An improved satellite-based evapotranspiration routine for China

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Abstract

Evapotranspiration (ET) is a critical process that regulates the heat and water transfer between the land and atmosphere. Instantaneous satellite data can provide area-wide daily ET measurements. Surface energy budgets used in satellite-based calculations generally overpredict daily net radiation and the related ET. Our objective was to improve the accuracy of satellitebased daily evapotranspiration by correcting the overprediction of net radiation.

To do so, we introduced a routine for calculating the downward longwave radiation on cloudy days. This new algorithm removed the upward bias in the predicted net radiation at seven ChinaFlux sites. Then, using previously developed methods for converting instantaneous measurement into daily averages, we found that evapotranspiration rates were predicted more accurately than existing methods at the same ChinaFlux sites. In addition, our evapotranspiration rates compared well with watershed ET and other calibrated and validated spatiotemporal gridded data products in China

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20							
21	Key Points						
22 23	• We improved satellite-based daily evapotranspiration calculations by introducing a procedure for downward longwave radiation on cloudy days.						
24 25	• This revised downward longwave radiation procedure improved the accuracy of the daily net radiation compared with existing methods.						
26 27 28	• Evapotranspiration calculated with the improved satellite-based routine agreed well with eddy covariance measurements and watershed studies.						

30 Abstract

Evapotranspiration (ET) is a critical process that regulates the heat and water transfer between the land and atmosphere. Instantaneous satellite data can provide area-wide daily ET measurements. Surface energy budgets used in satellite-based calculations generally overpredict daily net radiation and the related ET. Our objective was to improve the accuracy of satellite-based daily evapotranspiration by correcting the overprediction of net radiation.

To do so, we introduced a routine for calculating the downward longwave radiation on cloudy days. This new algorithm removed the upward bias in the predicted net radiation at seven ChinaFlux sites. Then, using previously developed methods for converting instantaneous measurement into daily averages, we found that evapotranspiration rates were predicted more accurately than existing methods at the same ChinaFlux sites. In addition, our evapotranspiration rates compared well with watershed ET and other calibrated and validated spatiotemporal gridded data products in China

44

45 Plain language summary

Evaporation drives the earth's water cycle. Satellites, when passing over, provide large-46 47 scale measurements from which daily evaporation rates can be calculated. Researchers are trying to refine these calculations. We found that existing methods to estimate net 48 49 radiation, a vital parameter for calculating evaporation, were generally greater than observed. Net radiation is the difference between what comes to the surface and what 50 leaves the earth via long-wave radiation. After studying the current methods used, it 51 appeared that the longwave radiation of clouds to the earth could be improved. We 52 53 quantified this longwave radiation component as a function of the cloudiness without the need to collect additional data. When this longwave component was included in 54 existing models, the predicted evaporation rate compared well with other more direct 55 measurements available in space and time in China. 56

57

58 **1. Introduction**

59 Evapotranspiration (ET) modulates the earth's energy budget and water and carbon cycles (Miguez-Macho & Fan, 2021; Wang et al., 2014). Quantitative assessment of 60 area-wide ET is, therefore, crucial in quantifying the historical change constraining the 61 62 future climate change impact on the hydrological cycle (Kingston et al., 2009; Pascolini-Campbell et al., 2021; Teuling et al., 2013). Satellites can provide area-wide 63 ET estimates (Tang et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2013) by extrapolating the instantaneous 64 measurements to daily averages. Early research (Brutsaert & Sugita, 1992; Stewart et 65 al., 1998) assumed that the instantaneous ratio of ET to the available energy was 66 67 constant throughout the day (i.e., constant Evaporation fraction, EF method), leading to an underestimation of 20-30% in the daily ET (Van Niel et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2015; 68 69 Yang et al., 2013). Some studies used the instantaneous ratio of extraterrestrial radiation, top-of-atmosphere radiation, or reference EF to their daily values to replace the constant 70 EF method (Ryu et al., 2012; Cammalleri et al., 2014). However, these methods need 71 72 auxiliary observed data to calculate actual ET, limiting its applicability to other sites.

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74 A promising improvement that uses only satellite measurements was the EF method 75 developed for cropland by Tang and Li (2017). It used the McNaughton-Jarvis and 76 Penman-Monteith equations to differentiate between instantaneous and daily EF. Huang et al. (2021) extended this method for all types of land and resulted in ET 77 78 estimates that agreed more closely with eddy covariance measurements than the 79 traditional constant EF method. Despite being more accurate, other improvements are needed since ET was overestimated by 15-25% over ground measurements (Huang et 80 81 al., 2021). Our review of published data (Kondo 1994; Nishida et al., 2003; Tang et al. 2009; Huang et al., 2021) indicated that the downward long-wave radiation was 82 83 overpredicted, resulting in more energy available for evaporation than that was 84 measured.

85

The objective of this study is to improve the previously developed satellite-based evapotranspiration of Huang et al. (2021) by improving the daily net radiation algorithm that includes an improved downward long-wave radiation component. The method's accuracy was tested for China by comparing the calculated daily net radiation and evaporation with observation China Flux sites. The ET estimates were also evaluated with basin-wide evapotranspiration and independent ET products.

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93 2. Methodology

- 94 2.1 The satellite-based two-source evapotranspiration algorithm
- The daily satellite-based evapotranspiration is obtained by calculating for each grid cell the evaporation from soil (ET_{soil}) and the transpiration from the vegetation (ET_{veg})
- 97

$$ET^{d} = f_{veg} ET^{d}_{veg} (1 - f_{veg}) ET^{d}_{soil}$$
(1)

where the superscript *d* denotes the daily value of the parameter and f_{veg} is the fraction of vegetation covering the soil surface and is calculated from the normalized vegetation index (NDVI). The daily ET values are obtained by extrapolating the instantaneous satellite measurements to determine the daily evaporation fraction (*EF^d*) for the soil and the plants, which is defined as the ratio of ET and viz

103 $EF^d = \frac{ET^d}{Q^d}$ (2)

104 where Q^d is the available energy (W m⁻²). By dividing Eq. (1) with Q^d the daily 105 evaporation fraction, EF^d for one grid cell can be expressed as:

106
$$EF^d = f_{veg} EF^d_{veg} (1 - f_{veg}) EF^d_{soil}$$
(3)

107

In the following two sections, we first discuss the improvements in the calculating the net radiation and then we provide an overview of converting the instantaneous satellite measurements into a EF^d .

111

112 2.2 Net radiation

113 Daily satellite-based net radiation, R_{n0}^d is calculated using the land surface energy 114 balance Nishida (2003):

115
$$R_{n0}^{d} = (1 - albedo^{d})R_{d}^{d} - \varepsilon_{s}^{d}\sigma T_{s}^{d} + \varepsilon_{a}^{d}\sigma (T_{a}^{d} - 20)^{4}$$
(4)

116 where *albedo^d* is the daily albedo of the soil surface; R_d^d is daily incoming shortwave 117 radiation (W m⁻²; He et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2010); ε_s^d and ε_a^d are the daily emissivity 118 of land surface and atmospheric; σ is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant, T_a^d is the daily 119 near surface air temperature (K); T_s^d is the daily surface temperature (K); $\varepsilon_a^d \sigma (T_a^d -$ 120 20)⁴ is the daily downward long-wave radiation (W m⁻²), $\varepsilon_s^d \sigma T_s^{d\,4}$ is the daily upward 121 long-wave radiation (W m⁻²).

122

The accuracy of calculating the various terms in Eq 4 was evaluated in the past. Huang 123 et al. (2017) reported that R_d^d provided by the China Meteorology Forcing Datasets 124 agreed well with surface measurements at seven flux tower sites in China. Similarly, 125 the daily surface air temperature, T_a^d was very close to the measured at the flux towers 126 (R²>0.7; 2<RMSE<4 oK, Huang et al., 2021). Errors in MODIS T_s^d and ε_s^d data were 127 less than1% (Li et al., 2014; Lu et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2007; Wang & Liang, 2009a). 128 Finally, we found that instantaneous MODIS albedo measurements were nearly the 129 same as the daily mean albedo, with an RMSE of less than 0.02 (Supplemental Material 130 131 Figure S1). Despite the accuracy of the above-mentioned individual components in Eq. 4, as noted above, the daily net radiation was greater than observed (Huang et al., 2021). 132 Thus, since the downward longwave radiation is the only term not checked, this term 133 must cause the overestimation in the net radiation. 134

135

Further analysis of the net radiation algorithm used in satellite-based ET indicated that the emissivity of the land surface and the atmosphere was equal in formulating the downward longwave radiation and assuming that atmospheric temperatures were 200 less than the near-surface air temperature (Kondo et al., 1994; 2000). It implied that downward longwave radiation was independent of the cloud cover, contrary to findings of Alados et al. (2012), Goforth et al. (2002), Vall & Castell, (2017) and Wang & Dickinson (2013).

144 2.3 Longwave radiation

The cloud cover in the downward longwave radiation term in Eq 4 was included in the work of Goforth et al. (2002) and Chang & Zhang. (2019). Without their empirical humidity terms and using their work, the net solar radiation (Eq 4) can be written as:

149
$$R_n^d = (1 - albedo^d) R_d^d - \varepsilon_s^d \sigma T_s^{d 4} + (1 + Cloud^d) \varepsilon_a^d \sigma T_a^{d 4}$$
(5)

150 where $\varepsilon_a^d \sigma T_a^{d 4}$ is the atmospheric downward longwave radiation under clear sky 151 conditions and *Cloud^d* is the cloud cover.

152

Under a clear sky and a standard humidity and temperature profile, Brutsaert, (1975)
predicted the atmospheric emissivity as

155
$$\varepsilon_a^d = 1.24 \times (e_a^d / T_a^d)^{1/7} \tag{6}$$

where e_a^d is the daily water vapor pressure (kPa). Eq 6 was more accurate than those developed by Idso, 1981 and Prata, (1996), according to Kaicun Wang and Dickinson (2013) and Kaicun Wang & Liang (2009b)

159

162

164

160 The *Cloud*^{*d*} parameter in Eq 5 can be derived from the clearness index K_t (Chang & 161 Zhang, 2019; Goforth et al., 2002).

$$Cloud = (1 - K_t) \tag{7}$$

163 where

$$K_t = \frac{R_d^d}{R_a^d} \tag{8}$$

165 R_a^d is the daily extraterrestrial radiation (FAO 1998):

166
$$R_a^d = \frac{24 \times (3600)}{\pi} G_{sc} d_r(\omega_s \sin(\varphi) \sin(\delta) + \cos(\varphi) \cos(\delta) \sin(\omega_s))$$
(9)

167 where the G_{sc} is the solar constant, which is 1367 W m⁻²; d_r is the distance between the 168 earth and the Sun (m); ω_s is the sunset hour angle (rad), φ is the latitude (rad), δ is the 169 solar decimation (rad).

171 2.4 Overview of the evaporation fraction

172 Many methods are available to convert the instantaneous measurements to daily 173 EF^{d} (Alfieri et al., 2017; Sobrino et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2013; Van Niel et al., 2012). 174 In this manuscript, we follow a time-transient EF approach that was more accurate than 175 the original Nishida et al. (2003) method (Huang et al., 2021). It is based on the 176 McNaughton-Jarvis and Penman-Monteith equations (Huang et al., 2021) :

177
$$EF_{veg}^{d} = \frac{\alpha \Delta^{i}}{\Delta^{i} + \gamma \left(1 + \frac{r_{c}^{i} veg}{2r_{a}^{i} veg}\right)} \left(\frac{\Delta^{d}}{\Delta^{d} + \gamma} \frac{\Delta^{i} + \gamma}{\Delta^{i}} \frac{\Omega_{veg}^{*d}}{\Omega_{veg}^{*d}} \frac{\Omega_{veg}^{d}}{\Omega_{veg}^{i}}\right)$$
(10)

178
$$EF_{soil}^{d} = \frac{T_{soil\,max}^{i} - T_{soil}^{i}}{T_{soil\,max}^{i} - T_{a}^{i}} \frac{Q_{soil}^{i}}{Q_{soil}^{i}} \left(\frac{\Delta^{d}}{\Delta^{d} + \gamma} \frac{\Delta^{i} + \gamma}{\Delta^{i}} \frac{\Omega_{soil}^{s}}{\Omega_{soil}^{s}} \frac{\Omega_{soil}^{d}}{\Omega_{soil}^{i}}\right)$$
(11)

where Ω is the decoupling factor that represents the relative contribution of radiative 179 and the aerodynamic terms to the overall evapotranspiration (McNaughton & Jarvis, 180 1983), Ω_i^* , decoupling factor for wet surfaces. α , Priestley-Taylor parameter set to 1.26 181 (De Bruin, 1983); Δ^i , slope of the saturated water vapor pressure (Pa K⁻¹); γ , the 182 psychometric constant (Pa K⁻¹); $r_{c \, veg}^{i}$, instantaneous surface resistance of the 183 vegetation canopy (s m⁻¹); $r_{a \nu eg}^{i}$, instantaneous aerodynamics resistance of the canopy 184 (s m⁻¹); $T_{soil max}^{i}$ is the instantaneous maximum possible temperature of bare soil when 185 it is dry (K); T_{soil}^{i} , instantaneous temperature of the bare soil (K); T_{a}^{i} , instantaneous air 186 temperature; Q_{soil0}^{i} , instantaneous available energy when T_{soil}^{i} is equal to T_{a}^{i} (W m⁻²). 187 188

189 2.5 Testing the method

Since daily parameters are often not accurately determined from instantaneous satellite measurements in Eqs 10-11, we used four different methods to convert instantaneous measurements into daily EF values.

193

194 (a) **The EF0 method:** the original Nishida's method (2003) assumed the 195 instantaneous EF equals its daily value (EF0), thus, $EF_{veg 0}^{d}$ and $EF_{soil 0}^{d}$ can be 196 expressed as:

197
$$EF_{veg 0}^{d} = \frac{\alpha \Delta^{i}}{\Delta^{i} + \gamma \left(1 + \frac{r_{c veg}^{i}}{2r_{a veg}^{i}}\right)}$$
(12)

198
$$EF_{soil 0}^{d} = \frac{T_{soil \max}^{i} - T_{soil}^{i}}{T_{soil \max}^{i} - T_{a}^{i}} \frac{Q_{soil 0}^{i}}{Q_{soil}^{i}}$$
(13)

199 The following three methods are those that provided the most accurate prediction 200 in Huang et al., 2021)

(b) The EFd method: all instantaneous and daily measurements were calculated
in Eq 10 and 11 without any assumptions;

203 (c) The **EFd1 method**: the instantaneous decoupling parameter for the wet surface 204 was assumed to be equal to its daily value: $\Omega^{*i} = \Omega^{*d}$ in Eq 10 and 11;

205 (d) **The EFd2 method**: the ratio of $\Omega^{*i} \Omega^d$ and $\Omega^{*d} \Omega^i$ was assumed to be 1, e.g., 206 $\frac{\Omega^{*i}}{\Omega^{*d}} \frac{\Omega^d}{\Omega^i} = 1$ in Eq. 10 and 11.

207

208 Based on these four methods, the daily evapotranspiration can be calculated using Eqs.

- 12 and 13 for the Nishida methods (ET0) and Eqs. 10 and 11 with the substitutions
 mentioned above, followed by Eqs. 3 and 2 for ETd, ETd1 and ETd2.
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212 **3. Data**

The data used in this study include the input data for ET estimation and the data for ETevaluation.

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216 **3.1** Input data

The input data include the Land Products of Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and 3-hourly downwards shortwave radiation from the Chinese Meteorology Forcing Datasets. Detailed input data are given in Supplementary Material Table S1).

221

222 3.2 Validation ET data

223 Data from seven ChinaFlux network sites, which applies eddy covariance and chamber

224 methods to measure water vapor and energy exchanges between ecosystem and 225 atmosphere, was used for local-scale evaluation. Four calibrated and validated gridded 226 evaporation products are used for evaluating the accuracy of the satellite-based 227 evapotranspiration estimates with Eqs (1), (10) and (11).

228

The measurement data were downloaded from the seven ChinaFlux sites at 229 http://chinaflux.org/ (Yu et al., 2006). The observed net radiation data were obtained 230 231 from ground observations of the conventional HMP45C and VAISALA instruments at the location of the flux tower. The ET measurements were calculated from data 232 collected by the open-path eddy covariance (CR10XTD, CR23XTD, and CR5000) at a 233 frequency of 10 Hz and averaged for every 30 minutes online. The daily mean ET was 234 235 aggregated by this 30-minute observed ET (Zheng et al., 2016). More details of the seven sites are in Supplementary Material Table S2. 236

237

The predicted evapotranspiration was also compared for accuracy with four gridded ET 238 239 products, i.e., MOD16 (Mu et al., 2007, 2011), Advanced Very-High-Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) ET (Zhang et al., 2009), Global Biosphere Atmosphere Fluxes 240 (GBAF) (Jung et al., 2009, 2010), and the Variable Infiltration Capacity Macroscale 241 Hydrologic Model (VIC) ET (Zhang et al., 2014). MOD16 and AVHRR are based on 242 remote sensing data. The GBAF product (2001-2008) was developed with machine 243 learning using the global eddy covariance towers observations, remote sensing 244 measurements, and meteorological data. VIC ET estimation (2001-2012) is the 245 calibrated simulated output of VIC model. Details of the ET products are given in 246 247 Supplementary Material Table S3.

248

Predicted ET (ET0, ETd1, ETd2 and ETd methods) and observed ET were evaluated using the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r), Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) and relative error (Supplementary Material, Equation S1, S2, S3). We also compared ET0, ETd1, ETd2 and ETd with other independent ET products by 1) calculating the multiple-year mean of these ET gridded products and compared with VIC ET with R²
and RMSE in 10 major and 80 sub-river basins; 2) calculating the R, RMSE and Bias
for every grid cell between monthly ETd1 and MOD16 (2001 to 2013), AVHRR (20012006), VIC (2001-2012) and GBAF (2001-2008) ET products.

257

258 4. Results and Discussion

Measurements of downward longwave radiation were not available. We, therefore, tested first the daily net radiation that includes the longwave radiation term and for which measurements were available. Next, we compared calculated ET values with the four methods with those observed at the seven ChinaFlux sites. The China-wide comparison was achieved by comparing the calculated values with existing gridded ET data products.

265

266 4.1 Daily net radiation

Daily net radiation for the seven ChinaFlux sites was compared in Figure 1 with 267 the calculated values (Eqs 4-9). The plots confirm that the original method (Eq 4) 268 269 systematically overestimated the ground measured net radiation by 30%. Net radiation calculated with the revised technique (Eqs 5-9) were closer to the observed net radiation. 270 The RMSE improved from 41 - 58 W m⁻² to 26 - 46 W m⁻² for all sites except the 271 DangXiong (DX) site (Figure 1). The DX is located in the high elevation of Tibet (Yang 272 273 et al., 2010). For this site, the aerosols (e.g., fog and clouds) are overprediction causing a lower than observed short wave radiation and consequently daily net radiation. 274



Figure 1. Scatter plots of satellite-based model simulated daily net radiation (Rn^d) plotted against the observed measurements (Rn^d_{Obv}) for an individual year and the entire 2003 to 2005 period at Changbaishan (CBS), Qianyanzhou (QYZ), Dinghushan (DHS), Yucheng (YC), Haibei (HB), Neimeng (NM), and Dangxiong (DX) sites. The blue dots are calculated with the original (old) method (Eq 4) and the orange dots with the revised (new) approach (Eqs 5-9). The red dotted line is the 1:1 line.

282 4.2 . Evapotranspiration

283 The statistical measures of the observed evapotranspiration rates for the ChinaFlux sites and the satellite-based ET0, ETd1, ETd1, and EFd2 rates are in Table 1 and the scatter 284 plots are shown in Supplementary Material Figure S2. The ET for the DX site was 285 286 predicted poorly, with the four methods indicating a systematic error. It was caused by the underestimation of the daily net energy and small evaporation fraction. The latter 287 resulted from a discrepancy in vegetation coverage, f_{veg} , between the MODIS grid cells 288 $(f_{veg} \approx 0.1)$ and the footprint of the flux tower $(f_{veg} \approx 0.3, \text{Huang et al., 2017})$. The DX 289 site was therefore excluded from further analysis. 290

291

Comparing the four methods for calculating the ET, we note that they all overpredict 292 the ET in CBS, QYZ and DHS sites (Supplementary Material Figure S2), which was 293 mainly caused by the slight overestimation of R_n^d at these sites (Figure 1). ETO had the 294 highest R² among these four ET estimates, but it overestimated observed ET in CBS, 295 QYZ, DHS and HB with relative higher RMSE. ETd1 and ETd2 were closer to the 1:1 296 line than ET0 (Table 1, Supplementary Material Figure S2). Thus, despite the lower R² 297 in Table 1, ETd1 and ETd2 using the revised the longwave radiation procedure was 298 299 more accurate. The greater accuracy of these three ET estimates was confirmed by the RMSE of 1.05 mm/day or less and relative error of 1 mm/day or less (Table 1). ETd 300 had the weakest fit because the evaporation fraction was not calculated as accurately as 301 302 ETd1 and ETd2 (Huang et al., 2021).

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Table 1 The values of R², RMSE and relative error of ET0, ETd1, ETd2 and ETd when compared with the flux tower measurements for the entire 2003 to 2005 period at Changbaishan (CBS), Qianyanzhou (QYZ), Dinghushan (DHS), Yucheng (YC), Haibei (HB), Neimeng (NM), and Dangxiong (DX) sites.

Site name	ЕТО	ETd1	ETd2	ETd		
		F	R ²			
CBS	0.78	0.75	0.78	0.67		
QYZ	0.6	0.59	0.61	0.6		
DHS	0.4	0.37	0.39	0.24		
YC	0.59	0.56	0.56	0.53		
HB	0.8	0.71	0.78	0.71		
NM	0.63	0.61	0.62	0.54		
Average	0.63	0.60	0.62	0.55		
DX	0.62	0.57	0.62	0.42		
		RM	ISE			
CBS	1.03	0.89	0.9	1.03		
QYZ	1.26	1.15	1.19	1.26		
DHS	1.95	1.37	1.85	1.94		
YC	1.01	1.04	1.03	1.12		
HB	0.75	0.86	0.68	0.86		
NM	0.6	0.64	0.64	0.7		
Average	1.10	1.00	1.05	1.15		
DX	1.12	1.36	1.3	1.51		
	Relative error					
CBS	0.13	-0.06	-0.03	-0.1		
QYZ	0.2	0.09	0.14	0.14		
DHS	0.65	0.34	0.58	0.45		
YC	-0.11	-0.22	-0.19	-0.23		
HB	0	-0.39	-0.26	-0.37		
NM	-0.16	-0.27	-0.3	-0.29		
Average	0.12	-0.09	-0.01	-0.07		
DX	-0.41	-0.6	-0.56	-0.67		

316

To judge whether our revised uncalibrated satellite-based ET0, ETd, ETd1, and EFd2 317 were an improvement over the existing ET products (MOD16, AVHRR and GBAF), 318 we compared the multi-year mean ET of our four methods and three gridded ET 319 products with those determined independently by Zhang et al. (2014) using basin water 320 321 balances with ET as the rest term using the calibrated VIC model for ten major river basins and 80 sub-basins in China (Figure 2). The GRAF gridded product had the lowest 322 RMSE and best R^2 for ten major basins and 80 subbasins for 2001-2008 (Figure 2). 323 This was expected since all available data were used (including the potential 324

evaporation data, precipitation data and water balance data) to obtain the GRAF evaporation rates (Jung et al., 2009, 2010). The next best performance was ETd1, followed by ETd and ETd2, with R^2 over 0.93 for the major basins and 0.87 for the subbasins. The original Nishida model had the next best accuracy, and surprisingly the two gridded MOD16 and AVHRR were in the last place.



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Figure 2. The Scatter plots of annual mean ET of (ET0, ETd1, ETd2, and ETd) (2001 to 2012), MOD16 (2001 to2012), AVHRR (2001 to 2006), and GBAF (2001 to 2008) against VIC at the 10 major river basins (a-g) and 80 sub-major river basins (h-n) of China during the corresponding time periods. The dotted red line is the 1:1 line, and the solid lines are the regression lines. R^2 and RMSE values over these periods are given in the plots.

338 To investigate where spatially our approach diverged from the existing methods, we

calculated the RMSE of each grid cell's monthly averages ET values over the period
ranging from 2001 to 2020 years between the four methods and the four data products
(Figure 3).

342

The Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) of ET0, ETd1, ETd2 and ETd with other four 343 ET products were between 15-20 mm month⁻¹ in most of China except in the west and 344 southern China, where the RMSE was greater than 30 mm month⁻¹. ETd1 has the lowest 345 RMSE than ET0, ETd2 and ETd with RMSE between 10-15 mm month⁻¹ in North 346 China and greater than 20 mm month⁻¹ in South and West China. This confirmed that 347 ETd1 was closest to the other independent ET products. The R^2 between ET0, ETd1, 348 ETd2 and ETd with other four ET products were relatively high ($R^2>0.7$) which 349 350 suggested these four ET simulations had consistent spatial and temporal variation between other four independent ET products (Supplementary Material Figure S3). The 351 Bias of ETd1 with the other products was consistently more than 20 mm month⁻¹ in 352 West China, especially Tibet (Supplementary Material Figure S4). One reason is the 353 354 underestimation of daily net radiation, the other reason is the low NDVI index cause the underestimation of fveg; another reason is our model has limited ability of 355 describing the evaporation on a frozen surface especially in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau 356 (Tang et al., 2009). 357



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Figure 3. Maps of the RMSE between ET0, ETd1, ETd2, ETd and gridded ET products of (a–d) MOD16, (e–h) AVHRR, (i–l) VIC, and (m–p) GBAF. The per-grid RMSE between ET0, ETd1,ETd2, ETd and MOD16 (AVHRR, VIC, and GBAF) over China were computed using 156 (72, 144, and 96) samples during the period of 2001 to 2013 (2001 to 2006, 2001 to 2012, and 2001 to 2008), when the ET data are available.

364

365 **5.** Conclusion

The satellite-based evapotranspiration improved by revising the net incoming solar 366 radiation via including an atmospheric emissivity algorithm and a clearness index to 367 describe the increasing of downward longwave radiation with increasing cloudiness. 368 The accuracy of daily net radiation routine showed good agreement with the seven 369 ChinaFlux sites. This revised net radiation routine was incorporated into an existing 370 371 satellite-based framework to convert instantaneous satellite-based observation into daily ET values. It resulted in a good fit with the evapotranspiration observed at the 372 ChinaFlux site, a calibrated VIC hydrology model in China and three satellite-based 373 gridded ET products in 80% percent of the area in China 374

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383 Data Availability Statement

The MODIS Land Surface Temperature/Emissivity Daily L3 Global 0.05 Deg CMG 384 products (MOD11C1 Version 6) available 385 are through https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mod11c1v006/. The MODIS Surface Reflectance 386 Daily L3 Global 0.05 Deg CMG products (MOD09CMG Version 6) are available 387 through https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mod09cmgv006/. The MODIS Land Cover 388 Types Yearly L3 Global 0.05 Deg CMG products (MCD12C1 Version 6) are available 389 390 through https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mcd12c1v006/. The MODIS Vegetation Indices 16-Day L3 Global 0.05 Deg CMG products (MOD13C1 Version 6) are 391 available through https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mod13c1v006/. The MODIS 392 Albedo 16-Day L3 Global 0.05 Deg CMG products (MCD43C3 Version 6) are 393 available through https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mcd43c3v006/. The radiation data 394 395 set used in this study was developed by the Ministry of Education Key Laboratory for Earth System Modeling, Department of Earth System Science, Tsinghua University and 396 the Center for Excellence in Tibetan Plateau Earth Sciences, Institute of Tibetan Plateau 397 Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The radiation data is available at 398 http://data.tpdc.ac.cn/en/data/8028b944-daaa-4511-8769-965612652c49/. The 399 400 ChinaFlux data can be accessed by http://chinaflux.org/general/index.aspx?nodeid=12. Other data that supports the analysis and conclusions of this work is available at 401 https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.18318755. 402

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Figure S1. The comparison of instantaneous albedo and weighted daily average albedo in for the entire 2003 to 2005 period at Changbaishan (CBS), Qianyanzhou (QYZ), Dinghushan (DHS), Yucheng (YC) and Haibei (HB). 2004 to 2005 at Neimeng (NM), and Dangxiong (DX) sites. The red line is the linear fit line, the dotted line is the 1:1 line.

Table S1. The input data which include MODIS Land product and China Meteorological Forcing data used in this study. The names of these dataset, the used parameters, the time steps and the spatial resolution is shown below.

Data source	Data name	Used	Time	Spatial	Purpose
		parameter	step	resolution	
MODIS Land	MOD11C1	Land Surface	daily	0.05 degree	Used as T_S in Eq. (15) to Calculate
Product		Temperature			net radiation and Calculate air
		/Emissivity			temperature with NDVI by VI-TS
					method
	MOD09CMG	Surface	daily	0.05 degree	Used as ε_s in Eq. (15) to Calculate
		Reflectance			net radiation
	MCD43C3	Albedo	16-day	0.05 degree	Used as albedo in Eq. (15) to Calculate
					net radiation
	MOD13C1	NDVI	16-day	0.05 degree	Calculating air temperature with Ts by
					VI-TS method
					Calculating the vegetation coverage
	MCD12C1	Land cover	yearly	0.05 degree	Identifying the land surface cover to
					determine the parameter scheme
					resistances
China	Srad	shortwave	3-hourly	0.1 degree	Used as R_d Eq. (15) to Calculate the
Meteorologic		radiation			net radiation
al Forcing					
Dataset					

Flux tower	Lon.	Lat.	Altitude	Land	Footprint	Climate	Time period
	(°E)	(°N)	(m)	cover	(m)		
Changbaishan	128.1	42.4	738	Forest	181 to 3070	Monsoon temperate continental	2003-2005
						climate	
Qianyanzhou	115.06	26.74	102	Forest	120 to 1655	Subtropical monsoon climate	2003-2005
Dinghushan	112.53	23.17	240	Forest	129 to 1908	Monsoon humid climate	2003-2005
Yucheng	116.57	36.83	28	Cropland	16 to 190	Semi-humid monsoon climate	2003-2005
Haibei	101.32	37.62	3190	Grassland	19 to 195	Plateau continental climate	2003-2005
Neimeng	116.67	43.53	1200	Grassland	19 to 195	Temperate arid and semiarid	2004-2005
						continental climate	
Dangxiong	91.07	30.5	4350	Grassland	27 to 163	Plateau monsoon climate	2004-2005

Table S2. Flux tower measurement sites with the longitudes, latitudes, altitudes, land cover types, climate types and the time period of the measurements data used.

 Table S3. Four independent gridded ET products

Product	Temporal	Spatial	Time	Theory	Reference
name	resolution	resolution	period		
MOD16	Monthly	1 km	2001-2013	Penman-	Mu et al
				Moteith	(2007, 2011)
AVHRR	Monthly	1 degree	2001-2006	Priestly-	Zhang et al.,
				Taylor	(2006, 2010)
GBAF	Monthly	0.5 degree	2001-2008	Machine	Jung et al.,
				learning	(2006, 2010)
VIC	Daily	0.25 degree	2001-2012	Water	Zhang et al.,
				balance	(2014a,
					2014b)

Pearson's correlation coefficient is calculated as:

$$r = \frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2 \sum (Y - \bar{Y})^2}}$$
(Equation S1)

r is the Pearson's correlation coefficient; *X* is the estimated variable; \overline{X} is the average of *X*; Y is the observed variable; \overline{Y} is the average of *Y*.

Root Mean Square Error:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - Y_i)^2}{N}}$$
(Equation S2)

RMSE is the Root Mean Square Error; N is the sample size.

The relative error is calculated as:

$$RE = \frac{X - Y}{Y} \times 100\%$$
 (Equation S3)



Figure S2. Scatter plots of satellite-based model simulated daily ET0, ETd1, ETd2 and ETd (the blue dots) plotted against the observed measurements (ET^d _{Obv}) for the entire 2003 to 2005 period at Changbaishan (CBS), Qianyanzhou (QYZ), Dinghushan (DHS), Yucheng (YC) and Haibei (HB). 2004 to 2005 at Neimeng (NM), and Dangxiong (DX) sites. The blue line is the linear fit line, the red dotted line is the 1:1 line.



Figure S3. Maps of the R² between ET0, ETd1, ETd2, ETd and gridded ET products of (a–d) MOD16, (e–h) AVHRR, (i–l) VIC, and (m–p) GBAF. The per-grid R² between ET0, ETd1,ETd2, ETd and MOD16 (AVHRR, VIC, and GBAF) over China were computed using 156 (72, 144, and 96) samples during the period of 2001 to 2013 (2001 to 2006, 2001 to 2012, and 2001 to 2008), when the ET data are available.



Figure S4. Maps of the bias (Bias) between ET0, ETd1, ETd2, ETd and gridded ET products of (a–d) MOD16, (e–h) AVHRR, (i–l) VIC, and (m–p) GBAF. The per-grid bias between ET0, ETd1,ETd2, ETd and MOD16 (AVHRR, VIC, and GBAF) over China were computed using 156 (72, 144, and 96) samples during the period of 2001 to 2013 (2001 to 2006, 2001 to 2012, and 2001 to 2008), when the ET data are available.