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Research papers

# Evaluation of two generalized complementary functions for annual evaporation estimation on the Loess Plateau, China

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# ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

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Generalized complementary functions, which describe the relationship between the ratio of actual evaporation over the Penman potential evaporation (*E/E<sub>Pen</sub>*) and the proportion of the radiation term in *E<sub>Pen</sub>* (*E<sub>rad</sub>/E<sub>Pen</sub>*) have not been widely used at annual time scales. In this study, the generalized nonlinear advection-aridity function (GNAA) and sigmoid generalized complementary function (SGCF) were evaluated for annual evaporation estimation with calibrated parameters in the Loess Plateau of China. For all 15 catchments, the lowest values of annual *Erad/EPen* were found to be much larger than zero, and the annual *E/EPen* increased approximately linearly with annual *E<sub>rad</sub>/E<sub>Pen</sub>*. This complementary evaporation relationship at an annual timescale differs from those at daily timescales, and requires different parameterizations of the GNAA and SGCF. For the GNAA, parameter *c*, which is often set to zero for daily time scales, need to be well calibrated with available data. For the SGCF, the upper and lower limits of *E<sub>rad</sub>/E<sub>Pen</sub>* must be constrained. After calibration, both the SGCF and GNAA performed well at estimating annual evaporation. In addition, the calibrated Priestley-Taylor coefficient from the SGCF was found to be closer to the widely accepted value (1.26) than that determined from the GNAA.

# **1. Introduction**

The complementary principle provides the basis for approaches to estimate actual evaporation by using routine meteorological records only ([Brutsaert and Stricker, 1979; Han et al., 2012; Morton, 1983](#page-6-0)). It has attracted significant attention in recent years, as it can be implemented without the need of explicit land, soil, and vegetation information [\(Brutsaert, 2015; Han and Tian, 2018\)](#page-6-1). The original complementary principle involves a linear complementary relationship (CR) between actual evaporation (*E*), potential evaporation (*Epo*), and apparent potential evaporation (*Epa*), in which *E* and *Epa* depart from *Epo* in opposite directions when the land surface is drying from completely wet conditions with a constant energy input [\(Brutsaert, 2015](#page-6-1)). Several evaporation estimation models based on the CR have been proposed after specifying *Epa* and *Epo* ([Brutsaert and Stricker, 1979; Granger,](#page-6-0) [1989; Granger and Gray, 1989; Morton, 1978, 1983\)](#page-6-0). The advectionaridity (AA) model proposed by [Brutsaert and Stricker \(1979\)](#page-6-0) is the most widely used. In AA model, *Epa* and *Epo* are denoted by the Penman equation (*E<sub>Pen</sub>*) ([Penman, 1948](#page-7-0)) and the [Priestley-Taylor \(1972\)](#page-7-1) equation, respectively. The AA model has since evolved to adopt the

asymmetric CR [\(Brutsaert and Parlange, 1998; Szilagyi, 2007\)](#page-6-2). Normalized by  $E_{Pen}$ , the AA model can be expressed as a linear function ([Han et al., 2008](#page-7-2)):

$$
\frac{E}{E_{Pen}} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{b}\right)\alpha_e \frac{E_{rad}}{E_{Pen}} - \frac{1}{b} \tag{1}
$$

where *αe* is the Priestley-Taylor coefficient, *b* is the parameter denoting the asymmetry of the CR, and  $E_{Pen}$  is an apparent potential evaporation calculated by the Penman equation:

$$
E_{Pen} = E_{rad} + E_{aero} = \frac{\Delta}{\Delta + \gamma} (R_n - G) + \frac{\gamma}{\Delta + \gamma} f(u_z) (e_a^* - e_a)
$$
\n(2)

where *Erad* and *Eaero* are the radiation and aerodynamic terms for the Penman equation, respectively (mm/day); *Δ* is the slope of the saturation vapor curve at air temperature (hPa/ $^{\circ}$ C);  $\gamma$  is the psychrometric constant (hPa/ $^{\circ}$ C);  $R_n$  is net radiation (mm/day); *G* is the ground heat flux;  $f(u)$  is the wind function, which is calculated by Penman's wind function ([Penman, 1948\)](#page-7-0), that is,  $f(u_2) = 0.26(1 + 0.54u_2)$ , and  $u_2 = u_{10} (2/10)^{1/7}$ , where  $u_2$  and  $u_{10}$  are the wind speeds at 2 m and 10 m heights, respectively; and *ea\** and *ea* are saturation and actual

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 $\frac{N}{2}$ 

<span id="page-1-0"></span>

**Fig. 1.** Locations of the 15 catchments on the Loess Plateau.

vapor pressure (hPa), respectively.

By normalizing several existing CR models using  $E_{Pen}$ , [Han et al.](#page-6-3) [\(2011, 2012\)](#page-6-3) proposed a general form of the CR where the actual evaporation ratio  $(E/E_{Pen})$  is expressed as a function of the proportion of the radiation term in  $E_{Pen}$ ; that is,  $E/E_{Pen} = f(E_{rad}/E_{Pen})$ . The AA model is a linear analytical form of this generalized complementary function that has bias under arid and wet environments [\(Han et al., 2011, 2012](#page-6-3)). By invoking boundary conditions for extremely arid and completely wet environments, [Han et al. \(2012\)](#page-7-3) derived a sigmoid form of the generalized complementary function, and updated it by introducing minimum  $(x_{min})$  and maximum  $(x_{max})$  limits to  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  ([Han and Tian,](#page-6-4) [2018\)](#page-6-4). This sigmoid generalized complementary function (SGCF) can be written as:

$$
\frac{E}{E_{Pen}} = \frac{1}{1 + m \left(\frac{x_{max} - E_{rad}/E_{Pen}}{E_{rad}/E_{Pen} - x_{min}}\right)^n}
$$
(3)

where  $x_{max}$  and  $x_{min}$  are the maximum and minimum values of  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$ , and *m* and *n* are parameters. The SGCF exhibits a three-stage pattern, and  $E/E_{Pen}$  increases approximately linearly with  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  during the middle stage in environments that are neither too dry nor too wet. By making a first-order Taylor expansion of the SGCF at  $E/E_{Pen} = 0.5$  equal to the linear AA function, parameters *m* and *n* can be transferred from *αe* and *b-1*:

$$
\begin{cases}\nn = \frac{4\alpha_e (1 + b^{-1})(x_{0.5} - x_{min})(x_{max} - x_{0.5})}{(x_{max} - x_{min})} \\
m = (\frac{x_{0.5} - x_{min}}{x_{max} - x_{0.5}})^n\n\end{cases} \tag{4}
$$

where  $x_{0.5} = (0.5 + b^{-1})/(\alpha_e * (1 + b^{-1}))$  is the value of  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  corresponding to  $E/E_{Pen} = 0.5$ . The linear AA function can be regarded as a special case of the SGCF [\(Han and Tian, 2018\)](#page-6-4), for which  $x_{min} = 0$  and  $x_{max} = 1$  have been suggested for a daily scale because the function and simulated results are not sensitive to  $x_{min}$  and  $x_{max}$ . However, appropriate values for  $x_{min}$  and  $x_{max}$  at annual or multi-year timescales remain unclear.

Inspired by [Han et al. \(2012\), Brutsaert \(2015\)](#page-7-3) generalized the CR to a fourth-order polynomial function between  $E/E_{Pen}$  and  $E_{po}/E_{Pen}$ , the application of which still requires specifying the methods of  $E_{Pen}$  and *Epo*. Considering the relationship with AA approach, this new polynomial function is regarded as the generalized nonlinear advection–aridity model (GNAA) and has the same variables as the AA function and SGCF; that is:

$$
\frac{E}{E_{Pen}} = (2 - c)\alpha_e^2(\frac{E_{rad}}{E_{Pen}})^2 - (1 - 2c)\alpha_e^3(\frac{E_{rad}}{E_{Pen}})^3 - c\alpha_e^4(\frac{E_{rad}}{E_{Pen}})^4
$$
(5)

where *c* is thought to be zero under usual situations ([Brutsaert, 2015](#page-6-1)). Thus, a fixed  $c = 0$  and calibrated parameter  $\alpha_e$  of the GNAA have been adopted for daily ([Ai et al., 2017; Brutsaert et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2018;](#page-6-5) [Zhang et al., 2017](#page-6-5)), annual, and multi-year scales ([Liu et al., 2016](#page-7-4)). However, the calibrated  $\alpha_e$  was found to be less than unity with a fixed  $c = 0$  in the Kahohu site in Japan [\(Ai et al., 2017\)](#page-6-5), as well as for some eastern monsoon regions of China [\(Liu et al., 2016\)](#page-7-4) that were thought to be unreasonable [\(Han and Tian, 2018\)](#page-6-4). Thus, how  $\alpha_e$  and  $c$  should be parameterized also remains unclear.

The GNAA and SGCF have both been applied to estimate evaporation at several locations ([Brutsaert et al., 2017, 2020; Han and Tian,](#page-6-6) [2018; Zhang et al., 2017\)](#page-6-6). Although they were compared at a daily scale by using data from flux towers [\(Han and Tian, 2018](#page-6-4)), setting their parameters for an annual timescale remains a major obstacle in their application. Thus, the main objective of this study was to evaluate the

# <span id="page-2-0"></span>**Table 1**





a. *R* is the correlation coefficient between  $E/E_{Pen}$  and  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$ .

\*\* denotes  $p \leq 0.01$ .

GNAA and SGCF for estimating annual *E* for 15 catchments in the Loess Plateau, China, with water-balance-derived *E* and a focus on how parameters  $\alpha_e$ , and/or *c* should be adopted for the GNAA, as well as how *xmin* and *xmax* should be adopted for the SGCF.

#### **2. Materials and methods**

# *2.1. Study area and data*

The Loess Plateau is located in the upper and middle reaches of the Yellow River, China. As a typical non-humid region, the annual precipitation (*P*) is 200–750 mm, increasing from the northwest to the southeast ([Tang et al., 2018\)](#page-7-5). The climate is continental monsoon, with precipitation mainly concentrated between June and September, that experiences frequent rainstorms. The sparse vegetation resulted in severe soil erosion for a long period. The land use and land cover has been greatly changed because of the 'Grain for Green Project' implemented by the Chinese government in the Loess Plateau since 1999, which has contributed to the global greening trend [\(Chen et al., 2019](#page-6-7)). In this study, 15 typical catchments with areas ranging from 1263 to 43,216  $km<sup>2</sup>$  were selected [\(Fig. 1](#page-1-0) and [Table 1\)](#page-2-0). Monthly discharge data from 1960 to 2011 for all 15 catchments were provided by the Yellow River Conservancy Commission. Daily meteorological data for the period from 1960 to 2011 at 123 stations in and near the study area were obtained from the China Meteorological Administration and consist of air temperature, wind speed, and relative humidity data. Daily *EPen*, *Erad* and *P* were calculated for each site, then were summed to obtain monthly values and spatially interpolated to obtain monthly averages on a catchment-scale by using the Kriging interpolation algorithm. Finally, monthly averages of *EPen*, *Erad* and *P* were summed to obtain annual values.

# *2.2. Methods*

Actual evaporation in the 15 catchments was calculated using the annual water balance equation, based on the water year, which aims at minimizing the water storage change in the catchments [\(Berghuijs and](#page-6-8) [Woods, 2016; Carmona et al., 2014; Ning et al., 2017; Scott and](#page-6-8) [Biederman, 2019; Sivapalan et al., 2011](#page-6-8)).

<span id="page-2-1"></span>
$$
E_{obs} = P - R - \Delta S \tag{6}
$$

In Eq. [\(6\),](#page-2-1) *P*, *R*, and *ΔS* are annual precipitation, runoff, and the water storage change in a catchment, respectively. Water-balance-derived *E* was regarded as the 'observed' actual evaporation  $(E_{obs})$ . *P* was

spatially averaged for each catchment from 123 meteorological sites, *R* was obtained from the outlet stations in the 15 catchments and the change in water storage was negligible in a water year.

The water year is defined by the American Meteorological Society (AMS; [http://glossary.ametsoc.org/wiki/Water\\_year\)](http://glossary.ametsoc.org/wiki/Water_year) as being from the beginning of the rainy season (soil moisture recharge) until the end of the season of maximum soil moisture utilization. However, the maximum evapotranspiration season is also in the rainy season because of rain and heat over the same period in the Loess Plateau, so the hydrological year ends with the end of the dry season which follows the rainy season. Thus, a period from May to the following April is defined as a water year on the Loess Plateau since the starting month for rainy season is May.

In this study, parameters of the generalized complementary functions were optimized by minimizing the mean absolute error (MAE) of the modeled and water-balance-derived *E* using the meteorological and hydrological data from 1960 to 2011. The GNAA was evaluated using three schemes: calibrating  $\alpha_e$  with a fixed  $c = 0$ , calibrating *c* with a fixed  $\alpha_e = 1.26$ , and calibrating both *c* and  $\alpha_e$ . Three parameter-calibrated schemes were also adopted for the SGCF: calibrating *m* and *n* with  $x_{min} = 0$  and  $x_{max} = 1$ ; calibrating *m*, *n*, and  $x_{max}$  with  $x_{min} = 0$ ; and calibrating all four parameters  $(m, n, x_{min}, x_{max})$ . Evaporation estimation performances were evaluated by their determination coefficients (*R2* ), MAE, root mean square error (RMSE), and Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency coefficient (NSE) between the modeled *E* and the observed *E*. The algorithms of  $R^2$ , MAE, RMSE, and NSE are:

$$
R^{2} = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (E_{mol,i} - \overline{E}_{mol})(E_{obs,i} - \overline{E}_{obs})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (E_{mol,i} - \overline{E}_{mol})^{2}} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (E_{obs,i} - \overline{E}_{obs})^{2}}\right)^{2}
$$
(7)

$$
MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |E_{mol,i} - E_{obs,i}|}{n}
$$
 (8)

$$
RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (E_{mol,i} - E_{obs,i})^2}{n}}
$$
(9)

$$
NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (E_{mol,i} - E_{obs,i})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (E_{obs,i} - E_{obs})^2}
$$
(10)

where *i* and *n* denote the time series and length of the time sequence, respectively, and *Emol,i* and *Eobs,i* are modeled values and observed values, respectively.

#### **3. Results**

#### *3.1. Relationship between annual*  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  *and*  $E/E_{Pen}$

For all 15 catchments, the annual  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  and  $E/E_{Pen}$  are within a narrow range of [0.55, 0.73] and a broad range of [0.02, 0.73], respectively. Significant linear relationships between  $E/E_{Pen}$  and  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$ exist for all catchments; correlation coefficients range from 0.52 to 0.77, with a mean value of 0.69 ([Table 1](#page-2-0)). The results from four example catchments located in the south (C1), east (C2), west (C6), and northern (C12) regions of the Loess Plateau are shown in [Fig. 2](#page-3-0). The linear relationship also exists for all catchments on the interannual scale ([Fig. 3\)](#page-3-1).

#### *3.2. Effects of different parameterization methods in the GNAA*

For the annual data from all catchments, by setting  $c = 0$ , the optimized  $\alpha_e$  of the GNAA was 0.74 [\(Table 2](#page-3-2)) and the corresponding complementary curve of the GNAA does not fit the observed values well ([Fig. 3](#page-3-1)). Most points are located below the GNAA curve with  $\alpha_e = 1$  and *c* = 0, implying that the calibrated  $\alpha_e$  would be less than unity if  $c = 0$ . If *αe* is set to 1.26, the optimized *c* of the GNAA is 17.05 and the fitting

<span id="page-3-0"></span>

Fig. 2. Plots of annual  $E/E_{Pen}$  with respect to  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  for four selected catchments, calculated according to the generalized nonlinear advection-aridity function (GNAA), sigmoid generalized complementary function (SGCF), and advection-aridity (AA) function.

<span id="page-3-1"></span>

Fig. 3. Plots of annual  $E/E_{Pen}$  with respect to  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  for all 15 catchments in the Loess Plateau compared with the GNAA for different parameterization schemes.

#### <span id="page-3-2"></span>**Table 2**

Calibrated parameters and performances of the generalized nonlinear advection-aridity function (GNAA) and the sigmoid generalized complementary function (SGCF) using three parameter-constrained schemes.

	<b>GNAA</b>				SGCF					
		$\alpha_e$ c $\mathbb{R}^2$ MAE $\alpha_e$ 1/b $x_{min}$ $x_{max}$ $\mathbb{R}^2$ MAE								
		Case 1 0.74 0 0.21 78.4 1.17 1.77 0 1 0.51 59.3								
		Case 2 1.26 17.05 0.55 107.1 1.17 1.78 0 0.96 0.51 59.3								
		Case 3 1.09 6.94 0.52 58.9 1.14 1.47 0.51 0.87 0.52 58.8								
$AA*$								1.13 1.39 0.52 0.88 0.52 58.8		

Note: the advection-aridity (AA) function is regarded as a special case of the SGCF where  $x_{min} = 1/[\alpha_e(1 + b)]$  and  $x_{max} = 1/\alpha_e$ .

degree of the GNAA curve to the observed data increases significantly. However, the simulated  $E/E_{Pen}$  would be less than zero if  $E_{rad}$  $E_{Pen}$  < 0.58. The fitting degree of the GNAA curve to the observed data would further increase if both *αe* and *c* were calibrated (1.09 and 6.94, respectively) and the curve was above  $y = 0$  if  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen} > 0.49$  ( $x_{min}$ ) in [Fig. 3](#page-3-1)). The curve within the range of the observed data approaches a straight line.

#### *3.3. Effects of different parameterization methods in the SGCF*

For fixed  $x_{min} = 0$  and  $x_{max} = 1$ , the SGCF with calibrated *m* and *n* values fits the observed data well ([Fig. 4](#page-3-3)). The calibrated  $\alpha_e$  was 1.17, which is located in a reasonable range of the Priestley-Taylor coefficient. The curve shows little change if  $x_{max}$  is added for calibration (the calibrated value of  $x_{max}$  is 0.96). However, the two curves of the SGCF with  $x_{min} = 0$  depart from the lower parts of the scatter plots. The fit of the SGCF curve is improved if  $x_{min}$  is also added for calibration ([Table 2](#page-3-2)). Calibrated  $x_{min}$  and  $x_{max}$  values were 0.51 and 0.87, respectively, which are outside their recommended ranges at a daily timescale. Similar results were found for the four selected catchments ([Fig. 2\)](#page-3-0). The SGCF curve with four calibrated parameters was nearly equal to the linear AA curves for all 15 catchments.

<span id="page-3-3"></span>

Fig. 4. Plots of annual  $E/E_{Pen}$  with respect to  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  for all 15 catchments in the Loess Plateau compared with the SGCF using different parameterization schemes. The red dotted line represents the theoretical line of the AA function.

<span id="page-4-0"></span>



### *3.4. Annual evaporation estimation performances of GNAA and SGCF*

The performances of GNAA and SGCF, as well as the AA model, were compared for modeling annual *E* for the 15 catchments of the Loess Plateau [\(Table 3](#page-4-0)), and their optimized parameters are shown in [Table 4](#page-4-1). Generally, the discrepancies among the three complementary functions for actual evaporation estimation are small. The SGCF performed better than the GNAA and AA functions for most of the catchments. The relative errors of the simulated *E* and water-balance-derived *E* were 0.11–4.7%, 0.02–3.7%, and 0.02–3.73% for the GNAA, SGCF, and AA models in the 15 catchments, respectively. The two catchments (C3, C4) in the northern region were characterized by much smaller  $R^2$ and NSE values than the other catchments, which might reflect their smaller areas and the fact that they contained no meteorological sites.

The ranges of parameters  $\alpha_e$  and *c* of the GNAA were [0.91, 1.18] and [2.73, 11.18], respectively; the ranges of parameter  $\alpha_e$  and  $b^{-1}$  for the AA model were [0.89, 1.24] and [0.58, 2.25], respectively. For the SGCF, the range of parameter  $\alpha_e$  was [1.03,1.27] with an average value of 1.15; the ranges of parameter *b−1, xmin* and *xmax* were [1.05, 2.78], [0.16, 0.54] and [0.78, 0.98], respectively. In catchments C6, C10, C11, and C13, the optimized  $\alpha_e$  of SGCF was approximately 1.26 ([Table 4\)](#page-4-1).

<span id="page-4-1"></span>**Table 4** Optimized parameters for the GNAA, SGCF, and AA functions.

#### **4. Discussion**

# *4.1. Priestley-Taylor coefficient in generalized complementary functions*

The Priestley-Taylor coefficient *αe* is the common parameter in complementary functions and has been thought to range from 1.0 to 1.5 ([Brutsaert and Chen, 1995\)](#page-6-9). It was reported that calibrated values of *αe* for the AA model were 1.18, 1.00, and 1.04 in Central Sweden, Eastern China, and Northwestern Cyprus, respectively [\(Xu and Singh, 2005](#page-7-6)), and that the average of parameter  $\alpha_e$  for the AA model was 1.18 using the First International Field Experiment data ([Szilagyi, 2007\)](#page-7-7). In four different climate and land use types in Australia, *αe* calibrated for the GNAA ranged from 1.04 to 1.19 ([Zhang et al., 2017\)](#page-7-8), while it ranged from 1.01 to 1.02 for three heights in the semi-humid regions of the Loess Plateau ([Brutsaert et al., 2017](#page-6-6)), and from 0.98 to 1.1 for four sites with differing elevations on Gongga mountain, southwest of China [\(Hu](#page-7-9) [et al., 2018](#page-7-9)). Mean values of  $\alpha_e = 1.12$  and 1.13 were determined from observational data using the modified GNAA for the whole China ([Ma](#page-7-10) [et al., 2019\)](#page-7-10) and for 334 basins in the United States ([Szilagyi et al.,](#page-7-11) [2017\)](#page-7-11). [Han and Tian \(2018\)](#page-6-4) obtained the ranges of *αe* to [0.9, 1.29] for the GNAA and [0.97, 1.40] for the SGCF with constraining  $x_{min} = 0$  and  $x_{max} = 1$  at 20 flux stations in different representative biomes. For the Tibetan Plateau, China, the *αe* calibrated for the SGCF is 1.02 ( [Ma et al.,](#page-7-12)



Note:  $x_{min}$  of GNAA is equal to[2c-1-(1 + 4c)<sup>1/2</sup>]/(2c $\alpha_e$ ) [\(Liu et al., 2020](#page-7-13));  $x_{min}$  in the AA model was calculated by the same manner as in [Table 2.](#page-3-2)

[2015a\)](#page-7-12), while it became 1.13 for AA model [\(Ma et al., 2015b](#page-7-14)). In this study, the averages calibrated by the GNAA, SGCF, and AA with annual data from the Loess Plateau were 1.07, 1.15 and 1.11, respectively, which are approximately consistent with previous studies. The calibrated *αe* from the SGCF was closest to the widely accepted value of 1.26.

Although it has been reported that the sensitivity of parameter  $\alpha_e$  to *E* is greater than that of parameter *c* to *E* [\(Liu et al., 2016; Szilagyi et al.,](#page-7-4) [2017\)](#page-7-4), the relative variations in calibrated parameter  $\alpha_e$  for the 15 catchments were less than those of  $c$  (*or b<sup>-1</sup>*). The optimized  $\alpha_e$  varies for the 15 catchments with a standard deviation (SD) of 0.07 and a coefficient of variation  $(C_v)$  of 0.06 for GNAA, which is much less than the values of  $c$  (with SD of 1.95 and  $C_v$  of 0.29, respectively). Similar results were also found for the SGCF and AA functions, in which the  $(SD, C_v)$ for *αe* are (0.07, 0.06) and (0.08, 0.08), respectively, and those for *b-1* are (0.54, 0.32) and (0.39, 0.28), respectively. The relatively stable *αe* suggests that generalized complementary functions may be used with a constant *αe* ([Han et al., 2012\)](#page-7-3).

GNAA is a nonlinear improvement based on the linear AA model and more boundary conditions. The linear AA function could be regarded as a special case of the SGCF, and the parameters of the SGCF were estimated with the aid of AA model because the complementary curves are approximately linear when  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  is neither excessively large nor excessively small [\(Han and Tian, 2018](#page-6-4)). Therefore, there is an intrinsic connection among the three models. The three functions are approximately equivalent under conditions neither too dry nor too wet. Therefore, the calibrated  $\alpha_e$  values from the three models are significantly correlated: with correlation coefficients of 0.72 between the GNAA and SGCF, 0.95 between the GNAA and AA, and 0.64 between the SGCF and AA. In this study, the performances of the GNAA, SGCF, and AA for estimating annual evaporation rates with fixed *αe* (1.07, 1.15, and 1.11, respectively) from 15 catchments were also evaluated. Few differences in model performances were observed among the three models, with mean MAE increasing from 53.0, 52.9, and 52.3 to 54.3, 53.6, and 54.7 mm, respectively ([Table 3 and 5\)](#page-4-0). If  $\alpha_e$  is set as a constant value, the burden of parameter calibration for generalized complementary functions is reduced, with acceptable performances weakening.

#### 4.2. Lower limit of  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$

The lower limit of  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  is controversial in the use of complementary functions. Zero is generally regarded as the lower limit for *Erad/EPen* in the GNAA and in the original version of the SGCF [\(Han](#page-7-3) [et al., 2012](#page-7-3)). However,  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  does not necessarily equal zero when  $E/E_{Pen} = 0$ , as it is almost impossible for  $E_{Pen}$  to reach infinity for a certain large *Erad* [\(Crago et al., 2016; Crago and Qualls, 2018; Szilagyi](#page-6-10) [et al., 2017](#page-6-10)). In the SGCF, the lower limit was modified to  $E/E_{Pen} = 0$  at  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen} = x_{min}$ . At short timescales (daily or hourly),  $x_{min}$  may approach zero when the energy input is small; however,  $x_{min}$  would be much larger than zero at longer timescales as *Erad* is much larger than zero ([Han and Tian, 2018\)](#page-6-4). The minimum values of observed annual  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen}$  ranged from 0.52 to 0.73 with a mean value of 0.64 for the 15 catchments in the Loess Plateau. The optimized *xmin* of the SGCF ranged from 0.16 to 0.54, with a mean value of 0.38. The inclusion of  $x_{min}$ improved the performance of the SGCF when estimating annual evaporation.

One of four boundary conditions in the GNAA requires that the start point of the curve is the origin, i.e.,  $E/E_{Pen} = 0$  at  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen} = 0$ . However, the curve has two intersection points on the horizontal axis if *c* is larger than 2 ([Fig. 3\)](#page-3-1). Thus, the second intersection point should be used as the starting point, which corresponds to the boundary condition of  $E/E_{Pen} = 0$  at  $E_{rad}/E_{Pen} = x_{min}$  [\(Liu et al., 2020\)](#page-7-13). The  $x_{min}$  values of the GNAA for each catchment are shown in [Table 4](#page-4-1) and range from 0.2 to 0.55, with an average of 0.46.

# *4.3. Impact of spatial interpolation methods on parameters*

Meteorological data from observation sites were used to calculate daily  $E_{rad}$  (or  $E_{Pen}$ ) in this study, and then monthly  $E_{rad}$  (or  $E_{Pen}$ ) and P were interpolated using the Kriging algorithm, which is called the "calculate-then-interpolate" method. However, some researchers spatially average the meteorological data first, then calculate daily and even annual  $E_{rad}$  (or  $E_{Pen}$ ), which is called the "interpolate-then-calculate" method. However, the latter method accumulates the interpolation error of the input variables; in contrast, the former method only interpolates once and thus introduces smaller errors ([Mardikis et al.,](#page-7-15) [2005\)](#page-7-15). In addition, different interpolation algorithms have little effect on the parameters. For example, the CoKriging interpolation method, based on the Kriging method with elevation as an additional input, was used to spatially average *EPen* (denoted *EPen-CoK*), *Erad* (denoted *Erad-CoK*), and *P* (denoted  $P_{CoK}$ ). The MAE of  $E_{Pen}$ ,  $E_{rad}$ , and *P* between those obtained by the Kriging and CoKriging interpolation algorithms were 8.9 mm/year, 3.7 mm/year, and 10.8 mm/year, respectively, for all 15 catchments [\(Table A.1\)](#page-6-11), which are less than the uncertainties in parameter calibration obtained using the minimizing MAE (approximately 53 mm) between  $E_{obs}$  and  $E_{mol}$  ([Table 3\)](#page-4-0). Moreover, when  $E_{Pen-Cok}$ ,  $E_{rad}$ .  $_{Cok}$ , and  $P_{Cok}$  were used to calibrate the parameters of the GNAA, SGCF and AA ([Table A.1](#page-6-11)), the mean  $\alpha_e$  and *c* in the GNAA,  $\alpha_e$ , 1/*b*,  $x_{min}$  and *xmax* in the SCGF, and *αe* and 1/*b* in the AA were (1.05, 5.95), (1.14,







1.61, 0.21, 0.94) and (1.07, 1.23) for all catchments, respectively, which were similar to the values in [Table 4.](#page-4-1) Only in a few catchments, such as the Gushanchuan, Kushui and Sanchuan, there were obvious parameter differences. Furthermore, additional high-precision grid meteorological data are now available, which would benefit accurate calculation of  $E_{rad}$  (or  $E_{Pen}$ , *P*, etc.) and parameter estimations at a catchment scale.

# **5. Conclusions**

Two generalized complementary functions, the GNAA and the SGCF, were validated and compared with annual water-balance-derived data from 15 catchments in the Loess Plateau, China. For the GNAA at an annual timescale, it is necessary to optimize parameters  $\alpha_e$  and  $c$  to accurately estimate annual *E*. For the SGCF at an annual scale, the upper and lower limits of the SGCF need to be constrained when estimating *E*. After calibration, the SGCF performs a little better than the GNAA, and the calibrated  $\alpha_e$  from the SGCF is closer to 1.26 than that of the GNAA. As relative variations in  $\alpha_e$  are much smaller than in other parameters, the generalized complementary functions have the potential to be applied with  $\alpha_e$  set as a constant value with little weakening of the model performance. This allows for a reduced burden of parameter

#### **Appendix**

<span id="page-6-11"></span>**Table A.1**

calibration.

#### **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**Haixiang Zhou:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft. **Songjun Han:** Software, Validation, Writing - review & editing. **Wenzhao Liu:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing.

# **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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*EPen, Erad* and *P* variables interpolated using the CoKriging method and its corresponding optimized parameters for the GNAA, SGCF, and AA models.



Note:  $E_{Pen-Cok}$ ,  $E_{rad-Cok}$  and  $P_{Cok}$  denote the spatially-averaged apparent potential evaporation, radiation term and Precipitation by using the CoKriging algorithm for each catchment.

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