

## Spatiotemporal analysis of potential evapotranspiration in the Changwu tableland from 1957 to 2012

Xiaoyang Han,<sup>a,b</sup> Wenzhao Liu<sup>a\*</sup> and Wen Lin<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> State Key Laboratory of Soil Erosion and Dryland Farming on the Loess Plateau, Institute of Soil and Water Conservation, Chinese Academy of Sciences and Ministry of Water Resources, Yangling, Shaanxi, China

<sup>b</sup> University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

**ABSTRACT:** The Changwu tableland is located in the semi-humid to semi-arid transition area of the Loess Plateau, China. In the present study, the daily potential evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) of the Changwu tableland was calculated using the FAO Penman–Monteith (FPM) equation for the years 1957–2012, and the temporal variation and frequency distribution characteristics were analysed. The results indicate that the annual average  $ET_0$  of the Changwu tableland was 949.3 mm, varying from 789.2 to 1093.3 mm; a slight downward trend with a rate of  $-0.48 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$  was found. An abrupt increase occurred in 1994. The  $ET_0$  values that correspond to frequencies of 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, 90 and 95% were 1076.8, 1047.6, 999.7, 947.8, 897.3, 853.0 and 827.0 mm, respectively. The recurrence intervals of maximum and minimum  $ET_0$  were both more than 50 years. The contributions of  $T_{\max}$ ,  $T_{\min}$ , vapour pressure, wind speed and sunshine hours to changes in  $ET_0$  were 0.74, 0.07,  $-0.51$ ,  $-0.57$  and  $-0.23$ , respectively. The change in  $ET_0$  and the meteorological factors in the Changwu tableland are worthy of attention; measures to reduce the negative impacts of climate change are necessary.

**KEY WORDS** Changwu tableland; potential evapotranspiration; FAO Penman–Monteith equation; Mann–Kendall test; frequency analysis

Received 4 December 2013; Revised 8 November 2014; Accepted 11 November 2014

### 1. Introduction

Potential evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) is the largest possible evaporation under the condition of a sufficient underground water supply.  $ET_0$  measures the atmospheric evaporation capacity, which is an essential parameter for scientific research on hydrology, meteorology, geography, ecology and agriculture (Allen *et al.*, 1998);  $ET_0$  is also widely used to estimate crop water requirement (Abdelhadi *et al.*, 2000; Xu and Singh, 2005), to analyse dry and wet climate conditions (Bordi *et al.*, 2004; Nastos *et al.*, 2013; Some'e *et al.*, 2013), and ecological process model analysis (Xu and Chen, 2005).

Many studies have focused on the comparison and applicability of different models for calculating  $ET_0$ . Lu *et al.* (2005) found that the results of six models of  $ET_0$  in the southeastern United States were significantly different from each other, and there were greater differences among temperature-based methods than among radiation-based methods. Trajkovic and Kolakovic (2009) compared the FAO Penman–Monteith (FPM) equation and five other equations to calculate  $ET_0$  in humid regions, and the results showed that the FPM equation was the most accurate; however, when weather data were insufficient for the FPM equation, the Turc equation (Turc, 1961) was an appropriate choice. Liu and Li (1989) posited that without the influence of horizontal flow, the revised Penman–Monteith equation would be suitable for the Changwu tableland.

Although the temperature has increased by nearly  $1^\circ\text{C}$  over the past 50 years, pan evaporation has continued to decrease. This pattern is known as the ‘evaporation paradox’ (Brutsaert

and Parlange, 1998) and has been confirmed by many researchers (Arora, 2002; Ohmura and Wild, 2002; Roderick and Farquhar, 2002, 2004). Researchers have conducted extensive studies on pan evaporation and  $ET_0$  at various scales in China, including the national scale (Liu *et al.*, 2004; Gao *et al.*, 2007; Yin *et al.*, 2010; Han *et al.*, 2012), within the Yangtze River Basin (Gong *et al.*, 2006; Xu *et al.*, 2006), within the Yellow River Basin (Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2012), on the Loess Plateau (Li *et al.*, 2012) and on the Tibetan Plateau (Zhang *et al.*, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2011). Most of these studies have found decreasing trends in pan evaporation and  $ET_0$ .

The Changwu tableland is located in the southern Loess Plateau, China, which is a transition area between semi-arid and semi-humid regions and an area in which water scarcity is the main constraint on agricultural production and ecological construction. Regional water balance studies suggest that  $ET_0$  predominantly controls water demand. The temporal variations in  $ET_0$  are important for a variety of analyses, including the study of eco-hydrological processes on the Loess Plateau. Based on daily meteorological data for the Changwu tableland from 1957 to 2012, characteristics of  $ET_0$  and its influencing factors were studied in order to provide a basis for regional agricultural production, vegetation restoration and relevant scientific research including the adaptability of countermeasures for climate change.

### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Data sources

The study area is located in Changwu County, Shaanxi Province, China ( $107.7^\circ \text{E}$ ,  $35.2^\circ \text{N}$ ; 1207 m a.s.l.). The daily average, maximum and minimum temperatures ( $T_{\text{mean}}$ ,  $T_{\text{max}}$  and  $T_{\text{min}}$ , respectively;  $^\circ\text{C}$ ); actual vapour pressure ( $e_a$ ; kPa); 2 m wind

\* Correspondence: W. Liu, Institute of Soil and Water Conservation, CAS & MWR, Xinong Road, Yangling, Shaanxi 712100, China. E-mail: wzliu@ms.iswc.ac.cn

Table 1. Monthly average ET<sub>0</sub> and their proportion of the year.

Month	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Monthly average (mm)	29.4	38.8	68.9	99.9	123.6	138.5	136.6	110.2	76.9	55.0	36.3	27.7
Proportion (%)	3.1	4.1	7.3	10.5	13.0	14.6	14.4	11.6	8.1	5.8	3.8	2.9

ET<sub>0</sub>, potential evapotranspiration.

speed ( $u_2$ ; m s<sup>-1</sup>); sunshine hours (SH; h) and precipitation ( $P$ ; mm) were obtained from the national meteorological stations, which are maintained by the Chinese Meteorological Administration (CMA) (<http://cdc.cma.gov.cn>). The investigated seasons were categorized as spring (March to May), summer (June to August), autumn (September to November) and winter (December to February of the following year).

2.2. ET<sub>0</sub> calculation

ET<sub>0</sub> was calculated using the FPM equation (Allen *et al.*, 1998), which is applicable to various regions of the world such as America (Tsanis *et al.*, 2002; Exner-Kittridge and Rains, 2010), Europe (Fermor *et al.*, 2001; Gavin and Agnew, 2004), Africa (Schumacher *et al.*, 2009; Farg *et al.*, 2012), Asia (Mallikarjuna *et al.*, 2014; Valipour, 2014) and Oceania (Chiew *et al.*, 1995; Ortega-Farias *et al.*, 2006). The FPM specifies hypothetical reference values for plant height (0.12 m), fixed surface resistance (70 s m<sup>-1</sup>) and albedo (0.23):

$$ET_0 = \frac{0.408\Delta (R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T+273} u_2 (e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma \cdot (1 + 0.34u_2)} \quad (1)$$

where ET<sub>0</sub> is potential evapotranspiration (mm day<sup>-1</sup>),  $\Delta$  is the slope of the saturation vapour pressure curve (kPa °C<sup>-1</sup>),  $R_n$  is the surface net radiation (MJ m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>),  $G$  is the soil heat flux (MJ m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>),  $\gamma$  is the psychrometer constant (kPa °C<sup>-1</sup>),  $T$  is the mean temperature (°C),  $u_2$  is the 2 m wind speed (m s<sup>-1</sup>) and  $e_s$  and  $e_a$  are the saturation vapour pressure and water vapour pressure (kPa), respectively.

2.3. Contribution of meteorological factors

According to Equation (1), ET<sub>0</sub> is a function of several meteorological factors, that is,  $ET_0 = f(T_{max}, T_{min}, e_a, u_2, SH)$ . The contributions of various meteorological factors to temporal change in ET<sub>0</sub> were calculated according to the following total derivative equation:

$$\frac{dET_0}{dt} = \frac{\partial ET_0}{\partial T_{max}} \cdot \frac{dT_{max}}{dt} + \frac{\partial ET_0}{\partial T_{min}} \cdot \frac{dT_{min}}{dt} + \frac{\partial ET_0}{\partial e_a} \cdot \frac{de_a}{dt} + \frac{\partial ET_0}{\partial u_2} \cdot \frac{du_2}{dt} + \frac{\partial ET_0}{\partial SH} \cdot \frac{dSH}{dt} \quad (2)$$

The variables on the right side of the equation represent the contributions of these meteorological factors. Factors that cause ET<sub>0</sub> to increase are considered to be positive, whereas factors that caused ET<sub>0</sub> to decrease are considered to be negative. The factor with the strongest influence on ET<sub>0</sub> was determined by comparing the absolute values of each contribution.

2.4. Abrupt change test

The Mann–Kendall (M-K) test is used widely as an abrupt change test (Parkinson *et al.*, 1999; Alley *et al.*, 2003); the test

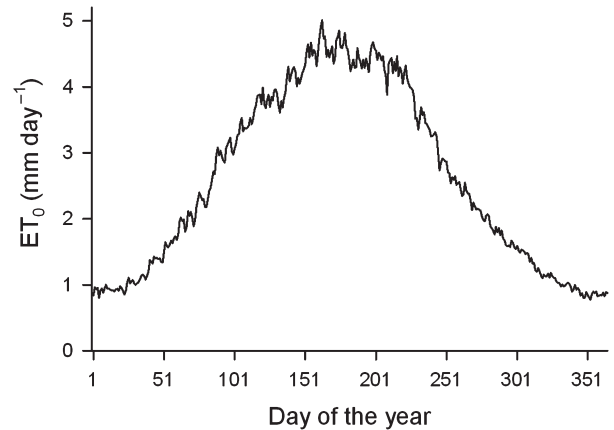


Figure 1. The variations in daily average potential evapotranspiration (ET<sub>0</sub>) from 1957 to 2012.

was first proposed by Mann in 1945 to detect trends in weather data. The method is continuously being improved, and is used widely because of its wide detection range and high degree of quantification. In the present study, the M-K test was used (with 95% confidence intervals) to quantify trends in ET<sub>0</sub> in the Changwu tableland region.

2.5. Frequency analysis

Hydrological frequency analysis is based on the statistical properties of hydrological phenomena. The analysis uses existing hydrological data to analyse the quantitative relationship between the designated values and frequency of occurrence (or return period) of hydrological variables. In the present study, ET<sub>0</sub> values were calculated annually and for spring, summer, autumn and winter for the 56 studied years. These values were used to conduct a frequency analysis, and a fitting method was used to obtain a Pearson type III frequency curve (Ippolitov *et al.*, 2002; Zhou and Adeli, 2003; Mi *et al.*, 2005; Zhai *et al.*, 2005).

3. Results

3.1. Inner-annual variations in ET<sub>0</sub>

The maximum monthly mean ET<sub>0</sub> in Changwu tableland occurred in June (Table 1) and the minimum ET<sub>0</sub> occurred in December. The ET<sub>0</sub> from May to August accounted for 53.6% of the annual ET<sub>0</sub>, because this period experienced substantial water and heat exchange.

The ET<sub>0</sub> values in summer, spring, autumn and winter were 385.3, 292.4, 168.2 and 95.8 mm, respectively, and accounted for 40.9, 31.1, 17.9 and 10.2% of the annual ET<sub>0</sub>, respectively. The magnitude of the ET<sub>0</sub> change was smallest in winter and largest in summer. Moreover, as a result of the continental monsoon climate, the change was more significant in spring than that in autumn.

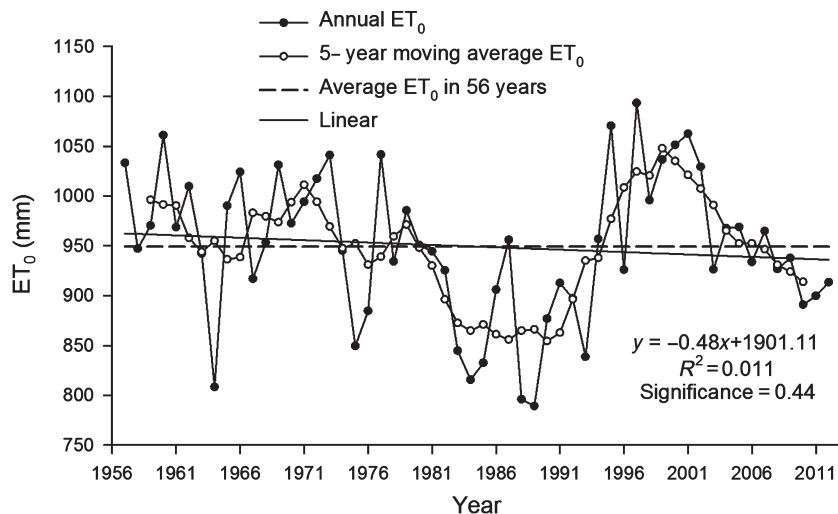


Figure 2. The variation trend in the annual potential evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) and 5 year moving average  $ET_0$  during the studied 56 year period (the linear trend is for the annual  $ET_0$ ).

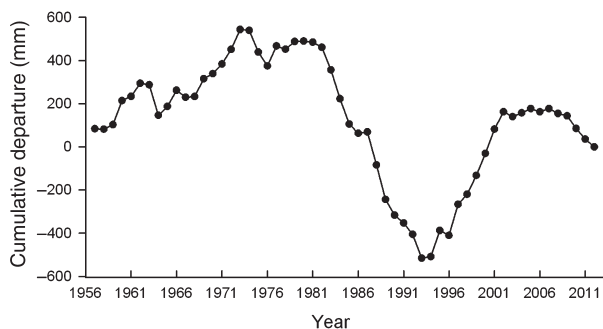


Figure 3. Cumulative departure curve of the annual potential evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) during the past 56 years.

The daily  $ET_0$  for the Changwu tableland is shown in Figure 1. The values continuously increased to a maximum in summer ( $5.0 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ ) and thereafter declined gradually to a minimum value ( $0.8 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ ). Because  $ET_0$  is based on calculations related to a series of meteorological elements, there were fluctuations during certain periods, especially during the months of high rainfall from June to August.

### 3.2. Inter-annual variations in $ET_0$

The average  $ET_0$  of the Changwu tableland for the period 1957–2012 was 949.3 mm. The minimum  $ET_0$  (789.2 mm) occurred in 1989, while the maximum  $ET_0$  (1093.3 mm) occurred in 1997 (Figure 2). During the 56 years, the annual  $ET_0$  exhibited several decreasing and increasing trends, and fluctuated near the historical average line. A linear-regression analysis indicated that the annual  $ET_0$  exhibited a slight downward trend with a rate of  $-0.48 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$ , which suggests that despite its substantial inter-annual difference, the overall change in magnitude was small. The cumulative departure curve (Figure 3) suggests that the general trend in the annual  $ET_0$  can be roughly divided into four stages. From 1957 to 1980, the annual  $ET_0$  exhibited an increasing trend. Beginning in 1981, the annual  $ET_0$  decreased to its minimum cumulative departure in 1993. Beginning in 1994, the annual  $ET_0$  increased substantially before decreasing again from 2002 to 2012. Therefore, 1994

was the turning point in the overall  $ET_0$  trends during the period 1957–2012.

The ratio of the extreme values may reflect the magnitude of inter-annual variability, whereas the co-efficient of variation ( $C_v$ ) is an indicator of relative variation, which can reflect the degree of dispersion in the overall series. The two indexes were calculated to determine the general inter-annual variability in  $ET_0$  (Table 2). The multiple regression analysis for annual  $ET_0$  and the meteorological factors shows that  $T_{\max}$ ,  $T_{\min}$  and actual vapour pressure had a rising trend, with rates of  $0.03 \text{ }^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$ ,  $0.005 \text{ }^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$  and  $0.001 \text{ kPa year}^{-1}$ , respectively, while the wind speed and sunshine hours exhibited decreasing trends, with rates of  $-0.007 \text{ m s}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$  and  $-0.004 \text{ h year}^{-1}$ , respectively. Contributions of  $T_{\max}$ ,  $T_{\min}$ , vapour pressure, wind speed and sunshine hour to change in  $ET_0$  are shown in Table 2.

### 3.3. Results of the Mann–Kendall test

An abrupt change test for  $ET_0$  using the M-K method showed that the two curves intersected in 1994, 2008 and 2011 (Figure 4). In 1994, only one point was outside the confidence interval, and the point could not be confirmed as representing an abrupt change point. However, after comparing the M-K test of  $T_{\text{mean}}$  and the cumulative departure curve, we found that both curves displayed an abrupt change in 1994. Thus, 1994 appears to have been the point of abrupt change in the  $ET_0$  rate in the Changwu tableland.

### 3.4. Frequency analysis of $ET_0$

Pearson III frequency curves were drawn to determine the probability and recurrence interval of the annual and seasonal  $ET_0$ . Figure 5 shows that during the 56 year study, the dispersion of the annual  $ET_0$  was small ( $C_v = 0.08$  and  $C_s = 0.12$ ), which also indicates that the frequency corresponding to the mean value (949.3 mm) was  $<50\%$ . The  $ET_0$  values that correspond to frequencies of 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, 90 and 95% were 1076.8, 1047.6, 999.7, 947.8, 897.3, 853.0 and 827.0 mm, respectively. The recurrence intervals of the maximum (1093.3 mm) and the minimum (789.2 mm)  $ET_0$  values were both exceeded in 50 years.

For the  $ET_0$  values in winter, spring, summer and autumn, the recurrence intervals of extreme values were similar; however, the

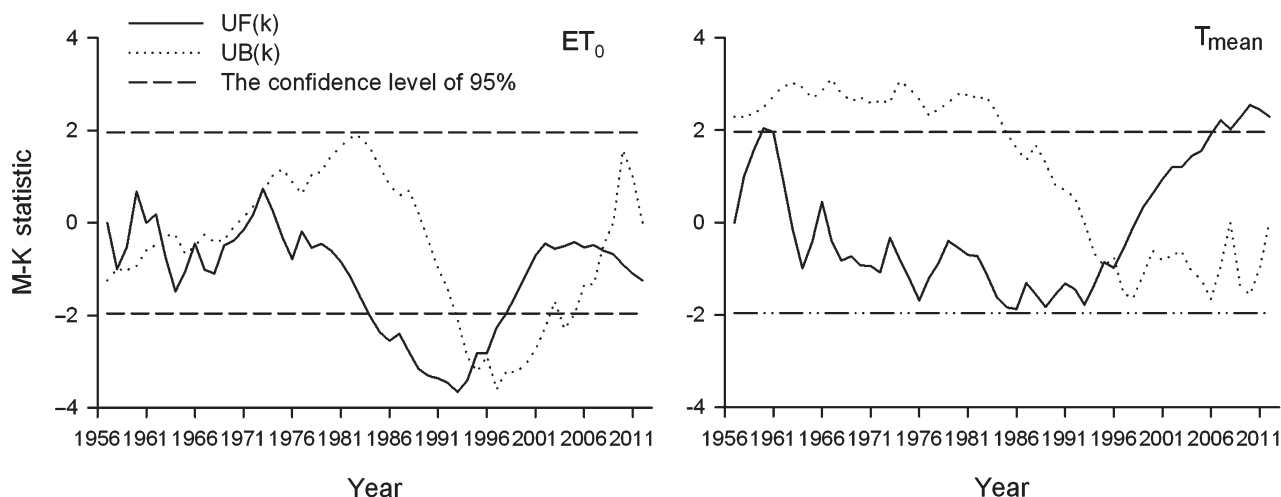


Figure 4. Abrupt change in the annual potential evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) and  $T_{mean}$  for the Changwu tableland during the period 1957–2012.

Table 2. Inter-annual variability of  $ET_0$  and contributions of the meteorological elements.

	$ET_0$ (mm)	$T_{max}$ ( $^{\circ}C$ )	$T_{min}$ ( $^{\circ}C$ )	$e_a$ (kPa)	$u_2$ ( $m\ s^{-1}$ )	SH (h)
Mean	949.31	15.24	4.23	0.94	2.23	5.82
Max.	1093.30	16.89	5.19	1.05	2.73	7.10
Min.	789.24	13.29	3.46	0.85	1.73	4.16
Ratio	1.39	1.27	1.50	1.24	1.58	1.71
STDEV	73.76	0.89	0.39	0.05	0.32	0.70
$C_v$	0.08	0.06	0.09	0.05	0.14	0.12
Slope	-0.48	0.027	0.0053	0.0011	-0.0067	-0.005
Contribution		0.74	0.07	-0.51	-0.57	-0.23

$ET_0$ , potential evapotranspiration.

values of the deviation co-efficient ( $C_s$ ) and variable co-efficient ( $C_v$ ) showed that the dispersion degree by time of year was larger than the annual  $ET_0$  and that the variability in the annual distribution was greater than during specific times.

#### 4. Discussion

$ET_0$  is the result of a combination of meteorological factors; however, the main influencing factor varies across different regions. The main factors that affected  $ET_0$  in the Tibetan

region over the 40 years were wind speed and relative humidity (Chen *et al.*, 2006). Li *et al.* (2012) studied the spatial and temporal variations in  $ET_0$  on the Loess Plateau from 1961 to 2009 using data from 48 stations and found that temperature and humidity were the main influencing factors; the study area was also in the Loess Plateau region, and  $ET_0$  was most affected by temperature, followed by wind speed and vapour pressure.

While the average annual temperature of the Changwu tableland increased by  $0.6^{\circ}C$  over the past 56 years,  $ET_0$  decreased by 26.9mm; this pattern is an example of the

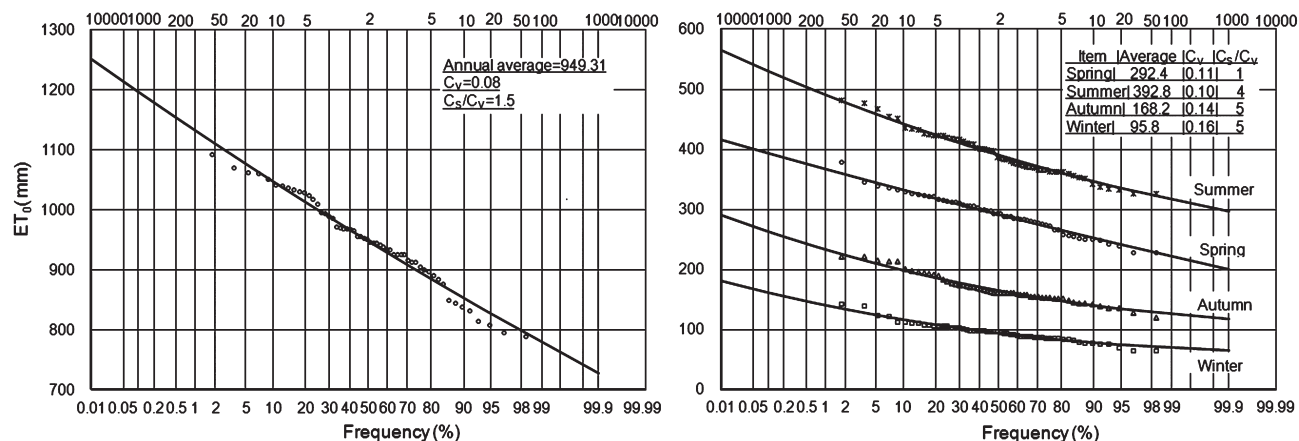


Figure 5. Frequency distribution curves for the annual and seasonal average  $ET_0$ .

'evaporation paradox'. The precipitation also decreased by 24.5 mm, changes in  $ET_0$  and decreasing precipitation over the Changwu tableland are noteworthy, because these changes may accelerate soil desiccation and alter the rules for crop water consumption, which can affect water usage, management and crop production in the region. Therefore, measures that reduce the negative impacts of climate change are necessary.

## 5. Conclusions

The annual average potential evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) of the Changwu tableland during the period 1957–2012 was 949.3 mm. The minimum occurred in 1989, whereas the maximum occurred in 1997. The maximum monthly and daily  $ET_0$  both occurred in June and the minimum occurred in December. From May to August,  $ET_0$  accounted for 53.6% of the annual  $ET_0$  because there was a substantial amount of water and heat exchange.

The results of the frequency analysis showed that during the 56 years of study period, the dispersion of the annual  $ET_0$  was small ( $C_v=0.08$  and  $C_s=0.12$ ), which indicates that the frequency corresponding to the mean value (949.3 mm) was <50%. The recurrence intervals of the maximum (1093.3 mm) and the minimum (789.2 mm)  $ET_0$  were both 50 years. The frequency distributions in winter, spring, summer and autumn were similar to that of the annual  $ET_0$ . However, the dispersion degree was larger and the variability of the annual distribution was greater. Thus, the distribution of crop water requirements in different months should be assessed.

During the period 1957–2012, there was an overall decreasing trend in  $ET_0$  at a rate of  $-0.48$  mm year $^{-1}$ . Moreover, there was an abrupt change in 1994. The contributions of  $T_{max}$ ,  $T_{min}$ , vapour pressure, wind speed and sunshine hours to changes in  $ET_0$  were 0.74, 0.07,  $-0.51$ ,  $-0.57$  and  $-0.23$ , respectively;  $T_{max}$  was the main factor that resulted in changes to  $ET_0$ .

Regional climatic dry and wet conditions have been of great interest in academic research on drought processes. Increasing attention has been given to these topics due to the current increased concern of climate change. Understanding the  $ET_0$  characteristics and its influencing factors in the Changwu tableland region is very important for regional agricultural production, vegetation restoration and relevant scientific research.

## Acknowledgement

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 41171033).

## References

Abdelhadi A, Hata T, Tanakamaru H, Tada A, Tariq M. 2000. Estimation of crop water requirements in arid region using Penman–Monteith equation with derived crop coefficients: a case study on Acala cotton in Sudan Gezira irrigated scheme. *Agric. Water Manage.* **45**: 203–214.

Allen RG, Pereira LS, Raes D, Smith M. 1998. *Crop Evapotranspiration – Guidelines for Computing Crop Water Requirements*, FAO Irrigation and Drainage Paper 56. FAO: Rome.

Alley RB, Marotzke J, Nordhaus W, Overpeck J, Peteet D, Pielke R, et al. 2003. Abrupt climate change. *Science* **299**: 2005–2010.

Arora VK. 2002. The use of the aridity index to assess climate change effect on annual runoff. *J. Hydrol.* **265**: 164–177.

Bordi I, Fraedrich K, Jiang J-M, Sutera A. 2004. Spatio-temporal variability of dry and wet periods in eastern China. *Theor. Appl. Climatol.* **79**: 81–91.

Brutsaert W, Parlange M. 1998. Hydrologic cycle explains the evaporation paradox. *Nature* **396**: 30.

Chen S, Liu Y, Thomas A. 2006. Climatic change on the Tibetan Plateau: potential evapotranspiration trends from 1961–2000. *Clim. Change* **76**: 291–319.

Chiew F, Kamaladasa N, Malano H, McMahon T. 1995. Penman–Monteith, FAO-24 reference crop evapotranspiration and class-A pan data in Australia. *Agric. Water Manage.* **28**: 9–21.

Exner-Kittridge MG, Rains MC. 2010. Case study on the accuracy and cost/effectiveness in simulating reference evapotranspiration in West-Central Florida. *J. Hydrol. Eng.* **15**: 696–703.

Farg E, Arafat S, Abd El-Wahed M, EL-Gindy A. 2012. Estimation of evapotranspiration  $ET_c$  and crop coefficient  $K_c$  of wheat, in south Nile delta of Egypt using integrated FAO-56 approach and remote sensing data. *Egypt. J. Remote Sens. Space Sci.* **15**: 83–89.

Fermor P, Hedges P, Gilbert J, Gowing D. 2001. Reedbed evapotranspiration rates in England. *Hydrol. Processes* **15**: 621–631.

Gao G, Chen D, Cy X, Simelton E. 2007. Trend of estimated actual evapotranspiration over China during 1960–2002. *J. Geophys. Res.* **112**: D11120.

Gavin H, Agnew C. 2004. Modelling actual, reference and equilibrium evaporation from a temperate wet grassland. *Hydrol. Processes* **18**: 229–246.

Gong L, Xu C, Chen D, Halldin S, Chen YD. 2006. Sensitivity of the Penman–Monteith reference evapotranspiration to key climatic variables in the Changjiang (Yangtze River) basin. *J. Hydrol.* **329**: 620–629.

Han S, Xu D, Wang S. 2012. Decreasing potential evaporation trends in China from 1956 to 2005: accelerated in regions with significant agricultural influence? *Agric. For. Meteorol.* **154**: 44–56.

Ippolito I, Kabanov M, Loginov S. 2002. Wavelet analysis of hidden periodicities in some indexes of solar activity. *Russ. Phys. J.* **45**: 1086–1092.

Li Z, Zheng FL, Liu WZ. 2012. Spatiotemporal characteristics of reference evapotranspiration during 1961–2009 and its projected changes during 2011–2099 on the Loess Plateau of China. *Agric. For. Meteorol.* **154**: 147–155.

Liu W, Li Y. 1989. The test on the revised Penman's formula in Changwu Tableland. *Bull. Soil Water Conserv.* **9**: 50–56 (in Chinese, with English abstract).

Liu B, Xu M, Henderson M, Gong W. 2004. A spatial analysis of pan evaporation trends in China, 1955–2000. *J. Geophys. Res.* **109**: D15102.

Liu X, Zheng H, Zhang M, Liu C. 2011. Identification of dominant climate factor for pan evaporation trend in the Tibetan Plateau. *J. Geogr. Sci.* **21**: 594–608.

Lu J, Sun G, McNulty SG, Amatya DM. 2005. A comparison of six potential evapotranspiration methods for regional use in the southeastern United States. *J. Am. Water Resour. Assoc.* **41**: 621–633.

Mallikarjuna P, Jyothy SA, Murthy DS, Reddy KC. 2014. Performance of recalibrated equations for the estimation of daily reference evapotranspiration. *Water Resour. Manage.* **28**: 4513–4535.

Mi X, Ren H, Ouyang Z, Wei W, Ma K. 2005. The use of the Mexican Hat and the Morlet wavelets for detection of ecological patterns. *Plant Ecol.* **179**: 1–19.

Nastos PT, Politi N, Kapsomenakis J. 2013. Spatial and temporal variability of the Aridity Index in Greece. *Atmos. Res.* **119**: 140–152.

Ohmura A, Wild M. 2002. Is the hydrological cycle accelerating? *Science* **298**: 1345–1346.

Ortega-Farías SO, Olioso A, Fuentes S, Valdes H. 2006. Latent heat flux over a furrow-irrigated tomato crop using Penman–Monteith equation with a variable surface canopy resistance. *Agric. Water Manage.* **82**: 421–432.

Parkinson CL, Cavalieri DJ, Gloersen P, Zwally HJ, Comiso JC. 1999. Arctic sea ice extents, areas, and trends, 1978–1996. *J. Geophys. Res.* **104**: 20837–20856.

Roderick ML, Farquhar GD. 2002. The cause of decreased pan evaporation over the past 50 years. *Science* **298**: 1410–1411.

Roderick ML, Farquhar GD. 2004. Changes in Australian pan evaporation from 1970 to 2002. *Int. J. Climatol.* **24**: 1077–1090.

Schumacher J, Luedeling E, Gebauer J, Saied A, El-Siddig K, Buerkert A. 2009. Spatial expansion and water requirements of urban agriculture in Khartoum, Sudan. *J. Arid Environ.* **73**: 399–406.

Some'e BS, Ezani A, Tabari H. 2013. Spatiotemporal trends of aridity index in arid and semi-arid regions of Iran. *Theor. Appl. Climatol.* **111**: 149–160.

Trajkovic S, Kolakovic S. 2009. Evaluation of reference evapotranspiration equations under humid conditions. *Water Resour. Manage.* **23**: 3057–3067.

- Tsanis IK, Naoum S, Boyle SJ. 2002. A GIS interface method based on reference evapotranspiration and crop coefficients for the determination of irrigation requirements. *Water Int.* **27**: 233–242.
- Turc L. 1961. Estimation of irrigation water requirements, potential evapotranspiration: a simple climatic formula evolved up to date. *Ann. Agron.* **12**: 13–49.
- Valipour M. 2014. Temperature analysis of reference evapotranspiration models. *Meteorol. Appl.* in press, DOI: 10.1002/met.1465.
- Wang W, Shao Q, Peng S, Xing W, Yang T, Luo Y, et al. 2012. Reference evapotranspiration change and the causes across the Yellow River Basin during 1957–2008 and their spatial and seasonal differences. *Water Resour. Res.* **48**: W05530.
- Xu C, Chen D. 2005. Comparison of seven models for estimation of evapotranspiration and groundwater recharge using lysimeter measurement data in Germany. *Hydrol. Processes* **19**: 3717–3734.
- Xu C, Gong L, Jiang T, Chen D, Singh VP. 2006. Analysis of spatial distribution and temporal trend of reference evapotranspiration and pan evaporation in Changjiang (Yangtze River) catchment. *J. Hydrol.* **327**: 81–93.
- Xu C, Singh V. 2005. Evaluation of three complementary relationship evapotranspiration models by water balance approach to estimate actual regional evapotranspiration in different climatic regions. *J. Hydrol.* **308**: 105–121.
- Yin Y, Wu S, Chen G, Dai E. 2010. Attribution analyses of potential evapotranspiration changes in China since the 1960s. *Theor. Appl. Climatol.* **101**: 19–28.
- Zhai P, Zhang X, Wan H, Pan X. 2005. Trends in total precipitation and frequency of daily precipitation extremes over China. *J. Clim.* **18**: 1096–1108.
- Zhang X, Ren Y, Yin ZY, Lin Z, Zheng D. 2009. Spatial and temporal variation patterns of reference evapotranspiration across the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau during 1971–2004. *J. Geophys. Res.* **114**: D15.
- Zhang Q, Xu CY, Chen YD, Ren L. 2011. Comparison of evapotranspiration variations between the Yellow River and Pearl River basin, China. *Stoch. Environ. Res. Risk Assess.* **25**: 139–150.
- Zhou Z, Adeli H. 2003. Time–frequency signal analysis of earthquake records using Mexican hat wavelets. *Comput.-Aided Civ. Infrastruct. Eng.* **18**: 379–389.