

# 1 Comparison of satellite based evapotranspiration 2 estimates over the Tibetan Plateau

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## 17 **Abstract**

18 The Tibetan Plateau (TP) plays a major role in regional and global climate. The  
19 knowledge of latent heat flux can help to better describe the complex mechanisms and  
20 interactions between land and atmosphere. Despite its importance, accurate estimation  
21 of Evapotranspiration (ET) over the TP remains challenging. Satellite observations  
22 allow for ET estimation at high temporal and spatial scales. The purpose of this paper  
23 is to provide a detailed cross comparison of existing ET products over the TP. Six  
24 available ET products based on different approaches are included for comparison.  
25 Results show that all products capture the seasonal variability well with minimum ET  
26 in the winter and maximum ET in the summer. Regarding the spatial pattern, the High  
27 Resolution Land Surface Parameters from Space (HOLAPS) ET demonstrator dataset  
28 is very similar to the LandFlux-EVAL dataset (a benchmark ET product from the  
29 Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment), with decreasing ET from the southeast to  
30 northwest over the TP. Further comparison against the LandFlux-EVAL over different  
31 sub-regions that are decided by different intervals of normalized difference vegetation  
32 index (NDVI), precipitation and elevation reveals that HOLAPS agrees best with  
33 LandFlux-EVAL having the highest correlation coefficient (R) and lowest Root Mean  
34 Square Difference (RMSD). These results indicate the potential for the application of  
35 the HOLAPS demonstrator dataset in understanding the land-atmosphere-biosphere  
36 interactions over the TP. In order to provide more accurate ET over the TP, model  
37 calibration, high accuracy forcing dataset, appropriate in situ measurements as well as  
38 other hydrological data such as runoff measurements are still needed.

39  
40 **Keywords:** HOLAPS; Tibetan Plateau; Evapotranspiration; Latent heat flux; Water  
41 fluxes; Land-atmosphere interactions

## 42 1. Introduction

43 Evapotranspiration (ET) is an essential nexus of energy and water cycles through the  
44 mass and energy interactions between land and atmosphere (Jung et al., 2010; Peng et  
45 al., 2013a). The estimation of spatially distributed ET has been advanced by the  
46 progress of satellite remote sensing technology. However, remote sensing techniques  
47 do not allow to directly inverting ET from space (Peng et al., 2013b; Zhang et al.,  
48 2016a). Different methods have been therefore developed to estimate ET with the use  
49 of physical variables that are sensed by satellite and are related to the evaporation  
50 process (Kalma et al., 2008; Wang and Dickinson, 2012). In recent years, a number of  
51 global ET products have been generated with the availability of long-term global  
52 satellite products and progress in computer science (Zhang et al., 2010; Vinukollu et al.,  
53 2011j; Miralles et al., 2011; Fisher et al., 2008). Some of these global products can  
54 even provide ET with spatial resolution less than 10 km and temporal resolution less  
55 than 3 hour (Mu et al., 2007; Miralles et al., 2016; Loew et al., 2015). HOLAPS (High  
56 resOlution Land Atmosphere surface Parameters from Space) demonstrator dataset is  
57 one of them. HOLAPS is actually a framework that can provide surface energy and  
58 water fluxes at sub-hourly timescales and spatial resolutions at the kilometer scale. It is  
59 also worth noting that very high spatial resolution (on the order of 10 m) ET product at  
60 regional scale can be provided by ALEXI/DisALEXI based on thermal observations  
61 from polar and geostationary orbiting satellites (Anderson et al., 2011; Anderson et al.,  
62 2007). Although these global ET products have been applied to many applications such  
63 as multi-decadal trend analysis (Zhang et al., 2016b; Zhang et al., 2015; Miralles et al.,  
64 2014; Jiménez et al., 2011), large discrepancies remain exist in these products. Within  
65 the Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment (GEWEX) LandFlux initiative,  
66 Mueller et al. (2011) conducted a comparison of existing global LE products from  
67 either land surface models, re-analysis, or satellite estimates, and found that the global  
68 mean LE over land was  $45 \pm 5 \text{ W/m}^2$ , with a spread of  $20 \text{ W/m}^2$ . In addition, a synthesis  
69 dataset has also been generated within the GEWEX LandFlux-EVAL initiative, which  
70 provides LE at monthly timescale and a spatial resolution of 1 degree (Mueller et al.,  
71 2013). Recently, several studies have evaluated commonly used ET retrieval  
72 algorithms, including Penman-Monteith (PM) algorithm, the Priestley-Taylor (PT)  
73 model and the Surface Energy Balance System (SEBS) (Su, 2002), which are driven by  
74 the same forcing dataset at both FLUXNET tower and global scales (Vinukollu et al.,  
75 2011j; Miralles et al., 2016; Michel et al., 2016; McCabe et al., 2016; Ershadi et al.,  
76 2014). To develop a more accurate global LE product, improvements of the  
77 parameterization and sensitivity analysis of the model to forcing dataset are still  
78 needed (Michel et al., 2016; McCabe et al., 2016). Note that the energy equivalent for  
79 ET is referred as latent heat flux (LE), which is used interchangeable with ET in this  
80 paper.

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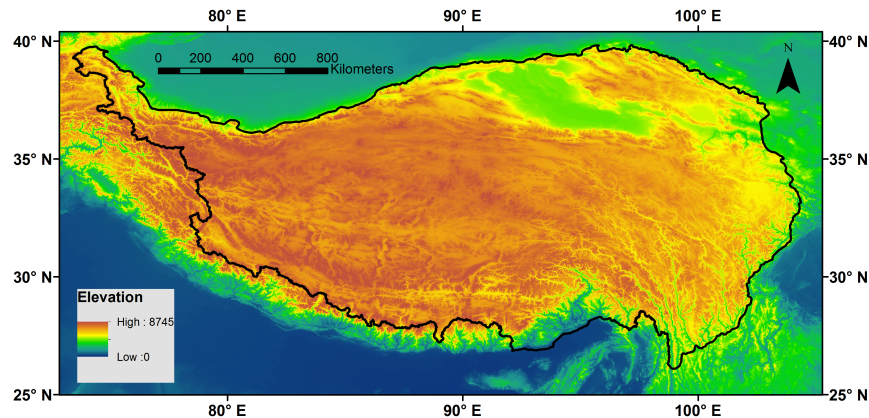
82 Nevertheless, these global ET products have great potentials for global and  
83 regional hydrological applications. In this study, the performances of the widely used  
84 global ET products will be investigated over the Tibetan Plateau (TP), as the ET over

85 the TP is of great importance and research interest. The TP has strong impacts on  
86 weather and climate at the regional to global scale and controls climatic and  
87 environmental changes in Asia and elsewhere in the Northern Hemisphere (Ma et al.,  
88 2008). The knowledge of ET is essential for the study of land-atmosphere interactions,  
89 and assessment of the impacts of and feedbacks to the global change (Shi and Liang,  
90 2014). In order to characterize the distribution of ET over the TP, different methods  
91 using micrometeorological measurements (Yang et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2012; Chen et  
92 al., 2013b; Zhang et al., 2007), remote sensing products (Ma et al., 2014; Ma et al.,  
93 2006; Chen et al., 2013a) and the combined use of both data sources (Ma et al., 2003;  
94 Ma et al., 2011; You et al., 2014) have been investigated over the last decades. In  
95 addition, land surface models have also been applied to simulate ET over the TP  
96 (Gerken et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2009). However, accurate estimation of ET over TP is  
97 still a challenge due to the limitations of the above approaches. Specifically, the  
98 observation-based methods are not adequate for determination of regional ET due to  
99 the limited spatial representativeness of meteorological stations, while the remote  
100 sensing products are only available under clear sky conditions. The models results are  
101 limited by the accuracy of input parameters and the uncertainties of model  
102 parameterization over complicated topography and highly heterogeneous areas of the  
103 TP (Shi and Liang, 2013d). The existing global ET products especially those with high  
104 spatial and temporal resolutions such as HOLAPS provide a potentially applicable ET  
105 dataset over the TP. Although the global ET products have been validated against  
106 FLUXNET measurements, the reliability of spatial and temporal patterns of them over  
107 the TP is still unknown. A comprehensive analysis of the characteristics of the LE over  
108 the TP based on the state-of-the-art global ET products has not yet been conducted.  
109 Therefore, the main objective of this study is to provide a detailed cross comparison of  
110 the different existing ET products over the TP. Through this study, the following  
111 research questions will be addressed: (1) Do existing global ET products show  
112 consistent spatial and temporal patterns over the TP? (2) Are there systematic  
113 deviations between the different data products which can be explained by different  
114 climate or surface conditions? The study will focus mainly on a cross-comparison  
115 between the different existing dataset due to a lack of appropriate reference data in the  
116 region like will be discussed.

## 118 2. Study area

119 The Tibetan Plateau (TP), known as the third pole of the Earth (Qiu, 2008), covers  
120 approximately the latitude from 26° N to 40° N, and longitude from 75° E to 105° E,  
121 with an area of 2500000 km<sup>2</sup>. It is the highest and largest plateau in the world, with  
122 very complex terrain and an average elevation higher than 4000 m above sea level (asl)  
123 (Figure 1) (Frauenfeld et al., 2005; Ma et al., 2008). Due to its unique and special  
124 geographical position and physical environment, the climate of TP is influenced by  
125 both Asian monsoon and westerlies (Yang et al., 2014), and it has profound thermal  
126 and dynamical impacts on atmospheric circulation over China, the whole East Asia and  
127 even the entire globe (Cui and Graf, 2009; You et al., 2014). Specifically, the TP

128 reaches the middle troposphere and influences the atmospheric circulation through  
129 mechanical forcing (Yanai and Li, 1994). On the other hand, the thermal forcing of the  
130 TP enhances the Asian summer monsoon and influences its variability (Duan and Wu,  
131 2005; Lau et al., 2006). In addition, the melting water from snow and glaciers in TP is  
132 the source of many rivers in South and East Asia such as Yangtze,  
133 Ganges-Brahmaputra. Therefore, the TP is also known as ‘the Asian water tower’,  
134 supporting approximately 25% of the world’s population (Immerzeel et al., 2010; Xu  
135 et al., 2008). Quantitative estimation of the water and energy cycles over the TP is of  
136 great significance for the study of land-atmosphere-biosphere interactions, and  
137 understanding its response to climate change. (Sellers et al., 1997; Yang et al., 2014).  
138



139  
140 Figure 1: Map of the location and topography of the Tibetan Plateau.  
141

### 142 3. Data and methods

#### 143 3.1 Data

144 Different groups of algorithms have been developed to estimate ET from satellite data.  
145 These comprise (1) surface energy balance models forced either by satellite remote  
146 sensing or re-analysis data (Bastiaanssen et al., 1998; Su, 2002); (2) the methods based  
147 on Penman-Monteith (PM) or Priestley and Taylor (PT) equations (Fisher et al., 2008;  
148 Miralles et al., 2011; Mu et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2015); (3) spatial variability  
149 methods (Peng et al., 2013b; Peng and Loew, 2014; Roerink et al., 2000). Among them,  
150 the PM algorithm, the PT model and the Surface Energy Balance System (SEBS) are  
151 widely used, and have been explored by both GEWEX LandFlux-EVAL initiative and  
152 the Water Cycle Multi-mission Observation Strategy EvapoTranspiration  
153 (WACMOS-ET) project. Therefore, three LE datasets based these models and driven  
154 by same forcing data are compared over the TP in this study. These datasets are  
155 SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub>, PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub>, which are respectively based on SEBS, PT, and  
156 PM algorithms but driven by the same input radiation from Surface Radiation Budget  
157 (SRB) (Stackhouse et al., 2011) and meteorological forcing datasets from Princeton  
158 University (PU) (Vinukollu et al., 2011a). These three datasets used in this study were  
159 obtained from the Princeton University Terrestrial Hydrology Research Group. In

160 addition, to investigate the impact of forcing data on the estimation of LE, another  
161 recent released SEBS dataset ( $SEBS_{Chen}$ ) is also included in this study (Chen et al.,  
162 2014). Different from  $SEBS_{SRB-PU}$ ,  $SEBS_{Chen}$  is driven by the meteorological forcing  
163 data obtained from the Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of  
164 Sciences (ITP, CAS), which was generated based on 740 weather stations operated by  
165 the China Meteorological Administration. In addition, the recently developed  
166 HOLAPS LE demonstrator dataset is also included for comparison. A brief description  
167 of these products is presented below. For detailed algorithms and parameterizations of  
168 these datasets, the readers are referred to the original articles:  $SEBS_{SRB-PU}$ ,  $PT_{SRB-PU}$   
169 and  $PM_{SRB-PU}$  (Vinukollu et al., 2011a),  $SEBS_{Chen}$  (Chen et al., 2014), and HOLAPS  
170 (Loew et al., 2015).

171  
172 *SEBS*: SEBS is a one-source energy balance algorithm, which firstly calculates the  
173 sensible heat flux (H) based on the Monin and Obukhov theory (Monin and Obukhov,  
174 1954) with the requirement of surface temperature, air temperature gradient and the  
175 parameterization of aerodynamic resistance. To constrain H within a lower and upper  
176 boundary, two limiting conditions are considered. Under dry limit, the ET is equal to 0  
177 and H is at its maximum, while the ET reaches to its potential rate and H is at its  
178 minimum under wet limit. After the H is calculated, ET can be obtained through  
179 closing the energy balance with the availability of net radiation and ground heat flux.  
180 SEBS has already been widely validated with ground-based measurements over  
181 different areas. Two SEBS datasets are included in the comparison. The  $SEBS_{SRB-PU}$   
182 was generated by Vinukollu et al. (2011a) and based on radiation from Surface  
183 Radiation Budget (SRB) and meteorological forcing datasets from Princeton  
184 University (PU) (Vinukollu et al., 2011a), while  $SEBS_{Chen}$  estimated ET with  
185 meteorological forcing data from the Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese  
186 Academy of Sciences (ITP, CAS). The monthly  $SEBS_{Chen}$  ET has been found to agree  
187 well with ground-based measurements over China (Chen et al., 2014). The comparison  
188 of these two SEBS datasets can show the impact of forcing dataset on the estimation of  
189 LE for the same type of model.

190  
191  *$PM_{SRB-PU}$* : The  $PM_{SRB-PU}$  is estimated based on a revised PM model (Mu et al.,  
192 2007; Mu et al., 2011), which has been widely used to estimate global ET. Due to its  
193 basis of Penman-Monteith equation, the PM model has high demand of inputs, with  
194 high-level parameterization of the aerodynamic and surface resistances using  
195 meteorological data and vegetation phenology. In contrast to the most PM based ET  
196 models, two improvements have been implemented in  $PM_{SRB-PU}$ : (1) instead of a fixed  
197 value, a biome-specific value for the mean potential stomatal conductance is applied;  
198 (2) the aerodynamic resistance parameterization used by SEBS is applied here to  
199 account for wind speed and boundary layer stability (Vinukollu et al., 2011a). The  
200  $PM_{SRB-PU}$  is based on the same forcing data as  $SEBS_{SRB-PU}$ .

201  
202  *$PT_{SRB-PU}$* : The PT-JPL model by Fisher et al. (2008) is used to estimate  $PT_{SRB-PU}$ .  
203 Different from the PM model, the PT model does not require the parameterization of

204 the aerodynamic and surface resistances. Traditionally, the Priestley-Taylor (PT)  
205 equation (Priestley and Taylor, 1972) is used to estimate potential ET, while the  
206 PT-JPL model adjust it to estimate actual ET through considering ecophysiological  
207 stress factors based on atmospheric moisture and vegetation indices. This implies that  
208 the forcing data required for  $PT_{SRB-PU}$  is quite comparable to that of  $PM_{SRB-PU}$ . The  
209  $PT_{SRB-PU}$  relies on the same forcing datasets as  $SEBS_{SRB-PU}$  and  $PM_{SRB-PU}$ , which  
210 provides the possibility to investigate the performance of different ET models driven  
211 by the same forcing data over the TP.

212  
213 *HOLAPS*: The HOLAPS LE product was generated from HOLAPS framework,  
214 which makes use of meteorological drivers coming exclusively from globally available  
215 satellite and re-analysis datasets and is based on a state-of-the-art land surface scheme  
216 (Loew et al., 2015). It is based on a radiation module, a planetary boundary layer  
217 model, a soil module and a general module for the exchange of energy and moisture at  
218 the surface layer. HOLAPS can ensure internal consistency of the different energy and  
219 water fluxes and provide estimates at high temporal ( $< 1h$ ) and spatial ( $\sim 5$  km)  
220 resolutions. Good agreement with *in situ* measurements have also been found by Loew  
221 et al. (2015) when compared against 48 FLUXNET stations worldwide. The details of  
222 the HOLAPS framework and relevant evaluation results can be found in the reference  
223 of Loew et al. (2015).

224  
225 The validation of different LE datasets against in-situ measurements over the TP is  
226 not possible for the current study period due to: a) the access to suitable *in situ*  
227 measurements is not possible; b) spatial representativeness of the existing FLUXNET  
228 towers for areas of only several square kilometers. Therefore, the above LE datasets  
229 are cross-compared with LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product in the current analysis.  
230 LandFlux-EVAL is a merged synthesis LE product based on a total of 14 datasets  
231 including land surface model output, observations-based estimates, and atmospheric  
232 reanalyses (Mueller et al., 2013). It provides the best guess estimate of LE for the first  
233 time based on the existing global LE datasets, and also provides the uncertainty range  
234 of the absolute LE values (interquartile range of the merged synthesis LE products).  
235 Note that the merged LE dataset agreed well with precipitation minus runoff over large  
236 river basins around the world (Mueller et al., 2011), and it has been used to evaluate  
237 the LE simulations of the fifth phase of the Coupled model Inter-comparison project  
238 (CMIP5) (Mueller and Seneviratne, 2014). To further demonstrate the validity of  
239 LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product over the TP, we also compared it to precipitation,  
240 which is one of the most important driving factors for LE. It should be noted here that  
241 LandFlux-EVAL also includes satellite-based LE datasets that are estimated from PM  
242 and PT algorithms. However, the  $PM_{SRB-PU}$  and  $PT_{SRB-PU}$  datasets used in the current  
243 analysis are different from those datasets. They are based on revised PM and PT  
244 approaches, which also account for the evaporation from canopy intercepted  
245 precipitation (Vinukollu et al., 2011a). In addition, the forcing datasets used for  
246  $PM_{SRB-PU}$  and  $PT_{SRB-PU}$  are also different from that used for PM and PT datasets in  
247 LandFlux-EVAL. For example, the radiation used for the  $PM_{SRB-PU}$  is from SRB, while

248 PM dataset from LandFlux-EVAL uses radiation from International Satellite Cloud  
 249 Climatology Project (ISCCP). A summary of these datasets is given in Table 1. For  
 250 detailed information about each product, the reader is referred to the relevant  
 251 publications.

252

253

Table 1: Summary of the datasets used in our study.

Dataset	ET scheme	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	Reference
PM <sub>SRB-PU</sub>	Penman-Monteith	1°	daily	(Vinukollu et al., 2011a)
PT <sub>SRB-PU</sub>	Priestley-Taylor	1°	daily	(Vinukollu et al., 2011a)
SEBS <sub>SRB-PU</sub>	SEBS	1°	daily	(Vinukollu et al., 2011a)
SEBS <sub>Chen</sub>	SEBS	0.1°	daily	(Chen et al., 2014)
HOLAPS	Priestley-Taylor	5 km	half hourly	(Loew et al., 2015)
LandFlux-EVAL	Synthesis product	1°	monthly	(Mueller et al., 2013)

254

255

## 256 **3.2 Methods**

### 257 *3.2.1 Data Preprocessing*

258

259 All of the datasets were firstly aggregated to monthly mean values over the common  
 260 time period 2001-2005, which corresponds to the temporal resolution of  
 261 LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product and the time period currently covered by the  
 262 HOLAPS demonstrator dataset (Loew et al., 2015; Mueller et al., 2013). To make an  
 263 unbiased comparison with LandFlux-EVAL dataset, HOLAPS and SEBS<sub>Chen</sub> were  
 264 further aggregated to the same spatial resolution as LandFlux-EVAL. In addition, the  
 265 current HOLAPS demonstrator dataset does not include the estimate of LE over  
 266 snow-covered areas. Therefore, the snow-covered areas of all the products were also  
 267 masked out based on the MODIS snow cover product.

268

### 269 *3.2.2 Spatial and temporal analysis*

270

271 The characteristics of all the datasets were investigated through spatial and temporal  
 272 analysis. The spatial distributions of the seasonal and annual average LE over the TP  
 273 were analyzed, including the identification of patterns such as low and high values, and  
 274 the investigation of seasonal changes. The four seasons are defined as autumn  
 275 (September–October–November), winter (December–January–February), spring  
 276 (March–April–May), and summer (June–July–August). The temporal analysis explored  
 277 the seasonal and annual variation of all the datasets from 2001 to 2005 over the whole  
 278 TP. In addition, the correlation analysis was conducted to evaluate the impacts of  
 279 climate (precipitation) and surface conditions (normalized difference vegetation index  
 280 and elevation) on the performance of ET estimation. The relationship between different  
 281 LE products and the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product were quantified by using

282 correlation coefficient and root-mean-square deviation over the whole TP and different  
283 sub-regions, which were decided by different intervals of normalized difference  
284 vegetation index (NDVI, generated from MODIS), precipitation (Global Precipitation  
285 Climatology Project, GPCP) and elevation (Global Multi-resolution Terrain Elevation  
286 Data 2010, GMTED2010).

287

## 288 **4 Results and discussion**

### 289 *4.1 Spatial and temporal variability of different LE products*

290 The spatial distributions of annual mean LandFlux-EVAL and precipitation are shown  
291 in Figure 2. It can be seen that the LE has similar patterns as observation-based  
292 precipitation, both decreasing from southeast to northwest over the TP. The  
293 comparison of all the pixels shows a very high correlation coefficient of 0.9 between  
294 LE and precipitation. Besides precipitation, the radiation is another important driver for  
295 LE. Compared to the published studies, the LandFlux-EVAL LE also corresponds well  
296 with the merged net radiation and LE datasets, which were developed and validated  
297 over the TP by Shi and Liang (2013d, 2013a) and Shi and Liang (2014). The spatial  
298 distribution of annual mean net radiation and LE can be found in study of Shi and  
299 Liang (2013a) and Shi and Liang (2014). Although the LandFlux-EVAL has not been  
300 validated against in-situ measurements over the TP, the similar spatial patterns  
301 between LE and both observation-based precipitation and validated radiation to some  
302 extent demonstrate the validity of LandFlux-EVAL over the TP.

303

304 Figure 3 displays the spatial pattern of annual mean values for different LE datasets.  
305 Although these LE products have been reported performing well against FLUXNET  
306 measurements at point scale, they exhibit differently in terms of spatial pattern over the  
307 TP. In general, the LandFlux-EVAL, HOLAPS and SEBS<sub>Chen</sub> have high LE in the  
308 southeastern TP and low LE in the northwestern TP, which might be related to the  
309 decrease of elevation from northwest to southeast as well as the monsoon climate in  
310 the southeastern TP. The spatial variations of PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub> are related to the  
311 increase of latitude from south to north, while SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub> has high and low LE in  
312 outer and central TP.

313

314 Figure 4 further shows the annual mean spatial patterns of 25th-percentile and  
315 75th-percentile of the LandFlux-EVAL multi-datasets ensemble, which quantifies the  
316 uncertainty range of the absolute LE values (interquartile range of the merged  
317 synthesis LE products). It can be seen that HOLAPS and most parts of PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and  
318 PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub> are within the interquartile range, while outer part of SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and  
319 southern part of SEBS<sub>Chen</sub> are out of the interquartile range. To make an unbiased  
320 comparison between LandFlux-EVAL and other LE datasets, all the datasets were  
321 resampled to the same spatial resolution as LandFlux-EVAL and masked out the  
322 snow-covered areas. Figure 5 shows the differences of spatial patterns between



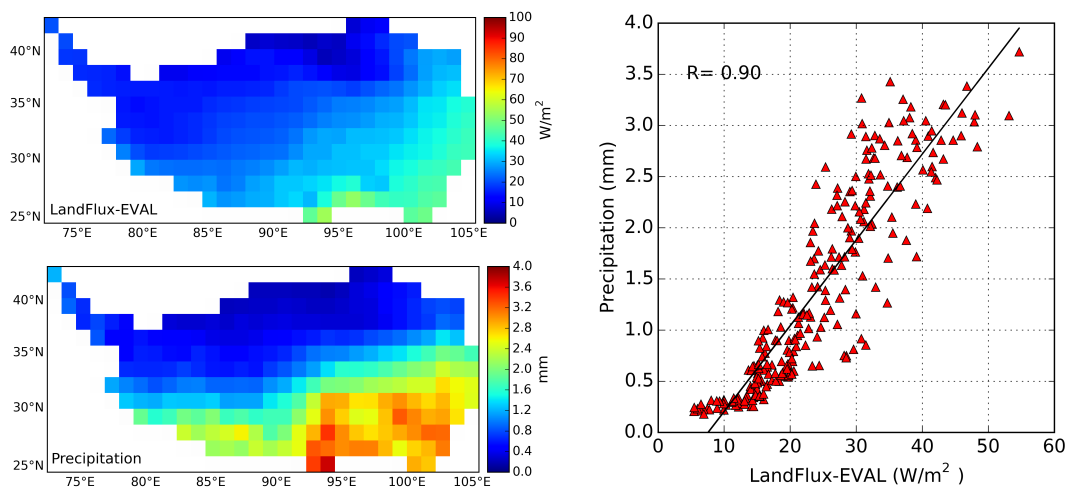
323 LandFlux-EVAL and other LE datasets. Overall, the HOLAPS dataset is found to have  
324 good agreement with the benchmark product (LandFlux-EVAL) for most parts of TP.  
325 The  $PT_{SRB-PU}$  and  $PM_{SRB-PU}$  are found to have positive biases over western TP, and  
326  $SEBS_{SRB-PU}$  has bias over outer TP, and  $SEBS_{Chen}$  has bias over southern TP.

327

328 Besides the analysis of spatial distribution of annual mean, the seasonal means of  
329 each LE dataset are also show in Figure 6. It can be seen that all the LE datasets show  
330 clear seasonal cycles with highest values in summer and lowest values in winter, which  
331 might be related to both westerlies and Asian monsoon. Due to the influence of Asian  
332 summer monsoon, the highest LE in LandFlux-EVAL is in southeastern TP and the LE  
333 decreases to northwest. The lowest LE appears in northern TP where dry westerlies  
334 dominate. Similar patterns are also found in HOLAPS,  $PT_{SRB-PU}$ ,  $PM_{SRB-PU}$  and  
335  $SEBS_{Chen}$ . The LE is lower in spring than that in summer in the eastern TP, which  
336 relates to the onset of the Asian summer monsoon. All the datasets present very low  
337 values during winter due to the cold and dry climate. The seasonal patterns of  
338 LandFlux-EVAL are also consistent with the study by You et al. (2014), where the LE  
339 was also found to increase from northwest to southeast in all seasons over the TP.  
340 Overall, the HOLAPS is most similar to LandFlux-EVAL compared to other datasets  
341 in terms of spatial distribution and spatial mean values over all seasons.

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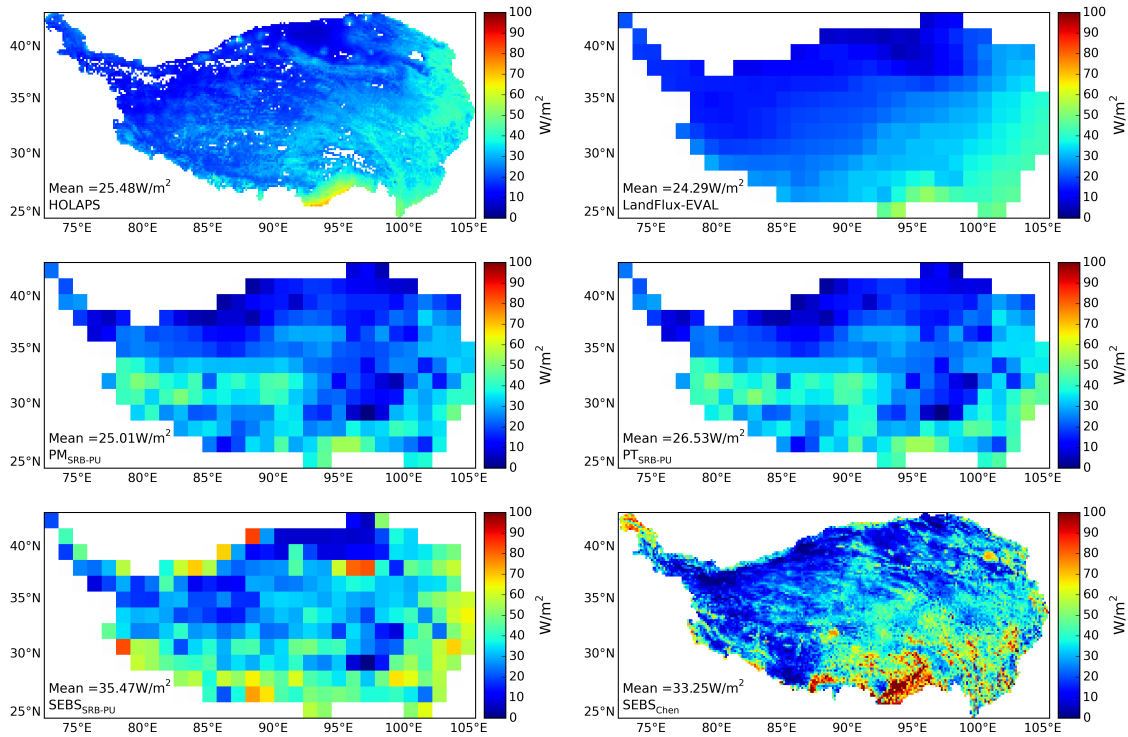


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345 Figure 2. Spatial distribution of annual mean LandFlux-EVAL LE and GPCP  
346 precipitation over the TP (left panel). The scatter plots of the comparison between LE  
347 and precipitation for all the pixels (right panel).

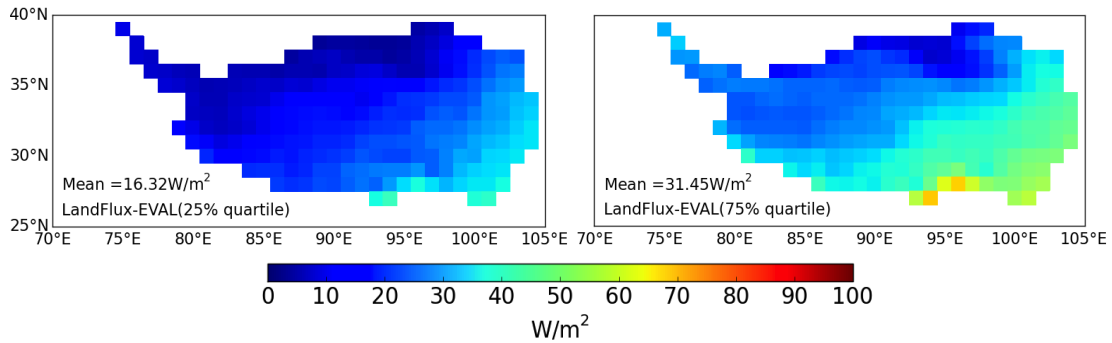
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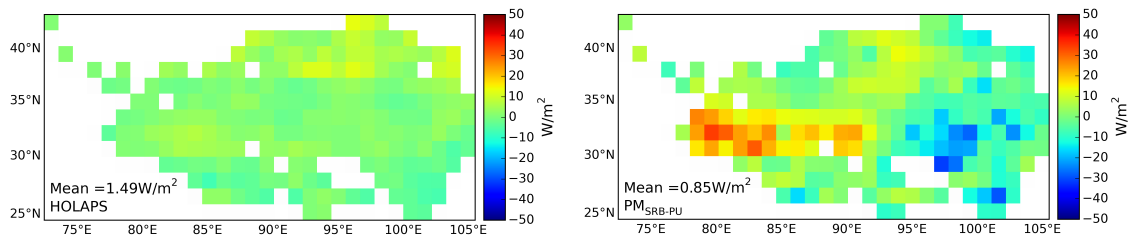
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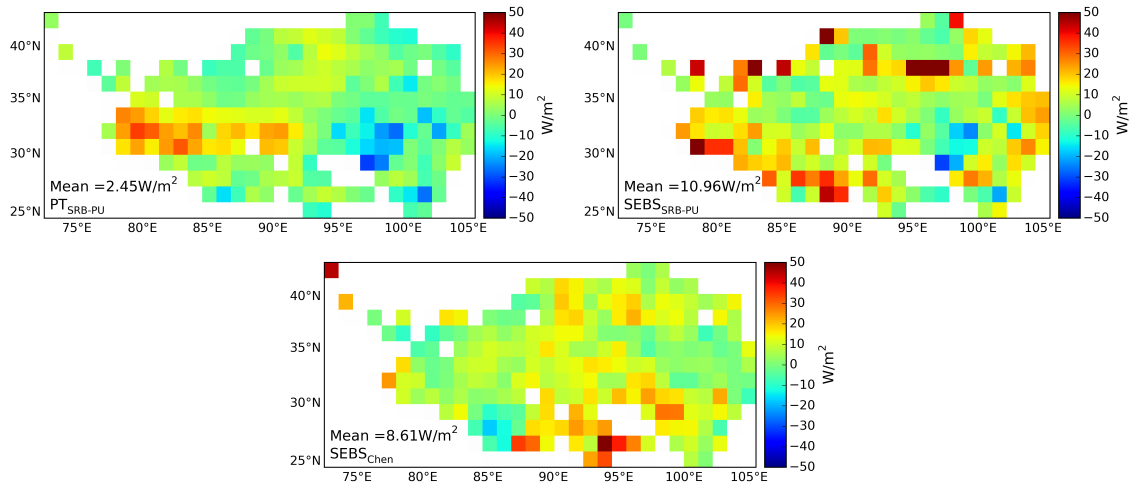
Figure 3: Spatial distribution of annual mean LE for each dataset over the TP.



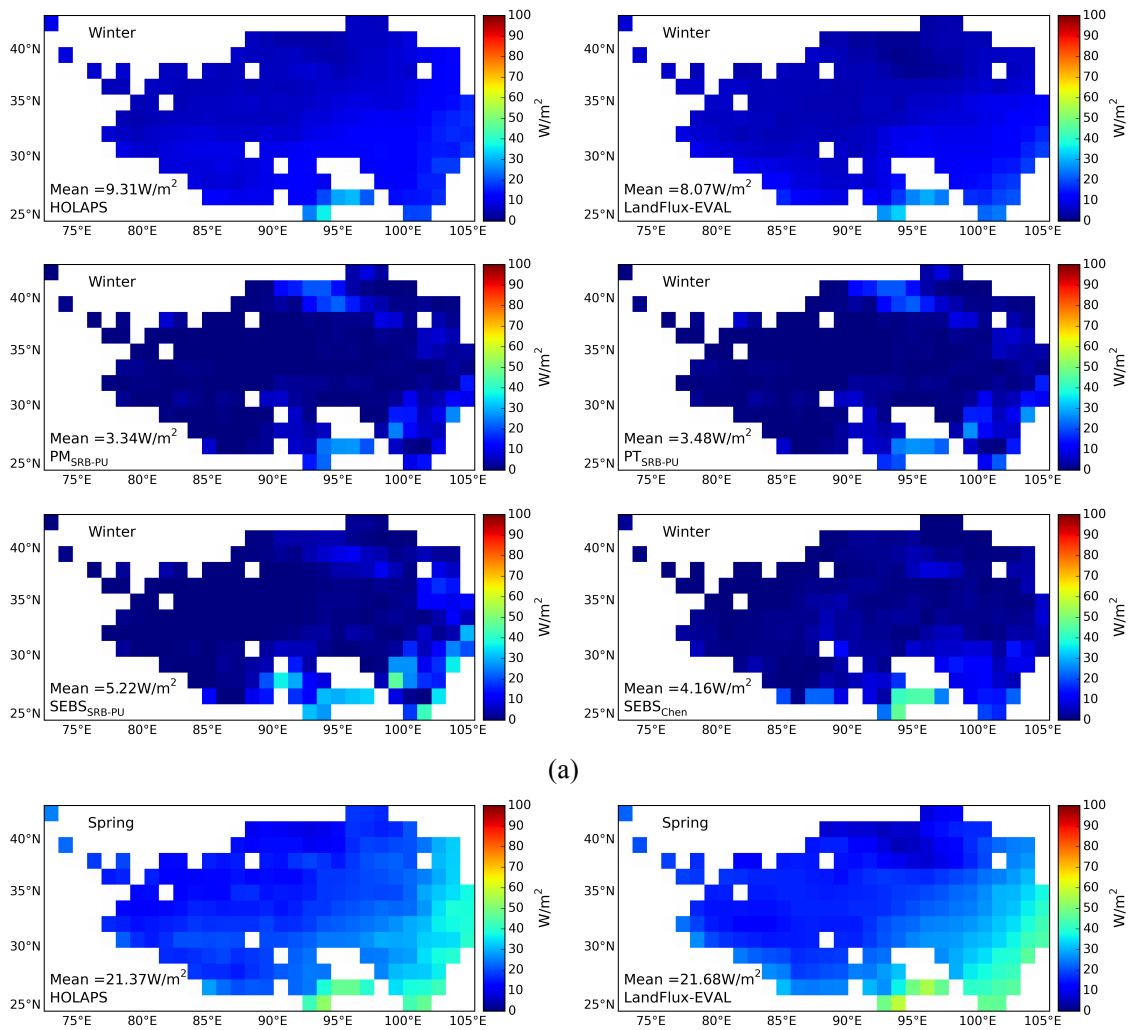
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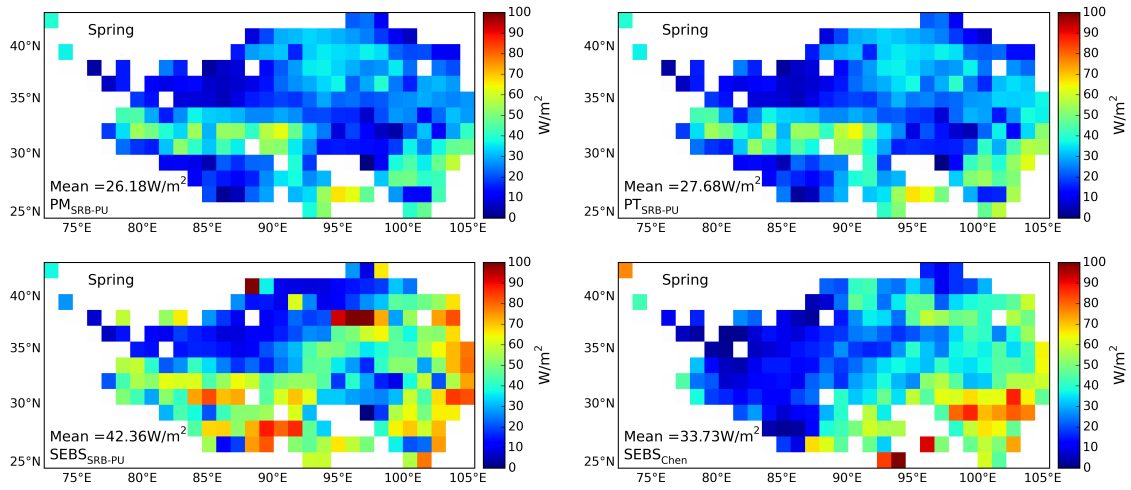
Figure 4: The annual mean spatial patterns of 25th-percentile and 75th-percentile of the LandFlux-EVAL multi-datasets ensemble.



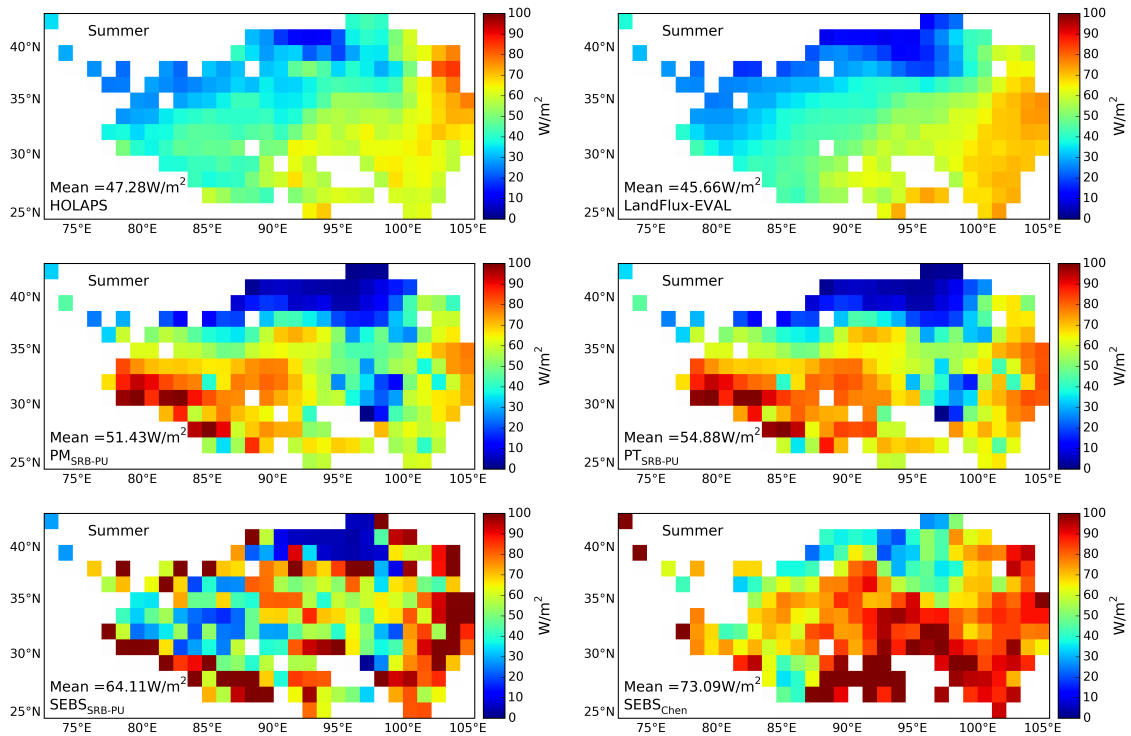


359 Figure 5: Differences of spatial distribution of annual mean LE between LandFlux-EVAL and  
 360 other datasets over the TP.  
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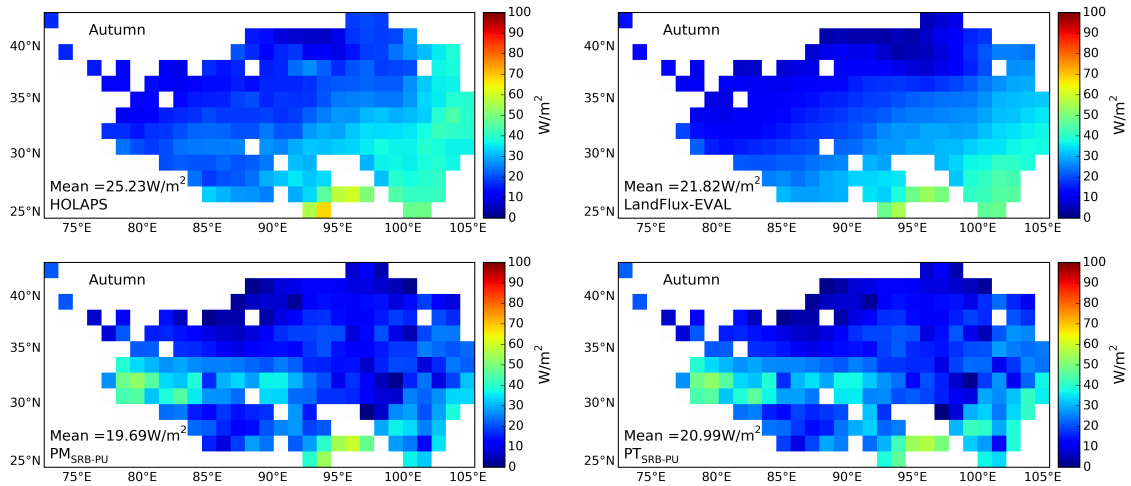


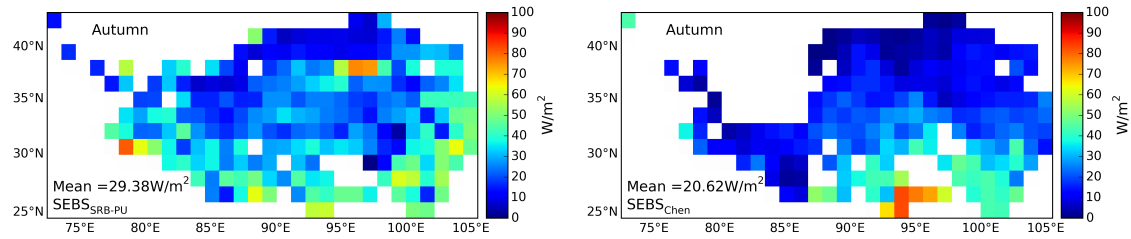


(b)



(c)





(d)

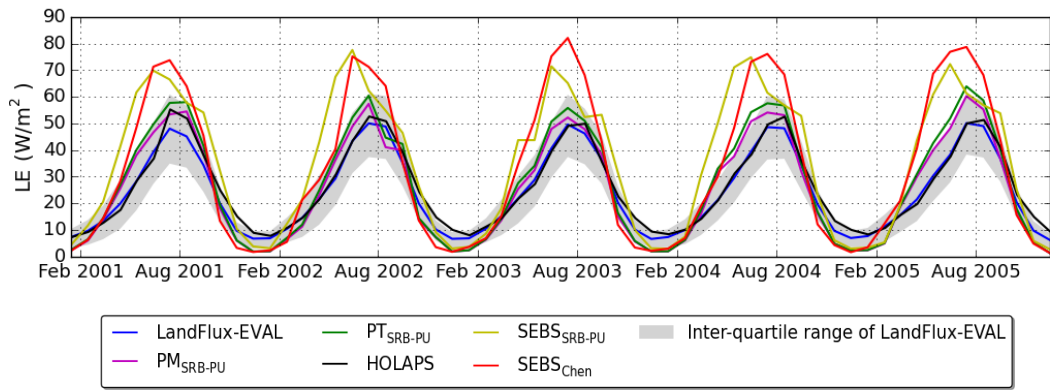
363 Figure 6: Spatial distribution of seasonal mean LE for each dataset over the TP. (a) Winter, (b)  
 364 Spring, (c) Summer, (d) Autumn.

365

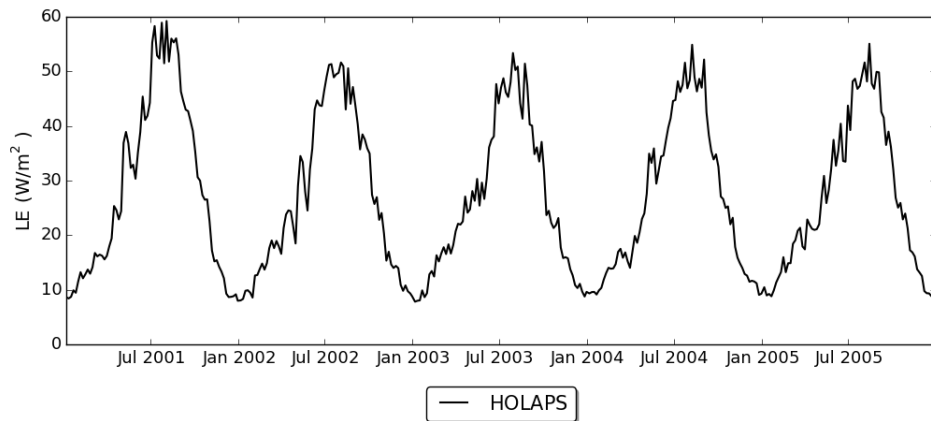
366 In addition to the spatial comparisons of annual and seasonal mean values, the time  
 367 evolution of all datasets is also explored. Figure 7 presents the time series of the area  
 368 mean LE for different LE datasets, and the inter-quartile range between 25th-percentile  
 369 and 75th-percentile of the LandFlux-EVAL ensemble. According to Figure 7, all  
 370 products capture well the seasonal variability with minimum LE in the winter and  
 371 maximum LE in the summer. However, the mean values of different LE products differ  
 372 substantially. There is a spread of about 35  $W/m^2$  at the annual cycle peak. Compared  
 373 with the other products, the HOLAPS seems to be closer to the LandFlux-EVAL  
 374 benchmarking product. The  $SEBS_{SRB-PU}$  and  $SEBS_{Chen}$  seem to be more distinctive with  
 375 LE from most months outside the inter-quartile of LandFlux-EVAL ensemble.  
 376 However, when compared to the climatology calculated from flux tower measurements  
 377 around the TP the SEBS estimates seem to be close to the flux tower measurements  
 378 (Chen, 2011). The differences between LandFluxEval and SEBS might be caused by  
 379 the scale mismatch between ground measurement at point scale and the satellite  
 380 estimate at pixel scale. The mismatch includes the surface heterogeneity (such as  
 381 topography, land cover types) and atmospheric conditions (such as cloud coverage,  
 382 altitude variations) (You et al., 2014; Hakuba et al., 2013). Compared to SEBS (Chen,  
 383 2011), the LandFlux-EVAL has relative low spatial resolution of  $1^\circ$ , which might be  
 384 strongly influenced by scale mismatch effects over complex surface and atmospheric  
 385 conditions in TP. Taking advantage of high temporal resolution of HOLAPS, the  
 386 temporal variability of the area averaged LE for 5-day HOLAPS over the 2001-2005 is  
 387 shown in Figure 8, where more temporal variations are found compared to monthly  
 388 temporal variability. Besides, the temporal variation of the averaged LE over the TP  
 389 has also been compared with precipitation and NDVI, which might regulate the LE.  
 390 Table 2 shows the statistics of the comparisons. A strong correlation of higher than 0.7  
 391 has been found between all LE datasets and NDVI, implying the importance of  
 392 vegetation on regulating LE over the TP. The highest R value was found between  
 393 HOLAPS and NDVI. As expected, the LE has strong correlation to precipitation with  
 394 R value higher than 0.87 for all LE datasets, which is because precipitation is one of  
 395 the most important drivers for LE. In the next section, the performance of each product  
 396 will be further discussed based on the comparison results against the LandFlux-EVAL  
 397 benchmark product.

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400  
 401 Figure 7: Temporal variability of the area averaged LE for each dataset over the TP. The grey  
 402 shadow displays the inter-quartile range between 25th-percentile and 75th-percentile of the  
 403 LandFlux-EVAL multi-datasets ensemble.  
 404



405  
 406 Figure 8: Temporal variability of the area averaged LE for 5-day HOLAPS over the TP.  
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408  
 409 Table 2. Correlation coefficient (R) between averaged LE and NDVI, precipitation over the TP  
 410 for the time 2001-2005.

	LandFlux-EVAL	HOLAPS	PM <sub>SRB-PU</sub>	PT <sub>SRB-PU</sub>	SEBS <sub>SRB-PU</sub>	SEBS <sub>Chen</sub>
R (NDVI)	0.89	0.93	0.81	0.81	0.7	0.76
R (precipitation)	0.98	0.96	0.96	0.96	0.87	0.94

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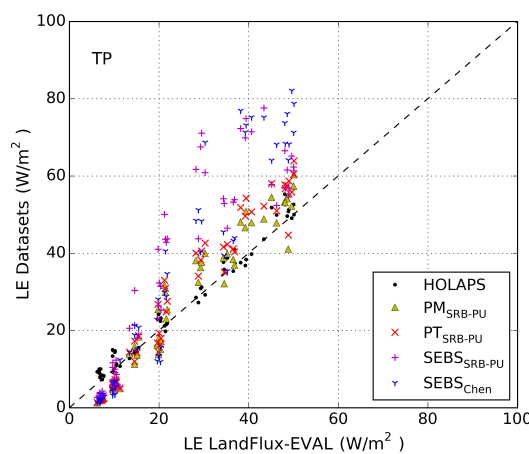
## 412 **4.2 Comparison of LE datasets against LandFlux-EVAL benchmark**

### 413 **product**

414 Figure 9 presents the monthly mean scatter plots of LE between the LandFlux-EVAL  
 415 benchmark product and other products over the whole TP. The detailed statistics are  
 416 listed in Table 3. It can be seen that the model performance varies among different LE  
 417 products with statistical indices values ranging from 0.91 to 0.99 for correlation

418 coefficient (R), and from 2.69 to 17.02 W/m<sup>2</sup> for RMSD. Overall, the HOLAPS  
 419 appears to yield the closest agreement with the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product,  
 420 with R higher than 0.99 and RMSD of 2.69 W/m<sup>2</sup>. In addition, the impacts of NDVI,  
 421 precipitation and elevation on the estimate of LE are also investigated. Figure 10  
 422 shows the comparison results over different NDVI thresholds. Table 4 lists the  
 423 corresponding statistics including R and RMSD. The performance of HOLAPS is  
 424 stable over different NDVI intervals, with RMSD less than 5.1 W/m<sup>2</sup>. PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and  
 425 PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub> perform similarly with highest RMSD appearing at the lowest NDVI interval  
 426 [0, 0.15], and the RMSD of PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> decreases with the increase of NDVI. Both  
 427 SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and SEBS<sub>Chen</sub> seem to overestimate LE over all NDVI intervals, with  
 428 RMSD ranging from 11.09 W/m<sup>2</sup> to 24.94 W/m<sup>2</sup>. The comparison results over  
 429 different precipitation thresholds are shown in Figure 11 and Table 5. Similar to the  
 430 response to NDVI, the HOLAPS also has stable performances over different  
 431 precipitation intervals, with RMSD less than 4.91W/m<sup>2</sup>. PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub>  
 432 slightly overestimate LE over the areas with low precipitation values [0, 2 mm], while  
 433 SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and SEBS<sub>Chen</sub> overestimate LE among all precipitation intervals. Figure 12  
 434 and Table 6 present the comparison results over the areas with different elevations. In  
 435 general, the elevation has no strong impacts on the HOLAPS, which has R value  
 436 higher than 0.97 and RMSD lower than 5.56 W/m<sup>2</sup> over all the elevation intervals.  
 437 PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub> have similar performance, with overestimation of LE in areas  
 438 with high elevation [5000 m, 6000 m]. Relatively low R values for PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and  
 439 PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub> are also found over areas with low elevations [1000 m, 3000 m]. SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub>  
 440 and SEBS<sub>Chen</sub> both overestimate LE over all elevation intervals. Overall, the HOLAPS  
 441 LE has stable performance over different NDVI, precipitation and elevation values.  
 442 PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub> have very similar performance. The SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub> has the highest  
 443 uncertainty over areas with low NDVI and precipitation and high elevation, while the  
 444 highest uncertainty for SEBS<sub>Chen</sub> occurs in areas with high NDVI and precipitation and  
 445 low elevation.

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448  
 449 Figure 9: The monthly mean scatter plots of LE between the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark  
 450 product and other products over the whole TP.

451

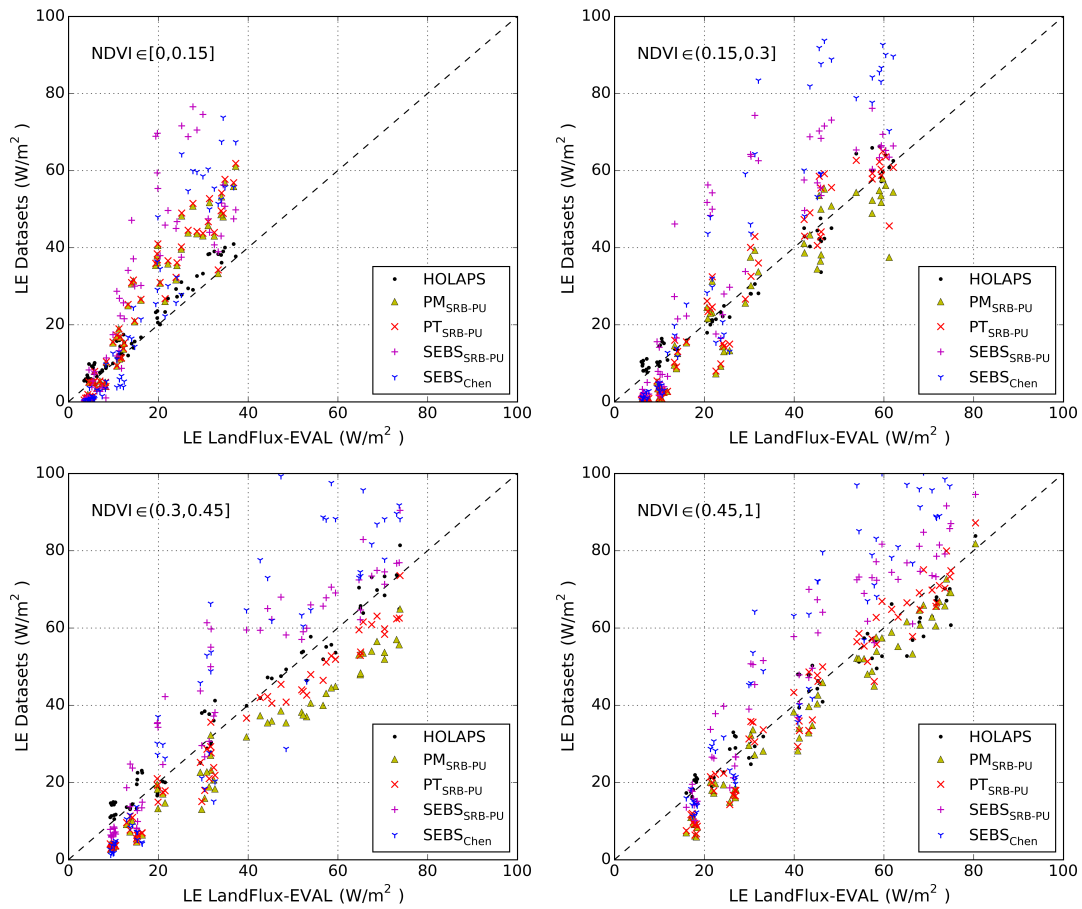
452 Table 3. Statistics of the LE comparisons between the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product  
 453 and other products over the whole TP.

454

	HOLAPS		PM <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		PT <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		SEBS <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		SEBS <sub>Chen</sub>	
	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )
Tibetan Plateau	0.99	2.69	0.98	5.68	0.98	7.12	0.91	17.02	0.96	16.36

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458 Figure 10: The monthly mean scatter plots of LE between the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark  
 459 product and other products over different NDVI thresholds.

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462 Table 4. Statistics of the LE comparisons between the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product  
 463 and other products over different NDVI thresholds.

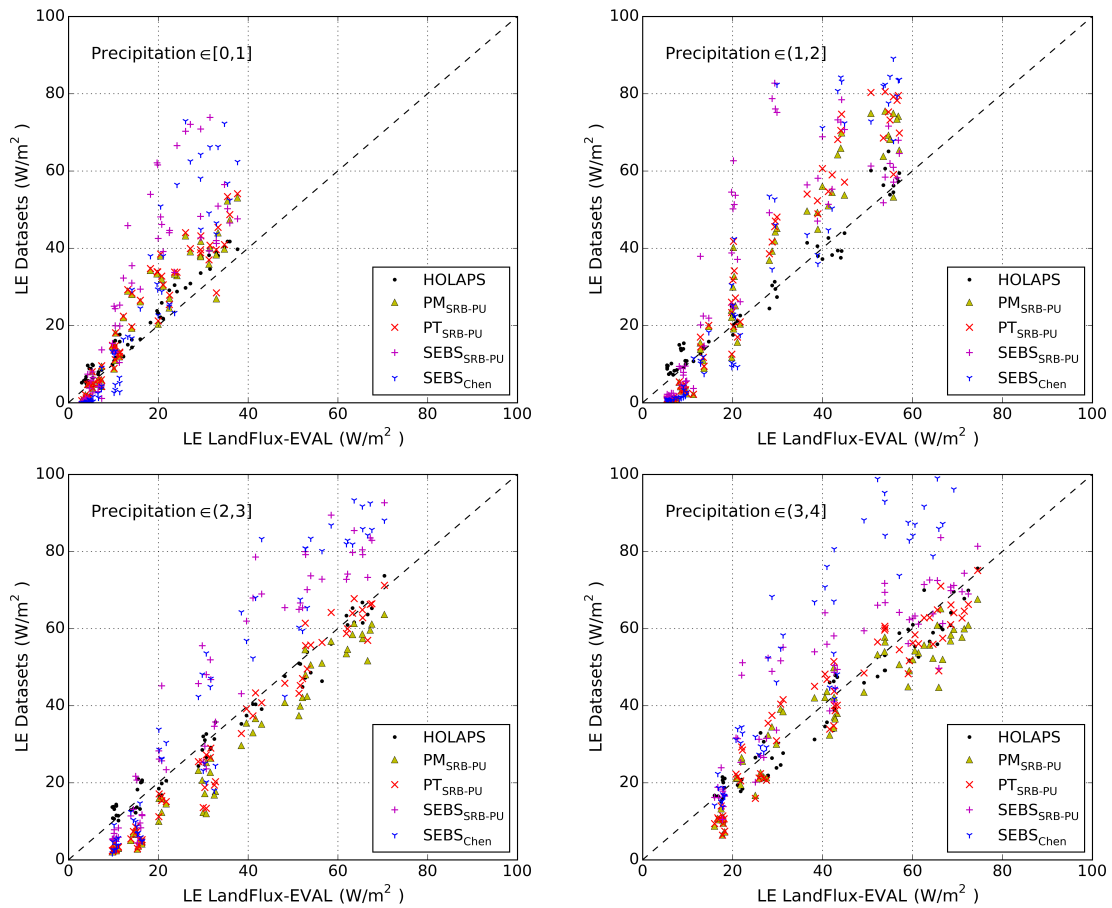
464

	HOLAPS		PM <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		PT <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		SEBS <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		SEBS <sub>Chen</sub>	
	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )



NDVI $\in [0, 0.15]$	0.99	3.27	0.96	11.42	0.96	11.89	0.84	20.93	0.95	15.38
NDVI $\in (0.15, 0.3]$	0.98	3.59	0.95	7.46	0.96	7.09	0.88	16.42	0.94	20.09
NDVI $\in (0.3, 0.45]$	0.98	4.08	0.99	10.88	0.99	7.4	0.94	11.43	0.92	17.6
NDVI $\in (0.45, 1]$	0.97	5.1	0.98	7.1	0.98	6.21	0.95	11.87	0.95	19.11

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Figure 11: The monthly mean scatter plots of LE between the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product and other products over different precipitation thresholds.

Table 5. Statistics of the LE comparisons between the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product and other products over different precipitation thresholds.

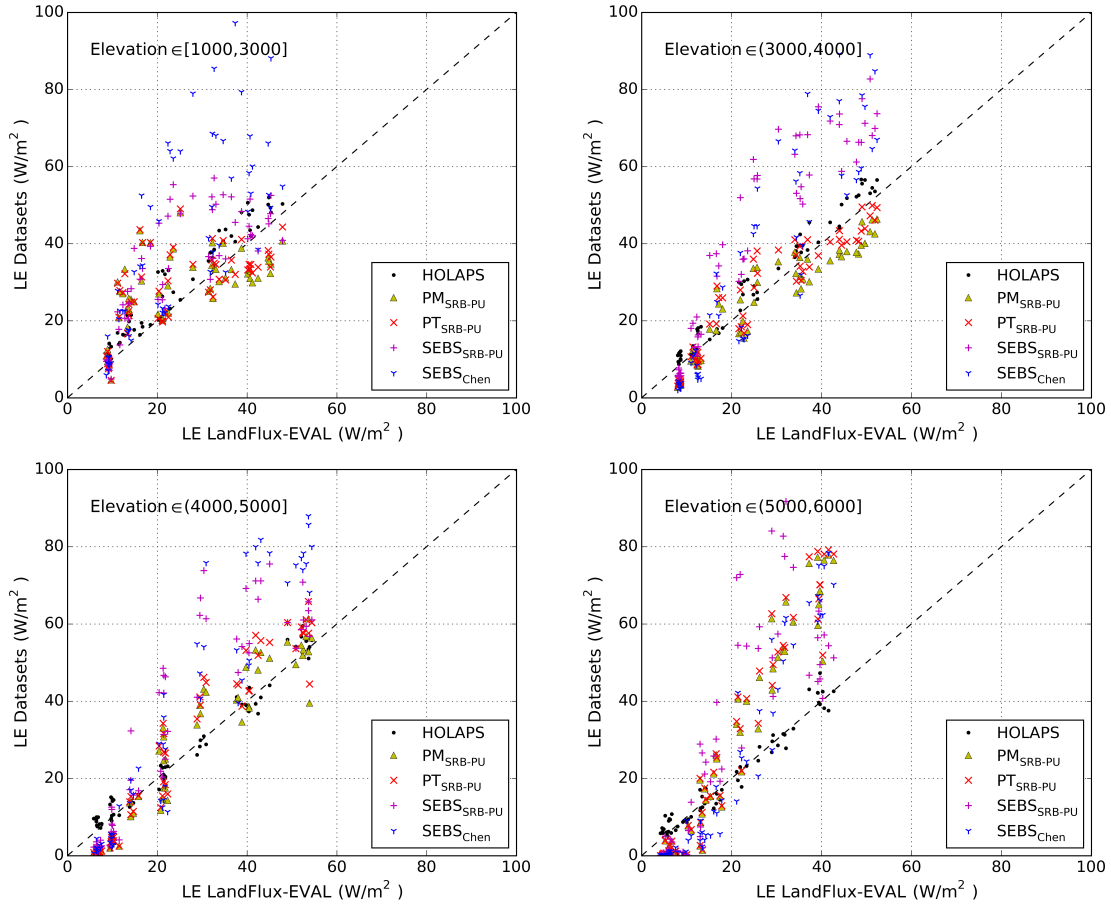
	HOLAPS		PM <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		PT <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		SEBS <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		SEBS <sub>Chen</sub>	
	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )
Precipitation $\in [0, 1]$	0.99	3.97	0.95	8.08	0.95	8.56	0.86	19.5	0.94	15.96
Precipitation $\in (1, 2]$	0.98	3.48	0.97	11.05	0.98	13.52	0.83	20	0.95	17.9

Precipitation $\in (2, 3]$	0.99	3.36	0.98	9.21	0.98	7.45	0.96	14.89	0.96	16.26
Precipitation $\in (3, 4]$	0.97	4.91	0.95	7.82	0.95	6.68	0.89	11.09	0.94	24.94

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481 Figure 12: The monthly mean scatter plots of LE between the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark  
482 product and other products over different elevation thresholds.

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485 Table 6. Statistics of the LE comparisons between the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product  
486 and other products over different elevation thresholds.

487

	HOLAPS		PM <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		PT <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		SEBS <sub>SRB-PU</sub>		SEBS <sub>Chen</sub>	
	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	R	RMSD (W/m <sup>2</sup> )
Elevation $\in [1000, 3000]$	0.97	5.56	0.64	10.24	0.69	9.94	0.79	12.92	0.76	22.53
Elevation $\in (3000, 4000]$	0.99	4.06	0.94	5.71	0.95	5.05	0.93	20.02	0.91	17.77
Elevation $\in (4000, 5000]$	0.99	2.72	0.96	6.4	0.97	7.56	0.9	15.93	0.95	17.76
Elevation $\in (5000, 6000]$	0.98	2.45	0.97	16.82	0.97	17.6	0.83	21.39	0.96	15.24

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### 489 **4.3 Discussion on the different performance of the LE datasets over TP**

490 The spatial and temporal inter-comparisons of different global LE datasets over the TP  
491 suggest that there are large differences among different datasets. The LandFlux-EVAL  
492 benchmark product was found to agree well with observation-based precipitation, *in*  
493 *situ* measurements-validated radiation (Shi and Liang, 2013a) and *in situ*  
494 measurements-validated LE product (Shi and Liang, 2014). From this point of view, it  
495 can be served as the reference dataset. The HOLAPS is found to agree temporally and  
496 spatially well with LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product. The  $PT_{\text{SRB-PU}}$  and  $PM_{\text{SRB-PU}}$   
497 have similar performance and are within the uncertainty range provided by  
498 LandFlux-EVAL product. Despite relying on the same forcing dataset,  $SEBS_{\text{SRB-PU}}$   
499 performs differently from  $PT_{\text{SRB-PU}}$  and  $PM_{\text{SRB-PU}}$ , which is driven by the differences in  
500 the models. Since all these datasets rely on the same radiation forcing, the  
501 overestimation is due to the high sensitivity to the parameterization of resistances.  
502 Therefore, examination of the differences between the models especially the calculated  
503 resistances still needs to be conducted in the future work. In addition, for the same  
504 model, different forcing data lead to different results ( $SEBS_{\text{SRB-PU}}$  and  $SEBS_{\text{Chen}}$ ). The  
505 overestimation in both SEBS datasets suggests the high sensitivity of LE to the  
506 calculated resistances. And the different spatial patterns and magnitude between the  
507 two SEBS datasets are likely due to the different forcing datasets. These results suggest  
508 that model and forcing are equally critical for the estimation of ET. Future studies  
509 should be focused on the development of high quality forcing dataset, and the  
510 exploration of the sensitivity of each model to its forcing. This type of research could  
511 be facilitated by the HOLAPS framework. Because the components in HOLAPS are  
512 coupled through well-defined interfaces, which allows the integration of different  
513 models for estimation of ET while building on the general HOLAPS infrastructure for  
514 providing the consistent forcing data. Overall, the results presented here suggest that  
515 the validation and inter-comparison are essential before applying the global LE  
516 datasets for regional applications, especially for the areas with sparse in-situ  
517 measurements such as TP. The high spatial and temporal resolution HOLAPS  
518 demonstrator dataset provides a potential LE product for hydrological applications  
519 over TP. However, the current HOLAPS demonstrator dataset does not consider the  
520 ET over snow-covered areas. The parameterization scheme of ET over snow-covered  
521 areas will be added in HOLAPS framework to generate the next version of HOLAPS  
522 dataset.

523

## 524 **5 Conclusions**

525 This study provides a first comprehensive inter-comparison of existing LE products  
526 over the TP for the period 2001-2005. The results of the study can be summarized as  
527 follows:

528 1. The existing global LE products show substantial differences in spatial and  
529 temporal patterns over the TP, although all these products have been found to agree

530 well with FLUXNET measurements in different climate conditions.

531 2. The LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product as well as the HOLAPS LE show very  
532 similar spatial patterns, both with LE increasing from northwest to southeast. The other  
533 LE products (SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub>, SEBS<sub>Chen</sub>, PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub>) display different spatial  
534 patterns compared to LandFlux-EVAL LE. The differences between SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub>,  
535 SEBS<sub>Chen</sub> and PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub>, and the discrepancies between SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and SEBS<sub>Chen</sub>  
536 indicate the equal importance of model structure and forcing data. Nevertheless, all  
537 products capture well the seasonal variability with maximum LE in the summer and  
538 minimum LE in the winter. The HOLAPS LE was found to agree best with  
539 LandFlux-EVAL LE.

540 3. Further comparison against LandFlux-EVAL benchmark dataset over the whole  
541 TP and sub-regions that are decided by different intervals of NDVI, precipitation and  
542 elevation reveals that climate and surface conditions have impacts on the performances  
543 of SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub>, SEBS<sub>Chen</sub>, PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub>, which implying that the systematic  
544 deviations between these datasets are partly due to the impacts of different climate and  
545 surface conditions. Note that the HOLAPS LE product is insensitive to different  
546 climate and surface conditions over the TP, compared to other LE datasets.

547 Overall, there are still large uncertainties in the current global LE dataset over the  
548 TP. In order to accurately estimate LE over the TP, model calibration and development  
549 of high accuracy forcing dataset are still needed. There is therefore a strong need for  
550 appropriate in situ flux measurements as well as other hydrological data like e.g. runoff  
551 measurements.

552

## 553 **Acknowledgements**

554 This study uses the LandFlux-EVAL merged benchmark synthesis products of ETH  
555 Zurich produced under the aegis of the GEWEX and ILEAPS projects. The  
556 SEBS<sub>SRB-PU</sub>, PT<sub>SRB-PU</sub> and PM<sub>SRB-PU</sub> LE products were obtained from the Princeton  
557 University Terrestrial Hydrology Research Group. The MODIS NDVI and snow cover,  
558 GPCP precipitation, and GMTED2010 elevation data are obtained from the Integrated  
559 Climate Data Center (ICDC, <http://icdc.zmaw.de>). This research was supported by the  
560 Cluster of Excellence CliSAP (EXC177), University of Hamburg, funded through the  
561 German Science Foundation (DFG), and the MPG-CAS postdoc fellowship. The  
562 authors would like to thank Stefan Hagemann for reviewing the first version of the  
563 manuscript. The authors are also very grateful to the editor and six anonymous  
564 reviewers for their valuable comments that helped improving the manuscript.

565

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