

1 **An indicator of solar radiation model performance based on a fuzzy expert system**

2

3 Gianni Bellocchi\*, Marco Acutis, Gianni Fila, and Marcello Donatelli

4

5 G. Bellocchi, G. Fila, and M. Donatelli, Research Institute for Industrial Crops, via di  
6 Corticella 133, 40128 Bologna, Italy; and M. Acutis, Department of Crop Science, via Celoria  
7 2, 20133 Milan, Italy. \*Corresponding author (g.bellocchi@isci.it).

8

9 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

10 The structure of the indicator was basically inspired by the fuzzy-based indicator of pesticide  
11 environment impact by van der Werf and Zimmer (1998), adapted with novel ideas and  
12 concepts to conform to the purpose of the paper.

13 The meteorological data sets used in this study are part of a large data base provided from  
14 several partners and used in previous studies. The list of people and institutions who  
15 contributed by providing data is too large to be reported here, and it can be found in the  
16 Acknowledgements section of the manual of the software RadEst3.00.

17 Research under the auspices of the Italian Ministry of Agricultural and Forestry Policies,  
18 project SIPEAA (<http://www.sipeaa.it>), paper no. 3.

1 **An indicator of solar radiation model performance based on a fuzzy expert system**

2

3 **ABSTRACT**

4 When evaluating models, various indices or test statistics are computed, quantifying the  
5 magnitude of model residuals, the correlation between estimates and measurements, patterns  
6 of residuals over external variables, etc. Such indices are variously related to each other, thus  
7 making model comparison difficult. Problems of this type emerge when testing solar radiation  
8 models. This paper proposes a fuzzy expert system to calculate a modular indicator, “ $I_{rad}$ ”,  
9 which reflects an expert perception about the quality of solar radiation models performance.  
10 Three modules were formulated reflecting, respectively, the magnitude of residuals  
11 (“Accuracy”), the correlation estimates and measurements (“Correlation”), and the  
12 presence/absence of patterns in the residuals against independent variables (“Pattern”). The  
13 modules “Accuracy” and “Pattern” resulted from the aggregation of three (relative root mean  
14 square error, modeling efficiency, t-Student probability) and two (pattern index versus day of  
15 the year and pattern index versus minimum air temperature) indices respectively, while the  
16 module “Correlation” was identified by a single index (Pearson’s correlation coefficient). For  
17 each index two functions describing membership to the fuzzy subsets Favorable (F) and  
18 Unfavorable (U) have been defined. The expert system calculates the modules according to  
19 both the degree of membership of the indices to the subsets F and U, and a set of decision  
20 rules. Then the modules are aggregated into the indicator  $I_{rad}$ . Sensitivity analysis is presented,  
21 along with module and  $I_{rad}$  scores for some application cases.

22

23 **Abbreviations:** RMSE, root mean square error; RRMSE, relative root mean square error; EF,  
24 efficiency; r, correlation coefficient; PI, pattern index;  $I_{rad}$ , indicator of solar radiation model  
25 performance; BC, model Bristow-Campbell; CD, model Campbell-Donatelli; DB, model  
26 Donatelli-Bellocchi.

1 In the process of testing model performance, several indices and test statistics are commonly  
2 used (e.g., Smith et al., 1997; Martorana and Bellocchi, 1999; Metselaar, 1999; Yang et al.,  
3 2000). Some of them quantify the departure of the model response from experimental  
4 measurements (model residuals), while others focus on the correlation between model  
5 estimates and measurements. Other indices have been proposed recently to assess systematic  
6 behaviors of model residuals against model inputs or other independent variables (Donatelli et  
7 al., 2000, 2002a). The interpretation of these statistics is in itself essentially descriptive, and  
8 primarily based on scientific background, rather than on statistical significance (Willmott,  
9 1982). Some users may appraise the degree of reliability of model outputs simply from the  
10 model's graphical display, while others may require more in-depth evaluation. Indeed, there is  
11 some evidence to suggest that the manner in which a study is performed (i.e., the extent to  
12 which the simulation study meets a user's expectations) is more important in forming a user's  
13 quality perception, than the results of a statistical evaluation (Robinson, 1998).

14 Each statistic allows only a partial insight into the model performance. Therefore, giving a  
15 solid quality judgment about model results one requires to simultaneously consider several  
16 statistics. Balancing different aspects involved in model testing, such as departure of estimates  
17 from measurements, modeling efficiency (i.e., better fit than the average of measurements),  
18 correlation measures, presence/absence of systematic behavior in the residuals, etc. is often  
19 complicated by the fact that different statistics may provide contrasting results. Hence,  
20 combining several statistics into one aggregated measure is desirable in order to have a  
21 comprehensive assessment of the model response. This would be helpful either when judging  
22 one model response, when evaluating its performance in a variety of conditions, or when one  
23 is requested to choose the best model out of a list of candidates.

24 Prior to aggregating statistics, the user must describe the constraints needed to evaluate the  
25 model (Bardossy et al., 1985). Generally, this is an internal process that is not typically well  
26 defined or thoroughly documented. Indeed, it varies from individual to individual according

1 to a number of factors, which in fact influence and characterize each individual (Dubois and  
2 Prade, 1980). Personal preferences and intentions may strongly influence a user's judgment.  
3 To capture the knowledge and preferences of the user, weights may be used to establish the  
4 relative importance of complementary statistics. The weights are determined by the user and  
5 may change for different users. These subjective aspects cannot be completely removed from  
6 the evaluation process, but they may be proficiently captured and described in mathematical  
7 terms (Jones and Barnes, 2000). This could be achieved by aggregating indices by  
8 summation, multiplication, or a combination of both. These approaches pose mathematical  
9 and conceptual problems (Keeney and Raiffa, 1993), since evaluation statistics differ in their  
10 nature, dimensions and range of possible values.

11 Considering the inadequacy of such methods, a different approach to evaluate model  
12 performance can rely in setting up a fuzzy expert system (Hall and Kandel, 1991) using  
13 decision rules (fuzzification). This technique is robust on uncertain and imprecise data such as  
14 subjective judgments, and allows the aggregation of dissimilar measures in a consistent and  
15 reproducible way (Bouchon-Meunier, 1993).

16 Daily solar radiation is an important meteorological measure for various analyses in many  
17 applied sciences, including agricultural engineering, crop physiology, ecology, hydrology,  
18 meteorology, physics, and soil science (Brutsaert, 1982; Iqbal, 1983; Tracy et al., 1983). In  
19 spite of that, solar radiation is measured infrequently, and the access to reliable radiation data  
20 is limited (e.g., Thornton and Running, 1999). As a consequence, the need for accurate  
21 estimates of solar radiation exists.

22 A model for estimating global radiation based on daily temperature extremes was proposed by  
23 Bristow and Campbell (1984) using data from three stations in the northwestern U.S.

24 Improved models were successively developed by Donatelli and Marletto (1994), Donatelli  
25 and Campbell (1998), Bechini et al. (2000) and, more recently, by Donatelli and Bellocchi  
26 (2000). Evaluating and comparing the models Bristow-Campbell (BC), Campbell-Donatelli

1 (CD) and Donatelli-Bellocchi (DB) against data sets from a wide range of latitudes was a  
2 complex process (Donatelli and Bellocchi, 2000) because of the number of statistical indices  
3 used. To overcome such a problem, in this paper we describe an expert system to calculate an  
4 indicator of model performance, “ $I_{rad}$ ”, which reflects an expert perception of the performance  
5 of radiation models.

## 1 **METHODS**

2

### 3 **The structure of the indicator**

4 It is assumed here that a comprehensive assessment about radiation model performance  
5 should consider: i) the ability of the model to produce small residuals, ii) the extent to which  
6 the model estimates are correlated with measurements, iii) the ability of the model to produce  
7 residuals uniformly distributed over the range of two relevant independent variables (day of  
8 the year, minimum air temperature).

9 According to such premises, we defined three indicator modules, named “Accuracy”,  
10 “Correlation”, and “Pattern”. The value of each module depends on one or more indices  
11 (Table 1) and a set of decision rules. For each module, a dimensionless value between 0 (best  
12 model response) and 1 (worst model response) is calculated. The procedure, based on the  
13 multi-valued fuzzy set theory introduced by Zadeh (1965), follows the so-called Sugeno or  
14 Takagi-Sugeno-Kang method of fuzzy inference (Sugeno, 1985). This approach is  
15 computationally efficient and well-suited for mathematical analysis. It has been applied to a  
16 wide variety of problems, such as the design of an indicator for assessing environmental  
17 impact of pesticides (van der Werf and Zimmer, 1998), and the development of novel  
18 approaches to support decisions regarding sustainable development (Cornelissen et al., 2001).  
19 Three membership classes (or subsets) were basically defined for all indices given in Table 1,  
20 according to an expert judgment: Favorable (F), Unfavorable (U), and partial (or fuzzy)  
21 membership. Several indices were aggregated into modules, and the modules in the final  
22 indicator, using fuzzy-based logic rules. The procedure is explained in detail in Appendix A.

23

### 24 **The module “Accuracy”**

25 The composition of the module “Accuracy” was based essentially on the suggestions of Yang  
26 et al. (2000). These authors found that a sound conclusion on model accuracy may be drawn

1 using an index of the amount of residuals, (e.g., RMSE: root mean square error) (Fox, 1981),  
 2 a measure of modeling efficiency (e.g., EF: efficiency) (Loague and Green, 1991), and a two-  
 3 tailed paired t-test:

$$4 \quad \text{RMSE} = \left[ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (D_i)^2}{n} \right]^{0.5} \quad (1)$$

$$5 \quad \text{EF} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (D_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - \bar{M})^2} \quad (2)$$

$$6 \quad t = \frac{\bar{D}}{s_D} \quad (3)$$

7 where  $D_i$  is the difference  $E_i - M_i$ ,  $E_i$  is the  $i$ -th estimated value,  $M_i$  is the  $i$ -th measured value,  $n$   
 8 is the number of pairs  $E_i/M_i$ ,  $\bar{M}$  is the average value of all measured values,  $\bar{D}$  is the average  
 9 of all differences  $D_i$ , and  $s_D$  is the standard error of the differences  $D_i$ . The computed  $t$  is  
 10 compared against the critical  $t$  with  $2 \cdot (n-1)$  degrees of freedom.

11 In place of RMSE, we considered it more appropriate to use a relative measure, the RRMSE  
 12 (relative root mean square error), where:

$$13 \quad \text{RRMSE} = 100 \cdot \frac{\text{RMSE}}{\bar{M}} \quad (4)$$

14 The index RRMSE may vary from 0 to positive infinity. The smaller RRMSE, the better the  
 15 model performance. RRMSE is a dimensionless index, allowing comparison among different  
 16 model responses, regardless of units and range of values. Problems could arise because  
 17 RRMSE tends to become unstable when  $\bar{M}$  is close to zero, and is undefined when  $\bar{M} = 0$ .  
 18 However, this problem does not occur when computations are made on daily solar radiation  
 19 data. The limit to the fuzzy subset F for this index was set equal to 20 ( $\text{RMSE} \leq 20$  is F), while  
 20 the limit to the subset U was established equal to 40 ( $\text{RMSE} \geq 40$  is U). Both limits come from

1 our expert judgment, working on multi-year weather data sets from about 200 locations  
2 (Donatelli and Bellocchi, 2000).

3 The index EF is very informative because it allows the immediate identification of inefficient  
4 models. EF is upper-bounded by 1, and it can assume negative values (lower-bounded at  
5 negative infinity). Negative values of EF indicate that the average value of all measured  
6 values is a better predictor than the model used. When estimating daily solar radiation, the  
7 limit for the subset U,  $EF=0.40$  and the one for the subset F,  $EF=0.90$ , were chosen ( $EF \leq 0.40$   
8 is U,  $EF \geq 0.90$  is F). Again, both limits are derived from our extensive experience, covering  
9 radiation estimates over a wide range of latitudes (Donatelli and Bellocchi, 2000).

10 In testing numerical estimates against measured data, the paired t-statistic is used to test the  
11 null hypothesis “average residual equal to zero” at a given probability level (statistical  
12 significance). If significant, the t-statistic shows that all the differences between estimated and  
13 measured values can not be attributed to experimental error. If not significant, the t-test can  
14 not prove that the estimated and measured values are identical, but it does indicate that there  
15 is no statistically significant reason for rejecting the hypothesis that the two outputs represent  
16 the same response. When the paired t-statistic is used to test the difference between estimated  
17 and measured data, the data set of  $D_i$  should be normally distributed with a null hypothesis  
18 “average  $D_i$  equal to zero”. In our research all  $D_i$  data sets used were characterized by a  
19 roughly normal distribution. Generally, low t-values indicate a satisfactory response;  
20 however, under certain conditions they may not adequately characterize significant departure  
21 of simulation estimates from measured data. These conditions occur with high values of  $s_D$ . In  
22 such cases, low t values may be obtained with large departures of estimates from  
23 measurements and, consequently, the t-test may be unsuitable for evaluation purposes.

24 Although cases of this type can theoretically occur in the evaluation process, they were not  
25 experienced with the data sets used in the present work. The paired t-test is handled here  
26 giving its significance level, i.e.  $P(t)$ . Since  $P(t)$  represents the probability of t under random

1 differences between pairs, then the best value for P(t) is 1, with 0 being the worst value. The  
 2 selection of a particular statistical significance is problematic. Popular values are 0.01, 0.05,  
 3 0.10. The probability level of 0.05 is almost universally accepted as the threshold to reject a  
 4 null hypothesis, therefore P(t)=0.05 was set as limit for U. Some scientists have used a higher  
 5 level of statistical significance, e.g. 0.10 (Kedzie, 1997; Kleijnen et al., 1998; CTAP, 2000),  
 6 because they were concerned about the lack of power in their test. Therefore, we set P(t)=0.10  
 7 as the limit for F, attributing a response in between P(t)=0.05 and P(t)=0.10 to a transition  
 8 interval.

9 The value of the module “Accuracy” was calculated from the input indices according to eight  
 10 decision rules, as summarized in Table 2. The expert reasoning runs as follows: if all indices  
 11 are F, the value of the module is 0 (identity of estimates and measurements); if all indices are  
 12 U, the value of the module is 1. In setting up the decision rules for the other combinations we  
 13 had to decide on the relative importance of each index. In our experience, RRMSE and EF  
 14 assume a relevant importance in the evaluation process, thus a fairly large weight (0.80) was  
 15 attributed to the rule when both RRMSE and EF are U. The condition “ $\bar{D}=0$ ” is a sound  
 16 requisite but scarcely informative by itself, and may hide model outputs drifting towards large  
 17 biases. Thus, the weight is low (0.20) when P(t) only is U.

18

19 **The module “Correlation”**

20 The value of the module “Correlation” depends on a single basic index, that is the correlation  
 21 coefficient r (Addiscott and Whitmore, 1987), derived from the Pearson’s simple linear  
 22 correlation coefficient:

23 
$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (E_i - \bar{E}) \cdot (M_i - \bar{M})}{\left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (E_i - \bar{E})^2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - \bar{M})^2 \right]^{0.5}} \quad (5)$$

1 where  $\bar{E}$  is the average of estimates. The coefficient  $r$  may vary from  $-1$  (full negative  
2 correlation) to  $1$  (full positive correlation). The closer  $r$  is to  $1$ , the better the model. Besides  
3 the indices based on differences, the coefficient of correlation  $r$  between estimates and  
4 measurements is commonly computed. The use of this index is questioned (e.g., Willmott,  
5 1982), since its value is not related to the accuracy of estimate. However, the index  $r$  is a  
6 universal measure with multiple interpretations. For instance, Cahan (1987) looks at  $r$  as a  
7 measure of identity between standardized values. Moreover, the value of  $r$  may help recognise  
8 the fluctuation of the estimates among the  $n$  measurements (Kobayashi and Salam, 2000). For  
9 these reasons, the index  $r$  is generally still regarded as a useful measure of model  
10 performance.

11 The membership limits attributed here to the correlation coefficient come from the general  
12 categorization made by Hinkle et al. (1994), who took correlation coefficients equal to or  
13 greater than  $0.90$  as very high correlations (limit for F:  $r=0.90$ ), and coefficients equal to or  
14 lower than  $0.70$  as moderate and little correlations (limit for U:  $r=0.70$ ). Such limits do  
15 conform to our expert judgment.

16 It must be pointed out that statistical significance for correlation coefficients does not always  
17 imply practical significance. The limits attributed here are mere descriptors for the practical  
18 interpretation of correlation coefficients, and do not take into account statistical significance.  
19 The latter depends on the number of data points and can be verified by a t-test, provided that  
20 both estimated and measured series do conform to the assumptions required for the  
21 appropriate application of the test.

22 Given that there is only one index in the module, the computation of “Correlation” is  
23 simplified to two decision rules: if  $r$  is F then  $0$ , if  $r$  is U then  $1$ .

24

25 **The module “Pattern”**

1 The module “Pattern” accounts for two relevant independent variables in radiation models,  
 2 the day of the year (DOY) and the daily minimum air temperature (Tmin). For the  
 3 computation of pattern indices, the range of such independent variables is divided into four  
 4 sub-ranges (quartiles), thus producing four groups of residuals. Pattern indices (PI) are based  
 5 on the pairwise differences between average residuals of each quartile (Donatelli et al., 2000):

$$6 \quad PI = \max_{l,m=1,\dots,4;l \neq m} \left| \frac{1}{q_l} \cdot \sum_{i_l=1}^{q_l} R_{i_l} - \frac{1}{q_m} \cdot \sum_{i_m=1}^{q_m} R_{i_m} \right| \quad (6)$$

7 where R is the model residual, l and m indicate two groups being compared,  $q_l$  and  $q_m$   
 8 represent the number of residuals in the groups,  $i_l$  and  $i_m$  identify each value of residuals in the  
 9 groups. PI values have the same units as the variable under study (in this case  $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ).

10 The pattern indices are targeted at pointing out macro-patterns in the residuals (Donatelli et  
 11 al., 2002a). The presence of patterns usually means that the residuals contain structure that is  
 12 not accounted for in the model. When applied to different types of plots of the residuals,  
 13 pattern indices may provide meaningful information on the adequacy of different aspects of  
 14 the model, such as lack of inputs, poor parameterization, etc.; therefore they should integrate  
 15 difference-based and correlation-based indices when evaluating model performance.

16 We refer here to pattern indices computed against DOY and Tmin because daily radiation  
 17 model residuals often show non-random distribution of residuals over the range of such  
 18 variables, and some of the models commonly used for estimating radiation include parameters  
 19 specifically devoted to account for patterns of this type.

20 The limits attributed to both pattern indices reflect the authors’ experience. Values of PI are  
 21 considered F when equal to or lower than  $1.0 \text{ MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ , and U when equal to or higher than  
 22  $2.5 \text{ MJ m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ . Examples of pattern indices computed with different models at tropical (Patos  
 23 de Minas, Brazil) and temperate (Würzburg, Germany) sites in selected years are shown in  
 24 Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively.

1 The value of the module “Pattern” depends on the input indices according to decision rules  
2 summarized in Table 3. The same weight was attributed to  $PI_{\text{doy}}$  and  $PI_{\text{Tmin}}$ . If all indices are  
3 F, the value of the module is 0 (i.e., no pattern); if all indices are U, the expert weight is 1; if  
4 one index is F and the other is U, the weight is 0.5.

5

## 6 **Aggregation of the modules**

7 The three modules described above can be used to compare different radiation models. The  
8 modules might be ranked, for instance, by means of a multi-criteria analysis technique, using  
9 the modules as evaluation criteria. An alternative approach is to aggregate the three modules  
10 (second-level aggregation) in some way into an overall indicator ( $I_{\text{rad}}$ ), reflecting a global  
11 judgment about model performance, again on a 0 to 1 scale. This can be done by summation,  
12 multiplication or a combination of both, according to aggregation schemes. We propose an  
13 aggregation of the three modules, which uses decision rules, as described above for the  
14 aggregation of indices into the modules.

15 The value of the indicator  $I_{\text{rad}}$  depends on the modules “Accuracy”, “Correlation”, and  
16 “Pattern” according to a set of eight decision rules (Table 4). The definition of the limits of  
17 the transition interval is the same for the three modules: we assigned complete membership to  
18 F if the value of the module is 0 (i.e., identity of estimates and measurements, unit correlation,  
19 no pattern of residuals versus independent variables) and complete membership to U if the  
20 value of the module is 1. In setting up the other decision rules we had to establish the relative  
21 importance of each module. As a general rule in model evaluation more emphasis is given to  
22 the amount of residuals, whereas the correlation of estimates versus measurements carries less  
23 weight. Because of their recent development, pattern indices are rarely used in model  
24 evaluation. Based on our experience, decreasing importance was given to the modules  
25 “Accuracy”, “Pattern”, and “Correlation” respectively. Thus, for instance, if “Accuracy” is U,

1 then the weight is 0.55. If both “Accuracy” and “Pattern” are U, then the expert conclusion is  
2 0.85. If both “Accuracy” and “Correlation” are U, then the conclusion is 0.70.  
3 The relative incidence of each index on the indicator can be deduced by combining the  
4 weights of the indices into their own module with the ones of the modules into the indicator  
5 (Table 5).

# 1    **RESULTS**

2

## 3    **Sensitivity analysis to input indices**

4    In order to illustrate the functioning of the system, we present first the sensitivity showed by  
5    the indicator  $I_{rad}$  to variation of input values. Each input variable was varied over its transition  
6    interval, while the others were kept fixed either at the extremes of the transition interval, i.e.  
7    at U (Figure 3, top) and F (Figure 3, bottom), or at the median value (Figure 3, middle). The  
8    sensitivity analysis reflects the functioning of the system and provides some indication about  
9    the importance of each input index on the value of  $I_{rad}$ . However, one should be aware that the  
10    effect of the variation of a particular index over its transition interval on the value of  $I_{rad}$  is  
11    dependent on the value of the other indices. Therefore, results presented here should not be  
12    considered other than illustrations of the functioning of the system.

13    The extent to which indices affect the value of  $I_{rad}$  can be deduced from the decision rules  
14    involved in the process of aggregating indices in the modules, and the modules in the  
15    indicator. For instance, the input  $P(t)$  is very influential when all other inputs are U (Figure 3,  
16    top), while its effect is much smaller when the other inputs are F (Figure 3, bottom). This is  
17    the result of the mode of aggregation we adopted, which gives a lot of weight (0.8) to the rule  
18    in the module “Accuracy” when  $P(t)$  is F and both RRMSE and EF are U.

19    RRMSE tends to be more influential than the pattern indices when all other indices are U  
20    (Figure 3, top) as a consequence of the different weight attributed to these indices when they  
21    are F and the rest is U in the respective module (0.6 and 0.5 respectively). The opposite  
22    occurs when all other indices are kept F (Figure 3, bottom).

23    The influence of  $r$  when other inputs are U is somewhat large (Figure 3, top), due to the  
24    noticeable weight (0.85) attributed to the rule when the module “Correlation” is F and both  
25    other modules are U. Correlation coefficient and pattern indices exert the same incidence on

1 the indicator (Table 5), thus their curves are somewhat complementary (Figure 3, top, middle,  
2 bottom).

3

#### 4 **Example applications**

5 Another illustration of the functioning of the system is given by the computation of either the  
6 basic indices or the three modules and the  $I_{rad}$  indicator over yearly data sets of radiation data.

7 Selected locations and years with dissimilar response in the various evaluation indices were  
8 used for the computations (Table 6).

9 Estimates of daily radiation were made using three models based on daily temperature  
10 extremes: BC (Bristow and Campbell, 1984), CD (Donatelli and Campbell, 1998), DB  
11 (Donatelli and Bellocchi, 2000). The models are described in Appendix B. Parameter values  
12 were determined at each location (except the parameter  $c$  of BC that was kept equal to 2, see  
13 Appendix B) using a multi-year calibration data set, through iterative steps aimed at  
14 minimizing both RRMSE and pattern indices. This procedure is consistent with the  
15 hypothesis underlying model formulations, for which model parameters are specifically  
16 devoted to reduce the magnitude of residuals ( $b$  in all models) or the presence of patterns ( $T_{nc}$   
17 in CD,  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  in DB). The calibration procedure is described in detail in the documentation  
18 accompanying the software RadEst3.00 (Donatelli and Bellocchi, 2001; Donatelli et al.,  
19 2002b). Both software and documentation are freely downloadable via http from:  
20 <http://www.isci.it/tools>.

21 Calibrated model parameters for the locations and years selected are given in Table 7. The  
22 results are reported in Table 8 (evaluation indices) and Table 9 (modules and indicator). The  
23 outputs of Table 9 can be used to rank different radiation models with respect to the value of  
24 one or more modules or of the  $I_{rad}$  indicator.

25 The model DB gave the lowest value of the indicator ( $I_{rad}=0.0044$  at Würzburg), while BC  
26 gave the worst one ( $I_{rad}=0.5518$  at Patos de Minas). The model DB gave the best response

1 at six locations (Longreach, Los Baños, Matsumoto, Perugia, Sadore, Würzburg), CD was the  
2 best at three locations (Port Elizabeth, Patos de Minas, Smolensk), while BC was superior in  
3 one case (Poza Rica). In the sites where DB gave the best performance, the result was  
4 essentially due to the major ability of this model to deal with patterns (Table 8). The response  
5 associated to the model CD was more complex with reference to the contribution of each  
6 module to the indicator. In the estimates made at Patos de Minas we see that CD provided the  
7 best performance ( $I_{rad}=0.4425$ ) due to the relative power of this model to keep small residuals  
8 (“Accuracy”=0.2451), although this was achieved at the cost of a partial presence of patterns  
9 (“Pattern”=0.9253). Conversely, CD was the best model at Port Elizabeth ( $I_{rad}=0.0315$ )  
10 because it allowed the best pattern control (“Pattern”=0.0533). At Smolensk CD was  
11 successful ( $I_{rad}=0.0887$ ) because it gave the best correlation between estimates and  
12 measurements (“Correlation”=0.0050). At Poza Rica the model BC was the best according to  
13 all modules.

14 The results obtained here are again the consequence of the choices we made regarding the  
15 selection of input variables, the definition of their transition intervals, and the values given to  
16 the conclusions of the decision rules. These are illustrative results only and are not meant as  
17 conclusive findings on the ability of each model at specific sites. The investigation should be  
18 extended over multi-year data sets before providing final results. With large, multi-year data  
19 sets, a statistically-based investigation could be performed. In particular, a comprehensive  
20 assessment on the model performance would include the quantification of the variability  
21 associated to  $I_{rad}$ , the significance of the computed  $I_{rad}$  scores, and the correlation between  $I_{rad}$   
22 scores and the respective modules. This would allow statistical separation of  $I_{rad}$  scores.  
23 Another option would involve cluster analysis to discriminate about model performance over  
24 a large amount of locations (or subsets of them), using both the  $I_{rad}$  values and the ones of the  
25 modules “Accuracy”, “Correlation”, and “Pattern”.

## 1 **DISCUSSION**

2

3 In the design of a system to assess radiation model performance two major questions have to  
4 be answered: a) which input index should be taken into account, and b) how should the basic  
5 indices be aggregated. The method presented in this paper proposes an answer to both  
6 questions, but its relevance lies primarily in the answer it provides to the second question. The  
7 approach contains two key elements: the use of a fuzzy set and the use of decision rules. The  
8 use of a fuzzy set provides a well-designed solution to the problem of deciding the cut-off  
9 values for input indices: e.g., the limit between F response, U response, and transition  
10 response. The use of decision rules provides a “rational” aggregation of input indices in the  
11 related module: e.g., RRMSE, EF and P(t) in the module “Accuracy”. The combination of  
12 these two concepts (limits in the response, mode of aggregation) in sets of fuzzy rules is  
13 attractive because, although the combinations of values of input indices are infinite, a single  
14 set of fuzzy rules connects them all.

15 In this application, the system is based on a compromise between operational suitability (the  
16 evaluation of radiation model performance) and flexibility (hierarchization of objectives and  
17 aggregation of preferences). It requires extended corroboration, considering that the objective  
18 of an expert system is the simulation of a human expert. The expert system is corroborated if  
19 it displays, under a variety of conditions, the same responses that a human expert would  
20 display. Experts are therefore invited to comment on the set-up and results of this system. If  
21 there is disagreement between expert perception of radiation model performance and the input  
22 of the system, the cause of this divergence will be examined in view of: a) choice of input  
23 indices; b) choice of the limits of the transition interval; c) formulation of the decision rules;  
24 and d) formulation of the mode of aggregation of the modules. All of these points may be  
25 modified according to expert consensus, after an extensive testing of the methodology. This  
26 process may be relatively time-demanding to perform on large data sets. For this purpose, the

1 software IRENE (Fila et al., 2001, 2002), which supplies provisions for fuzzy-based  
2 aggregation, may be of help (free download from the site: <http://www.isci.it/tools>). IRENE  
3 allows the creation of re-usable modules and indicators (ASCII files), thus serving as a  
4 convenient means to support collaborative work among large, distributed network of scientists  
5 involved in creating and aggregating fuzzy-based components.

# 1 CONCLUSIONS

2

3 We propose a fuzzy expert system reflecting our expert judgment of the quality of radiation  
4 model performance. Providing usable values of basic evaluation indices, the method allowed  
5 to build an aggregated indicator with a modular structure. The system takes into account three  
6 types of input variables: magnitude of model residuals, correlation between estimated values  
7 and measured data, and patterns in the behavior of residuals versus independent variables.  
8 The resulting output can be used as a support to rank or choose among alternative models  
9 under a variety of conditions.

10 Although a wide expert examination is still required for a general consensus about weights  
11 and limits applied to indices and aggregated modules, the fuzzy sets suggested here may  
12 represent a pragmatic approach towards a satisfactory solution.

13 This approach to model evaluation is useful for a number of reasons:

- 14 1. it allows users to express mathematically individual or collective values and  
15 preferences (uncertainty factors);
- 16 2. it highlights the degree of model failure/goodness associated with each information  
17 source (i.e., model accuracy, correlation, patterns in the residuals);
- 18 3. it elucidates the degree of reliability of response associated with each alternative  
19 model;
- 20 4. it facilitates structuring of various components of the evaluation process;
- 21 5. it reduces several sources and levels of information into a single value;
- 22 6. it allows examination of operational equivalence between several indices and modules.

23 The modular structure also presents advantages. In the first place, users have access to both a  
24 synthetic indicator reflecting overall judgment and to each of the modules. This means a  
25 transparency of each step, and a control opportunity exists for anybody concerned by the  
26 process itself. Secondly, the mode of aggregation of modules can be changed and new

1 modules can be eventually added. The multi-value nature of the issue we are dealing with is  
2 explicitly stated, the rules are easy to read, and the numerical scores used for their conclusion  
3 are easy to tune to match expert opinions.

4 The method illustrated here is flexible and can be extended to aggregating more indices of  
5 different types. The same method could be conveniently applied to state variables other than  
6 solar radiation, e.g. evapotranspiration. Further evolution may be the implementation of this  
7 system in exhaustive optimization algorithms and its use as a cost function in model  
8 parameters estimation.

9

## 1 **APPENDIX A: Fuzzy expert systems**

2

3 Zadeh (1965) proposed the use of fuzzy set theory to describe relationships that are best  
4 characterized by compliance to a collection of attributes. In setting up the set of decision rules  
5 in model evaluation the attributes are the basic evaluation indices, and the user must decide on  
6 the relative importance of each one. At the same time, the limit values beyond which the  
7 index is “certainly” favorable or unfavorable must be given by the user. With this procedure  
8 three membership classes are created for the index values: Favorable (F), Unfavorable (U),  
9 partial (or fuzzy) membership.

10 Fuzzy set theory addresses this type of problem by allowing one to define the “degree of  
11 membership” of an element in a set by means of membership functions (transition functions),  
12 that can take any value from the interval  $[0, 1]$ . The value 0 represents complete non-  
13 membership, the value 1 represents complete membership, and values in between are used to  
14 represent partial membership. For classical or “crisp” sets, the membership function only  
15 takes two values: 0 (non-membership) and 1 (membership).

16 The hierarchical structure of this technique is used to aggregate indices into first-level fuzzy  
17 indicators (modules) and, next, into a second-level fuzzy indicator. Each objective in the  
18 attribute hierarchy is given a weight. This process of aggregation may continue,  
19 hypothetically, until a final-level fuzzy indicator is achieved. The indicator developed here is  
20 a second-level indicator. For simplicity, in the example below only first-level aggregation is  
21 developed.

22 The aggregation process is accomplished by combining weighted fuzzy values. According to  
23 this approach we can characterize the shape of the membership function of each input index  
24 by the two limits of the “transition interval”. Fuzzy membership functions may have different  
25 shapes, depending on someone’s experience or even preference. We used membership  
26 functions that are S-shaped in the transition interval, since they provide smoother variations of

1 the values of the inputs than functions that are linear in the transition interval. If  $x$  is the value  
 2 of the index,  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  lower and upper bound respectively, the S-function is flat at a value of 0  
 3 and 1 for  $x \leq \alpha$  and for  $x \geq \gamma$  respectively. Between  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  the S-function is a quadratic  
 4 function of  $x$  (Liao, 2002):

$$S(x; \alpha; \gamma) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq \alpha \\ 2 \cdot \left( \frac{x - \alpha}{\gamma - \alpha} \right)^2 & \alpha \leq x \leq \beta \\ 1 - 2 \cdot \left( \frac{x - \gamma}{\gamma - \alpha} \right)^2 & \beta \leq x \leq \alpha \\ 1 & x \geq \gamma \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

5 where  $\beta = (\alpha + \gamma) / 2$ . Two adjacent fuzzy terms with S-shaped membership functions have 0.5  
 6 overlap at the midpoint between the two extremes. Eq. 7 can only represent the left-hand side.  
 7 For the right-hand side, the complement of Eq. 7 is needed.

8 For each module we formulated a set of decision rules attributing values between 0 and 1 to  
 9 an output variable according to the membership of its input indices to the fuzzy subsets F and  
 10 U.

11 The linguistic description of these components is accomplished in the form of fuzzy rules  
 12 with a relatively simple syntax. In fact, fuzzy rules inference involves computation of fuzzy  
 13 rules which are mostly *if ... then ...* statements. When two indices are aggregated the  
 14 principle of the method makes use of the conjunctive operator AND, as formalized by four  
 15 rules:

16  $if (x_1 \text{ is } A_{11}) \text{ AND } (x_2 \text{ is } A_{12}) \text{ then } (y_1 \text{ is } B_1)$  [rule 1]

17  $if (x_1 \text{ is } A_{21}) \text{ AND } (x_2 \text{ is } A_{22}) \text{ then } (y_2 \text{ is } B_2)$  [rule 2]

18  $if (x_1 \text{ is } A_{31}) \text{ AND } (x_2 \text{ is } A_{32}) \text{ then } (y_3 \text{ is } B_3)$  [rule 3]

19  $if (x_1 \text{ is } A_{41}) \text{ AND } (x_2 \text{ is } A_{42}) \text{ then } (y_4 \text{ is } B_4)$  [rule 4]

20 where  $x_j$  ( $j=1, 2$ ) is an input index,  $A_{ij}$  is a fuzzy subset,  $y_i$  is an output variable,  $B_i$  ( $i=1, 2, 3,$   
 21 4) is a number. “ $x_j$  is  $A_{ij}$ ” is called a premise of the  $i$ -th rule; “ $y_i$  is  $B_i$ ” is called conclusion (or

1 expert weight) of the  $i$ -th rule. In this case the decision rules consist of two premises (*if...*  
 2 AND *if...*) linked by and followed by a conclusion (*then...*).  
 3 The process continues identifying the degree of truth in the premise portion of each rule and,  
 4 then, aggregating the truth of linked conditions. Let  $'x_1$  and  $'x_2$  be the values taken by  $x_1$  and  
 5  $x_2$ , and  $A_{ij}('x_j)$  the membership value of  $'x_j$  to the fuzzy set  $A_{ij}$  (given by the membership  
 6 function that defines  $A_{ij}$ ). According to Sugeno's inference method, when the premises are  
 7 linked by a conclusion, the truth value of a decision rule is defined as the smallest of the truth  
 8 values of its premises. Therefore, a fuzzy subset is assigned to each output variable for each  
 9 rule using "min" aggregator, where min means "minimum value of". One can define  $w_1, w_2,$   
 10  $w_3$  and  $w_4$  the truth values of the rules, as follows:

$$11 \quad w_1 = \min(A_{11}('x_1), A_{12}('x_2)) \quad [\text{truth value of the rule 1}]$$

$$12 \quad w_2 = \min(A_{21}('x_1), A_{22}('x_2)) \quad [\text{truth value of the rule 2}]$$

$$13 \quad w_3 = \min(A_{31}('x_1), A_{32}('x_2)) \quad [\text{truth value of the rule 3}]$$

$$14 \quad w_4 = \min(A_{41}('x_1), A_{42}('x_2)) \quad [\text{truth value of the rule 4}]$$

15 The first rule infers  $w_1 \cdot B_1$ , the second one  $w_2 \cdot B_2$ , and so on. The fuzzy sets that represent the  
 16 outputs of each rule are combined by summation into a single fuzzy solution set ( $'y_0$ ):

$$17 \quad 'y_0 = w_1 \cdot B_1 + w_2 \cdot B_2 + w_3 \cdot B_3 + w_4 \cdot B_4$$

18 A solution of this type is sometimes known as "singleton" output membership function, and it  
 19 can be thought of as a pre-defuzzified fuzzy set.

20 The global output  $'y$  is inferred by:

$$21 \quad 'y = (w_1 \cdot B_1 + w_2 \cdot B_2 + w_3 \cdot B_3 + w_4 \cdot B_4) / (w_1 + w_2 + w_3 + w_4)$$

22 This last operation (the weighted average of a few data points) is a common method (centroid  
 23 calculation) adopted to reduce the final fuzzy set to a crisp value (defuzzification) in the  
 24 Sugeno-type systems.

25 The computation of the aggregated indicator is primarily influenced by the truth value of each  
 26 rule ( $w_i$ ), for which the expert weight ( $B_i$ ) is a multiplication factor. As a result of this insight,

1 it should be clear that weights on rules are not simply measures of the “relative importance”  
2 of each rule. They are essentially measures of the importance of the increase from the worst to  
3 the best level of performance on one rule. The terms  $B_i$  are subjective elements introduced in  
4 the process of aggregation, which the global output may be sensitive to. This means that the  
5 quality of outputs is influenced by the weights of the individual rules. This crucial issue  
6 should be investigated within the context of interest, which the truth values depend on.  
7 To illustrate Sugeno’s inference method, a numerical example will be given for the  
8 composition of the module “Pattern”, obtained by aggregating two pattern indices,  $PI_{doy}$  and  
9  $PI_{Tmin}$  (see details in the paragraph “The structure of the indicator”). We gave three classes of  
10 model response with respect to the presence of patterns in the residuals against one  
11 independent variable (Figure 4a). We gave a response classified as “pattern” ( $PI_{doy}, PI_{Tmin} \geq 2.5$   
12  $MJ m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) a membership value of 1 for the fuzzy subset U and a membership value of 0 for  
13 the fuzzy subset F. Model response classified as “no pattern” ( $PI_{doy}, PI_{Tmin} \leq 1.0 MJ m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) is  
14 given a membership value of 0 for the fuzzy subset U and a membership value of 1 for the  
15 fuzzy subset F (Figure 4b). The class of “borderline values” ( $1.0 MJ m^{-2} d^{-1} < PI_{doy}, PI_{Tmin} < 2.5$   
16  $MJ m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) falls within a “transition interval” in which the membership value for U increases  
17 from 0 (at  $PI_{doy}, PI_{Tmin} = 1.0 MJ m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) to 1 (at  $PI_{doy}, PI_{Tmin} = 2.5 MJ m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ), and the  
18 membership value for F decreases from 1 to 0 (thus the functions characterizing F and U are  
19 complementary). In our example the reasoning for the four rules is:

20  $if(PI_{doy} \text{ is F}) \text{ AND } if(PI_{Tmin} \text{ is F}) \text{ then } (B_1 \text{ is } 0.0)$  [rule 1]

21  $if(PI_{doy} \text{ is F}) \text{ AND } if(PI_{Tmin} \text{ is U}) \text{ then } (B_2 \text{ is } 0.5)$  [rule 2]

22  $if(PI_{doy} \text{ is U}) \text{ AND } if(PI_{Tmin} \text{ is F}) \text{ then } (B_3 \text{ is } 0.5)$  [rule 3]

23  $if(PI_{doy} \text{ is U}) \text{ AND } if(PI_{Tmin} \text{ is U}) \text{ then } (B_4 \text{ is } 1.0)$  [rule 4]

24 You can notice the same weight is attributed here to each basic index.

25 Let’s assume that  $PI_{doy}$  was computed equal to  $2.00 MJ m^{-2} d^{-1}$  and  $PI_{Tmin}$  equal to  $1.70 MJ m^{-2}$   
26  $d^{-1}$ . For both indices membership to fuzzy subsets F and U has to be defined. The membership

1 functions of Figure 5 allow the calculation of the truth value of the premises, i.e. the degree of  
2 membership to the fuzzy subset concerned for  $PI_{\text{doy}}$  (Figure 5, top) and  $PI_{\text{Tmin}}$  (Figure 5,  
3 bottom). Results are shown in Table 10. The value of “Pattern” is calculated as the sum of the  
4 conclusions of the decision rules, weighted by the sum of their truth values:

5 
$$\text{“Pattern”} = \frac{0.0 \cdot 0.2222 + 0.5 \cdot 0.2222 + 0.5 \cdot 0.5644 + 1.0 \cdot 0.4356}{0.2222 + 0.2222 + 0.5644 + 0.4356} = 0.5739$$

## 1 APPENDIX B: Daily solar radiation models

2

3 The general approach followed by the models used in this study for estimating solar radiation  
4 at ground level (Rad, MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) is of the form:

$$5 \text{ Rad} = tt_i \cdot R_a \quad (8)$$

6 where  $tt_i$  is the atmospheric transmissivity and  $R_a$  is the extraterrestrial radiation (that is the  
7 calculated solar radiation outside the earth's atmosphere).

8 Based purely on solar geometry and the solar constant, an ordinary routine for estimating  
9 daily  $R_a$  at given latitudes (e.g., Swift, 1976; Bristow and Campbell, 1984; Campbell and  
10 Norman, 1998) was used.

11 As regards  $tt_i$ , three models to estimate it are here used:

12 - Model BC:

$$13 \text{ } tt_i = \tau \cdot \left[ 1 - \exp\left(\frac{-b \cdot \Delta T_i^c}{\Delta T_m}\right) \right] \quad (9)$$

14 - Model CD:

$$15 \text{ } tt_i = \tau \cdot \left\{ 1 - \exp\left[-b \cdot f(\text{Tavg}) \cdot \Delta T_i^2 \cdot f(\text{Tmin})\right] \right\} \quad (10)$$

16 - Model DB:

$$17 \text{ } tt_i = \tau \cdot \left[ 1 + c1 \cdot \sin\left(i \cdot \frac{\pi}{180} \cdot c2\right) \right] \cdot \left[ 1 - \exp\left(\frac{-b \cdot \Delta T_i^2}{\Delta T_w}\right) \right] \quad (11)$$

18  $\tau$  = clear sky atmospheric transmissivity

19  $i$  = day of the year

20  $\Delta T$  =  $T_{\max_i} - (T_{\min_i} + T_{\min_{i+1}})/2$

21  $\Delta T_m$  = monthly mean  $\Delta T$  (fixed mean)

22  $\Delta T_w$  = weekly mean  $\Delta T$  (mobile mean)

23  $f(\text{Tavg}) = 0.017 \cdot \exp[\exp(-0.053 \cdot \text{Tavg}_i)]$

1  $T_{avg_i} = (T_{max_i} + T_{min_i})/2$

2  $f(T_{min}) = \exp(T_{min_i}/T_{nc})$

3 where all temperatures are in °C.

4 The parameters b (temperature range coefficient) and c display the physics involved in the  
5 relationship, and determine the rate of increase of the exponential function as  $\Delta T$  increases.

6 The parameter c is usually kept equal to 2 (Ndlovu, 1994; Donatelli, 1995; Weiss et al.,  
7 2001). The parameters  $T_{nc}$  (summer night temperature factor), c1 and c2 (general seasonality  
8 factors) are empirical parameters accounting for seasonal effects.

1   **REFERENCES**

2

3   Addiscott, T.M., and A.P. Whitmore. 1987. Computer simulation of changes in soil mineral  
4       nitrogen and crop nitrogen during autumn, winter and spring. *J. Agric. Sci. (Cambr.)*  
5       109:141-157.

6   Bardossy, A., I. Bogardi, and L. Duckstein. 1985. Composite programming as an extension of  
7       compromise programming. p. 375-408. *In* P. Serfini (ed.) *Mathematics of multiple*  
8       objective optimisation. Springer-Verlag, Wien, Austria.

9   Bechini, L., G. Ducco, M. Donatelli, and A. Stein. 2000. Modelling, interpolation and  
10       stochastic simulation in space and time of global solar radiation. *Agric., Ecosyst. Environ.*  
11       81:29-42.

12   Bouchon-Meunier, B. 1993. *La logique floue*. Presses Universitaires de France, Paris, France.

13   Bristow, K.L. and G.S. Campbell. 1984. On the relationship between incoming solar radiation  
14       and daily maximum and minimum temperature. *Agric. For. Meteorol.* 31:159-166.

15   Brutsaert, W.H. 1982. *Evaporation into the atmosphere: theory, history and applications*. D.  
16       Rediel, Boston, USA.

17   Cahan, S. 1987. *Stability and change in human characteristics*. Wiley, New York.

18   Campbell, G.S., and J.M. Norman. 1998. *An introduction to environmental biophysics*, II  
19       edition. Springer, New York, USA.

20   Cornelissen, A.M.G., J. van den Berg, W.J. Koops, M. Grossman, and H.M.J. Udo. 2001.  
21       Assessment of the contribution of sustainability indicators to sustainable development: a  
22       novel approach using fuzzy set theory. *Agric., Ecosyst. Environ.* 86:173-185.

23   CTAP, 2000. Air quality trends in Illinois. p. 91-153. *In* CTAP (ed.) *The changing Illinois*  
24       environment: critical trends, Vol. 2 Air resources. Illinois Natural Resource Information,  
25       Springfield, USA.

- 1 Donatelli, M. 1995. Sistemi nella gestione integrata delle colture. PANDA project, General  
2 Series, Paper 1. ISA, Modena, Italy.
- 3 Donatelli, M., M. Acutis, and G. Bellocchi. 2000. Two statistical indices to quantify patterns  
4 of errors produced by models. p. 186. *In Proc. International Crop Science Conference, 3<sup>rd</sup>,*  
5 *Hamburg, Germany. 17-22 August 2000. European Society for Agronomy, Hamburg,*  
6 *Germany.*
- 7 Donatelli, M., M. Acutis, G. Bellocchi, and G. Fila. [2002a.] New indices to quantify patterns  
8 of residuals produced by model estimates. *Agron. J.* (submitted)
- 9 Donatelli, M., and G. Bellocchi. 2000. New methods to estimate global solar radiation. p. 186.  
10 *In Proc. International Crop Science Conference, 3<sup>rd</sup>, Hamburg, Germany. 17-22 August*  
11 *2000. European Society for Agronomy, Hamburg, Germany.*
- 12 Donatelli, M., and G. Bellocchi. 2001. Estimate of daily global solar radiation: new  
13 developments in the software RadEst3.00. p. 213-214. *In Proc. International Symposium*  
14 *Modelling Cropping Systems, 2<sup>nd</sup>, Florence, Italy. 16-18 July 2001. CNR - Institute for*  
15 *Biometeorology, Florence, Italy.*
- 16 Donatelli, M., G. Bellocchi, and F. Fontana. [2002b.] RadEst3.00: Software to estimate daily  
17 radiation data from commonly available meteorological variables. *Eur. J. Agron.* (in  
18 press).
- 19 Donatelli, M., and G.S. Campbell. 1998. A simple model to estimate global solar radiation. p.  
20 133-134. *In Proc. European Society for Agronomy Congress, 5<sup>th</sup>, Vol. II, Nitra, Slovak*  
21 *Republic. 28 June-2 July 1998. The Slovak Agricultural University, Nitra, Slovak*  
22 *Republic.*
- 23 Donatelli, M., and V. Marletto. 1994. Estimating surface solar radiation by means of air  
24 temperature. p. 352-353. *In Proc. European Society for Agronomy Congress, 3<sup>rd</sup>, Abano-*  
25 *Padova, Italy. 18-22 September 1994. The Padova University, Padova, Italy.*

- 1 Dubois, D., and H. Prade. 1980. Fuzzy sets and systems: theory and applications. Academic  
2 Press, New York, USA.
- 3 Fila, G., G. Bellocchi, M. Acutis, and M. Donatelli. 2001. IRENE: a software to test model  
4 performance. p. 215-216. *In Proc. International Symposium Modelling Cropping Systems,*  
5 *2<sup>nd</sup>, Florence, Italy. 16-18 July 2001. CNR - Institute for Biometeorology, Florence, Italy.*
- 6 Fila, G., G. Bellocchi, M. Acutis, and M. Donatelli. [2002.] IRENE: a software to  
7 evaluate model performance. *Eur. J. Agron.* (in press).
- 8 Fox, D.G. 1981. Judging air quality model performance: a summary of the AMS workshop  
9 on dispersion models performance. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.* 62:599-609.
- 10 Hall, L.O., and A. Kandel. 1991. The evolution from expert systems to fuzzy expert systems.  
11 p. 3-21. *In A. Kandel (ed.) Fuzzy expert systems theory.* CRC Press, Boca Raton, USA.
- 12 Hinkle, D., W. Wiersma, and S. Jurs. 1994. Applied statistics for the behavioral sciences, III  
13 edition. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, USA.
- 14 Iqbal, M. 1983. An introduction to solar radiation. Academic Press, New York, USA.
- 15 Jones, D., and E.M. Barnes. 2000. Fuzzy composite programming to combine remote sensing  
16 and crop models for decision support in precision crop management. *Agric. Syst.* 65:137-  
17 158.
- 18 Kedzie, C.R. 1997. Quantitative analyses: the empty corner. *In C.R. Kedzie (ed.)*  
19 *Communication and democracy: coincident revolutions and the emergent dictator's*  
20 *dilemma.* [Online] Available at:  
21 <http://www.rand.org/publications/RGSD/RGSD127/sec4.html> (verified 11 Apr 2002).  
22 RGSD-127, RAND, Santa Monica, USA.
- 23 Keeney, R.L., and H. Raiffa. 1993. Decisions with multiple objectives: preferences and value  
24 tradeoffs. Cambridge University Press, New York, USA.
- 25 Kleijnen, J.P.C., Bettonvil, B., and W. van Groenendaal. 1998. Validation of trace-driven  
26 simulation models: a novel regression test. *Management Science* 44:812-819.

- 1 Kobayashi, K., and M.U. Salam. 2000. Comparing simulated and measured values using  
2 mean squared deviation and its components. *Agron. J.* 92:345-352.
- 3 Liao, T.W. 2002. A fuzzy C-medians variant for the generation of fuzzy term sets. *Int. J.*  
4 *Intelligent Systems* 17:21-43.
- 5 Loague, K., and R.E. Green. 1991. Statistical and graphical methods for evaluating solute  
6 transport models: overview and application. *J. Contam. Hydrol.* 7:51-73.
- 7 Martorana, F., and G. Bellocchi. 1999. A review of methodologies to evaluate agroecosystem  
8 simulation models. *Ital. J. Agron.* 3:19-39.
- 9 Metselaar, K. 1999. Auditing predictive models: a case study in crop growth. Thesis,  
10 Wageningen Agricultural University, Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- 11 Ndlovu, L.S. 1994. Generating weather data for crop simulation model. Ph.D. diss. Biol. Syst.  
12 Eng. Dep., Washington State Univ., Pullman, WA.
- 13 Robinson, S. 1998. Service quality in the management of simulation projects. PhD Thesis,  
14 Lancaster University, United Kingdom.
- 15 Smith, P., J.U. Smith, D.S. Powlson, W.B. McGill, J.R.M. Arah, O.G. Chertov et al. 1997. A  
16 comparison of the performance of nine soil organic matter models using datasets from  
17 seven long-term experiments. *Geoderma* 81:153-225.
- 18 Sugeno, M. 1985. An introductory survey of fuzzy control. *Information Sciences* 36:59-83.
- 19 Swift, L.W. 1976. Algorithm for solar radiation estimation on mountain slopes. *Wat. Resour.*  
20 *Res.* 12:108-112.
- 21 Thornton, P.E., and S.W. Running. 1999. An improved algorithm for estimating incident daily  
22 solar radiation from measurements of temperature, humidity, and precipitation. *Agr. For.*  
23 *Meteorol.* 93:211-228.
- 24 Tracy, C.R., Hammond, K.A., Lechleitner, R.A., Smith II, W.J., Thompson, D.B., Whicker,  
25 A.D. et al. 1983. Estimating clear-day solar radiation: an evaluation of three models. *J.*  
26 *Therm. Biol.* 8:247-251.

- 1 Van der Werf, H.M.G., and C. Zimmer. 1998. An indicator of pesticide environmental impact  
2 based on a fuzzy expert system. *Chemosphere* 36:2225-2249.
- 3 Weiss, A., Hays, C.J., Hu, Q., and W.E. Easterling. 2001. Incorporating bias error in  
4 calculating solar irradiance: implications for crop yield simulations. *Agron. J.* 93:1321-  
5 1326.
- 6 Willmott C.J., 1982. Some comments on the evaluation of model performance. *Bull. Am.*  
7 *Meteorol. Soc.* 63:1309-1313.
- 8 Yang, J., D.J. Greenwood, D.L. Rowell, G.A. Wadsworth, and I.G. Burns. 2000. Statistical  
9 methods for evaluating a crop nitrogen simulation model, N\_ABLE. *Agric. Syst.* 64:37-  
10 53.
- 11 Zadeh, L.A. 1965. Fuzzy sets. *Information and Control* 8:338-353.

1 Fig. 1 - Examples of pattern indices (PI) versus two independent variables (DOY: day of the  
2 year; Tmin: minimum air temperature) computed on residuals generated at Patos de Minas  
3 (Brazil) in the year 1997 by different radiation models (BC: Bristow-Campbell; CD:  
4 Campbell-Donatelli; DB: Donatelli-Bellocchi).

5  
6 Fig. 2 - Examples of pattern indices (PI) versus two independent variables (DOY: day of the  
7 year; Tmin: minimum air temperature) computed on residuals generated at Würzburg  
8 (Germany) in the year 1998 by different radiation models (BC: Bristow-Campbell; CD:  
9 Campbell-Donatelli; DB: Donatelli-Bellocchi).

10  
11 Fig. 3 - Sensitivity analysis of the indicator  $I_{rad}$  to variation of all input indices. Each input  
12 index is varied over its transition interval from 0.0 (completely favorable) to 1.0 (completely  
13 unfavorable) while the other input indices are kept at Unfavorable (top graph), at the median  
14 value of their transition interval (middle graph) or at Favorable (bottom graph). The traces of  
15 the pattern indices ( $PI_{doy}$  and  $PI_{Tmin}$ ) are superimposed.

16  
17 Fig. 4 - Graphical presentation of crisp (a) and fuzzy (b) sets for the pattern index (PI).

18  
19 Fig. 5 - Membership to the fuzzy sets Favorable and Unfavorable for an hypothetical model  
20 response in terms of pattern indices:  $PI_{doy}=2.00$ ,  $PI_{Tmin}=1.70$ .

## TABLES

Table 1. The indicator modules “Accuracy”, “Correlation” and “Pattern”, and their inputs. For details, see the text.

Inputs	Indicator modules		
	“Accuracy”	“Correlation”	“Pattern”
RRMSE	x		
P(t)	x		
EF	x		
r		x	
PI <sub>doy</sub>			x
PI <sub>Tmin</sub>			x

Table 2. Summary of decision rules describing the effect of the input indices RRMSE, EF and P(t) on the module “Accuracy”. F = Favorable, U = Unfavorable. For details, see the text.

RRMSE	EF	P(t)	Expert weight
Membership class			
F	F	F	0.00
F	F	U	0.20
F	U	F	0.40
F	U	U	0.60
U	F	F	0.40
U	F	U	0.60
U	U	F	0.80
U	U	U	1.00

Table 3. Summary of decision rules describing the effect of the input indices  $PI_{doy}$  and  $PI_{Tmin}$  on the module “Pattern”. F = Favorable, U = Unfavorable. For details, see the text.

$PI_{doy}$	$PI_{Tmin}$	Expert weight
Membership class		
F	F	0.00
F	U	0.50
U	F	0.50
U	U	1.00

Table 4. Summary of decision rules describing the effect of the three modules on the value of the indicator ( $I_{rad}$ ).

“Accuracy”	“Correlation”	“Pattern”	Expert weight
Membership class			
F	F	F	0.00
F	F	U	0.30
F	U	F	0.15
F	U	U	0.45
U	F	F	0.55
U	F	U	0.85
U	U	F	0.70
U	U	U	1.00

Table 5. Relative incidence of each basic evaluation index on the value of the indicator ( $I_{rad}$ ).

<b>Index</b>	<b>Relative incidence on <math>I_{rad}</math></b>
RRMSE	$0.4 \times 0.55 = 0.22$
EF	$0.4 \times 0.55 = 0.22$
P(t)	$0.2 \times 0.55 = 0.11$
r	$1.0 \times 0.15 = 0.15$
PI <sub>doy</sub>	$0.5 \times 0.30 = 0.15$
PIT <sub>min</sub>	$0.5 \times 0.30 = 0.15$

Table 6. Description of the ten locations used in this study: latitude, longitude, elevation, clear sky transmissivity, years, yearly rainfall, yearly average maximum air temperature (Tmax), yearly average minimum air temperature (Tmin), yearly average global solar radiation.

Location	Country	Latitude (deg)	Longitude (deg)	Elevation (m)	$\tau^*$	Year	Rainfall** (mm)	Tmax** (°C)	Tmin** (°C)	Radiation** (MJ m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )
Longreach	Australia	-23.43	144.27	191	0.77	1993	335	32.0	17.4	20.3
Los Baños	Philippines	14.17	121.25	300	0.67	1989	2092	30.2	23.4	15.4
Matsumoto	Japan	36.24	137.97	610	0.74	1994	671	19.0	7.3	15.0
Patos de Minas	Brazil	-18.60	-44.88	833	0.79	1997	1339	28.3	16.6	20.1
Perugina	Italy	43.08	12.50	351	0.77	1995	700	19.8	6.3	14.5
Port Elizabeth	South Africa	-33.98	25.62	59	0.73	1997	539	22.2	13.1	16.3
Poza Rica	Mexico	20.53	-97.45	60	0.73	1988	1340	29.3	19.3	15.9
Sadore	Niger	13.10	2.35	235	0.75	1995	486	36.7	22.4	22.3
Smolensk	Russia	54.80	31.88	175	0.73	1985	877	7.5	-0.3	9.9
Würzburg	Germany	49.77	9.97	268	0.74	1998	599	14.2	6.4	10.7

\* Clear sky atmospheric transmissivity: the ratio between the value of solar radiation at earth surface during clear sky days and the value outside the earth atmosphere. See also APPENDIX B.

\*\* Annual averages of rainfall, maximum (Tmax) and minimum (Tmin) air temperature, and global solar radiation.

Table 7. Model parameter values determined at each location. APPENDIX B for solar radiation models Bristow-Campbell (BC), Campbell-Donaatelli (CD) and Donatelli-Bellocchi (DB).

Model	Parameters	Locations									
		Longreach	Los Baños	Matsumoto	Patos de Minas	Perugia	Port Elizabeth	Poza Rica	Sadore	Smolensk	Würzburg
BC	b	0.121	0.184	0.093	0.120	0.103	0.198	0.108	0.144	0.110	0.117
	c	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
CD	b	0.318	0.477	0.27	0.38	0.225	0.477	0.353	0.469	0.367	0.367
	Tnc	106	28.8	59.5	106	106	22	88	106	69	106
DB	b	0.094	0.171	0.099	0.129	0.094	0.197	0.095	0.145	0.112	0.113
	c1	0.186	0.051	0.076	-0.122	-0.008	-0.012	0.043	0.012	0.066	0.048
	c2	0.490	1.192	1.605	1.520	1.070	1.079	0.439	0.958	1.036	1.171

Table 8. Response of three radiation models (BC, CD, DB) on ten yearly data sets. The quality of performance was evaluated in terms of the basic indices RRMSE, EF, P(t), r,  $PI_{doy}$  and  $PI_{Tmin}$ .

Location	Model	RRMSE	EF	P(t)	r	$PI_{doy}$	$PI_{Tmin}$
Longreach	BC	13.93	0.72	0.92	0.88	2.75	2.33
	CD	13.32	0.74	0.91	0.88	1.84	1.55
	DB	13.70	0.73	0.88	0.87	0.71	0.31
Los Baños	BC	19.90	0.61	0.83	0.81	1.59	1.65
	CD	19.28	0.63	0.87	0.82	2.21	1.02
	DB	19.14	0.64	0.94	0.80	0.56	0.74
Matsumoto	BC	20.67	0.79	0.90	0.78	1.74	2.23
	CD	20.25	0.80	0.89	0.99	2.39	1.26
	DB	20.83	0.79	0.89	0.92	0.88	1.56
Patos de Minas	BC	16.74	0.56	0.89	0.79	2.92	5.15
	CD	15.61	0.62	0.79	0.82	2.09	3.07
	DB	17.20	0.54	0.88	0.74	0.90	2.78
Perugia	BC	21.60	0.86	0.78	0.93	1.21	1.63
	CD	20.97	0.87	0.94	0.93	1.86	1.30
	DB	21.82	0.86	0.90	0.93	1.25	1.57
Port Elizabeth	BC	23.45	0.72	0.86	0.86	0.95	1.58
	CD	23.19	0.73	0.84	0.86	1.05	1.04
	DB	22.66	0.74	0.83	0.87	1.14	1.49
Poza Rica	BC	22.40	0.69	0.93	0.83	2.17	1.69
	CD	23.31	0.66	0.78	0.83	2.48	2.64
	DB	23.56	0.66	0.83	0.82	2.13	2.32
Sadore	BC	13.42	0.23	0.96	0.57	1.01	0.74
	CD	14.21	0.14	0.84	0.52	2.24	0.97
	DB	13.03	0.28	0.99	0.53	0.65	0.51
Smolensk	BC	39.44	0.78	0.96	0.88	2.16	0.64
	CD	38.20	0.80	0.98	0.89	1.44	1.14
	DB	41.02	0.77	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.31
Würzburg	BC	25.79	0.88	0.97	0.94	1.29	0.99
	CD	24.55	0.89	0.77	0.95	1.27	1.62
	DB	25.22	0.88	0.99	0.88	0.45	0.45

Table 9. Response of three radiation models (BC, CD, DB) on ten yearly data sets. The quality of performance was evaluated in terms of the indicator modules “Accuracy”, “Correlation” and “Pattern”, and the indicator  $I_{rad}$ .

Location	Model	“Accuracy”	“Correlation”	“Pattern”	$I_{rad}$
Longreach	BC	0.1037	0.0200	0.9872	0.3125
	CD	0.0819	0.0200	0.4615	0.1441
	DB	0.0925	0.0450	0.0000	0.0128
Los Baños	BC	0.2589	0.4050	0.4027	0.3241
	CD	0.2307	0.3200	0.4628	0.3168
	DB	0.2157	0.5000	0.0000	0.1613
Matsumoto	BC	0.0412	0.0000	0.6868	0.2442
	CD	0.0324	0.0050	0.5241	0.1664
	DB	0.0426	0.0050	0.1394	0.0167
Patos de Minas	BC	0.3181	0.5950	1.0000	0.5518
	CD	0.2451	0.3200	0.9253	0.4425
	DB	0.3373	0.9200	0.5000	0.4704
Perugia	BC	0.0200	0.0000	0.2181	0.0296
	CD	0.0084	0.0000	0.3775	0.0856
	DB	0.0215	0.0000	0.2050	0.0265
Port Elizabeth	BC	0.1565	0.0800	0.1495	0.0945
	CD	0.1394	0.0800	0.0032	0.0315
	DB	0.1162	0.0450	0.1283	0.0533
Poza Rica	BC	0.1661	0.2450	0.6367	0.3167
	CD	0.2254	0.2450	0.9998	0.4250
	DB	0.2311	0.3200	0.9016	0.4302
Sadore	BC	0.4000	1.0000	0.0001	0.3261
	CD	0.4000	1.0000	0.4700	0.5040
	DB	0.4000	1.0000	0.0000	0.3260
Smolensk	BC	0.4453	0.0200	0.4486	0.3773
	CD	0.4247	0.0050	0.1084	0.2154
	DB	0.4541	0.0200	0.0000	0.2271
Würzburg	BC	0.0704	0.0000	0.0374	0.0086
	CD	0.0423	0.0000	0.2373	0.0385
	DB	0.0579	0.0200	0.0000	0.0044

Table 10. Summary of decision rules describing the effect of the input indices  $PI_{doy}$  and  $PI_{Tmin}$  on the module “Pattern”. Truth values of premises ( $w_i$ ) and conclusions ( $B_i$ ) for  $PI_{doy}=2.00$  and  $PI_{Tmin}=1.70$  are shown. F = Favourable, U = Unfavourable. For details, see the text.

$PI_{doy}$		$PI_{Tmin}$		Expert weight ( $B_i$ )	Truth value ( $w_i$ )	$w_i \cdot B_i$
Membership class	Membership value	Membership class	Membership value			
F	0.2222	F	0.5644	0.00	0.2222	0.0000
F	0.2222	U	0.4356	0.50	0.2222	0.1111
U	0.7778	F	0.5644	0.50	0.5644	0.2822
U	0.7778	U	0.4356	1.00	0.4356	0.4356
Fuzzy solution set (' $y_0$ )						0.8289
Sum of truth values						1.4444
Global output (' $y$ )						0.5739

FIGURES

Figure 1

Patos de Minas, 1997

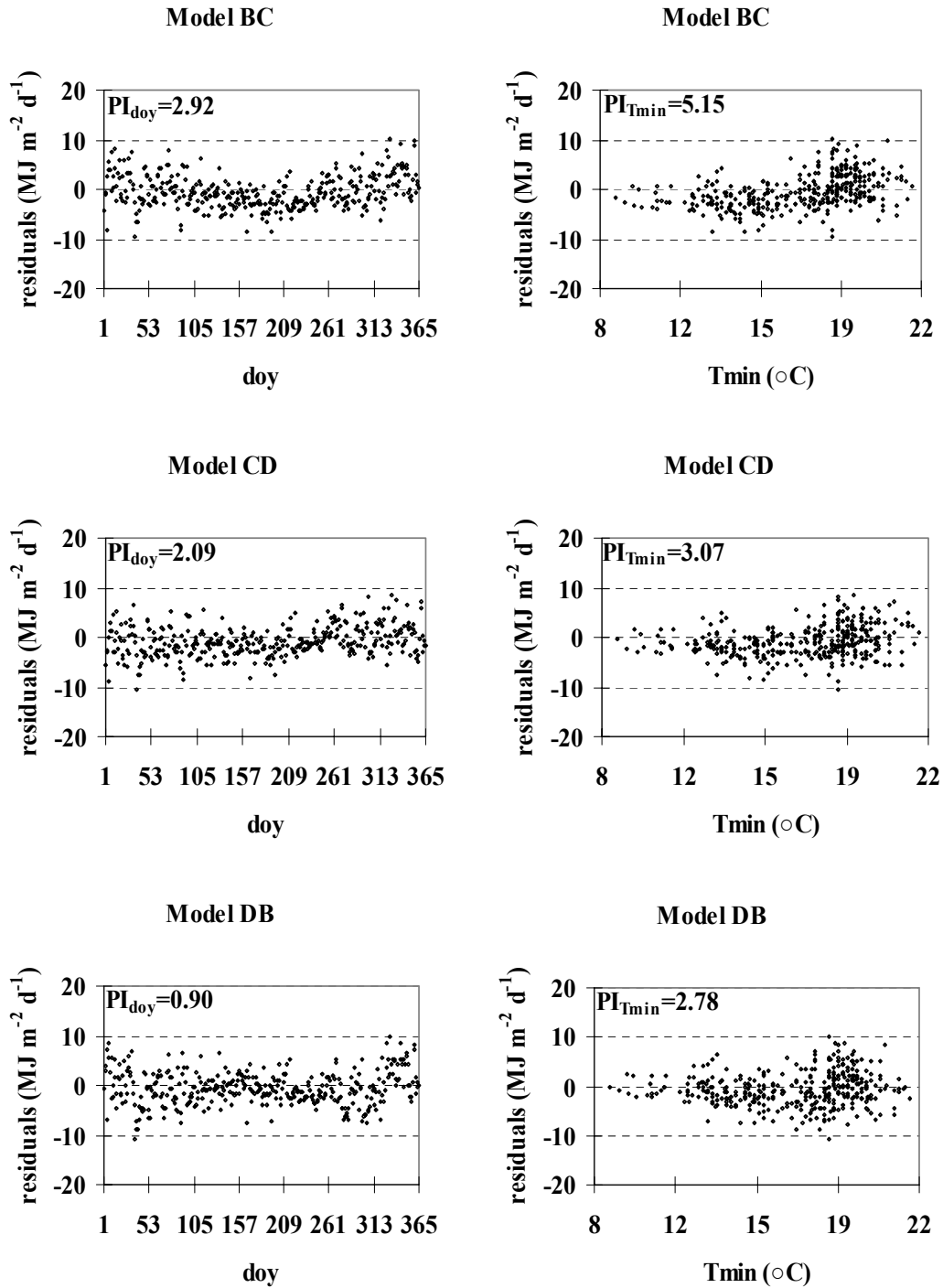


Figure 2

Würzburg, 1998

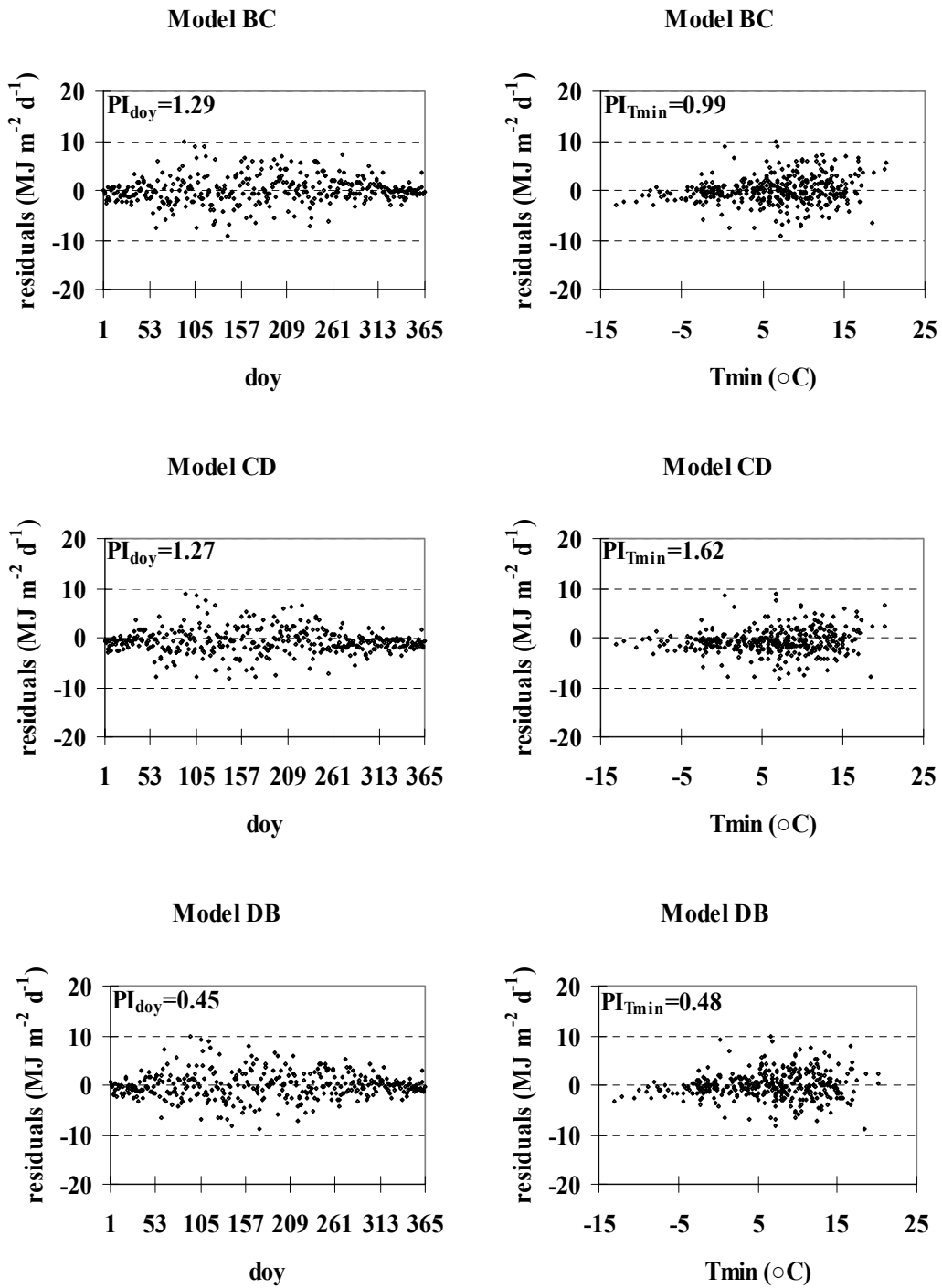


Figure 3

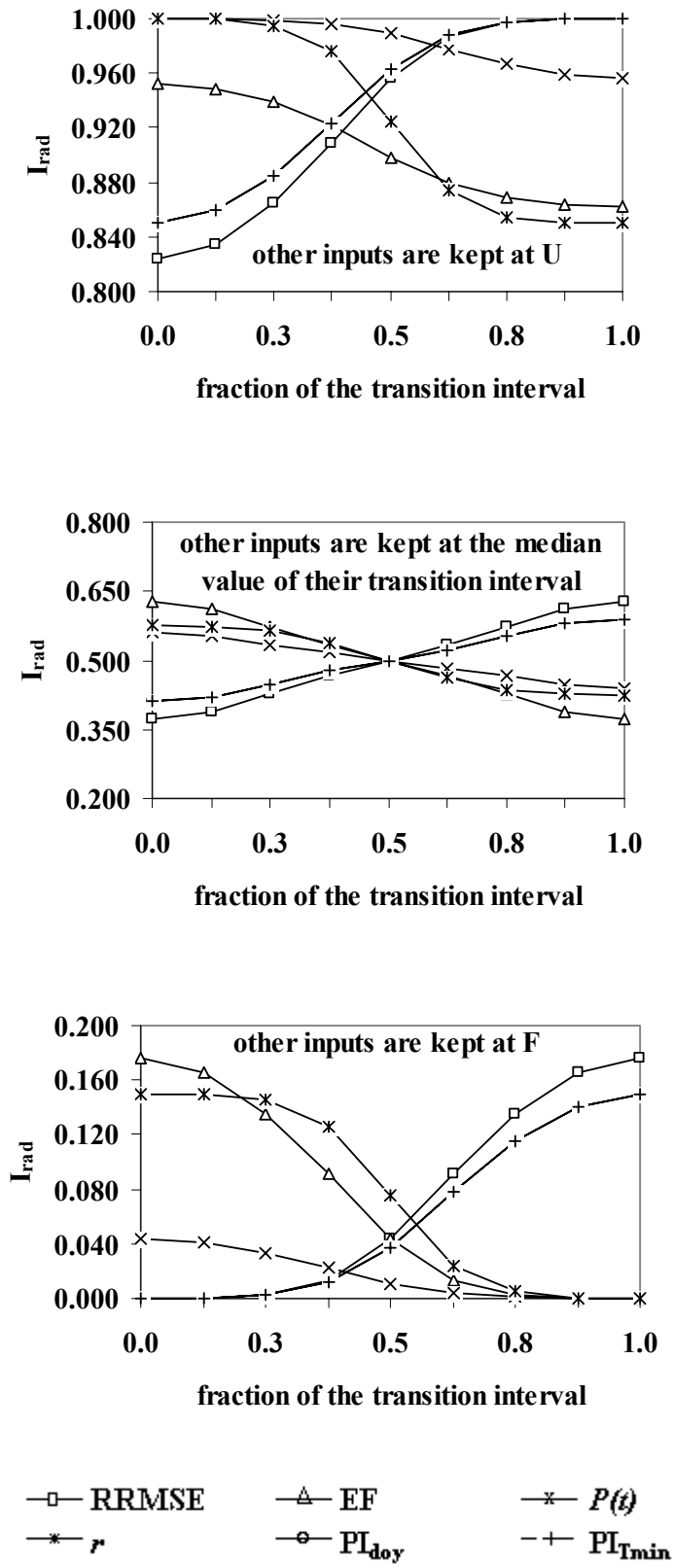
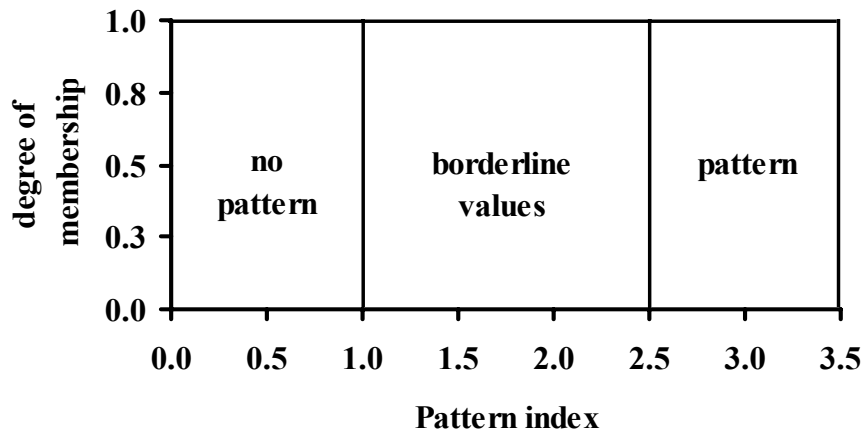


Figure 4

**A - CRISP SETS**



**B - FUZZY SETS**

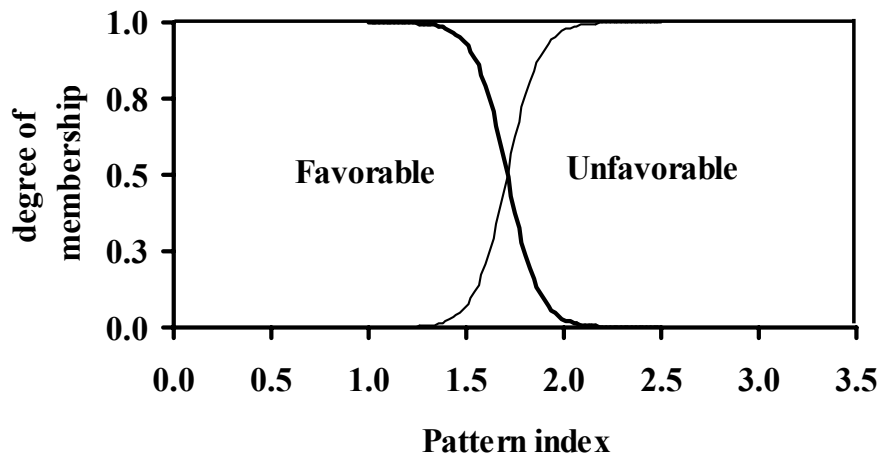


Figure 5

