Modelling and remote sensing of water temperature of the Yenisei river (Russia)

N Y Shaparev¹,², Y I Shokin³, and O E Yakubailik¹,²

¹ Institute of Computational Modelling of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Russia, 660036, Krasnoyarsk, Akademgorodok 50/44.
² Siberian Federal University, Russia, 660041, Krasnoyarsk, Svobodny pr., 79.
³ Institute of Computational Technologies of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 630090, Russia, Novosibirsk, Academician M.A. Lavrentiev avenue, 6.

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Abstract. The summertime hydrothermal regime of the Yenisei River downstream of the Krasnoyarsk hydroelectric power plant is modeled using a remote sensing and deterministic approach. The Fourier equation is used, and the following physical processes contributing to the heat exchange between the water and the surroundings are taken into consideration: the absorption of direct and scattered solar radiation by water, the absorption of downwelling thermal infrared radiation (TIR) from the atmosphere by water surface, TIR back from the water surface, the convection of heat and the heat loss due to evaporation of water. A clear-skies river thermal regime under no wind condition is studied at 32-km downstream the power plant, and the obtained results are compared against remote sensing data.

1. Introduction
The Yenisei River in terms of runoff is the largest in Russia (599 km³/year) and the seventh largest in the world (1.5% of the global runoff) [1]. The stream flows in the meridian direction through various climatic zones. The river basin with a total area of 2.6×10⁶ km² houses the largest region in Russia, Krasnoyarsky Krai. There are 6 hydroelectric power plants (HPP) in the basin of the river. One of them, the Krasnoyarsk HPP, is among the top ten world’s most powerful hydroelectric power plants (6000 MW) and the key anthropogenic factor influencing the Yenisei river. The river dam is 124 m in height and 1065 m in width. Upstream, above the dam, a reservoir of 73 km³ capacity has been built. Depending on the climatic and economic conditions, the water discharge ranges from 7000 m³sec⁻¹ to 2000 m³sec⁻¹. Water from the bottom strata of this reservoir flows through the dam and enters the afterbay of the Krasnoyarsk HPP. The incoming water temperature varies over the year from 2°C to 12°C. As a result, downstream of the HPP the summer water temperatures are lower and the winter temperatures are higher than those before the stream was regulated. Temperature is an important parameter, since it influences the behavior of the hydrophysical, hydrochemical, and hydrobiological processes.
The water temperature, in turn, depends on the meteorological conditions [2, 3], including solar radiation, air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, cloud cover, and barometric pressure. The stream water temperature is also affected by the discharge of water, the inflow temperature, and the morphometric river characteristics [4–12].

The heat exchange mechanism underlies the following physical processes in a river: absorption of solar radiation by water, TIR emission and TIR absorption from the atmosphere by water, convection and evaporation, heat transport due to the river flow and thermal conductivity, as well as the heat exchange between the water and streambed.

Temperature is a key indicator of the natural environment. It can be measured by ground based methods or satellite data. Remote sensing techniques provide temperature data on a regular grid with high spatial resolution, with incomparably greater detail than the data of several irregular weather or hydrological stations of official governmental services [13].

The first images of the Earth from space in the thermal infrared range were obtained by American meteorological satellites in the 1960s. Despite the fact that these satellite data had low spatial resolution and practical application, they showed the principal possibility of solving a number of problems in the field of environmental studies by remote sensing. Currently one of the most interesting satellites which regularly surveys the earth’s surface in the thermal infrared (IR) range is Landsat 8. The recorded IR data has a high spatial resolution of 100 meters per pixel, and the repeatability of the survey is 16 days. Landsat 8 is not the only thermal infrared satellite, but because of a combination of data availability and high spatial resolution, it is considered to be the leader in the subject area [14].

2. Subject of research
Here we consider the summertime hydrothermal regime in a 32-km river reach downstream of the Krasnoyarsk HPP on July 3, 2016 based on a deterministic modeling approach. We apply a physically-based heat balance modeling approach, since it requires minimum additional information, which is of particular importance for the poorly developed areas of the Yenisei River. The physical heat exchange processes include absorption of direct and scattered solar radiation by water, absorption of downwelling thermal infrared radiation (TIR) from the atmosphere by the water surface, TIR back from the water surface, convection of heat and heat loss due to evaporation of water. To carry out mathematical simulation, we use the Fourier equation. We show that under our conditions the water flow is turbulent and the thermal conductivity of water can be safely ignored. Next we switch to a coordinate system moving with water and end up with a simple differential equation for water temperature. With this equation we can predict the longitudinal water temperature fluctuation along the river at various times considering real morphometric characteristics.

The method of assessing the temperature of the Earth’s land surface and, in particular, the water surface, is the subject of numerous studies [15, 16]. Unlike a number of other satellite data, Landsat temperature data must be calculated. Each pixel of Landsat 8 TIR data is stored as Digital Numbers (DNs) with a value between 0 and 2^15. To obtain the actual surface temperature, we need first to a) convert these DNs to top-of-the-atmosphere (ToA) radiance values, and then b) convert the ToA radiance values to ToA brightness temperature in Kelvin. The last step is the estimation of Land (Water or Sea) Surface Temperature (LST). Land Surface Temperature can be calculated from ToA Brightness Temperature $T_B^{[17]}$:

$$T = T_B^{[17]} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + (\lambda \cdot T_B^{[17]} / c_z) \cdot \ln(\varepsilon_w)}$$

where $\lambda$ = wavelength of emitted radiance, $c_z$ = $h \cdot c / s$ = 1.4388 $\cdot 10^{-2}$ m K, $h$ = Planck’s constant = 6.626 $\cdot 10^{-34}$ J s, $c$ = velocity of light = 2.998 $\cdot 10^8$ m/s, $s$ = Boltzmann constant = 1.38 $\cdot 10^{-23}$ J/K, $\varepsilon_w$ = emissivity of the water surface.
3. Mathematical Modeling of the hydrothermal regime

Water from the upstream reservoir is released through the dam and enters the afterbay of surface width \( B \) (m) and cross-sectional area \( S \) (m\(^2\)). The water discharge through the dam body is characterized by the quantity \( Q \) (m\(^3\) sec\(^{-1}\)). The mean streamflow velocity \( V \) (km hr\(^{-1}\)) is

\[
V = \frac{Q}{S}.
\]  

The hydrothermal river regime in this situation can be described by the Fourier equation [18]:

\[
\frac{\partial T_w(x,t)}{\partial t} = -V(x) \frac{\partial T_w(x,t)}{\partial x} + D \frac{\partial^2 T_w(x,t)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{W(t) B(x)}{\rho c S(x)}.
\]  

The first term in the right-hand side refers to the rate of change in the temperature caused by advection, the second one is associated with the rate of change in the temperature due to dispersion, and the third term describes the heat exchange between the water and the surrounding environment. Here \( T_w \) (¹C) is the cross-sectional average water temperature in degrees Celsius, \( t \) (hour) is time, \( x \) (km) is the distance downstream of the dam, \( \rho \) (10\(^3\) kg m\(^3\)) is the specific water density, \( c \) (4.19·10\(^{-3}\) J kg\(^{-1}\) C\(^{-1}\)) is the specific heat of water, \( D \) (m\(^2\) sec\(^{-1}\)) is the dispersion coefficient in the direction of the flow, \( W \) (W m\(^{-2}\)) is the heat transfer power between the water and the surroundings, which equals

\[
W(t) = W_d + W_a + W_w - W_c + W_e - W_r,
\]  

where \( W_d \) and \( W_a \) are, respectively, the direct and scattered downwelling solar radiation absorbed by water; \( W_w \) is the atmospheric TIR absorbed by water; \( W_w \) is the TIR from the water surface to the atmosphere; \( W_e \) is the convective heat transfer from the atmosphere to the water, and \( W_c \) is the loss of heat due to evaporation. In this paper we deal with uniform streams for which \( Q \) is independent of time. In this situation the streambed temperature adjusts to the temperature of water and, therefore, the thermal exchange between the water and the streambed surface can be neglected [18].

For \( V \gg 10^3 \) m sec\(^{-1}\) the thermal conductivity can be neglected. Then in the system of coordinates moving at a velocity \( V(x) \) equation (2) is rewritten as

\[
\frac{dT_w(t)}{dt} = \frac{W(t) B(x(t))}{\rho c S(x(t))},
\]  

whose solution is found from the expression

\[
T_w(t) = \frac{1}{\rho c} \int_{t_0}^{t} \frac{B(x(t))}{S(x(t))} W(t) dt + T_w(0,t_0), \quad x(t) = \int_{t_0}^{t} \frac{dt}{S(x(t))}.
\]  

Here \( T_w(0,t_0) \) is the outflow temperature of water leaving the dam at time \( t_0 \).

The power of extraterrestrial solar radiation equals [19, 20]

\[
F = F_0 E \cos \theta, \quad \cos \theta = \sin \varphi \sin \delta + \cos \varphi \cos \delta \cos \omega t',
\]  

where \( F_0 = 1367 \) Wm\(^{-2}\) is the solar constant, \( E \) is the eccentricity correction factor, \( \theta \) is the zenith angle, \( t' \) is the time from noon, and \( \omega \) is the rotational speed of the Earth around its polar axis. Here \( \varphi = 55.94° \) is the geographic latitude of the HPP location. The solar declination on July 3, 2016 was \( \delta = 22.97° \) and \( E = 0.966 \). Note that the diurnal variation of \( \delta \) was insignificant and, therefore, the sunrise and sunset times are both determined by the condition \( F = 0 \). From (6) we have

\[
\cos \omega t_0 = -\tan \varphi \cdot \tan \delta.
\]
Consequently, the negative root of the expression, \(-\omega t_0\), refers to the sunrise and the positive one, \(\omega t_0\), to the sunset. Since \(t'\) is the time from noon, we further have

\[
\cos \omega t' = \cos \left(\pi \frac{t-t_n}{12}\right),
\]

where \(t_n\) is the time of solar noon and \(t\) is the time from midnight. From (7) we have \(t_s = 4.06\) hours for the sunrise and \(t_s = 21.57\) hours for the sunset. Then the length of day is 15.51 hours and the time of noon will be \(t_n = 12.81\) hours. The temporal behaviour of the power of extraterrestrial solar radiation is described by expression (6) and is shown in Figure 1 (curve 1).

When solar radiation enters the Earth's atmosphere, a part of the incident energy is removed by scattering and a part by absorption and, according to the Bouguer-Lambert-Beer law, the power of solar radiation reaching the ground (water) surface is

\[
F' = F \cdot \exp \left(-\frac{\tau_0}{\cos \theta}\right),
\]

where the clear sky optical thickness of the atmosphere is \(\tau_0 = 0.12\) taking into account the scattered radiation [19, 20].

The power of direct and scattered solar radiation incident on the water surface is found from expression (9) and is shown in Figure 1 (curve 2).

![Figure 1. Temporal dependence of solar radiation power: 1 – incident on the Earth's atmosphere, 2 – transferred through the atmosphere, 3 – absorbed by water.](image)

Upon reaching a plane water surface, solar radiation is partially reflected. The reflection coefficient \(R\) is calculated by the Fresnel's formula. The remaining part of solar energy \((1-R)\) is absorbed by water. Thus,

\[
W_s + W_w = (1-R)F'.
\]  

The power of solar radiation absorbed by water is shown in Figure 1 (curve 3). The water surface emits TIR defined by the Stefan-Boltzmann law as

\[
W_w = \varepsilon_w \sigma (273 + T_w)^4,
\]
where $\varepsilon_a$ is the emissivity of the water surface, which is $\varepsilon_a = 0.995$ according to [21]. For $T_a = 7.2 ^\circ C$, we have $W_a = 290 \text{ W m}^{-2}$. While emitting this energy the water gets colder.

Atmospheric radiation is also determined by the Stefan-Boltzmann law. Over years, various empirical formulas have been proposed to calculate the atmospheric emission coefficient $\varepsilon_a$. An overview of these is given in [22]. Our analysis has shown that the best formula for our situation is the one proposed in [23], because the optical thickness of the atmosphere in the wavelength range of 9.8 $\mu$m where the atmosphere emits is close to unity [24]:

$$
\varepsilon_a = 1 - 0.4 \cdot \exp \left( -\frac{100 \varepsilon_a}{T_a + 273} \right),
$$

where $T_a$ is the temperature of the atmosphere in $^\circ C$, and $e_a$ (mb) is the atmospheric water vapor pressure.

Now we can carry out calculations for July 3, 2016. At noon $T_a = 26 ^\circ C$ and the humidity was $H = 45\%$, at midnight $T_a = 14 ^\circ C$, $H = 85\%$. Then we have $\varepsilon_a = 0.99$, $W_a = 460 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ at noon and $\varepsilon_a = 0.99$, $W_a = 390 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ at midnight. The atmospheric thermal infrared radiation is absorbed by water surface and increases the water temperature.

The energy spent on water evaporation, $W_e$, is estimated as [25–27]

$$
W_e = \rho L f(w)(\varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_a),
$$

where $L = 2.26 \times 10^6 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ is the latent heat of evaporation, $\varepsilon_s$ is the saturation vapor pressure. When the wind velocity is $w = 0$, we have $f = 3 \cdot 10^{-9}$ (mb$^{-1}$ms$^{-1}$) according to the data from [28]. For the quoted data we have $W_e = 31 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ at noon and $W_e = 4.6 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ at midnight, which results in a drop of the water temperature.

The convective heat flux is estimated as [29]:

$$
W_c = 0.61 \rho L f(T_a - T_w).
$$

Thus, the convective heating is 25 W m$^{-2}$ at noon and 1.3 W m$^{-2}$ at midnight. The difference between the evaporation and convection is 6 W m$^{-2}$ during the daytime and 3.3 W m$^{-2}$ at night. Hence, the heat budget is dominated by evaporation and the water gets colder.

We consider a 32-km reach of the Yenisei River downstream the dam of the Krasnoyarsk HPP. The reach is divided by 5 cross-section lines (7 km, 17 km, 22 km, 28 km, and 32 km). The streamflow velocity is assumed constant from section to section and is found from equation (1) at $Q = 2900 \text{ m}^3 \text{ sec}^{-1}$; $S$ is equal to the cross-sectional area of the downstream lowest reach section. The flow time between the section lines is found as the section-to-section distance divided by the flow velocity. The water temperature $T_a (0, t_0) = 7.2 ^\circ C$ remained constant during the time period under consideration. The power emitted by water is 290 Wm$^{-2}$. The atmospheric radiation power was assumed to be 460 Wm$^{-2}$ in the daytime and 390 Wm$^{-2}$ at night. The difference in power between the evaporation and convection is 6 Wm$^{-2}$ during the daytime and 3.3 Wm$^{-2}$ during the nighttime.

The data for each cross-section of the river from high resolution remote sensing imagery and river navigation (pilot) maps with data on the depth of the river were calculated. The results are shown in Table 1. It also shows the streamflow velocity and the time of the flow between the adjacent sections $\Delta t$, as well as the B/S relation.
The displacement of the water in the river, \( \Delta t \), will be determined according to formula (5) by the expression

\[
\Delta T_i = \frac{1}{\rho c} \frac{B(x_i(t))}{S_i(x_i(t))} \left[ A(t_i) - A(t_{i-1}) \right] + [W_s - W_w - W_r + W_i] \Delta t_i ,
\]

(15)

where \( A(t_{i-1}) \) (Wm\(^{-2}\)hour) is the solar energy absorbed by water at the river part number \( i \) from the sunrise to the time \( t_{i-1} \), \( A(t_i) \) is the solar energy absorbed by the water from the sunrise to time \( t_i \). Respectively, their difference in formula (15) is equal to the solar energy absorbed by the water in the part of the river between \( i-1 \) and \( i \) cross-section lines.

In order to compare the temperature change along the river based on the solar energy absorption with the values obtained from remote sensing data, it is necessary to perform calculations of the solar energy absorption corresponding to the date and time of the satellite imagery. In our case the Landsat-8 satellite took a survey of the study area on July 3, 2016 at about 11:50 local time (in the decimal format it is 11.83).

The study area is divided into 5 segments, and each of them has all necessary parameters. Knowing the water flow rates on all segments, it is possible to determine the timing of the displacement of the water in the river. In particular, the water droplets located at the time of shooting in cross-section 1 passed through the dam at 10.93. The water droplets located at the time of shooting in cross-section 2 passed through cross-section 1 at 10.16, and through the dam at 9.26. All these data for all cross-sections are grouped in Table 2.

### Table 2. Timing of displacement of the water in the river.

| River cross-section number | at dam (0 km) | 1 (7 km) | 2 (17 km) | 3 (22 km) | 4 (28 km) | 5 (32 km) |
|----------------------------|--------------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Distance from dam          | Time, hour   |         |           |           |           |           |
| 1                          | 10.93        | 11.83   |           |           |           |           |
| 2                          | 9.26         | 10.16   | 11.83     |           |           |           |
| 3                          | 8.32         | 9.22    | 10.89     | 11.83     |           |           |
| 4                          | 7.36         | 8.26    | 9.93      | 10.87     | 11.83     |           |
| 5                          | 6.49         | 7.39    | 9.06      | 10.00     | 10.96     | 11.83     |

For all moments of time in Table 2, the corresponding values of absorbed solar energy were calculated based on the above formula (10). The results are presented in Table 3.

### Table 3. The amount of solar energy absorbed by water from sunrise to a given point in time.

| Time, hour | A, Wm\(^{-2}\)hour |
|------------|--------------------|
|            | 6.49               | 7.36   | 7.39   | 8.26   | 8.32   | 9.06   | 9.22   | 9.26   |
| 196        | 465                | 478    | 854    | 884    | 1298   | 1403   | 1418   |
| 9.93       | 10.00              | 10.16  | 10.87  | 10.89  | 10.93  | 10.96  | 11.83  |
| 1875       | 1955               | 2043   | 2592   | 2615   | 2645   | 2664   | 3401   |
Then calculations of the water temperature changes for different cross-sections using the expression (15) were performed. For example, for a portion of water that reached cross-section 2 at the time of the survey, the 1st section (from the dam to section 1) passed from time 9.26 to 10.16, the water temperature increased by 0.22 °C, and the second section (from section 1 to section 2) passed from time 10.16 to 11.83, and the temperature increase was 0.52 °C. Thus, the total temperature increase of the considered part of water was 0.74 °C. All these results of calculations are collected in Table 4. Figure 2 summarizes the obtained results on the temperature change along the river (curve 1).

![Figure 2](image-url)

**Figure 2.** Water temperature depending on distance: mathematical modeling (1) and remote sensing data (2).

| River part | dam – 1 | 1 – 2 | 2 – 3 | 3 – 4 | 4 – 5 | Total ΔT, °C |
|------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------------|
| ΔT for water part 1, °C | 0.26 | 0.52 | 0.23 | 0.38 | 0.27 | 1.26 |

### 4. Remote sensing temperature data preparation

The relevant tarball file containing the data was downloaded using the United States’ Geological Survey’s (USGS) EarthExplorer tool; the area of interest was encompassed by [scene identifier: path 143 row 021] in the WRS-2 scheme, scene id = LC81430212016185LGN00. When the tarball is unpacked fully, the band used from the TIRS instrument is band 10; the relevant .TIF file is [“identifier”_B10.tif], and it was clipped to the study area.

In accordance with the standard procedure noted above, the calculations were carried out. At the first step Dark Object Subtraction (DOS) atmospheric correction was performed. Then DN's were converted to top-of-the-atmosphere (ToA) radiance values, the ToA radiance values to ToA brightness temperature, and the ToA brightness temperature to Land (Water) Surface Temperature in Celsius degrees. Open source GIS software QGIS 2.18 with the Semi-Automatic Classification Plugin (SACP) plug-in was used to process the satellite data [30].
On the basis of the prepared satellite temperature map data, estimation of the water temperature at the mentioned cross-section lines was performed. Figure 2 summarizes the obtained results on the temperature change along the river (curve 2). It shows the data of the calculations and the results of remote sensing data processing.

5. Conclusions
We have proposed a simple model for simulating the summertime hydrothermal regime of a river based on the calculation of water temperature in a coordinate system moving with the water. A physically based estimation of the water heat budget takes into account the absorption of solar radiation by water surface, the emission and absorption of atmospheric TIR by water, the convective heating of water, as well as the heat loss due to evaporative processes. The temporal fluctuation pattern of direct and scattered solar radiation depends on the zenith angle and atmospheric absorption. The dominant water heating factor is solar radiation during the daytime and atmospheric TIR at night. The water temperatures at 32 km downstream of the Krasnoyarsk HPP on the Yenisei River computed using the above-proposed model with consideration of morphometric characteristics are close to the temperatures obtained from Landsat 8 satellite remote sensing data. This proves that the physical-mathematical model provides an adequate description of the actual hydrothermal processes.

The above-proposed approach, which combines methods of physical and mathematical modeling and remote sensing, is promising and effective for use in problems and models associated with specific areas and taking into account their specificity in the conditions of natural and climatic changes. It gives high-quality scientific and practical results in management decision-making for various tasks of analysis, assessment, and monitoring of the environment.

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