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# Predictive spatio-temporal model for spatially sparse global solar radiation data

Maïna André<sup>a,\*</sup>, Sophie Dabo-Niang<sup>b</sup>, Ted Soubdhan<sup>a</sup>, Hanany Ould-Baba<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>University of French West Indies, Campus de Fouillole 971159, Pointe-à-Pitre, Guadeloupe (F.W.I)  
<sup>b</sup>Laboratoire EQUIPPE, Université Charles De Gaulle, Lille 3, MODAL team, INRIA Lille-Nord de France

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## Abstract

This paper introduces a new approach for the forecasting of solar radiation series at a located station for short time scale. We built a multivariate model in using few stations (3 stations) separated with irregular distances from 26 km to 56 km. The proposed model is a spatio temporal vector autoregressive VAR model specifically designed for the analysis of spatio-temporal data which are rich in time dimension and sparse in spatial dimension. This model differs from classic linear models in using spatial and temporal parameters where the available predictors are the lagged values at each station. A spatial structure of stations is defined by the sequential introduction of predictors in the model. Moreover, initialization parameters and an iterative strategy in the process of our model will select the necessary stations for each forecasting day, removing the uninteresting predictors and also selecting the daily optimal p-order. We studied the performance of this model for different daily class of global solar radiation. The statistical errors as the normalized mean absolute error (nMAE), the normalized mean biased error (nMBE) and the normalized root mean squared error (nRMSE) are presented. We compare the results of our model to those found in literature for different time step and to simple and well known persistence model.

## Keywords:

stations' spatial order, intra-hour forecasting, spatio-temporal vector autoregressiv process

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## 1. Introduction

Solar energy is available in abundance in tropical zone but presents many short-term fluctuations introduced mainly by clouds. Due to variations of the sun's position each day and the apparent motion of the sun throughout the year, the total irradiation received at a particular site in both time and space can vary widely, as it has been shown in Gueymard et al [16] study based on high resolution radiation data sampled in the USA. The increasing of PV plants to meet demand will increase the variability and uncertainty that must be managed by system operators and planners of (photovoltaics) PV system (Mills et al [21]). One way to manage variability and uncertainty of monitoring networks is to predict values at locations using observed data at known locations.

In the literature, we can find correlation-based forecasting studies aim to derive quantities such as cloud speeds and directions in a deterministic way. For very short-term modeling and forecasting of solar radiation, sky cameras

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\*Corresponding author

Email addresses: mandre@univ-ag.fr (Maïna André), sophie.dabo@univ-lille3.fr (Sophie Dabo-Niang), tsoubdha@univ-ag.fr (Ted Soubdhan)

30 can be used. Chi Wai Wow et al [7] presented a method sub-kilometer cloud forecasting using a ground sky imager.  
31 They predicted solar irradiance at the University of California, San Diego from 30s to 5min ahead forecast. Chu et  
32 al [8], defined smart forecasting models which combine sky image processing with ANN (artificial Neural network)  
33 optimization schemes to predict 1min average direct normal irradiance for horizons 5 and 10 minutes and in Marquez  
34 et al [20] presented an image processing methodology using total sky imager to generate forecasting of 1 min average  
35 direct normal irradiance for horizons varying from 3 to 15 min. Other studies such as in Coimbra et al[9] paper  
36 predicted the local cloud movements thus deducing irradiation at the ground level by cloud motion analyses and  
37 artificial intelligence algorithms. Bosch et al [3]; Bosch et al [4], determined cloud directions and speeds in using  
38 correlation methods by sky cameras where ground network of irradiance sensors are with high spatial resolution .

39 An alternative method for intra-hour forecastings is statistical models as described in Gordon [26] where forecast-  
40 ing tests are run using regressions in logs, Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA), transfer functions,  
41 neural networks, and hybrid models. These models are evaluated for data sets, at resolutions of 5, 15, 30, and 60 min,  
42 using the global horizontal component.

43 Concerning the spatio-temporal processes, few researchers have used this methodology to model environmental  
44 processes. A variety of techniques integrating spatial and temporal parameters can be applied to generate forecastings,  
45 such as space-time kriging, spatio-temporal ARMA (STARMA) models and vector autoregressive (VAR) models.  
46 Epperson [12] has applied STARMA model in an ecological context and CA Glasbey [14] used the STARMA model  
47 to evaluate the variability of the solar energy potential . They investigated 10 minutes timescale forecasting at 10  
48 sites on a sequence of 31 days to a grid of 10km × 10km. For the space-time kriging method, M.Cellura et al [6]  
49 developed geostatistical techniques in order to obtain the wind speed maps for the region at 10 and 50 meters above  
50 the ground level. The remaining de-trended linear means have been computed by using an universal kriging (UK)  
51 estimator. Heping Liu et al [19] has investigated a method based on TK (Taylor Kriging) model modified for the  
52 forecasting of wind speed time series. Dazhi Yang et al [29] used time-forward kriging to forecast the hourly spatio-  
53 temporal solar irradiance data from 10 Singapore weather stations and Inoue et al. [18], applied spatio-temporal  
54 Kriging to obtain distributions of the solar radiation with spatial resolution of 500m and resolution time of 5 min. The  
55 researchers de Luna and Genton ; Gneiting [15]; Porcu et al (2008) [25] have used spatio-temporal VAR method to  
56 model environmental processes as wind velocity fields and atmospheric concentration of carbon monoxide.

57 The goal of this paper is to build a multivariate forecasting with three stations. Despite of the scarcity of infor-  
58 mation we will define a spatio-temporal model and we will see how much forecasting skill we can attain. Kriging  
59 method is efficient for available rich data in the time and spatial dimension to perform a spatio-temporal prediction  
60 but not for a reduced number of measurement sites. The VAR method proposed by de Luna and Genton ([11]) is  
61 the suitable model, indeed this model is fitted with rich experimental data in the time but sparse in the spatial dimension.  
62 The spatio-temporal VAR model proposed does not make spatial stationarity assumptions and consists of a vector au-  
63 toregressive (VAR) specification (Huang and Hsu [17], de Luna and Genton [11]) that is to say VAR model treats each  
64 spatial location separately in the process. Thus, this paper investigates on a spatio-temporal short-term forecasting,  
65 based on spatio temporal VAR model methodology described in de Luna and Genton [11]. Our model uses spatial  
66 and temporal parameters where the predictors are the lagged values at each station. Moreover, the spatial structure of  
67 stations can be defined.

68 We performed our analyze in using one year (2012), 10 min averaged global solar radiation data collected at  
69 3 meteorological stations (La Désirade, Petit-canal, Fouillole) across Guadeloupe island (French West Indies). In  
70 section 2, we present the experimental set-up of solar radiation measurements. In Section 3, we quantify the existing  
71 interactions of global solar radiation between stations. In section 4, the theoretical and statistical methodology is  
72 described. In section 5, we define our spatio temporal VAR model applied to global solar radiation. Moreover, we  
73 present tests allowing to choose an optimal VAR model. Section 6 highlights the performance of the VAR model in  
74 analyzing statistical errors of prediction for different classes of daily solar radiation. We also compare in this section  
75 the performance of our VAR model to the persistence model and to other methods of forecasting found in literature.  
76 This assessment is made for different time step: 5min, 10 min and 15 minutes. Finally we conclude in section 7.  
77 This forecasting model of the global solar radiation at short time scale for different locations using spatio-temporal  
78 parameters, will be useful to ensure the performance of electric power PV system what satisfies reliability standards  
79 in a least cost manner.

## 2. Solar global radiation measurements

### 2.1. Experimental set up of solar global radiation measurements

The global solar radiation is measured at 1 Hz on each site with a Kipp Zonen pyranometer (type SP Lite) whose response time is less than a second. We have used for this study an averaged database at 10 minutes of the solar flux measured for a period starting in January 2012 and ending in December 2012. The measurements are collected at three sites (Figure 1): along the cliffs of Petit-Canal Gros Cap ( $16^{\circ}38'N$ ,  $61^{\circ}49'W$ ); Fouillole ( $16^{\circ}26'N$ ,  $61^{\circ}24'W$ ), campus of the French West Indies University; on the East coast of La Désirade ( $16^{\circ}31'N$ ,  $61^{\circ}55'W$ ). The distances between sites in meters are summarized in Table.1. Sensor accuracy given by the manufacturer is 3%. The data are measured and recorded by a Campbell Scientific CR1000 type stand-alone data. On the site of Petit-Canal, data are stored on a memory card compact flash (industrial type) with a capacity of 1 GB and a battery set powers the unit. This device has a check-on two months battery autonomy. In addition, a phone line is used to control and steer the chain of measurements from the University. We noticed four periods of the year with a relative constancy of the average global solar radiation. These four periods are the following: from February to April which corresponds to a dry season, an intermediate season May to July, rainy season from August to November and an other intermediate season from December to January. Our measurements show that the daily solar radiation lasts at most 12 hours (in March and April) and at least 10 hours (from October to December). For La Désirade, Petit-canal and Fouillole sites we have 100% data in 2012 (without holes measures). As we are interested in the variations of the global solar radiation, we are only concerned with the global solar radiation signals from 7 am to 5 pm. We perform VAR model using one year (2012), for 10 min global solar radiation data collected at 3 meteorological stations (La Désirade, Petit-canal, Fouillole) across Guadeloupe island. According to the needs of the manager of electrical network, we focus forecasting of global solar radiation at 10 min ahead.

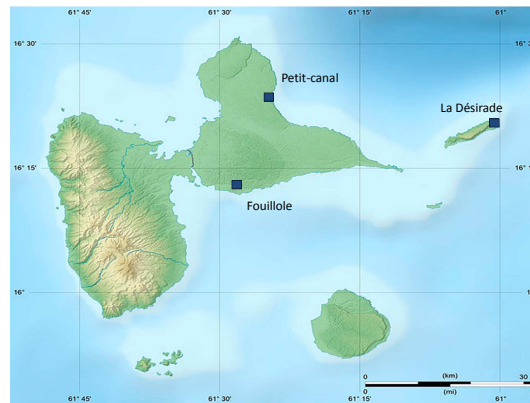


Figure 1. Guadeloupe archipelago and geographical location of our three measurement sites: Petit-canal, Fouillole Campus, La Désirade.

From	To	Distance(meter)
Petit-canal	Fouillole	26272 m
Petit-canal	La Désirade	41818 m
Fouillole	La Désirade	55819 m

Table 1. Distance between sites in meters

### 2.2. Approach

Temporal and spatial behaviors of solar irradiance are related through complex atmospheric mechanisms. The measurement stations are presumably subject to different microclimates (different islands or leeward, windward sides

104 of islands). According to the classification of C. Brévignon [5], the site of Petit-Canal is located in the climatic  
 105 conditions of windward coast, where the wind blows constantly. In this zone, the formation of cloud is mainly due to  
 106 the advection of marine air masses. La Désirade is in the same meteorological regime but it is an insular dependence  
 107 separated from continental Guadeloupe by the Caribbean sea. Fouillole station is subject to insular continental regime.  
 108 In this area, wind is lower than the wind blowing off the coast. Cloud formation is mainly due to the convection of  
 109 air masses. The Désirade site is the most easterly one. The prevailing trade-winds, have a strong East component,  
 110 consequently, Désirade site is a particular interest for a spatio-temporal analysis. It is situated on the first land where  
 111 the air mass, after a long period over the ocean, meets the relief of the land (Petit-canal and Fouillole stations), which  
 112 leads to formation of clouds. Consequently, a dynamic relation between sites can be observed. In Boland (2015)  
 113 [2], forecasting of solar radiation series at these three sites in Guadeloupe has been performed by CARDS tools.  
 114 In this paper, the model proposed is based on VAR methodology. The proposed model is specifically designed for  
 115 the analysis of spatio-temporal data which are rich in the time dimension and sparse in spatial dimension. We will  
 116 develop the forecasting of solar radiation by a multivariate method in using spatio-temporal parameters with three  
 117 stations. Strategy and algorithms allowing to optimize temporal and spatial parameters in the process of model will  
 118 be described in section 4.2, section 5.2 and section 5.3. Preliminarily, we quantified the correlation existing between  
 119 stations.

### 120 3. Correlations between sites

121 The crosscorrelation as function of time lags provide measures of the similarity of two stationary time series.

#### 122 3.1. Detrended time series

123 Detrended time series must be used in the calculation of correlations between a pair of stations since detrending  
 124 captures the underlying true correlation between two time series (Yang et al 2014 [29],Perez et al (2012) [24]) . We  
 125 note that there are different methods to achieve stationarity such as local polynomial regression fitting to detrend the  
 126 solar irradiance time series by first determining an additive diurnal cycle (Yang et al[29]),the differencing technique,  
 127 used frequently in ARIMA forecasts or the clear sky index often used as a strategy to detrend solar global radiation.  
 128 Trend removal via the clear sky index cannot remove the trend completely and therefore does not make the series  
 129 perfectly stationary. Thus we applied the transformation of the clear sky index series to new time series where the  
 130 new values are the differences between consecutive values. Consequently, detrended time series are obtained by clear  
 131 sky index and a differencing technique as already used in Perez et al(2012) [23]:

$$\Delta K_c = K_c(t) - K_c(t - 1) \quad (1)$$

132 The calculation of the deterministic component is based on Kasten model [13] to account for the clear sky index.  
 133 This technique offers three advantages:

- 134 (1) normalizing variability to unity
- 135 (2) removing the effect of daily solar trend
- 136 (3) avoiding to falsify correlation

137 An example of signal  $\Delta K_c$  for a day (figure 2) shows the detrended time series.

#### 138 3.2. Lag correlation between a pair of station

139 We studied simple correlation of  $\Delta K_c$  time series at 10 min time scales between our stations. We found very low  
 140 correlation with distances of stations pairs from 20 km to 60 km (Table.1). Indeed, Perez et al [23] showed there is no  
 141 simple correlation for distances between stations of 4 km and 10 km for fluctuations time scales of 5 min and 15 min.  
 142 We can estimate the correlation between pairs of stations by crosscorrelation function. For this statistical analysis,  
 143 we repeat the daily maximum crosscorrelation experiment between each pair of stations for the entire year. The  
 144 coefficients of station pair correlation resulting from 366 days are summarized in Table.2. A maximum correlation (in  
 145 absolute value) 0.64 is observed and the absolute mean value is between 0.34 and 0.36. These values are representative

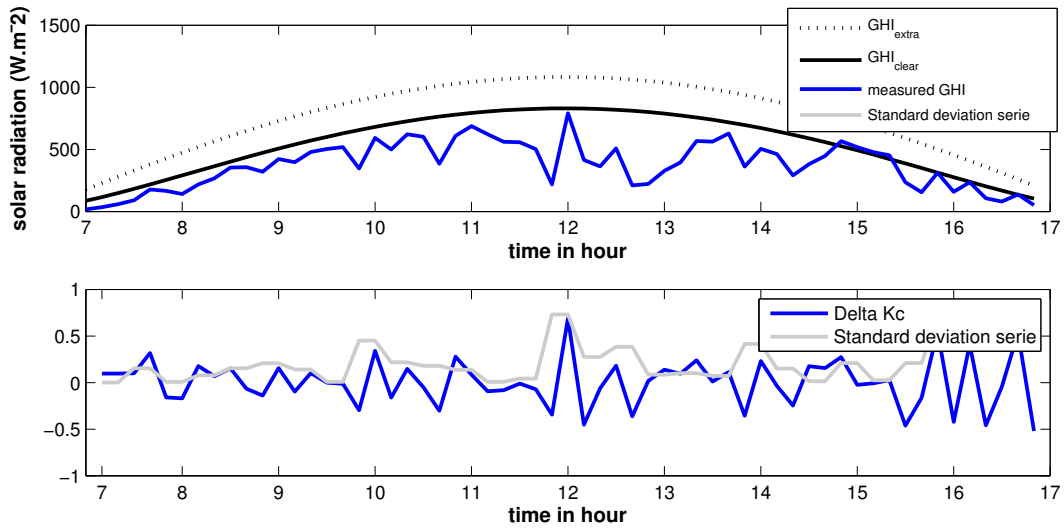


Figure 2. Sample high-variability day showing 10min global irradiance,  $GHI_{extra}$  extraterrestrial theoretical global irradiance,  $GHI_{clear}$  theoretical irradiance received by sensor and  $\Delta K_c$  signal.

146 of correlations at a medium level. With only three pairs of sites it is impossible to give a valid conclusion, nevertheless  
 147 we can observe that the correlation in our case doesn't depend on distance between stations every day. The closest  
 148 pair of station according to the distance metric doesn't show the highest average of coefficient (Table.2). Indeed, we  
 149 can note in Table.2, that the highest absolute mean of correlation can be observed for the pair of stations Petit-canal/La  
 150 Désirade. This result can indicate that wind direction is prevailing on distance parameter. A test of different spatial  
 151 structures to optimize forecastings will be performed in section 5. We also quantify the daily temporal lag between  
 152 two stations using the maximum crosscorrelation of two  $\Delta K_c$  time series. The distribution of results of time lag for the  
 153 whole pairs of stations is shown by histogram in Figure 3. This indicates the highest occurrence for time lag between  
 154 [-1h; 1h] with an average equals to 25 min. These results can describe that whatever happens at one station may cause  
 155 a similar event at an other station about 1 hour later on that day. The results of intercorrelation between stations pairs  
 are in agreement with those of Boland (2015) [2].

	Min absolute value	Max absolute value	Mean absolute value	Standard deviation
Petit-canal/Fouillole	0.19	0.64	0.35	0.08
Petit-canal/La Désirade	0.21	0.57	0.36	0.07
Fouillole /La Désirade	0.19	0.59	0.34	0.06

Table 2. Intercorrelation coefficients between pair of sites

156

#### 157 4. Spatio-temporal Vector Autoregressive VAR model for spatially sparse data

##### 158 4.1. Forecasting model

159 We assessed forecastings of the global solar radiation on an individual site in using two processes: the first is  
 160 based on linear regression of the past time series of this site (AR(1) model) and the second is based on a multiple  
 161 linear regression deduced from the linear combination of the past time series of the located site and the past time  
 162 series of other stations. Then, we assessed the results of residuals. We noted that forecastings are better with a linear  
 163 combination of past time series from all stations than an auto-regression process.

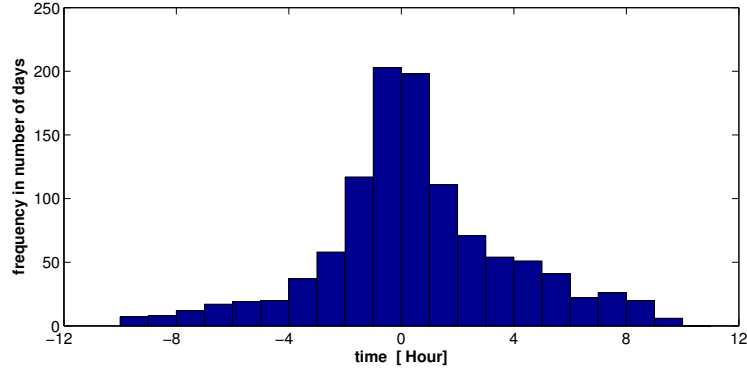


Figure 3. The distribution of the daily time lag obtained by cross correlation function for the whole of pairs of stations.

164 Consequently, the use of the past temporal series of global solar radiation measured on three stations brings an  
 165 additional information and improves the predictability of the located global solar radiation. Although the correlation  
 166 between sites presents a medium level, these results showed the interest to develop a multivariate model for our context  
 167 of study such as the one proposed in this research which will provide consequently an improvement of forecasting at  
 168 individual station. Moreover, initialization parameters and an iterative strategy in the process of our model will select  
 169 the necessary stations in the linear combination for each forecasting day, removing the useless variables. The devel-  
 170 oped model here, differs from the traditional linear model and is based on a spatio-temporal VAR model methodology  
 171 which is validated and described in de Luna and Genton (2005)[11]. This model uses spatial and temporal parameters  
 172 and can be performed for rich data in time dimension but sparse in spatial dimension such as the example showed in  
 173 de Luna and Genton (2005) ([11]) with four monitoring stations for hourly observations of atmospheric concentration  
 174 of carbon monoxide. The generality of the VAR method is implied by treating each spatial location separately in the  
 175 modeling process and consists of a vector autoregressive (VAR) specification, thereby avoiding restrictive and often  
 176 difficult to verify spatial-stationarity assumptions [11]. Indeed, spatial stationarity assumption are arbitrary, it is not  
 177 possible to assess their validity for few sites. Moreover, wind speed and direction can be expected to influence air  
 178 pollutant concentrations in a nonstationary and anisotropic away for the example given in [11].

179 Consider spatio-temporal data  $Z(s_i, t)$  concerning observations of some stochastic process indexed in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}$ . Each  
 180 observation is made at located station  $s_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$  and time  $t = 1, \dots, T$ . The considered predictive VAR (vector  
 181 autoregressive) model (see De Luna and Gneton, 2005) is

$$Z_t - \beta = \sum_{i=1}^p R_i(Z_{t-i} - \beta) + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

182 where  $p$  is the order corresponding to the time lag;  $Z_t = (Z(s_1, t), Z(s_2, t), \dots, Z(s_N, t))'$  are the spatio-temporal data,  
 183  $\varepsilon_t = (\varepsilon_t(s_1), \dots, \varepsilon_t(s_N))'$  is a white noise with  $E(\varepsilon_t) = 0$ ,  $E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_u) = 0$  for  $u \neq t$ ,  $E(\varepsilon_t \varepsilon_t') = \Sigma_\varepsilon$ ,  $\beta = (\beta(s_1), \dots, \beta(s_N))'$   
 184 is the spatial trend,  $R_i$  is a  $N \times N$  unknown parameter matrices. The  $N$  rows of these matrices correspond to the  $N$   
 185 locations at which time series are observed.

186 Estimation of the parameters in equation (2) can be obtained with maximum likelihood (if distributional assump-  
 187 tions are made), with least squares or with moments estimators (Yule-Walker type), for more details see Lütkepohl  
 188 (Chap.3), Penã et al. (Chap.14)[22] and De Luna and Genton [11]. Deterministic trend is often removed by differ-  
 189 encing with the difference operator of order  $d$  with  $d = 1$ :

$$\nabla Z(s_i, t) = Z_t(s_i, t) - Z_t(s_i, t - 1) \quad (3)$$

190 and the spatial trend is estimated as

$$\beta(s_i) = E(\nabla Z(s_i, t) - \nabla Z(s_i, t - 1)) \quad (4)$$

191  $\beta(s_i)$  is supposed to be depending only on  $s_i$ .



192 The stationary spatial-temporal data are obtained:

$$\tilde{Z}(s_i, t) = \nabla Z(s_i, t) - \beta(s_i) \quad (5)$$

#### 193 4.2. Selection of predictors

This model is performed either by displaying sample partial correlation functions, or by minimizing an information criterion. The deletion of uninteresting predictors at each time lag improves on efficiency by avoiding the estimation of zero coefficients [11]. Suppose that we want to predict the value of the process for a station  $s_j$  at time  $t$ ;  $Z(s_j, t)$ . To this aim consider predictors in the following order :

$$Z(s_j, t - 1), Z(s(1), t - 1), Z(s(2), t - 1), \dots, Z(s(N - 1), t - 1), Z(s_j, t - 2),$$

$$Z(s(1), t - 2), \dots, Z(s(N - 1), t - 2), \dots$$

where  $s(1), \dots, s(N - 1)$  is an ordering of the  $N - 1$  stations, for instance, in ascending order with respect to their distance (using a given metric) to  $s_j$ . Let us look at partial autocorrelations by renaming the previous sequence as

$$X_1 = Z(s_j, t - 1), X_2 = Z(s(1), t - 1), \dots, X_N = Z(s(N - 1), t - 1);$$

$$X_{N+1} = Z(s_j, t - 2); X_{N+2} = Z(s(1), t - 2), \dots, X_{2N} = Z(s(N - 1), t - 2), \dots$$

194 Let the partial correlation function (PCF) for station  $s_j$  as  $\rho_{Z_{s_j}}(h) = \text{Corr}(Z(s_j, t), X_h | X_1, \dots, X_{h-1})$ . Define  $h_1$  to be  
 195 such as  $\rho_{Z_{s_j}}(h_1) \neq 0$  and  $\rho_{Z_{s_j}}(h) = 0$  for  $h_1 < h \leq N$ . Similarly, a value  $h_i$  can be defined for each time lag  $i$ , such  
 196  $\rho_{Z_{s_j}}(h_i) \neq 0$ ,  $\rho_{Z_{s_j}}(h_i) = 0$  for  $h_i < h \leq iN$ . The  $h_i$ 's orders can be identified by looking at the sample partial correlation  
 197 function  $\hat{\rho}_{Z_{s_j}}(h) = \hat{\text{Corr}}(Z(s_j, t) - \hat{P}(Z(s_j, t) | X_1, \dots, X_{h-1}), X_h - \hat{P}(X_h | X_1, \dots, X_{h-1}))$  where  $\hat{P}(Z(s_j, t) | X_1, \dots, X_{h-1})$  is the  
 198 best linear predictor of  $Z(s_j, t)$  given  $X_1, \dots, X_{h-1}$ .

199

#### 200 Algorithm

201 Step 0: Choose one of the observed sites  $s_j$ .

202 Step 1: Identify  $h_1$  by looking at the sample  $\hat{\rho}_{Z_{s_j}}(h), h = 1, \dots, N$

203 Step 2: Identify  $h_2$  by looking at the sample  $\hat{\rho}_{Z_{s_j}}(h), h = N + 1, \dots, 2N$  when  $X_{h_1+1}, \dots, X_N$  have been discarded as  
 204 unhelpful in explaining  $Z(s_j, t)$  in the previous step.

205 Step 3: Identify  $h_3$  by looking at the sample PCF (partial correlation function)  $\hat{\rho}_{Z_{s_j}}(h), h = 2N + 1, \dots, 3N$  when  
 206  $X_{h_1+1}, \dots, X_N$  and  $X_{h_2+1}, \dots, X_{2N}$  have been discarded as unhelpful in explaining  $Z(s_j, t)$  in the previous steps.

207 Step 4: Step 3 is repeated in a similar manner for all necessary time lags in order to identify  $h_4, h_5, \dots$

208 Step 5: Repeat the previous steps for all observed sites.

209 An alternative to the use of the PCF is the use of an automatic model selection criterion in each step of the identification  
 210 strategy which we developed in our model.

## 211 5. The spatio-temporal VAR(p) model for global solar radiation

### 212 5.1. Application of model

213 We are interested in the forecasting of the daylight period of global solar radiation which corresponds to time  
 214 series of global solar radiation between 7 am to 5 pm. The data are by 10 minutes step. We perform our analyse in  
 215 using one year of data (2012), there are no missing values in this data set. Consequently, the data set  $(Z(s_i, t))t =$   
 216  $1, \dots, 60, s = 1, \dots, 3$  available has 600 minutes observations of global radiation where  $T = 60$  by 10 minutes step,  
 217 at  $N = 3$  monitoring stations located in Guadeloupe (Désirade, Petit-Canal, Fouillole). Note that equation (2) is

218 appropriate once the temporal trends have been removed from the signal. As mentioned previously, for temporal  
 219 detrending we use the parameter  $\Delta K_c$ . Consequently, deterministic trend is removed by differencing clear sky index  
 220 from the difference operator of order  $d$  with  $d = 1$  and we take the logarithm of the observations, thereby stabilizing  
 221 the variance:

$$\nabla Z(s_i, t) = \log(K_c(s_i, t)) - \log(K_c(s_i, t - 1)) \quad (6)$$

$$\nabla Z(s_i, t) = \Delta(\log(K_c)) \quad (7)$$

222 and the spatial trend is estimated as

$$\beta(s_i) = E(\nabla Z(s_i, t) - \nabla Z(s_i, t - 1)) \quad (8)$$

223  $\beta(s_i)$  is supposed to be depending only on  $s_i$ . The stationary spatial-temporal data are obtained. We performed  
 224 the Dickey-Fuller test to assess stationarity in our detrended series. The hypothesis test is based on searching for unit  
 225 root in the time series autocorrelation model. In other words, if the observation at time  $t$  strongly depends on the  
 226 observation at time  $t - 1$  with coefficient larger than 1, the series are defined to be non-stationary. The result indicates  
 227 evidence in favor of the null hypothesis which implies stationarity. Estimation of the parameters in equation (2) is  
 228 obtained with least squares. For more details see Lütkepohl (Chap.3) and Penã et al. ( Chap.14)[22], De Luna and  
 229 Genton [11].

### 230 5.2. Selection of p-order of VAR(p) model

231 We assessed forecastings at 10 min ahead for different p-orders of VAR(p) model in the same day. Then, we  
 232 computed the statistical errors (RMSE) of forecasting for each p-order. These tests are assessed for a sequence of  
 233 31 days. The lowest statistical errors show the selection of an optimal p-order varying from day to day. Obtained  
 234 optimal p-orders for a sequence of 31 days is showed on Figure 4. Thus, we built an algorithm in the process of  
 235 our model selecting optimal p-order for each day by information criterion AIC and BIC from the initialization points  
 236 data of model. This algorithm brings a supplementary optimization of model with the strategy previously described  
 237 in section 4.2. After execution of model process, we attempted to compute the daily occurrence of selected optimal  
 238 p-order of model for each station (Figure 5). A global result can be given: the p-order equals to 1 corresponding to 10  
 239 min lagged values at each station is the highest occurrence. Thus, globally, the optimal model is the spatio temporal  
 240 VAR (1). This indicates that the historic of stations at 10 minutes lag time explains with high occurrence the data  
 241 of an individual localized station at the moment  $t$ . According to the results of coecients crosscorrelations (section  
 242 3.2) 25 minutes is the averaged time lag giving the strongest significant correlations. The crosscorrelation highlights  
 243 the temporal dependencies, it aggregates the correlation between three sites. The spatial parameter doesn't take into  
 244 account, consequently the coefficient of crosscorrelation is just indicative. Moreover, the past data to t-10 min give  
 245 more informations compared to observations to t-25 min in the process of model, this can be another reason. The  
 optimal p-orders equal to or higher than 4 (40 minutes or more) have a very low occurrence.

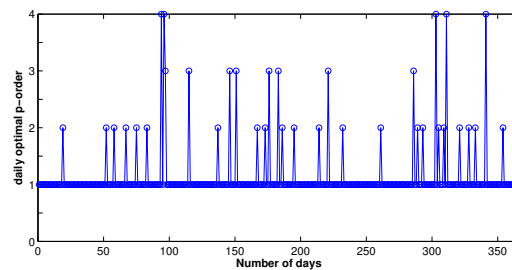


Figure 4. Daily optimal p-order spatio-temporal VAR model for example of 2 months data.

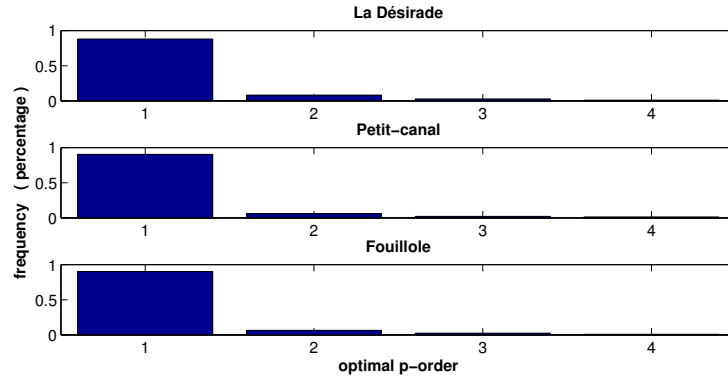


Figure 5. Occurrence in number of days of optimal spatio temporal VAR p-order for each station

247 5.3. Selection of spatial order of VAR model

248 The defined algorithm in section 4.2 may be used in our model as an alternative with the criterions AIC (Akaike  
 249 information criterion, Akaike [1]) and BIC (Bayesian information criterion, Schwarz [? ]). The former being usually  
 250 preferred for predictive purposes and gives best results in our case. We used this alternative in our process model. Our  
 251 VAR model is implied by treating each spatial location separately in the modeling process. The fact that predictors can  
 252 be entered in the model sequentially in the model building stage thanks to this algorithmic strategy, allowed to know  
 253 how many of predictors or stations should be used for each daily forecasting, avoiding useless variables. Figure 6  
 254 presents normalized RMSE for different linear combination will consist of past time series of one station, two stations  
 255 or three stations. Figure 7 completes this analysis by a histogramm of frequency of the best linear combinations  
 256 obtained on the whole of year. These figures show that the knowledge of the past temporal series of solar radiation  
 257 measured on three or two stations brings an additional information and improves the predictibility of the localized  
 258 solar radiation. Numerous researchers demonstrated the improvement of forecast quality by multivariate models  
 259 techniques, in particular by including a spatial information. We can quote Glasbey and Allcroft ( 2008 ), Yang and al (   
 260 2014 ), Bessa and al ( 2015 ). Moreover, these figures show the wealth of the model which can behave like a model AR  
 261 (one station) or a model spatio-temporal VAR (several sations) accordint to selected stations in the modeling process

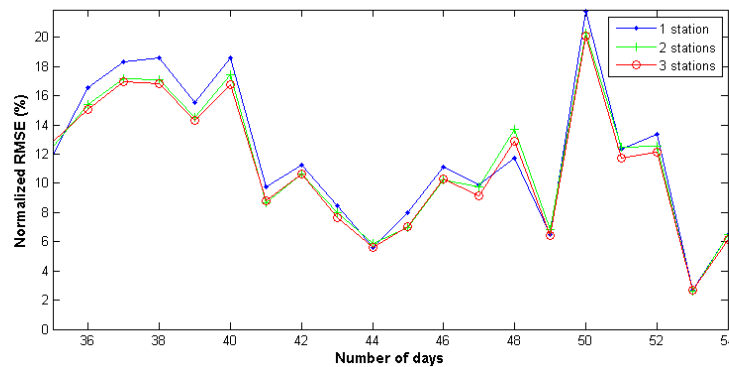


Figure 6. Daily RMSE for for different linear combination will consist of past time series of one station, two stations or three stations (an example of 75 days sequence).

262 By taking into account the spatio-temporal structure, it becomes possible to define an ordering with which to  
 263 sequentially introduce the predictors in the model for  $z(s; t)$ . We investigated the spatial ordering of the sites with  
 264 a prediction performance analysis where two different ordering of the stations are examined. For this analysis, we  
 265 compared the statistical errors of daily root mean square errors (nRMSE) for two spatial structures. The first spatial

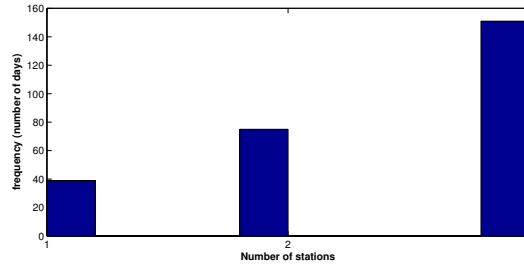


Figure 7. Frequency in number of days of best linear combinations selected with the best RMSE obtained on the whole of 2012 year

266 structure motivated by physical knowledge, defines an ordering of the stations according to the prevailing wind di-  
 267 rection. We took into account that the Trade wind has predominantly a direction from east to west over Guadeloupe  
 268 island. Consequently, if we want to predict at a station, the linear combination will consist of past time series of the  
 269 station then the past time series from easterly station, and third the last station. These orders of past time series are  
 270 different if we consider an ascending order with respect to the distance between stations in using information from  
 271 Table 1.

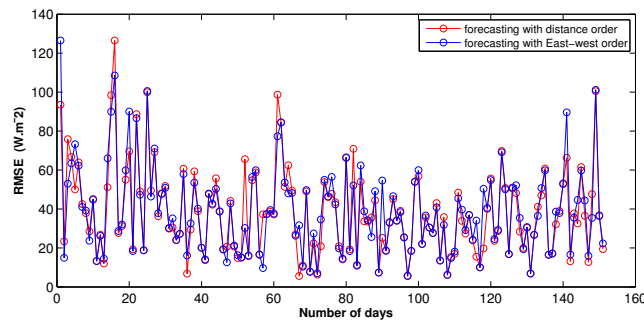


Figure 8. Normalized RMSE of two models including each a different spatial structure in the spatio-temporal process VAR model (order of locations respecting the Trade wind in blue color and order of locations respecting ascending order distances in red color ) for 5 months for example of Fouillole station

272 We found values are more or less equal between the two type of spatial orders of locations but for particular cases  
 273 we have some better values for the order of locations respecting the prevailing wind direction, particularly for June,  
 274 October, November and December periods which is in agreement with the cyclonic season particularly characterized  
 275 by rainy period and higher wind speed. Figure 8 show an example for 160 days sequences. We found that the model  
 276 whose spatial structure takes into account the predominant wind direction (wind order) has better or equal predictive  
 277 performance at probability of 25% for Petit-canal station along the year, 17% for La Désirade station and 8% for  
 278 Fouillole station, than the model ignoring this physical information (distance order). In section 6.2, it will be shown  
 279 that for certain forecasts horizons the influence of predictors spatial order is more marked.

280 Consequently, in order to optimize our forecasting model of global solar radiation time series, we use the spatial  
 281 structure of stations (or order of predictors) according to the prevailing wind direction during the rainy season.

## 282 6. Predictive performance of model

### 283 6.1. Results for different daily global radiation classes

284 To put in evidence the influence of the solar radiation variability on the forecast results we performed a forecast  
 285 on a given class of days. This classification of daily global solar radiation is performed by an algorithm based on  
 286 k-means method. The classes found have the same characteristics than those found in Soubdhan et al [27] who used

287 a mixture of Dirichlet distribution: clear sky to cloudy sky days. A representation of averaged signals of each class is  
 288 shown (Figure 8) with an example of day global solar radiation curve for each class (Figure 9).

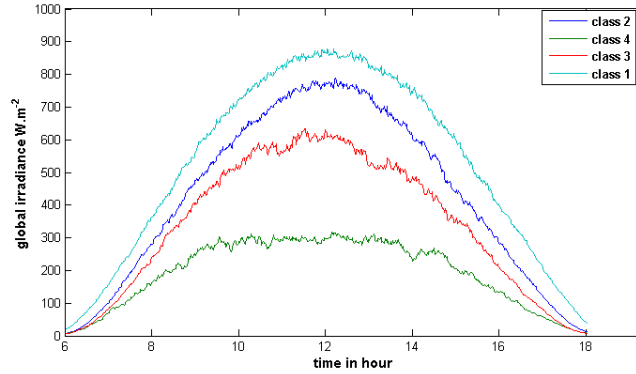


Figure 9. Average daily curve of four classes obtained by k-means method.

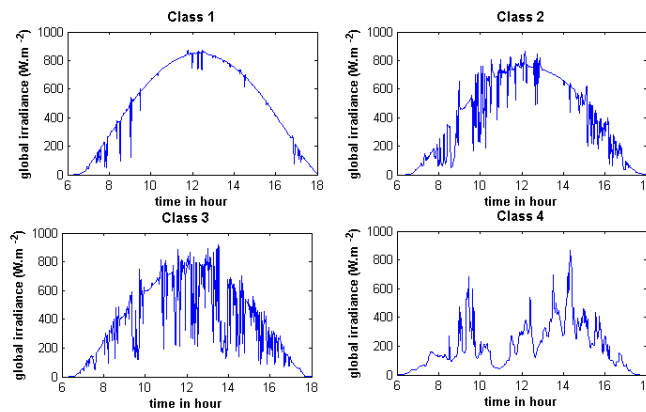


Figure 10. Example of days respectively being representative of class 1; class 2; class 3; and class 4.

288 The results of normalized MAE (nMAE) are presented by histograms for each quarter and each class (Figure 11).  
 289 The normalized MAE is described by equation (9).  
 290

$$nMAE = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum |G - \hat{G}|}{\max(G) - \min(G)} \times 100\% \quad (9)$$

291 where  $G$  measured values and  $\hat{G}$  predicted values.

292 Normalized MAE (nMAE) values are always inferior to 10% which shows a good performance of the model. The  
 293 class which presents the lowest statistical errors is class 1. This class is representative of clear sky conditions of solar  
 294 radiation days with very few clouds and thus a very slow dynamic, as shown in Figure 8. Class 3 presents the highest  
 295 statistical errors. This class is representative of days with significant sunshine combined with a large number of small  
 296 clouds with high speed of passages and thus with high dynamic levels. The medium errors results are obtained for  
 297 class 2 which is representative of days with an important solar radiation with some clouds corresponding to a medium  
 298 level dynamic as shown in Figure 9. The class 4 can present the highest statistical error for few months but also the  
 299 lowest (from Table 3 to Table 5). This class is representative of completely cloudy sky days with big size clouds. In  
 300 this case the solar radiation is mainly scattered by clouds and presents low values of global solar radiation. When  
 301 the cloudy mass, scattering solar radiation, has a slow speed, the dynamic level is very slow which can explain the

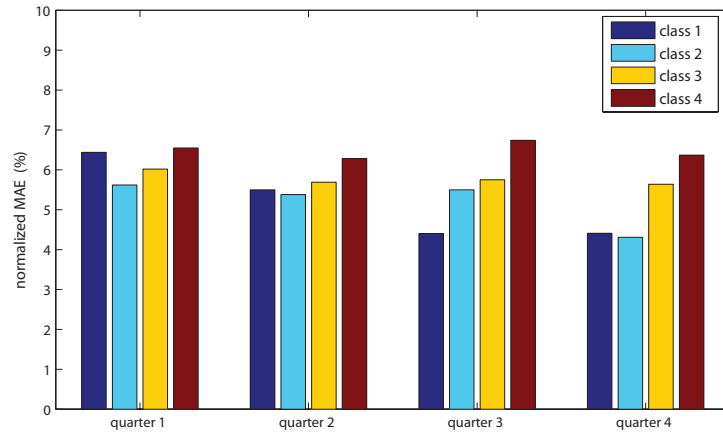


Figure 11. Normalized mean absolute errors (nMAE) in percentage of forecastings of global solar radiation for all stations for each quarter corresponding to a season

possibility of low values of statistical errors. According to the results, we can say that performance of model decreases when solar radiation signal presents high dynamic level. The model has difficulties to accurately predict values when variations are speed and brutal. However, the statistical errors values show a good performance of spatio-temporal model and globally doesn't exceed 10% whatever dynamic (fast or slow) of fluctuations of measured signals.

### 6.2. Results for different horizons

In this section we assessed our model for different forecasting horizons according the two spatial structures defined in section 5.3. The yearly normalized RMSE is described by equation(10).

$$nRMS E = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum (G - \hat{G})^2}}{\max(G) - \min(G)} \times 100\% \quad (10)$$

La Désirade station					
	5 min	10 min	15 min	30 min	1H
distance order	10.79	13.13	11.51	13.24	15.15
East-west order	10.79	13.13	11.51	13.24	15.15
Petit-canal station					
	5 min	10 min	15 min	30 min	1H
distance order	10.52	11.12	10.53	11.60	16.63
East-west order	10.59	11.12	10.53	11.59	14.10
Fouillole station					
	5 min	10 min	15 min	30 min	1H
distance order	13.19	13.56	13.28	13.29	20.43
East-west order	12.68	13.56	13.28	13.28	15.97

Table 3. Yearly normalized root mean square errors (nRMSE) for different forecasting horizons according two spatial orders of predictors for each station.

The results of performance predictive show values of yearly nRmse which don't exceed 21% whatever horizons, which presents a good predictive performance of model. We will compare it with other methods in literature in section 6.3.

313 This table highlights some spatio-temporal information about the dynamic system compound of our three stations.  
 314 We can observe that spatial order of predictors has no strong influence on model performance for horizons lower than  
 315 1h. This can be explained by the fact that, from 5 min to 15 min, the variability of signals are not explained most often  
 316 by clouds moving from a station to another. The variation of solar radiation for this timescale is presumably subject to  
 317 different microclimates. As we explained in section 5.3, for example of 10 min horizons, forecasting using East-west  
 318 order of predictors improve the model until a daily frequency of 25% on the whole of year. Moreover, particularly at  
 319 5min horizons, it is unlikely that solar radiation measured at a localized station can be explained by solar radiation  
 320 measured at other stations in the past. The results allow to observe also that 15 min is the timescale threshold for that  
 321 the stations ordered according a spatial structure respecting the predominant wind direction in the process of model  
 322 improve performance predictive of solar radiation at a localized station. By observation of statistical errors results, at  
 323 1h horizon, the influence of wind direction is well marked.

324 An example of forecasting for 4 days sequence for each horizon is presented in Figure 12.

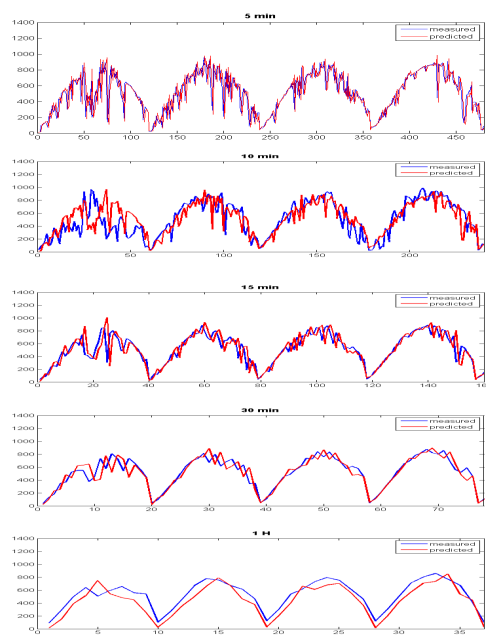


Figure 12. Measured global solar radiation (blue) and predicted (red) signals for four days with different solar radiation variability and different horizons respectively 5min, 10min, 15min, 30min, 1h.

### 325 6.3. Comparison with other methods of the literature

326 If we use the literature we can compare the forecasting results of spatio-temporal VAR model with other models  
 327 (Table.4). For 10 min horizon, Chu et al [8] in using 1min average predict direct normal irradiance found the best  
 328 performance values  $54.6W.m^{-2}$  for low DNI and  $132W.m^{-2}$  for high DNI (direct normal irradiance) with a model  
 329 combining sky image processing and ANN and Marquez et al [20] in using total sky imager found  $283W.m^{-2}$  the best  
 330 value of RMSE. For our model, one of the best values of RMSE for low dynamic global solar flux is  $18W.m^{-2}$  and for  
 331 high dynamic is  $76W.m^{-2}$ . In Glasbey paper [14] the performance of STARMA model at 10min time scale forecasting,  
 332 is described by a comparison of averages of estimated parameters fitted STAR (1) and true values parameters. In Chi  
 333 Wai Wow [7], the performance at 30s to 5 min horizon is described by mean and standard deviation of matching errors  
 334 between the two cloud maps. We performed our model for 5min ahead and 15min ahead. The results for our model  
 335 spatio temporal VAR, are computed with the average of yearly nMAE and nRMSE for all sites. We also computed  
 336 the statistical errors of persistence model for our data set at 30 min ahead and 1h ahead. The results of predictive  
 337 performance found in literature and of our model are presented in Table.4 at different horizons.

Forecast horizon	Forecasting model in the literature	Best statistical error(%)
5 minutes	kriging model[29]	nRmse :18.49
5 minutes	shrinkage in VAR model [29]	nRmse18.09
5 minutes	Regression [26]	nMAE:12.63
5 minutes	ARIMA[26]	nMAE:13.21
5 minutes	Neural Network [26]	nMAE:12.78
15 minutes	Regression [26]	nMAE:26.52
15 minutes	ARIMA[26]	nMAE:18.97
15 minutes	Neural Network [26]	nMAE:21.04
30 minutes	Model At [10]	1-RMSE/RMSEp:5.68
30 minutes	Model Ast2 [10]	1-RMSE/RMSEp:9.45
30 minutes	CMF [10]	1-RMSE/RMSEp:8
Forecast horizon	Forecasting spatio-temporal VAR model	Best statistical error(%)
5 minutes	spatio-temporal VAR model	nRmse:8.46
5 minutes	spatio-temporal VAR model	nMAE:5.50
15 minutes	spatio-temporal VAR model	nMAE:11.33
30 minutes	spatio-temporal VAR model	1-RMSE/RMSEp:4.52
1H	spatio-temporal VAR model	nRmse:15.07
1H	spatio-temporal VAR model	1-RMSE/RMSEp:23.42

Table 4. Comparison of the forecast errors with different models of the literature

On the whole, we can note our model gives good results in comparison with other models in the literature (Table.4). RMSE or nRMSE values highly depend on the meteorological conditions. Forecast for a clear location would always be associated with lower RMSE. One way to overcome this, is to compare the metric error computed by the ratio of model RMSE and persistence model RMSE used by Dambreville et al (2014) [10] for At, Ast, Ast2 models. Dambreville et al (2014) [10] presents an original method to forecast the GHI at ground level using the HelioClim-3 maps which estimate the GHI from satellite images. The originality of this work comes from the integration of spatio-temporal information from satellite images without any cloud motion field vector calculation. The metric error computed by the ratio of model RMSE and persistence model RMSE allowed to have an accurate comparison between At, Ast, Ast2 models [10] and our model (Table 4). Moreover, as our results are derived from data in Guadeloupe, which has a highly time-variable tropical climate, we expect that the skill of our method will be even higher at other locations. In order to do a more valid comparison, in future work we will apply the different models to our data set. This table shows an excellent performance of our model for 1 H ahead with 23.42% of metric error and only a normalized RMSE equals to 15.07%.

## 7. Conclusion

In this paper, we investigated the use of a spatio-temporal VAR model for forecasting global solar radiation at 10 min ahead with experimental data recorded at three locations. The originality of this work comes from a spatio-temporal VAR model performed for data rich in the time dimension and sparse in spatial dimension. The proposed model is specifically designed for the analysis of spatio-temporal data sets with the purpose of providing time-forward predictions at given spatial locations. The predictions are based on a minimum of assumptions since treating each spatial location separately in the modeling process, which allows performing model without spatial-stationary assumptions in contrast with Tonellato [28] who used a spatial stationary isotropic exponential correlation function. This model is based on de Luna and Genton [11] methodology. Comparative studies on global solar radiation forecasting for several time lag and spatial structures are presented and discussed. Thus, an optimization of the model was first performed. A study of the spatial order (order of locations), motivated by physical knowledge respecting the wind direction allowed to improve the spatio-temporal VAR model performance for some periods in the year. Another parameter of the model such as the p-order was also selected optimizing the process model to give better results of



364 predictions. The most frequent optimal p-order was found to equal to 1 or spatio-temporal VAR (1) model. The in-  
 365 fluence of the global solar radiation variability on the MAE and MBE was assessed. The model was tested on typical  
 366 class of solar days having specific variability. Even if, the signals can present high dynamic levels, the statistical errors  
 367 (MAE and MBE) of predictions are mainly inferior to 10%. A comparison with the simple persistence model and  
 368 other models found in literature was made. Our model shows better results than kriging model or shrinkage VAR  
 369 model particularly a good performance at 1H ahead compared to other methods certainly due to spatio-temporal  
 370 information. In future work, we will benchmark the proposed VAR model with other models, in applying literature  
 371 models for our data in order to have a valid comparison.

372 Our results allow estimation of the ancillary services required to operate distributed PV sites and will be able to  
 373 decrease the variability and uncertainty that must be managed by system operators and planners of PV system. Thus,  
 374 the integration of our forecasting model in the process of PV system offers an opportunity to provide guarantees to  
 375 a solar energy network manager. The good performance of this model shows the importance to take into account  
 376 spatio-temporal parameters rather than simple temporal models in our study case.

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