# Analysis of the Diurnal Pattern of Evaporative Fraction and Its Controlling Factors over Croplands in the Northern China

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# Abstract

A key issue of applying remotely sensed data to estimate evapotranspiration (ET) for water management is extrapolating instantaneous latent heat flux (LE) at satellite over-passing time to daily ET total. At present, the most commonly used extrapolation methods have the same assumption that evaporative fraction (EF) can be treated as constant during daytime (so-called EF self-preservation). However, large errors are reported by many documents over various ecosystems with the same approach, which indicates that further analysis of the diurnal pattern of EF is still necessary. The aim of this study is to examine the diurnal pattern of EF under fair weather conditions, then to analyze the dependencies of EF to meteorological and plant factors. Long-term flux observations at four sites over semi-arid and semi-humid climate regions in the northern China are used to analyze the EF diurnal pattern. Results show that the EF self-preservation assumption no longer holds over growing seasons of crops. However, the ratio of reference ET to available energy is almost constant during the daytime, which implies the climate factors do not have much effect on the variability of EF. The analysis of diurnal pattern of air temperature, vapor pressure deficiency (VPD), and relative humidity (RH) confirms the assumption that ET diurnal pattern is mainly influenced by stomatal regulation.

Key words: evaporative fraction, daily evapotranspiration, meteorological factor, vegetation fraction, northern China

# INTRODUCTION

Evapotranspiration (ET) is one of the most important components of energy and water balances in agricultural ecosystem (Burba and Verma 2005). Accurate ET estimation is of crucial importance for water resource management, especially over croplands in semiarid and semi-humid climate, because agriculture consumes about 80% of the available water in the northern China (Yang *et al.* 2004). Remote sensing data can provide surface parameters of both continuous spatial coverage and acceptable recurrence interval of 1-2 d for polar-orbiting satellite and tens of minutes for geostationary platforms (Kustas *et al.* 2004), thus it becomes an effective approach in estimating ET at regional scale. Recently, remote sensing ET models proposed for estimating regional or global actual ET have an explosive growth (e.g., Bastiaanssen *et al.* 1998; Su 2002; Allen *et al.* 2007; Sànchez *et al.* 2008). However, one of the key issues of applying remote sensing data to estimate regional ET involves the scaling from instantaneous latent heat flux (LE) at satellite over-passing time (e.g., Landsat, 10:00 a.m.; ASTER, 11:30 a.m.; AVHRR, 14:00 p.m.) to daily ET total, because daily ET is usually required for agricultural water management. The most practical solution is extrapolating the instantaneous LE calculated from remote sens-

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ing models to daily scale by a general and robust method (Hoedjes *et al.* 2008).

Many ET extrapolation approaches have been well documented, such as sine function method (Jackson et al. 1983; Zhang and Lemeur 1995), constant evaporative fraction method (Sugita and Brutsaert 1991), and constant reference ET fraction method (Allen et al. 2007), etc. Detailed instruction of scaling from instantaneous ET to daytime integrated value was presented by Li et al. (2009). Among those approaches, the most commonly accepted method is constant evaporative fraction (EF) method, which assumes the EF is constant during the daytime (so called self-preservation of EF). EF is define as the ratio between LE and the available energy (EF=LE/( $R_n$ -G)), which is an important indicator of the surface hydrological history (Shuttleworth et al. 1989). Many experimental studies over various vegetation species verified the self-preservation of EF (Brutsaert and Sugita 1992; Crago 1996; Crago and Brutsaert 1996), and demonstrated the high correlation between EF in the midday and the whole daytime, despite some underestimation existed in the range of 5-10% (Sugita and Brutsaert 1991; Kustas et al. 1993; Nichols and Cuenca 1993). However, unacceptable large errors were reported by Stewart (1996) in estimating daily ET by constant EF method, and he concluded many variables controlling the EF diurnal pattern which needed further analyzed. To date, detailed analysis of EF diurnal pattern and its controlling factors have been extensively studied by models or by experiments. A typical concave-up shape for EF was reported by Lhomme and Elguero (1999), and the diurnal pattern of EF was demonstrated affected by complicated variables such as vegetation coverage, soil moisture, stomatal conductance, etc. (Suleiman and Crago 2004; Li et al. 2006; Gentine et al. 2007). However, most of the previous studies on EF were only able to study the diurnal EF pattern during a few days (no more than a season), or merely by scenario analyses based on a model; while a comprehensive understanding of the general pattern of diurnal EF needs a long term experiment and analysis over variant land covers and climates. Li et al. (2008) examined the pattern of vineyard EF by eddy covariance technique over the arid desert region of Northwest China and pointed out that further analysis and research of the EF

diurnal pattern is still necessary in various agricultural lands in China.

The present study has two objectives of (1) examining the diurnal pattern of EF over typical croplands in the northern China and (2) analyzing the discrepancies of EF to meteorological parameters and plant physiology. We choose northern China as our study area because few studies of the EF diurnal pattern have been done in this area, which is the major grain production area and is facing severe water scarcity. To this end, long term observation of energy fluxes associated with meteorological parameters were carried out at four flux sites over different land covers and climates in the northern China. We first analyze the general pattern using the long term EF diurnal pattern at the four sites. Then we analyze the influence factors of EF by separating the factors into climate factors and plant factors.

# **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

## Hydrometeorological conditions of the four sites

Soil moisture availability and vegetation canopy condition are the two main dominant factors of EF (Gentine et al. 2007). Mean level of the soil water content (SWC) in region 1 is higher than that in region 2 (Fig. 1) because of the lack of precipitation and irrigation in region 2. The seasonal pattern of the SWC in region 1 is relatively gentle throughout the year, although most of the precipitation concentrated in the maize growing seasons (Fig. 1-A and B). This is mainly because the accommodation of irrigation during the wheat growing seasons, and owing to this, the SWC is generally higher than the moisture stress threshold (0.22 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>) during the crop growing seasons. In Weishan site, the interannual variation is rather small due to the adjustment of irrigation (Fig. 1-A), in spite of the drought year in 2006 (total precipitations of 274 mm). In Tongyu site however, acute variability of SWC is found, because the SWC is sensitive to precipitation (Fig. 1-C and D). The total precipitation of 2004 is only 182 mm, and the SWC is at a low level in both crop land and grass land all year round.

In region 1, the fractional coverage reaches its maximum at the vigorous vegetative seasons except for 2006



**Fig. 1** Weekly averaged soil water content (SWC) at different sites. A, Weishan site (0-20 cm averaged). B, Luancheng site (0-40 cm averaged). C, Tongyu site on crop land (0-20 cm averaged). D, Tongyu site of grass land (0-10 cm averaged).

because of drought (Fig. 2-A and B). The trough appears in June, which is the crop rotation period between the wheat and maize seasons. The fractional coverage increases again in November because of the emergence of winter wheat, and then decreases when winter wheat goes to dormancy. In region 2, the fractional coverage is very low in the dry season (October to the following May) and even in wet season, the fractional coverage can hardly reach its maximum (Fig. 2-C and D). The inter-annual variation is dramatic, and in the year 2004, the maximum fractional coverage is merely 0.5 and 0.6 for cropland and grassland, respectively. Vegetation cover and soil moisture level greatly affect the ratio of soil evaporation to total evapotranspiration. In region 1, the transpiration during the vigorous vegetative months can take up 70% of the total ET (Liu *et al.* 2002). Thus in Tongyu site, we can come in to a conclusion that the ratio of soil evaporation to the total ET is larger than that in Weishan and Luancheng sites.

## Diurnal pattern of measured EF

All the data in the four sites are used to examine the diurnal pattern of EF. Figs. 3 and 4 show the diurnal ensemble mean value of EF during the daytime in regions 1 and 2, respectively. In the vigorous vegetative season, EF presents an increasing pattern during daytime, despite some inter-annual change within these years. For example, between the turning-green stage



Fig. 2 Fractional coverage ( $f_c$ ) of at different sites. A, Weishan site. B, Luancheng site. C, Tongyu site on crop land. D, Tongyu site of grass land.

to the harvest time of wheat growing season in region 1 (Fig. 3-C and E), the EF increased notably from sunrise to sunset in both sites. In these figures, the EF increases continuously during the day, except a decrease at the first hour after the sunrise which might be contributed to the unstable flux in the morning. Same pattern of EF is found in the whole maize growing season in the same region (Fig. 3-G-I), but the EF increases slowly at most of the day and then increases rapidly a few hours before sunset. In region 2, however, only in July and August does the EF pattern similar as what shows in region 1 (Fig. 4-G-H), which are the months with the most precipitation and thus the vegetation is the most vigorous. In the remaining three months of the growing season (Fig. 4-E, Fand I), the EF is nearly constant in the most time of the day and increases sharply in the late afternoon. Experiments of EF diurnal patterns are also made by other researchers over different landcover, but the increasing pattern of EF has not been reported. Caparrini *et al.* (2004) conducted a three months' experiment over a grass land and found out that the EF was nearly constant from 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. Chehbouni *et al.* (2008) measured daily pattern of EF over maize and wheat fields, but a typical concave-up shape for EF variation was found from the results. The different diurnal pattern of EF indicates that the reason is need to be explored.

On the other hand, the EF is nearly constant during



Fig. 3 Monthly mean value of EF diurnal pattern in region 1. W, Weishan site; L, Luancheng site.

near-peak radiation hours in the non-vegetation months over both regions. For example, in the December and the following January in region 1 (Fig. 3-A and L), and the dry seasons in region 2 (Fig. 4-A-D and J-L), the landcover is almost bare soil and the height of the plants is less than 5 cm, respectively. This result is similar to the former researchers, as Hoedjes *et al.* (2008) found that when the Bowen ratio is higher than 1.5 (i.e., EF lower than 0.4), the EF is relatively constant despite some variation, and attributed the reason to the dry weather conditions. Li *et al.* (2008) also reported the constant EF over a vineyard in the arid region. But in region 1 of the present experiments, the EF diurnal pattern is still relatively constant in June (i.e., the intermittent of the wheat and maize) when the weather is rather wet while the landcover is almost bare soil (Fig. 4-F). Similar results were reported by Stewart (1996) over savannah and open forest in a semi-humid region. The diurnal EF increased prominent in the open forest but not so much in savannah, and the month-to-month variation in open forest was larger than that for savannah.

According to the result at the present experiment, two conclusions can be drawn. First, the magnitude of EF varies from site to site, and year to year, which reflects the influences of meteorological factors as mentioned in the former section. Second, the assumption of the self-conservation of EF during daytime hours is only valid under bare soil landcover condition, while



Fig. 4 Monthly mean value of EF diurnal pattern in region 2. TC, Tongyu crop land site; TG, Tongyu grass land site.

an increasing diurnal pattern is observed for vegetation landcover. Moreover, the more vigorously the vegetation grows, the sharper the EF diurnal shape is. Therefore, the approach of the self-preservation assumption to all surface conditions may induce large bias in extrapolating daily ET.

## EF diurnal pattern dependencies

Figs. 5 and 6 show the ensemble mean value of diurnal pattern of  $\text{ET}_r\text{F}$  in region 1 and region 2, respectively. Same pattern is found in both of the two regions that the  $\text{ET}_r\text{F}$  is relatively constant during the daytime with

a slightly increasing trend, though the magnitude varied from month to month. Compared with  $ET_rF$  diurnal pattern, the EF diurnal pattern has a similar pattern during non-vegetation cover seasons, because the stomatal regulation is rather weak due to the lack of vegetation. But the magnitude of EF is commonly lower than that of  $ET_r$ , as an aggregate result of the soil water stress and vegetation coverage, for the crop efficient  $K_c$  is mainly influenced by these two factors. In the vegetative season, however, the EF diurnal pattern is quite different from that of the  $ET_rF$ , and shows an obvious seasonal characteristic. For region 1, in the wheat and maize vigorous seasons (March-May, July-October),



Fig. 5 Monthly mean value of the ratio of ET,F diurnal pattern in region 1. W, Weishan site; L, Luancheng site.

the EF is smaller than  $ET_rF$  in the morning, and surpasses it around noon time. While in region 2, the EF can hardly catch up with  $ET_rF$  during the daytime, except the last few hours before sunset. The differences in the magnitude of EF in regions 1 and 2 show the differences in soil moisture content, that is to say, in region 2, the vegetation is more likely to suffer from the soil moisture stress, and the transpiration of the vegetation is inhibited. Trezza (2002) proposed the hypothesis that the relationship between actual ET and reference  $ET_r$  remained constant during the daytime, and validated the hypothesis over grassland and sugar beets land with a lysimeter. This approach was further applied by Allen *et al.* (2007) in the METRIC model. In the present study, however, the approach is adaptable in non-vegetation seasons, but is with large biases in vegetation seasons. The result is reasonable because this approach does not take the stomatal control into account, which may cause errors in vegetation seasons.

We attribute the difference of diurnal pattern between EF and ET<sub>r</sub>F to the stomatal control, which is quantified as stomatal resistance  $(r_s)$ . The direct measurement or the robust estimation of  $r_s$  are difficult, but the  $r_s$  has an robust correlation with the canopy resistance  $(r_c)$  excluded the effect of other factors such as vapor pressure deficiency (VPD), wind speed and soil evapo-



Fig. 6 Monthly mean value of the ratio of ET<sub>r</sub>F diurnal pattern in region 2. TC, Tongyu crop land site; TG, Tongyu grass land site.

ration (Irmak *et al.* 2008), so the stomatal control can be reflected by the variance of  $r_c$ . However, the direct observation of  $r_c$  is unavailable in our study, so we speculate the possible diurnal pattern of  $r_c$  by analyzing the diurnal pattern of meteorological variables which are strongly relevant to  $r_c$ . According to Irmak and Mutiibwa (2010), the prominent relevant variables of  $r_c$ are the leaf area index (LAI), air temperature ( $T_a$ ), net radiation ( $R_n$ ), and VPD, which are either with high correlation coefficient and definite trend; as well as relative humidity (RH), with lower deterministic coefficient but clear trend. The LAI has the most prominent relationship with  $r_c$ , but the response of  $r_c$  to LAI appears at the seasonal scale rather than at the diurnal scale. Responded by  $R_n$ , the  $r_c$  should decrease in the afternoon, due to the large magnitude of stomatal closure at lower  $R_n$ ; however, it is possible that  $r_c$  does not respond to the changes in  $R_n$  due to the control of  $r_c$  by other microclimatological variables. General trend of decreasing  $r_c$  with increasing  $T_a$  and VPD is reported, while the increasing RH will cause the increasing  $r_c$ .

The diurnal patterns of  $T_a$ , VPD and RH in the vegetation growing seasons in the two regions are presented in Figs. 7-9. The mean value of the whole vig-

orous growing season (i.e., March to May for wheat and July to September for maize in region 1, and June to September in region 2) is used. The  $T_{a}$  rises persistently before noon, and the increasing rate slows down after 12:00 a.m. The peak point happens three hours after the high noon, and after that, the  $T_{a}$  decreases slightly after that, but still remains at the high magnitude. Although the interannual variance of  $T_a$  is large in region 2 due to the large difference of precipitation in region 2, the pattern is similar (Fig. 7-C). The results showed that, despite the magnitude of  $T_a$  varies from different site, the diurnal pattern is similar regardless of the precipitation. Since  $T_a$  has a negative relation to  $r_c$ , the diurnal pattern of  $T_a$  implies that the  $r_c$  might be high in the morning, and decreases to a lower magnitude in the afternoon. The VPD has the same diurnal pattern as the  $T_a$ , with the maximum value comes around 3:00 p.m. Same pattern was also reported by Barton et al.

(2010), and he also confirmed that  $r_c$  will decrease with the increase of VPD because the VPD is also negative related to  $r_c$ . The RH has the opposite trend with  $T_a$  and VPD, but the RH is positive related to  $r_c$  according to Imark and Mutiibwa's results (Imark and Mutiibwa 2010), which also adds weight to the assumption that  $r_c$  decreases in the day. Similar pattern was also found in other researches. Farah *et al.* (2004) proposed that EF was influenced by RH,  $T_a$  and VPD over woodland and grassland. Chehbouni *et al.* (2008) pointed out that RH is one of the most important factors influencing EF over olive orchard land.

The mechanism of the stomata is complicated because many factors can cause the changes in  $r_s$ . However, according to the analysis of meteorological variables having strong relationships with  $r_c$  and the difference between the diurnal pattern of EF and ET<sub>r</sub>F, the assumption that the stomata tend to restrain the





**Fig. 7** Mean value of  $T_a$  diurnal pattern at different sites. A, Wheat growing seasons in region 1. B, maize growing seasons in region 1. C, wet seasons in region 2.

**Fig. 8** Mean value of VPD diurnal pattern at different sites. A, wheat growing seasons in region 1. B, maize growing seasons in region 1. C, wet seasons in region 2.



**Fig. 9** Mean value of RH diurnal pattern at different sites. A, wheat growing seasons in region 1. B, maize growing seasons in region 1. C, wet seasons in region 2.

transpiration in the morning and promote it in the afternoon is confirmed in the two aspects.

## CONCLUSION

This study is aimed at analyzing and providing insights into general diurnal pattern of EF over croplands and grassland under variant climate conditions, namely semihumid and semi-arid regions. The long term continuous observations of flux at different sites show a drastic different pattern of EF in vegetation growing seasons, as the EF being the lowest at sunrise hour and increasing persistently throughout the daytime with a sharp increase a couple of hours before sunset. However, in non-vegetation seasons, the EF diurnal behavior shows a concave-up shape with a relatively constant EF in the most daytime period. Furthermore, the EF diurnal behavior is strongly dependent on soil water content and fractional coverage. Specifically as this: the larger fractional coverage excluded the soil water stress, the sharper increasing of EF diurnal pattern shows. Further analysis of ET F diurnal pattern dependencies shows that ET F diurnal pattern has a gentle and nearly constant behavior, which indicates that the weather effects have little influence on the behavior of EF diurnal pattern. We assume the discrepancy between EF and ETF diurnal pattern is due to the stomatal regulation. The diurnal pattern of air temperature, VPD, and relative humidity, which has strong effect on stomatal resistance, confirms this assumption. According to the EF diurnal behavior, the EF self-preservation method in extrapolating instantaneous LE into daily ET may not valid under certain condition, as the different over-passing time of various satellites can lead to absolutely different results and the method is no longer robust and universally applicable.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Site description

The study takes place in two regions in the northern China, North China Plain (region 1) and Northeast China Plain (region 2), respectively (Fig. 10). Region 1 has two flux sites, the Weishan flux site and the Luancheng flux site. The predominant crops on both sites are winter wheat and summer maize which were planted in rotation. The growing season of winter wheat runs from mid-October to the following late May, while that for maize is from late June to early October. Region 2 has Tongyu Long-Term Land Surface Processes Observational Station, which is one of the reference sites of the Coordinated Energy and Water Cycle Observation Project (new CEOP, www.ceop.net). The station has two observation sites located on the cropland surface and degraded grassland surface, separately. The main crop is maize mixed with sunflower cultivated from May to late September on the cropland surface; while in the remaining months, the land cover is bare soil. On the degraded grassland, the maximum height of the grass is 10 cm during the growing seasons (June to September), but in winter, the height becomes less than 5 cm. Both of the two regions have a temperate continental monsoon climate with four distinct seasons, and 70-80% of the annual precipitation confine to the summer (June to August). The farming system of croplands on Tongyu site is bringing in one harvest a year, same as the other area in the Northeast China Plain, which has regional representative in this region. The difference is that region 1 belongs to a semihumid climate zone with irrigation in wheat growing



Fig. 10 Site locations.

seasons, while region 2 belongs to a semi-arid climate zone and the lack of irrigation leads to a severe deficit of water. The two regions are selected because wheat and maize are major grain production of China, which account for 26 and 22% of the total areas and 21 and 26% of the total food production of China, respectively (Minstry of Agriculture, China 1999). Table 1 lists site descriptions, and more details of the site information are available in the literature (Shen *et al.* 2004; Liu *et al.* 2008; Lei and Yang 2010a).

#### Field measurements and data acquisition

Each of the four sites has an eddy covariance (EC) system to measure sensible heat flux and latent heat flux. Flux data in Weishan site are corrected for coordinate rotation, spec-

tral loss, density fluctuations, and sonic virtual temperature conversion by Lei and Yang (2010b). Fluxes in Luancheng are also adjusted for variations in air density due to the transfer of water vapor and sensible heat. The quality control is made in Tongyu site by using CEOP data Quality Control Interface System (QC-IF) (http://ceop-qc. tkl.iis.u-tokyo.ac.jp/QC/CEOP.html). Although inevitably energy unbalance around 20% is found in the EC system, the systematical error does not have a great effect on the diurnal pattern of EF. In order to avoid the impact of extra uncertainties in the process of enforcing energy balance closure, direct observations of the EC system are used in this study. Downward/upward solar and longwave radiations are measured separately and net radiation is then calculated. Soil heat flux is determined by averaging measurement profiles obtained near the flux sites, two for Weishan and Tongyu, and three for Luancheng. Volumetric soil water content is measured at the four sites at different depths with a neutron probe. Detailed flux measurements as well as meteorological parameters, including air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and precipitation, are listed in Table 2. For Luancheng site, meteorological parameters are obtained from the station of the Chinese Ecological Research Network which stands the same place as the flux site.

Normalized differential vegetation index (NDVI) data are used for the analysis of the vegetation cover condition. NDVI from the grids containing the flux sites during the study period are calculated from MODIS/Terra 8-day composite reflectance product (MOD09Q1) for the red and near infrared bands with a 250 m resolution, downloaded from the NASA Data Center (http://reverb.echo.nasa.gov/reverb/).

#### Data processing

Before assessing the EF diurnal pattern using the EC data, a data processing procedure is made to eliminate bad quality flux data. The self-preservation assumption is applied to daytime fluxes under fair weather conditions, so fluxes

Sites	Weishan	Luancheng	Tongyu	
Coordinates	116°03 E, 36°39 N	114°41′E, 37°53′N	122°52′E, 44°25′N	
Elevation	30 m a.s.1.	50 m a.s.l.	184 m a.s.l.	
Soil type	Silt loam	Loamy soil	Sandy loam	
Mean annual temperature	13.8°C <sup>1)</sup>	12.8°C <sup>3)</sup>	5.7°C <sup>6)</sup>	
Mean annual precipitation	553 mm <sup>1)</sup>	485 mm <sup>3)</sup>	388 mm <sup>6)</sup>	
Mean annual pan evaporation ( $\Phi$ 20)	1 950 mm <sup>2</sup> )	1 616 mm <sup>4)</sup>	1 879 mm <sup>4)</sup>	
Mean annual irrigation	215 mm <sup>1)</sup>	300-400 mm <sup>5</sup>	No irrigation	
Available data periods	2005.5-2008.12	2007.11-2008.9	2002.10-2004.12	

 $^{\scriptscriptstyle 1)}\ensuremath{\text{The}}\xspace$  values are the averages from 1990 to 2008.

<sup>2)</sup> The values are the averages from 1961 to 2005.

<sup>3)</sup> The values are the averages from 1960 to 2003.

<sup>4)</sup> The values are the averages from 1955 to 2001.

<sup>5)</sup> The data is quoted from literatures (Lei and Yang 2010; Shen et al. 2004).

<sup>6)</sup> The values are the averages from 1971 to 2000.

Site	Parameters	Instruments	Height/Depth1)	Interval	
Weishan	Sensible/latent heat flux	CSAT3, LI7500, Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, UT, USA	3.7 m	30 min	
	Downward/upward solar/longwave radiations	CNR-1, Kipp & Zonen, Delft, the Netherlands	3.5 m	10 min	
	Soil heat flux	HFP01SC, Hukseflux, Delft, the Netherlands	-0.03 m	10 min	
	Soil water content	TRIME-EZ/IT, IMKO, Ettlingen, Germany	-0.05/0.1/0.2 m	10 min	
	Air temperature and relative humidity	HMP45C, Vaisala Inc., Helsinki, Finland	3.6 m	10 min	
	Air pressure	Druck-CS115, Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, UT, USA	2.0 m	10 min	
	Wind speed	05103, Young Co., 120 Traverse City, MI, USA	10.0 m	10 min	
	Precipitation	TE525MM, Campbell Scientific Inc., 121 Logan, UT, USA	1.5 m	10 min	
Luancheng	Sensible/latent heat flux	CSAT3, LI7500 Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, UT, USA	3.3 m	1 h	
	Downward/upward solar/longwave radiations	CNR-1, Kipp & Zonen, Delft, the Netherlands	3.0 m	1 h	
	Soil heat flux	HFP01, Hukseflux, Delft, the Netherlands	-0.02 m	1 h	
Tongyu	Sensible/latent heat flux	CSAT3, LI7500, Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, UT, USA	3.5 m    2.0 m <sup>2</sup> )	30 min	
	Downward/upward solar/longwave radiations	CM21, Kipp & Zonen, Delft, the Netherlands	$3.0 \text{ m} \parallel 2.0 \text{ m}^{2)}$	30 min	
	Soil hear flux	HFP01SC_L50, Hukseflux, Delft, the Netherlands	-0.05/-0.10 m	30 min	
	Soil water content	CS616_L, Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, UT, USA	-0.05/0.1/0.2 m $\parallel$ -0.05/0.1 $m^{\scriptscriptstyle 2)}$	30 min	
	Air temperature	HMP, Vaisala Inc., Helsinki, Finland	$1.95 \ m \parallel 1.35 \ m^{_2)}$	30 min	
	Specific humidity	45C_L, Vaisala Inc., Helsinki, Finland	$1.95 \ m \parallel 1.35 \ m^{_2)}$	30 min	
	Air pressure	CS105, Texas Electronics, Inc., Dallas, TX, USA	1.5 m	30 min	
	Wind speed	034A_L, Met One Instruments, Inc., Rowlett, TX, USA	$17.06\ m \parallel 17.46\ m^{_{2)}}$	30 min	
	Precipitation	TE525MM_L, Texas Electronics, Inc., Dallas, TX, USA	1.0 m	30 min	

Table 2	Detailed	introductions	of in	situ	measurements	of	four	sites
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<sup>1)</sup>The minus sign means measurements below ground.

<sup>2)</sup>The left is for cropland site and the right is for grassland site.

in precipitation days are eliminated. The present study takes palace in different regions and covered all seasons, and the sunrise hour and the sunset hour might differ greatly. A variable timer line is used as we defined the daytime is the period when shortwave solar radiation is above 20 W m<sup>-2</sup>. Then, we eliminate the EF data which are out of the reasonable range proposed by Brotzge and Crawford (2003). Finally, a month-by-month spike detection is made. Specifically as this: any value that exceeds the mean value  $\pm 2.5$  times the standard deviation in a window of a month is labeled as spike (Mauder *et al.* 2006), looping until all the spikes are found out.

Fractional coverage  $(f_c)$  is used in this study to analyze the vegetation cover condition, which can be estimated from NDVI, as:

$$f_{\rm c} = \frac{NDVI - NDVI_{\rm min}}{NDVI_{\rm max} - NDVI_{\rm min}} \tag{1}$$

Where  $NDVI_{max}$  and  $NDVI_{min}$  are  $NDVI_{s}$  with 98% and 5% distributions, respectively. Suggested  $NDVI_{max}$  for wheat (also grass) and maize are 0.7909 and 0.7859, respectively, and that for  $NDVI_{min}$  is 0.051 for both wheat and maize (Lokupitiya *et al.* 2009). The NDVI data are preprocessed with the quality flags in the dataset to remove the cloud contaminant images. A twice filter smoothing algorithm is used to reduce the noise in the NDVI time series (Velleman 1980).

#### Method for analyzing EF diurnal pattern

Reference evapotranspiration  $(ET_r)$  associated with the crop coefficient  $(K_r)$  is one of the most widely known and em-

ployed ways for estimating consumptive use of water. The actual crop *ET* is thus estimated using  $ET_r$  multiplied by  $K_c$  as:

$$ET = K_c ET_r \tag{2}$$

In general, there are three primary characteristics in distinguish actual ET from  $ET_r$ : (i) the reflectance of the vegetation and soil surface to the radiation; (ii) aerodynamic roughness of the vegetation; and (iii) resistance within the vegetation canopy and soil surface in heat and momentum transfer. In the analysis of the diurnal pattern of EF, the first characteristic can be omitted because the EF is the ratio between ET and the radiation. The other two characteristics can be represented by  $ET_r$  and  $K_c$ , respectively, because ET, represents nearly all effects of weather, and  $K_{\rm a}$  varies predominately with specific crop characteristics and only a small amount with climate (Allen et al. 2005). In this study, we choose the reference evaporative fraction  $(ET_rF)$ , defined as the ratio between  $ET_r$  and available energy  $(ET_rF = ET_r/(R_p-G))$ , and the  $K_c$  as two major dependencies of the diurnal pattern of EF. However,  $K_{a}$  is an empirical coefficient which cannot be measured directly, so we use vegetation fraction and vegetation stomatal regulation instead. These variables have strong relationship with  $K_c$ . Here, we use  $ET_r$  calculated by the following equation recommended by Allen et al. (1998):

$$ET_{r} = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_{n}-G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T_{a}+273}u_{2}(e_{s}-e_{a})}{\Delta + \gamma(1+0.34u_{2})}$$
(3)

Where  $ET_r$  is in the unit of mm d<sup>-1</sup>,  $R_n$  and G are net radiation and soil heat flux, respectively (MJ m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>),  $T_a$  is the air temperature (°C),  $u_2$  is the wind speed at 2 m height (m s<sup>-1</sup>),  $e_s - e_a$  is the saturation vapor pressure deficit (kPa),  $\Delta$  is the slope vapor pressure curve (kPa/°C), and  $\gamma$  is the psychrometric constant (kPa/°C). All these parameters can be calculated from the meteorological measurements.

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