
AllClear: A Comprehensive Dataset and Benchmark for Cloud Removal in Satellite Imagery

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Abstract

1 Clouds in satellite imagery pose a significant challenge for downstream applica-
2 tions. A major challenge in current cloud removal research is the absence of a
3 comprehensive benchmark and a sufficiently large and diverse training dataset.
4 To address this problem, we introduce the largest public dataset — *AllClear* for
5 cloud removal, featuring 23,742 globally distributed regions of interest (ROIs) with
6 diverse land-use patterns, comprising 4 million images in total. Each ROI includes
7 complete temporal captures from the year 2022, with (1) multi-spectral optical im-
8 agery from Sentinel-2 and Landsat 8/9, (2) synthetic aperture radar (SAR) imagery
9 from Sentinel-1, and (3) auxiliary remote sensing products such as cloud masks
10 and land cover maps. We validate the effectiveness of our dataset by benchmarking
11 performance, demonstrating the scaling law — the PSNR rises from 28.47 to 33.87
12 with 30× more data, and conducting ablation studies on the temporal length and the
13 importance of individual modalities. This dataset aims to provide comprehensive
14 coverage of the Earth’s surface and promote better cloud removal results.

15 1 Introduction

16 Satellite image recognition enables environmental monitoring, disaster response, urban plan-
17 ning [Pham et al., 2011, Wellmann et al., 2020], crop-yield prediction [Doraiswamy et al., 2003],
18 and many more applications, but is held back significantly due to occlusion by clouds. Roughly 67%
19 of the Earth’s surface is covered by clouds at any given moment [King et al., 2013]. The limited
20 availability of cloud-free captures is especially problematic for time-sensitive events like wildfire
21 control [Kyzirakos et al., 2014, Thangavel et al., 2023] and flood damage assessment [Rahman and
22 Di, 2020]. Consequently, developing effective cloud removal techniques is crucial for maximizing
23 the utility of remote sensing data in various domains.

24 A major challenge holding back research into cloud removal is the lack of comprehensive datasets
25 and benchmarks. A survey of publicly available datasets for cloud removal (Table 1) reveals several
26 problems. First, most existing datasets are sampled from a small set of locations and thus have
27 limited geographical diversity [Ebel et al., 2020, Huang and Wu, 2022, Ebel et al., 2022], impacting
28 both the effectiveness of training and the rigor of evaluation. Second, many existing datasets filter
29 out very cloudy images (e.g., more than 30% cloud coverage), thus preventing trained models from
30 tackling practical situations with extensive cloud cover [Sarukkai et al., 2020, Requena-Mesa et al.,

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Dataset	Regions	# ROIs	# Images	Satellites
STGAN [Sarukkai et al., 2020]	Worldwide	945	3,101	Sentinel-2
Sen2_MTC [Huang and Wu, 2022]	Worldwide	50	13,669	Sentinel-2
EarthNet2021 [Requena-Mesa et al., 2021]	Europe	32,000	960,000	Sentinel-2
SEN12MS-CR [Ebel et al., 2020]	Worldwide	169	366,654	Sentinel-1/2
SEN12MS-CR-TS [Ebel et al., 2022]	Worldwide	53	917,580	Sentinel-1/2
AllClear	Worldwide	23,742	4,354,652	Sentinel-1/2, LandSat-8/9

Table 1: Summary of publicly available cloud removal datasets.

2021] (Figure 1). Third, some existing benchmarks use ground-truth cloud-free images captured at a very different time point from the time the input images are captured [Sarukkai et al., 2020, Ebel et al., 2022]. This means that many changes may have occurred on the ground between the capture of the input and the target images, introducing noise in the evaluation. Finally, existing datasets incorporate a very limited set of sensors/modalities (i.e., Sentinel-2), limiting the information available to models for faithful cloud removal.

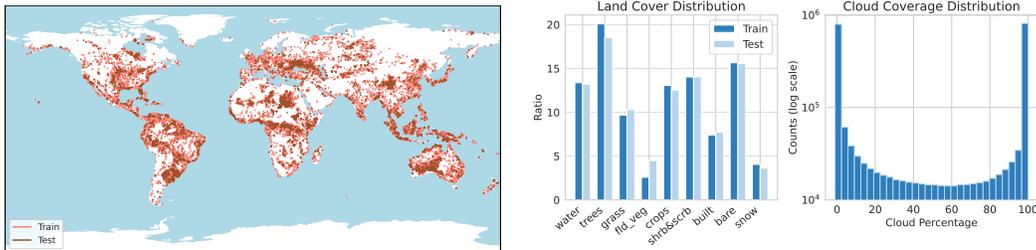


Figure 1: Left: Geographical distribution of *AllClear* ROIs; middle: land cover distribution of *AllClear* for training and testing set; right: cloud coverage distribution of the entire *AllClear* dataset.

To address these limitations and facilitate future research in cloud removal, we introduce the largest and most comprehensive dataset to date, *AllClear*. To ensure sufficient coverage of the planet’s diversity, *AllClear* includes 23,742 regions of interest (ROIs) scattered across the globe with diverse land cover patterns, resulting in four million multi-spectral images. *AllClear* includes data from three different satellites (i.e., Sentinel-1, Sentinel-2, and LandSat-8/9) captured over a year (2022) at each ROI, allowing models to better interpolate missing information. We use this dataset to create a more rigorous sequence-to-point benchmark with more temporally aligned ground truth. Finally, besides the enormous amount of raw satellite images, we also curated a rich set of metadata for each individual image (e.g., geolocation, timestamp, land cover map, cloud masks, etc.) to support building future models for the cloud removal challenge as well as to enable stratified evaluation.

We evaluate existing state-of-the-art on *AllClear* and find that existing models are undertrained; training on our larger and more diverse training set significantly improves performance. We also find that models that use the full suite of available sensors as well as a longer temporal sequence of captures perform much better. Taken together, our contributions are:

- We introduce to-date the largest dataset for cloud removal, as well as a comprehensive and stratified evaluation benchmark,
- We demonstrate that our significantly larger and more diverse training set improves model performance, and
- We show empirically the importance of leveraging multiple sensors and longer time spans.

56 2 Background

57 2.1 Existing Cloud Removal Datasets

58 Advances in cloud removal research for satellite imagery have led to the development of several
59 datasets with unique characteristics and limitations. STGAN introduced two cloud removal datasets
60 and established the multi-temporal task format of using three images as input [Sarukkai et al., 2020].
61 However, the dataset discards all image crops with more than 30% cloud cover, leading to only
62 3K images. Following STGAN, Huang and Wu [2022] find that the annotations in STGAN can be
63 incorrect and propose Sen2_MTC with four times more images. The Sen_MTC dataset first samples
64 50 tiles globally and proceeds to divide the large tile into pieces, restricting the sampling regional
65 diversity. STGAN and Sen_MTC also do not describe their *data processing levels* (e.g., level-1C
66 Top-of-Atmosphere or level-2A Surface Reflectance imagery), making it hard to compare models
67 trained on different datasets. Different from the STGAN and Sen2_MTC datasets, the SEN12MS-CR
68 dataset features synthetic-aperture radar (SAR) images to augment the optics imagery. However,
69 it has a single image pair per data point. The successor is SEN12MS-CR-TS [Ebel et al., 2022],
70 featuring multi-temporal (multiple images per location) multi-modality paired images. For each
71 location, 30 Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2 images from 2018 are temporally aligned and paired to form
72 spatiotemporal patches. However, the temporal differences between the two modalities can be as
73 large as 14 days, and the temporal difference between the input and the target can be as large as a
74 year, resulting in noise in the evaluation. In addition, the authors construct a sequence-to-point cloud
75 removal task in which images from this dataset with more than 50% cloud coverage are excluded.
76 EarthNet2021 [Requena-Mesa et al., 2021] also provides sequences of carefully curated Sentinel-2
77 images with a spatial resolution of 20m and bands of RGB and Infrared. However, the dataset
78 excluded spatiotemporal patches with high cloud coverage and is thus not an ideal dataset for cloud
79 removal.

80 2.2 Cloud Removal Methodology

81 Early work on cloud removal used a conditional GAN to map a single image to its cloudless version
82 conditioning on the NIR channel [Enomoto et al., 2017] or SAR images [Grohnfeldt et al., 2018].
83 These early attempts fall short of generalizing to real cloudy images [Ebel et al., 2020, Stucker
84 et al., 2023]. Singh and Komodakis [2018] and Ebel et al. [2020] improve this setup by using a
85 cycle-consistency loss. Other approaches learn the mapping from SAR images to their corresponding
86 multi-spectral bands [Bermudez et al., 2018, 2019, Wang et al., 2019, Fuentes Reyes et al., 2019].
87 More recently, with the advent and rise of transformers, multi-head attention modules have been
88 introduced for cloud removal tasks. Yu et al. [2022] casts the cloud as image distortion and designs a
89 distortion-aware module to restore the cloud-free images. Zou et al. [2023a] utilized multi-temporal
90 inputs along with a multi-scale attention autoencoder to exploit the global and local context for
91 reconstruction. Ebel et al. [2023] also adopts a multi-temporal inputs and attention autoencoder but
92 also proposes to estimate the aleatoric uncertainty of the prediction, which controls the quality of
93 the reconstruction for risk-mitigation applications. Jing et al. [2023], Zou et al. [2023b] proposed
94 to utilize diffusion training objective for cloud-free image generation where the inputs only rely on
95 the optimal images and SAR imagery is not taken into consideration. Similarly but more generally,
96 Khanna et al. [2023] proposed a generative foundation model for satellite imagery, but is not tailored
97 for the cloud removal task.

98 3 Dataset

99 3.1 Regions-of-Interest Selection

100 We choose our ROIs to satisfy two objectives: (a) coverage of most of the land surface and (b) a
101 balanced sampling of land cover types. This balanced sampling in particular ensures that smaller but
102 more popular locations like cities are as well represented as the large swathes of wilderness. To get
103 these ROIs, we follow a two-step procedure: curating a pool of ROI candidates and then building

104 train/benchmark subgroups balanced across land cover types, as shown in Figure 1. This ensures
105 both the benchmark and the training sets contain a sufficient amount of data representing various land
106 cover types.

107 For curating the ROI pool, unlike previous work that followed random ROI selection [Sarukkai
108 et al., 2020, Huang and Wu, 2022, Ebel et al., 2020, 2022, Xu et al., 2023], we use grid sampling to
109 select an ROI every 0.1° latitude and every $0.1^\circ \cos(\theta)$ longitude, where θ is the latitude, from 90°S
110 to 90°N . The intuition behind this approach is that the same 0.1° longitude can represent 11.1 km at
111 the equator and 4.35 km at 67° latitude. This weighting provides a simple yet effective method for
112 not over-sampling high-latitude areas. By excluding ocean areas using the GeoPandas package, we
113 select a total of 1,087,947 ROIs.

114 Next, we select ROIs from the pool to achieve a more balanced dataset over land-cover use while
115 considering the natural imbalance of land cover distribution on the earth’s surface. We leverage the
116 land cover data from the Dynamic World product [Brown et al., 2022] from Google Earth Engine,
117 which is a 10-meter resolution Land Use / Land Cover (LULC) dataset containing class probabilities
118 and label information for nine classes: water, tree, grass, flooded vegetation, crops, shrub and scrub,
119 built, bare, and snow and ice. Specifically, we calculate the all-year median of the LULC in 2022
120 as an estimate for the land use and land cover for each ROI. We iteratively select ROIs from the
121 candidate pool such that the average land cover for all classes (except snow and ice) is greater than
122 10 percent in the benchmark set and 5 percent in the train set.

123 Finally, for a fairer comparison with models trained on previous datasets, we take an additional
124 measure to exclude the ROIs that are close to the SEN12MS-CR-TS dataset [Ebel et al., 2022].
125 Specifically, the size of tiles in the SEN12MS-TR-CS dataset is $40 \times 40 \text{ km}^2$. So we exclude the
126 ROIs in AllClear that are within a 50 km radius of the ROIs in SEN12MS-CR-TS.

127 3.2 Data Preparation

128 *AllClear* contains three different types of open-access satellite imagery made available by the Google
129 Earth Engine (GEE) platform [Gorelick et al., 2017]: Sentinel-2A/B [Drusch et al., 2012], Sentinel-
130 1A/B [Torres et al., 2012], and Landsat 8/9 [Williams et al., 2006]. For Sentinel-2, we collected all
131 thirteen bands of Level-1C orthorectified top-of-atmosphere (TOA) reflectance product. For Sentinel-
132 1, we acquired the S1 Ground Range Detected (GRD) product with two polarization channels (VV
133 and VH). All the raw images in *AllClear* were resampled to 10-meter resolution. We follow the
134 default GEE preprocessing steps during all the downloading process. In addition, we include the
135 Dynamic World Land Cover Map for all the Sentinel-2 imagery [Brown et al., 2022]. For each
136 selected ROI, our goal is to collect all $2.56 \times 2.56 \text{ km}^2$ patches in 2022 with a spatial resolution
137 of 10 meters. We adopt the Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) coordinate reference system
138 (CRS), following Ebel et al. [2020, 2022], Zhao et al. [2023], which divides the Earth into 60 zones,
139 each spanning 6 degrees of longitude, to ensure minimal distortion, especially along the longitude
140 axis. Since satellite imagery is often captured in large tiles that do not necessarily conform to the
141 boundaries of UTM zones, gaps (NaN values) can occur where the tile data does not cover the entire
142 ROI. In such cases, we exclude all images containing NaN values to maintain data quality.

143 **Data Preprocessing.** For Sentinel-1, following Ebel et al. [2022], we clip the values in the VV
144 channel of S1 to $[-25; 0]$ and those of the VH channels to $[-32.5; 0]$. For Sentinel-2 and Landsat
145 8/9, we clip the raw values to $[0, 10000]$ [Ebel et al., 2022, Huang and Wu, 2022]. The values are
146 then normalized to the range of $[0, 1]$.

147 **Cloud and Shadow Mask Computation.** The cloud and shadow masks are indispensable to
148 this dataset as they are used for guiding evaluation metric computation by masking out regions
149 where there are clouds and shadows in the target images. To obtain the cloud mask, we use the
150 S2 Cloud Probability dataset available on Google Earth Engine. This dataset is built by using
151 S2cloudless [Zupanc, 2017], an automated cloud-detection algorithm for Sentinel-2 imagery based
152 on a gradient boosting algorithm, which shows the best overall cloud detection accuracy on opaque

153 clouds and semi-transparent clouds in the Hollstein reference dataset [Hollstein et al., 2016, Skakun
154 et al., 2022] and the LCD PixBox dataset [Paperin et al., 2021, Skakun et al., 2022].

155 As for the shadow mask, ideally the cloud shadows can be estimated using the sun azimuth and
156 cloud height but the latter information cannot be obtained. We therefore proceed with curating the
157 shadow mask following documentation in Google Earth Engine [jdbcode, 2023]. The shadow is
158 estimated by computing dark pixels and projecting cloud regions. For the dark pixels, we use the
159 Scene Classification Map (SCL) band values from Sentinel-2 to remove water pixels, as water pixels
160 can resemble shadows. We then threshold the NIR pixel values with a threshold of $1e-4$ to create a
161 map of dark pixels. Finally, we take the intersection of the dark pixel map and the projected cloud
162 regions to obtain the cloud shadow masks.

163 3.3 Benchmarking Task Setup and Evaluation

164 For evaluation, we construct a sequence-to-point task using our AllClear dataset with train, validation,
165 and test splits of 278,613, 14,215, and 55,317 samples, respectively. Each instance contains three
166 input images (u_1, u_2, u_3), a target clear image (v), input cloud and shadow masks, target cloud and
167 shadow masks, timestamps, and metadata such as latitude, longitude, sun elevation angle, and sun
168 azimuth. Sentinel-2 images are considered the main sensor modality, while sensors such as Sentinel-1
169 and LandSat-8/9 are auxiliary. Unlike previous datasets, we do not threshold the cloud coverage in
170 the input images Sarukkai et al. [2020], Requena-Mesa et al. [2021], Ebel et al. [2022]. We also
171 provide multiple options for cloud and shadow masks with different thresholds for users to use.

172 We address two temporal misalignment problems found in previous datasets: misalignment between
173 source and target images (where the difference can be months apart) and misalignment when pairing
174 main sensors with auxiliary sensors (where the difference can be at most two weeks) [Ebel et al., 2022].
175 To avoid temporal misalignment issues, the target clear images are chosen from four consecutive
176 spatial-temporal patches. In particular, the time stamps of the input and target images are either in the
177 order $[u_1, v, u_2, u_3]$ or in the order $[u_1, u_2, v, u_3]$. This ensures that the target image does not include
178 any novel or unseen changes that occurred after the capture of the cloudy images. For auxiliary
179 sensors, we select the auxiliary satellite images within a two-day difference from the respective
180 Sentinel-2 images. We fill the corresponding channels with ones if no auxiliary sensor images match
181 are available. More details about the construction of these inputs and targets is in the supplementary.

182 Note that our target images may still have some clouds (since it is difficult to get a cloud-free
183 image within each time span). To reach a balance between having diverse scenarios and limit metric
184 inaccuracy, we set target images to have less than 10% cloud and shadow (combined) coverage and
185 exclude the cloudy pixels when calculating the metrics. We modified various pixel-based metrics to
186 compute only over the cloud-free areas. We adopt the following metrics common in cloud removal
187 literature: mean absolute error (MAE), root mean square error (RMSE), peak signal-to-noise ratio
188 (PSNR), spectral angle mapper (SAM), and structural similarity index measure (SSIM).

189 4 Experiments

190 We next evaluate the usefulness of our dataset for both evaluation and training.

191 4.1 Benchmarking prior methods on the AllClear test set

192 **Selection of SoTA model architecture.** For a fair comparison between datasets, we choose among
193 the SoTA models for comparison. Specifically, we choose prior state-of-the-art models that are
194 pre-trained on SEN12-MS-CR-TS for the benchmark because AllClear and SEN12-MS-CR-TS are
195 both Top-of-Atmosphere imagery and contain all the bands of Sentinel-2. Notably, other previous
196 datasets such as STGAN and Sen2_MTC are excluded because the pre-processing methodology
197 and imagery production type are not explicitly mentioned, making direct deployment of previous
198 models on the AllClear dataset unfair and not comparable. Therefore, we exclude models such as
199 CTGAN [Huang and Wu, 2022], PMAA [Zou et al., 2023a], and DiffCR [Zou et al., 2023b] which use

200 these datasets to train. Instead, we choose UnCRtainTS model [Ebel et al., 2023], a sequence-to-point
 201 model, and U-TILISE [Stucker et al., 2023], a sequence-to-sequence model, both pre-trained on
 202 the SEN12MS-TR-CS dataset and public available, for our experiments. For this evaluation, all
 203 models receive three images as input. Specifically, they receive both Sentinel-2 and Sentinel-1 images
 204 concatenated along the channel dimension.

205 **Results.** The benchmark results are shown in Table 2. We first notice that simple baselines *least*
 206 *cloudy* and *mosaicing* perform well on the dataset. UnCRtainTS performs slightly better than these
 207 simple baselines in terms of SSIM and SAM. On the other hand, the U-TILISE model falls short of
 208 reaching the performance of the simple baselines. Since U-TILISE is a sequence-to-sequence model,
 209 we adopt it for sequence-to-point evaluation by choosing the image from the output sequence with the
 210 lowest MAE score as the model output. Notably, the training of U-TILISE involves adding sampled
 211 cloud masks to the cloud-free images as inputs, and it is trained to recover the original cloud-free
 212 sequence. The model is evaluated in a similar manner. The distribution disparity between the sampled
 213 cloud masks and the real clouds may contribute to the low score of U-TILISE in the real scenario.
 214 The good performance of *least cloudy* and *mosaicing* is intriguing. We conjecture that part of the
 215 reason may be that in AllClear, the temporal gap between input images and target images is smaller,
 216 so simply averaging or choosing from the input images is likely to yield good results.

Table 2: Benchmark performance of previous SoTA models evaluated on our AllClear benchmark dataset. The best performing values are in **bold** and the second best is underlined.

Model	Training Dataset	PSNR (\uparrow)	SSIM (\uparrow)	SAM (\downarrow)	MAE (\downarrow)
Least Cloudy	-	28.864	<u>0.836</u>	<u>6.982</u>	0.078
Mosaicing	-	29.824	0.754	23.58	0.045
UnCRtainTS [Ebel et al., 2023]	SEN12MS-CR-TS	<u>29.009</u>	0.898	5.972	<u>0.039</u>
U-TILISE Stucker et al. [2023]	SEN12MS-CR-TS	24.660	0.807	7.765	0.083

217 **Failure cases.** To understand the performance of the state-of-the-art better, we visualize the output
 218 images generated using the state-of-the-art model UnCRtainTS [Ebel et al., 2023], which was trained
 219 on the SEN12MS-CR-TS dataset [Ebel et al., 2022]. In Figure 2, we evaluate the pre-trained model
 220 on AllClear testing cases where it receives three cloudy images as input. Overall, we observe three
 221 primary failure modes in the model’s performance: (1) The model fails to draw from clear input
 222 images, particularly when the other two images are cloudy. This issue may arise because the model
 223 was trained exclusively on images with less than 50% cloud coverage, as noted by the authors [Ebel
 224 et al., 2023]. (2) The model often struggles to recover the correct color spectrum, even when the input
 225 images are mostly clear. We hypothesize that this is due to the relatively small dataset size, leading to
 226 a lack of generalization ability. (3) The model frequently fails to generalize to snow-covered land.
 227 We speculate that this is due to insufficient sampling of diverse snowy regions during training.

228 4.2 Training on AllClear

Table 3: Benchmark Performance for UnCRtainTs models retrained on AllClear.

Evaluation Dataset	Training Dataset (fraction used)	PSNR (\uparrow)	SSIM (\uparrow)	SAM (\downarrow)	MAE (\downarrow)
SEN12MS-CR-TS	SEN12MS-CR-TS	27.838	0.866	9.455	0.036
	AllClear (3.4%)	26.256	0.847	10.411	0.041
AllClear	SEN12MS-CR-TS	29.009	0.898	5.972	0.039
	AllClear (3.4%)	28.474	0.906	6.373	0.036

229 We next evaluate the benefits of training on AllClear. For this purpose, we use UnCRtainTS
 230 given its good performance on prior benchmarks. To evaluate if there is any domain difference
 231 between AllClear and the previous SEN12MS-TR-CS dataset, we first run an equal-training-set-size
 232 comparison. We train UnCRtainTS on a *subset* of AllClear that is of the same size as the the training

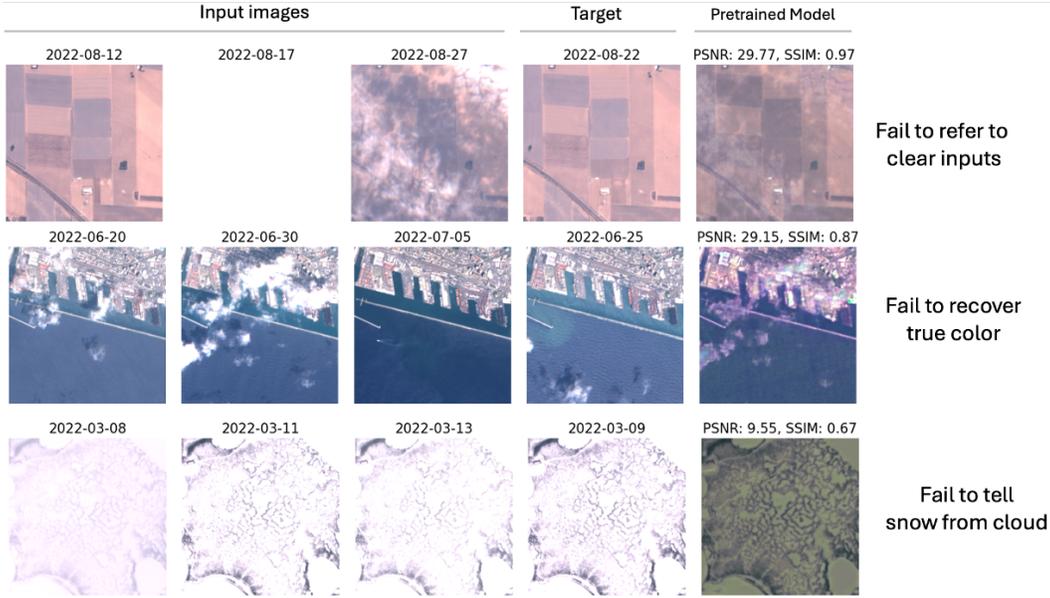


Figure 2: Failure case from UnCRtainTS [Ebel et al., 2023], a previous SOTA model trained on the SEN12MS-CR-TS [Ebel et al., 2022] cloud removal dataset.

233 set size used in UnCRtainTS training, which is 10,167 data points. We also follow the training
 234 hyperparameters as in the original paper to avoid extra tuning. As shown in Table 3, when both
 235 models are evaluated on AllClear (i.e., the bottom two rows in Table 3), we observe that UnCRtainTS
 236 models pre-trained on both datasets have comparable results across the four metrics. This suggests
 237 that there is no noticeable domain difference between the two datasets.

238 **Scaling with AllClear.** We next evaluate how much we can scale UnCRtainTS using the large
 239 training set available with AllClear. Specifically, we curate a dataset of various scale using random
 240 sampling from the training dataset while evaluating on the same validation set. Table 4 shows the
 241 results. We find that more training data clearly improves accuracy significantly across all metrics,
 242 resulting in a more than 10% improvement in PSNR. Figure 5 shows that with a larger dataset
 243 the model is able to better remove clouds and better preserve the color. This suggests that cloud
 244 removal models trained on past datasets are in general *undertrained* and AllClear’s large training set
 245 is extremely useful to help the models fit the data better.

Table 4: Scaling law of our model on our AllClear datasets with UnCRtainTS as backbone architecture.

Fraction of Data	# data point	PSNR (\uparrow)	SSIM (\uparrow)	SAM (\downarrow)	MAE (\downarrow)
1%	2,786	27.035	0.898	5.972	0.039
3.4%	10,167	28.474	0.906	6.373	0.036
10%	27,861	32.997	0.923	6.038	0.023
100%	278,613	33.868	0.936	5.232	0.021

246 4.3 Stratified evaluations

247 We use the available land-cover type labels in *AllClear* to conduct a stratified evaluation across
 248 land-cover types (Figure 3). We generally find that both PSNR and SSIM metrics are much worse
 249 for both water bodies and snow cover. Water bodies have transient wave patterns, and snow cover is
 250 also often transient, which may explain the difficulty of predicting these classes. Snow may also be
 251 confused with cloud.

252 Following past work [Ebel et al., 2022], we also perform a stratified evaluation of accuracy relative to
 253 the extent of cloud cover and shadows (Figure 5). For cloud cover, generally performance decreases

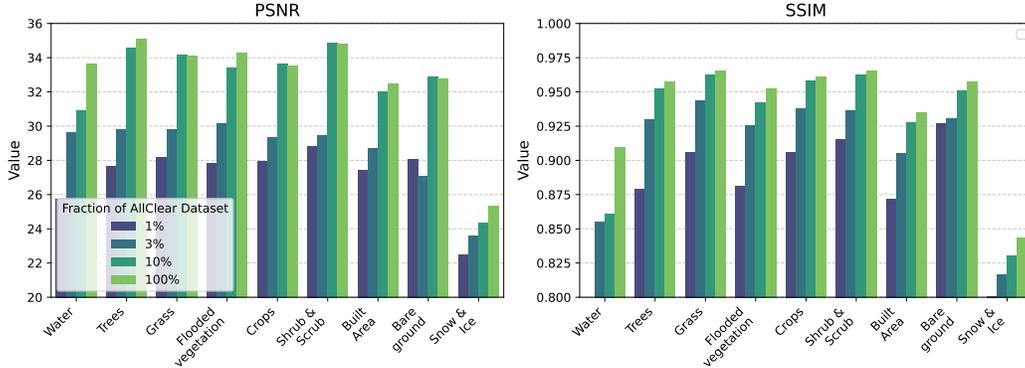


Figure 3: Land cover stratified evaluation of models trained with different fractions of the AllClear dataset: 1%, 3.4%, 10%, and 100%.

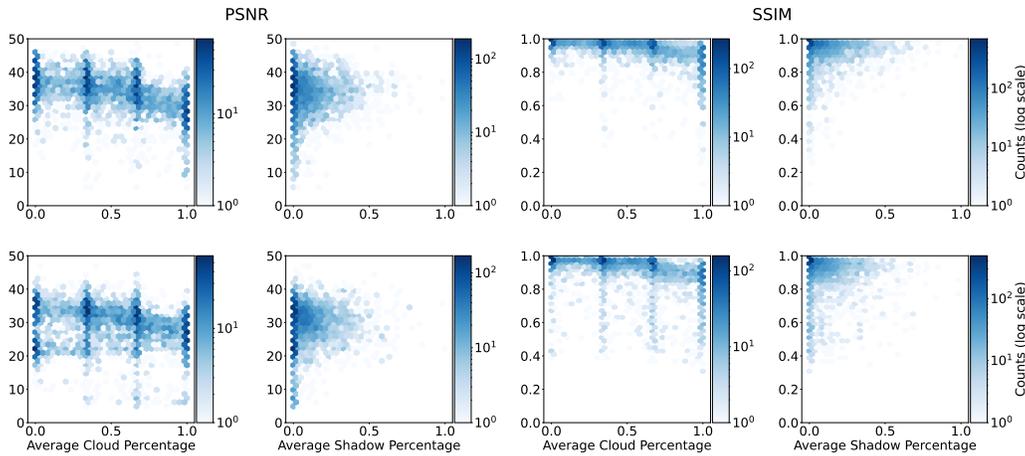


Figure 4: Cloud removal quality measured by PSNR (left column) and SSIM (right column) at different cloud and shadow coverage levels. The top row represents models trained on the full AllClear dataset, and the bottom row represents models trained on the SEN12MS-CR-TS dataset.

254 with cloud percentage, which is expected. Training on a larger dataset (AllClear) substantially
 255 improves accuracy for low and medium cloud cover, but not for fully clouded regions. Note that
 256 the striped pattern is because of fully cloudy images as explained in the Appendix. Shadows are
 257 generally less of a problem, and shadow percentage seems to be uncorrelated with performance.

258 4.4 Effect of various temporal spans

259 We next use our benchmark to see whether the common practice of using 3 input images is sufficient.
 260 We compare two models, one using 3 images and the other using all 12 images captured at that
 261 location. Both models are trained on a 10k subset of AllClear. The results, shown in Table 5, suggest
 262 that in fact a longer timespan significantly improves accuracy. Future cloud removal techniques
 should therefore consider longer timespans.

Table 5: Effect of different temporal length.

# Consecutive Frame as Input	PSNR (\uparrow)	SSIM (\uparrow)	SAM (\downarrow)	MAE (\downarrow)
3	28.474	0.906	6.373	0.036
12	30.399	0.919	5.920	0.028

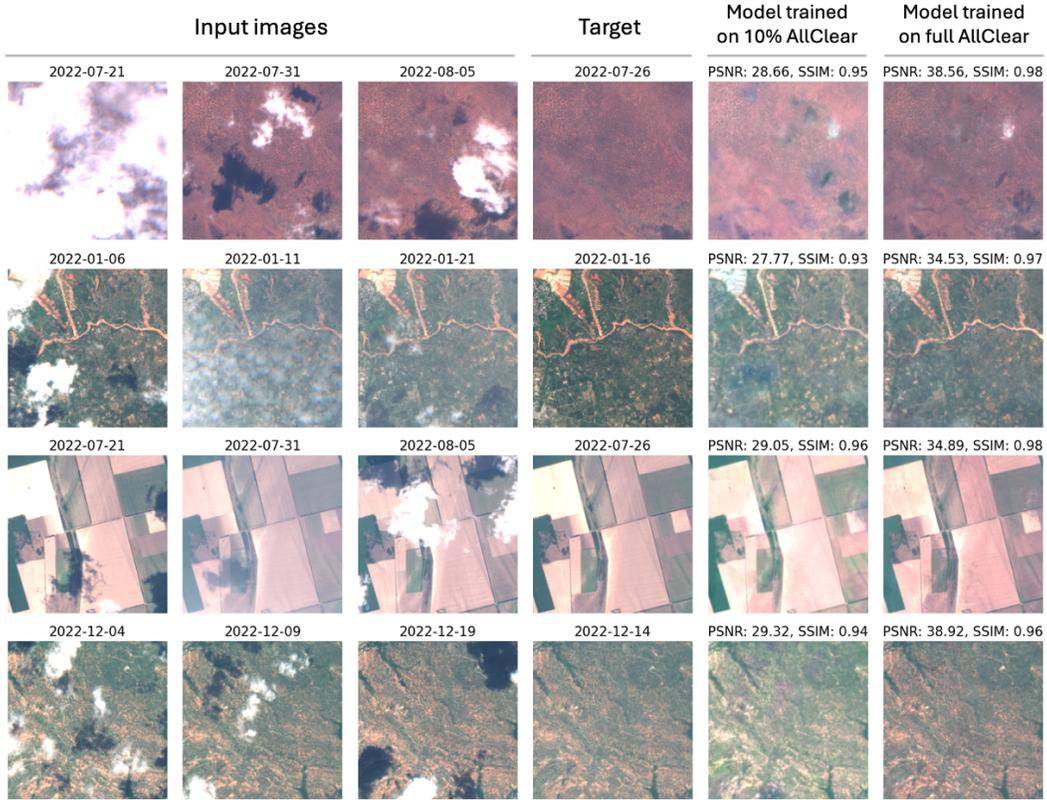


Figure 5: Scaling the training dataset by ten-folds gives better qualitative results.

263 5 Conclusion

264 This paper has introduced *AllClear*, the most extensive and diverse dataset available for cloud removal
 265 research. The larger training set significantly advances state-of-the-art performance. Our dataset also
 266 enables stratified evaluation on cloud coverage and land cover, and ablations of the sequence length
 267 and sensor type. We hope that future research can build on this benchmark to advance cloud removal,
 268 for instance by exploring the dynamics between SAR and multispectral images.

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385 Checklist

386 The checklist follows the references. Please read the checklist guidelines carefully for information on
387 how to answer these questions. For each question, change the default **[TODO]** to **[Yes]**, **[No]**, or
388 **[N/A]**. You are strongly encouraged to include a **justification to your answer**, either by referencing
389 the appropriate section of your paper or providing a brief inline description. For example:

- 390 • Did you include the license to the code and datasets? **[Yes]** See Section ??.
- 391 • Did you include the license to the code and datasets? **[No]** The code and the data are
392 proprietary.
- 393 • Did you include the license to the code and datasets? **[N/A]**

394 Please do not modify the questions and only use the provided macros for your answers. Note that the
395 Checklist section does not count towards the page limit. In your paper, please delete this instructions
396 block and only keep the Checklist section heading above along with the questions/answers below.

- 397 1. For all authors...
 - 398 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s
399 contributions and scope? **[Yes]** See Section 4
 - 400 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? **[No]**
 - 401 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? **[No]**
 - 402 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to
403 them? **[Yes]** Yes we do
- 404 2. If you are including theoretical results...
 - 405 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? **[N/A]**
 - 406 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? **[N/A]**
- 407 3. If you ran experiments (e.g. for benchmarks)...
 - 408 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experi-
409 mental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? **[Yes]**
 - 410 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they
411 were chosen)? **[Yes]**
 - 412 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi-
413 ments multiple times)? **[No]** We did not tune hyper-parameters
 - 414 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type
415 of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? **[No]**
- 416 4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
 - 417 (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? **[Yes]** See Section 4
 - 418 (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? **[No]**
 - 419 (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? **[Yes]**
420 We include our codebase as supplementary
 - 421 (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you’re
422 using/curating? **[Yes]** Our data is downloaded from Google Earth Engine, with full
423 open-access.
 - 424 (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable
425 information or offensive content? **[No]** Models are all publicly available.
- 426 5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
 - 427 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if
428 applicable? **[N/A]**
 - 429 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review
430 Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? **[N/A]**

431
432

(c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation? [N/A]