ETo = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T + 273}[e_s - e_a]u_2}{\Delta + \gamma \cdot (1 + 0.34 \cdot u_2)}$$

Where: *ETo* is the reference crop evapotranspiration $(\text{mm}\cdot\text{day}^{-1})$; R_n is the net radiation $(\text{MJ}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{day}^{-1})$; *G* is the soil heat flux $(\text{MJ}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{day}^{-1})$; *T* is the average daily air temperature at a height of 2 m (°C); u_2 is the wind speed at a height of 2 m ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$); e_s is the saturation vapour pressure (kPa); e_a is the actual vapour pressure (kPa); $e_s - e_a$ is the vapour pressure deficit (kPa); Δ is the slope of the saturation vapour pressure-temperature curve (kPa·°C⁻¹); and γ is the psychrometric constant (kPa·°C⁻¹).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Goodness of fit was assessed by qualitative and statistical test. Qualitative assessment involves a graphical plot of empirical versus measured data to show trend. Statistical tests such as coefficient of determination (R^2), root mean square error (*RMSE*), mean bias error (*MBE*), mean absolute error (*MAE*) and mean percent error (*MPE*) were also used for assessment.

 R^2 is used to express relationship between observed and predicted values. R^2 ranges from 0 to 1. An $R^2 = 1$ represents an optimal model. Generally, $R^2 > 0.5$ is acceptable [MORIASI *et al.* 2007]. It is given as:

$$R^{2} = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (o_{i} - \overline{o})(P_{i} - \overline{P})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (o_{i} - \overline{o})^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (P_{i} - \overline{P})^{2}}}\right)^{2}$$

RMSE is a measure of how dispersed prediction errors are on the regression line. Lower *RMSE* values is an indication of high model performance. It is calculated as:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (O_i - P_i)^2}{n}}$$

MBE is used to indicate over prediction or under prediction of a model. It is given as:

$$MBE = \frac{\sum_{i}^{n}(O_{i}-P_{i})}{n} 100$$
$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{i}^{n}|O_{i}-P_{i}|}{n} 100$$
$$MPE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{1=n}^{n} \left(\frac{O_{i}-P_{i}}{O_{i}}\right) 100$$

Where: O_i is observed data, P_i is the predicted data by empirical model, \overline{O}_i is the mean of observed measured data, n is the total number of observed data points. Low values of *MBE*, *MAE* and *MPE* are indications of good model performance [DJAMAN *et al.* 2018; MORIASI *et al.* 2007; NDULUE *et al.* 2018].

The meteorological data were further checked for error, quality assessment, inconsistencies and missing data were excluded as recommended by WMO [1987] and AL-LEN [1996]. After excluding missing data, total number of observations, n were subjected to analysis. With this, monthly averages for the 32 years was determined.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

CLIMATIC ANALYSIS

The climatic condition of the study area is summarized in Table 1. Peak solar radiation was observed between December to February while lowest solar radiation was between June to August across all the three sites. This corresponds to dry and wet season in the region. Mean monthly

 Table 1. Mean monthly meteorological parameters (1983–2015)

Parameter	Values for the station								
Parameter	Nsukka	Abakaliki	Awka						
$T_{\rm max}$ (°C)	29.4±1.5	28.5±1.7	27.9±1.4						
T_{\min} (°C)	22.3±1.6	21.9±0.81	21.5±0.76						
$R_s (\mathrm{MJ}\cdot\mathrm{m}^{-2}\cdot\mathrm{day}^{-2})$	18.3 ± 2.5	18.2±2.1	17.7±2.2						
$u_2 (\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{s}^{-1})$	1.8 ± 0.32	1.5 ± 0.17	1.6±0.18						
RH (%)	79.1±9.1	81.4±11.0	81.4±9						
Latitude (°N)	6.843	6.323	6.222						
Longitude (°E)	7.373	8.112	7.082						
Number of observations, n	11,676	11,606	11,675						

Explanations: T_{min} = minimum temperature, T_{max} = maximum temperature, R_s = solar radiation, u_2 = the wind speed at a height of 2 m, RH = relative humidity.

Source: own elaboration.

highest solar radiation in Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka are 21.86, 20.49 and 20.05 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot day^{-1}$ while mean monthly lowest solar radiation are 14.56, 14.1 and 13.32 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot day^{-1}$ for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively.

SOLAR RADIATION (Rs) MODEL PERFORMANCE WITH ORIGINAL RS EMPIRICAL CONSTANTS

Statistical tests between measured solar radiation and the different empirical solar radiation using their original constants is summarized in Table 2. As shown, R^2 ranged from 0.39 to 0.90, 0.23 to 0.88 and 0.14 to 0.76 for Abakaliki, Nsukka, and Awka stations respectively. Across all three sites, *RMSE* ranged from 1.23 to 12.48 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹, *MBE* ranged from -10.62 to 11.32 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹, *MAE* ranged from 1.017 to 11.32 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹ while *MPE* ranged from -59.9 to 68.78%. Also, Elagib and Mansell model performed best with least *RMSE* (1.23 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot day^{-1}$), $MBE (-0.17 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}), MAE (1.02 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}) \text{ and }$ MPE (-0.27%) while the worst performance was by Hassan model with $(R^2 = 0.39, RMSE = 5.69 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1})$ $MBE = 4.91 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$, $MAE = 4.918 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ and MPE = 29.1%) for Abakaliki station. The Swartman-Ogunlade model performed best with an R^2 of 0.88, RMSE of 1.95 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹, *MBE* of -1.47 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹, *MAE* of 1.72 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹ and *MPE* of -7.22% while the worst performance was by El-Sebaii model with RMSE of 11.38 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot day^{-1}$, *MBE* of 9.71 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot day^{-1}$, *MAE* of 9.71 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot day^{-1}$ and *MPE* of 58.7% for Nsukka station. Also, for Awka station, Elagib and Mansell model performed best with the least *RMSE* of 1.374 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹, *MBE* of -0.074 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹, *MAE* of 1.08 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹ and *MPE* 0.452% while the worst performance was by El-Sebaii (*RMSE* of 12.48 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) and Hassan models ($R^2 =$

0.14). From the *MBE* values, it was observed that the Bristow–Campbell model underestimated *Rs* by 10.63, 7.64 and 10.15 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹ for Abakaliki, Nsukka and Awka stations respectively. Similarly, El-Sebaii overestimated *Rs* across the stations by 10.04, 9.72 and 11.31 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹ for Abakaliki, Nsukka and Awka stations respectively. The poor performance of Hassan and Bristow–Campbell models is likely because they require single parameter (temperature) as the only model input to predict *Rs*. This is also in line with OKUNDAMIYA *et al.* [2016] who that reported that hybrid-model perform better than single based parameter. Despite being a hybrid model, the El-Sebaii model did not yield satisfactory results. This is because the El-Sebaii model was developed using weather data of Saudi Arabia, which is very different from the climate of the study area.

Overall, model performance was poor for most models and was improved by determination of location specific constants for each of the empirical solar radiation model.

DETERMINATION OF EMPIRICAL Rs CONSTANTS

The data was divided into two groups. The first subdata (1983–2005) was used for determining regression coefficients while the second sub-data set (2006–2015) was used for validation of the calibrated equations. This was done by the principle of least squares method. Least square method minimizes the sum of squared deviations (residuals) from the regression line. Applying this method, new regression coefficients were derived for the different solar radiation models. Statistical test for each model is shown in Table 3. For example, the derived coefficient for the Hargreaves–Samani model was found to be 0.1939, 0.1989 and 0.1921 for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively

Table 2. Statistical analysis of measured solar radiation and solar radiation using original constants

Parame-		Model													
ter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Nsukka															
R^2	0.621	0.66	0.888	0.60	0.691	0.679	0.713	0.231	0.634	0.598	0.788	0.687	0.263	0.321	0.72
RMSE	2.89	8.175	1.956	4.49	11.388	1.8	1.814	2.361	2.222	2.031	2.462	1.898	6.063	4.43	3.454
MBE	-2.416	-7.691	-1.477	4.116	9.717	-0.086	-0.603	0.634	1.284	0.718	-1.883	-1.264	4.882	-3.601	3.072
MAE	2.652	7.691	1.725	4.116	9.717	1.454	1.467	1.991	1.826	1.689	2.115	1.554	5.18	3.803	3.099
MPE	-12.414	-43.752	-7.226	23.204	58.79	0.936	-2.041	5.346	8.574	5.5	-9.275	-6.351	30.01	-18.028	18.331
Abakaliki															
R^2	0.640	0.659	0.895	0.64	0.553	0.772	0.801	0.586	0.807	0.745	0.908	0.734	0.397	0.498	0.798
RMSE	4.022	10.994	2.383	2.337	11.718	1.539	1.97	1.542	3.338	1.23	3.181	2.157	5.695	4.336	2.017
MBE	-3.864	-10.627	-2.274	1.55	10.042	-1.032	-1.71	0.017	-3.184	-0.171	-3.089	-1.669	4.918	-3.906	1.773
MAE	3.864	10.627	2.274	1.717	10.262	1.098	1.71	1.349	3.184	1.017	3.089	1.868	4.918	3.906	1.815
MPE	-20.997	-59.889	-12.387	8.328	59.384	-5.13	-9.12	1.041	-17.246	-0.275	-16.816	-9.288	29.105	-20.502	10.088
							Aw	ka							
R^2	0.633	0.665	0.759	0.662	0.533	0.494	0.533	0.346	0.538	0.466	0.631	0.598	0.14	0.571	0.527
RMSE	3.37	10.324	2.488	2.673	12.483	1.64	2.089	1.648	3.41	1.374	3.162	1.939	6.459	1.571	1.931
MBE	-3.112	-10.149	-2.323	2.348	11.319	-0.982	-1.768	0.313	-3.206	-0.074	-3.007	-1.482	5.863	1.325	1.596
MAE	3.112	10.149	2.323	2.348	11.319	1.147	1.768	1.432	3.206	1.085	3.007	1.608	5.863	1.325	1.741
MPE	-17.124	-58.839	-12.901	13.753	68.785	-4.852	-9.657	2.916	-17.869	0.452	-16.794	-8.213	35.712	7.353	9.627

Explanations: models: 1 = Hargreaves Samani, 2 = Bristow–Campbell, 3 = Swartman–Ogunlade, 4 = Chen1, 5 = El-Sebaii, 6 = Almorox and Hontoria, 7 = Ogelman, 8 = Dogniaux and Lemoine, 9 = McC-Glower and McCulloch, 10 = Elagib and Mansell and Mansell, 11 = Chen2, 12 = Adeala *et al.*, 13 = Hassan, 14 = Angstrom-Prescott-Page, 15 = Ezekwe and Ezeifo; R^2 = determination coefficient, RMSE = root mean square error, MBE = mean bias error, MAE = mean absolute error, MPE = mean percent error. Source: own elaboration.

Aodel	а	b	С	d	е	R^2	RMSE	$\frac{MBE}{(MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot day^{-1})}$	MAE	MPE (%
	ű	Ű	Ĵ							
		r	r		Nsukk			0		
1	0.19370					0.64	1.545	-0.761	1.371	-3.497
2	0.74390	-0.04360	0.26650			0.79	1.403	-0.403	1.256	-1.425
3	0.68730	0.45950	-0.00475			0.97	0.848	-0.574	0.719	-2.816
4	0.19967	-0.01538				0.65	1.580	-0.545	1.448	-2.069
5	0.84470	0.76886	0.03213			0.83	0.954	0.287	0.760	1.837
6	-0.17341	0.41810				0.89	0.749	-0.058	0.589	-0.103
7	0.11998	0.98137	-0.35660			0.89	0.756	-0.057	0.588	-0.088
8	0.14959	0.64575	0.32340	0.58370		0.89	0.745	-0.060	0.591	-0.128
9	0.18960	0.66090				0.89	0.745	-0.060	0.591	-0.128
10	0.26310	1.34230	1 25100	0.05120		0.89	0.754	-0.057	0.590	-0.092
11	0.16640	0.33500	1.27100	0.05130	0.10000	0.96	0.665	-0.316	0.595	-1.422
12	0.96518	1.09280	-0.00364	0.04022	0.12930	0.96	0.715	-0.251	0.619	-0.991
13	-0.05614	0.01010	0.49080			0.67	1.345	-0.067	1.085	0.450
14	0.72110	0.65619				0.87	0.797	-0.065	0.650	-0.162
15	0.18822	0.66092				0.89	0.745	-0.060	0.591	-0.128
1	0.10000			r	Abakali		1.0.40	1.225	1.722	
1	0.19890	0.74106	0.20720			0.72	1.940	-1.325	1.723	-6.644
2	0.67410	0.74186	0.30730			0.68	1.919	-1.407	1.645	-7.263
3	0.51548	0.45682	-0.00260			0.96	0.855	-0.625	0.679	-3.231
4	0.15671	-0.10970	0.02022			0.73	1.960	-1.370	1.720	-6.931
5	-0.22470	0.51676	0.02022			0.76	1.265	-0.579	0.940	-2.836
6	-0.16490	0.43270	0.511(0			0.84	0.934	-0.132	0.723	-0.445
7	0.30371	0.23277	0.51168	0.57707		0.85	0.905	-0.137	0.746	-0.529
8	0.18107	0.64490	0.34095	0.57797		0.84	0.910	-0.134	0.732	-0.489
9	0.22340	0.65501				0.84	0.910	-0.134	0.732	-0.489
10	0.28095	1.33646	0.05501	2 2 4000		0.83	0.949	-0.129	0.727	-0.399
11	0.13047	2.73670	0.05591	-2.34090	0.01759	0.94	1.124	-0.930	0.977	-4.999
12	0.46659	0.47634	-0.00250	-0.00030	0.01758	0.92	0.785	-0.138	0.564	-0.960
13	-0.02980	0.01271	0.30300			0.86	1.367	-0.975	1.213	-4.968
14 15	0.72760 0.22180	0.59057 0.65500				0.84	0.929 0.910	-0.140	0.773	-0.554
13	0.22180	0.03300			A l		0.910	-0.134	0.732	-0.489
1	0.19210				Awka	0.68	1.617	-0.969	1.464	-4.747
2	0.19210	0.61263	0.25459			0.08	1.599	-0.969	1.404	-4.747
3	0.77290	0.50465	-0.00320			0.72	0.433	-0.134	0.336	-0.564
4	0.34734	0.04588	-0.00320			0.98	1.645	-0.134	1.437	-5.415
5	-0.36780	0.04388	0.02496			0.84	1.043	0.430	0.889	2.551
6	-0.21800	0.47297	0.02490			0.84	1.005	0.430	0.867	3.948
7	0.16980	0.47297	-0.27650			0.89	0.994	0.612	0.826	3.948
8	0.16932	0.65194	0.33598	0.62517		0.89	0.994	0.642	0.820	3.760
<u> </u>	0.10932	0.70304	0.33398	0.0231/		0.89	0.993	0.642	0.832	3.760
10	0.21096	1.43843				0.89	1.012	0.642	0.832	4.022
10	0.27360	4.37890	0.03430	-4.07510		0.90	0.528	-0.349	0.883	-1.848
12	0.17463	0.45062	-0.0029	-4.07310 -0.01020	-0.00650	0.98	0.528	-0.258	0.431	-1.281
12	-0.06360	0.43062	0.42514	-0.01020	-0.00030	0.97	1.414	-0.238	1.197	-1.281
13	0.73886	0.60382	0.42314			0.79	1.414	0.553	0.851	3.350
14	0.20945	0.70304				0.83	0.993	0.535	0.831	3.330

Table 3. Statistical analysis of measured solar radiation and solar radiation using new regression constants

Explanations: a, b, c, d, e = new empirical constants, the others as in Table 1. Source: own elaboration.

which is 21.19, 24.3 and 20% higher than the recommended 0.16. The result agrees closely with the reported coefficient of 0.1945 by ADARAMOLA [2012] for Akure. In contrast, ADEBOYE *et al.* [2009] reported a constant of 0.16– 0.17 for Abeokuta, Ijebu-Ode and Itoikin in South-West Nigeria. The derived coefficients for other Rs models are summarized in Table 3. The statistical tests also showed a significantly improvements of each of the Rs models (Fig. 1). In general, R^2 ranged from 0.64 to 0.96, 0.68 to 0.96 and 0.68 to 0.98 for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively. Similarly, *RMSE* ranged from 0.79 to 1.58, 0.85 to 1.96 and 0.43 to 1.64 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹ for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively. The Swartman–Ogunlade ($R^2 =$ 0.96) and Adeala models (*RMSE* = 0.785 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed best while Chen 1 ($R^2 = 0.73$) and Bristow– Campbell (*RMSE* = 1.91 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) performed least in estimating *Rs* in Abakaliki. At the Nsukka station, Swart-

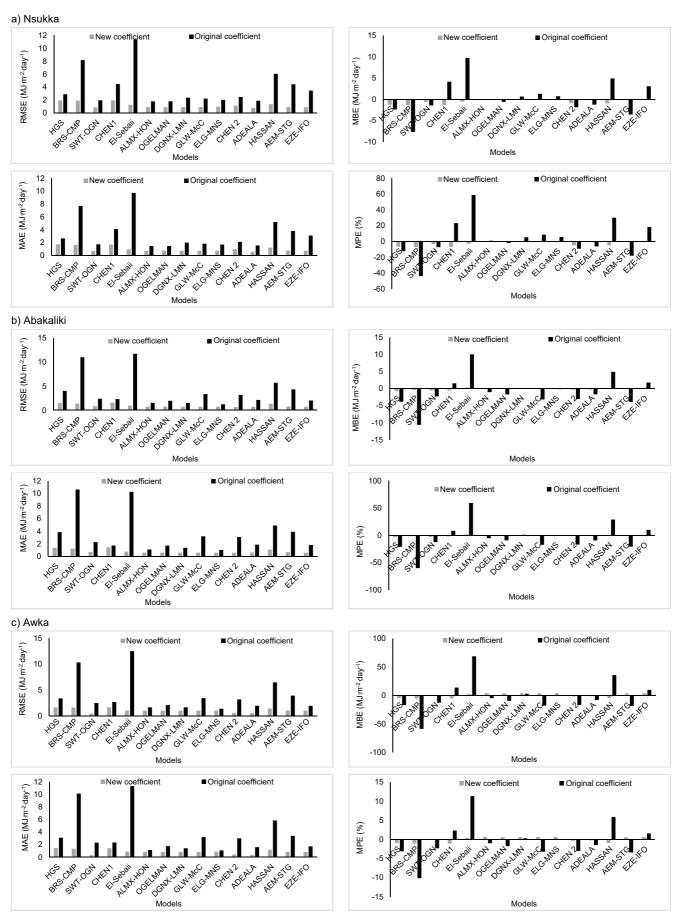


Fig. 1. Comparison of statistical tests for *Rs* estimated using the original constants and the original and new constants for stations: a) Nsukka, b) Abakaliki, c) Awka; models numbers as in Table 1; source: own study

man–Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.97$) and Adeala (*RMSE* = 0.715) MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) models performed best while Hargreaves-Samani ($R^2 = 0.64$) and Chen 1 ($RMSE = 1.58 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$) performed least in estimating Rs. Chen 2 ($R^2 = 0.98$) and Swartman–Ogunlade models ($RMSE = 0.43 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$) performed best while Hargreaves-Samani ($R^2 = 0.68$) and Chen 1 (*RMSE* = 1.64 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot day^{-1}$) performed least in estimating Rs in Awka. Based on the MBE values, all models underestimated Rs ranging from -1.407 to -0.129 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹ at the Abakaliki station. Similarly, all the models underestimated Rs except El-Sebaii model (MBE = 0.287 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) for the Nsukka station. For the Awka station, most models overestimated Rs except Hargreaves-Samani, Bristow-Campbell, Swartman-Ogunlade, Chen 1 and 2, and Adeala and the Hassan model. MAE ranged from 0.58 to 1.44 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹, 0.56 to 1.72 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹, and 0.33 to 1.46 MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹ for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively while MPE ranged from -3.49 to 1.83%, -7.26 to -0.39% and -5.57 to 4.02% for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively. Across all sites, there was tremendous improvement in model performance with the new constants. For example, RMSE decreased ranging from 32.9 to 88.9%, 32.4 to 91.8% and 26.4 to 91.74% at Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka stations respectively. Similar decrease was also observed for other statistical indices as shown in Figure 1.

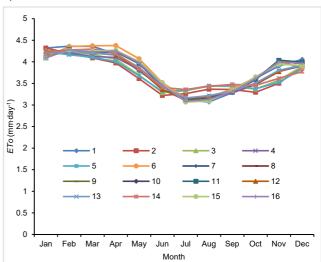
PERFORMANCE OF *ETo* CALCULATED FROM *Rs* ESTIMATES

ETo was calculated using the FAO-PM equation. ETo estimates computed using measured Rs was compared with ETo estimated using calibrated empirical Rs models. The temporal variation of ETo computed using both methods is shown in Figure 2. It is observed that there was a close match between ETo determined using measured Rs and ETo estimated by the calibrated Rs models. The variation of ETo across the months is similar to the climate of the region. That is, maximum ETo estimates were observed during the dry season (November-March) and minimum ETo estimates were observed during the wet season (April-October). The ETo trend observed in this study agrees with the report of ECHIEGU et al. [2016], ADEKUN-LE et al. [2017], and DAVIES [1966]. It also agrees in trend but disagree in magnitude with ADEBOYE et al. [2009] and Елел [2011].

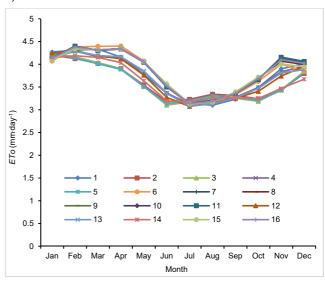
A maximum *ETo* of 4.18 and 4.3 mm·day⁻¹ was obtained using measured *Rs* and empirical *Rs* for Awka station. For Abakaliki, maximum *ETo* of 4.4 and 4.3 mm·day⁻¹ was obtained using measured *Rs* and empirical *Rs* while a maximum *ETo* of 4.2 and 4.3 mm·day⁻¹ was obtained using measured *Rs* and empirical *Rs* for Nsukka station. The results agree with the work of ECHIEGU *et al.* [2016] and ADEKUNLE *et al.* [2017]. ECHIEGU *et al.* [2016] and ADEKUNLE *et al.* [2017] reported a maximum *ETo* of 4.67 and 4.03 mm·day⁻¹ for Enugu and Umudike respectively. These areas are within the same agro-ecological zone as our study area.

Furthermore, statistical analysis of each model is analysed and presented in Table 4 using *RMSE*, *MBE*, *MAE* and *MPE*. As seen, the mean error analysis varied from











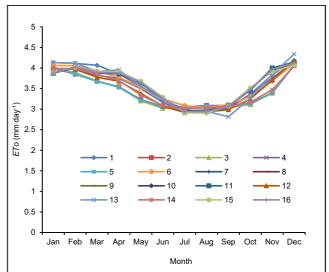


Fig. 2. *ETo* estimates from measured and calibrated *Rs* for: a) Nsukka, b) Abakaliki, c) Awka; models numbers as in Table 1; source: own study

Ma dal	Nsukkka							Abakaliki			Awka				
Model	R^2	RMSE	MBE	MAE	MPE	R^2	RMSE	MBE	MAE	MPE	R^2	RMSE	MBE	MAE	MPE
1	0.738	0.2528	-0.1733	0.2219	-4.3842	0.828	0.2271	-0.1152	0.2016	-2.6554	0.838	0.2402	-0.1463	0.2166	-3.5090
2	0.751	0.2507	-0.1838	0.2125	-4.7762	0.844	0.2034	-0.0620	0.1829	-1.1777	0.854	0.2386	-0.1625	0.2036	-4.0747
3	0.939	0.1077	-0.0791	0.0857	-2.0350	0.980	0.1243	-0.0842	0.1051	-2.0100	0.988	0.0644	-0.0197	0.0493	-0.4040
4	0.735	0.2558	-0.1791	0.2217	-4.5687	0.821	0.2298	-0.0831	0.2112	-1.6390	0.839	0.2455	-0.1612	0.2133	-3.9760
5	0.931	0.0908	-0.0285	0.0807	-0.5178	0.919	0.1398	0.0450	0.1108	1.3537	0.911	0.1532	0.0675	0.1312	1.8761
6	0.940	0.1159	-0.0134	0.0912	-0.1739	0.949	0.1088	-0.0069	0.0861	-0.0259	0.942	0.1502	0.1020	0.1285	2.8284
7	0.959	0.1120	-0.0139	0.0940	-0.2078	0.948	0.1098	-0.0069	0.0859	-0.0200	0.935	0.1485	0.0925	0.1226	2.5995
8	0.951	0.1128	-0.0136	0.0923	-0.1924	0.949	0.1083	-0.0070	0.0862	-0.0356	0.939	0.1485	0.0968	0.1235	2.7013
9	0.951	0.1128	-0.0136	0.0923	-0.1924	0.949	0.1083	-0.0070	0.0862	-0.0356	0.939	0.1485	0.0968	0.1235	2.7013
10	0.937	0.1178	-0.0131	0.0916	-0.1502	0.949	0.1095	-0.0069	0.0861	-0.0214	0.942	0.1510	0.1036	0.1308	2.8758
11	0.899	0.1440	-0.1191	0.1248	-3.2029	0.977	0.0970	-0.0466	0.0868	-1.0463	0.984	0.0785	-0.0518	0.0636	-1.3285
12	0.918	0.1003	-0.0180	0.0720	-0.6432	0.975	0.1037	-0.0367	0.0900	-0.7301	0.983	0.0750	-0.0370	0.0588	-0.8875
13	0.858	0.1785	-0.1272	0.1561	-3.2576	0.849	0.1920	-0.0106	0.1560	0.1941	0.890	0.2068	-0.1372	0.1755	-3.4005
14	0.964	0.1150	-0.0142	0.0974	-0.2132	0.940	0.1157	-0.0072	0.0948	-0.0423	0.922	0.1529	0.0843	0.1259	2.4196
15	0.951	0.1128	-0.0136	0.0923	-0.1924	0.949	0.1083	-0.0070	0.0862	-0.0356	0.939	0.1485	0.0968	0.1235	2.7013

Table 4. Statistical analysis of *ETo* estimates

Explanations: models numbers as in Table 1.

Source: own study.

one model to another. It is also observed that the models gave a reasonable accuracy for estimating *ETo* as there was a reduction in magnitude in error compared with *Rs*. This was also observed by ALADENOLA and MADRAMOOTOO [2014], and TABARI *et al.* [2016]. This is attributed to more inputs being involved in calculating *ETo*. In summary, R^2 ranged from 0.83 to 0.98, 0.82 to 0.98 and 0.73 to 0.96 for Awka, Abakaliki, and Nsukka respectively. *RMSE* ranged from 0.064 to 0.24 mm·day⁻¹, 0.097 to 0.22 mm·day⁻¹ and 0.0908 to 0.255 mm·day⁻¹ for Awka, Abakaliki, and Nsukka respectively.

Based on MBE values, all models overestimated ETo except Hargreaves-Samani, Bristow-Campbell, Swartman-Ogunlade, Chen 1 and 2, Adeala and Hassan models for Awka station. For Abakaliki station, all models estimated ETo except El-Sebaii model while in Awka, all the models underestimated ETo ranging from -0.18 mm·day⁻ to $-0.0131 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$. Based on R^2 and *RMSE*, the Adeala $(R^2 = 0.983, RMSE = 0.075 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1})$ and Swartman-Ogunlade models ($R^2 = 0.988$, $RMSE = 0.064 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$) performed best while the Hargreaves–Samani ($R^2 = 0.83$ and $RMSE = 0.24 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$) and Chen 1 models ($R^2 =$ 0.83, RMSE 0.24 mm day⁻¹) performed least for the Awka station. In the same vein, Chen 2 ($R^2 = 0.97$, RMSE = 0.097 mm·day⁻¹) and Swartman–Ogunlade models ($R^2 = 0.98$, $RMSE = 0.1243 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ yielded the best *ETo* estimates while Chen 1 ($R^2 = 0.82$, RMSE = 0.22 mm·day⁻¹) and Hargreaves-Samani models ($R^2 = 0.82$, RMSE = 0.227mm day-1) gave the least performance at the Abakaliki station. At Nsukka, the Angstrom–Prescott–Page ($R^2 = 0.96$, $RMSE = 0.11 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$) and El-Sebaii model ($R^2 = 0.93$, $RMSE = 0.0908 \text{ mm} \text{day}^{-1}$) performed best while Chen 1 ($R^2 = 0.73$, $RMSE = 0.25 \text{ mm} \text{day}^{-1}$) and Hargreaves– Samani models ($R^2 = 0.73$, RMSE = 0.25 mm day⁻¹) model performed least.

MBE ranged from -0.18 to $-0.013 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$, -0.115 to 0.045 mm \cdot \text{day}^{-1} and -0.16 to 0.103 mm \cdot \text{day}^{-1} for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively. *MAE* ranged from 0.072 to 0.22 mm \cdot \text{day}^{-1}, 0.085 to 0.21 mm \cdot \text{day}^{-1} and 0.049 to 0.216 mm \cdot \text{day}^{-1} for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively while MPE ranged from -4.77 to 0.15%, -2.65 to 1.35% and -4.07 to 2.85% for Nsukka, Abakaliki and Awka respectively.

CONCLUSIONS

In this study, the performance of fifteen empirical solar radiation models and their impacts on ETo estimates using the Penman-Monteith (PM-56) equation in three sites in a humid tropical environment was evaluated. The results showed poor Rs estimates using original constant with high RMSE for most models. With new developed empirical constants for each site, there was a close match between the empirical models and observed Rs as indicated in the R^2 and *RMSE*. The Swartman–Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.96$) and Adeala models (*RMSE* = $0.785 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$) yielded the best solar radiation estimate in Abakaliki, Swartman-Ogunlade ($R^2 = 0.97$) and Adeala (*RMSE* = 0.715) MJ·m⁻²·day⁻¹) models performed best in Nsukka while Chen 2 $(R^2 = 0.98)$ and Swartman–Ogunlade models $(RMSE = 0.43 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{day}^{-1})$ yielded the best solar radiation estimate in Awka. The calibrated Rs models was then used to estimate ETo. Results showed that the calibrated models produced lesser deviations than the Rs estimates. In general, RMSE < 0.6 and $R^2 > 0.7$ was observed for all the models at all sites. Specifically, the Adeala and Swartman-Ogunlade models yielded the best ETo estimate at Awka, Chen 2 and Swartman-Ogunlade models performed best at Abakaliki while Angstrom-Prescott-Page, El-Sebaii, Swartman-Ogunlade and Adeala models performed best for Nsukka. The results of the calibrated models showed that simple temperature models like Hagreaves-Samani can give a reasonable and accurate Rs and ETo estimate. Our study harnessed the availability of remotely sensed data from NASA archives. It is also important that studies compare our results with weather stations. The findings of this study can be used as a platform in the South-East region of Nigeria, for irrigation planning, design and management.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

These data were obtained from the NASA Langley Research Center (LaRC) POWER Project funded through the NASA Earth Science/Applied Science Program.

REFERENCES

- ADARAMOLA M. S. 2012. Estimating global solar radiation using common meteorological data in Akure, Nigeria. Renewble Energy. Vol. 47 p. 38–44.
- ADEALA A.A., HUAN Z., ENWEREMADU C.C. 2015. Evaluation of global solar radiation using multiple weather parameters as predictors for South Africa provinces. Thermal Science. Vol. 19. Supl. 2 p. S495–S509.
- ADEBOYE O.B., OSUNBITAN J.A., ADEKALU K.O., OKUNADE D.A. 2009. Evaluation of FAO-56 Penman–Monteith and temperature-based models in estimating reference evapotranspiration using complete and limited data, application to Nigeria. Agricultural Engineering International: The CIGR Ejournal. Vol. 11(1291) p. 1–25.
- ADEKUNLE A.A., BADEJO A.A., OPAFOLA O.T., BADA B.S., NKESHITA F.C. 2017. Estimation of water requirements of selected field crops in South-West and South-East Nigeria. Journal of Agriculture and Sustainability. Vol. 10(2) p. 172– 186.
- AKPABIO L.E., ETUK S.E. 2003. Relationship between global solar radiation and sunshine duration for Onne, Nigeria. International Journal of Sustainable and Green Energy. Vol. 27 p. 161–167.
- AKPABIO L.E., UDO S.O., ETUK E. 2005. Modeling global solar radiation for a tropical location: Onne, Nigeria. Turkish Journal of Physics. Vol. 29. Iss. 1 p. 63–68.
- ALADENOLA O.O., MADRAMOOTOO Ch.A. 2014. Evaluation of solar radiation estimation methods for reference evapotranspiration estimation in Canada. Theoretical and Applied Climatology. Vol. 118. Iss. 3 p. 377–385.
- ALLEN R.G. 1996. Assessing integrity of weather data for reference evapotranspiration estimation. Journal of Irrigation and Drainage Engineering. Vol. 122. Iss. 2 p. 97–106.
- ALLEN R.G., PEREIRA L.S., RAES D., SMITH M. 1998. Crop evapotranspiration-guidelines for computing crop water requirements. FAO Irrigation and Drainage Paper. No. 56. Rome. United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization pp. 300.
- ALMOROX J., HONTORIA C. 2004. Global solar radiation estimation using sunshine duration in Spain. Energy Conversion and Management. Vol. 45 p. 1529–1535.
- ANGSTROM A. 1924. Solar and terrestrial radiation. Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society. Vol. 50 p. 121– 125.
- AYODELE T.R., OGUNJUYIGBE A.S.O. 2016. Performance assessment of empirical models for prediction of daily and monthly average global solar radiation: The case study of Ibadan, Nigeria. International Journal of Ambient Energy. Vol. 38(8) p. 803–813.
- BESHARAT F., DEHGHAN A.A., FAGHIH A.R. 2013. Empirical models for estimating global solar radiation: A review and case study. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews. Vol. 21 p. 798–821.
- BRISTOW K.L., CAMPBELL G.S. 1984. On the relationship between incoming solar radiation and daily maximum and minimum temperature. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology. Vol. 31. Iss. 2 p. 59–166.
- CHEN R., ERSI K., YANG J., LU S., ZHAO W. 2004. Validation of five global radiation models with measured daily data in China. Energy Conversion and Management. Vol. 45 p. 1759– 1769.

- CHINEKE T.C. 2008. Equations for estimating global solar radiation in data sparse regions. Renewable Energy. Vol. 33(4) p. 827–831.
- DAVIES J.A. 1966. The assessment of evapotranspiration for Nigeria. Geografiska Annaler. Ser. A. Physical Geography. Vol. 48(3) p. 139–156.
- DE MEDEIROS F.J., SANTOS E SILVA C.M., BEZERRA B.G. 2017. Calibration of Ångström-Prescott equation to estimate daily solar radiation on Rio Grande do Norte State. Revista Brasileira de Meteorologia. Vol. 32(3) p. 409–461.
- DJAMAN K., O'NEILL M., DIOP L. 2018. Evaluation of the Penman-Monteith and other 34 reference evapotranspiration equations under limited data in a semiarid dry climate. Theoretical and Applied Climatology. Vol. 133 p. 1–9.
- DOGNIAUX R., LEMOINE M. 1983. Classification of radiation sites in terms of different indices of atmospheric transparency. In: Solar radiation data. Solar energy research and development in the European Community. Ser. F. Vol. 2. Dordrecht, Holland. Reidel p. 94–107.
- ECHIEGU E.A., EDE N.C., EZENNE G.I. 2016. Optimization of Blaney-Morin-Nigeria (BMN) model for estimating evapotranspiration in Enugu, Nigeria. African Journal of Agricultural Research. Vol. 11(20) p. 1842–1848.
- EGBODION J., AHMADU J. 2015. Production cost efficiency and profitability of Abakaliki rice in Ihialia Local Government Area of Anambra State, Nigeria. Journal of Applied Sciences and Environmental Management. Vol. 19(2) p. 327–333.
- EGEONU D.I., NJOKU H.O., OKOLO P.N., ENIBE S.O. 2015. Comparative assessment of temperature based ANN and Angstrom type models for predicting global solar radiation [online]. In: The Second International Afro-European Conference for Industrial Advancement. Eds. A. Abraham, P. Krömer, V. Snasel. Advances in Intelligent Systems and Computing. Vol. 334. Cham. Springer p. 109–122. [Access 10.10.2018]. Available at: https://link.springer.com/ chapter/10.1007/978-3-319-13572-4_9
- EJIEJI C.J. 2011. Performance of three empirical reference evapotranspiration models under three sky conditions using two solar radiation estimation methods at Ilorin, Nigeria. Agricultural Engineering International: CIGR Journal. Vol. 13(3) p. 1–14.
- EL-SEBAII A.A., AL-GHAMDI A.A., AL-HAZMI F.S, FAIDAH A. 2009. Estimation of global solar radiation on horizontal surfaces in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Energy Policy. Vol. 37 p. 3645–3649.
- ELAGIB N., MANSELL M.G. 2000. New approaches for estimating global solar radiation across Sudan. Energy Conversion Management. Vol. 21 p. 271–287.
- ESTÉVEZ J., PADILLA F.L. M., GAVILÁN P. 2012. Evaluation and regional calibration of solar radiation prediction models in southern Spain. Journal of Irrigation and Drainage Engineering. Vol. 138(10) p. 868–879.
- EZEKWE C.I., EZEIFO C.C.O. 1981. Measured solar radiation in a Nigerian environment compared with predicted data. Solar Energy. Vol. 26 p. 181–186.
- GLOWER J., MCGULLOCH J.S.G. 1958. The empirical relation between solar radiation and hours of sunshine. Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society. Vol. 84 p. 172.
- GOBIN A. 2000. Participatory and spatial modeling methods for land resources analysis. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation. Leuven. Katholieke Universiteit pp. 328.
- HARGREAVES G.H., SAMANI Z.A. 1985. Reference crop evapotranspiration from temperature. Applied Engineering in Agriculture. Vol. 1(2) p. 96–99.
- HASSAN G.E., YOUSSEF M.E., MOHAMED Z.E., ALI M.A., HANAFY A.A. 2016. New temperature-based models for pre-

dicting global solar radiation. Applied Energy. Vol. 179 p. 437–450.

- KOSA P. 2011. The effect of temperature on actual evapotranspiration based on Landsat 5 TM Satellite Imagery. In: Evapotranspiration [online]. Ed. L. Labedzki. London. InTech. ISBN 978-953-307-251-7. [Access 20.10.2018]. Available at: http://www.intechopen.com/books/evapotranspiration/the-effect-of-temperature-on-actualevapotranspiration-based-on-landsat-5-tm-satellite-imagery
- KOUDAHE K., DJAMAN K., ADEWUMI J.K. 2018. Evaluation of the Penman–Monteith reference evapotranspiration under limited data and its sensitivity to key climatic variables under humid and semiarid conditions. Modeling Earth Systems and Environment. Vol. 4(3) p. 1239–1257.
- LIU X., MEI X., LI Y., ZHANG Y., WANG Q., JENSEN J.R., PORTER J.R. 2009. Calibration of the Ångström-Prescott coefficients (a, b) under different time scales and their impacts in estimating global solar radiation in the Yellow River basin. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology. Vol. 149(3–4) p. 697–710.
- LÓPEZ-URREA R., DE SANTA OLALLA M.F., FABEIRO C., MORA-TALLA A. 2006. Testing evapotranspiration equations using lysimeter observations in a semiarid climate. Agricultural Water Management. Vol. 85(1–2) p. 15–26.
- MARTEL M., GLENN A., WILSON H., KROBEL R. 2018. Simulation of actual evapotranspiration from agricultural landscapes in the Canadian Prairies. Journal of Hydrology: Regional Studies. Vol. 15 p. 105–118.
- MORIASI D.N., ARNOLD J.G., VAN LIEW M.W., BINGNER R.L., HARMEL R.D., VEITH T.L. 2007. Model evaluation guidelines for systematic quantification of accuracy in watershed simulations. Transactions of the ASABE. Vol. 50(3) p. 885–900.
- MOUSAVI R., SABZIPARVAR A.A., MAROFI S., PAK N.A.E., HEYDARI M. 2015. Calibration of the Angström–Prescott solar radiation model for accurate estimation of reference evapotranspiration in the absence of observed solar radiation. Theoretical and Applied Climatology. Vol. 119(1–2) p. 43– 54.
- NASA 2016. National Aeronautics Space Administration Prediction of Worldwide Energy Resource (POWER) [online]. [Access 15.10.2016]. Available at: https://power.larc.nasa.gov/ data-access-viewer/
- NDULUE E.L., EZENNE G.I., MBAJIORGU C.C., OGWO V., OGBU K.N. 2018. Hydrological modeling of upper Ebonyi watershed using the SWAT model. International Journal of Hydrology Science and Technology. Vol. 8(2) p. 120–133.
- NISTOR M., CHEVAL S., GUALTIERI A.F., DUMITRESCU A., BOŢAN V.E., BERNI A., HOGNOGI G., IRIMUŞ I.A., PORUMB-GHIURCO C.G. 2017. Crop evapotranspiration assessment under climate change in the Pannonian basin during 1991–2050. Meteorological Applications. Vol. 24 p. 84–91.
- NWOKOLO S.C. 2017. A comprehensive review of empirical models for estimating global solar radiation in Africa. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews. Vol. 78 p. 955– 995.
- OGELMAN H., ECEVIT A., TASDEMIROGLU E. 1984. A new method for estimating solar radiation from bright sunshine data. Solar Energy. Vol. 33 p. 619–625.
- OGOLO E.O. 2014. The comparative analysis of performance evaluation of recalibrated reference evapotranspiration models for different regional climatic conditions in Nigeria. Ife Journal of Science. Vol. 16(2) p. 1–20.
- OKUNDAMIYA M.S., EMAGBETERE J.O., OGUJOR E.A. 2016. Evaluation of various global solar radiation models for Nigeria. International Journal of Green Energy. Vol. 13(5) p. 505–512.

- ONWUBUYA E.A., OKPORIE E.O., NENNA M.G. 2009. Nsukka yellow pepper processing and preservation techniques among women in Enugu State. African Journal of Agricultural Research. Vol. 4(9) p. 859–863.
- PAGE I.K. 1961. The estimation of monthly mean values of daily total shortwave radiation in vertical and inclined surfaces from sunshine records for latitude 40°N – 40°S. In: Proceedings of the UN Conference on new Source of Energy. Paper No. 598 p. 378–390.
- PRESCOTT J.A. 1940. Evaporation from water surface in relation to solar radiation. Transactions of the Royal Society of South Australia. Vol. 64 p. 114–118.
- SCHNEIDER K., KETZER B., BREUER L., VACHÉ K.B., BERNHOFER C., FREDE H.G. 2007. Evaluation of evapotranspiration methods for model validation in a semi-arid watershed in northern China. Advances in Geosciences. Vol. 11 p. 37–42.
- SENTELHAS P.C., GILLESPIE T.J., SANTOS E.A. 2010. Evaluation of FAO Penman-Monteith and alternative methods for estimating reference evapotranspiration with missing data in Southern Ontario, Canada. Agricultural Water Management. Vol. 97(5) p. 635–644.
- SWARTMAN R.K., OGUNLADE O. 1967. Solar radiation estimates from common parameters. Solar Energy. Vol. 11(3–4) p. 170–172.
- TABARI H., TALAEE P.H., WILLEMS P., MARTINES Ch. 2016. Validation and calibration of solar radiation equations for estimating daily reference evapotranspiration at cool. Hydrological Sciences Journal. Vol. p. 37–41.
- THORNTON P.E., RUNNING S.W. 1999. An improved algorithm for estimating incident daily solar radiation from measurements of temperature, humidity, and precipitation. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology. Vol. 93(4) p. 211–228.
- TOĞRUL I.T., TOĞRUL H. 2002. Global solar radiation over Turkey: Comparison of predicted and measured data. Renewable Energy. Vol. 25(1) p. 55–67.
- VOZHEHOVA R.A., LAVRYNENKO Y.O., KOKOVIKHIN S.V., LYKHOVYD P.V., BILIAIEVA I.M., DROBITKO A.V., NESTER-CHUK V.V. 2018. Assessment of the CROPWAT 8.0 software reliability for evapotranspiration and crop water requirements calculations. Journal of Water and Land Development. No. 39 p. 147–152. DOI 10.2478/jwld-2018-0070.
- WANG K., MA Q., LI Z., WANG J. 2015. Decadal variability of surface incident solar radiation over China: Observations, satellite retrievals, and reanalyses. Journal of Geophysical. Research: Atmosphere. Vol. 120 p. 6500–6514.
- WMO 1987. Guidelines on the quality control of data from the world radiometric network. World climate programme. WCDP-3. Prepared by the World Radiation Data Centre, Voeikov Main Geophysical Observatory, USSR State Committee for Hydrometeorology. Leningrad. World Meteorological Organization pp. 30.
- WU B., LIU S., ZHU W., YAN N., XING Q., TAN S. 2017. An improved approach for estimating daily net radiation over the Heihe River Basin. Sensors (Basel). Vol. 17(1): 86.
- XU J., PENG S., LUO Y., ZHENG W. 2008. Influence of Angstrom's Coefficients on estimate of solar radiation and reference evapotranspiration by Penman-Monteith equation. Proceeding of 16th IAHR-APD Congress and 3rd Symposium of IAHR-ISHS. Advances in Water Resources and Hydraulic Engineering p. 339–344.
- ZHANG Q., CUI N., FENG Y., JIA Y., Li Z., GONG D. 2018. Comparative analysis of global solar radiation models in different regions of China. Advances in Meteorology. Vol. 2018. Art. ID 3894831 p. 1–21.

Emeka NDULUE, Ikenna ONYEKWELU, Kingsley N. OGBU, Vintus OGWO

Ocena przydatności wyników równań promieniowania słonecznego do oszacowania ewapotranspiracji potencjalnej (*ETo*) w wilgotnym środowisku tropikalnym

STRESZCZENIE

Promieniowanie słoneczne (Rs) stanowi istotny czynnik w trakcie określania ewapotranspiracji potencjalnej (ETo) terenów uprawnych. Dokładne oszacowanie ETo jest pierwszym etapem ustalania zapotrzebowania na wodę pól uprawnych. Celem tego badania była ocena dokładności piętnastu empirycznych modeli Rs i oznaczenie wpływu tego parametru na szacunki ewapotranspiracji w trzech stanowiskach wilgotnego środowiska tropikalnego (Abakaliki, Nsukka i Awka). Wykorzystano archiwalne dane meteorologiczne NASA z lat 1983 do 2003 do wyprowadzenia empirycznych stałych (kalibracja) dla różnych modeli w każdej z trzech lokalizacji, a dane z lat 2006 do 2015 posłużyło do oceny. Wyniki wskazuja na większą zgodność mierzonego Rs i oszacowanych wartości promieniowania wyznaczonego z zastosowaniem nowych stałych. Po kalibracji modele Swartmana–Ogunladego ($R^2 = 0.97$) i Chena 2 ($RMSE = 0.665 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$) dawały najlepsze wyniki, podczas gdy modele Chena 1 ($R^2 = 0,66$) i Bristowa–Campbella (RMSE = 1,58 MJ·m⁻²·d⁻¹) były najmniej dokładne w wyznaczaniu Rs w Akabaliki. W stacji Nsukka modele Swartmana–Ogunladego ($R^2 = 0.96$) i Adeali (RMSE = 0.785 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$) dawały najlepiej dostosowane wyniki oszacowania Rs, natomiast modele Hargreavesa–Samaniego ($R^2 = 0,64$) i Chena 1 ($RMSE = 1.96 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$) najmniej. Modele Chena 2 ($R^2 = 0.98$) i Swartmana–Ogunladego (RMSE = 0.43 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$) okazały się najlepsze, a modele Hargreavesa–Samaniego ($R^2 = 0,68$) i Chena 1 (RMSE = 1,64 $MJ \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$) – najgorsze w ustalaniu promieniowania w stanowisku Awka. W oszacowaniach ETo modele Adeali ($R^2 = 0.98$) i Swartmana–Ogunladego ($RMSE = 0.064 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$) dawały najlepsze wyniki w przypadku danych ze stanowiska Awka, a modele Swartmana–Ogunladego ($R^2 = 0.98$) i Chena 2 (RMSE = 0.43 MJ·m⁻²·d⁻¹) okazały się najlepsze w przypadku danych ze stanowiska Abakaliki. W odniesieniu do stanowiska Nsukka najlepsze wyniki uzyskano, stosując modele Angstroma-Prescotta–Page'a ($R^2 = 0.96$) i El-Sebaii ($RMSE = 0.0908 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$).

Słowa kluczowe: ewapotranspiracja potencjalna, kalibracja, ocena, promieniowanie słoneczne